1	Experimental infection of European red deer (Cervus elaphus) with bluetongue
2	virus serotypes 1 and 8
3	
4	Jorge Ramón López-Olvera <sup>1</sup> *, Caterina Falconi <sup>2,5</sup> , Paloma Férnandez-Pacheco <sup>3</sup> , Jovita
5	Fernández-Pinero <sup>3</sup> , Miguel Ángel Sánchez <sup>3</sup> , Agustín Palma <sup>3</sup> , Irene Herruzo <sup>3</sup> , Joaquín
6	Vicente <sup>2</sup> , Miguel Ángel Jiménez-Clavero <sup>3</sup> , Marisa Arias <sup>3</sup> , José Manuel Sánchez-
7	Vizcaíno <sup>4</sup> , Christian Gortázar <sup>2</sup>
8	1 Servei d'Ecopatologia de Fauna Salvatge (SEFaS), Universitat Autònoma de
9	Barcelona (UAB), Bellaterra, Barcelona, Spain
10	2 Instituto de Investigación en Recursos Cinegéticos (IREC; CSIC-UCLM-JCCM),
11	Ciudad Real, Spain
12	3 Centro de Investigación en Sanidad Animal (CISA-INIA), Valdeolmos, Madrid, Spain
13	4 Departamento de Sanidad Animal, Facultad de Veterinaria, Universidad Complutense
14	de Madrid (UCM), Madrid, Spain
15	5 Via E. De Magistris 9, 09123, Cagliari, Italy
16	* Corresponding author:
17	Servei d'Ecopatologia de Fauna Salvatge (SEFaS), Universitat Autònoma de
18	Barcelona (UAB), Bellaterra, E-08193, Barcelona, Spain
19	E-mail address: Jordi.Lopez.Olvera@uab.es
20	Telephone: +34935868190 Fax: +34935812006

21 **Keywords:** Bluetongue; red deer; BTV RNA; antibodies; wildlife; reservoir

#### 22 Abstract

23 Bluetongue (BT) is a climate change-related emerging infectious disease in Europe. 24 Outbreaks of serotypes 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, and 16 are challenging Central and Western 25 Europe since 1998. Measures to control or eradicate bluetongue virus (BTV) from Europe have been implemented, including movement restrictions and vaccination of 26 27 domestic BTV-susceptible ruminants. However, these measures are difficult to apply in wild free-ranging hosts of the virus, like red deer (Cervus elaphus), which could play a 28 29 role in the still unclear epidemiology of BT in Europe. We show for the first time that 30 BTV RNA can be detected in European red deer blood for long periods, comparable to 31 those of domestic ruminants, after experimental infection with BTV-1 and BTV-8. BTV 32 RNA was detected in experimentally-infected red deer blood up to the end of the study (98-112 dpi). BTV-specific antibodies were found in serum both by enzyme-linked 33 34 immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and virus neutralization (VNT) from 8-12 dpi to the end 35 of the study, peaking at 17-28 dpi. Our results indicate that red deer can be infected with 36 BTV and maintain BTV RNA for long periods, remaining essentially asymptomatic. 37 Thus, unvaccinated red deer populations have the potential to be a BT reservoir in 38 Europe, and could threaten the success of the European BTV control strategy. 39 Therefore, wild and farmed red deer should be taken into account for BTV surveillance, 40 and movement restrictions and vaccination schemes applied to domestic animals should 41 be adapted to include farmed or translocated red deer.

### 43 **1. Introduction**

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Formerly considered an exotic viral disease of wild and domestic ruminants, several outbreaks of bluetongue (BT) virus serotypes 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, and 16 have challenged Europe since 1998. BT is an emerging infectious disease related to climate change (Purse et al., 2005; Breard et al., 2007; Enserink, 2008; Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2008; Eschbaumer et al., 2009; European Commission, 2009).

50 Measures to control bluetongue virus (BTV) in Europe include movement 51 restrictions and vaccination (European Commission, 2009), and surveillance systems for BT are being established (Hadorn et al., 2009). As of May 2009, the largest restriction 52 53 zones in Europe correspond to BTV serotypes 1 (BTV-1), which is expanding 54 northwards since its first introduction in Southern Spain in 2007, and 8 (BTV-8), 55 spreading throughout Europe since it appeared in The Netherlands in 2006 (Purse et al., 56 2005; Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2008). The target of the vaccination campaign is to 57 achieve at least 80% coverage of domestic ruminants using killed vaccines, although 58 doubts have arisen about its effectiveness (Enserink, 2008; Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 59 2008).

Red deer (*Cervus elaphus*) population density in Europe ranges from 2 to 30
individuals per square kilometre (up to 70 for food supplemented populations)
(Acevedo et al., 2008; Lovari et al., 2009), which could account for a significant
percentage of the BTV-infection susceptible ruminant population in certain regions.

64 Wild ruminants are included in the European Council Directive 2000/75/EC of 65 20 November 2000, laying down specific provisions for the control and eradication of 66 bluetongue, but vaccination and movement restrictions can only be applied in farmed or 67 managed ruminants, being almost impossible in wild free-ranging hosts of the virus.

High prevalence of serum antibodies against BTV has been reported in several species 68 69 of wild ungulates, including red deer (Linden et al. 2008; Ruiz-Fons et al. 2008; García 70 et al. 2009), suggesting widespread contact of wild ruminants with BTV. Moreover, 71 BTV RNA has been recently detected in farmed red deer in Spain (serotypes 1 and 4) 72 (Rodríguez-Sánchez et al. 2010) but BTV infection seems not to result in a significant 73 mortality in red deer (Linden et al. 2008), although sporadic fatal disease with BTV 74 isolation has been reported in mouflon (Ovis aries) (Fernández-Pacheco et al. 2008). BT 75 is considered endemic in wild ruminants in parts of Africa and North America 76 (Stallknecht et al. 1996; Gerdes, 2004), but up to now little is known about the role deer could play in the epidemiology of BT in Europe. The aim of this study is to determine 77 78 the dynamics of BTV serotypes 1 and 8 infection in red deer, thus assessing the 79 potential of this species as a wild reservoir for BT.

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### 81 **2. Materials and methods**

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83 Eleven seven month-old red deer females were transported into the insect-proof 84 biosecurity level 3 (BSL3) facilities of the Centro de Investigación en Sanidad Animal (CISA) in Valdeolmos (Madrid) on January 19th 2009. The deer were kept in three 85 86 different boxes (four in boxes A and B and three in box C). According to the routine 87 BSL3 procedures, each box was isolated from the others, sampling material was exclusively used in the same box and the operators changed clothes before and after 88 89 working in a box, having a shower to exit from each box. One week after arriving to the 90 CISA, four of the deer (deer 1 to deer 3 in box A and deer 4 in box C) were inoculated intravenously (iv) with  $2.5 \times 10^6$  TCID<sub>50</sub> of BTV-1 strain Algeria/2006. This strain was 91 92 received from the Institue for Animal Health in Pirbright, and underwent five cell

93 culture passages prior to inoculation. Other four deer (deer 5 to deer 7 in box B and deer 8 in box C) were inoculated iv with  $2,5 \times 10^6$  TCID<sub>50</sub> BTV-8 isolate 202326 94 95 (Belgium/2006). This strain was received from the Istituto Zooprofilattico Sperimentale Della Lombardia e dell'Emilia Romagna (IZSLER), and was inoculated after four 96 97 culture passages. Finally, the three remaining deer (deer 9 in box A, deer 10 in box B, 98 and deer 11 in box C) received iv an equivalent volume of cell culture medium, acting 99 as controls. The deer were monitored daily from 0 days post-infection (dpi) to 12 dpi 100 and on 14, 17, 21, 24, 28, 31, 38, 50, 60, 66, 71, and 78 dpi. Monitoring included 101 exploration for clinical signs of bluetongue (rectal temperature, facial oedema, 102 erythema, coronitis, stomatitis, conjunctivitis), as well as collection of blood samples 103 with anticoagulant for real time RT-PCR analysis and without anticoagulant for serum. 104 Skin biopsies were taken at 14 dpi from the eight deer at boxes A and B (three BTV-1 105 inoculated, three BTV-8 inoculated and two controls). The deer were euthanized on 98 106 (four deer at box B), 105 (four deer at box A), and 112 dpi (three deer at box C).

107 Viral BTV RNA in blood was assessed using a modification of an already described 108 semi-quantitative real-time RT-PCR (Toussaint et al., 2007). Serum antibodies were 109 analyzed by commercial ELISA (Pourquier Bluetongue competitive ELISA, Institut 110 Pourquier, Montpellier, France), and by standard virus neutralization test (VNT) using 111 the inoculation virus as antigen, similarly to the methodology previously reported 112 (Hamers et al., 2009). Virus isolation was attempted in Vero and BHK cells only at 113 peak genome detection (12 dpi) and at late stages of the infection (78 dpi) one BTV-1 (deer 4) and one BTV-8 (deer 7) inoculated deer. 114

115 This study was approved by the INIA Ethics Committees on Animal 116 Experimentation and Biosafety. Handling procedures and sampling frequency were 117 designed to reduce stress and health risks for subjects, according to European (86/609)

and Spanish laws (R. D. 223/1988, R. D. 1021/2005), and current guidelines for ethical
use of animals in research (ASAB, 2006).

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121 **3. Results** 

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BTV RNA was detected in all deer inoculated with BTV-1 (deer 1 to 4) and 123 124 three out of the four deer inoculated with BTV-8 (deer 5 to 7) from one dpi to the end of 125 the study, with a peak around twelve dpi for both serotypes, and a slow decline 126 thereafter. Figure 1 shows dynamics of BTV RNA detected in blood of the infected red 127 deer, as assessed by real-time RT-PCR. Detection of BTV RNA was low and transient for BTV-8-infected deer 8 (box C), disappearing after 14 dpi. No virus RNA was 128 129 detected in none of the control deer until 38 dpi. However, on 38 dpi BTV RNA was 130 detected in control deer 11 (box C), followed by seroconversion between 38 and 50 dpi. 131 The virus infecting this deer was characterized as BTV-1 both by VNT and BTV-132 1/BTV-8 multiplex real-time RT-PCR (Fernández-Pinero et al., in prep.). From all the 133 four samples where BTV isolation was tried, only BTV-1 was recovered at 12 dpi from 134 deer 4 (inoculated with BTV-1) in Vero cells. Only mild transient unspecific clinical 135 signs, which could be compatible with BT, were observed in the infected deer, and no 136 statistically significant difference, peak or trend in rectal temperature was evidenced.

Serum antibodies against BTV were detected in all inoculated deer both by VNT and ELISA tests. ELISA revealed BTV specific antibodies by 10 dpi in the BTV-1 group, and between 9 and 12 dpi in the BTV-8 group, antibodies being present throughout the whole study period for both serotypes. In deer inoculated with BTV-1, the neutralizing antibody response was first detected at 8-11 dpi, with peak titres of 1/1280 around 17-21 dpi. In deer inoculated with BTV-8 neutralizing antibodies

7 Page 7 of 18

appeared at 8 dpi, with peak titres of 1/640 to 1/1280 between 17 and 28 dpi. Controls 9
and 10 showed no specific antibodies throughout the whole experiment. However,
control deer 11, the one where BTV RNA was first detected at 38 dpi, seroconverted by
45 dpi, showing antibodies against BTV-1 until the end of the study (Figure 2).
BTV RNA was detected in the skin biopsies obtained at 14 dpi in five out of the

six BTV-inoculated deer (three inoculated with BTV-1 and two with BTV-8) analyzed.
The result was doubtful for the remaining BTV-8-inoculated deer, and negative for the
two control deer sampled.

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#### 152 **4. Discussion**

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154 Our results confirm that Iberian red deer get asymptomatically infected with 155 BTV serotypes 1 and 8, BTV RNA being reliably detected for long periods, comparable 156 in intensity and duration to that of domestic ungulates (Luedke, 1969; MacLachlan et al. 157 1990; Puentes et al., 2008). RT-PCR has been validated as a detection technique for 158 BTV, at least as sensitive as viral titration on Vero cells (Hamers et al. 2009). BTV 159 viraemia with mild or no clinical signs following experimental infection has been 160 reported in North American elk (Cervus elaphus canadensis and Cervus elaphus 161 nelsoni) (Murray and Trainer, 1990; Ellis et al., 1993). BTV was isolated as long as 105 162 dpi from the blood of experimentally infected elk after 95 days of negative results 163 followed by cortisone injection (Murray and Trainer 1970). However, duration and 164 intensity of both the virus dynamics and the immune response remains to be fully 165 described. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report to address this issue in 166 European red deer. The kinetics of the antibody response of our experimentally-infected red deer during the study period was similar to those of experimentally infected 167

domestic ruminants and North American elk (Murray and Trainer, 1970), showing the validity of ELISA and serum VNT to monitor contact with BTV in red deer. The clinical picture observed among BTV-1 and BTV-8 infected deer was similar to the mild subclinical effects of BTV observed in cattle (MacLachlan et al., 1990) and elk (Murray and Trainer, 1970; Ellis et al., 1993), rather than to the more severe clinical pictures often described in sheep (MacLachlan et al., 2008) and white-tailed deer (Vosdingh et al., 1968).

175 Transplacental, oral, and wound contact have been suggested as mechanisms for 176 BTV transmission in absence of the Culicoides vector, both in domestic and wild ungulates (Vosdingh et al. 1968; Thomas and Trainer, 1970; Menzies et al., 2008; 177 178 Backx et al., 2009). Iatrogenic transmission can be discarded for the spontaneously-179 infected control deer 11 of our study, since material for each deer was prepared 180 individually before entering the enclosure, so oral (the deer bit each other due to 181 hierarchic fights in the small area of the enclosure) or wound transmission would be the 182 most likely explanation. Transmission in absence of the vector is therefore possible in 183 close contact conditions, and although its epidemiological importance is unknown, it 184 could be a concern regarding the overwintering of BTV (Wilson et al., 2008).

185 Which is the role of red deer in the epidemiology of BTV in Europe? Red deer is 186 an abundant wild ruminant in many parts of the northern hemisphere, occurring in BTV 187 affected regions of central and southern Europe (Lovari et al., 2009). Other wild 188 ruminant species are considered maintenance hosts for BTV in Africa and North 189 America, the virus being endemic in their populations (Stallknecht et al., 1996; Gerdes, 190 2004). Antibodies against BTV and BTV RNA have been identified in free-ranging 191 naturally infected red deer in Europe (Linden et al., 2008; Ruiz-Fons et al., 2008; García 192 et al., 2009). Moreover, RNA of BTV-4 was found in red deer blood samples in summer

193 2007, eight months after the last detection in sympatric domestic ruminants (Rodríguez-194 Sánchez et al., 2010). Finally, our results indicate that red deer can maintain BTV RNA 195 in blood for long periods, and therefore red deer have the potential to play a role in BT 196 epidemiology. However, the lack of BTV isolation at 78 dpi suggests that only BTV 197 RNA but no viable virus stays detectable long after the peak viraemia. Moreover, it 198 remains unanswered whether the Culicoides vector can get infected from red deer. Nevertheless, the detection of BTV in skin samples of our experimentally-infected red 199 200 deer at 14 dpi seems to point that it could be infectious to midges, at least during the 201 peak of BTV RNA detection.

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#### 203 **6.** Conclusion

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205 Red deer have the potential to be a reservoir for BT. A natural experiment to test 206 this hypothesis is currently running: livestock has largely been vaccinated (European 207 Commission, 2009), but annual re-vaccination is unlikely to be maintained for long. 208 Vaccine induced immunity against BTV can last for over one year, but it may be lost 209 after a certain time if no annual boost occurs (Hamers et al., 2009). Also, positive 210 results of the vaccination campaigns rely on a minimum coverage of 80% of the 211 susceptible population (Ferrari et al., 2005), and susceptible unvaccinated red deer could 212 affect this minimum required goal. Hence, if repeated BTV outbreaks occur in regions 213 with high wild ruminant densities and no clear link with livestock movements or 214 vaccination failures, the deer reservoir hypothesis will be confirmed. If, in contrast, no 215 BTV circulation takes place and livestock vaccination alone is successful in eradicating 216 bluetongue, the hypothesis will be rejected.

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219

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### 353 Figure captions

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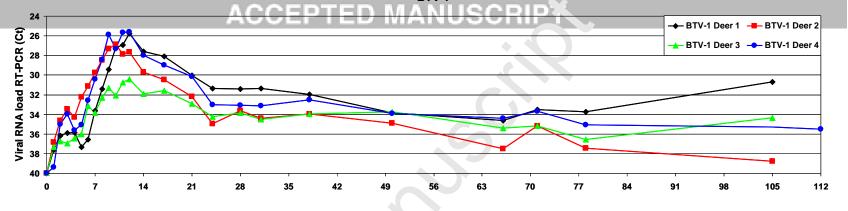
Figure 1.- Viral load (Ct=Cycle at which specific amplification starts to be detectable in the real-time RT-PCR technique) determined by generic BTV RRT-PCR on whole blood samples from 0 dpi to the end of the experiment (98-112 dpi). Serotype was confirmed by serotype-specific RRT-PCRs of the serotype inoculated in randomly selected samples for each deer. Upper panel: BTV1; Central panel: BTV8; Lower panel: control.

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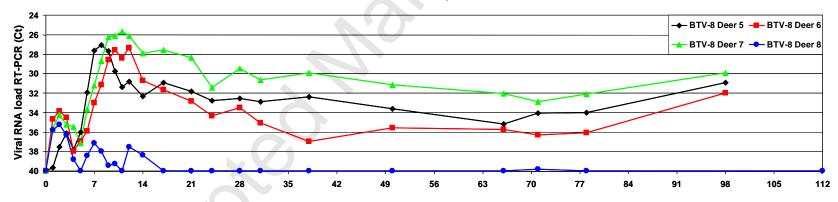
Figure 2.- Kinetics of the BTV-neutralizing antibody response measured by VNT in
 BTV-inoculated and control red deer. Upper panel: sera from BTV-1 inoculated deer 1-

- 364 4 and control deer 9 and 11 tested against BTV-1. Lower panel: sera from BTV-8
- inoculated deer 5-8 and control deer 10 and 11, tested against BTV-8.

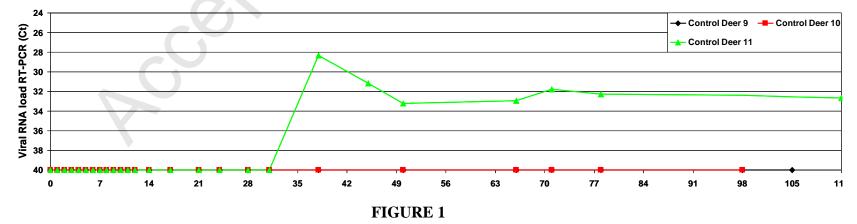


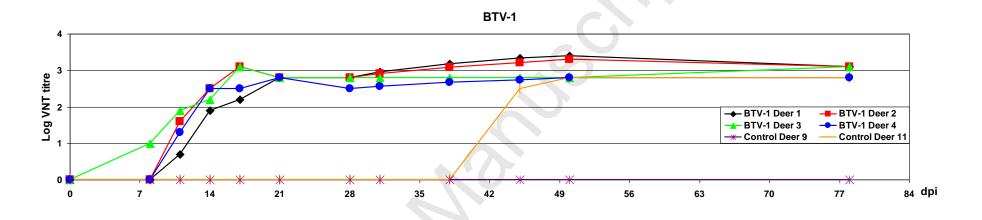






CONTROL





BTV-8

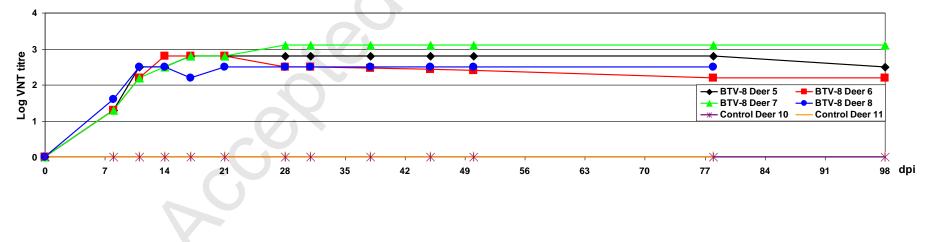


FIGURE 2