

1     **Genomic and phylogenetic characterization of viruses included in the Manzanilla**  
2             **and Oropouche species complexes of the genus *Orthobunyavirus*, family**  
3                             *Bunyaviridae*

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32

### 33 **Summary**

34           A thorough characterization of the genetic diversity of viruses present in vector  
35 and vertebrate host populations is essential for the early detection of and response to  
36 emerging pathogenic viruses, yet genetic characterization of many important viral groups  
37 remains incomplete. The Simbu serogroup of the genus *Orthobunyavirus*, family  
38 *Bunyaviridae* is an example. The Simbu serogroup currently consists of a highly diverse  
39 group of related arboviruses that infect both humans and economically important  
40 livestock species. Here, we report complete genome sequences for 11 viruses within this  
41 group, with a focus on the large and poorly characterized Manzanilla and Oropouche  
42 species complexes. Phylogenetic and pairwise divergence analyses indicate the presence  
43 of high-levels of genetic diversity within these two species complexes, on par with that  
44 seen among the five other species complexes in the Simbu serogroup. Based on  
45 previously reported divergence thresholds between species, the data suggest that these  
46 two complexes should actually be divided into at least five species. Together these five  
47 species form a distinct phylogenetic clade apart from the rest of the Simbu serogroup.  
48 Pairwise sequence divergences among viruses of this clade and viruses in other Simbu  
49 serogroup species complexes are similar to levels of divergence among the other  
50 orthobunyavirus serogroups. The genetic data also suggest relatively high levels of  
51 natural reassortment, with three potential reassortment events present, including two  
52 well-supported events involving viruses known to infect humans.

## 53 **Introduction**

54           Globalization of travel and trade, climate change and ever-growing human  
55 population sizes are all contributing to an increase in the emergence of pathogenic viruses  
56 (Lipkin, 2013). Many of these viruses are coming from well characterized and expected  
57 groups (e.g., influenza, flaviviruses), whereas others belong to groups that have been  
58 largely ignored by past surveillance programs. An example of the latter group are  
59 members of the genus *Phlebovirus*, which, with the notable exceptions of Rift Valley  
60 fever and Toscana viruses were generally thought to be of little current public health  
61 importance until the recent emergence of Severe Fever with Thrombocytopenia  
62 Syndrome virus (SFTSV) and Heartland virus (HRTV) (McMullan *et al.*, 2012; Yu *et al.*,  
63 2011). Another, even larger, neglected group is the orthobunyaviruses. Due to their  
64 abundance and diversity, many orthobunyaviruses have yet to be fully sequenced and  
65 there are likely many others that have yet to be detected. However, a thorough  
66 understanding of the sequence diversity of such circulating viruses is a critical part of  
67 surveillance and preparedness for future disease outbreaks.

68           *Orthobunyavirus* is the largest genus in the *Bunyaviridae* family with over 170  
69 named viruses corresponding to 18 different serogroups and 48 species complexes  
70 (Elliott & Blakqori, 2011; Nichol *et al.*, 2005). Although the term ‘serogroup’ is not  
71 currently utilized by the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV), the  
72 concept of serogroups has played an important historical role in viral taxonomy (Calisher  
73 & Karabatsos, 1988); the classification of arthropod-borne viruses (arboviruses) was  
74 initially based on antigenic relationships revealed by serological tests. (Casals, 1957). In  
75 general, genetic-based classifications are starting to supplant antigenic classifications;

76 however, due to the lack of genetic information for many named viruses in *Bunyaviridae*,  
77 most current taxonomic assignments are still based on serological criteria (Nichol *et al.*,  
78 2005; Plyusnin *et al.*, 2012). Thus in this report, in the interests of continuity and clarity,  
79 the term “serogroup” will continue to be used for a group of serologically related viruses  
80 and the term “species complex” will be used for ICTV-defined (Nichol *et al.*, 2005)  
81 groups of closely related, differently named viruses whose exact taxonomic status  
82 remains uncertain because of slight antigenic variation or differences in host range,  
83 vector species, geographic distribution and/or pathogenic potential from the designated  
84 type species. The purpose of the present report is to explore genetic diversity within the  
85 Simbu serogroup of the genus *Orthobunyavirus*, a diverse and geographically widespread  
86 group that includes important human and livestock pathogens (Kinney & Calisher, 1981;  
87 Saeed *et al.*, 2001a).

88         The Simbu serogroup currently includes 22 officially recognized viruses that have  
89 been grouped into seven different species complexes (Akabane, Manzanilla, Oropouche,  
90 Sathuperi, Simbu, Shamonda and Shuni) (Nichol *et al.*, 2005), as well as several other  
91 recently described viruses that have yet to be officially assigned to a species (Aguilar *et*  
92 *al.*, 2011; Figueiredo & Da Rosa, 1988; Goller *et al.*, 2012; Plyusnin *et al.*, 2012; Saeed  
93 *et al.*, 2001b). Full genomes have recently been obtained for 12 viruses within the Simbu  
94 serogroup (Goller *et al.*, 2012); however, these genome sequences are not equally  
95 distributed among the seven species complexes. For example, only one representative,  
96 Oropouche virus (OROV), has been fully sequenced from the Oropouche species  
97 complex, and no complete sequences are available from the Manzanilla species complex  
98 (Kinney & Calisher, 1981). Yet, these are two of the largest species complexes within the

99 Simbu serogroup, and the Oropouche species complex is the only one with members that  
100 are known to cause human disease. The lack of complete genomes for all members of  
101 these species complexes impacts diagnostic capacity (e.g., the ability to identify  
102 conserved/divergent regions for primer design in PCR applications and for recognition  
103 with sequence-based diagnostic methods); it also prevents the recognition of reassortants.

104           Here we utilize high-throughput sequencing technologies to improve our  
105 understanding of the diversity and evolutionary history of these two species complexes  
106 by obtaining full genome sequences for 11 previously uncharacterized viruses, including  
107 the three remaining members of the Oropouche species complex, four of the five  
108 members of the Manzanilla species complex and four other unsigned viruses that have  
109 demonstrated genetic and/or antigenic similarities to one of these two species complexes.  
110 In order to compare the sequences with previous taxonomic characterizations, serological  
111 comparisons were conducted among these 11 uncharacterized viruses and the other fully  
112 sequenced members of these two species complexes.

## 113 **Results & Discussion**

### 114 *Genome Sequences*

115           Genome sequences for 11 viruses (Table 1) were obtained through *de novo*  
116 assembly from either 454 (Roche) or Illumina sequences. Each sequenced  
117 orthobunyavirus genome consisted of three distinct RNA segments, and the sizes and  
118 organization of the open-reading frames (ORFs) were generally consistent with what has  
119 been previously described for the genus (Plyusnin *et al.*, 2012) (Table S1). The 3'  
120 terminal sequence was obtained for 18 segments (9 different viruses) and the 5' terminal  
121 sequence was obtained for 7 segments (5 different viruses). In all cases, the ten most  
122 terminal nucleotides were identical to those that have previously been reported for the  
123 genus (Plyusnin *et al.*, 2012). Segments without sufficient coverage to assemble the ends  
124 were completed using primers targeting these conserved terminal sequences. The largest  
125 (L) genome segment of *Orthobunyavirus* contains a single ORF that encodes an RNA  
126 polymerase; in our sequences, this ORF ranged in size from 6756-6783 bases. The  
127 medium-sized (M) segment also contains a single ORF, which encodes a polyprotein that  
128 is co-translationally cleaved into two envelope glycoproteins and a non-structural protein.  
129 The M segment ORF of the 11 viruses ranged in size from 4254-4299 bases. The smallest  
130 (S) segment typically contains two overlapping ORFs, which code for a nucleocapsid  
131 protein (NP) and a non-structural protein (NSs). The NP ORF of the 11 viruses ranged in  
132 size from 693-699 bases, while the NSs ORF ranged from 273-288 bases, with two  
133 exceptions; Utinga (UTIV) and Utive (UVV) both contained severely truncated,  
134 presumably non-functional, versions of the NSs ORF due to multiple nonsense mutations  
135 (81 bases, 27 aa). When functional, the NSs proteins of orthobunyaviruses have been

136 shown to act as interferon antagonists (Elliott & Weber, 2009), and therefore it is  
137 reasonable to suggest that loss of the NSs protein in UTIV and UVV may have altered the  
138 virulence of these viruses. Similar loss of the NSs has been reported in several other  
139 orthobunyavirus serogroups, including Anopheles A and B, Tete and Wyeomyia  
140 (Chowdhary *et al.*, 2012; Mohamed *et al.*, 2009); however, to our knowledge this is the  
141 first description of a single serogroup with members that both contain and lack a NSs  
142 protein.

#### 143 *Genus-level Phylogenetic Relationships*

144 Phylogenetic analyses of the three genome segments confirmed that the 11  
145 sequenced viruses are all genetically closely related to the previously sequenced Simbu  
146 serogroup viruses. The Simbu serogroup forms a monophyletic clade in both the M and S  
147 segment trees (bootstraps=66.9 and 100, respectively; Figures S1-S2), and in the L  
148 segment tree the serogroup is paraphyletic, also including Leanyer virus (LEAV; Figure  
149 1) (Savji *et al.*, 2011). Uncertainty in placing LEAV is the main reason for a low  
150 bootstrap in the M segment tree; without LEAV, the Simbu serogroup clade is supported  
151 in 90% of bootstrap analyses. Our extended genetic sampling of the Oropouche and  
152 Manzanilla species complexes illuminated a deep evolutionary divide within the Simbu  
153 serogroup; one phylogenetic clade (Clade A) includes the Manzanilla and Oropouche  
154 species complexes and a second clade (Clade B) includes the other five Simbu species  
155 complexes (Figures 1, S1-S2) (Kinney & Calisher, 1981). These monophyletic clades are  
156 well-supported across all three genomic segments with bootstrap support ranging from  
157 97.5-100%, and there is no evidence of reassortment between these clades.

158 In 1981, Kinney and Calisher (Kinney & Calisher, 1981) used a combination of  
159 serological analyses to provide finer levels of classification within the Simbu serogroup;  
160 the two genetic clades seen in our analysis are consistent with the serocomplexes they  
161 identified. Clade B corresponds completely to their original Simbu serocomplex, whereas  
162 the Oropouche and Manzanilla species complexes (clade A) each correspond to unique  
163 serocomplexes. Pairwise genetic similarities at the amino acid-level between clades A  
164 and B ranged from 56.6-61.5%, 32.4-39%, and 59.7-71.9% for the L, M and S segments,  
165 respectively, while similarities within the clades ranged from 65.9-99.7%, 34.4-89.1%  
166 and 69.8-100%, respectively (Figure 2). In our previous evaluation of LEAV (Savji *et al.*,  
167 2011), minimum percent amino acid similarities were proposed as criteria for inclusion of  
168 viruses within the same group, where the term “group” refers to the taxonomic division  
169 currently occupied by serogroups. Clear distinctions were found between intra- and inter-  
170 group genetic similarities at the L and S segments, and cutoffs of 59 and 60%,  
171 respectively, were proposed (Savji *et al.*, 2011). With currently available data, we see  
172 similarly clear distinctions in comparisons of L segment sequences, even when Simbu  
173 serogroup clades A and B are treated separately. In fact, ~77% (92/120) of the pairwise  
174 comparisons between these two clades fall at or below the proposed 59% similarity cutoff,  
175 and 90.8% (109/120) of the pairwise comparisons are below a similarity cutoff of 60%,  
176 while all intra-clade comparisons are well above these cutoffs. In general, we found  
177 levels of intra- and inter-serogroup genetic similarity to be less distinct when comparing  
178 the S segments and no pairwise comparisons between clades A and B met the previously  
179 proposed cutoff for different serogroups. However, 76.9% (120/156) of pairwise  
180 comparisons between clades A and B exhibit <69% similarity, while all comparisons

181 within the two clades are above this threshold. Furthermore, this degree of S segment  
182 similarity is on par with pairwise comparisons between members of the Wyeomyia and  
183 Bunyamwera serogroups (Figure 2); the former was not included in our previous analysis  
184 (Savji *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, we argue that the level of evolutionary divergence  
185 between these two Simbu serogroup clades is more consistent with levels of divergence  
186 seen among the other orthobunyavirus serogroups than that seen within serogroups.

187         One of the hallmarks of the Simbu serogroup is its extensive geographic  
188 distribution, and this has been suggested to be one of the major factors behind the high-  
189 level of genetic diversity found within this group (Saeed *et al.*, 2001a). Even if the two  
190 Simbu serogroup clades are considered as distinct serogroups, both still exhibit extensive  
191 geographic distributions (Figure S3), which may explain the high levels of genetic  
192 diversity within each of these two groups as compared to many other orthobunyavirus  
193 serogroups (Figure 2). However, clade A (Manzanilla and Oropouche species complex  
194 viruses) is unique in being found within the Americas. To date, 77% (10/13) of  
195 Manzanilla and Oropouche species viruses have been isolated from North and/or South  
196 America (including Inini virus (Saeed *et al.*, 2001a)), but no clade B viruses have been  
197 found yet in this region. However, Clade A viruses are not restricted only to the Americas,  
198 as isolates of some representatives have been obtained from Australia, South Africa and  
199 Vietnam (Bryant *et al.*, 2005; Doherty *et al.*, 1979; McIntosh *et al.*, 1965), and  
200 serological evidence exists for the presence of Ingwavuma virus (INGV) in Nigeria, the  
201 Central African Republic, India, Thailand and Cyprus ([http://wwwn.cdc.gov/arbocat/](http://wwwn.cdc.gov/arbochat/)).  
202 These differences in distribution between the two genetic clades may relate to differences  
203 in vector and/or host range, which can facilitate or restrict the geographic spread of

204 viruses. More effort on the surveillance and identification of arthropod vectors of viruses  
205 in this group is necessary to better understand the forces that have shaped and maintain  
206 these distinct distributions.

207

### 208 *Species-level Phylogenetic Relationships*

209         Within clade A, two species complexes have been proposed (Nichol *et al.*, 2005);  
210 however, the genetic data presented here suggests the presence of at least five different  
211 lineages, which should likely be considered distinct species (Figures 1, S1-S2). Based on  
212 a limited number of available sequences, it has been observed that distinct  
213 *Orthobunyavirus* species tend to differ by at least 10% when comparing nucleoprotein  
214 (N) amino acid sequences (S-segment). Utilizing this criterion, clade A should be divided  
215 into five different species with Buttonwillow (BUTV) forming its own species apart from  
216 the other Manzanilla species complex viruses and with the Oropouche species complex  
217 being split into three distinct species. Together, UTIV and UVV form one of the new  
218 species within the current Oropouche species complex; the name Utinga is suggested for  
219 this species since this is the first of its members to be described (Shope *et al.*, 1967).  
220 Facey's Paddock virus (FPV), which is a phylogenetic outlier and highly divergent from  
221 all of the other clade A viruses (minimum N protein divergence=26%), represents the  
222 other new species previously attributed to the Oropouche species complex.

223         These species divisions are phylogenetically consistent in both the S-segment  
224 and L-segment trees with between species amino acid divergences of at least 14.1% and  
225 20.9%, respectively, and maximum within species divergences of 7.3% and 17.3%,  
226 respectively. The M segment phylogeny is also generally consistent with these species,

227 with the exception of the Oropouche species, which is complicated by several potential  
228 reassortment events (see below). Excluding Oropouche species viruses, all M-segment,  
229 amino acid divergences within species are  $\leq 21.4\%$  while all divergences between species  
230 are  $\geq 32.8\%$ . These species are also consistent with serological comparisons (Tables 2-3),  
231 and in certain cases, correspond with available phenotypic information. For example,  
232 mosquitos are the primary vectors for most of the Manzanilla species complex viruses,  
233 whereas BUTV has only been associated with *Culicoides* midges  
234 (<http://wwwn.cdc.gov/arbocat/>). Throughout the rest of the manuscript, we utilize these  
235 five species designations without the use of the term ‘complex,’ in order to distinguish  
236 them from the species previously identified by the ICTV (Nichol *et al.*, 2005).

237

#### 238 *Unassigned viruses*

239 Four of the viruses sequenced here have not been officially assigned to a species  
240 complex by the ICTV. However, using a combination of genetic (Figures 1, S1-S2) and  
241 serological data (Tables 2-3) it is clear that one of these viruses (VN04-2108) belongs to  
242 the Manzanilla species, while the other three (Iquitos (IQTV), Jatobal (JATV) and  
243 FMD1303) belong to the Oropouche species. Virus strain VN 04-2108 was originally  
244 reported to be Oya virus (OYAV), based on indirect immunofluorescence assays and its  
245 high nucleotide similarity to OYAV, based on a partial S segment sequence (Bryant *et al.*,  
246 2005). Our S genome segment is identical to the sequence from the original  
247 characterization of VN 04-2108; in fact, this sequence is characteristic of all the “Oya”  
248 isolates obtained in Vietnam during that study (Bryant *et al.*, 2005). However, when  
249 compared now to all of our newly available sequence data, VN 04-2108 exhibits similar

250 levels of divergence to four named viruses in the Manzanilla species complex: the  
251 original OYAV isolate (4.1% aa, 9.6% nt), Manzanilla virus (MANV, 2.5% aa, 13.1%  
252 nt), INGV (5.7% aa, 11.2% nt) and Mermet virus (MERV, 4.1% aa , 14.5% nt). The  
253 prototype OYAV virus was isolated from a sick pig in Malaysia during a Nipah virus  
254 outbreak and was not available for this study, so all of these divergences are based only  
255 on the published portion of the S segment available for the original OYAV isolate  
256 (AB075611). No genus-wide framework has been proposed for genetically determining  
257 which orthobunyaviruses should be uniquely named; however, based on the levels of  
258 genetic divergence among currently named viruses in this group, VN 04-2108 should  
259 likely be given its own unique name, in which case, Cat Que (CQV) is suggested as this  
260 is the name of the community in Vietnam where the infected mosquitoes were collected  
261 (Bryant *et al.*, 2005). Alternatively, given the overall genetic and phylogenetic similarity  
262 of VN 04-2108, MANV, MERV and INGV across all three genome segments (Figures 1,  
263 S1-S2), it may be more prudent to simplify the nomenclature by referring to all four  
264 simply as distinct strains of a single named virus, utilizing the name of the species to  
265 which they all belong (e.g., Manzanilla virus VN 04-2108, Manzanilla virus AV 782).  
266 UTIV and UVV are also strong candidates for synonymization under a single virus name,  
267 as they exhibit even higher levels of sequence similarity than those within the Manzanilla  
268 species. High levels of genetic similarity are also seen among named members of the  
269 Oropouche species at particular segments; however, relationships are complicated by  
270 patterns of reassortment (see below).

271 FMD1303 is a previously uncharacterized orthobunyavirus that was isolated from  
272 a febrile human in the Madre de Dios region of Peru. Serologically, FMD1303 is broadly

273 reactive with OROV, IQTV and JATV, which suggests that it is a member of the  
274 Oropouche species, and this is consistent with the available genetic data. The S segment  
275 of FMD1303 is identical at the amino acid-level to both OROV and IQTV. This is  
276 consistent with what is known about the epidemiology of FMD1303, as OROV and  
277 IQTV are the only other two Simbu serogroup viruses that have been shown to cause  
278 disease in humans (Aguilar *et al.*, 2011; Anderson *et al.*, 1961). However, based on the  
279 nucleotide sequence of the S segment, FMD1303 falls outside of the range of diversity  
280 currently described for OROV/IQTV (Figure S4). The L segment phylogeny is also  
281 consistent with this finding, though for this segment many fewer sequences are available  
282 for comparison, while the patterns on the M segment are complicated by reassortment  
283 (see below). Nonetheless, this virus expands the known diversity of Oropouche species  
284 viruses that infect humans. Due to its distinctiveness, we suggest that this virus be given  
285 its own name; we propose the name Madre de Dios virus (MDDV), based on the  
286 collection locality.

287         Partial genome sequences from JATV have previously demonstrated an  
288 association with the Oropouche species (Saeed *et al.*, 2001a; Saeed *et al.*, 2001b), and our  
289 genetic and serological analyses confirm this assignment. However, the complete genome  
290 sequence of Jatobal (JATV) (JQ675601- JQ675603) differs from the partial sequences  
291 previously reported for the same strain (AF312380 & AF312382) (Saeed *et al.*, 2001a;  
292 Saeed *et al.*, 2001b). These results were confirmed at the Center for Technological  
293 Innovation, Genomic core, Evandro Chagas Institute, by obtaining a second full-length  
294 sequence of a lower-passage of JATV strain BeAn 423380 (original seed). Sequences of  
295 the original seed and the passaged virus from the World Reference Center for Emerging

296 Viruses and Arboviruses (WRCEVA) collection are identical. The largest discrepancy  
297 between the JATV sequences described here and those that were previously reported lies  
298 on the S segment where the two sequences are only 83.4% identical at the nucleotide-  
299 level (90.4% aa), with polymorphisms present throughout the ~700 nucleotide bases. The  
300 M segment sequences, on the other hand, are essentially identical across the 570 bases  
301 covered by the partial sequence, except for several differences at the ends of the partial M  
302 sequence. We cannot account for these differences in the S segment sequences, as we  
303 could not detect the previously published sequence in either of our JATV samples, but we  
304 are confident in the quality of the genome sequence reported here.

305

#### 306 *Reassortment*

307       Reassortment in multi-segmented viruses is a form of genetic exchange that has  
308 the potential to provide many of the benefits of sexual exchange, for example, the rapid  
309 introduction of novel variation within a lineage, the uncoupling of beneficial mutations  
310 from detrimental changes and the ability to combine multiple beneficial mutations that  
311 originated in different lineages (Simon-Lorier & Holmes, 2011). In fact, reassortment  
312 has been implicated in multiple instances of host/vector range shifts and changes in  
313 pathogenicity (Briese *et al.*, 2006; Idris *et al.*, 2008; Le Nouen *et al.*, 2006; Nelson &  
314 Holmes, 2007; Parrish & Kawaoka, 2005; Schrauwen *et al.*, 2011). Laboratory  
315 experiments have demonstrated that reassortment is common between many  
316 bunyaviruses, *in vitro* (Gentsch & Bishop, 1976; Gentsch *et al.*, 1977; Gentsch *et al.*,  
317 1980; Iroegbu & Pringle, 1981; Pringle & Iroegbu, 1982; Reese *et al.*, 2008), and a  
318 number of recent genomic analyses have suggested that reassortment also plays an

319 important role in viral evolution in natural populations (Aguilar *et al.*, 2011; Briese *et al.*,  
320 2013; Briese *et al.*, 2006; Kobayashi *et al.*, 2007; Nunes *et al.*, 2005; Reese *et al.*, 2008;  
321 Yanase *et al.*, 2010; Yanase *et al.*, 2006). These examples include multiple viruses within  
322 the *Orthobunyavirus* genus. Given the potential evolutionary implications, it is important  
323 to monitor for the prevalence of viral reassortment events, especially in virus groups  
324 known to infect mammals.

325 To look for reassortment events, nucleotide-level phylogenetic analyses were  
326 conducted, which included only fully sequenced members of the five clade A species  
327 (Figure 3). Phylogenetic discordance, representing potential reassortment, is evident  
328 among the phylogenetic trees built from the three different genome segments. More  
329 specifically, while the S and L trees exhibit nearly identical branching patterns, the M  
330 segment supports different relationships among several of the sequenced viruses. In total,  
331 there are three discrepancies between the M segment tree and the S/L segment trees. The  
332 two best supported discrepancies (bootstraps  $\geq 75.9$  in all trees) involve viruses in the  
333 Oropouche species. The first involves OROV, IQTV and MDDV. OROV and IQTV are  
334 sister taxa in the S/L trees, while IQTV and MDDV are sister taxa in the M tree (Figure  
335 3). Support for the relationships of these three taxa is extremely high in all trees ( $\geq 99$   
336 bootstrap). Sliding window analyses in RDP confirm that these disparate patterns of  
337 divergence are consistent throughout each genomic segment, as expected with a  
338 reassortment event along one of these three lineages.

339 IQTV was recently described as a reassortant between OROV and an unknown  
340 Simbu serogroup virus based on partial sequences from the S and M segments (Aguilar *et*  
341 *al.*, 2011). Our results are consistent with this finding; furthermore, we have been able to

342 identify MDDV as a potential source for the M segment of IQTV. Natural reassortment  
343 between MDDV and OROV is certainly plausible given their documented geographic  
344 distributions; both viruses have been isolated from the Madre de Dios region of Peru, and  
345 the S segment of IQTV is most similar to the S segments from clade II of OROV, which  
346 is the only clade, thus far, that has been found in Peru (Aguilar *et al.*, 2011; Saeed *et al.*,  
347 2000). Interestingly, the level of amino acid divergence between OROV and both IQTV  
348 and MDDV (41-42%) is on par with levels of divergence seen between species. Whether  
349 this reassortment event has resulted in any changes in virulence, vectors or range has yet  
350 to be determined. It is also important to keep in mind that with the current available data  
351 it is impossible to know for certain which of these three viruses represents the true  
352 reassortant (Briese *et al.*, 2013). The addition of more complete genome sequences from  
353 each of these viral lineages should clarify relationships.

354         The second potential case of reassortment involves JATV, the Utinga species (i.e.,  
355 UTIV/UVV) and the lineage leading to the three human viruses (OROV, IQTV and  
356 MDDV). In the L and S trees, JATV forms a clade with the three human viruses, whereas  
357 in the M segment tree JATV forms a well-supported clade with the Utinga species  
358 (Figure 3). The RDP analyses demonstrate that these discordant relationships are  
359 consistent throughout the entirety of each genome segment (Figures S5-S6). Based on the  
360 high-levels of sequence divergence among all three groups of viruses (>45%), this  
361 reassortment event is likely to have occurred many generations ago or to have involved  
362 parental viruses that have yet to be isolated and/or sequenced.

363         JATV has been previously reported to be a reassortant with an S segment from  
364 OROV and an M segment from an uncharacterized virus (Saeed *et al.*, 2001b). While our

365 findings are generally consistent with the overall conclusion of reassortment, our S  
366 segment sequence is not consistent with the previously reported S segment (Saeed *et al.*,  
367 2001b). The S segment in the previous publication fell within the OROV clade, whereas  
368 our S sequence is a phylogenetic outgroup to the S segments of OROV, IQTV and  
369 MDDV (Figure 3). Our L segment is also consistent with this placement, demonstrating  
370 that this is an S,L vs. M segment reassortment event. Also, based on the available data, it  
371 is again impossible to distinguish which of the viral lineages involved represents the true  
372 reassortant.

373         The third potential reassortment event involves Manzanilla species viruses. CQV  
374 and INGV are sister taxa in the L/S trees, whereas CQV forms a clade with MANV and  
375 MERV in the M segment tree (Figure 3). The bootstrap support for these different  
376 relationships, however, is lower than that seen in the other discrepancies and the RDP  
377 analyses demonstrate that the divergence signals are not consistent across the genome  
378 segments (Figures S5-S6). Therefore, it is unclear whether this third discrepancy is due to  
379 reassortment or simply the result of ambiguity in the patterns of divergence.

### 380 *Conclusion*

381         The addition of 11 fully sequenced genomes for viruses in the Manzanilla and  
382 Oropouche species complexes has highlighted a deep evolutionary divide between these  
383 two species complexes and the rest of the Simbu serogroup. With sequence data from all  
384 three genome segments, we find compelling evidence to divide these two species  
385 complexes into five distinct species, and we have also been able to identify three  
386 potential reassortment events among viruses in these species. Two of these involve  
387 viruses that infect humans, and levels of sequence divergence on the reassorted segment

388 are on par with divergences seen between species. Future work is needed to determine  
389 whether any of these reassortments have affected virulence.

390

391 **Materials and Methods**

392 *Virus Isolates*

393 All virus stocks used in this study were obtained from the World Reference  
394 Center for Emerging Viruses and Arboviruses (WRCEVA) at the University of Texas  
395 Medical Branch (UTMB). The JATV original seed was provided by the World Health  
396 Organization Reference Center for Arboviruses at the Department of Arbovirology and  
397 Hemorrhagic Fevers, Instituto Evandro Chagas, Brazilian Ministry of Health. Virus strain  
398 FMD1303 was originally isolated at the U.S. Naval Medical Research Unit No. 6  
399 (NAMRU-6) in Lima from a blood sample obtained from a febrile human in Madre de  
400 Dios Department, Peru on March 22, 2007. The histories of the other isolates sequenced  
401 in this study have been previously published, see Table 1.

402

403 *Serological characterization*

404 All of the sequenced viruses were compared with each other and with OROV for  
405 serological similarity. Methods used to prepare antigens for the complement-fixation  
406 (CF) tests and for the preparation of immune ascitic fluids have been described  
407 previously (Beaty *et al.*, 1989; Travassos da Rosa *et al.*, 1983; Xu *et al.*, 2007). Both  
408 antigens and antibodies were produced in mice. CF tests were performed by the  
409 microtiter technique (Beaty *et al.*, 1989; Xu *et al.*, 2007), using two units of guinea-pig  
410 complement with overnight incubation of the antigen and antibody at 4°C. CF titers were  
411 recorded as the highest dilutions giving 3+ or 4+ fixation of complement. Titers of 1:8 or  
412 greater were considered positive. Hemagglutination-inhibition (HI) testing was  
413 performed in microtiter plates, as described previously (Travassos da Rosa *et al.*, 1983).

414 HI tests were performed with four hemagglutination units of virus at the optimal pH  
415 (5.75) against serial two-fold antiserum dilutions, starting at 1:20. HI titers of 1:20 or  
416 greater were considered positive. CF and HI tests were performed at the University of  
417 Texas Medical Branch, Galveston.

418

#### 419 ***Genome sequencing***

420 The BeAn 423380 (JATV) and VN 04-2108 (CQV) strains were sequenced and  
421 assembled at the Center for Infection and Immunity, Columbia University. The JATV  
422 original seed was sequenced and assembled at the Center for Technological Innovation,  
423 Genomic and Bioinformatic Cores, Evandro Chagas Institute, Brazil. For these strains,  
424 total RNA was first extracted from viral supernatant preserved in TRIzol LS (Invitrogen,  
425 Carlsbad, CA, USA) and then treated with DNase I (DNA-Free, Ambion, Austin, TX,  
426 USA). cDNA was generated using the Superscript II system (Invitrogen) with random  
427 hexamers linked to an arbitrary 17-mer primer sequence (Cox-Foster *et al.*, 2007). The  
428 resulting cDNA was treated with RNase H and then amplified by random PCR (Cox-  
429 Foster *et al.*, 2007). Products greater than 70 bp long were selected by column  
430 purification (MinElute, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and ligated to specific adapters for  
431 sequencing on the 454 Genome Sequencer FLX (454 Life Sciences, Branford, CT, USA)  
432 without fragmentation of the cDNA (Cox-Foster *et al.*, 2007; Margulies *et al.*, 2005;  
433 Palacios *et al.*, 2008). Software programs accessible through the analysis applications at  
434 the GreenePortal website (<http://tako.cpmc.columbia.edu/portal/>) were used for removal  
435 of primer sequences, redundancy filtering, and sequence assembly. These genomes were  
436 completely confirmed using dye-labeled, dideoxynucleotide sequencing.

437 All other strains were processed at the Center for Genome Sciences, USAMRIID,  
438 Ft. Detrick. For these strains, total RNA was extracted from viral supernatant preserved  
439 in TRIzol LS and was amplified using sequence independent single primer amplification  
440 (SISPA) as previously described (Djikeng *et al.*, 2008). Amplicons were sheared to ~400  
441 bp and used as starting material for Illumina TRU-seq DNA libraries. Sequencing was  
442 performed on a HiSeq 2500. Primers were trimmed from the sequencing reads using  
443 Cutadapt (Martin, 2011), quality filtering was conducted with Prinseq-lite (Schmieder &  
444 Edwards, 2011) and then genomes were assembled using Ray Meta (Boisvert *et al.*,  
445 2012) in combination with custom scripts. When necessary, terminal sequences were  
446 completed through PCR and dideoxynucleotide sequencing using a universal  
447 orthobunyavirus primer targeting the conserved viral termini (5' - AGT AGT GTR C-3')  
448 in combination with specific primers designed from the sequences generated from the *de*  
449 *novo* assembly. In addition, four genomes were confirmed with dideoxynucleotide  
450 sequencing (BUTV, FPV, UTIV and UVV). These include the six genome segments with  
451 the lowest levels of sequence coverage (30-767x). These sequences confirmed the high-  
452 quality of assemblies achieved through these methods.

453

#### 454 ***Phylogenetic analysis***

455 Separate phylogenetic analyses were conducted for each of the three genome  
456 segments using only the protein coding portions of the genome. Orthobunyavirus  
457 sequences from GenBank were included to provide a representative picture of the entire  
458 genus; many of the sequences included cover only a portion of the coding region.  
459 Sequences were aligned using the CLUSTAL algorithm, which was implemented at the

460 amino-acid (aa) level in MEGA v5.1 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) with additional manual editing  
461 to ensure the highest possible alignment quality. Neighbor-joining analyses using p-  
462 distance at the amino-acid level were performed. The statistical significance of the tree  
463 topology was evaluated by 1000 replications of bootstrap re-sampling. Phylogenetic  
464 analyses were performed using MEGA v5.1 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011).

465

#### 466 ***Reassortment Analysis***

467 To identify potential reassortment events, the data was mined for evidence of  
468 phylogenetic discordance. For this analysis, additional phylogenetic trees were  
469 constructed, which included only fully sequenced members of the Oropouche and  
470 Manzanilla species complexes. These trees were constructed from the same alignments  
471 used above; however, to provide additional power, these trees were conducted using a  
472 maximum-likelihood framework at the nucleotide-level (implemented in MEGA v5.1  
473 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) with the Tamura-Nei substitution model, partial deletion, uniform  
474 rates among sites and 1000 bootstrap replications). Potential reassortment events were  
475 then verified using the manual BOOTSCAN (Martin *et al.*, 2005) and distance plot  
476 methods in RDP4 (Martin *et al.*, 2010).

477

#### 478 ***Pairwise Sequence Analysis***

479 Pairwise sequence divergences were calculated among each of our 11 viruses and  
480 all of the other orthobunyaviruses with complete genome segment sequences using  
481 MEGA v5.1 with pairwise deletions (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). For the comparisons of  
482 divergence within and between serogroups, only one representative of each named

483 species was utilized. This downsampling was done to avoid bias due to intensive  
484 sampling of certain viruses.

485

486

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501

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693 Figure 1. Phylogenetic tree of *Orthobunyavirus* based on the protein-coding portion of  
694 the L segment. The tree was built using translated amino acid sequences in Mega v5.1  
695 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) using the Neighbor-joining algorithm and a p-distance matrix. The  
696 tree is unrooted and the node labels represent bootstrap support values after 1000  
697 resampling events. Black circles indicate the genomes that were sequenced in this study.  
698 Species designations (left brackets) are based on the genetic data presented in this  
699 manuscript. Clade labels on the far right correspond to serogroups.

700

701 Figure 2. Pairwise genetic similarities (1 – amino acid p-distance) among viruses within  
702 and between serogroups of orthobunyaviruses based on the a) L segment and b) S  
703 segment. For the two Simbu serogroup clades, an extra category is presented that  
704 includes only the pairwise similarities between these two groups; this is a subset of the  
705 inter-group distances for both Clade A and Clade B. See supplementary tables S2-S3 for  
706 the list of sequences used in these analyses.

707

708 Figure 3. Nucleotide-level phylogenetic trees including only the fully sequenced  
709 members of the Oropouche and Manzanilla species complexes. All trees were built in  
710 Mega v5.1 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) using the maximum-likelihood framework with partial  
711 deletions. The trees are unrooted. Node labels represent bootstrap support values after  
712 1000 resampling events.

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732 Table 1. Virus isolates sequenced in this study.

Virus	Strain	Source	Locality	Year	Species	Accession #s	Ref
Manzanilla (MANV)	TRVL 3587	<i>Alouatta seniculus</i> (Red Howler Monkey)	Trinidad	1954	Manzanilla	KF697148-50	(Anderson <i>et al.</i> , 1960)
Ingwavuma (INGV)	SA An 4165	<i>Hyphanturgus ocularis</i> (Spectacled Weaver)	South Africa	1959	Manzanilla	KF697139-41	(McIntosh <i>et al.</i> , 1965)
Mermet (MERV)	AV 782	<i>Progne subis</i> (Purple Martin)	USA	1964	Manzanilla	KF697151-53	(Calisher <i>et al.</i> , 1969)
Cat Que*	VN 04-2108	<i>Culex</i> sp. (Mosquitoes)	Vietnam	2004	Manzanilla	JQ675598-600	(Bryant <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
Buttonwillow (BUTV)	BFS 5002	<i>Culicoides</i> sp. (Biting Midges)	USA	1964	Buttonwillow	KF697160-62	(Reeves <i>et al.</i> , 1970)
Facey's Paddock (FPV)	Aus Ch 16129	<i>Mosquitoes</i>	Australia	1974	Facey's Paddock	KF697136-38	(Doherty <i>et al.</i> , 1979)
Utinga (UTIV)	Be An 84785	<i>Bradypus tridactylus</i> (Pale-throated sloth)	Brazil	1965	Utinga	KF697154-56	(Shope <i>et al.</i> , 1967)
Utive (UVV)	Pan An 48878	<i>Bradypus variegatus</i> (Brown-throated sloth)	Panama	1975	Utinga	KF697157-59	(Seymour <i>et al.</i> , 1983)
Jatobal (JATV)	BeAn 423380	<i>Nasua nasua</i> (South American Coati)	Brazil	1984	Oropouche	JQ675601-03	(Figueiredo & Da Rosa, 1988)
Iquitos (IQTV)	IQT9924	<i>Homo sapiens</i> (Human)	Peru	1999	Oropouche	KF697142-44	(Aguilar <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
Madre de Dios <sup>^</sup>	FMD 1303	<i>Homo sapiens</i> (Human)	Peru	2007	Oropouche	KF697145-47	NA

733 Species designations are based on the genetic data presented in this manuscript.

734 <sup>^</sup> “Madre de Dios” is an unofficial name proposed here to refer to isolate FMD 1303.

735 \* Previously described as an isolate of Oya virus (OYAV). “Cat Que” is an unofficial name  
736 proposed here to refer to isolate VN 04-2108.

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Table 2. Complement fixation results.

Antigen	Complement Fixation test											
	Antibody											
	ORO	IQT	MDD	JAT	UTI	UV	BUT	CQ	ING	MER	MAN	FP
<b>ORO</b>	<u>512</u> ≥32	<u>512</u> ≥8	<u>512</u> ≥8	<u>128</u> ≥8	<u>8</u> ≥32	<u>32</u> ≥32	0	<u>32</u> ≥8	0	<u>16</u> ≥8	0	<u>16</u> ≥8
<b>IQT</b>	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>1024</u> ≥Φ	<u>256</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	<u>8</u> ≥Φ	<u>32</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>16</u> ≥Φ
<b>MDD<sup>^</sup></b>	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>1024</u> ≥Φ	<u>256</u> ≥Φ	<u>16</u> ≥Φ	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	<u>8</u> ≥Φ	0	0	<u>32</u> ≥Φ
<b>JAT</b>	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>1024</u> ≥8	<u>256</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>32</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>16</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>8</u> ≥8
<b>UTI</b>	<u>32</u> ≥32	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	<u>16</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥32	<u>256</u> ≥32	0	<u>32</u> ≥8	0	<u>8</u> ≥8	0	<u>32</u> ≥8
<b>UV</b>	<u>32</u> ≥32	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>16</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥32	<u>256</u> ≥32	0	<u>32</u> ≥8	0	<u>8</u> ≥8	0	<u>16</u> ≥8
<b>BUT</b>	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	0	<u>8</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	<u>8</u> ≥8	<u>8</u> ≥8	0	<u>8</u> ≥8
<b>CQ*</b>	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>8</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>16</u> ≥Φ	0
<b>ING</b>	<u>32</u> ≥8	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	0	<u>16</u> ≥8	0	<u>512</u> ≥8	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>512</u> ≥8	<u>16</u> ≥8	0
<b>MER</b>	<u>8</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>16</u> ≥8	0	0	0	<u>256</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	<u>512</u> ≥8	<u>8</u> ≥8	0
<b>MAN</b>	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	<u>64</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	<u>32</u> ≥8	0	0	0	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	<u>512</u> ≥Φ	<u>128</u> ≥Φ	0
<b>FP</b>	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	<u>32</u> ≥Φ	<u>64</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>8</u> ≥Φ	<u>32</u> ≥Φ	0	<u>32</u> ≥Φ	<u>8</u> ≥Φ	0	0	<u>512</u> ≥2
<b>Normal</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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Values are displayed as levels of dilution for antibody/antigen. Φ = undiluted. Within the *Bunyaviridae* family, **complement fixation test** generally detects nucleoprotein antibodies, a marker for the **S RNA** segment.

In this study, some of the homologous **CF** titers of four dose hyperimmune ascitic fluid were high (**512-1024**), probably explaining the more extensive, low titer heterologous relationship obtained.

<sup>^</sup> MDD stands for Madre de Dios, an unofficial name proposed here to refer to isolate FMD 1303.

760 \* CQ stands for Cat Que, an unofficial name proposed here to refer to isolate VN 04-2108.  
 761 Other abbreviations: ORO-Oropouche, IQT-IQUITOS, JAT-Jatobal, UTI-Utinga, UV-Utive, BUT-Buttonwillow, ING-Ingwavuma, MER-Mermet, MAN-  
 762 Manzanilla, FP-Facey's Paddock.

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764 Table 3. Hemagglutination inhibition results.

Antibody	Hemagglutination Inhibition test				
	Antigen 4u.				
	ORO	UTI	CQ*	ING	MER
<b>ORO</b>	<b>1:10240</b>	1:160	1:80	1:20	1:40
<b>IQT</b>	1:320	1:80	1:80	1:40	1:80
<b>MDD<sup>^</sup></b>	1:320	1:80	1:80	1:40	1:40
<b>JAT</b>	0	0	1:40	0	0
<b>UTI</b>	1:20	<b>1:20</b>	0	0	0
<b>UV</b>	1:80	1:80	1:40	0	0
<b>BUT</b>	0	0	1:20	0	0
<b>CQ*</b>	1:160	1:80	<b>1:2560</b>	1:640	1:320
<b>ING</b>	1:80	1:40	1:80	<b>1:160</b>	1:160
<b>MAN</b>	0	0	1:40	1:40	1:40
<b>MER</b>	1:40	1:40	1:160	1:160	<b>1:640</b>
<b>FP</b>	1:20	0	1:20	0	0

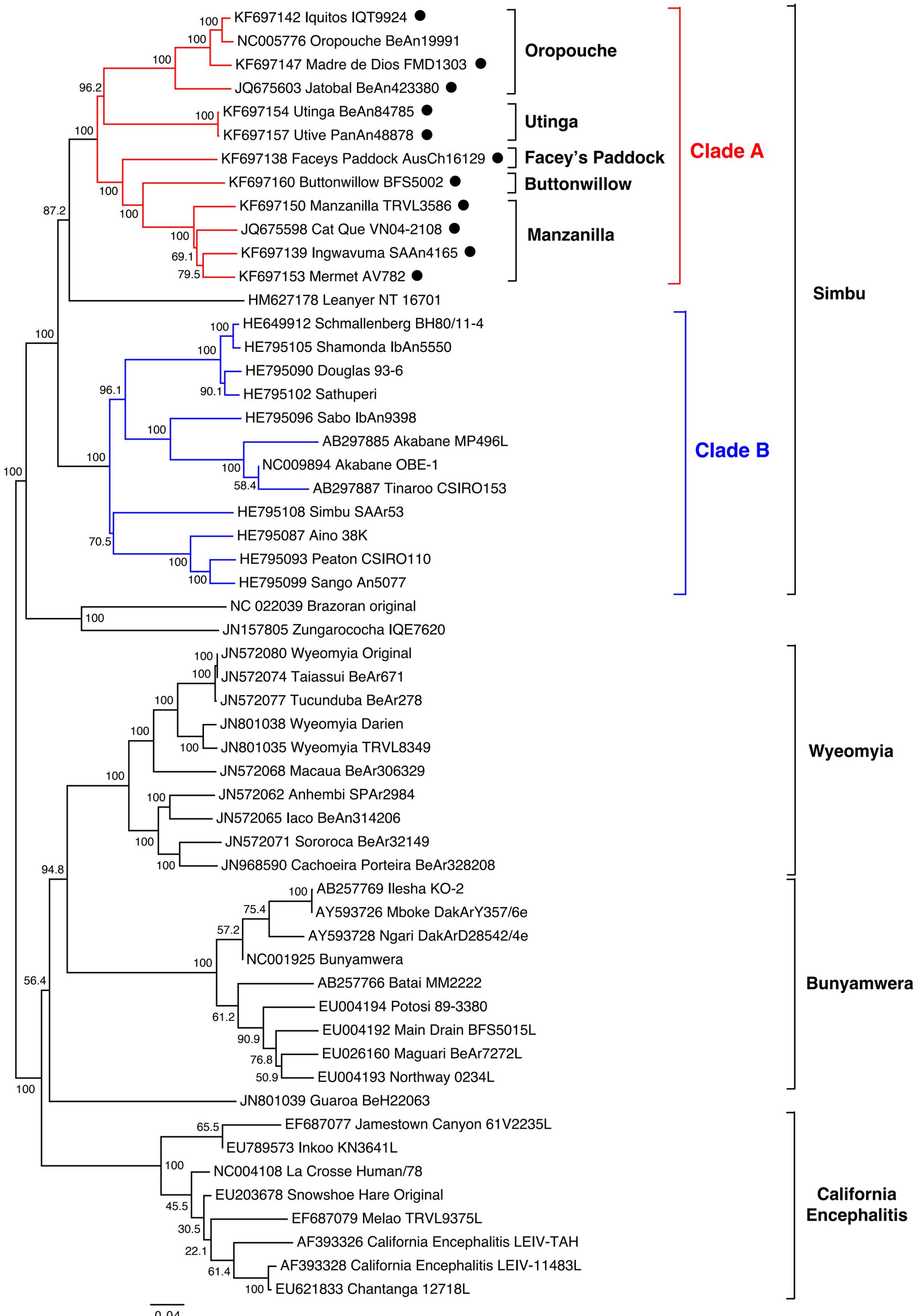
765 Note: Hemagglutinating antigen preparation was unsuccessful for BUT, MAN, UV, JAT, IQT, FP, and MDD.

766 <sup>^</sup> MDD stands for Madre de Dios, an unofficial name proposed here to refer to isolate FMD 1303.

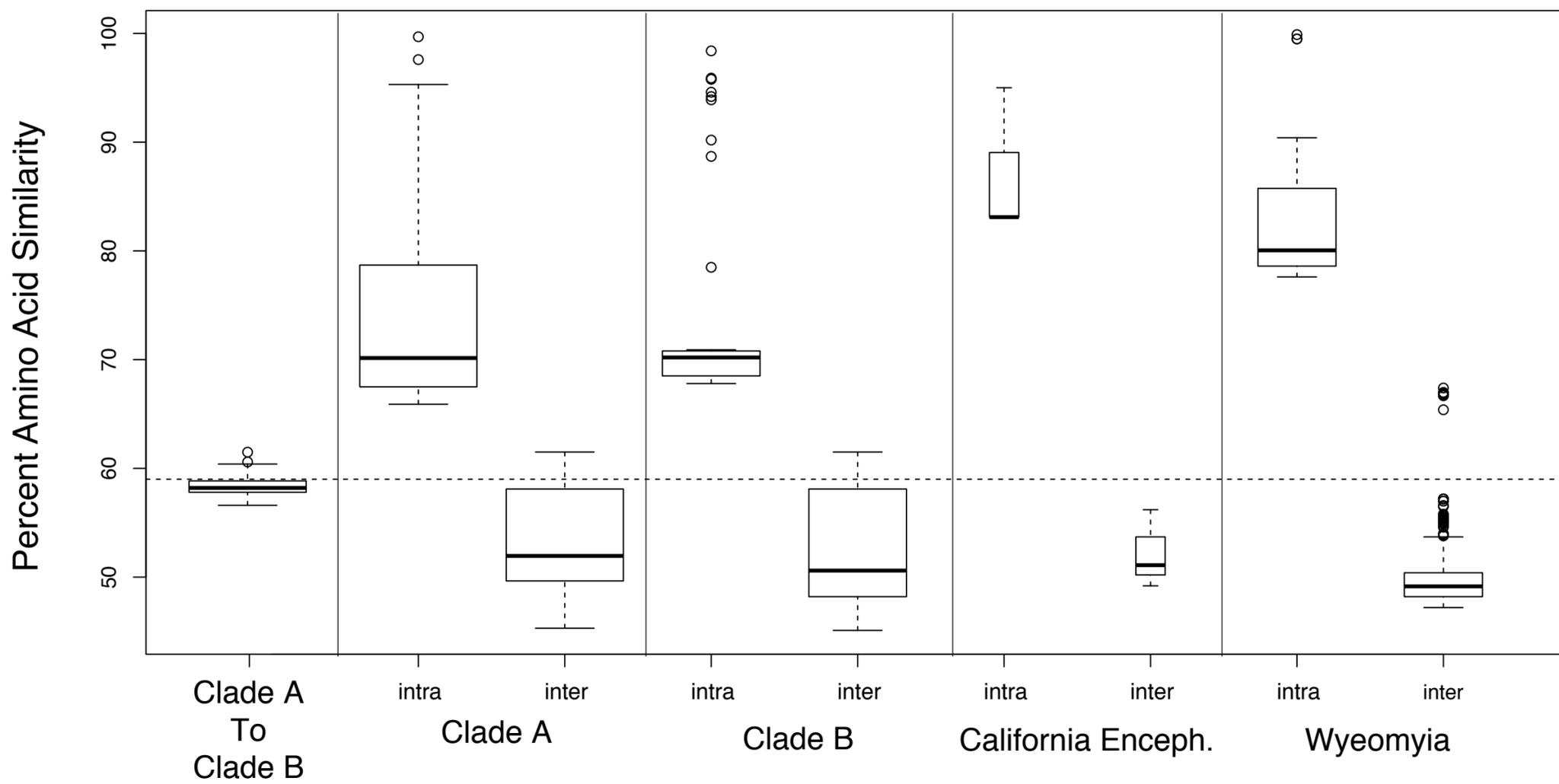
767 \* CQ stands for Cat Que, an unofficial name proposed here to refer to isolate VN 04-2108.

768 Other abbreviations: ORO-Oropouche, IQT-IQUITOS, JAT-Jatobal, UTI-Utinga, UV-Utive, BUT-Buttonwillow, ING-Ingwavuma, MER-Mermet, MAN-  
 769 Manzanilla, FP-Facey's Paddock.

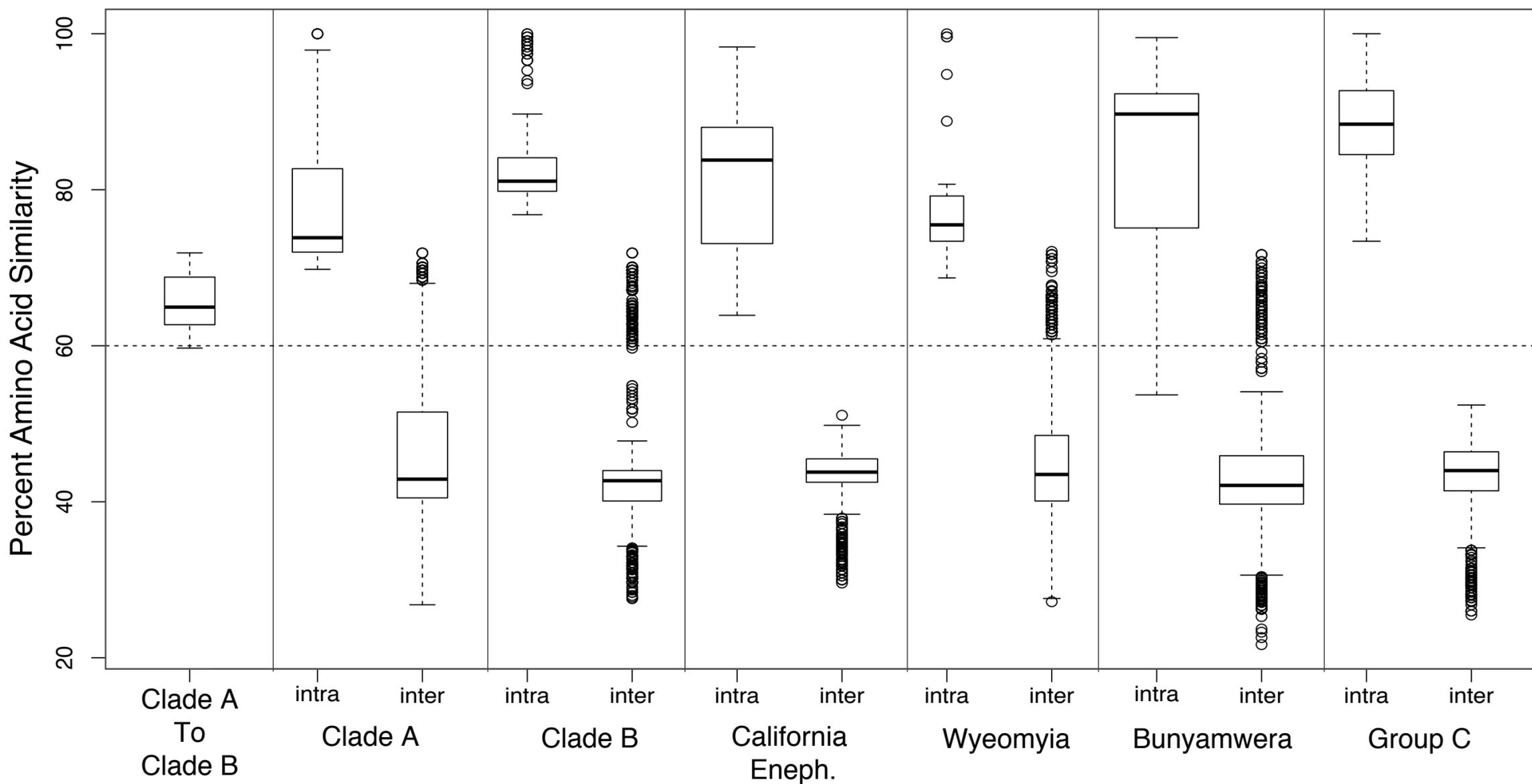
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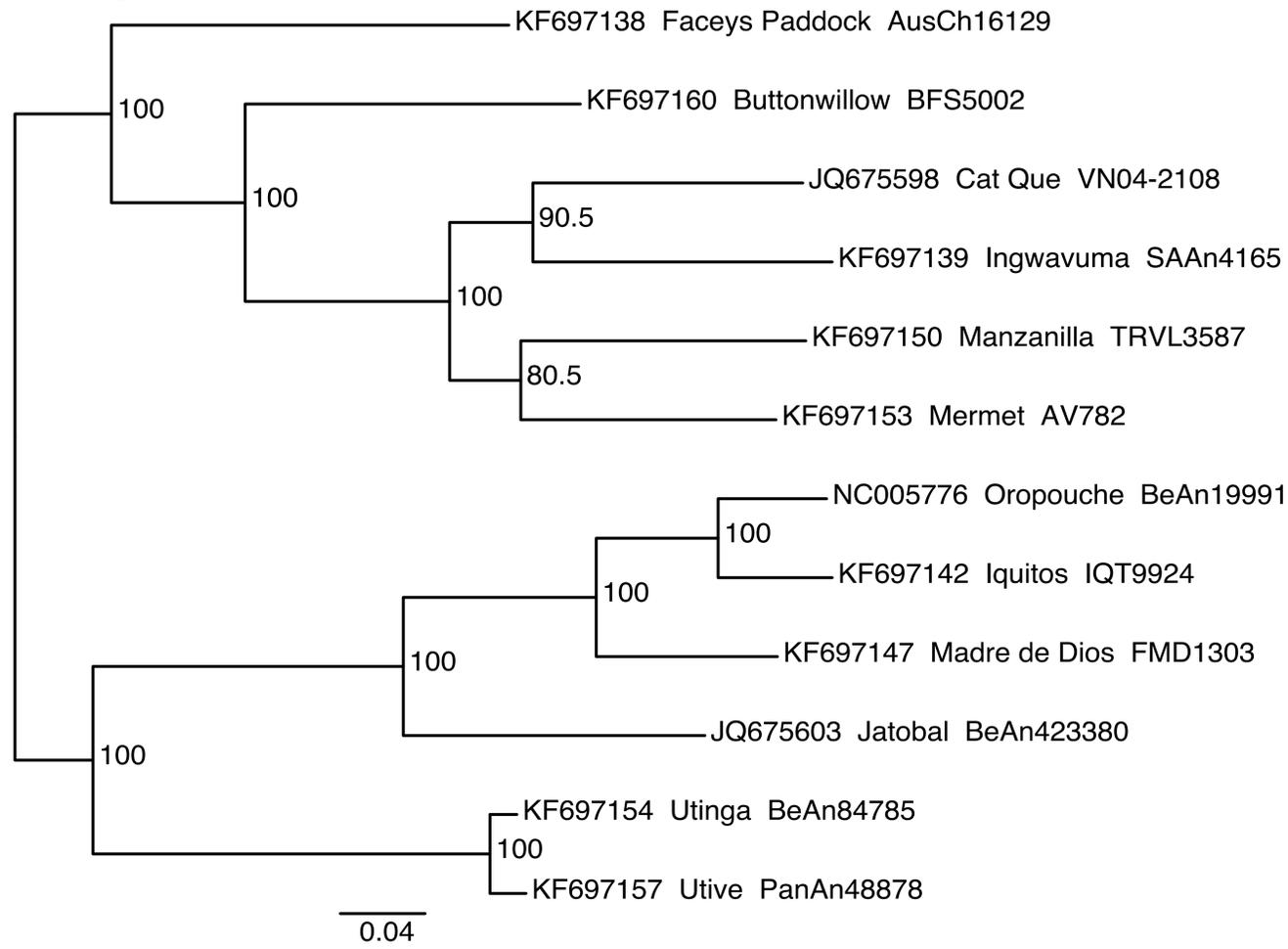
### a) L segment



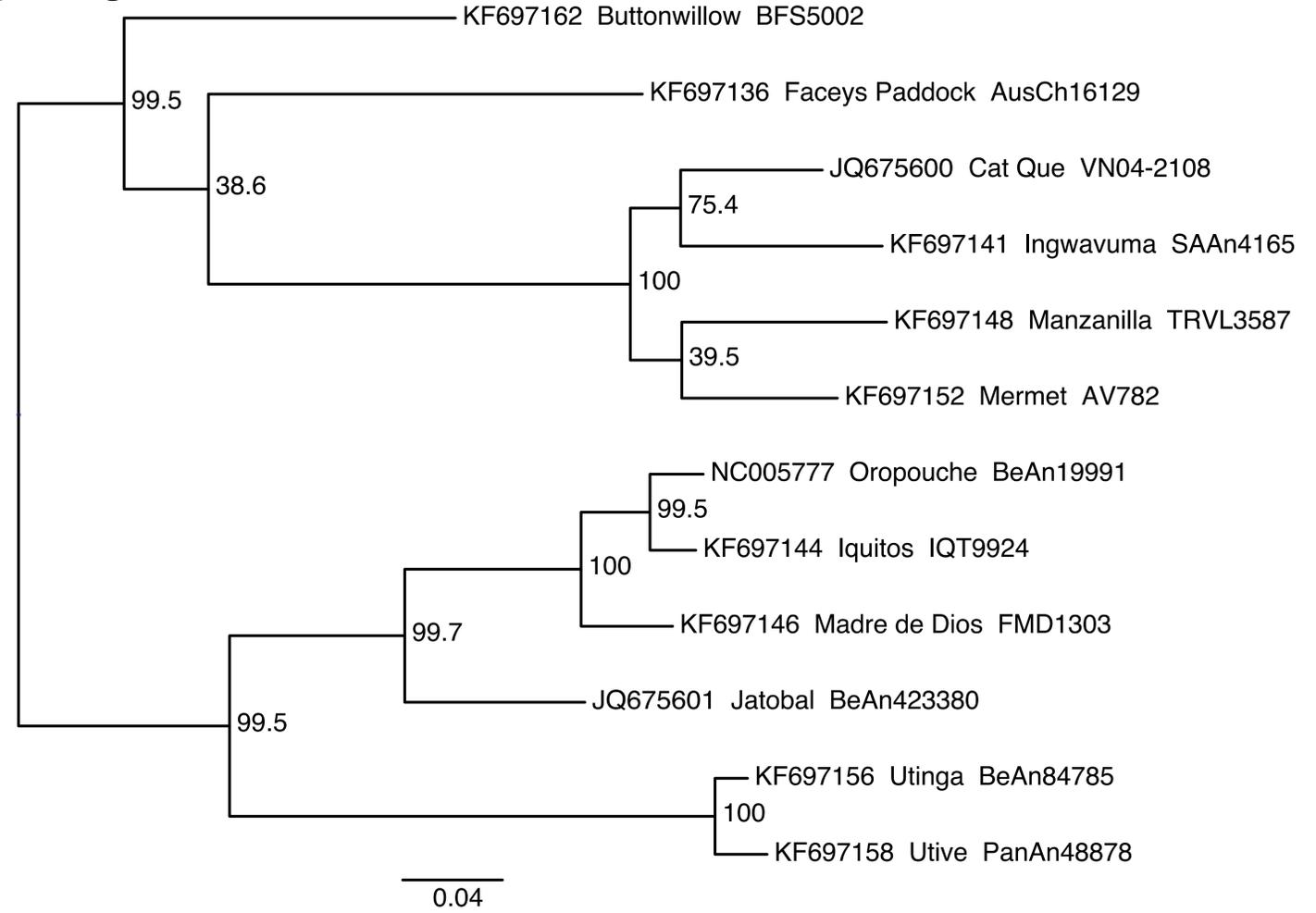
### b) S segment



### a) L segment



### b) S segment



### c) M segment

