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| 1 | Oxidative stress in wild Eu | ropean rabbits naturall | y infected with myxoma | virus and rabbit | haemorrhagic |
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23 Abstract

24 The European rabbit (Oryctolagus cuniculus) is one of the most important vertebrate species in the Mediterranean 25 Basin ecosystem. Over the last 60 years, the arrival of two viral diseases, myxomatosis and rabbit haemorrhagic 26 disease, have led to dramatic declines in wild rabbit populations across the Iberian Peninsula. These diseases are 27 currently endemic. Periodic outbreaks occur and have significant impacts on wild populations. Both infection 28 types have diverse physiological effects on their hosts that are rooted in aerobic metabolic processes. To fight off 29 these viruses, rabbits activate their immune systems. However, the production of immune defences generates 30 reactive oxygen species that may consequently damage host tissues. Hypothesising that immune responses 31 increase oxidative stress, we examined whether wild rabbits naturally infected with myxoma virus (MV) and 32 rabbit haemorrhagic disease virus (RHDV) had high oxidative stress. Using blood samples, we measured anti-MV 33 and anti-RHDV antibody concentrations and different oxidative stress markers (i.e., glutathione peroxidase, 34 glutathione reductase, superoxide dismutase, catalase, and malondialdehyde). Our results show that rabbits that 35 were seropositive for both MV and RHDV had high concentrations of malondialdehyde. Age and body condition 36 were also positively related to dual seropositivity. No significant relationships were observed between serostatus 37 and the concentrations of the other oxidative stress markers. Although we expected infection with MV and RHDV 38 to be correlated with oxidative stress, the influence of external sources of oxidative stress (e.g., climatic 39 conditions) likely made it more difficult to detect such relationships in wild rabbits.

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| 43 | Key words: myxomatosis, Oryctolagus cuniculus, oxidative damage, rabbit haemorrhagic disease, ROS, |
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| 44 | serostatus |

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50 1. Introduction

51 The wild European rabbit (Oryctolagus cuniculus) is an important keystone species in the Mediterranean Basin 52 ecosystem. Over the past several decades, its populations have undergone a sharp decline in the Iberian Peninsula, 53 largely due to the impact of two major viral diseases: myxomatosis and rabbit haemorrhagic disease (RHD) 54 (Calvete et al. 2002; García-Bocanegra et al. 2010). Myxomatosis and RHD are currently endemic; significant 55 annual mortality is caused by myxomatosis outbreaks in summer and autumn and RHD outbreaks in spring and 56 winter (Calvete et al. 2002; Villafuerte et al. 2017). Both myxoma virus (MV) and RHD virus (RHDV) can induce 57 significant physiological stress because host metabolic rate climbs during infection (Tuñon et al. 2003; Sanchez-58 Campos et al. 2004; Lastra 2009; Costantini 2014). In general, immune responses draw upon metabolic processes, 59 increasing immunity and disease resistance at an energetic cost (Lochmiller and Deerenberg 2000). There are 60 also biological fitness costs (Costantini 2008). To fight pathogens, rabbits first activate an innate inflammatory 61 immune response. Inflammation is a non-specific process during which fluids, compounds, and immune cells (e.g., 62 phagocytes) are disseminated through the bloodstream to damaged or infected tissues. Secondly, an acquired 63 immunity is developed when hosts experience repeated exposure to viruses over a long-term period. This is a 64 specific, adaptive response in which a large variety of cells (i.e: lymphocytes) play part in the recognition of 65 specific antigenic configurations of pathogens and respond by triggering cellular (i.e: cytotoxic T-cells) and 66 humoral (i.e: antibodies) effectors (Sorci and Faivre 2009). In a parallel way, viruses develop mechanisms to 67 overcome host immune defences. These strategies allow them to subvert and manipulate key elements of the 68 intracellular and extracellular environment to facilitate their replication, dissemination and transmission (Masters 69 et al. 2001; Johnston et al. 2003). For example, viral proteins secreted from MV suppress lymphocyte and 70 macrophage activation (Cameron et al. 2005a, b) and inflammatory responses (Kerr and McFaden, 2002) and 71 destroy or supress lymphocytes (Kerr 2012). In the case of RHDV, the main strategy is apparently involved in the 72 manipulation of cellular death (Vallejo et al. 2014). Even though, immune system defends against pathogens, it 73 generates reactive oxygen species (ROS). ROS also play an important role since they act as molecular messengers 74 in biological processes (Apel and Hirt 2004; Foyer and Noctor 2005; Gechev et al. 2006); but at high levels they 75 can induce DNA, lipid, and protein damage (Harman 1956; Beckman and Ames 1998; Dowling and Simmons 76 2009; Selman et al. 2012). Therefore, although ROS can act as highly effective antimicrobial agents, they can also 77 potentially damage host tissues and cells. Such negative side effects can be counteracted by a complex antioxidant 78 (AOX) system that consists of a wide range of endogenous and exogenous compounds (Halliwell and Gutteridge 79 1999; van de Crommenacker et al. 2010), although any imbalance between ROS and AOXs in favour of the

80 former gives rise to oxidative stress (OS) (Sies 1991; Halliwell and Gutteridge 2007). OS causes gradual 81 deterioration of organismal function and cell senescence over time and is thus believed to be an important 82 modulator of life-history trade-offs in vertebrates (Costantini 2008; Nussey et al. 2009; Costantini 2014). 83 Therefore, an organism's OS level plays an important role in reproductive performance and aging, which means 84 it is also significantly linked to body condition and biological fitness (Beckman and Ames 1998; Hulbert et al. 85 2007). Evaluating OS levels is therefore an important part of determining an individual's health status. Since both 86 plasma and serum markers can reveal exposure to stress, biochemical assays that characterise blood oxidative 87 profiles could be used to determine the extent of OS in wild vertebrates (Costantini 2008). According to recent 88 findings, at least one marker of AOX activity and one marker of oxidative damage should be measured to 89 adequately quantify overall OS (Prior and Cao 1999; Clarkson and Thompson 2000; Cohen and McGraw 2009; 90 Costantini and Verhulst 2009; Selman et al. 2012; Christensen et al. 2015). Laboratory and field studies have 91 revealed that mounting an immune response can increase oxidative damage and decrease AOX activity 92 (Tanchev et al. 2003; Costantini and Moller 2009; Marri and Richner 2015; von Schantz et al. 2016). However, 93 despite evidence suggesting that infection risk, OS, and host immune capacity are related, little is known 94 about the temporal consistency of relationships among viral infections, OS markers, and immune function in 95 wild animals. In this study, we tested the hypothesis that immune response increases oxidative stress 96 within three wild populations of the European rabbit that were naturally exposed to MV and RHDV 97 infections. We measured anti-MV and anti-RHDV antibody concentrations as a proxy of contact with the viruses. 98 The presence of MV and RHDV antibodies does only inform on previous exposure to MV and RHDV 99 respectively, therefore we cannot assert that rabbits seropositive for MV and/or seropositive for RHDV were 100 suffering from an infection in that moment. We measured as well markers of AOX activity and oxidative damage 101 in blood samples collected over six sampling periods. The goal of our study was to improve our understanding of 102 immune response dynamics and changes in OS and, more specifically, to determine how animals could 103 physiologically cope with oxidative damage resulting from a natural immune challenge. We wished to clarify any 104 potential harmful effects on body condition and biological fitness that could threaten the viability of natural 105 populations.

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110 2. Materials and methods

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112 *2.1 Ethics statement*

All animal experimentation was carried out in accordance with Spanish and European regulations (Law 32/2007,

114 Council Directive 2010/63/EU, R.D. 53/2013, ECC/566/2015).

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- **116** *2.2 Study site*

117 The study was conducted in Hornachuelos Natural Park, which is located in a hilly area in the southwestern part of 118 the Iberian Peninsula (37°49' N, 5°15' W); altitude in the park ranges from 100 to 700 m. The climate is 119 Mediterranean, characterised by hot, dry summers and mild, wet winters. Historically, rabbits were highly 120 abundant in the Sierra de Hornachuelos Natural Park but in the recent decades wild populations decreased 121 dramatically. In an attempt to boost local rabbit populations and help to a great extent the conservation of rabbit 122 endangered predators, a restocking was carried out in the area in 2008. This programme consisted of the creation 123 of enclosures where rabbits were introduced to obtain high population densities (Rouco et al. 2008). These 124 enclosures (E1: 3.8 ha; E2: 4.1 ha; and E3: 2.9 ha) were built using 2.5-m-high chain link fences to prevent 125 immediate dispersal of rabbits and to prevent non-avian predators from entering. In every enclosure, artificial 126 warrens were built above ground, consisting of piles of stumps and rocks covered with loam and branches to 127 provide animals with shelter and nesting sites. Additionally, near every warren, water and commercial food were 128 supplied *ad libitum* during throughout the study period.

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130 2.3 Sampling

Animals were captured seasonally in the three enclosures: six live-trapping sessions were conducted from autumn 2008 to spring 2010. Live rabbits were caught using cage traps placed around each warren, as described in Bertó-Moran et al. (2013). With this methodology, we captured around 50–60% of rabbits in a given warren on any given night (Rouco et al. 2011). Individuals were marked with numbered ear tags, their sex and mass were recorded, and both ear and tarsus length were measured. Age estimates were based on body mass—females and males weighing more than 750 g and 850 g, respectively, were considered to be adults (Villafuerte 1994; Alves and Moreno 1996). Blood samples (1–2.5 ml) were extracted from the auricular marginal vein and kept cold (at

- approximately 4 °C [no direct contact with ice]). They were transported to a field laboratory and immediately
- 139 centrifuged in Eppendorf tubes. Serum and blood cells were obtained and stored separately at -80 °C until further
- analyses could take place (Evans 2008; Maceda-Veiga et al. 2015; Pacios-Palma et al. 2016).
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- 142 2.4 Oxidative stress and immunological analyses

143 Using blood cellular fraction, we assayed five different OS markers: four AOX enzymes-glutathione peroxidase 144 (GPX), glutathione reductase (GR), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and catalase (CAT)-and one compound that 145 signals oxidative damage—malondialdehyde (MDA; a product of lipid peroxidation). GPX (U/mg of protein) is an 146 enzyme that catalyses the reduction of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and a wide variety of organic peroxides (R-147 OOH) into their corresponding stable alcohols (R-OH) and water using cellular glutathione as the reducing 148 reagent. Its concentration was determined by estimating NADPH oxidation as per Carmagnol et al. (1983). GR (mU/mg of protein) is a flavoprotein that catalyses the NADPH-dependent reduction of oxidized glutathione 149 150 (GSSG) into glutathione (GSH). Its concentration was determined as per Cribb et al. (1989). SOD (U/mg of 151 protein) is a metalloenzyme that catalyses the dismutation of the superoxide anion into either molecular oxygen or 152 hydrogen peroxide; it is thus a crucial part of the cellular antioxidant defense mechanism. Its concentration was 153 determined as per McCord and Fridovich (1969). CAT (U/mg of protein) is an enzyme that catalyses the 154 decomposition of hydrogen peroxide into water and oxygen and is a very important enzyme in oxidative 155 metabolism. Its concentration was determined as per Cohen et al. (1969). Finally, MDA (nmol/ml) is a low-156 molecular-weight molecule that is the end-product of the peroxidative decomposition of unsaturated lipids. Its 157 concentration was determined using the Buege and Aust method (1978). Every OS markers here measured was 158 referred to the total proteins content expressed in mg/ml.

159 And using the serum samples, we determined the concentrations of anti-MV and anti-RHDV antibodies using 160 commercial enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits. Before measuring anti-MV antibody levels, we 161 diluted sera 1:40 and calculated the relative immunity index (RI). The RI was the coefficient relating the optical 162 density of the controls (positive and negative) to that of the samples. Its value ranged from 1 to 10. Rabbits whose 163 samples had an RI > 2 were considered to be antibody positive (CIV TEST CUNI MIXOMATOSIS, HIPRA 164 Laboratories, Girona, Spain). The specificity (proportion of seropositives that are correctly identified as such) and 165 sensitivity (proportion of seronegatives that are correctly identified as such) of the test were 95% and 100%, 166 respectively. To measure anti-RHDV antibody levels, the INGEZIM kit for rabbits (INGENSASA Laboratories,

Madrid, Spain) was used. Sera were screened using dilutions of 1:200, 1:400, 1:800, and 1:1,600. Samples presenting optical densities > 0.3 were considered to be antibody positive, since such antibody concentrations should be adequate to confer protection against the disease (see Bertó-Moran et al. 2013). The test's specificity and sensitivity were 83.1% and 98.5%, respectively, and there was 93% correspondence with the reference technique. All analyses were carried out in the Laboratory of Ecophysiology at the Doñana Biological Station (CSIC, Seville, Spain).

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174 2.5 Body condition

175 To estimate rabbit body condition (BC), we calculated a scaled mass index (Peig and Green 2009). This index 176 standardises body mass based on a chosen metric of body length (tarsus length in our case) and is designed to 177 account for allometric changes in scaling that are observed in many species (Gibbs and Chiucchi 2012). BC was 178 used in combination with serostatus to assess rabbit health costs. To calculate BC, mass (in grams) and tarsus 179 length (TL, in mm) were log-transformed, and Model II Regression (lmodel2 package in R v. 3.3.2; Legendre, 180 2008) was used to calculate the slope (b_{SMA}) of the best-fit line using major axis regression. Mean value of TL 181 based on the entire dataset (mean TL females=71.7 mm; mean TL males=72.8 mm) was calculated (L₀). We 182 calculated separate scaled mass indices for female and male rabbits because, as mentioned above, rabbit age 183 was based on mass and patterns differed between the sexes. Furthermore, gravid females were excluded because 184 they were expected to be heavier relative to their length, which could have biased the calculations.

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186 2.6 Data analysis

We performed generalised linear models (GLMs, stats package in R v. 3.3.2). OS markers (GPX, GR, SOD, CAT,
and MDA) were the response variables whereas serostatus, age, sex, enclosure and, capture session were the
explanatory variables. Also the interactions of the serostatus with the other four variables were considered within
the models. We created a model for each marker that was considered independently to each other. Models here run
satisfied assumptions concerning normality of residuals and homoscedasticity. All variables were selected as
explanatory variables in the final model since no correlation among them was revealed in previous analyses.
Statistical analyses were performed using R software (v. 3.3.2; R Core Team, 2016).

196 **3. Results**

We obtained a total of 669 blood samples from 589 adult and 80 juvenile rabbits (264, 203, and 202 rabbits in
enclosures E1, E2, and E3, respectively). A total of 221 samples were seropositive for MV alone, 86 samples were
seropositive for RHDV alone, 133 samples were seropositive for both MV and RHDV (dual seropositivity), and
229 samples were seronegative.

200 22) samples were seronegative.

201 None of the AOX enzymes were significantly associated with MV or RHDV serostatus. Neither we detected 202 significant relationships between MDA concentrations and serostatus (see Table A in supplementary material). 203 Concentrations of OS markers were quite consistent over time. Overall, markers of AOX activity such as GPX and 204 GR were present in lower concentrations in individuals that were seropositive for MV alone, RHDV alone, and 205 both MV and RHDV. SOD and CAT, appeared generally in lower concentrations in individuals that were 206 seronegative (Fig. 1). Finally, MDA concentrations were higher in seropositive individuals (MV, RHDV, and 207 MV/RHDV) and lower in seronegative individuals (Fig. 1). Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics for the OS 208 marker concentrations for each enclosure and each serostatus group.

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210 4. Discussion

211 To our knowledge, this study is the first to look at the relationships between MV and RHDV seropositivity and OS 212 in wild European rabbit populations. We found no association between the concentrations of OS markers and 213 serostatus. One possible explanation is that OS may be relatively minor in wild rabbits potentially infected with 214 MV and/or RHDV because other environmental factors (e.g., climatic conditions, food availability, and parasite 215 infections) have a much greater impact on an animal's oxidative status (Gassó et al. 2016). Additionally, we 216 mentioned before the particular physiology of viruses. They manipulate hosts to successfully replicate within their 217 cells by subverting innate and adaptive immunity. Viruses produce a wide array of effectors and immune 218 modulators that alter cellular processes and in turn they can enhance their survival in the host (Kerr 2012). In this 219 regard, the lack of antioxidant responsiveness to immune viral challenge might be feasible in some way. High viral 220 loads would demand high ROS production that would exceed the AOX defences, and they might remain 221 undetected. Nonetheless, we have to point out that we are only looking at some aspects of antioxidant pathways. 222 Therefore, additional in vivo measures of ROS production are necessary to adequately quantitate the overall

223 oxidative stress status in the organism of study (Selman et al. 2012). This would draw a more accurate

224 interpretation that supports extra robust conclusions. The incorporation of extra markers of oxidative damage (i.e:

225 protein carbonyls (PC)) would provide also reliable information.

226 We would like to acknowledge some of the limitations of the current study. Assessments of OS levels can be 227 highly variable due to taxonomic differences, different environmental conditions, or the short-term nature of many 228 sampling efforts (e.g., because of logistical constraints). Despite Costantini (2008) described oxidative stress as a 229 cost of immune response, most studies are mainly focused on birds in captivity or in the wild. The number of 230 reports dealing with other wild vertebrate species is quite low (Schneeberger et al. 2013; Gassó et al. 2016), so 231 therefore they may provide mixed evidences and consequently uncertain answers that make difficult to draw 232 general conclusions (Costantini et al. 2009; Norte et al. 2009; van de Crommenacker et al. 2011; Raja-aho et al. 233 2012; Rubolini et al. 2012; Pap et al. 2014). In this regard, caution is called until further studies in wild rabbits are 234 available to support the question we have raised. We thus wish to emphasise the need for experimental studies, 235 which could elucidate mechanisms underlying OS and facilitate the interpretation of field-study results (Costantini 236 2008; Monaghan et al. 2009; van de Crommenacker 2010). That said, this study is important because it examines 237 the ability of OS to serve as a proxy for the body condition costs that wild rabbits pay when infected with these 238 viral diseases. It is crucial to conduct further research to disentangle the consequences of oxidative damage on the 239 health and biological fitness of wild European rabbits to ensure the viability of natural populations of this keystone 240 species.

241 In conclusion, although OS markers appeared to remain unaffected as we did not observe a significant increase or 242 decrease in the values of the markers in rabbits seropositive for MV and/or RHDV. This finding likely suggests 243 that, within wild populations, other factors may have a major impact on OS levels, potentially masking the 244 contribution of viral infections. At present, there is increasing interest in using OS markers to assess animal health 245 status in ecological studies of wild populations. However, to date, they have yielded mixed evidence, perhaps 246 because of methodological variation, taxonomic differences, variable environmental conditions, or short sampling 247 periods. Further research is needed to better understand the influence of pathogens on OS levels in wild animals 248 and to unravel the consequences for individual biological fitness and population viability.

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| 282 | List of abbreviations |
| 283 | ROS: reactive oxygen species |
| 284 | OS: oxidative stress |
| 285 | AOX: antioxidant |
| 286 | MV: myxoma virus |
| 287 | RHD: rabbit haemorrhagic disease |
| 288 | RHDV: rabbit haemorrhagic disease virus |
| 289 | GPX: glutathione peroxidase |
| 290 | GR: glutathione reductase |
| 291 | SOD: superoxide dismutase |
| 292 | CAT: catalase |
| 293 | MDA: malondialdehyde |
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Table 1. Concentrations of oxidative stress (OS) markers in wild European rabbits in three study enclosures (E1, E2, and E3). Results are grouped by rabbit serostatus

 (seronegative, seropositive for myxoma virus [Myxo+], seropositive for rabbit haemorrhagic disease virus [Rhd+], and seropositive for both viruses [Myxo+/Rhd+]). The

 values are the mean \pm SE.

| | | | E1 | | | | E2 | | | | E3 | |
|------------------------|--------------|----------|-----------|------------|--------------|----------|----------|------------|--------------|----------|----------|------------|
| Marker (conc units) | seronegative | Myxo+ | Rhd+ | Myxo+/Rhd+ | seronegative | Myxo+ | Rhd+ | Myxo+/Rhd+ | seronegative | Myxo+ | Rhd+ | Myxo+/Rhd+ |
| GPX (mU/mg prot) | 24.4±2.2 | 18.3±2.4 | 20.8±1.5 | 18.9±2.2 | 22.9±1.8 | 20.2±2.4 | 21.5±1.7 | 21.3±2.9 | 26.0±2.5 | 19.7±2.4 | 19.8±2.2 | 19.1±1.4 |
| GR (mU/mg prot) | 1.8±0.2 | 1.5±0.1 | 1.8±0.1 | 1.6±0.1 | 1.9±0.2 | 1.6±0.1 | 1.5±0.1 | 1.5±0.1 | 1.7±0.1 | 1.5±0.1 | 1.7±0.2 | 1.6±0.1 |
| SOD (U/mg prot) | 15.8±0.6 | 16.4±0.6 | 15.8±0.4 | 15.4±0.5 | 15.1±0.6 | 14.1±0.8 | 14.8±0.5 | 16.4±1.0 | 13.0±0.5 | 13.1±0.5 | 14.7±0.5 | 14.2±0.5 |
| CAT (U/mg prot) | 64.5±3.5 | 59.6±3.2 | 61.6±1.7 | 60.2±2.5 | 62.3±3.3 | 56.9±2.8 | 62.0±2.9 | 63.9±4.6 | 57.8±2.3 | 57.5±2.8 | 51.9±2.5 | 58.1±2.1 |
| MDA (nmol/ml) | 5.5±0.1 | 5.6±0.3 | 5.7±0.1 | 5.8±0.2 | 5.4±0.1 | 5.3±0.2 | 5.3±0.2 | 5.9±0.5 | 5.1±0.2 | 5.6±0.3 | 5.3±0.2 | 5.7±0.2 |

Figure captions

Fig. 1 Average concentrations of OS markers (mean \pm SE) across capture sessions based on rabbit serostatus categories: seronegative, seropositive for myxoma virus [Myxo+], seropositive for rabbit haemorrhagic disease virus [Rhd+], and seropositive for both viruses [Myxo+/Rhd+]. The marker abbreviations are as follows: glutathione peroxidase (GPX), glutathione reductase (GR), catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and malondialdehyde (MDA).







Capture sessions





Capture sessions

Supplementary material

Table A. Results of the different generalised models in which OS markers were the response variable (i.e. GPX, glutathione peroxidase; GR, glutathione reductase; SOD, superoxide dismutase; CAT, catalase; MDA, Malondialdehyde). Coefficient estimates (β), estimated standard errors (SE), for explanatory variables (i.e. BC (Body condition Index), serostatus, age, and, sex) are provided. Significance codes are listed below.

| | serostatus | age | BC | sex | enclosure | capture session | serostatus*age | serostatus*sex | serostatus*enclosure | serostatus*capture |
|---|-------------|------------|-----------------|------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| | β±SE | β±SE | β±SE | β±SE | β±SE | β±SE | β±SE | β±SE | β±SE | β±SE |
| Model 1 GPX-serostatus+age+BC+sex+enclosure+capture session+serostatus*age+ serostatus*sex+serostatus*enclosure+serostatus*capture | 9.70±17.28 | 0.36±2.95 | 0.001±0.003 | 3.17±2.25 | 0.22±0.26 | -0.08±0.72 | -10.30±17.21 | -7.33±3.75 | -0,32±0.37 | 0.36±1.15 |
| $\begin{tabular}{l} \label{eq:model} Model 2 \\ GR\-serostatus\+age\+BC\+sex\+enclosure\+capture\ session\+serostatus\+age\+\ serostatus\+$ | -0.45±1.22 | -0.07±0.20 | 0.0001±0.0002 | -0.27±0.16 | -0.01±0.02 | 0.09±0.05 | 0.46±1.21 | 0.20±0.26 | 0.01±0.02 | -0.13±0.08 |
| $\begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$ | -0.05±4.99 | -0.73±0.85 | 0.0005±0.0009 | -0.20±0.65 | -0.25±0.07** | 0,03±0.07 | 0.32±4.97 | 0.26±1.08 | 0.12±0.10 | -0.14±0.33 |
| $\begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$ | -9.64±26.94 | -4.33±4.60 | -0.0009±0.0048 | -0.90±3.51 | -0.67±0.41 | 0.97±1.12 | 7.04±26.82 | 0.25±5.86 | 0.43±0.57 | -0.06±1.79 |
| $\begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$ | 0.90±1.44 | 0.06±0.25 | 0.00008±0.00026 | 0.12±0.18 | -0.03±0.02 | -0.09±0.06 | -1.29±1.43 | 0.27±0.31 | 0.03±0.03 | 0.16±0.09 |

447

(Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1)

