Molecular analysis of Peste des Petits Ruminants Virus from outbreak in Turkey during 2010-2012

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ABSTRACT. The aim of the study is to determine the epizootiology of Peste des petits ruminants (PPR) in Turkey during 2010-2012, using molecular genotyping.

Samples of blood (n=193), swab (n=7) and tissue (n=374) were collected from sheep (n=473) and goats (n=101) suspected of having PPRV infection from an outbreak in 50 provinces of Turkey during 2010–2012. These samples (n=574) were tested using reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) and real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) targeting selected parts of the fusion (F) and the nucleocapsid (N) genes. Positivity ratios were 35.5%, 39.3%, and 44.4% with regards to RT-PCR targeting the F and the N genes, and RT-qPCR targeting the latter gene (N), respectively. The overall positivity rate was 45.8%.

For sequence analyses, F-gene (n=53) and N-gene (n=60) positive samples representing different provinces were selected. After phylogenetic analysis, the circulating PPRV was located in lineage IV according to two gene regions. The F-gene partial sequence analysis at the nucleotide level showed 98.2-100% resemblance among 53 for F-gene, and 97.9-98.9% and 91.3-92.4% to Turkey2000 and Nigeria75/1 sequences, respectively. The N-gene partial sequence analysis at the nucleotide level showed 94.2-100% resemblance among 60 for N-gene, and 94.2-98.3% and 89.3-90.9% to Turkey2000 and Nigeria75/1 sequences, respectively.

The result of this study indicates that PPRV infection is enzootic in Turkey, and belongs to the lineage IV, which is present in three haplogroup. The phylogenic analysis indicates the spread of the virus is associated with unauthorized movement of stock.

Keywords: Fusion gene, molecular epidemiology, Nucleocapsid gene, Peste des petits ruminants virus, Sequence analysis,
INTRODUCTION

Peste des petits ruminants (PPR) is a highly contagious and economically important viral disease affecting small ruminants, caused by Peste des petits ruminants virus (PPRV) classified within the genus Morbillivirus in the family Paramyxoviridae (Banyard et al., 2010). PPRV is a nonsegmented, negative sense, single-stranded RNA virus that encodes six structural proteins; nucleocapsid protein (N), phosphoprotein (P), matrix protein (M), fusion protein (F), hemagglutinin (H), RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (L), and two nonstructural proteins (V and C). According to phylogenetic analysis, PPRV can be classified into four genetic lineages based on the fusion (F) and/or nucleocapsid (N) gene (Couacy-Hymann et al., 2002; Ozkul et al., 2002; Kwiatek et al., 2007; Munir et al., 2012a; Munir, 2012b; Mahajan et al., 2014). These lineages are generally correlated with the geographical distribution of the virus (Shaila et al., 1996). Lineage IV is prevalent in Asian countries although all four lineages have been found in Africa (Libeau et al., 2014).

The presence of PPR in Turkey was first reported in lambs in 1993 based on postmortem and immunohistochemical findings (Alcigir et al., 1996). Then it was detected serologically and virologically in 1998 (Tatar and Alkan, 1999). The presence of the disease in Turkey was declared officially by the World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE) in 1999 (Food and Agriculture Organization, 2012). PPR has been a notifiable disease in Turkey since 1997. The complete genome of PPRV isolated from infected sheep in 2000 was sequenced in 2004 (isolate Turkey2000, GenBank acc. No. AJ849636). Phylogenetic analysis revealed that Turkey2000 is closely related to lineage IV, originating from the Middle East, the Arabian peninsula and Asia (Bailey et al., 2005). Since 1993, PPR constitutes a significant health threat for sheep and goat farmers in Turkey despite the annual vaccination program. Together with PPRV, Rinderpest virus, the etiological agent of Rinderpest or cattle plague, is grouped in the same family Paramyxoviridae (Banyard et al., 2010). Eradication status of Rinderpest in Turkey was declared by OIE (Food and Agriculture Organization, 2011), so experiences gained during in this eradication process had become very important for designing of control and eradication program of PPR.

In the light of information mentioned above, the aim of the study was to determine the epizootiology of PPR in Turkey during 2010-2012, using molecular genotyping.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Clinical Specimens

The samples (193 blood, 7 nasal swab, 162 lung, 116 spleen, 4 rectum, 3 small intestine and 89 lymph node) were taken from sheep (n=473) and goats (n=101) raised in 50 provinces in Turkey during 2010-2012. The positivity rate per province: 1: 59.25%; 2: 57.14%; 3: 50%; 4: 66.66%; 5: 38.46%; 6: 100%; 7: 33.33%; 8: 100%; 9: 33.33%; 10: 33.33%; 11: 100%; 12: 0%; 13: 100%; 14: 100%; 15: 100%; 16: 53.33%; 17: 100%; 18: 100%; 19: 100%; 20: 100%; 21: 100%; 22: 100%; 23: 50%; 24: 100%; 25: 100%; 26: 100%; 27: 100%; 28: 100%; 29: 100%; 30: 100%; 31: 100%; 32: 100%; 33: 100%; 34: 100%; 35: 100%; 36: 100%; 37: 100%; 38: 100%; 39: 100%; 40: 100%; 41: 100%; 42: 100%; 43: 100%; 44: 100%; 45: 100%; 46: 100%; 47: 100%; 48: 100%; 49: 100%; 50: 100%.
2010–2012 (Figure 1). Suspection of PPRV infection was established based on clinical findings. Most of the animals had PPR symptoms such as fever, discharges from the eyes and nose, mouth lesions, respiratory distress, sometimes diarrhea, death and abortion. All the collected samples were kept at -80°C for the nucleic acid extraction. All procedures performed in this study involving animals were in accordance with the ethical standards of the Animal Experiments Local Ethics Committee of Ankara University (Approval date: 24/03/2010, Approval number: 2010-59-298).

Detection of RNA Using RT-qPCR Assay

Detection of RNA belonging to the N gene segment of PPRV using RT-qPCR was performed as previously described (Kwiatek et al. 2010). According to this, the RT-qPCR amplification conditions for N gene were as follows: an initial reverse transcription for 30 mins at 50°C and RT-inactivation/Taq-activation for 15 mins at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of amplification (95°C for 1 min, 60°C for 1 min). All samples were tested further using F and N genes conventional RT-PCR.

Detection of RNA Using Conventional RT-PCR Assays

PPRV RNA was extracted from tissue samples using Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Germany) and from blood samples using High Pure Viral Nucleic Acid Kit (Roche, Germany) according to the manufacturers’ instructions. Extracted PPRV RNA was stored at -80°C until further use.

The One-step RT-PCR kit (Qiagen, Germany) was used for PPRV RNA detection. The assay was carried out in two separate reaction mixtures for F and N genes. Each 20μl reaction mixture contained 10pmol primers, 4μl of 1x One-Step RT-PCR buffer, 0.8μl of 10mmol dNTPs, 0.8μl of One-Step RT-PCR enzyme mix and 3μl of extracted (Ozkul et al., 2002; Kerur et al., 2008). The RT-PCR amplification conditions for F and N genes were as follows: a reverse transcription step of 30 mins at 50°C and 15 mins at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles at 94°C for 1 min, 50°C for 1 min and 72°C for 2 mins, with a final extension step at 72°C for 10 mins. RT-PCR products then were electrophoresed in 1.5% agarose gel and visualized by ethidium bromide staining. A 448bp fragment for PPRV-F primers and a 463bp fragment for PPRV-N primers were amplified in positive reactions.

Lyophilized freeze-dried live PPR vaccine (Nigeria75/1 isolate) obtained from commercial PPR vaccine (Vetal Pestvac K, Vetal Inc., www.vetal.com.tr) was used as a reference virus for this study.

Sequencing and Phylogenetic Analysis

At least one positive sample from each province was selected for sequence analysis and purified from gel using a purification kit (High Pure PCR Product Purification Kit, Roche, Germany) and sequenced using the BigDye Terminator kit (v3.1, Applied Biosystems, USA) with an ABI 3130xl DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, USA). Sequence reads were assembled and edited with DNASTar software package (DNASStar Inc., Madison WI; USA, https://www.dnastar.com/). Assembled sequences were also compared with reference publicly available sequences using the MegAlign tool available in the same software. Tables showing sequence similarity were produced (Data not show). Phylogenetic trees were constructed for the 290 and the 238 base pair (bp) fragments of PPRV-F and PPRV-N, respectively, using the same publicly available sequences used for sequence comparison. Neighbor-joining (NJ) trees were constructed using Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis version 5 (MEGA5) software (https://www.megasoftware.net/), based on the evolutionary distances between different sequences calculated by the Kimura two-parameter model (Tamura et al., 2011). The confidence level of the NJ tree was assessed with bootstrapping, using 1,000 replicates.

A phylogenetic network was drawn for PPRV-F and PPRV-N to determine nucleotide substitutions and molecular evolution at F and N gene sites targeted RT-PCR. The data were processed using DnaSP v.5 software and the star contraction algorithm and median-joining (MJ) network algorithm (Bandelt et al., 1999; Forster et al., 2001; Librado and Rozas, 2009).

RESULTS

Detection of RNA in the field samples using RT-PCR assays

PPRV RNA was detected using the RT-qPCR assay targeting the N gene in 44.4% of the samples (255/574) and using RT-PCR assays targeting the F nad N genes in 204 (204/574, 35.5%) and 226 samples (226/574, 39.3%), respectively. RT-PCR results for specific test materials were shown in Table 1. Depending on year, positivity rates in the targeted population were 46.0–47.1% and 42.8–44.0% with regards to sheep and goats, respectively (Table 2).
Table 1. Positivity rates according to test materials

| PCR        | Organs | Blood       | Swab | Total Positivity |
|------------|--------|-------------|------|-----------------|
| N gene RT-qPCR | 150/374 (40.1%) | 100/193 (51.8%) | 5/7  | 255/574 (44.4%) |
| F gene RT-PCR   | 119/374 (31.8%) | 81/193 (41.9%) | 4/7  | 204/574 (35.5%) |
| N gene RT-PCR   | 130/374 (34.7%) | 92/193 (47.6%) | 4/7  | 226/574 (39.3%) |

Table 2. Positivity rates according to year and species

| Year | Total test material | Sheep | Goat | Total positivity |
|------|---------------------|-------|------|-----------------|
| 2012 | 74                  | 25/53 (47.1%) | 9/21 (42.8%) | 34/74 (45.9%) |
| 2011 | 389                 | 156/339 (46.0%) | 22/50 (44.0%) | 178/389 (45.7%) |
| 2010 | 111                 | 38/81 (46.9%) | 13/30 (43.3%) | 51/111 (45.9%) |
| Total| 574                 | 219/473 (46.3%) | 44/101 (43.5%) | 263/574 (45.8%) |

Table 3. Nucleotide and amino acid substitutions in PPRV-N sequences compared to TU00

| Position in whole genome | Nucleotide substitutions | Amino acid substitutions | Position in whole genome | Nucleotide substitutions | Amino acid substitutions | Position in whole genome | Nucleotide substitutions | Amino acid substitutions |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1415.nt                  | G→A                      | R→K                      | 1473.nt                  | T→C                      |                         | 1583.nt                  | C→T                      | P→L                      |
| 1452.nt                  | A→C                      | K→N                      | 1482.nt                  | C→T                      |                         | 1615.nt                  | A→G                      | R→G                      |
| 1460.nt                  | G→A                      | G→E                      | 1529.nt                  | G→A                      | R→K                      |                         |                         |                          |

Sequence and phylogenetic analysis

The F (n=53) and N (n=60) sequence corresponding to the strains of the PPRV that were detected, were deposited in GenBank under three groups with the following accession numbers: from JQ388615 to JQ388664; from JQ519907 to JQ519965, and from JX117877 to JX117880. Analysis of the F gene nucleotide sequences revealed that the nucleotide sequence identity among PPRV-F samples ranged from 98.2% to 100% whereas similarity with previously characterized Turkish isolates (Tu96 and Tu00) ranged from 97.9% to 99.3%. Amino acid sequence identity for PPRV-F, Tu96 and Tu00 was 97.8-100%. No amino acid substitutions were detected in PPRV-F compared to Tu96 and Tu00. Compared to the Nigeria75/1 vaccine strain, PPRV-F had 28 nucleotide substitutions with a similarity of 91.3-92.4%. A phylogenetic tree for PPRV-F gene was drawn using sequences analysed in this study, and sequences of strains from Iran, Iraq, Syria, Egypt, India and China (Tibet), and the reference sequences of the four lineages. As shown in figure 2, all PPRV-F studied here and other Asian sequences grouped together in lineage IV. The oligonucleotide sequences of strains from Egypt, India and Iraq were more similar than those of other countries (Iran, China (Tibet), Morocco, Kuwait, Pakistan) compared to those isolated in Turkey.

Analysis of the N gene nucleotide sequences revealed that the nucleotide sequence identity among PPRV-N samples ranged from 97.2% to 100% whereas similarity with previously characterized Turkish isolate (Tu00) was 97.5%-98.9%. Amino acid sequence identity was 94.2-100% among PPRV-N samples and 94.2-98.3% for PPRV-N and TU00. Nucleotide sequence identity for PPRV-N with the Nigeria75/1 vaccine strain were 89.3-90.3%. The phylogenetic tree of PPRV-N and other sequences from GenBank was shown in figure 3. All PPRV-N samples were clustered into lineage IV, which is exclusive to Asian and Middle East countries. All PPRV-N isolates sequenced here and reported earlier were similar to the PPRV isolates obtained from Iran and Iraq. But Turkey96 formed a separate branch within lineage IV with PPRV isolates from Iran, Israel, Nigeria, and...
Morocco. Seven-12 nucleotide substitutions were detected between Turkey96 sequence and other PPRV-N sequences analysed here (Table 3).

To look for variation among the sequences, a phylogenetic network analysis was drawn for the PPRV-F and PPRV-N nucleotide sequences. According to this, all PPRV-F sequences were clustered under three haplogroups (H1, H2, H3) in lineage IV (Figure 4). As shown in the phylogram, sequences of strains from India (India03-FJ750562) and Iraq (Iraq2009-AY948429) were closest to the Turkish sequences, with one nucleotide substitution. Similarly, all PPRV-N sequences were mainly clustered under three haplogroups (H1, H2, H3) in lineage IV (Figure 5). In general, sequences of strains from Iraq (Iraq2011-JF969755) and Iran (JX898860 and JX898861) were closest to the PPRV-N sequences analysed here. Especially, sequences of strains from Iran were identical with H1.
DISCUSSION

The infection of small ruminants with PPRV causes significant economic losses across a wide geographical area, including Turkey (Ozkul et al., 2002; Kul et al., 2007; Banyard et al., 2010). After the successful Global Rinderpest Eradication Program in cattle, national and international organisations have undertaken initiatives to control and eradicate PPR. The determining of the seriousness and variability of PPRV infection in susceptible populations is impossible without any effective diagnostic method. Because of that, the accurate and reliable diagnosis constitute the first step of these initiatives (Banyard et al., 2010). Especially in early stage of the disease, the differential diagnosis of PPRV infection is difficult from other diseases with similar symptoms. Thus, rapid alleviation programs, supported by rapid, specific and sensitive diagnostic methods are critical.

For the reasons mentioned above, the existing situation regarding disease prevalence was recorded for the first time, within the context of this study. The mean level of positivity for years 2010 to 2012 using RT-PCR was 45.8% (263/574), which corresponds to 45.9% for year 2010, 45.7% for 2011 and 45.9% for 2012. At same time, the level of positivity for sheep and goats was 46.7-47.1% and 42.8-44%, respectively. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has an annual vaccination program since the first detection of the disease. According to this, all sheep and goats of all ages are vaccinated with PPR vaccine every year in the autumn. In 2010, PPR vaccination campaigns for individually identified lambs and kids were implemented in Turkey as part of a three-year European Union Project. For this, 30 million doses of PPRV vaccine were produced and consigned to the field. Between 2010-2012, in parallel with vaccination, approximately 27 million sheep and goat were ear-tagged and registered in all provinces. Despite all these vaccination campaigns, similar positivity
rates were determined between 2010-2012. In addition to problems mentioned previous studies (Ozkul et al., 2002; Banyard et al., 2010), the political situation on the south east borderline of Turkey may have hampered the efforts to control of disease and animal movement during this study.

In view of the results of detection limit and field samples, the \( N \) gene RT-qPCR was more valuable than \( N \) gene RT-PCR and \( F \) gene RT-PCR for detecting PPRV infection in this study. These results, which are compatible with those of Kwiatek et al. (2007) and Bao et al. (2008), indicate that the RT-qPCR assay used in this study was more sensitive than the \( F \) and \( N \) genes RT-PCR assays for the diagnosis of PPRV in field samples (Bao et al., 2008; Kwiatek et al., 2010; Batten et al., 2011). Because the \( N \) gene is located at the 3' end of the PPRV genome, it is the most expressed gene due to a transcriptional gradient from the 3' to the 5' end of the genome (Ghosh et al., 1995). Therefore, it is probably one of the best targets for maximizing sensitivity with regards to RT-qPCR (Kwiatek et al., 2010).

In this study, a total of 473 sheep and 101 goats from various flocks were sampled. There was also a difference between sheep and goats in terms of positivity (Table 2). It was found that this finding is in accordance with the studies (Ozkul et al., 2002; Kul et al., 2007) that suggest that PPRV infection is more prevalent in sheep than goats in Turkey. However it is not compatible with the other reports (Anderson and McKay, 1994; Zhiliang et al., 2009). Possible explanations for these results may be sample size relative the general population, the age of the animals and difference in species-specific animal trade. According to years, the rate of positivity was similar in 2010, 2011 and 2012 (Table 2). The absence of a reduction in rates despite vaccination can be attributed to uncontrolled animal movement on the east and southeast border of the country, which seems to be consistent with the outcome of the relevant network phylogenetic analyses that was conducted (provinces' numbers: 1, 24, 30, 40), (Figure 1).

Although several RT-PCR methods have been developed since 1995 for rapid and specific detection of PPRV, genome sequencing has remained the gold standard for confirming the virus (Zhao et al., 2009). This method has been also found useful for analyzing the genetic relationships between PPRV isolates and supported epidemiological investigations on the origin and spread of the virus. In light of this information, phylogenetic analyses of PPRV were conducted by using partial sequences of the \( PPRV-F \) and \( N \) genes (Munir et al., 2012a; Munir, 2012b). As in previous studies (Ozkul et al., 2002; Bailey et al., 2005; Yesilbag et al., 2005; Kul et al., 2007), this study showed that prevailing PPRV in Turkey belongs to lineage IV consisting of three main haplogroups. Detection of haplogroups indicates a number of introductions into Turkey. However, these haplogroups also show that PPRV strains in Turkey may have followed different evolutionary courses. It is plausible that multiple introductions from diverse sources were combined, resulting to mixed virus population in Turkey. The belief that border crossing of the virus (Ozkul et al., 2002; Banyard et al., 2010) is supported by the fact that sequences obtained in this study were clustered with sequences obtained in Iran, Iraq, Egypt and India. Specifically, the greater nucleotide sequence identity in the \( N \) gene network phylogenetic analysis suggests that there has been a close contact between sequences of strains from Iran and Turkey. To determine this possibility, sequencing should be added to regular virologic surveillance to characterise PPRV in the country.

Through \( F \) gene partial sequence analysis, it was found out that the PPRV strains showed a level of nucleotide sequence identity that was determined in Turkey to a minimum of 98.2%. Several studies (Kwiatek et al., 2007; Kerur et al., 2008; Banyard et al., 2010; Anees et al., 2013) indicated that substitution in the \( N \) gene is more probable than in the \( F \) gene, which was confirmed by our results indicating lower level of nucleotide sequence identity with regards to the \( N \) gene (94.2%). In general, the topology of the phylogenetic and network phylogenetic tree indicated that PPRV samples from different provinces differ mainly in their \( PPRV-F \) and \( PPRV-N \) gene sequences. While the PPRV strains in this study are more closely related strains from Egypt and Iraq in the \( F \) gene phylogenetic tree, they are more closely related to strains from Iran and Iraq in the \( N \) gene phylogenetic tree. When evaluated together with geographical proximity, the \( N \) gene-based phylogenetic tree becomes more meaningful. Because the probability of livestock transition from neighboring countries is higher than non-border countries. The possible relationship could be due to the fact that Turkish breeders share the same pastures with their Iraqi and Iranian counterparts. Another possible cause is uncontrolled animal movement, which especially increases before religious ceremonies, such as the festival of the sacrifice. Like similar studies (Kwiatek et al., 2007; Kerur et al., 2008; Banyard et al., 2010) our data indicate that a molecular genotyping survey targeting the \( N \) gene of PPRV would be more reliable than the \( F \) gene based.
CONCLUSIONS

It was concluded that PPR is enzootic in Turkey according to the PCR results of this study. By conducting molecular epidemiological analyses, it was understood that the main cause of this situation is animal movement from different sources according to three haplogroups. So PPR continues to be a major economic burden for sustainable animal production in Turkey. In this respect, an appropriate control and eradication campaign for PPRV infection should be considered similar to the successfully completed RPV eradication program.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declared no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in study design, datacollection and analysis, decision to publish or preparation of the manuscript.