NIŠAVIĆ Jakov1, MILIĆ Nenad1, RADALJ Andrea1*

1University of Belgrade, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Department of Microbiology, Belgrade, Serbia

Received 24 April 2020; Accepted 06 May 2020
Published online: 19 May 2020

Copyright © 2020 Nišavić et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited

How to cite: Nišavić Jakov, Milić Nenad, Radalj Andrea. Overview of the most significant coronavirus infections in veterinary medicine. Veterinarski Glasnik, 2020. 74 (1), 1-17. https://doi.org/10.2298/VETGL2001001N

Abstract

Background. Coronaviruses (CoVs) have been recognized in veterinary virology for a long time and comprise a large group of RNA viruses responsible for enteric, respiratory, hepatic, and neurologic diseases in a variety of animal species and humans. These viruses are very adaptable considering their highly error-prone replication process and recombination ability, resulting in remarkable mutability and efficient expansion of their host range and tissue tropism.

Scope and Approach. In the recent past, after the outbreaks caused by SARS-CoV in 2002 and MERS-CoV in 2012, CoVs became a research focus in the scientific community. Moreover, the ongoing SARS-CoV-2 pandemic raised more questions concerning the threats posed by these viruses. Several significant examples of coronaviruses jumping the species barrier and changing their tropism have been reported in the past, and novel viruses of both animals and humans have appeared as a consequence. This paper reviews some of the examples of CoV mutability and the most notable animal coronaviruses of veterinary relevance.

Key Findings and Conclusions. There is still no proof that the novel virus SARS-CoV-2 can be transmitted to humans from domestic animals, and its recent cross-species jump is currently being intensively researched. Intensified and diverse human activities that lead to the disruption of ecosystems contribute to the increased risk of contact with animals that might represent virus reservoirs. The need for constant surveillance of CoVs and expanded studies of their virological traits, mutation mechanisms, diversity,
prophylactic and therapeutic measures highlight the key role of both veterinarians and medical doctors in order to preserve the health of the human population.

**Key Words:** animals, coronavirus, veterinary

**INTRODUCTION**

Coronaviruses (CoVs) have been recognized in veterinary virology for a long time and comprise a large group of RNA viruses responsible for enteric, respiratory, hepatic, and neurologic diseases in a variety of mammalian and avian species (Saif, 2004; Wege et al. 1982). The Coronaviridae family is divided into Orthocoronavirinae and Letovirinae subfamilies, and based on serological cross-reactivity and genetic differences, the Orthocoronavirinae subfamily is further divided into four following genera: Alphacoronavirus, Betacoronavirus, Gammacoronavirus, and Deltacoronavirus (ICTV, 2020; Brownlie, 2017; Woo et al., 2012). The genus Alphacoronavirus mainly encompasses viruses of carnivores (e.g., dogs, cats, ferrets and minks), transmissible gastroenteritis virus of swine (TGEV), porcine epidemic diarrhoea virus (PEDV), porcine respiratory coronavirus (PRCoV), the human coronaviruses 229E and NL63, and many viruses found in bats (Brownlie, 2017; Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Woo et al., 2005). Equine coronavirus (ECoV) is located within the genus Betacoronavirus along with bovine coronavirus (BCoV), canine respiratory coronavirus (CRCoV), porcine hemagglutinating encephalomyelitis virus (PHEV), human OC43 (HCoV-OC43) and HKU1 coronaviruses, human severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV), horseshoe bat coronaviruses, Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) from both humans and camels, etc. (Brownlie, 2017; Nišavić and Milić, 2017). Gammacoronaviruses mainly contain avian coronaviruses such as infectious bronchitis virus (IBV) and turkey coronavirus (TCoV), as well as new viruses from wild birds and marine mammals (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Woo et al., 2014). The recently established genus Deltacoronavirus, in addition to CoVs from birds, also includes porcine deltacoronavirus (PDCoV), which is clinically indistinguishable from TGEV or PEDV (Brownlie, 2017; Woo et al., 2012). The diversity of coronaviruses is explained by a model of CoV evolution, according to which bats are the gene source of alphacoronaviruses and betacoronaviruses, whilst birds are the gene source of gammacoronaviruses and deltacoronaviruses (Woo et al., 2009).

Coronaviruses are the largest enveloped single-stranded RNA viruses, and their genome is packed inside a helical capsid located within the viral envelope. The nucleocapsid (N) protein is a phosphoprotein that modulates the synthesis of viral RNA and creates a helical nucleocapsid by binding to it. Trimers of the spike protein form peplomers embedded in the viral envelope, so accordingly, the CoV virions have a characteristic crown-like morphology (*corona* means crown in Latin) (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Li, 2016). There are at least three structural glycoproteins with multiple roles in the viral replication cycle associated with the viral envelope: the membrane (M) protein and envelope (E) protein are crucial for virus assembly, and the spike
(S) protein mediates virus entry into host cells (Li, 2016). The S protein is also responsible for viral host range and tissue tropism, thus initiating the generation of virus-neutralizing antibodies (Brownlie, 2017; Li, 2016). Interestingly, CoV genomes also encode different accessory proteins (eight in the SARS coronavirus) that are not vital for their in vitro replication but increase virus potency in vivo. For example, the envelope-associated haemagglutinin-esterase protein (HE) is a particular feature of some betacoronaviruses (Brownlie, 2017; Li, 2016; Cheng et al., 2007).

CORONAVIRUS EVOLUTION AND DIVERSITY

Coronaviruses are highly adaptable, given their highly error-prone replicative scheme and recombination capabilities that result in marked mutability, and hence, efficient change and expansion of their host range and tissue tropism (Graham and Baric, 2010; Lorusso et al., 2008; Vijgen et al., 2005; Pratelli et al., 2003; Herrewegh et al 1998). Prior to the emergence of SARS-CoV, only 12 animal and human coronaviruses were described. In the recent past, after the outbreaks caused by SARS-CoV in 2002 and MERS-CoV in 2012, coronaviruses became the subject of increased interest in the scientific community (Graham and Baric, 2010; Cheng et al., 2007; Lau et al., 2005; Guan et al., 2003). Both SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV originated in animals, and their reservoirs were in close contact with the human population (Dawson et al., 2019; Graham and Baric, 2010; Lau et al., 2005). The detection of SARS-related coronaviruses in palm civets and a raccoon dog from live animal markets in China was the first indicator of the occurrence of interspecies transmission (Guan et al., 2003). However, further study showed these animals were incidental hosts, and various horseshoe bat species are now suspected to be the ultimate reservoir of SARS-related CoV (Lau et al., 2005; Li et al., 2005; Song et al., 2005). The evolution of MERS-CoV in camels included the exchange of genetic elements among viruses either in bats, or most probably within the camels as a mixing vessel (Dawson et al., 2019; Corman et al., 2014).

The S protein is considered to be the principal mediator for the emergence of coronaviruses in new hosts, since both of its subunits (S1 and S2) have nucleotide substitution abilities (Li, 2016; Graham and Baric, 2010; de Haan et al., 2006). The adaptive possibilities of coronaviruses are portrayed by investigations related to SARS-CoV S protein receptor-binding domains (RBDs), which are virus-specific regions within the S1 subunit that engage with the host cell receptor angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) (Li, 2016; Graham and Baric, 2010; Cheng et al., 2007). Notably, the RBD has been shown to evolve under the selective pressure of neutralizing antibodies, and it is stated that one or a few mutations in viral RBDs can cause serious epidemic outcomes (Li, 2016). Additionally, coronaviruses have a sophisticated system for receptor recognition. It is known that CoVs from different genera bind to the same receptor protein, though CoVs from the same genus recognize diverse receptors (Li, 2016). For example, within the genus Betacoronavirus, SARS-CoV specifically binds
to ACE2, whilst MERS-CoV recognizes dipeptidyl peptidase 4 (DPP4). It must be emphasized that DPP4 protein displays high amino acid sequence conservation across different animal species, thus representing a low barrier against cross-host transmission (Raj et al., 2013). The multihost potential of a Deltacoronavirus was recently documented in a study showing that porcine deltacoronavirus (PDCoV) uses the phylogenetically conserved catalytic domain of aminopeptidase N as a host cell entry receptor and also efficiently infects cells of a broad species range, which might enable it to jump the species barrier (Li et al., 2018).

Several significant examples of coronaviruses jumping the species barrier as well as of their tropism changes have been reported in the past. Important diseases of both animals and humans have appeared as a consequence. Human coronavirus OC43 is thought to be the most commonly encountered human coronavirus in respiratory tract infections. However, this virus shares a nucleotide identity of approximately 96% with BCoV and emerged from a zoonotic transmission from bovines (Vijgen et al., 2005). The potential of BCoV to infect other species was also shown after the genetic analysis of a closely related virus (human enteric coronavirus – HEC-4408), previously isolated from the faeces of a diarrhoeic child (Zhang et al., 1994). Furthermore, it was suggested that canine respiratory coronavirus (CRCoV) is of bovine origin, since pups can be successfully experimentally infected with BCoV (Kaneshima et al., 2007). Genetic recombination amongst coronaviruses that infect different animal species is known to give rise to new viral strains as happened with the emergence of feline coronavirus (FCoV) type 2. This particular recombination event occurred between the S gene regions of FCoV type 1 and canine coronavirus (CCoV) (Pedersen, 2014; Herrewegh et al., 1998). Since CCoV and FCoV are closely related viruses, it practically diminishes the borders for their interspecies circulation (Benetka et al., 2006; Pratelli et al., 2003). A cross-species jump also occurred with the adaptation of CCoV type 2 from dogs to pigs and the emergence of TGEV characterized by inactivation and loss of specific open reading frames (ORFs) in the viral genome (Lorusso et al., 2008). Furthermore, the change in viral tropism from enteric to respiratory tract receptors, attributed to nucleotide deletions in the S1 domain of TGEV, led to the emergence of porcine respiratory coronavirus (PRCoV) (Laude et al., 1993; Rasschaert et al., 1990).

CORONAVIRUSES OF UNGULATES

Bovine coronavirus (BCoV)

Bovine coronavirus is a member of the genus Betacoronavirus and causes enteric and respiratory disease in cattle with documented spillovers to small ruminants (Burimumah et al., 2020). Three different clinical syndromes are related to BCoV infections in susceptible animals: calf diarrhoea, winter dysentery characterized by haemorrhagic diarrhoea in adult animals, and respiratory infections, most notably the shipping fever of feedlot cattle (Boileau and Kapil, 2010; Saif, 2010; Tsunemitsu and Saif, 1995).
Bovine coronavirus infection is mostly subclinical, a consequence of its ubiquitous presence in the cattle population, and the virus is shed by the faecal-oral and respiratory routes under various stressful conditions (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Saif, 2010). The clinical manifestations also depend on factors such as secondary infections, stress, the animals’ overall immunologic status and environmental temperature (Saif, 2010; Tsunemitsu and Saif, 1995). The wide tropism of BCoV is a result of the fact that its host cell receptor is sialic acid, found in enterocytes of the intestinal tract and in the epithelium of the upper and lower respiratory tract (Brownlie, 2017; Saif, 2010).

Shedding of BCoV is of short duration, thus requiring timely sample collection, i.e., within the first week after the transport of affected animals (Saif, 2010). Bovine viral infections can be diagnosed by detection of the virus, viral antigen, viral genomic RNA or specific antibodies in adequate samples from infected animals (Nišavić et al., 2018; Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Veljović et al., 2016; Milić et al., 2010). Virus isolation (VI) is most successfully performed in cells of bovine origin or human colorectal adenocarcinoma cell cultures (HRT-18). However, cell culture techniques are time-consuming and some viral strains fail to grow (Radalj et al., 2018; Saif et al., 2010). For this reason, sensitive molecular methods such as reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) or real time RT-PCR assays are most often used (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Saif, 2010). Because BCoV antibodies are widespread in cattle, paired acute and convalescent serum samples are needed for serologic diagnosis of BCoV infections by virus neutralization, immunofluorescence assay, haemagglutination-inhibition (HI) or enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) tests (Burimuah et al., 2020; Brownlie, 2017; Saif, 2010). Serum antibodies play an important protective role against BCoV infections. Since no respiratory BCoV vaccines have been developed yet, intranasal vaccination using attenuated enteric strains has been proposed to reduce the risk of BCoV-associated pneumonia, whilst several vaccines, both attenuated and inactivated types, have been developed against BCoV enteric disease (Tizzard, 2020; Brownlie, 2017; Nemoto et al., 2017; Saif, 2010).

**Coronaviruses of swine**

Transmissible gastroenteritis virus belongs to the genus *Alphacoronavirus*, and since its first detection in the United States in 1946, it has been reported worldwide as causing a highly contagious enteric disease of economic importance to the swine industry (Vlasova et al., 2020; Brownlie, 2017). Piglets are especially susceptible to infection since their gastric acidity levels are lower than in adults, whilst milk-based nutrition further protects the virus within the stomach, enabling its passage to the intestine. The virus is spread by the oral uptake of faeces from infected pigs, and it replicates within the villus enterocytes, leading to their destruction, along with maldigestion and malabsorption, with diarrhoea as a direct consequence (Brownlie, 2017; Nišavić and Milić, 2017).

Porcine respiratory coronavirus (PRCoV) was derived from TGEV after specific genetic deletions. It is spread by respiratory droplets (with limited faecal shedding)
and replicates in the tonsils, the epithelium of the upper and lower respiratory airways, as well as in pneumocyte types I and II (Vlasova et al., 2020; Laude et al., 1993; Rasschaert et al., 1990). Infection by PRCov occurs in piglets of all ages and causes mild respiratory disease if uncomplicated by other pathogens (Brownlie, 2017). It was documented that the rising prevalence of PRCov suppressed the occurrence of TGEV (Chen et al., 2019).

Since TGEV and PEDV are indistinguishable based on clinical symptoms in affected animals and are often found in mixed infections, multiplex real-time RT-PCR for their simultaneous detection and quantification was developed (Kim et al., 2007). Similar diagnostic methods are used for the detection of PRCov, with a difference in sampling requirements since it is a respiratory pathogen. Both TGEV and PRCov, as well as other significant swine viruses, can be isolated in cell lines of pig origin. However, this method might require several blind passages after primary isolation of field strains (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Lukač et al., 2016; Miković et al., 2016). Considering the declining TGEV prevalence, the need for vaccines has also reduced, although both modified live and inactivated products are available. No vaccines have been developed against PRCov since it causes mild infections (Tizzard, 2020; Brownlie, 2017).

Porcine epidemic diarrhoea virus (PEDV) is another representative of the genus *Alphacoronavirus*, and it is presumed that PEDV was introduced into the pig population from bats (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Huang et al., 2013). Since 2013, this virus has caused major epizootic episodes resulting in vast economic damage to the pig industry in the United States with the loss of 10% of the United States pig population (Tizzard, 2020; Stevenson et al., 2013). Porcine epidemic diarrhoea is an acute and highly contagious disease characterized by profuse diarrhoea, dehydration, anorexia and high mortality rates of 1- to 7-day-old piglets, even though animals of all age groups can manifest various clinical symptoms (Brownlie, 2017; Stevenson et al., 2013). Recently, a recombinant TGEV/PEDV virus denominated swine enteric coronavirus (SeCoV) emerged in Europe (Vlasova et al., 2020). It is suggested that tests that differentiate PEDV infections from TGEV, SeCoV, and PDCov be used. Since SeCoV is a recombinant virus of TGEV with PEDV’s S protein, a discriminatory assay is required (Vlasova et al., 2020). Multiple PEDV vaccines have been developed, including both inactivated and modified live products that can be combined with TGEV and rotavirus vaccines, and vaccination of sows is the most widely employed protective procedure (Tizzard, 2020; Brownlie, 2017).

Porcine deltacoronavirus (PDCov) is a member of the genus *Deltacoronavirus*, and was first identified in 2012 in China and subsequently in several other Asian countries, the United States, and Canada (Vlasova et al., 2020; Woo et al., 2012). The observed clinical signs of PDCov-induced disease are similar to other intestinal coronaviruses, but with a lower mortality rate (Vlasova et al., 2020; Brownlie, 2017). PDCov-specific RT-PCR is currently the diagnostic method of choice, since VI in cell cultures is not always successful (Zhang, 2016).
Porcine hemagglutinating encephalitis virus (PHEV) is the only porcine Betacoronavirus and causes either encephalomyelitis or a vomiting and wasting condition in piglets deprived of maternal immunity (Vlasova et al., 2020; Mora-Diaz et al., 2019; Brownlie, 2017). It is a highly neurotropic virus that is spread by aerosols and multiplies in the airways, tonsils, and intestine, with consequent spread to the central nervous system via peripheral nerves (Brownlie, 2017). Diagnosis is based on the haemagglutination (HA) and haemagglutination inhibition (HI) tests or by RT-PCR, and there currently are no available vaccines (Mora-Diaz et al., 2019; Brownlie, 2017).

Swine acute diarrhoea syndrome virus (SADS CoV) is a novel Alphacoronavirus that has only recently been discovered in pigs in China. It is assumed to have emerged from the interspecies transmission of bat CoVs to pigs, since SADS-related CoVs were detected in horseshoe bats (Zhou et al., 2018).

**Equine coronavirus (ECoV)**

Equine coronavirus is classified within the genus Betacoronavirus due to its relatedness to BCoV (Brownlie, 2017). Clinical symptoms associated with ECoV disease in affected horses include diarrhoea, fever, anorexia, and lethargy, with the number of clinical cases being higher during autumn and winter (Pusterla et al., 2017; Nemoto et al., 2014; Pusterla et al., 2013). Clinically apparent infection is mostly seen in adults and it is presumed that the pathogenicity of ECoV is linked with the horse’s age, i.e., the presence of passive colostral immunity (Pusterla et al., 2018; Pusterla et al., 2013). Some adult horses also remain asymptotically infected with concurrent shedding of ECoV in their faeces (Pusterla et al., 2013). Transmission of ECoV occurs predominantly by the faecal-oral route, while the significance of nasal shedding remains to be determined (Nemoto et al., 2014). Horses with manifest disease shed ECoV in their faeces for several weeks and up to three months, but asymptomatic animals are also a significant source of the disease (Goodrich et al. 2020; Pusterla et al, 2018; Pusterla et al., 2013). Isolation of ECoV is possible in HRT-18 cells, but viral detection is predominantly performed by faecal real-time RT-PCR (Brownlie, 2017; Pusterla et al., 2017; Miszczak et al., 2016). A vaccine for ECoV remains unavailable. However, given the antigenic relatedness between the two viruses, BCoV vaccine does provide horses with antibodies against ECoV. Nonetheless, the efficacy of BCoV vaccine against ECoV needs to be investigated (Nemoto et al., 2017).

**CORONAVIRUSES OF CARNIVORES**

**Canine coronavirus (CCoV)**

Canine coronavirus (CCoV) from the genus Alphacoronavirus is a common enteric pathogen of dogs that has a worldwide distribution (Nišavić and Milić, 2017). Two distinct genotypes of this virus are recognized, namely CCoV type I (CCoV-I) and
CCoV type II (CCoV-II). This latter type is further divided into CCoV-IIa and CCoV-IIb, which is a result of the recombination with TGEV (Decaro and Buonavoglia, 2008). Canine coronavirus I is genetically similar to FCoV type I in the spike and membrane genes and causes gastroenteritis in affected dogs (Benetka et al., 2006). It is known that CCoV-IIa is divided into two different biotypes: classical, which is known to cause enteritis with mild diarrhoea, and pantropic, which was isolated from dead pups in Italy and can been detected in various organs (Decaro et al., 2010; Buonavoglia et al., 2006). Canine coronavirus is transmitted through the faecal-oral route, and prolonged viral shedding for a period of several months has been previously documented (Pratelli et al., 2001). Molecular methods are used for the rapid detection of CCoV in clinical specimens, and moreover, a recently established multiplex PCR method for simultaneous detection of the most significant viruses associated with canine enteric diseases has proved to be useful (Hao et al., 2019; Nišavić and Milić, 2017). Inactivated and modified live vaccines against CCoV are available, but their protective values are debatable, in part due to the emergence of new CCoV genotypes and pathotypes in dogs (Tizzard, 2020; Decaro and Buonavoglia, 2008).

**Canine respiratory coronavirus (CRCoV)**

Aside from affecting the gastrointestinal system, canine coronaviruses also induce respiratory disease in dogs. The Betacoronavirus, canine respiratory coronavirus (CRCoV), was first detected in 2003 and is genetically unrelated to CCoV (Erles and Brownlie, 2008). Canine respiratory coronavirus spreads rapidly by aerosol among kennelled dogs and causes mild respiratory symptoms, occurring more frequently during autumn and winter (Brownlie, 2017; Erles and Brownlie, 2008). Diagnosis of CRCoV can be performed by VI in HRT-18 cells, although RT-PCR is the preferred method, and previous exposure can be serologically detected (Brownlie, 2017; Erles and Brownlie, 2008). Antibodies against CCoV are not cross-protective and vaccines against canine respiratory pathogens do not include CRCoV. Instead, these infections can be controlled by the segregation of animals (Tizzard, 2020; Brownlie, 2017; Decaro and Buonavoglia, 2008).

**Feline coronavirus (FCoV)**

Feline coronavirus is a member of the Alphacoronavirus genus and is a common pathogen of both domestic and wild felids, causing fatal granulomatous peritonitis (Nišavić and Milić, 2017). This virus is known to exist in two pathotypes, resulting in either subclinical to mild enteric disease (feline enteric coronavirus – FECV) or progressive, debilitating and lethal disease (feline infectious peritonitis virus – FIPV) (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Pedersen, 2014). The two pathotypes cannot be differentiated serologically, and it was proposed that genetic mutations might result in altered pathogenicity of FCoV (Pedersen, 2014). Aside from the pathotype differentiation, FCoVs are separated into two serotypes, FCoV types 1 and 2. However, these two
divisions are not in correlation with illness, other than the consideration that type 1 FCoVs are the leading cause of feline infectious peritonitis (FIP) since they are more prevalent in the field (Sharif et al., 2010). The animals are infected at an early age after the decline of maternal immunity but stay healthy and become susceptible to the development of FIP in stressful or immunosuppressive conditions (Brownlie, 2017). The more virulent FCoV genetic variants rapidly replicate within macrophages, specifically those with an affinity for the endothelia of venules in the serosa, omentum, pleura, and meninges (Brownlie, 2017; Pedersen, 2014). Feline infectious peritonitis clinically presents as either as the classical effusive (wet), or the non-effusive (dry) forms. Both forms result in the appearance of focal pyogranulomas of multiple internal organs and serous membranes (Pedersen, 2014). The effusive form is rapidly progressive and characterized by abdominal distension due to the accumulation of fluid in the peritoneal cavity associated with pyogranuloma formation (Brownlie, 2017; Nišavić and Milić, 2017). FCoV type 1 strains are very difficult to grow in cell culture as opposed to type 2 FCoVs. Rapid and sensitive RT-PCR tests are commonly used for faecal or other clinical samples, but interpretation of results must be in accordance with clinical findings (Sharif et al., 2010; Herrewegh et al., 1998). Since the development of antibodies stimulates the virus uptake by macrophages, this further complicates vaccine development, and the only commercially available FIP vaccine is applied to the nasal mucosa, inducing a local IgA response, but has limited efficacy (Tizzard, 2020).

**AVIAN CORONAVIRUSES**

**Avian infectious bronchitis virus**

Avian infectious bronchitis virus (IBV) is considered to be the prototype of the genus *Gammacoronavirus* and causes one of the most important and contagious viral diseases in chickens of all ages worldwide (Ramakrishnan and Kappala, 2019). The constant emergence of new variants occurs as a consequence of mutations in the hypervariable regions of the S gene, and even though some are unable to replicate or survive, others become economically important worldwide or in certain geographic areas (Sjaak de Wit et al., 2011). IBV infects the upper airway epithelium, causing respiratory distress, but more virulent strains show tropism for kidney cells, the oviduct and the gastrointestinal tract (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Ignjatovic and Sapats, 2000). Characteristically, the damage to the reproductive system caused by this infection is a decrease of egg production in laying hens, and the eggs become uncalcified, and differ in size, colour and shape (Brownlie, 2017). IBV spreads by aerosol and faecal-oral routes, but indirect transmission through contaminated equipment, especially during the colder months when prolonged viral shedding occurs, is also a considerable risk (Ramakrishnan and Kappala, 2019; Ignjatovic and Sapats, 2000). Preferred samples for VI are tracheal swabs or whole trachea tissues from suspected animals (Brownlie, 2017). Embryonated chicken eggs are used for VI and, upon infection with IBV, show dwarfism, congestion of the main blood vessels in the chorioallantoic membrane and
Definitive identification of the agent is most commonly performed by serologic methods, immunofluorescence or RT-PCR (Ramakrishnan and Kappala, 2019). Since VI is time-consuming and often requires successive passaging, the use of genotype-specific RT-PCR assays is preferred, and methods such as multiplex real-time RT-PCR for simultaneous detection of several avian viruses are useful in a laboratory setting (Laamiri et al. 2018). Commercial poultry are vaccinated against IBV, and both inactivated and modified live vaccines are used in different regimes to induce maternal immunity that protects chicks (Tizzard, 2020; Sjaak de Wit et al., 2011). It is advisable to optimize protection against different viral variants that circulate in a given area (Tizzard, 2020; Sjaak de Wit et al., 2011).

**Turkey coronavirus (TCoV)**

Turkey coronavirus (TCoV) belongs the genus *Gammacoronavirus* along with IBV, but these two viruses have very different S proteins, so TCoV can be considered a recombinant coronavirus (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Hughes, 2011). This virus was identified in the United States during the 1970s as one of the agents responsible for the acute enteric disease most often named bluecomb; it is present throughout the world where turkeys are raised (Brownlie, 2017). Even though TCoV infects animals of all ages, intestinal disorders occur mostly within the first three weeks of life and involve loss of appetite, watery diarrhoea, dehydration and hypothermia, as well as atrophy of the thymus and the bursa of Fabricius, thus contributing to secondary infections (Nišavić and Milić, 2017; Guy, 2013). Only one TCoV serotype exists, but there are no licenced vaccines available (Brownlie, 2017).

**CONCLUSION**

The role of veterinary virologists has been increasingly important over the past years since there has been abundant proof of the zoonotic potential of animal coronaviruses. Accordingly, the field of the discovery of new CoVs, and studies regarding their constant evolution and pathogenesis in different hosts has significantly expanded. The most recent and ongoing severe acute respiratory syndrome in humans, the coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) pandemic, has once again raised questions concerning the threats posed by coronaviruses from the aspect of their high mutability and frequent host switching capabilities. It is currently known that the genome of SARS-CoV-2 shares around 96% identity to the bat coronavirus, BatCoV RaTG13 (Zhou et al., 2020). Nevertheless, many important questions remain unanswered, one of which is if and how this cross-species jump occurred. Several dogs and cats, and a tiger, which all had been in close contact with infected humans, have recently tested positive for SARS-CoV-2. However, further studies are required to better understand animal susceptibility to this virus. Nevertheless, to date, there is no evidence that infected animals play a role in the spread to humans of this virus, which is transmitted by person-to-person contact (OIE, 2020). Human activities such as deforestation,
disruption of ecosystems, urbanization due to population expansion, increased consumption, access to new technologies, intensified tourism, and many others have contributed to the increased risk of contact with some animal species that might be virus reservoirs. Having that in mind, as well as the known fact that coronaviruses have zoonotic potential, reinforces the need for constant surveillance and intensive research with close cooperation between veterinarians and medical doctors, as both are responsible for the preservation of human health.

Acknowledgements
This work was realized within the Project TR 31008 financed by The Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia.

Authors’ contributions
JN: participated in the design of the study, conceived the study, and participated in its design and coordination and helped to draft the manuscript. NM: participated in the design of the study. AR: participated in the design of the study, participated in its design and coordination and helped to draft the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests
The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

REFERENCES

Benetka V., Kolodziejek J., Walk K., Rennhofer M., Mostl K. 2006. M gene analysis of atypical strains of feline and canine coronavirus circulating in an Austrian animal shelter. The Veterinary Record, 159:170–174. https://doi.org/10.1136/vr.159.6.170

Boileau M. J., Kapil S. 2010. Bovine coronavirus associated syndromes. The Veterinary Clinics of North America. Food Animal Practice, 26:123–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cvfa.2009.10.003

Brownlie J. 2017. Coronaviridae. In Fenner’s Veterinary Virology. Eds. N. J. MacLachlan, E. J. Dubovi, Elsevier, San Diego, pp. 435-459.

Buonavoglia C., Decaro N., Martella V., Elia G., Campolo M., Desario C., Castagnaro M., Tempesta M. 2006. Canine coronavirus highly pathogenic for dogs. Emerging Infectious Diseases, 12:492–494. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1203.050839

Burimuah V., Sylverken A., Owusu M., El-Duah P., Yeboah R., Lamptey J., Frimpong Y. O., Agbenyega O., Folitse R., Tasiame W., Emikpe B., Owiredu E.-W., Oppong S., Adu-Sarkodie Y., Drosten C. 2020. Sero-prevalence, cross-species infection and serological determinants of prevalence of Bovine Coronavirus in cattle, sheep and goats in Ghana. Veterinary Microbiology, 241:108544. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2019.108544

Chen F., Knutson T. P., Rossow S., Saif L. J., Marthaler D. G. 2019. Decline of transmissible gastroenteritis virus and its complex evolutionary relationship with porcine respiratory coronavirus in the United States. Scientific Reports, 9:3953. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-40564-z
Cheng V. C. C., Lau S. K. P., Woo P. C. Y., Yuen K. Y. 2007. Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus as an agent of emerging and reemerging infection. Clinical Microbiology Reviews, 20:660–694. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00023-07

Corman V. M., Ithete N. L., Richards L. R., Schoeman M. C., Preiser W., Drosten C., Drexler J. F. 2014. Rooting the phylogenetic tree of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus by characterization of a conspecific virus from an African bat. Journal of Virology, 88:11297–11303. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.01498-14

Dawson P., Malik M. R., Parvez F., Morse S. S. 2019. What have we learned about Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus emergence in humans? A systematic literature review. Vector Borne and Zoonotic Diseases, 19:174–192. https://doi.org/10.1089/vbz.2017.2191

de Haan C. A. M., Te Lintelo E., Li Z., Raaben M., Wurding B. J., Bosch B. J., Rottier P. J. M. 2006. Cooperative involvement of the S1 and S2 subunits of the murine coronavirus spike protein in receptor binding and extended host range. Journal of Virology, 80:10909–10918. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.00950-06

Decaro N., Buonavoglia C. 2008. An update on canine coronaviruses: viral evolution and pathobiology. Veterinary Microbiology, 132: 221–234. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2008.06.007

Decaro N., Elia G., Martella V., Campolo M., Mari V., Desario C., Lucento M. S., Lorusso E., Kanellos T., Gibbons R. H., Buonavoglia C. 2010. Immunity after natural exposure to enteric canine coronavirus does not provide complete protection against infection with the new pantropic CB/05 strain. Vaccine, 28:724–729. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2009.10.077

Erles K., Brownlie J. 2008. Canine respiratory coronavirus: an emerging pathogen in the canine infectious respiratory disease complex. The Veterinary Clinics of North America. Small Animal Practice, 38:815–825. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cvsm.2008.02.008

Goodrich E. L., Mittel L. D., Glaser A., Ness S. L., Radcliffe R. M., Divers T. J. 2020. Novel findings from a beta coronavirus outbreak on an American Miniature Horse breeding farm in upstate New York. Equine Veterinary Education, 32:150–154. https://doi.org/10.1111/eve.12938

Graham R. L., Baric R. S. 2010. Recombination, reservoirs, and the modular spike: mechanisms of coronavirus cross-species transmission. Journal of Virology, 84:3134–3146. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.01394-09

Guan Y., Zheng B. J., He Y. Q., Liu X. L., Zhuang Z. X., Cheung C. L., Luo S. W., Li P. H., Zhang L. J., Guan Y. J., Butt K. M., Wong K. L., Chan K. W., Lim W., Shortridge K. F., Yuen K. Y., Peiris J. S. M., Poon L. L. M. 2003. Isolation and characterization of viruses related to the SARS coronavirus from animals in southern China. Science (New York, N.Y.), 302:276–278. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1087139

Guy J. S. 2013. Turkey coronavirus enteritis. In Diseases of poultry. Ed. D. E. Swayne, John Wiley & Sons, Inc, Ames, pp. 376–381.

Hao X., Liu R., He Y., Xiao X., Xiao W., Zheng Q., Lin X., Tao P., Zhou P., Li S. 2019. Multiplex PCR methods for detection of several viruses associated with canine respiratory and enteric diseases. PloS One, 14:e0213295. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0213295

Herrewegh A. A., Smeenk I., Horzinek M. C., Rottier P. J., de Groot R. J. 1998. Feline coronavirus type II strains 79-1683 and 79-1146 originate from a double recombination between feline coronavirus type I and canine coronavirus. Journal of Virology, 72: 4508–4514.
Huang Y.-W., Dickerman A. W., Pineyro P., Li L., Fang L., Kiehne R., Opriessnig T., Meng X.-J. 2013. Origin, evolution, and genotyping of emergent porcine epidemic diarrhea virus strains in the United States. MBio, 4:e00737-13. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00737-13

Hughes A. L. 2011. Recombinational histories of avian infectious bronchitis virus and turkey coronavirus. Archives of Virology, 156:1823–1829. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00705-011-1061-5

Ignjatovic J., Sapats S. 2000. Avian infectious bronchitis virus. Revue Scientifique et Technique (International Office of Epizootics), 19:493–508. https://doi.org/10.20506/rst.19.2.1228

International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV). Available at: https://talk.ictvonline.org/taxonomy/. Accessed 14.05.2020.

Kaneshima T., Hohdatsu T., Hagino R., Hosoya S., Nojiri Y., Murata M., Takano T., Tanabe M., Tsunemitsu H., Koyama H. 2007. The infectivity and pathogenicity of a group 2 bovine coronavirus in pups. The Journal of Veterinary Medical Science, 69:301–303. https://doi.org/10.1292/jvms.69.301

Kim, S.-H., Kim, I.-J., Pyo, H.-M., Tark, D.-S., Song, J.-Y., Hyun, B.-H., 2007. Multiplex real-time RT-PCR for the simultaneous detection and quantification of transmissible gastroenteritis virus and porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. Journal of Virological Methods 146, 172–177. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jviromet.2007.06.021

Laamiri N., Aouini R., Marnissi B., Ghram A., Hmila I. 2018. A multiplex real-time RT-PCR for simultaneous detection of four most common avian respiratory viruses. Virology, 515:29–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virol.2017.11.021

Lau S. K. P., Woo P. C. Y., Li K. S. M., Huang Y., Tsoi H.-W., Wong B. H. L., Wong S. S. Y., Leung S.-Y., Chan K.-H., Yuen K.-Y. 2005. Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-like virus in Chinese horseshoe bats. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 102:14040–14045. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0506735102

Laude H., Van Reeth K., Pensaert M. 1993. Porcine respiratory coronavirus: molecular features and virus-host interactions. Veterinary Research, 24:125–150.

Li F. 2016. Structure, function, and evolution of coronavirus spike proteins. Annual Review of Virology, 3:237–261. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-virology-110615-042301

Li W., Hulswit R. J. G., Kenney S. P., Widjaja I., Jung K., Alhamo M. A., van Dieren B., van Kuppeveld F. J. M., Saif L. J., Bosch B. -J. 2018. Broad receptor engagement of an emerging global coronavirus may potentiate its diverse cross-species transmissibility. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 115:E5135–E5143. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1802879115

Li W., Hulswit R. J. G., Kenney S. P., Widjaja I., Jung K., Alhamo M. A., van Dieren B., van Kuppeveld F. J. M., Saif L. J., Bosch B. -J. 2018. Broad receptor engagement of an emerging global coronavirus may potentiate its diverse cross-species transmissibility. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 115:E5135–E5143. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1802879115

Lorusso A., Decaro N., Schellen P., Rottier P. J. M., Buonavoglia C., Hajijema B.-J., de Groot R. J. 2008. Gain, preservation, and loss of a group 1a coronavirus accessory glycoprotein. Journal of Virology, 82:10312–10317. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.01031-08

Lukač B., Knežević A., Milić N., Krnjač D., Veljović Lj., Miščević V., Zorić A., Durić S., Stanojević M., Nišavić J. 2016. Molecular detection of PCV2 and PPV in pigs in Republic of Srpska, Bosnia and Herzegovina. Acta Veterinaria-Beograd, 66:51-60. https://doi.org/10.1515/acve-2016-0004
Miković R., Knežević A., Milić N., Krnjaić D., Radojičić M., Veljović Lj., Miličević V., Zorić A., Stanojević M., Nišavić J. 2016. Molecular detection of pseudorabies virus (PRV), porcine parvovirus (PPV) and porcine circovirus 2 (PCV2) in swine in Republic of Montenegro. Acta Veterinaria-Beograd, 2016, 66(3): 347-358. https://doi.org/10.1515/acve-2016-0030

Milić N., Nišavić J., Ašanin R., Knežević A., Ašanin J., Vidanović D., Šekler M. 2010. Implementation of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and real-time PCR in quick identification of bovine herpesvirus 1. Veterinarski Glasnik, 64:159-167. https://doi.org/10.2298/VETGL.1004159M

Miszczak F., Kin N., Tesson V., Vabret A. 2016. Real-time RT-PCR detection of equine Coronavirus. In Animal Coronaviruses. Ed. L. Wang, Springer, New York, pp. 93–100. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-3414-0_1

Mora-Diaz J. C., Pinceyro P. E., Houston E., Zimmerman J., Gimenez-Lirola L.G. 2019. Porcine hemagglutinating encephalomyelitis virus: A review. Frontiers in Veterinary Science, 6:53. https://doi.org/10.3389/fvets.2019.00053

Nemoto M., Oue Y., Morita Y., Kanno T., Kinoshita Y., Niwa H., Ueno T., Katayama Y., Bannai H., Tsujimura K., Yamanaka T., Kondo T. 2014. Experimental inoculation of equine coronavirus into Japanese draft horses. Archives of Virology, 159:3329–3334. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00705-014-2205-1

Nemoto, M., Kanno, T., Bannai, H., Tsujimura, K., Yamanaka, T., Kokado, H., 2017. Antibody response to equine coronavirus in horses inoculated with a bovine coronavirus vaccine. The Journal of Veterinary Medical Science 79, 1889–1891. https://doi.org/10.1292/jvms.17-0414

Nišavić J., Knežević A., Stanojević M., Milić N., Radalj A. 2018. Molecular detection of bovine herpesvirus 1 (BoHV-1) in cattle in Serbia. Revue de Medecine Veterinaire, 169:180-184.

Nišavić J., Milić N. 2017. Familija Coronaviridae. In Mikrobiologija sa imunologijom. Eds. N. Milić, D. Krnjaić, D. Mišić, J. Nišavić, M. Radojičić, Naučna KMD, Beograd, pp. 869-880.

OIE. Questions and answers on 2019 novel coronavirus. Available at:https://www.oie.int/en/scientific-expertise/specific-information-and-recommendations/questions-and-answers-on-2019novel-coronavirus/. Accessed 22.04.2020.

Pedersen N.C. 2014. An update on feline infectious peritonitis: virology and immunopathogenesis. Veterinary Journal, 201:123–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tvjl.2014.04.017

Pratelli A., Martella V., Elia G., Decaro N., Aliberti A., Buonavoglia D., Tempesta M., Buonavoglia C. 2001. Variation of the sequence in the gene encoding for transmembrane protein M of canine coronavirus (CCV). Molecular and Cellular Probes, 15:229–233. https://doi.org/10.1006/mcpr.2001.0364

Pratelli A., Martella V., Pistello M., Elia G., Decaro N., Buonavoglia D., Camero M., Tempesta M., Buonavoglia C. 2003. Identification of coronaviruses in dogs that segregate separately from the canine coronavirus genotype. Journal of Virological Methods, 107:213–222. https://doi.org/10.1016/s1026-065x(03)00246-x

Pusterla N., Mapes S., Wademan C., White A., Ball R., Sapp K., Burns, P., Ormond C., Butterworth K., Bartol J., Magdesian K.G. 2013. Emerging outbreaks associated with equine coronavirus in adult horses. Veterinary Microbiology, 162:228–231. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2012.10.014

Pusterla N., Vin R., Leutenegger C. M., Mittel L. D., Divers T. J. 2018. Enteric coronavirus infection in adult horses. Veterinary Journal, 231:13–18. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tvjl.2017.11.004
Pusterla N., Vin R., Leutenegger C., Mittel L. D., Divers T. J. 2017. Equine coronavirus infection. In Emerging and Re-emerging Infectious Diseases of Livestock, Springer International Publishing, pp. 121-132. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-47426-7_4

Radalj A., Nišavić J., Krnjaić D., Valčić M., Jovanović T., Veljović Lj., Milč N. 2018. Detection and molecular characterization of equine herpesviruses 1, 2, and 5 in horses in the Republic of Serbia. Acta Veterinaria Brno, 87:27-34. https://doi.org/10.2754/avb201887010027

Raj V. S., Mou H., Smits S. L., Dekkers D. H. W., Muller M. A., Dijkman R., Muth D., Demmers J. A. A., Zaki A., Fouchier R. A. M., Thiel V., Drosten C., Rottier P. J. M., Osterhaus A. D. M. E., Bosch B. J., Haagmans B. L. 2013. Dipeptidyl peptidase 4 is a functional receptor for the emerging human coronavirus-EMC. Nature, 495:251–254. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12005

Ramakrishnan S., Kappala D. 2019. Avian infectious bronchitis virus. Recent Advances in Animal Virology, 301–319. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-9073-9_164

Rasschaert D., Duarte M., Laude H. 1990. Porcine respiratory coronavirus differs from transmissible gastroenteritis virus by a few genomic deletions. The Journal of General Virology, 71:2599–2607. https://doi.org/10.1099/0022-1317-71-11-2599

Saif L. J. 2004. Animal coronaviruses: what can they teach us about the severe acute respiratory syndrome? Revue Scientifique et Technique (International Office of Epizootics), 23:643–660. https://doi.org/10.20506/rst.23.2.1513

Saif L. J. 2010. Bovine respiratory coronavirus. The Veterinary clinics of North America. Food Animal Practice, 26:349–364. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cvfa.2010.04.005

Sharif S., Arshad S. S., Hair-Bejo M., Omar A. R., Zeenathul N. A., Alazawy A. 2010. Diagnostic methods for feline coronavirus: a review. Veterinary Medicine International, 2010. https://doi.org/10.4061/2010/809480

Sjaak de Wit J. J., Cook J. K. A., van der Heijden H. M. J. F. 2011. Infectious bronchitis virus variants: a review of the history, current situation and control measures. Avian Pathology : Journal of the W.V.P.A, 40:223–235. https://doi.org/10.1080/03079457.2011.566260

Song H.-D., Tu C.-C., Zhang G.-W., Wang S.-Y., Zheng K., Lei L.-C., Chen Q.-X., Gao Y.-W., Zhou H.-Q., Xiang H., Zheng H.-J., Chern S.-W. W., Cheng F., Pan C.-M., Xuan H., Chen S.-J., Luo H.-M., Zhou D.-H., Liu Y.-F., He J.-F., Qin P.-Z., Li L.-H., Ren Y.-Q., Liang W.-J., Yu Y.-D., Anderson L., Wang M., Xu R.-H., Hu W.-X., Zheng H.-Y., Chen J.-D., Liang G., Gao Y., Liao M., Fang L., Liang L.-Y., Li H., Chen F., Di B., He L.-J., Lin J.-Y., Tong S., Kong X., Du L., Hao P., Tang H., Bernini A., Yu X.-J., Spiga O., Guo Z.-M., Pan H.-Y., He W.-Z., Manuguerra J.-C., Fontanet A., Danchin A., Nicoll N., Li Y.-X., Wu C.-I., Zhao G.-P. 2005. Cross-host evolution of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus in palm civet and human. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 102:2430–2435. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0409608102

Stevenson G. W., Hoang H., Schwartz K. J., Burrough E. R., Sun D., Madson D., Cooper, V. L., Pillatzki A., Gauger P., Schmitt B. J., Koster L. G., Killian M. L., Yoon K. J. 2013. Emergence of Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus in the United States: clinical signs, lesions, and viral genomic sequences. Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation : Official Publication of the American Association of Veterinary Laboratory Diagnosticians, Inc, 25:649–654. https://doi.org/10.1177/1040638713501675

Tizzard, I. R. 2020. Vaccines for Veterinarians. Elsevier, St Louis, pp. 336.

Tsunemitsu H., Saif L. J. 1995. Antigenic and biological comparisons of bovine coronaviruses derived from neonatal calf diarrhea and winter dysentery of adult cattle. Archives of Virology, 140:1303–1311. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf01322757
Veljović Lj., Knežević A., Milić N., Krnjač D., Milićević V., Marković M., Miličević V., Stamenković M., Stanojević M., Maksimović-Zorić J., Petrović T., Nišavić J. 2016. Isolation and molecular detection of bovine parainfluenza virus type 3 in cattle in Serbia. Acta Veterinaria-Beograd, 66:509-519. https://doi.org/10.1515/acve-2016-0044

Vijgen L., Keyaerts E., Moes E., Thoelen I., Wollants E., Lemey P., Vandamme A.-M., Van Ranst M. 2005. Complete genomic sequence of human coronavirus OC43: molecular clock analysis suggests a relatively recent zoonotic coronavirus transmission event. Journal of Virology, 79:1595–1604. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.79.3.1595-1604.2005

Vlasova A. N., Wang Q., Jung K., Langel S. N., Malik Y. S., Saif J. L. 2020. Porcine Coronaviruses. In Emerging and Transboundary Animal Viruses. Eds. Y. S. Malik, R. K. Singh, M. P. Yadav, Springer Singapore, Singapore, pp. 79–110. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-0402-0_4

Wege H., Siddell S., ter Meulen V. 1982. The biology and pathogenesis of coronaviruses. Current Topics in Microbiology and Immunology, 99:165–200. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-68528-6_5

Woo P. C. Y., Lau S. K. P., Chu C., Chan K., Tsoi H., Huang Y., Wong B. H. L., Poon R. W. S., Cai J. J., Luk W., Poon L. L. M., Wong S. S. Y., Guan Y., Peiris J. S. M., Yuen K. 2005. Characterization and complete genome sequence of a novel coronavirus, coronavirus HKU1, from patients with pneumonia. Journal of Virology, 79:884–895. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.79.2.884-895.2005

Woo P. C. Y., Lau S. K. P., Huang Y., Yuen K.-Y. 2009. Coronavirus diversity, phylogeny and interspecies jumping. Experimental Biology and Medicine, 234:1117–1127. https://doi.org/10.3181/0903-MR-94

Woo P. C. Y., Lau S. K. P., Lam C. S. F., Lau C. C.Y., Tsang A. K. L., Lau J. H. N., Bai R., Teng J. L. L., Tsang C. C. C., Wang M., Zheng B.-J., Chan K.-H., Yuen K.-Y. 2012. Discovery of seven novel mammalian and avian coronaviruses in the genus deltacoronavirus supports bat coronaviruses as the gene source of alphacoronavirus and betacoronavirus and avian coronaviruses as the gene source of gammacoronavirus and deltacoronavirus. Journal of Virology, 86:3995–4008. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.06540-11

Woo P. C. Y., Lau S. K. P., Lam C. S. F., Tsang A. K. L., Hui S.-W., Fan R. Y. Y., Martelli P., Yuen K.-Y. 2014. Discovery of a novel bottlenose dolphin coronavirus reveals a distinct species of marine mammal coronavirus in Gammacoronavirus. Journal of Virology, 88:1318–1331. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.02351-13

Zhang J. 2016. Porcine deltacoronavirus: Overview of infection dynamics, diagnostic methods, prevalence and genetic evolution. Virus Research, 226:71–84. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virusres.2016.05.028

Zhang X. M., Herbst W., Kousoulas K. G., Storz J. 1994. Biological and genetic characterization of a hemagglutinating coronavirus isolated from a diarrhoeic child. Journal of Medical Virology, 44:152–161. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.1890440207

Zhou P., Fan H., Lan T., Yang X.-L., Shi W.-F., Zhang W., Zhu Y., Zhang Y.-W., Xie Q.-M., Mani S., Zheng X.-S., Li B., Li J.-M., Guo H., Pei G.-Q., An X.-P., Chen J.-W., Zhou L., Mai K.-J., Wu Z.-X., Li D., Anderson D.E., Zhang L.-B., Li S.-Y., Mi Z.-Q., He T.-T., Cong F., Guo P.-J., Huang R., Luo Y., Liu X.-L., Chen J., Huang Y., Sun Q., Zhang X.-L.-L., Wang Y.-Y., Xing S.-Z., Chen Y.-S., Sun Y., Li J., Daszak P., Wang L.-F., Shi Z.-L., Tong Y.-G., Ma J.-Y. 2018. Fatal swine acute diarrhoea syndrome caused by an HKU2-related coronavirus of bat origin. Nature, 556:255–258. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0010-9

Zhou P., Yang X.-L., Wang X.-G., Hu B., Zhang L., Zhang W., Si H.-R., Zhu Y., Li B., Huang C.-L., Chen H.-D., Chen J., Luo Y., Guo H., Jiang R.-D., Liu M.-Q., Chen Y., Shen X.-R.,
NIŠAVIĆ Jakov et al.: The veterinary perspective on coronaviruses

Wang X., Zheng X.-S., Zhao K., Chen Q.-J., Deng F., Liu L.-L., Yan B., Zhan F.-X., Wang Y.-Y., Xiao G.-F., Shi Z.-L. 2020. A pneumonia outbreak associated with a new coronavirus of probable bat origin. Nature, 579:270–273. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2012-7

PREGLED NAJZNAČAJNIJIH INFEKCIJA KORONAVIRUSIMA IZ VETERINARSKE PERSPEKTIVE

NIŠAVIĆ Jakov, MILIĆ Nenad, RADALJ Andrea

Kratak sadržaj

Uvod. Koronavirusi se u okviru veterinarske virusologije izučavaju već dugi niz godina i predstavljaju veliku grupaciju RNK virusa odgovornih za gastrointestinalna, respiratorna i neurološka oboljenja velikog broja životinja i ljudi. Navedeni virusi su visoko adaptibilni s obzirom na njihov jedinstven mehanizam replikacije i sposobnost mutiranja, pri čemu dolazi do česte transmisije koronavirusa među različitim vrstama, kao i promena u njihovom tropizmu.

Cilj i pristup. U skorijoj prošlosti su zabeležene epidemije izazvane virusima SARS-CoV 2002., odnosno MERS-CoV 2012. godine, nakon kojih su koronavirusi postali tema mnogih ispitivanja. Nove nepoznanice i pitanja vezana za pretnju koju koronavirusi predstavljaju izazvala je trenutna pandemija izazvana virusom SARS-CoV-2. Postoji veliki broj značajnih primera koronavirusa koji su preskočili barijeru vrste i posledično doveli do pojave novih oboljenja među različitim vrstama, kao i promena u njihovom tropizmu.

Ključni nalazi i zaključak. Do danas ne postoje dokazi da se novootkriveni virus SARS-CoV-2 prenosi sa domaćih životinja na ljude, a mehanizam kojim je došlo do prelaska navedenog virusa na ljude se intenzivno ispituje. Sve učestalije aktivnosti čoveka koje dovode do narušavanja ekosistema doprinose povećanju rizika od kontakta sa divljim životinjama koje mogu predstavljati rezervoare virusa. Potreba za kontinuiranim nadzorom nad pojavom infekcija izazvanih koronavirusima, podrobnijim ispitivanjima u poljima virusologije i vakcinologije, kao i za pronalaskom efikasne terapije ovih oboljenja predstavljaju ključnu i zajedničku ulogu veterinara i lekara u cilju očuvanja zdravlja ljudi.

Ključne reči: životinje, koronavirus, veterina