| 1 | Frequent intergenotypic recombination between the non-structural and structural |
|----|---|
| 2 | genes is a major driver of epidemiological fitness in caliciviruses |
| 3 | |
| 4 | Jackie E Mahar ^{1,2} , Maria Jenckel ² , Nina Huang ² , Elena Smertina ^{2,4} , Edward C Holmes ¹ , |
| 5 | Tanja Strive ^{2,3} , Robyn N Hall ^{2,3*} |
| 6 | 1. Marie Bashir Institute for Infectious Disease and Biosecurity, School of Life and |
| 7 | Environmental Sciences and School of Medical Sciences, The University of Sydney, |
| 8 | Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia. |
| 9 | 2. Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation, Health and Biosecurity, |
| 10 | Black Mountain, ACT 2601, Australia. |
| 11 | 3. Centre for Invasive Species Solutions, University of Canberra, Bruce, ACT 2617, |
| 12 | Australia. |
| 13 | 4. Faculty of Science and Technology, University of Canberra, Bruce, ACT 2617, Australia. |
| 14 | *Corresponding author: robyn.hall@csiro.au; +61 2 6246 4245 |
| 15 | |
| 16 | Total word count: 6910 |
| 17 | |
| | |

18 Keywords: calicivirus, recombination, genomic epidemiology, lagovirus, RHDV2

19 Abstract

The diversity of lagoviruses (*Caliciviridae*) in Australia has increased considerably. By 20 the end of 2017, five variants from three viral genotypes were present in populations of 21 Australian rabbits, while prior to 2014 only two variants were known. To understand the 22 23 interactions between these lagovirus variants we monitored their geographical 24 distribution and relative incidence over time through a landscape-scale competition study, and from this, revealed potential drivers of epidemiological fitness. Within three 25 26 years of the arrival of GI.1bP-GI.2 (RHDV2) into Australia, we observed the emergence 27 of two novel recombinant lagovirus variants, GI.4eP-GI.2 (4e-recombinant) in New 28 South Wales and GI.4cP-GI.2 (4c-recombinant) in Victoria. Although both novel recombinants contain the non-structural genes from benign, rabbit-specific, enterotropic 29 30 viruses, these variants were recovered from the livers of both rabbits and hares that had died acutely. This suggests that determinants of host and tissue tropism for lagoviruses 31 32 are associated with the structural genes, and that tropism is intricately connected with pathogenicity. Phylogenetic analyses demonstrated that the 4c-recombinant emerged 33 independently on multiple occasions, with five distinct lineages observed. Both new 34 recombinant variants replaced the previous dominant parental RHDV2 in their 35 respective geographical areas, despite sharing an identical or near-identical (i.e., single 36 amino acid change) major capsid protein with the parental virus. This suggests that 37 epidemiological fitness of these recombinants was not driven by antigenic variation in 38 the capsid, implicating the non-structural genes as key drivers of epidemiological 39 fitness. Molecular clock estimates place the GI4.e recombination event in early to mid-40 2015, while the five GI.4c recombination events occurred from late 2015 through to 41 early 2017. The emergence of at least six viable recombinant variants within a two-year 42 period highlights an unprecedented frequency of these events, detectable only due to 43 intensive surveillance, and demonstrates the importance of recombination in lagovirus 44 45 evolution.

47 Introduction

Caliciviruses are an important group of vertebrate-infecting viruses. They include
noroviruses, the major cause of gastroenteritis in humans worldwide [1], and members
of the genus *Lagovirus*, which infect rabbits and hares. Some lagoviruses are
hepatotropic and cause an acute fulminant viral hepatitis with a case fatality rate
exceeding 90%, while others are enterotropic and are thought to be entirely benign [2].
These are referred to as rabbit haemorrhagic disease viruses (RHDVs) and rabbit
caliciviruses (RCVs), respectively.

Lagoviruses are hierarchically classified by their major capsid protein (VP60) type, and

less frequently by polymerase type, into genogroups (e.g. GI, GII), genotypes (e.g. GI.1,

57 GI.2, GI.4), and variants (e.g. GI.1a, GI.1b, GI.1c) [3]. The first lagoviruses identified,

from hares in Europe in the early 1980s, were those of the GII.1 genotype (EBHSV) [4].

59 Subsequently, mortality events in *Oryctolagus* rabbits in China in 1984 led to the

discovery of genotype GI.1 (RHDV1) viruses [5]. With an increasing diversity of GI.1

viruses, this genotype was further subdivided based on the VP60 phylogeny into several

variants. In 1997, the first antigenic variants of GI.1 viruses, now classified as GI.1a

63 (RHDVa), were described in Italy [6] and these spread throughout Europe and more

distantly. Then, in 2010, the GI.2 (RHDV2) variant first emerged in France [7-9]. RHDV2

rapidly spread globally, triggering epizootics worldwide in wild and domestic lagomorph

66 populations. As surveillance efforts and technologies improved, non-pathogenic GI.3

67 (RCV-E1) and GI.4 (RCV-A1, RCV-E2) lagoviruses were identified in the 1990s, first in

Europe [10-13] and then in Australia [14] and New Zealand [15]. Non-pathogenic hare

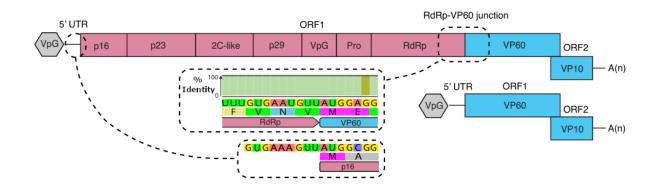
lagoviruses (GII.2, GII.3, GII.4, GII.5; HaCV) have also been reported more recently, in

70 2014 in Europe [16-18] and 2019 in Australia [19].

Lagoviruses, like other caliciviruses, are small, non-enveloped viruses containing a monopartite positive-sense single-stranded RNA genome approximately 7.5 kb in length (Figure 1) [2]. Virus particles contain both genomic RNA (gRNA) and 3' co-terminal subgenomic RNAs (sgRNA) approximately 2.5 kb in length [20]. In lagoviruses, the nonstructural (NS) genes are situated upstream of the major capsid protein, VP60, all of which are encoded as a single large polyprotein (ORF1), while the 3' terminal ORF2

encodes a minor structural protein that is presumed to be important for genome release 77 during infection [21]. Lagoviruses encode seven NS proteins, including a helicase (2C-78 like), a viral genome-linked protein (VpG), a protease (Pro), an RNA-dependent RNA 79 polymerase (RdRp), and three proteins of unknown function (p16, p23, p29). Both 80 gRNA and sgRNA are linked to VpG at their 5' end and are polyadenylated at their 3' 81 end [22]. There is considerable homology between the 5' terminal nucleotide sequences 82 of the gRNA and sgRNA (Figure 1) [22], facilitating recombination at the junction 83 between the RdRp and VP60; this region is highly conserved within and between 84 genogroups. 85

86



87

Figure 1: Lagovirus genome organisation. Genomic RNAs (gRNA) encode the nonstructural proteins (pink) and structural proteins (blue), while subgenomic RNAs
(sgRNA) encode the structural proteins only. Both RNAs are linked to VpG at their 5'
end and are polyadenylated at their 3' end. Inset boxes demonstrate the nucleotide
sequence identity between the 5' untranslated region (UTR) of the gRNA and the RdRpVP60 junction. An identity plot (based on n = 478 near-complete GI sequences from
GenBank; green indicates 100% identity) is also shown for the junction region.

95

Recombination is an important evolutionary mechanism in many RNA viruses [23]. In
 the *Caliciviridae*, recombination frequently occurs at the junction between the NS and
 structural genes, effectively mixing a set of structural genes with an entirely new set of
 NS genes [24-26]. Recombinant lagoviruses are defined by the nomenclature [RdRp

genotype]P-[capsid genotype], and can include combinations of two pathogenic RHDVs 100 (e.g. GI.1bP-GI.2) as well as the seemingly more common combination of a benign 101 RCV and a pathogenic RHDV (e.g. GI.4eP-GI.1a, GI.4eP-GI.2, GI.3P-GI.2) [24, 27-32]. 102 Retrospective phylogenetic analyses have demonstrated that all GI.2 viruses so far 103 described are recombinants (GI.3P-GI.2), implying that GI.2 is an orphan capsid-type 104 [24]. Intergenogroup recombinants between GI (rabbit and hare) and GII (hare) viruses 105 have also been reported, with two GII.1P-GI.2 viruses recovered from hares in Germany 106 in 2014 and 2019 [33]. 107

Prior to 2016, three lagovirus genotypes (GI.1, GI.2, GI.4) from the G.I genogroup, 108 109 comprising five distinct variants — GI.4 (RCV-A1), GI.1c (RHDV1), GI.1a (RHDVa-K5), GI.4eP-GI.1a (RHDVa-Aus), GI.1bP-GI.2 (RHDV2) — had been reported in Australia. 110 111 These variants differ in their host and tissue tropism and in pathogenicity [34]. RCV-A1 is a benign enterotropic virus that has circulated in wild and domestic rabbits, likely 112 113 since at least the 1950s [14, 35]. RHDV1 and RHDVa-K5 are pathogenic viruses, both deliberately released [36]. RHDVa-Aus and RHDV2 were both exotic incursions, first 114 detected in January 2014 and May 2015, respectively [32, 37]. Phylogenetic analyses 115 suggest that both incursions arose from single point source introductions with 116 117 subsequent ongoing transmission in Australian rabbit populations [32, 34]. In mid-2017 a novel GI.4eP-GI.2 recombinant virus (4e-recombinant) was detected, comprising the 118 NS sequences of the RHDVa-Aus virus and RHDV2 VP60 sequences [31]. However, 119 the long-term epidemiological significance of this recombinant variant was unclear. 120 Australia is an ideal setting for understanding the evolution, recombination, and 121

epidemiological interactions of caliciviruses. Australia is an isolated landmass with a 122 large rabbit population that is distributed across most of the country. The genetic 123 124 diversity of Australian lagoviruses arose from a small number of introduction (or incursion) events, and the parental sequence as well as the timing of the introduction is 125 126 known in several instances. Since there is little movement of rabbits into the country, the study of lagoviruses can occur in a relatively controlled environment with a defined 127 128 number of pre-existing pathogenic viruses. Additionally, a robust surveillance system for these viruses has been in place since 2014. The previous lack of diversity of the 129

130 Australian lagovirus population and sudden diversification of lagovirus variants in

131 2014/2015 created the perfect natural experimental conditions for monitoring the

- 132 frequency of successful recombination and drivers of viral evolution. In this study we
- monitored the epidemiological and evolutionary dynamics of existing lagovirus variants
- in Australia, while determining the frequency and importance of successful
- recombination events between these viruses.
- 136

137 Materials and Methods

138 Sample submission

Samples from dead domestic and wild lagomorphs (i.e., rabbits and hares) were 139 140 submitted either directly or via RabbitScan (https://www.feralscan.org.au/rabbitscan/) to the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO) by 141 142 veterinarians, pet owners, landholders, and members of the public as part of ongoing opportunistic lagovirus surveillance. No animal ethics approvals are required for 143 sampling rabbits that are found dead in Australia. Samples were provided either fresh-144 frozen or stored in an RNA stabilization solution [31]. Additionally, 42 positive samples 145 submitted to the Elizabeth Macarthur Agricultural Institute (EMAI) for RHDV diagnostic 146 testing were forwarded to CSIRO, either as fresh-frozen tissue or as a swab of the cut 147 148 tissue stored in phosphate buffered gelatin saline (PBGS) [38]. Samples for this study were restricted to those collected between 1 January 2014 (based on the estimated 149 150 time of incursion of GI.1bP-GI.2 into Australia [34, 39]) and 30 September 2020, and were received from the Australian Capital Territory (ACT, n = 139), New South Wales 151 152 (NSW, n = 401), the Northern Territory (NT, n = 7), Queensland (QLD, n = 86), South Australia (SA, n = 227), Tasmania (TAS, n = 221), Victoria (VIC, n = 649), and Western 153 Australia (WA, n = 194) (total n = 1,924). 154

155 Initial testing

RNA was extracted from 20 – 30 mg of tissue, predominantly liver or bone marrow, but
occasionally spleen, kidney, muscle, ear tip, eyelid, or blowfly maggots retrieved from
the carcass. After homogenisation with glass beads using a Precellys 24-dual tissue

159 homogenizer (Bertin Technologies), RNA was extracted using either the Maxwell 16

LEV simplyRNA tissue kit (Promega, Alexandria, NSW) or RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen,

161 Chadstone Centre, VIC) as per manufacturers' directions. For swab samples, RNA was

162 extracted from 200 µl PBGS using the Purelink viral RNA/DNA mini kit (ThermoFisher

163 Scientific). Samples were screened for known lagoviruses using a broadly-reactive

164 lagovirus SYBR-green based RT-qPCR targeting VP60 and sgRNA, as described

165 previously [31].

166 Variant identification

167 Of the samples that were positive by screening RT-qPCR (n = 1,209), 175 were

sequenced previously for other studies [31, 32, 34, 37, 40]. The remaining samples

were screened for recombination by RT-PCR and sequencing. RT-PCR primers were

designed that spanned the RdRp-VP60 junction, generating a 555 bp amplicon (Rec2

171 RT-PCR; Supplementary table 1). Primers were subsequently modified by the 5'

addition of Illumina pre-adapter and index primer binding sequences to enable high-

throughput Illumina sequencing (Rec2.tailed RT-PCR; Supplementary table 1). Assays

were experimentally validated to confirm reactivity with all known Australian lagoviruses.

175 For a subset of samples (prior to the development of the Rec2 RT-PCR), amplification

over the RdRp-VP60 junction was performed with alternative primer sets

177 (Supplementary table 1). Briefly, each 25 µl PCR reaction comprised 1x OneStep

178 Ahead RT-PCR master mix (Qiagen), 1x OneStep Ahead RT mix (Qiagen), 0.5 µM each

primer, and 1 µl of extracted RNA diluted 1/10 in nuclease-free water. Cycling

conditions were: 45 °C for 15 min, 95 °C for 5 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15

sec, 55 °C for 15s, 68 °C for 2 min, with a final extension of 68 °C for 5 min.

182 Amplicons were purified and either sent for Sanger sequencing at the Biomolecular

183 Resource Facility, The John Curtin School of Medical Research, Australian National

184 University, or were indexed, pooled, and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq (300-cycle v2

chemistry) according to the manufacturer's directions. After quality trimming, sequences

were partitioned into regions upstream and downstream of the RdRp-VP60 junction.

187 Each partition was aligned with representative sequences of known Australian lagovirus

variants using MAFFTv7.450 [41] in Geneious Prime 2020.0.4, and an RdRp and VP60

variant type was assigned for each sample. Four isolates were identified as mixed

infections based on sequencing. Alignments of partial sequences are available at

191 <u>https://doi.org/10.25919/758f-4t15</u>.

192 Molecular epidemiological analyses

193 To investigate the geographical distribution and relative incidences of recombinant

- variants over time, positive samples were restricted to those reported after 1 January
- 195 2016; i.e., 6 months prior to the first detection of a novel recombinant (n = 1,139).
- 196 Samples identified as RHDVa-K5 (n = 121) were excluded from further analyses since

these were mostly associated with release sites of this approved biocontrol virus; that is,

this variant was not transmitting through rabbit populations and was therefore not

competing epidemiologically with other virus variants [39]. Samples from the ACT were

grouped with those from NSW, since the ACT is a small jurisdiction (2,358 km²) located

within NSW and was considered epidemiologically to be part of NSW.

- For the 4c-recombinant lineage designation, 169 4c-recombinant sequences spanning
- the RdRp-VP60 junction were aligned with 77 4c-recombinant full genomes and 26
- publicly available GI.4 genomes using MAFFTv7.450 [41]. The taxa included in the final
- 205 data set are detailed in Supplementary table 2. The alignment was trimmed to
- 206 nucleotide positions 5,115 5,619, based on the M67473.1 DEU/FRG/1988.50
- reference sequence (<u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/</u>). The remaining 109 4c-
- recombinant sequences obtained in this study were not suitable for inclusion in the final
- alignment because they were generated either using Illumina sequencing or an
- alternative primer set and thus did not span the complete region of the alignment. Model
- 211 selection and maximum likelihood (ML) tree inference was conducted using IQ-
- TREEv1.6.11 [42], and branch supported was estimated by 1,000 replicates of the SH-
- like approximate likelihood ratio test [43]. The tree was rooted on the internal branch
- leading to the RCV-A1 lineage.
- 215 Full genome sequencing

Of the 1,034 samples genotyped to the variant level, a subset of 224 were selected for full genome sequencing (Supplementary table 3). These samples were selected to be geographically and temporally representative, with a focus on the novel 4e- and 4c-

- recombinants. Viral genomes were amplified in overlapping fragments, and DNA
- libraries were prepared and sequenced using Illumina Miseq technology as described
- previously [35, 40]. Primers used for amplification of the overlapping fragments are
- detailed in Supplementary table 1. Consensus sequences were constructed by mapping
- cleaned reads to the lagovirus GI reference sequence (GenBank accession M67473.1
- 224 DEU/FRG/1988.50) using Geneious Prime 2020.0.4. Sequences were deposited in
- GenBank under accession numbers MW460205 MW460242.
- 226 Recombination analysis
- 227 To further characterise the putative novel 4c-recombinant variant, and the newly
- sequenced GI.4e-recombinants, recombination analyses were conducted on full
- genome sequences using the RDP4 software [44]. The complete genome alignment
- included lagovirus GI potential parent sequences from GenBank
- 231 (<u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank</u>) (n = 384, 7,309 nt, Supplementary table 4).
- 232 Recombination was reported if detected by at least two of three primary scanning
- 233 methods (RDP, MaxChi and GENECONV), with a highest acceptable p-value of 0.05
- with Bonferroni multiple comparison correction. The BootScan, 3Seq, CHIMAERA, and
- 235 SciScan methods were used to verify recombination events identified using the primary
- 236 methods.

237 Phylogenetic analyses

- Newly sequenced lagovirus genomes were aligned with representative GI lagovirus
- 239 sequences from GenBank (<u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank</u>) using MAFFTv7.271
- [41]. The complete genome alignment was split into two data sets representing (i) the
- NS genes (n = 240 sequences, 5,231 nt, Supplementary table 5), and (ii) the VP60
- structural gene (n = 272, 1,740 nt, Supplementary table 6). An additional VP60
- alignment was constructed that contained the VP60 of the newly sequenced viruses
- along with all published Australian RHDV2 VP60 sequences (n = 332, 1,737 nt,
- Supplementary table 7). Model selection and ML tree estimation was performed using
- IQ-TREEv1.6.11 [42], as described above. Ancestral state reconstruction to identify
- nonsynonymous changes along individual branches was carried out using PAMLv4.9 [45].

248 Phylogeographic analyses

A Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach was employed to infer time-249 scaled phylogenies, and from this, to infer the temporal pattern and most likely 250 geographic location of internal nodes (i.e., phylogeography). All data sets were initially 251 252 screened using TempEst [46] to ensure that sufficient temporal signal was present, 253 using ML phylogenies as input to construct linear regressions of root-to-tip genetic distances against sampling time. Due to recombination between the NS and capsid 254 255 genes, two data sets either side of the recombination breakpoint were analysed separately: (i) a VP60 gene data set containing all published Australian GI.2 capsid 256 257 sequences together with the capsid genes of the recombinants sequenced here (n = 332, 1,737 nt, Supplementary table 7); and (ii) an NS genes data set of all published 258 259 Australian GI.4 sequences together with the NS genes of the recombinants sequenced 260 here (n = 188, 5,218 nt, Supplementary table 8). The Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis by 261 Sampling Trees (BEAST) software v1.8 [47] was used to conduct Bayesian MCMC analysis of each data set, using substitution models inferred using ModelFinder as 262 implemented in IQ-TREEv1.6.11 [42] (VP60, SYM+G4; NS, SYM+I+G4) [48]. A discrete 263 traits partition indicating the sampling location (Australian state) was included to 264 265 facilitate ancestral state reconstruction of location (utilizing the symmetric substitution 266 model, inferring social network with Bayesian Stochastic Search Variable Selection, and a strict clock model). All analyses were run twice to convergence (defined as an 267 effective sample size >200) to confirm consistency. Marginal likelihood estimation using 268 path sampling/stepping-stone sampling was used to assess the most appropriate clock 269 model prior (strict vs uncorrelated log-normally distributed [UCLD]) and tree prior 270 (Gaussian Markov random field Bayesian skyride model vs constant size coalescent vs 271 exponential coalescent) for the nucleotide partition. 272

The NS data set had a better temporal signal (R-squared of 0.86 on linear regression of
root-to-tip genetic distance against sampling time) and a larger sampling window
compared to the VP60 data set and was therefore considered the most informative. The
UCLD clock model and constant population size coalescent tree prior had the highest
marginal likelihood for this data set.

278 Figures

Figures were constructed using R v4.0.3 [49] using the following packages: 'ggtree

v2.2.1' [50], 'treeio v1.12.0' [51], 'scales v1.1.1' [52], 'tidyverse v1.3.0' [53], 'ape v5.4'

[54], 'phytools v0.7-47' [55], 'phangorn v2.5.5' [56], 'cowplot v1.0.0.9000' [57], 'lubridate

v1.7.8' [58], 'plyr v1.8.6' [59], and 'ozmaps v0.3.6' [60]. Figure 3B was generated in

- 283 GeneiousPrime 2020.2.4 using 3-D structure viewer.
- 284

285 **Results**

Phylogenetic analyses reveal five independent recombination events in GI.4cP-GI.2
 viruses

288 A recombinant lagovirus variant (GI.4eP-GI.2; 4e-recombinant) was previously detected in Australia using a multiplex RT-PCR assay. This assay is only able to detect specific 289 290 recombinant variants [31]. Therefore, to comprehensively screen for lagovirus recombination events we sequenced the RdRp-VP60 junction region (i.e., the typical 291 recombination breakpoint) of 1,034 lagoviruses collected between January 2014 and 292 September 2020 (inclusive) from wild and domestic lagomorphs found dead across 293 294 Australia. This screen identified six distinct lagovirus variants circulating in Australia during the study period: four known variants (GI.1cP-GI.1c (RHDV1), GI.1bP-GI.2 295 (RHDV2), GI.1aP-GI.1a (RHDVa-K5), GI.4eP-GI.1a (RHDVa-Aus)), the previously 296 reported 4e-recombinant (GI.4eP-GI.2), and a novel GI.4cP-GI.2 putative recombinant 297 (4c-recombinant). 298

299 We selected a subset of novel 4c-recombinant viruses, recently emerged 4e-

recombinant viruses, and parental RHDV2 viruses for full genome sequencing, selecting

isolates that were representative of the temporal and geographical spread of these

variants. Recombination analyses of newly sequenced 4e-recombinant viruses

confirmed these as recombinants with a breakpoint at the RdRp-VP60 junction,

supporting our previous finding (Table 1, Supplementary table 4). Recombination

- analyses of the novel putative 4c-recombinant viruses also detected a recombination
- breakpoint at the typical RdRp-VP60 junction (Table 1). The most likely parental

- variants for the 4c-recombinant, as determined by the RDP4 software, were benign
- Australian GI.4 (RCV-A1) lagoviruses in the NS region (GenBank accession KX357699)
- and Australian GI.2 (RHDV2) viruses in the VP60 region (GenBank accession
- 310 MF421577), strongly suggesting that this recombination event occurred within Australia
- after the arrival of GI.2 in late 2014.
- 312 Subsequently, the nucleotide alignment was partitioned either side of the putative
- breakpoint and ML phylogenetic trees were inferred for the NS genes and the VP60
- gene separately. There was clear incongruence between the NS and VP60
- phylogenies, supporting the results of the RDP4 analysis (Figure 2). Strikingly, ML
- 316 phylogenies based on the VP60 region revealed five distinct lineages of the 4c-
- recombinant variant, suggesting multiple independent emergences of this variant
- 318 (Figure 3A). In contrast, the NS gene sequences from this variant formed a
- monophyletic group (collapsed in Figure 2A). All 4e-recombinant sequences fell within a
- single clade in both trees (Figure 2).

321

323 Table 1. Recombination analyses

| Recombinant de | Putative parent [^] | | P-value for recombination event by detection method | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|----------------|--|--------|--------|---------------|
| Representative | Breakpoint | t NS Parent | S parent | RDP | Maxchi | GENE- CONV |
| Recombinant Sequence | Position* | | | | | |
| GI.4eP-GI.2/O.cun*/AUS/ | 5206 | KY628315/ | MF421585/ | 45 404 | 25 42 | 3E-189 |
| NSW/2017-03-17/CAR-8 | 5306 | GI.4eP-GI.1a | GI.1bP-GI.2 | 4E-194 | 3E-43 | 3E-189 |
| GI.4cP-GI.2/O.cun/AUS/ | E207 | KX357699/ | MF421577/ | 3E-148 | 2E-39 | 1E-154 |
| VIC/2017-02-05/ALV-1 | 5307 | GI.4c | GI.1bP-GI.2 | 3E-140 | 20-39 | 104 |

324 A more detailed version of this table can is supplied as Supplementary table 4.

325 *Nucleotide position of putative breakpoint according to M67473.1/DEU/FRG/1988.50 reference sequence

326 numbering.

327 ^NS refers to putative parent providing the non-structural genes; S refers to putative parent providing the structural

328 genes.

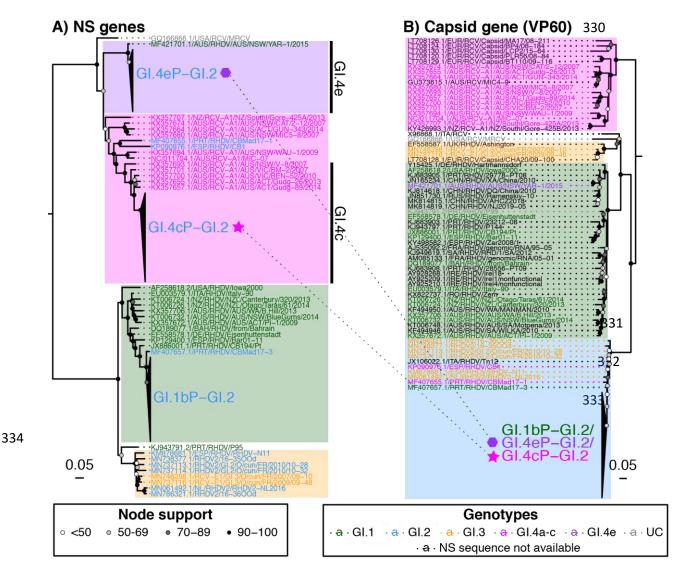


Figure 2. ML phylogenetic trees of the (A) NS genes and (B) the VP60 gene of

representative lagovirus sequences and the Australian recombinant sequences.

337 Discrepancies between the highlight and text colour indicate recombinant sequences.

338 Clades are highlighted according to the genotype of the genetic segment analysed in

the tree, while taxa names are coloured by the genotype of the alternative segment (i.e.,

taxa names in the NS gene tree are coloured by the genotype of the capsid gene, and

vice versa). Taxa names coloured black indicate that the NS sequence data is

- unavailable. UC, unclassified. Major clades have been collapsed for visualization
- 343 purposes. All Australian recombinant sequences from this study fall within the collapsed
- clades indicated by the star (GI.4cP-GI.2) or hexagon (GI.4eP-GI.2) symbols. The
- dotted lines between the two trees link the Australian recombinant clades. Phylogenies

- were midpoint rooted and the scale bars represent the number of substitutions per site.
- Bootstrap support values (1,000 replicates) are indicated by shaded circles at the
- 348 nodes.

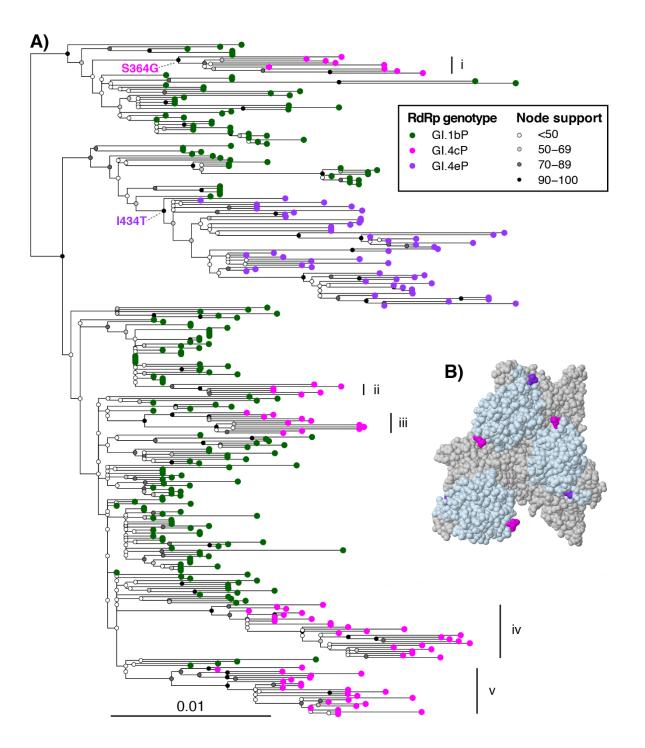


Figure 3: ML phylogenetic tree of Australian GI.2 VP60 sequences and amino acid 351 changes associated with the emergence of 4c- and 4e-recombinant variants. (A) A 352 phylogeny was inferred from the VP60 gene sequences (n = 332) of newly sequenced 353 Australian GI.2 lagoviruses (including recombinants) along with representative 354 published sequences. Coloured tip points represent the polymerase (RdRp) genotype: 355 356 GI.1bP, green; GI.4cP, pink; GI.4eP, purple. GI.4cP lineages are labelled (i through v). The phylogeny was midpoint rooted and the scale bar represents nucleotide 357 358 substitutions per site. Non-parametric bootstrap support values (1,000 replicates) are indicated by shaded circles at the nodes. Associated metadata including taxon names 359 are provided in Supplementary table 7. Ancestral state reconstruction to identify 360 nonsynonymous changes associated with internal divergence events was conducted 361 362 using PAML. All changes occurring on branches leading to the GI.4cP and GI.4eP lineages are labelled at the relevant node. (B) These changes were mapped to an 363 364 asymmetric unit of the atomic model of lagovirus GI VP60 (PDB accession: 3J1P). The P2 domain is coloured in light blue. Amino acid 364, associated with the change in 4c-365 366 recombinant lineage i, is coloured pink and 434, associated with the 4e-recombinant, is coloured purple. 367

368

Rapid epidemiological replacement of parental RHDV2 by the newly emerged 4c- and4e-recombinants

371 Detections of the new 4c-recombinant variant consistently outnumbered those of the 372 parental RHDV2 in VIC by April 2018, 14 months after the first detection in Alvie, VIC, on 5 February 2017, suggesting that this variant was outcompeting previously 373 circulating viruses (Figure 4). This pattern of emergence and replacement was also 374 375 observed in TAS (Figure 4). This variant was detected sporadically in NSW/ACT from 376 October 2017 where it cocirculated with the locally dominant 4e-recombinant; notably, the proportional incidence of the 4c-recombinant variant has increased in this region 377 during 2020. Interestingly, a single detection of the 4c-recombinant was identified in WA 378 379 in November 2018 in two domestic rabbits recently imported from TAS as breeding stock. The sequence of this 4c-recombinant virus detected in WA clearly nested within 380

the genetic diversity found in TAS (see Figure 4A, clade v), suggesting a single

- incursion into WA with no ongoing local transmission. During the study period, the novel
- 4c-recombinant was recovered from several juvenile animals less than 800 g
- bodyweight and as young as 4 weeks old, demonstrating pathogenicity in young rabbits,
- like all other GI.2 variants characterized so far. It was also identified in one European
- brown hare (*Lepus europaeus*).
- We also examined the distribution of the previously reported 4e-recombinant variant
- [31]. Most detections (n = 140) were identified in NSW/ACT. The earliest detection was
- in Tubbul, NSW, on 13 July 2016, and by March 2017 it had mostly replaced the
- parental RHDV2 to become the dominant lagovirus variant in this region (Figure 4B).
- More recently, in late 2019 and throughout 2020, it has cocirculated with the 4c-
- recombinant in NSW/ACT. Although most detections were in adult rabbits, the 4e-
- recombinant was also recovered from three European brown hares and from several
- juvenile rabbits down to 250 g bodyweight, suggesting a similar host tropism to the
- 395 parental RHDV2 virus and the novel 4c-recombinant.
- 396

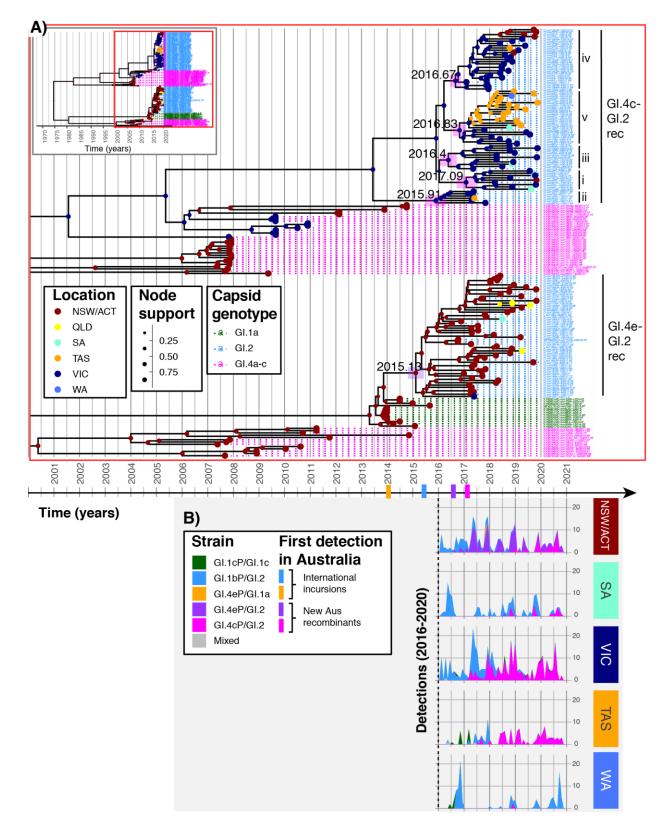


Figure 4: Timing and location of the emergence of Australian lagovirus

398 recombinants based on time-structured phylogeographic reconstruction and RT-

gPCR detections. Panels A and B are scaled to the same x-axis (shown between the 399 two panels), given as time in years. (A) Time-structured phylogeographic analysis of 400 Australian GI.4 lagovirus NS genes (uncorrelated log-normally distributed clock model, 401 constant tree prior). The inset indicates the section of the phylogeny shown. Node and 402 tip points are coloured according to location (Australian state) and node points are sized 403 according to posterior support for that clade. Taxon names are coloured by capsid 404 variant. The mean time to most recent common ancestor for the GI.4eP-GI.2 and each 405 GI.4cP-GI.2 recombinant lineage is indicated at the respective internal node, and 406 horizontal bars at these nodes represent the 95% highest posterior density (HPD). The 407 recombinant (rec) clades are labelled, including the GI.4cP-GI.2 lineages (i - v). (B) 408 Lagovirus positive samples collected in NSW/ACT, SA, VIC, TAS, and WA from 2016 to 409 410 2020 (n = 739) were genotyped to the variant level by sequencing either side of the typical calicivirus recombination breakpoint. The number of detections of each variant 411 412 by month are shown for each geographical region as an area plot, with the plotted area coloured by variant. 413

414

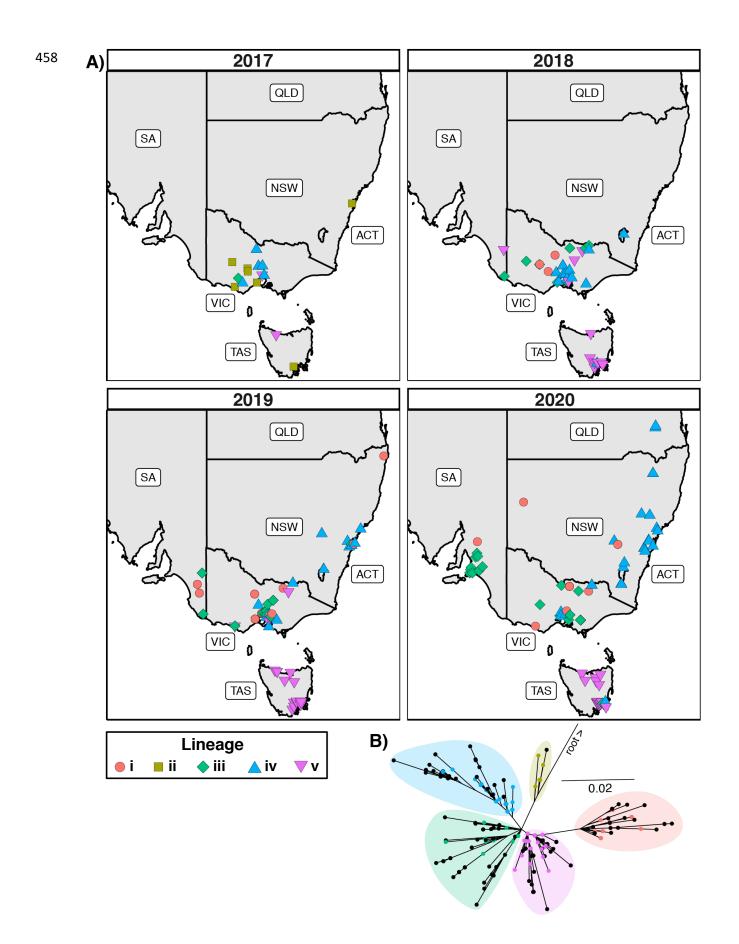
415 All recombination events occurred within a two-year timeframe in eastern Australia

To determine the temporal dynamics, the location of emergence, and the rate of viable 416 recombination events in Australian lagoviruses, we conducted time-structured 417 phylogenetic analyses for the NS and capsid genes of recombinant viruses and related 418 sequences (i.e., Australian GI.2 VP60 and GI.4 NS sequences). Based on regression 419 analysis, data from the GI.4 NS dataset was considered more accurate and is therefore 420 presented in Figure 4. Based on these analyses, the 4e-recombinant was the first 421 variant to emerge, with the most recent common ancestor of this lineage dated to early 422 423 to mid-2015 (95% highest posterior density [HPD] NS dataset, 2014.8 – 2015.43) 424 (Figure 4A). For the 4c-recombinants, the 95% HPD intervals of the time to most recent 425 common ancestor (TMRCA) overlapped between lineages, making it difficult to confidently define the exact timings and order of emergence of each lineage (Figure 426 4A). However, the data clearly show that these five recombination events all occurred 427 428 within the space of two years. This two-year timeframe was consistently observed

regardless of whether the analysis was conducted on the NS genes GI.4 data set or the 429 VP60 gene GI.2 data set. Our phylogeographic analysis (Figure 4A) suggests that all 430 the 4c-recombinant lineages emerged in VIC (probability >0.99 for all lineages), with 431 subsequent spread to other states. Notably, this was observed even for lineage v, which 432 was first detected in Tasmania. In contrast, the 4e-recombinant clearly emerged in 433 NSW/ACT (probability >0.99, Figure 4A); this is further supported by our 434 epidemiological data, where we found only limited detections of this variant in other 435 states (QLD, VIC, SA). 436

437 Continued cocirculation of 4c-recombinant lineages

The 4c-recombinant viruses were initially assigned to lineages based on the GI.2 VP60 438 phylogeny (Figure 3A). For GI.4c-recombinant viruses where a full genome sequence 439 was not available, we first inferred a phylogeny from a 504 nt region spanning the 440 441 RdRp-VP60 junction (Figure 5); this phylogeny was annotated using taxa for which the lineage was definitively known from the VP60 phylogeny. While sequences from each 442 4c lineage (as defined from the complete genome sequences) did not form clades with 443 individual common ancestors in the RdRp-VP60 junction phylogeny, they did form 444 distinct groups with visible genetic distance between them (Figure 5). These groups 445 were distinct enough to assign a 4c lineage type to those samples with partial sequence 446 only. After assigning lineages to all GI.4c-recombinants, we explored the interactions 447 between the different lineages by mapping their sampling locations over time. We found 448 that four of the five lineages were already circulating in 2017 (Figure 5). Lineage ii was 449 not detected after 2017 while the other four lineages continued to be detected 450 throughout 2018, 2019, and 2020. In VIC, where all lineages are circulating, there was 451 452 no clear indication of geographical clustering of the different lineages. In TAS, lineages 453 ii, iii, and iv were detected sporadically while lineage v has remained dominant over time, suggestive of a founder effect in this region. Similarly, in NSW/ACT lineage iv has 454 455 remained dominant, also suggesting a regional founder effect, while lineages i, ii, and iii were only detected intermittently. 456



459 Figure 5: Geographical distribution of 4c-recombinant lagoviruses in Australia,

2017 to 2020. (A) Sampling locations for the 4c lineages were mapped for each year following the emergence of this variant in 2017. (B) 4c-recombinant viruses were allocated to a 4c lineage based on ML phylogenetic grouping of the partial RdRp-VP60 sequence (504 nt) with reference sequences. Reference sequences were annotated based on full genome sequencing and are indicated in the tree by the coloured tip points. The phylogeny was midpoint rooted and the scale bar represents nucleotide substitutions per site.

467

The emergence of 4c-recombinant variants was not associated with antigenic changesin the VP60 capsid protein

470 To determine whether the observed epidemiological replacement of 1) the parental RHDV2 virus by the novel 4c-recombinant in VIC and TAS, and 2) the 4e-recombinant 471 in NSW/ACT were associated with nonsynonymous, potentially antigenic, changes in 472 473 the VP60 capsid protein we performed ancestral state reconstruction using our prior Australian GI.2 VP60 phylogeny. Notably, four of the five 4c-recombinant lineages 474 showed no amino acid changes in the capsid protein relative to the inferred ancestral 475 RHDV2 node, suggesting that the emergence of these lineages was not associated with 476 477 changes in antigenicity (Figure 3A). However, nonsynonymous mutations were identified in 4c-recombinant lineage i and in 4e-recombinant viruses (Figure 3A). When 478 479 we mapped these mutations back to an atomic model of lagovirus GI VP60, both 480 mutations were within the protruding domain, specifically the P2 subdomain, which is known to contain immunodominant epitopes (Figure 3B) [61]. The 4c-recombinant 481 lineage i was associated with an S364G mutation, while an I434T mutation was present 482 483 in all lineage 4e-recombinants (Figure 3A). Thus, it is possible that the epidemiological 484 fitness of the 4e-recombinant variant in NSW/ACT may be attributable to antigenic changes in the capsid; however, this cannot explain the replacement of parental RHDV2 485 by 4c-recombinant variants in VIC or TAS, or the continued co-circulation of 4c-486 recombinant lineages without changes in VP60. Furthermore, in NSW/ACT the 4e-487

recombinant variant, despite the I434T change in VP60, appears to be currentlyundergoing replacement by the 4c-recombinant.

490

491 Discussion

492 In a global landscape where population immunity to GI.1 and GI.1a viruses was 493 widespread in lagomorphs, it is unsurprising that GI.2 viruses were so successful and rapidly replaced GI.1 strains. We were interested to determine whether, after 494 495 establishment, GI.2 viruses would continue to evolve via immune selection and antigenic drift or by other mechanisms. We were also interested to document whether 496 497 variants without the GI.2 capsid would emerge as population immunity increased against this genotype. Instead, we found that the GI.2 capsid was retained and that the 498 499 emerging recombinant variants acquired alternative NS genes. It is becoming increasingly clear that recombination is a major driver of calicivirus diversity, facilitating 500 the emergence of new variants including those with pandemic and panzootic potential 501 [24, 25, 62, 63]. However, the frequency at which viable recombination occurs and the 502 genetic drivers of epidemiological fitness are still poorly understood. In this study, a 503 continent-scale natural competition experiment of lagoviruses in Australia, we found that 504 505 viable recombination occurs at an extremely high frequency given the right agent, host, and environmental circumstances. 506

507 Six viable recombination events in Australian lagoviruses between 2014 and 2018

508 Shortly after detecting two exotic lagovirus incursions in Australia, RHDVa-Aus (GI.4eP-GI.1a) in 2014 and RHDV2 (GI.1bP-GI.2) in 2015 [32, 37], we reported the emergence 509 of a recombinant variant of these two viruses (4e-recombinant; GI.4eP-GI.2), detected 510 in July 2016 in NSW [31]. This finding prompted the development of improved molecular 511 512 tests for the detection of recombination and the subsequent retrospective and prospective screening of lagovirus-positive samples for further recombination events. 513 This screen identified an additional novel recombinant lagovirus, a GI.4cP-GI.2 variant 514 (4c-recombinant), first detected in VIC in February 2017. Further analysis determined 515 that the VP60 genes of this 4c-recombinant separated into five distinct clades (Figure 516

3A), suggesting that this variant emerged on five separate occasions following at least 517 five independent recombination events. Recombination was already known to occur in 518 lagoviruses. For example, in the last decade, the lagovirus GI.2 capsid has been 519 detected in combination with five different sets of NS genes [24, 27, 31, 33]. Our study 520 demonstrates that viable recombination during natural infection occurs even more 521 522 frequently than previously appreciated but may often go undetected if different events result in closely related progeny. Since the first detection of RHDV2 in Australia in mid-523 2015 [37] this capsid gene has recombined and produced epidemiologically viable 524 variants at least six times in a two-year period. 525

526 The previously reported 4e-recombinant arose from a recombination event between RHDVa-Aus (GI.1aP-GI.2) and RHDV2 (GI.1bP-GI.2), both recombinant viruses 527 528 themselves that were exotic incursions detected in Australia in January 2014 and May 529 2015, respectively, although the source of these viruses remains unknown [31, 32, 37]. 530 Detections of the parental RHDVa-Aus were predominantly restricted to the Sydney basin region of NSW, with two cases detected in QLD and one further case in a wild 531 rabbit in the ACT [32]. Therefore, it is not surprising that the 4e-recombinant emerged in 532 NSW/ACT, according to our epidemiological data and phylogeographic analysis (Figure 533 534 4). The 4c-recombinants arose from recombination events between RHDV2 (GI.1bP-GI.1) and endemic RCV-A1 (GI.4c) viruses [14, 37]. Emergence of the 4c-recombinant 535 variants in the south-eastern states of Australia is consistent with high rabbit population 536 densities and a high seroprevalence to GI.4 viruses in these regions compared to more 537 arid regions of Australia [64]. 538

Despite the VP60 phylogeny suggesting multiple recombination events between GI.4c 539 540 and GI.2 viruses, only a single unique recombination event was detected by the RDP4 541 program. This is not surprising given that the breakpoint locations are indistinguishable and these recombinants (and their true parents) are very closely related. Indeed, it was 542 543 only possible to infer the true number of recombination events because of the high sampling frequency of parental RHDV2 viruses, which has been maintained for this and 544 previous studies. Had RHDV2 sequences from intervening clades not been sampled, 545 the 4c-recombinants would have formed a monophyletic clade and a single 546

recombination event assumed. This is demonstrated by the NS genes phylogeny 547 (Figure 4A), in which the 4c-recombinant sequences form a single clade within the 548 greater GI.4c clade. Importantly, within this clade the sequences group into the same 549 five lineages as seen in the VP60 tree. Compared to pathogenic GI.2 viruses, benign 550 RCV-A1 (GI.4c) viruses are greatly under-sampled in Australia, with the most recent 551 552 RCV-A1 sequences (n = 6) derived from samples collected from the ACT in 2012 and 2014 [35]. Aside from three sequences sampled in 2014, no other RCV-A1 sequences 553 554 were available for the entirety of the study period. Consequently, a close relative of the RCV-A1 parental virus has not been sequenced, suggesting a hidden diversity of 555 unsampled RCV-A1 viruses in Australian rabbits. This study provides a lower bound to 556 557 the rate of recombination in these viruses; it is possible that additional recombination 558 events have occurred with GI.4c viruses that are not observable against the current

- 559 background of available GI.2 VP60 sequences.
- Lagoviruses show frequent recombination between the GI.2 capsid and GI.4 NS
 sequences
- Interestingly, all the recombination events detected during the study period involved the
 pairing of a GI.2 capsid and the NS genes of a GI.4 virus. Despite screening over 800
 lagovirus-positive samples, we found no evidence for recombinant variants with either
 capsid or NS sequences of GI.1 viruses.
- For recombination to occur several criteria must be met [23]. Firstly, there must be 566 567 coinfection of an individual host. This is influenced by host tropism, the prevalence of 568 each parental virus in the population, and the duration of infection. Secondly, there must be coinfection of a single cell, both viruses must replicate within this cell, and precise 569 template switching must occur to generate viable gRNA. Finally, the resultant variant 570 571 must be epidemiologically competitive. That is, it must be able to successfully transmit, 572 to establish infection in new hosts, and to avoid being outcompeted by either the parental or other circulating variants. 573
- 574 Following the epizootic incursion of an antigenically novel virus, RHDV2, into a naïve
- 575 population, the prevalence of this variant was extremely high in Australian rabbits,
- reflected by the estimated population-wide mortality rate of 60% following the arrival of

RHDV2 [39]. The detection of four GI.1 and GI.2 co-infections in this study between 577 2015 and 2017 demonstrates that both viruses were circulating at sufficiently high 578 prevalence for mixed infections to occur. However, this doesn't explain the predilection 579 for GI.4 (RCV) NS sequences. The discovery of 4c-recombinants was surprising, since 580 the parental RCV-A1 is a benign enterotropic lagovirus [14], while RHDV2 (and RHDV1) 581 582 viruses are virulent and hepatotropic. This would seem to preclude coinfection of individual cells with both viruses. Yet, several recombinants of RHDV2 and benign 583 584 enterotropic RCVs have also been reported from Europe [64]. This suggests that active replication of both RCVs and RHDV2 must be occurring in the same target cell. 585 Extrapolating from our current understanding of human and murine norovirus tropism. 586 macrophages or other immune cells may be likely candidates [65]. This is further 587 588 supported by the detection of plus- and minus-strand viral RNAs in splenic and alveolar macrophages of rabbits experimentally infected with RHDV1 [66]. Additionally, RCVs 589 590 typically infect young rabbits early in life [12, 14]. Although young rabbits can be infected with RHDV1 viruses, robust innate immunity limits the extent of viral replication 591 592 in an age-dependent manner [34, 39]. Thus, mixed infections with RHDV1 and RCVs are probably infrequent. This age-dependent resistance is not observed with RHDV2 593 594 infection [67]. Furthermore, the duration of infection is longer for benign RCVs compared to pathogenic variants, where infected individuals typically die within 48 - 72595 596 hours post-infection [2]. These factors may at least partly explain why RCV-RHDV2 recombinants appear to emerge more frequently than RHDV1-RHDV2 recombinants. 597

598 Epidemiological drivers of lagovirus emergence and spread

Both the 4e-recombinant and 4c-recombinant rapidly replaced the dominant circulating 599 600 parental RHDV2 in NSW/ACT and VIC/TAS, respectively. This replacement, at least for 601 several 4c-recombinant lineages, occurred without any associated antigenic changes in 602 the capsid protein, demonstrating that the replacement was not driven by antigenic 603 escape. This shows that NS sequence variation is an important driver of epidemiological fitness in lagoviruses, complementing similar findings in human and murine noroviruses 604 605 [68, 69]. For example, the pandemic GII.P16/GII.4 Sydney 2012 norovirus, which does not contain unique substitutions in the capsid, has substitutions within the RdRp that are 606

proposed to increase transmissibility [69]. Infection with this variant also resulted in 607 increased viral shedding compared to other norovirus genotypes, as measured by 608 higher faecal viral loads [70]. Previous studies have shown that RdRp fidelity and intra-609 host viral diversity affect transmissibility of murine norovirus *in vivo*, with high-fidelity 610 variants being less efficiently transmitted than the wild-type variant [71]. Taken together, 611 612 these studies demonstrate that NS proteins, particularly the RdRp, are important drivers of calicivirus fitness. Interestingly, the *in vitro* polymerase replication activity of the 613 614 cloned GI.4c RdRp was previously shown to be at least two times that of the RHDV1 (GI.1c) RdRp [72], although comparison to the GI.1b RdRp, the specific 'competing' 615 variant in the current study, was not reported. Analogous to the findings in murine 616 617 norovirus, we propose that a higher replication rate of GI.4 RdRps may lead to 618 increased intra-host viral diversity and transmissibility of GI.4 recombinants. However, we cannot rule out that other NS proteins may also contribute to the observed high 619 620 fitness of the recombinant variants.

Within the 4c-recombinants, there was no evidence of dominance of any one lineage over time. The apparent dominance of lineage iv in NSW/ACT and lineage v in TAS is consistent with founder effects in both of those states. This demonstrates that different lagoviruses can cocirculate at relative equilibrium over extended periods of time. This further supports that the observed rapid replacement of parental RHDV2 (GI.1bP-GI.2) by GI.4P recombinant variants in this study is due to a fitness advantage of these variants, conferred by the NS proteins and possibly associated with the RdRp.

The lagovirus capsid governs host and tissue tropism and is correlated with virulence

Both the newly identified 4c-recombinant and the previously emerged 4e-recombinant 629 are virulent, hepatotropic viruses that were recovered from the livers of both rabbits and 630 631 hares and from rabbits of all ages in this study. This tropism mimics that seen with other 632 GI.2 viruses [73-80]. In stark contrast, the parental RCV-A1 is a benign, enterotropic virus that has only been recovered from rabbits [14], while the RHDVa-Aus variant, 633 although virulent and hepatotropic, has only been found in adult rabbits. Our findings 634 suggest that it is the lagovirus capsid that confers both host and tissue tropism and that 635 tissue tropism is correlated with virulence. 636

With the broader host tropism conferred by the GI.2 capsid, there is increased potential 637 for the emergence of novel epizootic lagovirus variants through both intragenotypic and 638 intergenotypic recombination. Hares are known to carry their own, presumed benign, 639 caliciviruses [16-18, 31, 33, 73-79]. Indeed, the first intergenotypic lagovirus 640 recombinants were recently reported from Germany [33]. Since the incursion of RHDV2 641 642 into North America in 2020 this variant has also been reported to infect several Sylvilagus species (cottontail rabbits) [81]. Although endemic Sylvilagus calciviruses 643 have never been reported, very limited sampling has been conducted in this species. It 644 remains to be seen whether North American leporids may be a new reservoir for the 645 emergence of novel lagoviruses with panzootic potential. This highlights the need for 646 ongoing surveillance and full genetic characterization of lagoviruses and other 647 648 caliciviruses to facilitate detection of future emerging variants of significance to both animal and human health. 649

650

651 Acknowledgements

652 We wish to thank all submitters, including domestic pet owners, landholders, and veterinarians, for assistance with sample collection. We thank members of the previous 653 RHD-Boost program of the Invasive Animals Cooperative Research Centre that 654 655 established the National Rabbit Monitoring Program. We thank Tiffany O'Connor and the virology team at Elizabeth Macarthur Agricultural Institute for contributing additional 656 657 positive samples. We thank Peter West, Emma Sawyers, and the RabbitScan team for 658 the development and ongoing support of this mobile and web app through which we receive rabbit samples. We thank Roslyn Mourant, Melissa Piper, Dimple Bhatia, and 659 Lily Tran for assistance with sample processing. We would also like to thank Carlo 660 661 Pacioni for his advice on analyses, and Alex Gofton and Matthew Neave for critical appraisal of the manuscript. Finally, the authors acknowledge the Sydney Informatics 662 Hub and the University of Sydney's high-performance computing cluster Artemis for 663 providing the high-performance computing resources that contributed to the research 664 results reported within this paper. 665

667 **Funding**

- 668 This work was supported by the Centre for Invasive Species Solutions [P01-B-002 to
- T.S.]; and Australian Research Council Australian Laureate Fellowship [FL170100022
- 670 to E.C.H].
- 671

672 Data availability

- Full genome sequences are available in GenBank under accession numbers
- 674 MW460205 MW460242. All sequence alignments, tree files, and BEAST xml files are
- 675 available at <u>https://doi.org/10.25919/758f-4t15</u>.
- 676

677 **References**

- Parra, G.I., et al., Static and Evolving Norovirus Genotypes: Implications for Epidemiology and
 Immunity. PLoS Pathog, 2017. 13(1): p. e1006136.
- Abrantes, J., et al., *Rabbit haemorrhagic disease (RHD) and rabbit haemorrhagic disease virus*(*RHDV): a review.* Vet Res, 2012. 43: p. 12.
- 682 3. Le Pendu, J., et al., *Proposal for a unified classification system and nomenclature of lagoviruses*. J
 683 Gen Virol, 2017. **98**(7): p. 1658-1666.
- 684 4. Gavier-Widen, D. and T. Morner, *Epidemiology and diagnosis of the European brown hare*685 *syndrome in Scandinavian countries: a review.* Rev Sci Tech, 1991. **10**(2): p. 453-8.
- 5. Liu, S.J., et al., *A new viral disease in rabbits*. J Vet Diagn Invest, 1984. **16**: p. 253-255.
- 687 6. Capucci, L., et al., *A further step in the evolution of rabbit hemorrhagic disease virus: the* 688 *appearance of the first consistent antigenic variant.* Virus Res, 1998. **58**(1-2): p. 115-26.
- 689 7. Le Gall-Recule, G., et al., *Emergence of a new lagovirus related to Rabbit Haemorrhagic Disease*690 *Virus.* Vet Res, 2013. 44: p. 81.
- 691 8. Le Gall-Recule, G., et al., *Detection of a new variant of rabbit haemorrhagic disease virus in*692 *France.* Vet Rec, 2011. **168**(5): p. 137-8.
- 693 9. Dalton, K.P., et al., *Variant rabbit hemorrhagic disease virus in young rabbits, Spain.* Emerg Infect
 694 Dis, 2012. **18**(12): p. 2009-12.

| 695 | 10. | Capucci, L., et al., Detection and preliminary characterization of a new rabbit calicivirus related |
|-----|-----|--|
| 696 | | to rabbit hemorrhagic disease virus but nonpathogenic. J Virol, 1996. 70 (12): p. 8614-23. |
| 697 | 11. | Lemaitre, E., et al., First complete genome sequence of a European non-pathogenic rabbit |
| 698 | | <i>calicivirus (lagovirus GI.3)</i> . Arch Virol, 2018. 163 (10): p. 2921-2924. |
| 699 | 12. | Capucci, L., A. Nardin, and A. Lavazza, Seroconversion in an industrial unit of rabbits infected |
| 700 | | with a non-pathogenic rabbit haemorrhagic disease-like virus. Vet Rec, 1997. 140 (25): p. 647-50. |
| 701 | 13. | Le Gall-Recule, G., et al., Characterisation of a non-pathogenic and non-protective infectious |
| 702 | | rabbit lagovirus related to RHDV. Virology, 2011. 410(2): p. 395-402. |
| 703 | 14. | Strive, T., J.D. Wright, and A.J. Robinson, Identification and partial characterisation of a new |
| 704 | | Lagovirus in Australian wild rabbits. Virology, 2009. 384 (1): p. 97-105. |
| 705 | 15. | Nicholson, L.J., et al., Benign Rabbit Calicivirus in New Zealand. Appl Environ Microbiol, 2017. |
| 706 | | 83(11). |
| 707 | 16. | Cavadini, P., et al., Widespread occurrence of the non-pathogenic hare calicivirus (HaCV |
| 708 | | Lagovirus GII.2) in captive-reared and free-living wild hares in Europe. Transbound Emerg Dis, |
| 709 | | 2020. |
| 710 | 17. | Droillard, C., et al., First complete genome sequence of a hare calicivirus strain isolated from |
| 711 | | Lepus europaeus. Microbiol Resour Announc, 2018. 7 (22). |
| 712 | 18. | Droillard, C., et al., Genetic diversity and evolution of Hare Calicivirus (HaCV), a recently |
| 713 | | identified lagovirus from Lepus europaeus. Infect Genet Evol, 2020. 82 : p. 104310. |
| 714 | 19. | Mahar, J.E., et al., The discovery of three new hare lagoviruses reveals unexplored viral diversity |
| 715 | | <i>in this genus.</i> Virus Evol, 2019. 5 (1): p. vez005. |
| 716 | 20. | Ohlinger, V.F., et al., Identification and characterization of the virus causing rabbit hemorrhagic |
| 717 | | <i>disease.</i> J Virol, 1990. 64 (7): p. 3331-6. |
| 718 | 21. | Conley, M.J., et al., Calicivirus VP2 forms a portal-like assembly following receptor engagement. |
| 719 | | Nature, 2019. 565 (7739): p. 377-381. |
| 720 | 22. | Meyers, G., C. Wirblich, and H.J. Thiel, Genomic and subgenomic RNAs of rabbit hemorrhagic |
| 721 | | disease virus are both protein-linked and packaged into particles. Virology, 1991. 184(2): p. 677- |
| 722 | | 86. |
| 723 | 23. | Worobey, M. and E.C. Holmes, Evolutionary aspects of recombination in RNA viruses. J Gen Virol, |
| 724 | | 1999. 80 (Pt 10) : p. 2535-2543. |
| 725 | 24. | Abrantes, J., et al., Recombination at the emergence of the pathogenic rabbit haemorrhagic |
| 726 | | disease virus Lagovirus europaeus/GI.2. Sci Rep, 2020. 10(1): p. 14502. |
| | | |

| 727 | 25. | Ludwig-Begall, L.F., A. Mauroy, and E. Thiry, Norovirus recombinants: recurrent in the field, |
|-----|-----|--|
| 728 | | recalcitrant in the lab - a scoping review of recombination and recombinant types of noroviruses. |
| 729 | | J Gen Virol, 2018. 99 (8): p. 970-988. |
| 730 | 26. | Bull, R.A., et al., Norovirus recombination in ORF1/ORF2 overlap. Emerg Infect Dis, 2005. 11(7): |
| 731 | | p. 1079-85. |
| 732 | 27. | Lopes, A.M., et al., Full genomic analysis of new variant rabbit hemorrhagic disease virus |
| 733 | | revealed multiple recombination events. J Gen Virol, 2015. 96 (Pt 6): p. 1309-1319. |
| 734 | 28. | Lopes, A.M., et al., GI.1b/GI.1b/GI.2 recombinant rabbit hemorrhagic disease virus 2 (Lagovirus |
| 735 | | <i>europaeus/GI.2) in Morocco, Africa.</i> Arch Virol, 2019. 164 (1): p. 279-283. |
| 736 | 29. | Silverio, D., et al., Insights into the evolution of the new variant rabbit haemorrhagic disease |
| 737 | | virus (GI.2) and the identification of novel recombinant strains. Transbound Emerg Dis, 2018. |
| 738 | | 65 (4): p. 983-992. |
| 739 | 30. | Dalton, K.P., et al., Conventional and real time RT-PCR assays for the detection and |
| 740 | | differentiation of variant rabbit hemorrhagic disease virus (RHDVb) and its recombinants. J Virol |
| 741 | | Methods, 2018. 251 : p. 118-122. |
| 742 | 31. | Hall, R.N., et al., A strain-specific multiplex RT-PCR for Australian rabbit haemorrhagic disease |
| 743 | | viruses uncovers a new recombinant virus variant in rabbits and hares. Transbound Emerg Dis, |
| 744 | | 2018. 65 (2): p. e444-e456. |
| 745 | 32. | Mahar, J.E., et al., Detection and Circulation of a Novel Rabbit Hemorrhagic Disease Virus in |
| 746 | | Australia. Emerg Infect Dis, 2018. 24(1): p. 22-31. |
| 747 | 33. | Szillat, K.P., et al., Full-genome sequencing of German rabbit haemorrhagic disease virus |
| 748 | | uncovers recombination between RHDV (GI.2) and EBHSV (GII.1). Virus Evolution, 2020. 6(2). |
| 749 | 34. | Mahar, J.E., et al., Rabbit Hemorrhagic Disease Virus 2 (RHDV2; GI.2) Is Replacing Endemic |
| 750 | | Strains of RHDV in the Australian Landscape within 18 Months of Its Arrival. J Virol, 2018. 92(2). |
| 751 | 35. | Mahar, J.E., et al., Benign Rabbit Caliciviruses Exhibit Evolutionary Dynamics Similar to Those of |
| 752 | | Their Virulent Relatives. J Virol, 2016. 90 (20): p. 9317-29. |
| 753 | 36. | Kerr, P.J., R.N. Hall, and T. Strive, Viruses for landscape-scale therapy: Biological control of |
| 754 | | rabbits in Australia. Methods Mol Biol, 2021. 2225: p. 1-23. |
| 755 | 37. | Hall, R.N., et al., Emerging Rabbit Hemorrhagic Disease Virus 2 (RHDVb), Australia. Emerg Infect |
| 756 | | Dis, 2015. 21 (12): p. 2276-8. |
| 757 | 38. | Kirkland, P.D. and M.J. Frost, The impact of viral transport media on PCR assay results for the |
| 758 | | detection of nucleic acid from SARS-CoV-2. Pathology, 2020. 52 (7): p. 811-814. |

| 759 | 39. | Ramsey, D.S.L., et al., Emerging RHDV2 suppresses the impact of endemic and novel strains of |
|-----|-----|---|
| 760 | | RHDV on wild rabbit populations. Journal of Applied Ecology, 2020. 57(3): p. 630-641. |
| 761 | 40. | Eden, J.S., et al., Comparative Phylodynamics of Rabbit Hemorrhagic Disease Virus in Australia |
| 762 | | and New Zealand. J Virol, 2015. 89 (18): p. 9548-58. |
| 763 | 41. | Katoh, K. and D.M. Standley, MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: |
| 764 | | improvements in performance and usability. Mol Biol Evol, 2013. 30 (4): p. 772-80. |
| 765 | 42. | Minh, B.Q., et al., IQ-TREE 2: New Models and Efficient Methods for Phylogenetic Inference in the |
| 766 | | <i>Genomic Era.</i> Mol Biol Evol, 2020. 37 (5): p. 1530-1534. |
| 767 | 43. | Guindon, S., et al., New algorithms and methods to estimate maximum-likelihood phylogenies: |
| 768 | | assessing the performance of PhyML 3.0. Syst Biol, 2010. 59(3): p. 307-21. |
| 769 | 44. | Martin, D.P., et al., RDP4: Detection and analysis of recombination patterns in virus genomes. |
| 770 | | Virus Evol, 2015. 1 (1): p. vev003. |
| 771 | 45. | Yang, Z., PAML 4: phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. Mol Biol Evol, 2007. 24(8): p. |
| 772 | | 1586-91. |
| 773 | 46. | Rambaut, A., et al., Exploring the temporal structure of heterochronous sequences using TempEst |
| 774 | | <i>(formerly Path-O-Gen).</i> Virus Evol, 2016. 2 (1): p. vew007. |
| 775 | 47. | Drummond, A.J. and A. Rambaut, BEAST: Bayesian evolutionary analysis by sampling trees. BMC |
| 776 | | Evol Biol, 2007. 7 : p. 214. |
| 777 | 48. | Zharkikh, A., Estimation of evolutionary distances between nucleotide sequences. J Mol Evol, |
| 778 | | 1994. 39 (3): p. 315-29. |
| 779 | 49. | R Core Team, R: A language and environment for statistical computing. 2020, R Foundation for |
| 780 | | Statistical Computing: Vienna, Austria. |
| 781 | 50. | Yu, G., et al., ggtree: an r package for visualization and annotation of phylogenetic trees with |
| 782 | | their covariates and other associated data. Methods in Ecology and Evolution, 2017. 8(1): p. 28- |
| 783 | | 36. |
| 784 | 51. | Wang, L.G., et al., Treeio: An R Package for Phylogenetic Tree Input and Output with Richly |
| 785 | | Annotated and Associated Data. Mol Biol Evol, 2020. 37 (2): p. 599-603. |
| 786 | 52. | Wickham, H. and D. Seidel, scales: Scale Functions for Visualization. 2020, R package version |
| 787 | | 1.1.1. |
| 788 | 53. | Wickham, H., et al., Welcome to the Tidyverse. Journal of Open Source Software, 2019. 4(43): p. |
| 789 | | 1686. |

- 790 54. Paradis, E. and K. Schliep, *ape 5.0: an environment for modern phylogenetics and evolutionary*
- 791 *analyses in R.* Bioinformatics, 2019. **35**(3): p. 526-528.
- 792 55. Revell, L.J., *phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things).*793 Methods in Ecology and Evolution, 2012. 3(2): p. 217-223.
- 56. Schliep, K.P., *phangorn: phylogenetic analysis in R.* Bioinformatics, 2011. **27**(4): p. 592-3.
- 795 57. Wilke, C., cowplot: Streamlined Plot Theme and Plot Annotations for 'ggplot2'. 2020.
- 58. Grolemund, G. and H. Wickham, *Dates and times made easy with lubridate*. Journal of Statistical
 Software, 2011. 1(3).
- 798 59. Wickham, H., *The split-apply-combine strategy for data analysis.* Journal of Statistical Software,
 799 2011. 1(1).
- 800 60. Sumner, M., *ozmaps: Australia Maps*. 2020.
- 801 61. Wang, X., et al., Atomic model of rabbit hemorrhagic disease virus by cryo-electron microscopy
 802 and crystallography. PLoS Pathog, 2013. 9(1): p. e1003132.
- 803 62. Parra, G.I., *Emergence of norovirus strains: A tale of two genes*. Virus Evol, 2019. **5**(2): p. vez048.
- 804 63. Eden, J.S., et al., *Recombination within the pandemic norovirus GII.4 lineage.* J Virol, 2013.
 805 87(11): p. 6270-82.
- 806 64. Liu, J., et al., Distribution and prevalence of the Australian non-pathogenic rabbit calicivirus is
 807 correlated with rainfall and temperature. PLoS One, 2014. 9(12): p. e113976.
- 808 65. Wobus, C.E., et al., *Replication of Norovirus in cell culture reveals a tropism for dendritic cells and*809 *macrophages.* PLoS Biol, 2004. **2**(12): p. e432.
- Kimura, T., et al., *Distribution of rabbit haemorrhagic disease virus RNA in experimentally infected rabbits.* J Comp Pathol, 2001. **124**(2-3): p. 134-41.
- 812 67. Neave, M.J., et al., Robust Innate Immunity of Young Rabbits Mediates Resistance to Rabbit
- 813 Hemorrhagic Disease Caused by Lagovirus Europaeus GI.1 But Not GI.2. Viruses, 2018. 10(9).
- 814 68. Tohma, K., et al., *Phylogenetic Analyses Suggest that Factors Other Than the Capsid Protein Play*815 a Role in the Epidemic Potential of GII.2 Norovirus. mSphere, 2017. 2(3).
- 816 69. Ruis, C., et al., *The emerging GII.P16-GII.4 Sydney 2012 norovirus lineage is circulating*
- 817 worldwide, arose by late-2014 and contains polymerase changes that may increase virus
- 818 *transmission.* PLoS One, 2017. **12**(6): p. e0179572.
- 819 70. Cheung, S.K.C., et al., *Higher Viral Load of Emerging Norovirus GII.P16-GII.2 than Pandemic GII.4*820 and Epidemic GII.17, Hong Kong, China. Emerg Infect Dis, 2019. 25(1): p. 119-122.

821 71. Arias, A., et al., Norovirus Polymerase Fidelity Contributes to Viral Transmission In Vivo.

822 mSphere, 2016. **1**(5).

- 823 72. Urakova, N., et al., Purification and Biochemical Characterisation of Rabbit Calicivirus RNA-
- 824 Dependent RNA Polymerases and Identification of Non-Nucleoside Inhibitors. Viruses, 2016. 8(4):
 825 p. 100.
- Puggioni, G., et al., *The new French 2010 Rabbit Hemorrhagic Disease Virus causes an RHD-like*disease in the Sardinian Cape hare (Lepus capensis mediterraneus). Vet Res, 2013. 44: p. 96.
- 828 74. Camarda, A., et al., *Detection of the new emerging rabbit haemorrhagic disease type 2 virus*
- 829 (*RHDV2*) in Sicily from rabbit (Oryctolagus cuniculus) and Italian hare (Lepus corsicanus). Res Vet
 830 Sci, 2014. **97**(3): p. 642-5.
- 831 75. Hall, R.N., et al., *Detection of RHDV2 in European brown hares (Lepus europaeus) in Australia.*832 Vet Rec, 2017. **180**(5): p. 121.
- Velarde, R., et al., Spillover Events of Infection of Brown Hares (Lepus europaeus) with Rabbit
 Haemorrhagic Disease Type 2 Virus (RHDV2) Caused Sporadic Cases of an European Brown Hare
 Syndrome-Like Disease in Italy and Spain. Transbound Emerg Dis, 2017. 64(6): p. 1750-1761.
- 836 77. Le Gall-Recule, G., et al., *Large-scale lagovirus disease outbreaks in European brown hares*
- (Lepus europaeus) in France caused by RHDV2 strains spatially shared with rabbits (Oryctolagus
 cuniculus). Vet Res, 2017. 48(1): p. 70.
- 839 78. Neimanis, A.S., et al., Overcoming species barriers: an outbreak of Lagovirus europaeus
- 840 *GI.2/RHDV2 in an isolated population of mountain hares (Lepus timidus).* BMC Vet Res, 2018.
 841 **14**(1): p. 367.
- 842 79. Buehler, M., et al., Lagovirus europeus GI.2 (rabbit hemorrhagic disease virus 2) infection in
 843 captive mountain hares (Lepus timidus) in Germany. BMC Vet Res, 2020. 16(1): p. 166.
- 844 80. Dalton, K.P., et al., Spread of new variant RHDV in domestic rabbits on the Iberian Peninsula. Vet
 845 Microbiol, 2014. 169(1-2): p. 67-73.
- 846 81. Sleeman, J., *National Wildlife Health Center Wildlife Health Bulletin 2020-06*. 2020, USGS
 847 National Wildlife Health Center.