

1 **Title: Are tree squirrels involved in the circulation of flaviviruses in Italy?**

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3 **Short Running title: Flavivirus exposure in squirrels**

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25 **Summary**

26 West Nile virus (WNV), Usutu virus (USUV) and Tick-borne encephalitis virus (TBEV) are emerging  
27 zoonotic flaviviruses (Family *Flaviviridae*), which have circulated in Europe in the past decade. A cross-  
28 sectional study was conducted to assess exposure to these antigenically-related flaviviruses in eastern gray  
29 squirrels (*Sciurus carolinensis*) in Italy. Seventeen out of 158 (10.8%; CI<sub>95%</sub>: 5.9-15.6) squirrels' sera tested  
30 through bELISA had antibodies against flaviviruses. Specific neutralizing antibodies to WNV, USUV and  
31 TBEV were detected by virus neutralization tests. Our results indicate that tree squirrels are exposed to *Culex*  
32 and tick-borne zoonotic flaviviruses in Italy. Moreover, this study shows for the first time USUV and TBEV  
33 exposure in gray squirrels, broadening the host range reported for these viruses. Even though further studies  
34 are needed to define the real role of tree squirrels in the epidemiology of flaviviruses in Europe, this study  
35 highlights that serology could be an effective approach for future investigations aimed at broadening our  
36 knowledge about the species exposed to these zoonotic infections.

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39 **Keywords:** Flavivirus; West Nile virus; Usutu virus; Tick-borne encephalitis virus; squirrels; zoonoses

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## 42 **Introduction**

43 Most flaviviruses (genus *Flavivirus*, Family *Flaviviridae*) are emerging or re-emerging vector-borne  
44 zoonotic pathogens. Among them, West Nile virus (WNV), Usutu virus (USUV) and Tick-borne encephalitis  
45 virus (TBEV) have circulated endemically in European countries in the last decade, raising concerns  
46 regarding both public and animal health (Beck et al., 2013). Consequently, integrated human, veterinary and  
47 vector surveillance systems for flaviviruses have been implemented in several European countries (Gossner  
48 et al., 2017). WNV and USUV belong to the mosquito-borne flavivirus group and are generally maintained  
49 in an enzootic life-cycle involving ornithophilic mosquitoes (mostly genus *Culex*) as competent vectors and  
50 wild birds as main reservoir hosts. Even though mammals are susceptible to infection by these flaviviruses,  
51 most species are considered incidental or dead-end hosts, as they typically show a short-term and low-level  
52 viremia that prevents transmission to competent vectors (Root, 2013). TBEV is the most relevant zoonotic  
53 virus within the tick-borne flavivirus group in Europe. Its epidemiological cycle is maintained by small  
54 rodents as reservoirs and hard ticks (genus *Ixodes*) as vectors.

55 Previous studies have documented that squirrels are exposed to vector-borne flaviviruses (reviewed  
56 in Root, 2013; Demina et al., 2017). These arboreal rodents do not appear to play a major role as amplifying  
57 hosts, but contrary to other mammals, WNV infection in tree squirrels (mostly genus *Sciurus*) has been  
58 shown to reach sufficient viremia to infect competent mosquito species and the virus has been isolated from  
59 fecal and urine samples in experimentally infected animals (Root et al., 2006; Gómez et al., 2008; Platt et al.,  
60 2008; Tiawsirisup et al., 2010). Furthermore, North American populations of several tree squirrel species had  
61 high seroprevalence to WNV, with several individuals showing evident clinical signs of disease (Root et al.,  
62 2005; Padgett et al., 2007; Bisanzio et al., 2015). Because tree squirrels share habitats with wild birds and  
63 *Culex* mosquitoes, frequently inhabit urban and periurban areas, can reach high densities and have small  
64 home-ranges, in North America these species have been proposed as useful sentinels providing early warning  
65 of WNV circulation (Gómez et al., 2008; Root, 2013; Bisanzio et al., 2015). In Europe, conditions are  
66 sensibly different since the epidemiology of flaviviruses is different and the only native tree squirrel species,  
67 the Eurasian red squirrel (*Sciurus vulgaris*), lives at low densities and usually avoids heavily anthropized  
68 areas. However, other alien squirrel species have been introduced in the continent. In particular, the eastern  
69 gray squirrel (*S. carolinensis*) is the most abundant and widespread alien squirrel in Europe, having been

70 introduced into the British Isles since the second half of the XIX century and in Italy in 1948 (Bertolino et  
71 al., 2014). Distribution of this species in the Italian peninsula is fragmented, with two main populations  
72 established in the northwestern part of the country, over an area of about 3500 km<sup>2</sup> in the Po plain (Bertolino  
73 et al., 2014). Gray squirrels in Italy are currently being culled within invasive species control programs.  
74 However, even though this rodent is among those North American species that show high exposure to WNV  
75 in their native range (Root et al., 2005; Bisanzio et al., 2015), there is no information about their role in the  
76 epidemiology of flaviviruses in the European range.

77 Since surveillance programs and early warning systems toward WNV, USUV and TBEV targeting  
78 human, animals and vectors have revealed recurrent circulation of these viruses in northern Italy (e.g. Rezza  
79 et al., 2015; Rizzo et al., 2016), the goal of this study was to determine the exposure to these flaviviruses in  
80 alien gray squirrel populations introduced in the area.

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## 82 **Materials and Methods**

83 A total of 158 gray squirrels from 13 populations located in northern Italy (7 sites in Piedmont and 6  
84 in Lombardy region, Fig 1) were sampled monthly between 2011 and 2013. The sample set was  
85 heterogeneous for host sex, age class (i.e. adult or subadult), season and year of collection. Blood samples  
86 were collected through heart-puncture in specimens culled within a population control program (LIFE EC-  
87 SQUARE), in accordance with EC directives and with local laws and regulations (see Romeo et al., 2014a  
88 for details on field procedures). Blood samples were centrifuged and sera were stored at -20 C° until  
89 analysis.

90 Sera were screened using a commercial blocking ELISA (bELISA) (10.WNV.K3 INGEZIM West  
91 Nile COMPAC<sup>®</sup>, Ingenasa, Madrid, Spain) which detects antibodies against one epitope of the envelope  
92 protein domain III of the Japanese encephalitis serocomplex (genus *Flavivirus*) (Sotelo et al., 2011). The  
93 assays were performed according to the manufacturers' instructions. Results were expressed as a percentage  
94 of inhibition (PI) calculated using the optical density (OD) of a sample and the mean OD of the negative  
95 control (NC) of the kit as follows:  $PI = 100 - [(OD_{\text{sample}}/OD_{\text{NC}}) \times 100]$ . According to the instructions of the kit,  
96 samples with PI values >40% were considered positive, those with PI values <30% were considered  
97 negative, and those with PI values between 30% and 40% were considered doubtful. The bELISA was used

98 as a serological screening tool and bELISA-positive and doubtful sera were then tested by virus  
99 neutralization test (VNT) for the detection of specific neutralizing antibodies against WNV (Is98 strain),  
100 USUV (It12 strain) and TBEV (Hypr strain) according to World Organisation for Animal Health guidelines  
101 (OIE, 2013). Sera that showed neutralization at dilutions  $\geq 10$  (WNV, USUV) and 20 (TBEV) were  
102 considered positive. The neutralizing immune response observed was considered specific when VNT titers  
103 for a given virus were at least fourfold higher than titers obtained for the other two viruses. The effect of  
104 independent variables (sex, age class, region, season and year) on seropositivity to flaviviruses was  
105 investigated through logistic regression, applying Firth's penalized maximum likelihood method to cope with  
106 low prevalences and quasi-separation of data (Heinze and Schemper, 2002). The fit and the discriminatory  
107 capability of the model were assessed through Hosmer and Lemeshow test ( $\chi^2_8=8.7$ ;  $p=0.37$ ) and the  
108 Receiver Operator Curve (Area Under the Curve=0.82), respectively. All the analyses were carried out using  
109 PROC LOGISTIC in SAS<sup>®</sup> 9.4 Software (Copyright © 2012 SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

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## 111 **Results and Discussion**

112 Antibodies against flaviviruses were detected in 17 out of 158 gray squirrels (10.8%; 95% Confidence  
113 Interval: 5.9-15.6) tested by bELISA. Specific neutralizing antibodies against WNV, USUV and TBEV were  
114 then confirmed by VNT in one, five and three of the 17 bELISA-positive squirrels, respectively. One animal  
115 was positive to both USUV and TBEV neutralizing antibodies, with titer differences  $\leq 2$ -fold. Although this  
116 last finding may be related to VNT cross-reactivity among USUV and TBEV, co-infection by both viruses  
117 cannot be ruled out. The seroprevalence in squirrels was 0.6% for WNV and, considering the possible co-  
118 occurrence, ranged between 3.2 and 3.8% for USUV and 1.9 and 2.5% for TBEV. The remaining seven  
119 bELISA-positive sera were negative against the three viruses tested using VNT, suggesting exposure to  
120 other, cross-related flaviviruses. Other than WNV, USUV and TBEV, only insect-specific flaviviruses have  
121 been isolated in mosquitoes in Northern Italy (Rizzo et al., 2014; Grisenti et al., 2015). However, the  
122 circulation of other flaviviruses among wild mammals in Italy cannot be excluded (Cosseddu et al., 2017). In  
123 this respect, several flaviviruses, including Meaban virus, Louping ill virus and Bagaza virus have been  
124 detected in other European countries in the last few years (Beck et al., 2013; García-Bocanegra et al., 2013;

125 Arnal et al., 2014). Further investigations through molecular methods would help to disclose the matter and  
126 detect other flaviviruses circulating in the study area.

127 We detected a single VNT-positive animal to WNV and no outbreaks were reported in the study area in 2011  
128 (CESME, 2017), when the seropositive squirrel was sampled. Although a false positive result cannot be  
129 completely ruled out, this finding may also indicate a limited circulation of WNV in the study area in 2011.  
130 Our results also highlight for the first time natural USUV exposure in a squirrel species, broadening the host  
131 range reported for this zoonotic flavivirus (Gaibani and Rossini, 2017). Finally, the present study represents  
132 the first report of natural TBEV exposure in an arboreal rodent as the virus had previously been isolated only  
133 from long-tailed ground squirrels (*Spermophilus undulatus*) and from experimentally infected dormice (*Glis*  
134 *glis*) (Kozuch et al., 1963; Demina et al., 2017). Seroprevalence to TBEV observed in gray squirrels in the  
135 present study is lower than prevalence reported in rodents and goats in northeastern Italy (Rizzoli et al.,  
136 2007). This was not surprising, since both gray and red squirrels (*S. vulgaris*) over the same range in  
137 northwestern Italy are rarely infested by ticks (Romeo et al., 2014a).

138 Six out of the 13 (46.1%) sampling sites presented at least one seropositive squirrel to flaviviruses  
139 detected by bELISA (Fig 1). Seropositivity to flaviviruses in squirrels varied across regions ( $\chi^2_1=7.3$ ,  
140  $p=0.007$ ): it was significantly higher in Piedmont (16.8%; 15/89) compared to Lombardy (2.9%; 2/69).  
141 Moreover, all squirrels that showed VNT-positive results for either WNV, USUV or TBEV were trapped in  
142 Piedmont. In this respect, our results contrast with the higher circulation of WNV and USUV detected in  
143 both humans and competent vectors in Lombardy region during the study period (Chiari et al., 2015; Rizzo et  
144 al., 2016; Calzolari et al., 2017; CESME, 2017; Mancini et al., 2017). The regional difference in  
145 seroprevalence observed in our study is likely related to habitat differences between the distribution range of  
146 grey squirrels in the two regions. Most sampling sites in Piedmont were woodlands fragments surrounded by  
147 open fields and located in flat, humid areas. Conversely, most sampling sites in Lombardy were larger woods  
148 with a drier climate, which are less favorable habitats for the development of mosquito vectors. Indeed, most  
149 of flavivirus outbreaks reported in Lombardy region were located further to the south than our study areas  
150 and outside of grey squirrels' introduction range (e.g. Chiari et al., 2015; Rovida et al., 2015; Calzolari et al.,  
151 2017). Seropositivity to flaviviruses significantly varied also across years ( $\chi^2_2=6.7$ ,  $p=0.04$ ), with a higher  
152 seroprevalence in squirrels sampled in 2011 (29.0%; 9/31), compared to 2012 (6.9%; 5/72) and 2013 (5.4%;

153 3/55). USUV-specific neutralizing antibodies were observed in all the three sampled years, while  
154 seropositivity to WNV and TBEV was only found in 2011. The presence of antibodies against WNV and  
155 USUV in young animals trapped in Piedmont indicates circulation of these viruses in 2011 and 2012,  
156 respectively, which is consistent with serological data from wild birds over the same geographical area  
157 (Llopis et al., 2015). However, WNV cases in the region were reported for the first time in horses and birds  
158 only in 2014; while USUV cases in horses were detected already in 2010, suggesting a more intense  
159 circulation of USUV compared to WNV (Calzolari et al., 2017; CESME, 2017), which may explain the  
160 higher seroprevalence to USUV observed in tree squirrels (CESME, 2017). Host-related factors (i.e. sex and  
161 age) and seasons had no effect on seropositivity to flavivirus (all  $p>0.05$ ). Nevertheless, our results should be  
162 carefully interpreted because of the limited number of analyzed animals.

163 In conclusion, our findings indicate that gray squirrels are exposed to *Culex* and tick-borne  
164 flaviviruses, particularly WNV, USUV and TBEV in Italy. Even though this species does not appear to play  
165 a major role in the epidemiology of flaviviruses, our results, as well as previous epidemiological data from  
166 North America and experimental infections, suggest that this species might be involved in the circulation of  
167 these zoonotic flaviviruses. Finally, our findings highlight how invasive alien species should not be  
168 considered only as carriers of new pathogens, but also as potential reservoirs for local diseases (Hatcher et  
169 al., 2012). The risk of underestimating the epidemiological impact of introduced hosts might be even greater  
170 for those species, such as squirrels, for which only a limited number of diseases is known (Romeo et al.,  
171 2014a; 2014b). Therefore, a deeper understanding of the mechanisms driving the spatio-temporal variability  
172 observed in WNV, USUV or TBEV circulation is essential to define the true role of squirrels in the  
173 epidemiology of flaviviruses in Europe.

174

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179

#### 180 **Conflict of interest statement**

181 None of the authors of this study has a financial or personal relationship with other people or  
182 organizations that could inappropriately influence or bias the content of the paper.

183

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303 **Figure legend**

304

305 **Figure 1. Map of northwestern Italy showing sites where gray squirrels were examined for**  
306 **Flaviviruses' exposure.** Black and white dots indicate positive and negative sites for the presence of  
307 flaviviruses detected by bELISA, respectively. When positive, results of virus neutralization tests are  
308 specified above dots. Line patterns represent gray squirrels' distribution in 2015.

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