

JAFTHA, JULIAN BERNARD

**MOLECULAR GENETIC ANALYSIS OF SOME ENZOOTIC
RABIES VIRUSES OF SOUTHERN AFRICA**

MSc

UP

1997

Molecular genetic analysis of some enzootic rabies viruses of southern Africa

by

Julian Bernard Jaftha

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE M.Sc (Microbiology) IN THE FACULTY OF AGRICULTURAL AND
BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE
DEPARTMENT OF MICROBIOLOGY AND PLANT PATHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
PRETORIA

SUPERVISOR: PROF L.H. NEL

MARCH 1997

I certify that the thesis hereby submitted to the University of Pretoria for the degree of M.Sc (Microbiology) has not previously been submitted by me in respect of a degree at any other University.

Signature:  _____

Date: 11 JUNE 1997

Dedicated to my loving parents

Psalm 8: 3-5
When I consider your heavens,
the work of your fingers,
the moon and the stars,
which you have set in place
what is man
that you are mindful of him,
the son of man
that you care for him?
You made him a little lower
than the heavenly beings
and crowned him
with glory and honour.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to the following people for their contribution towards the successful completion of this thesis:

Prof L.H. Nel for his supervision and guidance during the course of this study.

Dr G.R. Thompson, Dr C.D. Meredith and Beate von Teichman of the Rabies Unit - Onderstepoort Veterinary Institute.

Fourie Joubert, Department of Biochemistry, for his constant assistance with the computer analysis of sequence data.

Mrs Ingrid Booysen, Department Geography, for providing the south African map.

Marco McKenzie for supplying the necessary word processing programs and keeping my personal computer operational.

Alan Hall, Department of Microbiology and Plant Pathology, for his expert developing and printing of the photographs presented in this study.

Friends and colleagues of the Department of Microbiology and Genetics for being interested in the progress of my work and for their loyal support.

To my parents, who has presented me this opportunity to further my studies despite difficult circumstances. Whatever success I have achieved or ever hope to achieve is due to your unfailing support.

To my Creator, who made all things and through whom everything is possible.

SUMMARY

MOLECULAR GENETIC ANALYSIS OF SOME ENZOOTIC RABIES VIRUSES OF SOUTHERN AFRICA

by

JULIAN BERNARD JAFTHA

Supervisor: Prof. L.H. Nel

Department of Microbiology and Plant Pathology

University of Pretoria

for the degree M.Sc

Rabies viruses are known to be able to infect a broad range of warm-blooded animals. In South Africa the disease is maintained in different animal species including dogs, jackals, bat-eared foxes and a variety of members of the viverridae family. These include the different mongoose species (principally the yellow mongoose), genets, suricates and a variety of small carnivores. The antigenic variation within the nucleoprotein gene has previously been investigated in efforts to characterise various isolates of rabies viruses in southern Africa. It was noted that two antigenically distinct groups are cocirculating in the country. In this study,

the investigation into the epidemiology of rabies in South Africa was extended by molecular genetic analysis of a large number of isolates from wildlife and domestic animal hosts.

Geographically and temporally distinct rabies viruses were previously studied by comparative nucleotide sequence analysis of DNA fragments encompassing the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein and the G-L intergenic region. Based on this analysis two main rabies virus groups were identified. Members of the first group infect canid host species and are closely related to the European rabies strains, while the viruses belonging to the second group circulate within different viverrid species. Although isolates of mainly mongoose origin were initially analysed, considerable heterogeneity within this group was evident. The current study was consequently undertaken to include rabies virus isolates from other viverrid host species. Following the same approach as the previous investigators (Nel *et al.*, 1993 & von Teichman *et al.*, 1995) four genetically distinct clusters were indicated within the viverrid lineage. These clusters corresponded closely to the geographic origin of the virus isolates independent of specific viverrid host. The results suggest genetic divergence and independent evolution of the viverrid viruses within geographically isolated regions. Spillover or cross-infection, where a viverrid virus is recovered from a canid host and *vice versa*, could not be attributed to a new rabies virus and were most likely initiated by interspecies transmission events. These results suggest little modification of the virus following infection of an atypical host.

A phylogeny of the rabies virus variants in southern Africa was established based on sequence variation within the abovementioned genome regions. Although such an approach is most informative when compared to other methods, it is time-consuming and laborious. The use of strain-specific oligonucleotides was therefore investigated for rapid strain differentiation. Two oligonucleotides were designed based on the nucleotide sequences of the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein and the G-L intergenic region. These oligonucleotides together with a common downstream primer were used to amplify DNA fragments of characteristic size, allowing for discrimination between the two rabies biotypes.

OPSOMMING

MOLEKULÊRE EN GENETIESE ANALISE VAN SOMMIGE ENZOÛTIESE HONSDOLHEIDSVIRUSSE VAN SUIDER AFRIKA

deur

JULIAN BERNARD JAFTHA

Promotor: Prof L H Nel

Departement Mikrobiologie en Plantpatologie

Universiteit van Pretoria

vir die graad M.Sc

Dit is bekend dat die hondsdolheidsvirus verskeie warmbloedige diere kan infekteer. In suider Afrika word die siekte onderhou in gasheer spesies soos honde, jakkalse, bakoorsosse en lede van die *Viverridae* familie. Dit sluit verskeie meerkat spesies (hoofsaaklik die witkwasmuishond), kleinkolmuskejaatkat, stokstertmeerkat en 'n verskeidenheid klein karnivoorspesies in. Die antigeniese variasie binne die nukleoproteïen geen is voorheen aangewend in 'n poging om hondsdolheidsvirus-isolate in suidelike Afrika te karakteriseer. Uit hierdie ondersoek het dit geblyk dat daar twee antigenies-onderskeibare virusgroepe in die land sirkuleer. In hierdie studie word die ondersoek na die epidemiologie van hondsdolheid in

Suid-Afrika uitgebrei deur middel van genetiese analise van 'n groot aantal isolate afkomstig vanaf wilde- sowel as huishoudelike diere.

Die genetiese variasie van geografies- en temporaal-verwyderde isolate is vantevore deur middel van vergelykende nukleotiedvolgorde-analise ondersoek. Hierdie vergelykings het die nuleïensuurvolgordes van die sitoplasmiese gebied van die glikoproteïen en die G-L intergeniese gebied ingesluit. Hierdie analise het twee hoofgroepe hondsdolheidsvirusse aangedui. Lede van die eerste groep infekteer canid gasheer spesies en is nou verwant aan die Europese hondsdolheidsvirusse, terwyl die tweede groep binne verskillende viverrid spesies sirkuleer. Alhoewel daar aanvanklik virus isolate vanuit hoofsaaklik die witkwasmuishond ondersoek is, was daar heelwat heterogenisiteit binne die viverrid virusse gevind. Gevolglik is hierdie studie onderneem om hondsdolheidsvirusse vanaf ander viverrid gashere in te sluit. Deur gebruik te maak van dieselfde benadering as vorige navorsers (Nel *et al.*, 1993; von Teichman *et al.*, 1995) is vier geneties onderskeibare groepe binne die viverrid stamboom aangetoon. Hierdie groepe het nou ooreengestem met die geografiese oorsprong van die virus isolate, onafhanklik van 'n spesifieke gasheer. Hierdie resultate dui daarop dat onafhanklike ewolusie van die viverrid virusse binne geïsoleerde lokaliteite plaasvind. Kruis-infeksie, waar viverrid virusse canid gashere en omgekeerd infekteer, kon nie toegeskryf word aan 'n nuwe hondsdolheidsvirus nie. Hierdie verskynsel word vermoedelik deur interspesie oordraag gebeurde geïnisieer.

'n Filogenetiese verwantskap van hondsdolheidsvirusse in suider Afrika is bepaal op grond van van die nukleotiedvolgorde variasie in bogenoemde genomiese gebiede. In vergelyke met ander metodes, is hierdie benadering baie informatief, maar dit kan tydrowend en moeisam wees. Die gebruik van ras-spesifieke voorvoeders is daarom ondersoek as 'n alternatiewe metode vir differensiasie. Twee voorvoeders is ontwerp gebaseer op die volgordes van die sitoplasmiese gebied van die glikoproteïen en die G-L intergeniese gebied. Deur hierdie voorvoeders tesame met 'n gemeenskaplike stroom-af voorvoerder te gebruik word DNA fragmente van karakteristieke groottes geamplifiseer. Hierdie benadering voorsien dus 'n makliker manier vir onderskeiding tussen die twee virus groepe.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

a	atilax
ATP	adenosine triphosphate
b	bat-eared fox
bp	base pair
°C	degrees Celsius
ca	approximately
can	canid
cDNA	complementary DNA
ClustalW	cluster analysis Version W
da	Dalton
dATP	2'-deoxyadenosine-5'-triphosphate
dCTP	2'-deoxycytidine-5'-triphosphate
ddNTP	dideoxy nucleotide triphosphate
dGTP	2' -deoxyguanosine-5' -triphosphate
DEPC	diethylpyrocarbonate
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
dNTP	deoxyribonucleoside-5'triphosphate
DTT	dithiothreitol
gal	galerella
ge	genet
gs	ground squirrel
hb	honey badger
IPTG	isopropyl β-D-thiogalactosidase
j	jackal
kb	kilobase pairs
LB-medium	Luria-Bertani medium
M	Molar
m	mongoose
mA	milliampere
mCi	millicurie

mg	milligram
ml	millilitre
mM	millimolar
Mr	molecular weight
NP-40	nonidet P40
ns	non-structural
PAGE	polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PEG	polyethylene glycol
PV	Pasteur virus
RNA	ribonucleic acid
RNP	ribonucleoprotein
rpm	revolutions per minute
s	suricate
SDS	sodium dodecyl sulphate
ss	single-stranded
TEMED	N',N,'N,'N'-tetramethylethylenediamine
U	units
μCi	microcurie
μg	microgram
μl	microlitre
UV	ultraviolet
V	volts
VSV	vesicular stomatitis virus
viv	viverrid
W	watt
X-gal	5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl β-D-galactopyranoside

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE NUMBER		PAGE
Figure 1.1	Schematic representation of the rabies virus particle (Wunner <i>et al.</i> , 1988)	8
Figure 1.2	Schematic representation of the rhabdovirus genome (Frankael-Conrat <i>et al.</i> , 1988)	11
Figure 1.3	Projected pathway of the spread of dog rabies in South Africa (Coetzer <i>et al.</i> , 1994)	20
Figure 1.4	A comparison of the incidence of rabies in dogs in Kwazulu/Natal	21
Figure 2.1	Geographic locations of the viverrid rabies isolates	34
Figure 2.2	The orientation and position of oligonucleotides used for amplification	35
Figure 2.3	Agarose electrophoresis of restricted recombinant plasmids	45
Figure 2.4	Alignment of the nucleotide sequences of the G-L intergenic region and the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein.	51
Figure 2.5	Unrooted phylogenetic tree based on the G-L sequence data.	52
Figure 2.6	Phylogenetic tree of canid rabies viruses in typical canid and spillover hosts species	53
Figure 2.7	Alignment of isolate z22574 with typical South African rabies viruses.	55
Figure 2.8	A phylogenetic tree using KITSCH expressing the relationship of z22574 to South African rabies isolates.	58

Figure 3.1(A) Consensus sequences of the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein of canid and viverrid viruses.	65
Figure 3.1(B) Consensus sequences of the intergenic region of canid and viverrid viruses	65
Figure 3.2 Alignment of the consensus sequences for the cytoplasmic domain and the intergenic region for both biotypes respectively.	69
Figure 3.3 Schematic representation of the type-specific assay.	71
Figure 3.4(A) First round amplification products using the G/L primer set.	72
Figure 3.4 (B) Type-specific reaction using the P _{viv} (+) and the L(-)primers.	73
Figure 3.4(C) Type-specific assay using the P _{can} (+) and the L(-) primers.	74

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE NUMBER		PAGE
Table 1.1	An abridged classification of rhabdoviruses (Coetzer <i>et al.</i> , 1994)	10
Table 2.1	Rabies virus isolates used and compared in this study	38
Table 2.2	Oligonucleotide sequences used for amplification and sequence analysis.	36
Table 3.1	A summary of the results obtained with type-specific oligonucleotides	66

CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
SUMMARY	ii
OPSOMMING	iv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
LIST OF TABLES	x
CHAPTER ONE	
LITERATURE REVIEW	
1.1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION	2
1.2 HETEROGENEOUS NATURE OF RNA GENOMES: QUASISPECIES	
CONCEPT	4
1.3 RABIES: A SHORT HISTORY.	6
1.4 THE MOLECULAR BIOLOGY OF RABIES VIRUSES.	7
1.4.1. Classification.	7
1.4.2. Structure of the Rabies Virus	7
1.4.3 Rabies virus genome and organisation	9
1.4.3.1. Intergenic regions	9
1.4.3.2 Viral Proteins	10
(a). The Nucleoprotein	10
(b). The Phosphoprotein	12
(c). Matrix Protein	12
(d). The Glycoprotein	13
(e). The RNA polymerase (L) protein	14
1.4.4. Transcription and Replication of Rhabdoviruses	15
1.5. EPIDEMIOLOGY OF RABIES	16
1.5.1. Global distribution of the disease	16
1.5.2. Rabies in South Africa	17
1.6 RECENT ADVANCES IN THE MOLECULAR EPIDEMIOLOGY OF RABIES	19
1.7 FUNDAMENTALS OF MOLECULAR PHYLOGENY	23
1.7.1 Nucleotide substitution in DNA sequences	23
1.7.2 Alignment of sequences	24
1.7.3 Tree-making methods	24

1.7.3.1	Unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) and the Transformed Distance (TD) method	25
1.7.3.2	Neighbors relations methods	25
1.7.3.3	Maximum Parsimony methods	25
1.7.3.4	Maximum likelihood methods	26
1.7.4	Efficiencies of tree-making methods	26
1.8	AIMS OF THIS STUDY	28
CHAPTER TWO		30
CHARACTERISATION OF VIVERRID RABIES ISOLATES BY NUCLEOTIDE SEQUENCE ANALYSIS OF THE G/L INTERGENIC REGION AND THE CYTOPLASMIC DOMAIN OF THE GLYCOPROTEIN		30
2.1	INTRODUCTION	31
2.2	MATERIALS AND METHODS	33
2.2.1	Rabies virus isolates	33
2.2.2	Preparation of RNA.	33
2.2.3	Primer selection.	34
2.2.4	cDNA synthesis	37
2.2.5	Polymerase Chain Reaction	37
2.2.6	Purification of PCR products.	40
2.2.7	Cloning of PCR Products	40
2.2.7.1	Modification of the termini of PCR products and ligation.	40
2.2.7.2	Transformation of competent cells and plasmid DNA extractions	41
2.2.7.3	Restriction endonuclease analysis of recombinant plasmids	42
2.2.8	Nucleotide Sequencing	42
2.2.9	Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis.	43
2.2.10	Computer analysis of the G-L intergenic nucleotide sequences	43
2.3	RESULTS	44
2.3.1	Virus isolates RNA preparation, cDNA synthesis, amplification and cloning	44
2.3.2	Nucleotide sequence determination.	46
2.3.3	Phylogenetic analysis.	46
2.3.3.1	Analysis of viverrid viruses	46

	xiii
2.3.3.2 Analysis of canid viruses	48
2.3.3.3 Sequence analysis of z22574	54
2.4 DISCUSSION.	58
CHAPTER THREE	61
A NUCLEOTIDE-SPECIFIC POLYMERASE CHAIN REACTION ASSAY TO DIFFERENTIATE RABIES VIRUS ISOLATES	61
3.1 INTRODUCTION	62
3.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS	64
3.2.1 Rabies virus isolates	64
3.2.2 cDNA synthesis and Reverse transcription PCR	64
3.2.3 Design of biotype-specific oligonucleotides.	64
3.2.4 Rabies virus typing by a nested PCR using type-specific primers.	67
3.2.5 Direct sequencing of type-specific amplification products	67
3.3 RESULTS	68
3.3.1 Design of biotype-specific primers	68
3.3.2 RNA extraction, first round reverse transcription PCR and subsequent type-specific analysis.	70
3.4 DISCUSSION	75
CHAPTER FOUR	78
CONCLUDING REMARKS	78
REFERENCES	82
COMMUNICATIONS	95

CHAPTER ONE

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The idea that “there is nothing new under the sun” certainly does not pertain to infectious agents and diseases. This is particularly well illustrated with emergence of the human immunodeficiency virus and other potentially lethal organisms which has heightened concern about human vulnerability to new and emerging diseases. There is no reason to believe that catastrophic events such as the great plague or another influenza epidemic will not happen again and society should guard against becoming complacent about infectious diseases.

Microbiologists and infectious disease scientists such as Louis Pasteur have contributed immensely to human welfare. Their work can account for promoting a better quality of life and for more lives being saved than most people realise. Their involvement in major microbiological breakthroughs such as the characterisation of infectious agents and the subsequent vaccine developments contributed directly to human health or indirectly, for example through advances in animal health (VanDemark *et al.*, 1987; Murphy, 1994; Fraenkel-Conrat *et al.*, 1988).

Notwithstanding these bold strides in the development of our understanding of disease causing agents, it would appear that the microbiological and infectious disease sciences are facing a major problem in their immediate future. Most of the so-called emerging or new organisms are zoonotic in natural animal hosts and have existed relatively harmless in remote areas. The increased mobility of people or their agricultural practices is increasingly providing opportunity for these agents to gain access into human populations. Although this cross species infection may take place in the absence of genetic change, it is true that mutations might affect the capacity of pathogens to infect and spread (Culliton, 1990; Murphy, 1994; Satcher, 1995). The most recent case in point is the deadly Ebola virus believed to be transmitted from monkeys to humans (Feldmann *et al.*, 1996; Murphy, 1994). Two cases of this deadly disease were confirmed in South Africa in 1996 leading to the death of one health worker (WHO, 1996).

The identification of emerging diseases and tailoring of appropriate control strategies depend on the recognition of the different causative agents. The availability of nucleic acid amplification techniques have proven particularly useful in this regard. Based on these molecular approaches innumerable disease-causing organisms have been characterised with regards to their infectivity range, virulence, host interaction, evolutionary relationships to each other, etc.

Although there are many similarities between our vulnerability to infectious diseases and that of our ancestors, there is one distinct difference: we have the advantage of greater scientific knowledge (Satcher, 1995). In this study the epidemiology of the dreaded rabies disease with respect to its occurrence in South and southern Africa is investigated. The virus has a RNA genome, and typically of all RNA viruses, is of a highly variable nature, allowing for extreme adaptation to occur. Information presented here contributes to our current knowledge of the molecular epidemiology of the disease which is important for the establishment of more accurate research and prevention programmes.

1.2 HETEROGENEOUS NATURE OF RNA GENOMES: QUASISPECIES CONCEPT.

All known cellular organisms use DNA genomes for storage of genetic material (Steinhauer and Holland, 1987), while autonomous RNA genomes are found only in viruses, the most ubiquitous cellular parasites known (Holland *et al.*, 1982). They are found intracellular in nearly all life forms from plants and animals to fungi and prokaryotes. They are diverse in size, structure, genome organisation, replication strategy and have been classified based on these and other criteria. The RNA viruses have been the object of extensive study because they are responsible for a variety of medically and economically important diseases of man, plants and animals (Steinhauer and Holland, 1987).

Early and more recent observations suggest that RNA genome populations consist of a complex distribution of variants. Evidence to this effect includes the presence of mutants in preparations of virus, revertants in mutant stocks, frequent occurrence of antigenic variants and genetic variation seen among natural isolates of one virus. This heterogeneous nature appears to be the result of high mutability of RNA genomes (Domingo *et al.*, 1985). Not having RNA proof-reading exonucleases, RNA viruses show extremely high mutation frequency ranging between 10^{-3} - 10^{-4} . To date there is no evidence for 3'-5' -exonuclease activity occurring during synthesis of RNA molecules, although the possibility that these functions exist on accessory protein molecules is not ruled out (Holland *et al.*, 1992). On the contrary, the presence of these proofreading exonuclease in DNA replication considerably lowers the error rate to 10^{-8} to 10^{-11} per incorporated nucleotide per replication cycle.

DNA chromosomes of eukaryotic host organisms generally require geological time spans to evolve to the degree that RNA viruses can achieve in a single human generation (Holland *et al.*, 1982). With mutation frequencies usually exceeding 10^{-5} at most sites in RNA viruses it is inevitable that even clones of such viruses will consist of a complex

mixture of different but related genomes, all of which must compete during replication of the clone and its progeny. Eigen, Schuster and their colleagues introduced the term “quasispecies” to refer to the diverse, rapidly evolving and competing RNA populations (Holland *et al.*, 1992).

There are numerous documentations of the quasispecies distribution of genomes in present-day RNA virus populations. The first observations were made when Domingo *et al.*, (1985) indicated that passaging of plaque-purified Q β virus stocks generated many variants with an average of 1-2 mutations per infectious genome. Similar observations were made in populations of measles virus, foot-and-mouth disease virus, poliovirus and influenza virus (Steinhauer and Holland, 1987). Studies on the evolution of sequences of VSV mutants by O’Hara *et al.*, 1984 revealed a stepwise accumulation of mutations at the 5’ and to a lesser degree at the 3’ terminus of the viral genome. Steinhauer *et al.*, (1989a) employed direct sequence analysis of predetermined sites in the coding region of the N, M and L proteins and at the 5’ regulatory region. Misincorporation frequencies were estimated to be on the order of 10^{-3} to 10^{-4} at all positions analysed. All results support the “quasispecies” concept for RNA genomes as proposed by Eigen and colleagues (Holland *et al.*, 1992). The composition of these quasispecies populations is determined by competitive fitness under prevailing conditions allowing RNA viruses to maintain themselves stably in a given ecological niche, while retaining their ability to adapt quickly in order to exploit new environmental niches (Steinhauer *et al.*, 1989b).

The consequences of RNA virus quasispecies are rather obvious: (i) Antigenic diversity and failure of classical, engineered or synthetic vaccines through selection of variant genomes, (ii) reversion of attenuated viruses to a virulent form, (iii) mediation or establishment of persistence and changes in host cell specificity and (iv) difficulties in exploring fully the pathogenesis of infection (Domingo *et al.*, 1985). The composition of quasispecies and their exact roles in disease pathogenesis are indeterminate, the directions of evolution, and the nature and timing of “new” virus outbreaks are unpredictable (Holland *et al.*, 1992).

1.3 RABIES: A SHORT HISTORY.

Rabies (Sanskrit *rhabhar* = to do violence) is one of the oldest diseases known to mankind as illustrated in the drawings of mad dogs left by ancient Egyptians, Greeks and Romans (Macdonald, 1980; Baer, 1990; Henning, 1949). Aristotle, who was probably the first to describe the symptoms, believed that all animals bitten by mad dogs would become rabid. Various contradictory theories were formulated regarding the cause and origin of rabies including spontaneous generation, changing and irregular weather conditions, lack of drinking water and violent nervous excitement. Fracastorius in 1584 disputed the spontaneous origin of rabies suggesting that the disease was transmitted by infected semen (Henning, 1949). In 1804 Zinke demonstrated the infectivity of the saliva of rabid dogs. Hertwig in 1829 similarly showed the infectivity of extracts of the parotid gland, while Galtier in 1879 carried out several transmission experiments in rabbits (Henning, 1949), and thereby paving the way for the historic contributions of Louis Pasteur and his associates.

In 1881 Louis Pasteur established the association of the causative agent of rabies with nerve tissue, and soon after introduced his post-infectious method of vaccination against rabies by means of dried infected spinal cord. In 1885 the technique was successfully applied on a nine-year-old boy and within a short period found widespread application (Swanepoel, 1994; Henning, 1949). The true nature of the rabies infectious agent remained unknown until Remlinger in 1903 demonstrated the filterability of the causal agent (Henning, 1949), thus conforming to the newly defined group of agents known as viruses. During this same period Negri described the cytoplasmic inclusions in infected nerve cells (Swanepoel, 1994).

Rabies among wolves in France during 1271 was the first known epizootic of the disease reported in literature; from this date onwards outbreaks were reported from time to time. In northern America, the disease was first recorded in the state of Virginia in 1753, then in North Carolina in 1762 and in Boston in 1785 (Henning, 1949).

Early literature reflects the growing opinion that the disease could be controlled by restriction, muzzling or quarantine of dogs as well as the destruction of strays (Swanepoel, 1994). In the last 100 years six events stand out in human rabies control (Baer, 1990):

1. The application of a human rabies vaccine (1885).
2. The use of Negri bodies in diagnosis.
3. The mass application of potent rabies vaccines for dogs (1940s).
4. The addition of rabies hyperimmune antiserum to the human vaccination regime (1954).
5. The adaptation of rabies virus to cell culture (1958).
6. The development of fluorescent antibody test for diagnosing infected animal brains in 1959.

1.4 THE MOLECULAR BIOLOGY OF RABIES VIRUSES.

1.4.1. Classification.

The family rhabdoviridae consists of viruses found in plants, reptiles, fish, crustaceans and mammals. These viruses are primarily identified by their rod-shaped (Greek *rhabdo*= rod shaped) appearance. A condensed classification of the viruses associated with vertebrates and haematophagous arthropods is shown in Table 1.1 (Coetzer *et al.*, 1994). The rhabdoviridae includes the genera Lyssavirus and Vesiculovirus genus. Vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) is the major virus in the Vesiculovirus genus and causes a self-limiting vesicular disease in cattle (Frankel-Conrat *et al.*, 1988; Bourhy *et al.*, 1993 & Baer *et al.*, 1990). Rabies, the prototype virus in the Lyssavirus genus, can cause encephalitis in a variety of domestic and wild animals, as well as in man (Baer *et al.*, 1990). The Lyssavirus genus is subdivided into four serotypes on the basis of seroneutralization and monoclonal antibody studies: classical rabies virus (serotype 1), Lagos bat virus (serotype 2), Mokola (serotype 3) and Duvenhage virus (serotype 4). European Lyssaviruses, initially proposed to constitute serotype 5, were subdivided into biotypes 1 and 2 (Bourhy *et al.*, 1993).

1.4.2. Structure of the Rabies Virus.

The elongated, usually bullet-shaped, structure of the rabies virus measures ~180 nm in length and 75 nm in diameter. As illustrated in figure 1 (Wunner *et al.*, 1988), the particle is hemispherical at one end and usually planar at the other end. The nucleocapsid, 160 x 50 nm, is surrounded by a lipid-rich envelope, derived from host cell membranes. The external surface of the envelope is studded with 10 nm-long peplomers, each composed of three molecules viral glycoproteins, giving the particle a spiked appearance. The envelope is closely associated with the matrix protein which binds to the nucleocapsid protein of the viral core. The ribonucleoprotein core of the nucleocapsid consists of the single stranded RNA molecule (negative-sense polarity) associated with closely spaced molecules of the nucleoprotein. This complex forms a tightly wound helix of 30-35 coils giving the viruses their characteristic shape. Minor proteins such as the phosphorylated, non-structural (NS) protein and a large (L) protein, which constitutes the viral transcriptase, are also associated with the ribonucleoprotein complex (Frankel-Conrat *et al.*, 1988; Wunner *et al.*, 1988; Swanepoel, 1994).

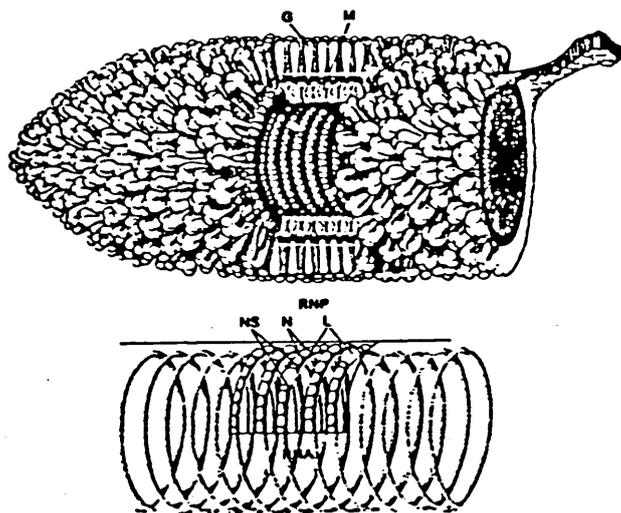


Figure 1.1 Schematic representation of the rabies virus particle. The surface glycoprotein (G) and the matrix protein, lining the viral envelope are indicated (top). The helical nucleocapsid core (bottom) comprises the ribonucleoprotein (RNP), phosphoprotein (NS), and virion transcriptase molecules (L).

1.4.3 Rabies virus genome and organisation.

The rabies virus genome (Figure 1.2, Frankael-Conrat *et al.*, 1988) has an estimated molecular weight of 4.6×10^6 Da suggesting that the RNA length is equivalent to $\sim 12,000$ nucleotides. From the 3' to the 5' end the genome encodes a short leader RNA of about 50 nucleotides, followed by the genes for the nucleoprotein (N), phosphoprotein (M1), matrix protein (M2), glycoprotein (G) and the polymerase (L) (Tordo *et al.*, 1993; Tordo *et al.*, 1986a & Frankel-Conrat *et al.*, 1988). The genome organization corresponds to that found in VSV and other rhabdoviruses describes thusfar (Wunner *et al.*, 1988). The coding region of each gene is flanked by non-coding sequences. These non-coding regions are bordered by stop and start transcription signals consisting of nine nucleotide consensus sequences which indicates where initiation and termination of the mRNAs should occur. These transcriptional signals generally indicate the limits of each gene. The M2 and G genes of several vaccines strains have two consecutive stop signals used alternatively to produce either short or long mRNAs (Tordo *et al.*, 1993). Considering the size of the M2 protein mRNA, Tordo *et al.* (1986a) concluded that the second stop signal is more likely used during transcription.

1.4.3.1. Intergenic regions

The genes are separated from each other by non-transcribed intergenic regions. The intergenic regions of VSV are two nucleotides (GA) long. Rabies intergenic regions are more variable both in nucleotide composition and length. The N-M1 intergenic region is identical to that of VSV, while the M1-M2, M2-G and G-L intergenic regions are 5, 5, and 423 nucleotides long respectively, all starting with a guanosine residue (Tordo *et al.*, 1986a & Tordo *et al.*, 1986b). Two striking features were observed by Tordo *et al.*, (1986a) at either ends of the G-L intergenic region. The first, located 10 nucleotides downstream from the stop signal for the GmRNA, resembles the rabies consensus mRNA start signal and the second is a poly(A) run 25 nucleotides upstream from the L gene that corresponds to the polyadenylation signal found at the end of each mRNA. The coding potential of this region is limited to a peptide no longer than 18 amino acids, thereby disqualifying any structural importance of this region. Based on these observations they

concluded that the G-L intergenic region represents a remnant protein gene. Kurath and Leong (1985) described the presence of a sixth gene between the G and L cistrons of a fish rhabdovirus, which encodes a small non-virion (NV) protein of unknown function. This strongly supported the hypothesis that this intergenic region represents a remnant gene from an intermediate stage in rhabdovirus evolution. Ravkov *et al.*, (1995) carried out a detailed analysis of the intergenic region by comparative nucleotide sequence analysis of several laboratory strains and a large number of viruses from naturally infected animals. Their analysis failed to reveal any remnant coding frame, thus providing no evidence of a pseudogene. They concluded that this region represents the long GmRNA 3' noncoding region, a feature found in other negative strand RNA viruses.

Table 1.1 An abridged classification of rhabdoviruses of vertebrates and haematophagous arthropods.

RHABDOVIRIDAE	ORIGINALLY ISOLATED FROM	COUNTRY	YEAR
<i>Lyssavirus</i>			
Rabies serogroup			
Rabies	Cow	France	1882
Lagos bat	Bat	Nigeria	1956
Mokola	Shrew	Nigeria	1968
Duvenhage	Human	South Africa	1970
Kolongo	Bird	Central African Republic	1970
Sandjimba	Bird	Central African Republic	1970
Nasoule	Bird	Central African Republic	1970
Kotonkan	Ceratopogonid midges	Nigeria	1967
Obodhiang	Mosquitoes	Sudan	1963
Rochambeau	Mosquitoes	French Guiana	1973
Charleville	Phlebotomine flies	Australia	1969
Bovine ephemeral fever (BEF) serogroup			
Bovine ephemeral fever	Cow	South Africa	1967
Adelaide River	Cow	Australia	1981
Kimberley	Cow	Australia	1980
Berrimah	Cow	Australia	1981
Coastal Plains	Cow	Australia	1981
Humpty Doo	Phlebotomine flies	Australia	1975
Tibrogargan	Ceratopogonid midges	Australia	1976
Ngaingan	Ceratopogonid midges	Australia	1970
Bivens Arm	Ceratopogonid midges	USA	1982
Sweetwater Branch	Ceratopogonid midges	USA	1982
Oak-Vale	Mosquitoes	USA	1981
Malakal	Mosquitoes	Sudan	1963
Muchong	Mosquitoes	Malaysia	1965
Parry Creek	Mosquitoes	Australia	1977
<i>Vesiculovirus</i> (24 viruses)			
Unassigned (7 serogroups, 23 viruses)			
Unassigned to serogroups (20 viruses)			

1.4.3.2 Viral Proteins

(a). The Nucleoprotein.

The 5' start of the mRNA for the N protein was located around position 59 on the genome, the nucleoprotein reading frame therefore extends between the ATG codon in position 71 and the TAA codon in position 1421 encoding a 450-amino acid protein with a $M_r = 50,500$ (Tordo *et al.*, 1986a). The nucleoprotein of rabies as well as several



Figure 1.2 Schematic representation of the rhabdovirus genome, its non-transcribed leader, and the five consecutively transcribed mRNAs (black blocks). The nucleotide length are given below each gene.

related viruses, excluding VSV, is phosphorylated. The phosphorylation site is located near the carboxy terminus of the nucleoprotein (Wunner *et al.*, 1988). Nucleoprotein amino acid sequences alignment of different lyssaviruses showed an overall amino acid similarity of 77%. The putative phosphorylation site, serine at position 389, remained conserved in all the isolates. The amino and the carboxy termini of the protein are more variable than the central part (Bourhy *et al.*, 1993). Lafon and Wiktor (1985) defined three antigenic sites on the nucleoprotein gene based on the results of competitive enzyme immunoassays. These antigenic determinants were found to be highly conserved in fixed laboratory strains. Nucleocapsid-specific monoclonal antibodies have been used

as a epidemiological marker in several investigations to study strain prevalence and distribution thereby contributing to our knowledge of the epidemiology of rabies (Smith *et al.*, 1986 & Dietzschold *et al.*, 1988).

(b). The Phosphoprotein.

A 297-amino acid protein designated NS (also referred to as M1) is encoded from position 1514 to 2405 on the virus genome. This protein is the most hydrophilic protein of the rabies virus and hydrophilic residues are particularly dominant in the first two thirds of the amino terminus between amino acids 139 and 170. This region also contain 13 of the 40 putative serine and threonine phosphorylation sites corresponding to similar sites found in the NS protein of VSV (Tordo *et al.*, 1986a). The nucleocapsid-associated phosphoprotein, NS protein, the L-protein and ribonucleoprotein form an active complex which is responsible for viral transcription and replication (Wunner *et al.*, 1988). Functional sites on the NS protein for the recognition of the L protein were mapped to the amino terminal half by Emerson *et al.* (1987). Deletion experiments by Fu *et al.* (1994) indicated that both N- and the C-terminal domains of the rabies NS protein are involved in binding to the nucleoprotein. Due to the acidic nature of the N-terminal domain, the nascent NS protein can interact with the N-protein, preventing it from aggregating. In this way the N-protein is kept in a functional state which is able to encapsidate newly synthesized RNA (Fu *et al.*, 1994).

(c). The Matrix Protein.

The sequence encoding the 202 amino-acid matrix or M2 protein extends from position 2496 to 3101. The central segment of 19 amino acids consists of hydrophobic residues and it is highly probable that this segment is membrane bound. The matrix protein, located on the inner side of the lipid envelope, could therefore interact with the lipid bilayer and the ribonucleoprotein core (Tordo *et al.*, 1986a). No obvious sequence similarity with the matrix protein of VSV could be detected although these proteins seem to share functional homology. Amongst rabies viruses variation in the M protein amino

acid sequence is tolerated to a greater degree than in other proteins as long as the charge characteristics of the protein is not altered (Wunner *et al.*, 1988).

(d). The Glycoprotein.

The glycoprotein is by far the most comprehensively analysed part of the rabies virus genome (Tordo *et al.*, 1986a; Tordo *et al.*, 1993; Wunner *et al.*, 1988; Prehaud *et al.*, 1988; Fodor *et al.*, 1994; van der Heijden *et al.*, 1993; Seif *et al.*, 1985 & Anilionis *et al.*, 1981). There are four distinct domains within the glycoprotein:

- The signal peptide, allowing translocation of the polypeptide through the membrane, and which is cleaved from the final polypeptide.
- The ectodomain that is exposed to the outer surface of the virion and includes the glycosilation and antigenic sites
- The transmembrane peptide that anchors the protein in the viral envelope..
- The cytoplasmic domain, located in the inner part of the virion (Tordo *et al.*, 1993)

The external surface of this 524 amino acid protein is responsible for the induction and binding of virus-neutralising antibodies (Tordo *et al.*, 1993). Sequence analysis of a rabies virus vaccine strain, Vnukovo-32 revealed that the most conserved region of the glycoprotein is the ectodomain, whereas the transmembrane and the cytoplasmic domains shows significant divergence (Fodor *et al.*, 1994).

Dietzschold *et al.*, (1988) delineated three functionally independent antigenic sites on CVS II strain glycoprotein and five antigenic sites on the ERA strain glycoprotein on the basis of grouping of variants resistant to neutralisation by one or more anti-glycoprotein Mabs. The antigenic structure of site III of the rabies glycoprotein has the largest representation of virus neutralisation-epitopes and therefore has the potential for being a major binding site for virus-neutralising antibodies (Wunner *et al.*, 1988). Antigenic site III is represented by at least three linear epitopes and was localised by the amino acid changes at positions 333, 336, 338 and 357 in the glycoprotein gene (Wunner *et al.*, 1988; Prehaud *et al.*, 1988). Although all substitutions affected neutralisation and were located close together in the glycoprotein sequence, only the arginine substitution at position 333

affected pathogenicity (Seif *et al.*, 1985). The arginine residue at position 333 is therefore essential for the integrity of the antigenic determinant and for the ability of rabies viruses to produce lethal infection (Dietzschold *et al.*, 1983).

(e).The RNA polymerase (L) protein

The L-gene encodes a single open reading frame 2142 amino acids in length. The L-protein occupies nearly 60% of the genome (Flammand, 1980) and due to this large size, is believed to contain the majority of enzymatic activity necessary for transcription and replication, including methylation, capping and polyadenylation. The VSV L- protein can act as a kinase in the phosphorylation of NS- protein, although a similar function in the rabies L- protein has not been indicated (Tordo *et al.*, 1988).

The overall composition of the L-protein exhibits the highest percentage of hydrophobic amino acids encountered among the rabies virus proteins. The hydrophilic domain, between residues 1552-1634, is essentially due to the abundance of the basic Asn and Gln. The two hydrophobic domains consist of 19 amino acid runs, containing 75% hydrophobic residues (positions 851-869 and 1962-1980). This hydrophobic domains may be involved in hydrophobic interactions in L-protein tertiary structure or other proteins in the RNP core (Tordo *et al.*, 1988). In an attempt to identify areas of functional homology, L-protein amino acids sequences from several non-segmented negative stranded viruses were analysed, revealing four highly conserved domains separated by more variable stretches of residues (Barik *et al.*, 1990; Tordo *et al.*, 1988). Similarities ranged from 33 to 74%, suggesting a common evolutionary history and the possibility that these conserved domains might represent various functional sites on the L- protein (Tordo *et al.*, 1988). Galinsky *et al.*(1988) described similar domains in the L- proteins of Sendai virus, Newcastle Disease and VSV (Indiana serotype).

1.4.4. Transcription and Replication of Rhabdoviruses.

The infection cycle of rabies is initiated by the attachment of the virus to a receptor on the host cell surface. Removal of the glycoprotein spikes of VSV, the most studied member of this family, leads to a 10^5 -fold reduction in infectivity, implicating it as the main cell-attachment organ (Wagner, 1990). In rabies the exact cell receptor is still unknown (Fraenkel-Conrat *et al.*, 1988) but phosphatidylserine appears to be one of the VSV adsorption receptors on Vero cells. Adsorption is followed by penetration where the virus enters the cell by endocytosis and uncoating, leading to the transfer of the genome to the cytoplasm (Wagner, 1990).

The negative-strand genome RNA of rhabdoviruses serves as template for both transcription (mRNA synthesis) and replication (genome RNA synthesis) (Banerjee, 1987). The enzymology of the transcription process is dependent on the presence of the N-protein complexed with the RNA genome, the NS- protein as well as the L- protein (Wunner, *et al.*, 1988; Tordo *et al.*, 1993; Wagner, 1990). Neither the L- or NS- proteins can function independently in the transcription reaction (Wagner, 1990), however De *et al.* (1984) indicated that the L- protein is able to initiate synthesis of new mRNA chains but were unable to complete them, implying that the NS- protein is responsible for chain elongation after initiation by the L- protein. Evidence to this effect is still inconclusive.

Transcription precede replication and both are initiated at the 3' end progressing towards the 5' end, producing five capped and polyadenylated monocistronic transcripts in response to start and stop signals (Tordo *et al.*, 1993; Bourhy *et al.*, 1989). Additionally a heterogeneous set of complementary leader RNAs is transcribed from the extreme 3' end, the largest being 58 nucleotides long (Wunner *et al.* 1988; Wagner *et al.*, 1990). The function of the leader sequence in rabies infection is uncertain (Wunner, *et al.*, 1988) but in VSV it apparently contributes to initiation of transcription (Wagner, 1990). The synthesis of mRNA species is nonequimolar, i.e. the synthesis of N mRNA is in the highest molar amount, followed by NS, M, G, and L mRNA (Banerjee, 1987). Iverson *et al.*, (1981) reported significant pauses between the transcription of contiguous genes of

VSV leading to a 29 -33% decrease in transcription across the N-NS, NS-M, and M-G gene junctions, resulting in a cumulative effect on gene expression. This transcription attenuation phenomenon suggests that control of the gene expression is related to genomic location (Tordo *et al.*, 1993).

Replication of the RNA genome remains the least understood part of the rhabdovirus life cycle and is presumably mediated by a switch of the RNA polymerase from transcriptive to replicative mode (Wagner, 1990). Unlike transcription, replication requires active, ongoing translation of particularly viral N and NS- proteins. Early during infection only limited amounts of N protein are available, but once sufficient amounts are attained the transcriptase is switched to a replicase, producing complete full length positive strand RNA, which serves as template for replication (Tordo *et al.*, 1993). One possible explanation for this readthrough ability, is the newly and continuously translated N-protein which coats the nascent RNA strand, acting as an attenuator of the stop signal (Wagner, 1990).

1.5. EPIDEMIOLOGY OF RABIES.

1.5.1. Global distribution of the disease.

Countries where rabies were reported to be absent in recent years are mainly islands and peninsulas including Great Britain, Ireland, Iceland, Sweden, Denmark, Portugal, Spain, Gibraltar, Malta, Australia, New Zealand, etc. However, countries such as Denmark which are free of rabies of terrestrial vertebrates have in recent years reported the presence of bat-associated Lyssaviruses (Swanepoel, 1994). Even more recently a human case of encephalitis in Australia was reportedly due to a new bat-associated Lyssavirus (Allworth *et al.*, 1996), characterisation of this possibly new strain is currently underway. In several other countries where rabies is endemic the epidemiology of the disease depends closely upon the ecology of the virus, which differs depending on the geographical areas, the available mammalian hosts species and their susceptibility to infection (Kaplan *et al.*, 1986; Swanepoel, 1994).

In western Europe rabies outbreaks involving dogs, foxes and wolves have been known for centuries. In the early eighteenth century a major outbreak, involving both dogs and wildlife, spread from Eastern European countries. The red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*) has been responsible for a westward spread of rabies, from Poland in 1935 reaching France by 1968. A simultaneous eastward extension introduced the disease to the former USSR and Germany (Kaplan *et al.*, 1986; Blancou *et al.*, 1988). Rabies invaded France from Germany in 1968, at first making modest advances but since then a larger area of France is implicated (Kaplan *et al.*, 1986). Rabies in North and South America is mainly a disease of wildlife due to increasingly effective control measures of dog rabies. Several epidemiologically-important species, correlating to specific geographic areas, exist in the USA. In the eastern part the grey and the red fox are important in the maintenance and circulation of rabies, while the grey fox is important in mountainous areas (Kaplan *et al.*, 1986; Swanepoel, 1994). According to Kaplan *et al.* (1986) the stripe skunk is becoming an important vector in New York state, while Chomel (1993) implicates racoon rabies to represent the most dynamic epidemic in the USA. Bat rabies in nonhematophagous bats is widespread in America, many of the early isolations being made from the Mexican free-tailed bat although many other species have yielded virus. Contact of the free-tailed bats during migration with vampire bats are the most probable source of infection of these nonhematophagous bats (Kaplan *et al.*, 1986; Swanepoel, 1994).

1.5.2 Rabies in South Africa.

There are several reports of rabies in South Africa extending back to the eighteenth century. The first authentic record of the disease is an outbreak in Port Elizabeth in 1893, where the infection was traced to an Airedale dog imported the previous year (Henning, 1949; Cluver *et al.*, 1927). According to Swanepoel *et al.* (1993) the outbreak affected about 90 dogs, seven cats and a few cattle, with no known involvement of any wild carnivores. This outbreak was brought under control by August 1894 mainly through muzzling and restriction of dogs and the destruction of strays. Following this outbreak there was mounting evidence of an endemic form of the disease associated with viverrid species (Henning, 1949). Cluver *et al.* (1927) reported several cases of persons

developing a rabies-like disease after being bitten by mongoose and genets, in particular 11 unconfirmed cases of human rabies were documented between 1916 to 1927 following bites by a yellow mongoose (*Cynictis penicillata*). In 1928 the disease was finally confirmed in two children bitten by a yellow mongoose in Wolmaranstad (Swanepoel *et al.*, 1993). It appears as if rabies associated with South African wildlife, in particular the *Viverridae* (genets and mongoose) has been present long before the onset of dog rabies epidemics (Irvin *et al.*, 1970; Swanepoel *et al.*, 1993). The yellow mongoose is believed to be the principal wildlife rabies vector on the South African highveld plateau, although other viverrids, mustelids, felids and canids are also involved (King *et al.*, 1993). Rabies cases in ground squirrels and suricates largely coincides with the distribution of the yellow mongoose (Swanepoel, 1994).

Canine rabies was introduced to the northern Transvaal, Zimbabwe and Mozambique in 1950 by means of an epizootic which had entered Namibia and Botswana in the late 1940s (Fig 1.3, Swanepoel, 1994). This infection quickly entered the black-backed jackal (*Canis mesomelas*) as well as cattle in the northern Transvaal. By 1961 rabies had penetrated south from Mozambique into Swaziland and northern Kwazulu/Natal (King *et al.*, 1993; Swanepoel, 1994). The uncontrolled dog populations in Natal provided a fertile ground for the epidemic spread of the disease, placing more pressure on effective control measures. The annual dog rabies incidence of Kwazulu/Natal is given in Figure 1.4 (Rabies Programme Report, 1996). A similar intrusion occurred in 1970 from Namibia and western Botswana into the Cape Province, leading to the infection of jackals (*Canis mesomelas*) and bat-eared foxes (*Otocyon megalotis*) (King *et al.*, 1993).

1.6 RECENT ADVANCES IN THE MOLECULAR EPIDEMIOLOGY OF RABIES.

The determination of the nucleotide sequence of the rabies GmRNA by Anilionis *et al.* (1981) initiated further investigation into the molecular genetics of the Lyssavirus genus. Most of the initial studies were focused on two vaccinal strains PV and SADB19 (Tordo, *et al.*, 1993). Investigation into the primary structure of the rabies genome by Tordo *et al.*, (1986a) presented evidence for the existence of a long intergenic region between the glycoprotein and the polymerase gene. Sequence determination of the rabies L- protein indicated highly conserved domains among the L-proteins of unsegmented negative-strand RNA viruses (Tordo *et al.*, 1988). Additionally, the full genome sequence of the rabies-related Mokola virus has been determined (Bourhy *et al.*, 1989; Bourhy *et al.*, 1993; Tordo, Bourhy, Sather and Ollo, 1993).

Reverse transcription (RT) Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) and direct sequencing of the amplicons has provided a rapid and sensitive method for the detection of rabies and related viruses in infected material (Sacramento *et al.*, 1991). Intensive molecular epidemiological analysis has been carried out by limited sequence determination of several rabies genes. The epidemiological and historical relationship among rabies isolates determined by partial sequence analysis of parts of the nucleoprotein gene (Smith *et al.*, 1992; Nadin-Davis *et al.*, 1993) and the G-L intergenic region (Sacramento *et al.*, 1992), indicated a relationship between genome variability, host species and geographical origin. Using a panel of anti-nucleoprotein monoclonal antibodies on South African rabies isolates King *et al.*, (1993) obtained two major reactivity patterns: one specific to viruses from canids and the other to viruses from viverrid species. The molecular epidemiology of these two biotypes was investigated by comparative nucleic sequence analysis of the G-L intergenic region and the antigenic domain II of the nucleoprotein gene. This study indicated that although the South African canid viruses are closely related, they are distinguishable from from other African, European and Asian rabies canid isolates. The viverrid viruses, obtained mainly from mongoose species, were distinct from the canid viruses and represented a more heterogeneous group (Nel *et al.*, 1993). Monoclonal

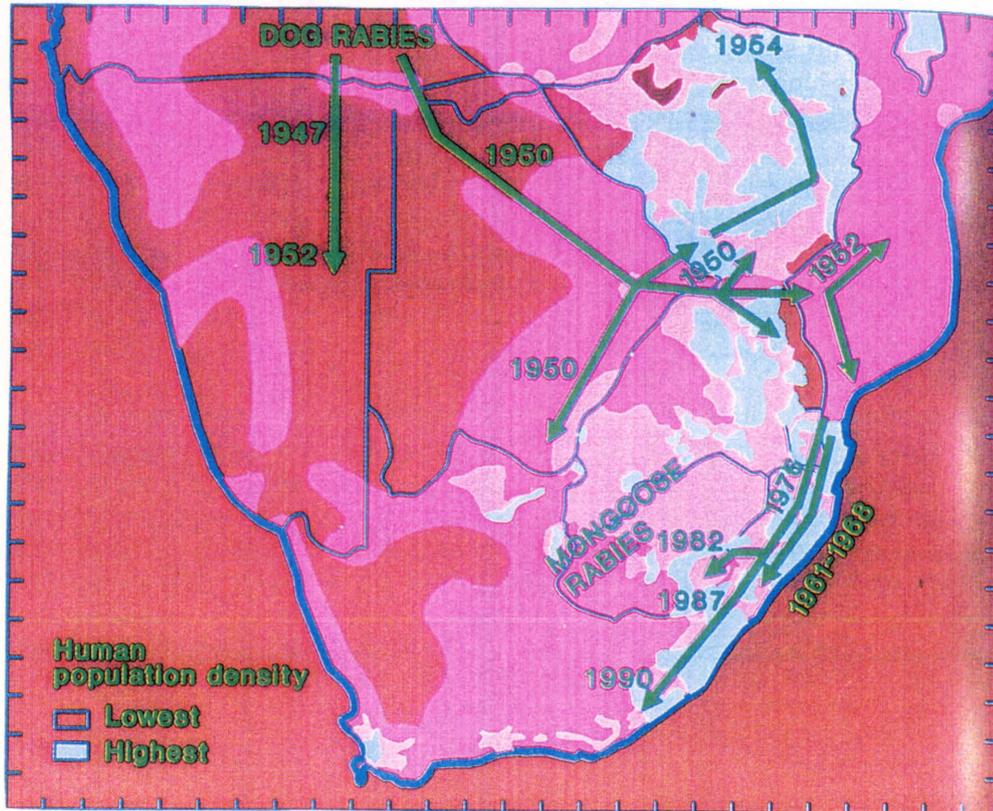


Figure 1.3 The projected pathway of the spread of dog rabies in southern Africa (1947-1991) against a background of human population density.

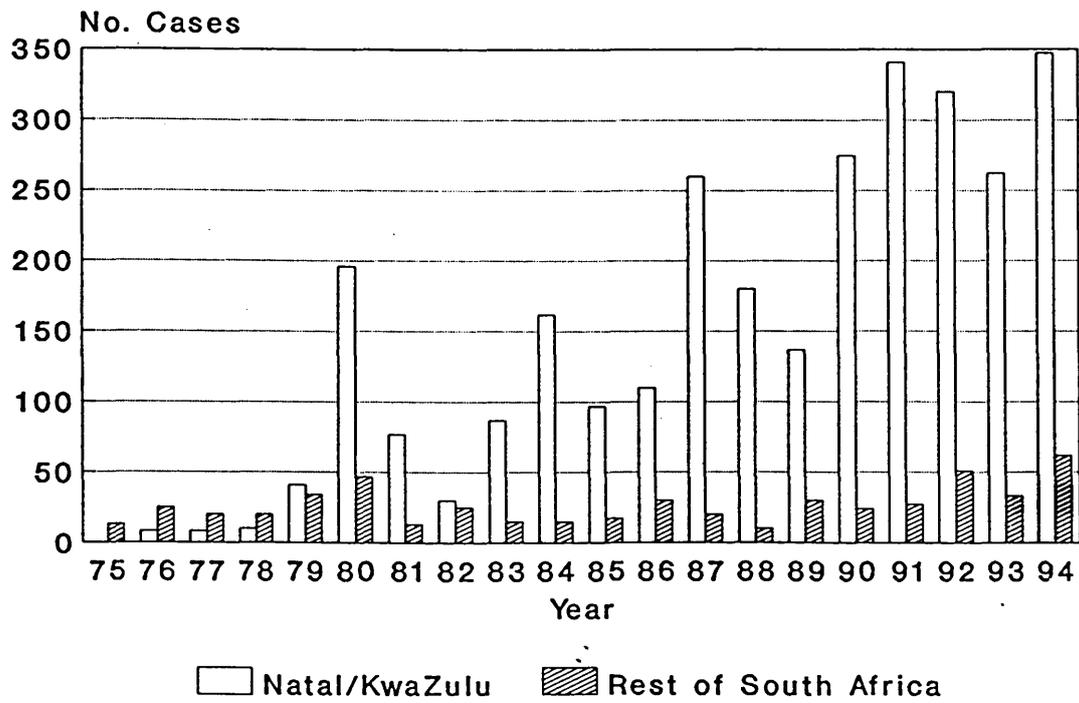


Figure 1.4 A comparison of the incidence of rabies in dogs in Kwazulu/ Natal and the rest of South Africa. (1974-1994).

antibody (Mab) analysis by King *et al.*, (1993) indicated spillover of viverrid viruses into canid hosts and *vice versa*. Molecular characterisation of such isolates by Nel *et al.*, (1993) confirmed the occurrence of spillover events.

1.7 FUNDAMENTALS OF MOLECULAR PHYLOGENY

Molecular phylogeny encompasses the study of the evolutionary history of organisms and macromolecules as inferred from molecular data. Population genetics and molecular biology represents the roots of molecular phylogeny; respectively providing the theoretical foundation for the study of evolutionary processes and the empirical data, (Li *et al.*, 1991a). Prior to 1960, morphological characters were used as evidence for relatedness (Miyamoto *et al.*, 1991). Advances in molecular approaches such as gene cloning, DNA sequencing and restriction endonuclease fragment analysis provided an alternative which contributed significantly to phylogenetic research. DNA sequences has proven particularly useful by providing insight into the evolutionary processes such as gene duplication, nucleotide substitutions, transposition and gene conversion. Comparative analysis of such DNA sequence information enables systematists to construct family trees connecting vertebrates, insects, plants, fungi and bacteria identifying common ancestry to times truly and geologically immemorial (Li *et al.*, 1991a).

1.7.1 Nucleotide substitution in DNA sequences.

Changes within the nucleotide sequence can be used to estimate the rate of evolution and for constructing the evolutionary history of organisms. Due to the slow process of nucleotide substitution, evolutionary changes are detected by comparison with another sequence of common ancestry. Numerous mathematical schemes have been proposed to study the dynamics of nucleotide substitution. The most frequently applied models includes the Jukes and Cantor's one-parameter model and Kimura's two parameter model. The Jukes and Cantor model assumes that substitution occurs randomly among the four types of nucleotides. The fact that transitions occur more frequently than transversions renders the equal substitution rate under the Jukes and Cantor model unrealistic. The two-parameter Kimura model compensates for this difference by assuming a transitional and transversional substitution rate respectively (Li *et al.*, 1991b).

1.7.2 Alignment of sequences.

Sequence alignment is applied to describe the relationship of a particular sequence with other sequences. The purpose of such alignments is to identify the location of deletions and insertions from which useful information concerning the evolutionary or functional relationships between sequences may be acquired. Sequence alignment is often a computer-driven activity based on an optimization function, rewarding matches and penalizing mismatches (Waterman *et al.*, 1991). Lipman and Pearson (1985), and Wilbur and Lipman (1983) devised a search algorithm for aligning sequences and several others have employed versions of their technique. To find the best possible alignment, one in which both the number of mismatches and gaps are minimized, several systems of assigning gap penalties have been developed. By assuming that the probability of having a gap is inversely proportional to the size of the gap, the total length of gaps (z) is multiplied by a constant gap penalty (w). The distance (D) between two sequences can be calculated as $D = y + wz$, where y is the number of mismatched pairs. A second penalty system assumes that long deletions or insertions have a different likelihood of occurrence than shorter ones, the distance according to this system is measured by $D = y + \sum w_k z_k$, where z_k is the number of gaps of length k and w_k is the penalty of gaps of length k (Li *et al.*, 1991b).

1.7.3 Tree-making methods

Different tree-making methods exist, each having its own advantages and disadvantages. Only one of the possible trees that can be inferred from a data set represents the true evolutionary history of the organisms under study, such a tree is referred to as a true tree (Li *et al.*, 1991c). The pattern of nucleotide substitution in DNA sequences is well understood so that it is possible to simulate evolutionary changes by computer analysis. Molecular data can therefore be used to reconstruct a tree, the relative efficiency of the tree-making method may be examined by how often it recovers the correct tree (Nei *et al.*, 1991). Tree-making methods can be divided into two main categories: distance and maximum parsimony (discrete-character) methods. In the distance method evolutionary distance is computed for all pairs of operational taxonomic units (OTU). A phylogenetic

tree is then constructed using an algorithm based on some functional relationship among the distance values. In maximum parsimony methods character states and the shortest pathway leading to these states are chosen as the phylogenetic tree (Li *et al.*, 1991c).

1.7.3.1 Unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) and the Transformed Distance (TD) method

This method is one of the simplest methods for tree reconstruction and assumes an approximately constant rate of evolution among the different lineages. The phylogenetic tree is built in a stepwise manner by a sequential clustering algorithm. In cases where the equal rate assumption among lineages does not hold, UPGMA may give a tree with the wrong topology. The TD method corrects this error by using an outgroup as reference to compensate for unequal rates of evolution and then applies UPGMA to the transformed distance matrix to infer the topology of the tree (Li *et al.*, 1991c).

1.7.3.2 Neighbors relations methods.

Two OTUs in an unrooted bifurcating tree are considered neighbors if they are connected through a single internal node. A distance matrix is computed using UPGMA by comparing every possible quadruple of the OTUs under study. The pairs within a quadruple with the smallest distance is assigned a score of 1, the other pairs are scored as 0. After considering all possible quadruples, the pair with highest total score is selected as the first pair of neighbors and treated as a single OTU. This process is repeated until all the OTUs are clustered (Li *et al.*, 1991c). Nei (1991) described the minimum evolution method in which the unrooted bifurcating tree showing the minimum branch length is chosen as the final tree. The neighbor-joining method is based on the same principle but the computational process is much simpler.

1.7.3.3 Maximum Parsimony methods

Maximum parsimony or minimum evolution involves the identification of a tree that requires the smallest number of evolutionary changes to explain the observed differences among OTUs. A most parsimonious tree is constructed by identifying the informative

sites and for each possible tree the minimum number of substitutions at each site is calculated. The tree with smallest number of substitutions is chosen as the most parsimonious tree (Li *et al.*, 1991c; Nei, 1991). A parsimony analysis can give misleading results if the rate of evolution is unequal in the branches of the phylogenetic tree but may be more reliable for closely related sequences (Sidow *et al.*, 1991)

1.7.3.4 Maximum likelihood methods.

DNA sequences at each site are considered separately and the log-likelihood of having these nucleotides for a particular topology are computed by a probability model. The sum of the log-likelihoods is maximized to estimate the branch length of the tree. The topology with the highest possible likelihood is calculated by repeating these procedures several times (Nei *et al.*, 1991). This method has advantages over traditional parsimony methods, which can give misleading results due to unequal rates of evolution between lineages. The maximum likelihood approach allows testing of hypotheses about the consistency of evolutionary rates by likelihood ratio tests and gives an indication of the estimation error of the tree (Felsenstein, 1981). According to Sidow *et al.*, (1991) maximum likelihood is the most powerful and statistically most reliable method for phylogenetic inference. The major drawback of this method is the assumption of equal evolution at every site or that rate differences have to be specified by the user.

1.7.4 Efficiencies of tree-making methods

As discussed above there are a number of different tree-making methods available; each having its own merits and disadvantages. The relative efficiencies of these methods have been studied by a number of authors. The general conclusions from these studies, where a constant rate of nucleotide substitution is assumed, are presented below (Nei, 1991):

- The neighbor-relations methods are better than UPGMA and TD methods irrespective of the number of nucleotide substitutions.
- Parsimony methods have a smaller probability of obtaining the correct tree than neighbor methods. However, when the number of nucleotide substitutions are small

and the number of nucleotides examined large, parsimony is as good or slightly better than the latter.

- Maximum likelihood is generally more efficient than MP but slightly less efficient than neighbour methods.

1.8 AIMS OF THIS STUDY

The existence of two biotypes of South African rabies have been indicated by nucleoprotein-specific monoclonal antibody typing (King *et al.*, 1993) and confirmed by genomic sequence analysis by Nel *et al.*, 1993; von Teichman *et al.*, 1995). A serological approach is however unable to give sufficient information regarding the epidemiological relationship between rabies viruses. Comparative sequence analysis of rabies isolates significantly contributed to our current knowledge of rabies elsewhere in the world (Sacramento *et al.*, 1991; Smith *et al.*, 1992; Smith *et al.*, 1993; Nadin-Davis *et al.*, 1993). In South Africa however little is known about the epidemiology of rabies, in particular viverrid rabies.

Therefore, the objective of this investigation were the following:

Primary objectives:

- (a) To characterise South African rabies virus isolates from a wide variety of wildlife hosts in particular viverrid species .
- (b) To monitor the occurrence of cross infection events, where typical canid viruses are recovered from viverrid hosts and vice versa.

To achieve the primary objectives the following research strategies will be employed:

- cDNA synthesis by reverse transcription of total RNA from infected mouse brain material.
- Amplification of the target genomic regions by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using rabies-specific oligonucleotides.
- Direct sequencing of the products of amplification or cloning of these products prior to sequencing.
- The construction of phylogenetic trees by comparative analysis of nucleic acid sequences using computer programmes.

- The development of PCR assay to rapidly differentiate between the canid and viverrid viruses as a diagnostic tool.

CHAPTER TWO

CHARACTERISATION OF VIVERRID RABIES ISOLATES BY NUCLEOTIDE SEQUENCE ANALYSIS OF THE G-L INTERGENIC REGION AND THE CYTOPLASMIC DOMAIN OF THE GLYCOPROTEIN

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The precise origin of rabies in southern Africa remains speculative although late 1700 documentation indicates the presence of the disease (Chapter 1, section 1.5.2). The first recognised outbreak of rabies involving canine species occurred in the eastern Cape province in 1893; the responsible source of infection being a dog imported from England the previous year. However, it is unclear whether this outbreak constituted the first canine epizootic in southern Africa (King *et al.*, 1994). Canine rabies became established after 1950 following an introduction from the northern bordering countries reaching Kwazulu/Natal by 1961 where it still is a serious problem. This spread of canine rabies also involved infection of wildlife species, in particular the jackal and the bat-eared fox (King *et al.*, 1993; Swanepoel *et al.*, 1993).

The transmission of a rabies-like disease to humans bitten by yellow mongoose and genets (Cluver, 1927) speculated the existence of a seemingly indigenous form of rabies circulating in wildlife species, in particular members of the *Viverridae* subfamily (commonly referred to as viverrids). This mongoose virus was confirmed as rabies in 1928 when two boys died of rabies after being bitten by an apparently tame yellow mongoose (*Cynictis penicillata*). It appears that this virus had been established in South Africa long before the introduction of canine rabies. The yellow mongoose appears to be the principal disseminator on the central plateau of the country, although other viverrid species are involved in the spread of the disease (King *et al.*, 1993; Swanepoel *et al.*, 1993). In an attempt to serologically characterise the two types of rabies viruses present in the country, King *et al.*, (1994) used a panel of nucleoprotein-specific monoclonal antibodies. This analysis indicated a characteristic reactivity pattern for canid and mongoose (or viverrid) viruses respectively, signifying meaningful variation in epitopes.

Comparative sequence analysis has been used very successfully over the last number of years to study the epidemiology of various infectious diseases. Specific examples of such approaches include the characterisation of the 5' non-coding region of pestiviruses

(Hofmann *et al.*, 1994) and the identification of temporally and geographically distinct dengue-3 viruses (Lanciotti *et al.*, 1994). In like manner sequence analysis clarified the genetic diversity of human T cell lymphotropic virus type I strains from India and their phylogenetic relationship with variants from Melanesia, India (Nerurkar *et al.*, 1993).

Two regions on the rabies genome have been targeted for molecular epidemiological analysis. The overexpression in infected cells and the conserved nature of the nucleoprotein are two properties respectively facilitating its application in the diagnosis of rabies and comparison with distantly related viruses. This was illustrated in studies by Smith *et al.*, (1992 & 1993) & Nadin-Davis *et al.*, (1993); who analysed a 200-bp region of the nucleoprotein allowing the differentiation of geographically distinct viruses and the estimation of evolutionary relationships between them. In contrast, the rabies non-coding G-L intergenic region, is extremely susceptible to mutations and therefore indicative of evolution in the absence of external selective pressure (Tordo *et al.*, 1986a; Sacramento *et al.*, 1991 & 1992; Smith *et al.*, 1993). Sequence analysis of this non-coding protein region was used by Sacramento *et al.*, (1992) in their comprehensive molecular epidemiological study of rabies viruses circulating in France. A similar epidemiological study by von Teichman *et al.*, (1995) showed that rabies viruses present in canid hosts and those infecting viverrid species differ from each other by *ca* 20% with regard to their nucleotide sequences.

The pattern of nucleotide substitutions from the previous investigations of mainly yellow mongoose isolates (Nel, *et al.*, 1993 & von Teichman *et al.*, 1995) indicated that although the viverrid viruses could be clearly distinguished from all known rabies viruses considerable variation exists within this group. Species other than the yellow mongoose are also believed to play a role in the maintenance of viverrid rabies (Swanepoel *et al.*, 1993). It was therefore my aim to expand the work by von Teichman *et al.*, (1995), analysing G-L intergenic sequences of isolates from other viverrid hosts along with yellow mongoose isolates. In like manner the characterisation of spillover isolates as described by King *et al.*, (1993) is also envisaged. Here we report on an expansive genetic analysis of

all currently available Southern African viverrid rabies viruses as a means to contribute to the current knowledge of their molecular epidemiology.

2.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.2.1 Rabies virus isolates

Rabies isolates were selected to cover the widest available range of domestic and wildlife animal host species from rabies enzootic areas of southern Africa. All rabid specimens used were submitted to the Rabies Unit of the Veterinary Institute at Onderstepoort and were diagnosed as rabies-positive by immunofluorescent staining technique. A panel of nucleoprotein-specific monoclonal antibodies were used to distinguish between canid and viverrid rabies based on their differential antigenic properties. The reactivity patterns of a few isolates were ambiguous making exact typing of such isolates impossible (denoted by ? in Table 2.1). Virus isolates were stored in the form of lyophilised 20% mouse brain material. The reference numbers, host species of origin and Mab typing are indicated in Table 2.1. The Pasteur virus (Tordo *et al.*, 1986) and additional rabies virus sequences (von Teichman *et al.*, 1995) were included as reference strains. The approximate geographical origin of the some of the viverrid viruses are indicated in Figure 2.1.

2.2.2 Preparation of RNA.

Viral RNA was prepared by dissolving approximately 500µg of infected mouse brain material in 500µl of extraction buffer (1% w/v SDS; 1% w/v NP₄₀; 1mM EDTA (pH 8.0); 50µg/ml dextran sulphate) and extracted three to four times with buffer-saturated phenol. Total RNA was precipitated with two volumes of 100% ethanol and 0.3 M sodium acetate (pH 7.0), the pellet was washed twice using 70% ethanol, dried under vacuum and resuspended to the required concentration in DEPC water.

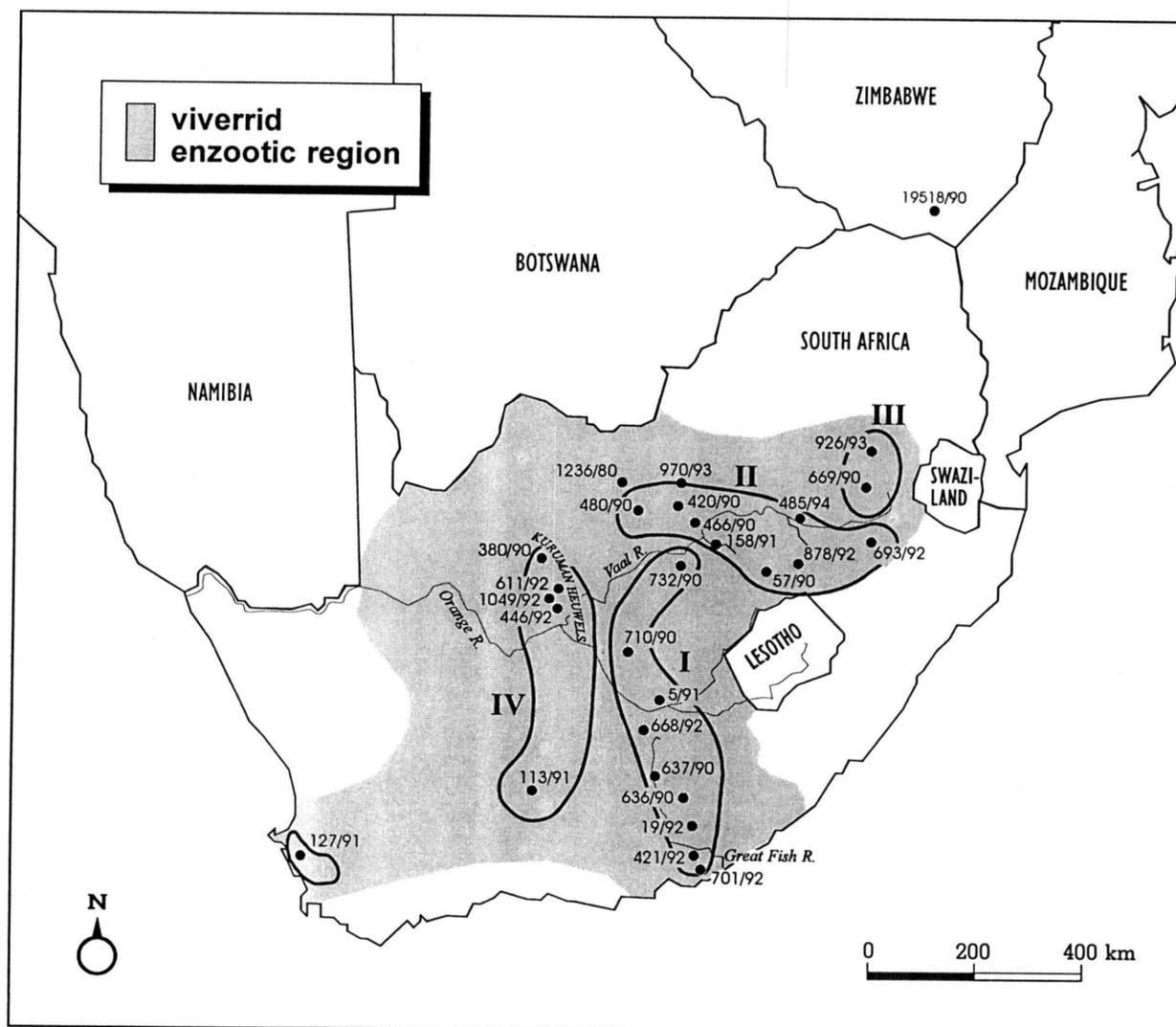


Figure 2.1 The geographic locations of the viverrid rabies isolates used in this analysis. The extent of the viverrid enzootic is indicated as well as the clusters (numbered I-IV) of viruses as described in section 2.3.3.

2.2.3 Primer selection.

Oligonucleotide primers used for amplification were chosen from conserved regions flanking the pseudogene by comparison between rabies virus (PV strain) and the Mokola virus genome (Sacramento *et al.*, 1991). The G primer is located in the glycoprotein gene upstream from the transmembrane peptide, while the L-primer maps within the N-terminal of the L gene a region which is conserved in all Rhabdoviridae and Paramyxoviridae polymerases (Sacramento *et al.*, 1992). A set of internal primers, P₁ - P₅, were employed to assist in sequencing. Oligonucleotide primers are all localised according to the

sequence of the rabies virus PV strain genome (Tordo *et al.*, 1986). A summary of these oligonucleotides are given in Table 2.2, their positions and orientations are indicated in Figure 2.2. The G-L primer set was used to efficiently amplify the transmembrane and cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein and the pseudogene.

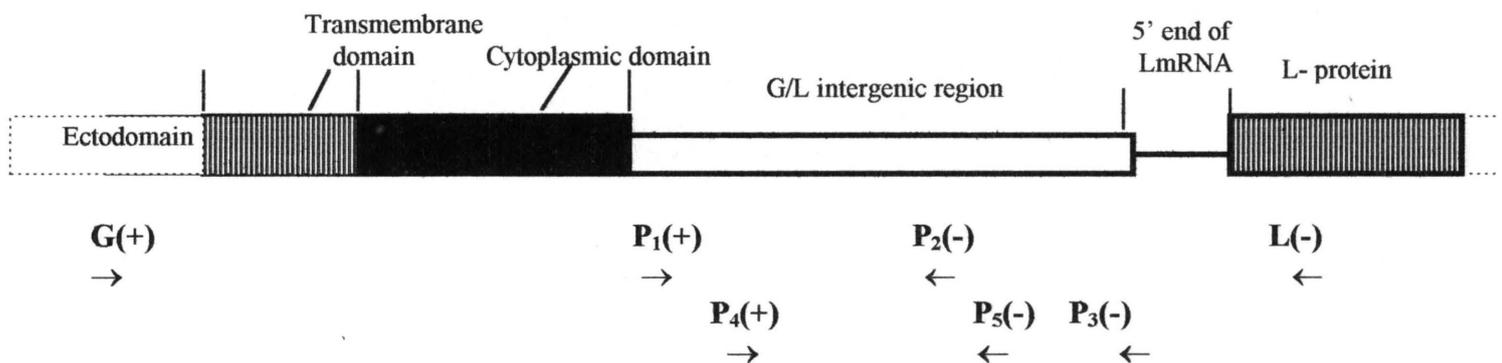


Figure 2.2 The rabies intergenic region and flanking domains. The location and orientation of the primers used for amplification and sequencing are indicated.

TABLE 2.2

OLIGONUCLEOTIDES USED FOR AMPLIFICATION AND SEQUENCE ANALYSIS OF THE G-L INTERGENIC REGION

Primer	Priming position	Nucleotide sequence of primer, 5' - 3'
G(+)	4665 - 4687	GACTTGGGTCTCCCGAACTGGGG
L(-)	5543 - 5520	CAAAGGAGAAGTTGAGATTGTAGTC
P1(+)	4997 - 5018	CAACTGGGTAGATTCAAGAGTC
P2(-)	5104 - 5085	TCACTGAAACTGCTAGAAGA
P3(-)	5345 - 5326	AGCTTAGATGACCCAGCACT
P4(+)	5026 - 5050	TTTTCATTAATCCTCTCAGTTGATC
P5(-)	5131 - 5154	TTTGTCTACAACCTGTTGGTGTCAG

2.2.4 cDNA synthesis

Total RNA (0.5-3.9 μ g) was denatured and hybridized to 100 ng of the G primer at 65 $^{\circ}$ C for five minutes. The mixture was cooled on ice and the RNA reverse transcribed at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 90 minutes in a 10 μ l reaction mixture containing 50 U of Moloney Murine Leukemia Virus reverse transcriptase (M-MuLV) (USBTM), 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3; 75 mM KCl; 3 mM MgCl₂, 10mM DTT; all four deoxyribonucleoside triphosphates (dNTPs), each at 1mM and 5U of RNasin[®] Ribonuclease Inhibitor (Promega). After completion of the reaction the cDNA/RNA hybrid was diluted to a final volume of 50 μ l using ultrapure water.

2.2.5 Polymerase Chain Reaction

Amplification was performed in a 100 μ l reaction containing 10 μ l of the diluted RNA/cDNA hybrid; 100 pMol of both the G and L primers, 100 μ M of each dNTP, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 50mM KCl; 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 9.0; 0.1% Triton X-100 (supplied in *Taq* 10X buffer) 0.25 U of *Taq* DNA polymerase (Promega). The reaction mixture was covered with a few drops of light mineral oil to avoid evaporation at high temperatures. PCR was performed in a programmable thermocycler (Hybaid, Omnigene) for 30 cycles using the temperature profile as described by Sacramento *et al.*, (1991): denaturation 94 $^{\circ}$ C, 50 s; annealing 45 $^{\circ}$ C, 90 s; elongation 72 $^{\circ}$ C, 120 s. The final elongation step was completed at 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 10 min. The “hot start” protocol, initial denaturation at 95 $^{\circ}$ C for five minutes before addition of the enzyme, was carried out as described by Erlich *et al.*, (1991).

The products of amplification were analysed by agarose gel electrophoresis. A small amount (usually 5 μ l) of the reaction was electrophoresed at 100 V on an ethidium bromide (10mg/ml) stained 1% agarose gel in 1X TAE buffer(40 mM Tris-HCl; 20 mM Na.acetate; 1 mM EDTA pH 8.5) using a Biorad Wide Mini SubTM electrophoresis cell. The amplified DNA was visualised by UV fluorescence and the size estimated with the use of DNA molecular weight marker VI (Boehringer Mannheim) (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

Table 2.1. Rabies virus isolates analysed and compared in this study.

Virus reference no.	Host species	Geographical origin	Map reference (Long.-Lat)	Mab Typing Canid (c) or Viverrid (v)
420/90*	<i>Cynictis penicillata</i>	Wolmaranstad	26° 14' - 27° 13'	v
466/90*	<i>Cynictis penicillata</i>	Bothaville	26° 37' - 27° 23'	v
480/90*	<i>Cynictis penicillata</i>	Bloemhof	52° 32' - 27° 25'	v
669/90*	<i>Cynictis penicillata</i>	Ermelo	29° 52' - 26° 42'	v
710/90*	<i>Cynictis penicillata</i>	Fauresmith	25° 15' - 29° 54'	v
732/90*	<i>Cynictis penicillata</i>	Bultfontein	26° 08' - 28° 18'	v
421/92	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	Albany	26° 30' - 33° 20'	v
ND77	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	Lower Umfolozi	32°00' - 28°35'	c
ND56*	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	Pietermaritzburg	30° 25' - 29° 37'	c
101/90*	<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	Soutpansberg	28° 55' - 22° 48'	c
5/91*	<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	Rouxville	26° 28' - 30° 34'	v
701/92	<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	Albany	26° 10' - 33° 13'	v
378/90	<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	Potgieterus	28°31' - 22°56'	c
598/90	<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	Soutpansberg	29°53' - 22°50'	c
602/90	<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	Thabazimbi	26°48' - 24°45'	c
158/91	<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	Ventersburg	27° 10' - 28° 10'	v
127/91*	<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	Malmesbury	18° 25' - 33° 25'	v
615/91*	<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	Britstown	23° 27' - 30° 50'	c
377/90	<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	Gordonia	21°10' - 28°03'	c
256/90	<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	Hay	22° 55' - 29° 14'	v
380/94	<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	De Aar	23° 55' - 30° 23'	c
668/92	<i>Atilax paludinosus</i>	Albert	26° 07' - 30° 36'	v
878/92	<i>Atilax paludinosus</i>	Harrismith	28° 59' - 28° 08'	v
113/91	<i>Atilax paludinosus</i>	Beaufort West	23° 02' - 32° 13'	v
1523	<i>Atilax paludinosus</i>	Durban area	30° 23' - 29° 35'	c
1236/80	<i>Genetta genetta</i>	Vryburg	22° 45' - 26°09'	v
HR1/79	<i>Genetta genetta</i>	Namibia	18°10' - 19°40'	c
1049/92	<i>Genetta **</i>	Postmaburg	22° 46' - 27° 55'	v
611/92	<i>Genetta**</i>	Postmasburg	22° 53' - 27° 43'	v

Table 2.1 continues

Virus reference no.	Host species	Geographical origin	Map reference (Long.-Lat.)	Mab Typing Canid(c) or Viverrid (v)
446/92	<i>Genetta genetta</i>	Postmasburg	22° 30' - 28° 12'	v
767/94	<i>Galerella sanguinea</i>	Fraserburg	21°31' - 31°55'	c
19518/91	<i>Galerella sanguinea</i>	Zimbabwe	Unknown	v
636/90	<i>Galerella pulverulenta</i>	Cradock	25° 37' - 32° 10'	v
19/92	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Cradock	25° 37' - 32° 10'	v
970/93	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Ventersdorp	26° 32' - 26° 23'	v
683/94	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Kuruman	22°53' - 27°36'	c
485/94	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Standerton	29° 14' - 26° 56'	v
693/92	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Newcastle	29°56'' - 27°45'	v
926/93	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Carolina	30° 16' - 26° 04'	v
298/90	<i>Felis lybica</i>	Carnarvon	21° 46' - 30° 13'	v
SK0001	<i>Felis negripes</i>	Keetmanshoop	unknown	?
94/499	<i>Felis sp. **</i>	Durban	30°52' - 30°04'	c
475/95	<i>Felis lybica</i>	Hay	22° 55' - 29° 14'	v
380/90	<i>Felis sp. **</i>	Kuruman	21° 41' - 26° 53'	v
637/90	<i>Xerus inauris</i>	Middelburg	25° 07' - 31° 30'	v
292/95	<i>Mellivora capensis</i>	Ellisras	Unknown	?
21041/92	<i>Mellivora capensis</i>	Zimbabwe	18°44' - 31°40'	c
81/94	<i>Mungos mungo</i>	Warmbaths	27°44' - 24°55'	c
22574	<i>Civettictis civetta</i>	Zimbabwe	unknown	?
Pasteur Virus ^a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

* G-L sequences obtained from von Teichman *et al.*, (1995)

** exact species not positively identified

^a Pasteur virus genomic sequence obtained from Tordo *et al.*, (1986)

n/a information not relevant to this study.

? Monoclonal typing inconclusive

2.2.6 Purification of PCR products.

Electrophoretically separated PCR products were excised from the agarose gel and purified by either of two methods. Firstly, the amplified product was spun through a column of sterilised glasswool. The volume of the recovered fraction was adjusted to 400 μ l using ultrapure water and deproteinized by phenol/chloroform extraction. An equal volume of phenol/chloroform (1:1) was added to the sample, mixed and the organic and aqueous phases separated by centrifugation at 15 000 rpm for 5 minutes. The upper aqueous phase was extracted twice with an equal volume of chloroform. The DNA was precipitated from the aqueous phase by the addition of two volumes of 100% ethanol and 0.3 M sodium acetate (pH 7.0), pelleted by centrifugation at 15 000 rpm for 30 minutes, washed twice with 70% ethanol, dried under vacuum and resuspended in an appropriate volume of ultrapure water.

Alternatively the amplified DNA was recovered from the agarose gel by using the commercially available GeneClean™ Kit (Bio 101 Inc.) according to the manufacture's instructions. The excised agarose fragment was mixed with three volumes of NaI solution and melted at 55°C after which 5 μ l of the silica matrix, glassmilk®, was added to the solution. Following incubation on ice for five minutes, the silica-bound DNA was pelleted, washed three times with ice cold New wash and the DNA eluted from the silica matrix at 55°C in a final volume of 12 μ l ultrapure water.

2.2.7 Cloning of PCR Products

2.2.7.1 Modification of the termini of PCR products and ligation.

In some cases it was necessary to clone the PCR products of several isolates before sequencing. Cloning was achieved by the following steps: the G-L intergenic specific amplicons were purified using the GeneClean™ Kit as described in section 2.2.6, the protruding 3' end of the PCR products were made flush in a reaction containing the PCR product, 0.1 M ATP, 10 U of Klenow enzyme (USB™), 10 U of T4 polynucleotide

kinase and 50mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM DTT, 0.05 mg/ml BSA (nuclease free) and adjusted to a final volume of 100 µl with ultrapure water. Following incubation at 37⁰C for one hour the reaction was stopped by the addition of 1 µl of 0.5 M EDTA, pH 8.0. The flush-ended PCR product was purified using the GeneClean™ Kit and ligated to a 500 ng of a Sma I (Boehringer Mannheim) -digested dephosphorylated BlueScript (Stratagene) plasmid in 10 µl reaction mixture containing 2 µl PEG 8000, 10 U of DNA ligase and 66 mM Tris-HCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM Dithioerythritol, 1 mM ATP, pH 7.5. Ligation was carried out overnight at 22⁰C.

2.2.7.2 Transformation of competent cells and plasmid DNA extractions

Competent *E. coli* JM 105 cells were prepared from an overnight culture, the cells were transformed by the heat shock method, plated out on LB-agar plates containing 50 µg/ml of ampicillin and recombinants selected by blue/white selection as described by Sambrook *et al.* (1989).

Recombinant plasmids were isolated by the alkaline lysis method as described by Sambrook *et al.* (1989). Selected transformants were grown overnight in 1.5 ml of LB-medium containing ampicillin and harvested by centrifugation at 15 000 rpm for 1 minute. To prevent the cells from plasmolysing, the pellets were resuspended in 100 µl of solution containing 50 mM glucose; 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8); 10 mM EDTA. The spheroplasts were lysed by adding 200 µl of 0.2 M NaOH; 1% SDS. The suspension was neutralised with 150 µl of 3 M sodium acetate (pH 4.8), incubated on ice for five minutes and centrifuged at 15 000 rpm for five minutes. The plasmid DNA was precipitated from the supernatant as described in section 2.2.4. Plasmid DNA was treated with 1 µl of Rnase A (10 mg/ml) (Boehringer Mannheim) at 37⁰C for 30 minutes and incubated for 20 minutes on ice in the presence of 30 µl of 20% PEG 6000 and 2.5 M NaCl. The DNA was recovered by centrifugation at 15 000 rpm for 15 minutes, washed with 70% ethanol, dried and resuspended in 25 µl of ultrapure water.

2.2.7.3 Restriction endonuclease analysis of recombinant plasmids

The recombinant plasmids were characterised by recovery of the insert by restriction enzyme digests, in a 10 μ l reaction containing 0.5 units of EcoR1 and Xba I (Boehringer Mannheim) and Buffer M (50 mM Tris-HCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM Dithioerythritol), incubated at 37⁰C and electrophoresis as described in section 2.2.5

2.2.8 Nucleotide Sequencing

Nucleotide sequences were determined by the dideoxynucleotide chain termination method (Sanger *et al.*, (1977) using the SequiThermTM Cycle Sequencing System (Epicentre Technologies). This sequencing protocol is based on cyclic high-temperature synthesis of DNA by a thermostable DNA polymerase. As in other conventional dideoxy sequencing, a set of four reactions generates sequence data from each template/primer combination. Sequencing reactions were carried out following the internal labelling method and consisted of at least 500 fmol of template DNA, 15 pmol of either the G primer or the P₁ primer, 10 μ Ci of α - [³⁵S]-dATP at 1,000Ci/mmol (Amersham), 2.5 μ l of the 10X sequencing buffer (0.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 9.3; 25 mM MgCl₂) in a final volume of 16 μ l. Finally 5U of the SequiTherm DNA polymerase was added to this reaction. Aliquots (4 μ l) of this premix were transferred to four 0.5 ml microtubes each containing one of the chain-terminating dideoxynucleotides (ddNTP). Each of the ddATP, ddCTP, ddGTP and ddTTP additionally contained 15mM of dATP, dCTP, dGTP and dTTP. The reaction was overlaid with light mineral oil and denatured in the pre-heated thermocycler at 95⁰C for five minutes. The cycle profile for reactions with the G primer were 30 cycles of denaturing at 95⁰C for 30s and synthesis at 70⁰C for 1min, using the P₁ primer a 30s annealing step was added between the denaturation and synthesis steps. After completion of the cycle programme the reaction was stopped by the addition of 3 μ l of stop solution (95% (v/v) formamide, 10 mM EDTA (pH 9.5), 10 mM NaOH, 0.1% xylene cyanol, 0.1% bromophenol blue).

2.2.9 Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis.

Heat denatured (5 min at 75⁰C) sequencing reactions were electrophoresed in adjacent lanes of a denaturing polyacrylamide gel (6% Acrylamide :1:9 Acrylamide:Bis-acrylamide), 7 M Urea, 10X TBE (10mM Tris; 10 mM Boric Acid; 0.2mM EDTA), 0.02% ammonium persulphate and 100 µl of TEMED (N,N,N',N'-tetramethylethylenediamine)). The gel was pre-run for 30 minutes with stop buffer, supplied in the sequencing kit, at 1750 V (75W and 45 mA). Electrophoresis was carried out on a BRL model S2 sequencing apparatus, connected to a LKB 2197 power supply. Typical six, three and one and half hour runs were sufficient to electrophoretically separate the desired sequence ladders. The gel was fixed in 10% acetic acid and 10% methanol to remove the urea, transferred to Whatman filter paper and dried on a vacuum gel dryer (Model SE1160, Hoefer Scientific). The gel was then exposed to Protea MRF-31 X-ray film at room temperature.

2.2.10 Computer analysis of the G-L intergenic nucleotide sequences.

The Clustal W programme was used to analyse the nucleic acid sequences. Firstly a distance matrix was constructed by pairwise alignment of the sequences. Scores were calculated as the number of identical residues in the best alignment of two sequences minus a fixed gap penalty of 10. All scores were converted to distance by dividing percent identity by 100 and subtracting from 1.0 to give the amount of difference between the sequences being compared (Thompson *et al.*, 1994). A guide tree was constructed from the distance matrix using the neighbour-joining method as described by Saitou & Nei (1987). All branch lengths were proportional to the estimated divergence along each branch and the guide tree was used to direct the final multiple alignments. At this stage larger groups of sequences were aligned following the order of the guide tree. These alignments were then stored in a NBRF/PIR file format which is recognised by Clustal W for calculating phylogenetic trees. The bootstrap method (Felsenstein, 1985) was used in combination with the neighbour-joining method to estimate confidence levels of the phylogenies. This involved random resampling of the data, creating a new data table which was then analysed. A record was kept of all the groups of species that form

monophyletic subsets in the resulting estimated phylogeny. The resampling and estimation process was repeated several times and only groups appearing in 95% or more of the trees were considered statistically significant. Bootstrap supported trees were constructed using a random seed generator of 111 and 100 bootstrap trials. In a similar way the Kitsch and DNAdist method in the PHYLIP package (Felsenstein, 1993) were employed for phylogenetic analysis. Distance matrices were generated either by DNAdist or as an output option of the Kitsch method. The phylogenetic trees were displayed using Treetool, (Genetic Data Environment (2.2) package) which is an interactive visualizer of phylogenetic data enabling the user to modify the format, structure and characteristics of the tree.

2.3 RESULTS

2.3.1 Virus isolates, RNA preparation, cDNA synthesis, amplification and cloning.

Rabies virus isolates were selected from several host species from diverse geographic locations in southern Africa. Viverrid host species included the yellow mongoose (*Cynictis penicillata*), water mongoose (*Atilax paludinosus*), small grey mongoose (*Galerella purverulenta*), suricates (*Suricata suricatta*), slender mongoose (*Galerella sanguinea*), banded mongoose (*Mungos mungo*), small-spotted genet (*Genetta genetta*). Typical canid hosts included the black-backed jackal (*Canis mesomelas*), bat-eared fox (*Otocyon megalotis*) and domestic dogs (*Canis familiaris*). Isolates from a ground squirrel (*Xerus inauris*), *felis* species, honey badger (*Mellivora capensis*), as well as bovine also formed part of this collection. Viral RNA extractions and reverse transcription PCR were performed as described in section 2.2. The G/L primer set yielded a virus-specific PCR product (ca. 850 bp) for each of the isolates analysed (results not shown).

Our standard approach of direct sequencing of PCR products failed to generate sufficient sequence data of five virus isolates from the collection. The modified PCR products of viverrid rabies virus isolates 701/92, 668/92, 298/90, 637/90 and 970/93 were therefore cloned into the dephosphorylated SmaI site of the plasmid pBS, KS⁺. Restriction of the

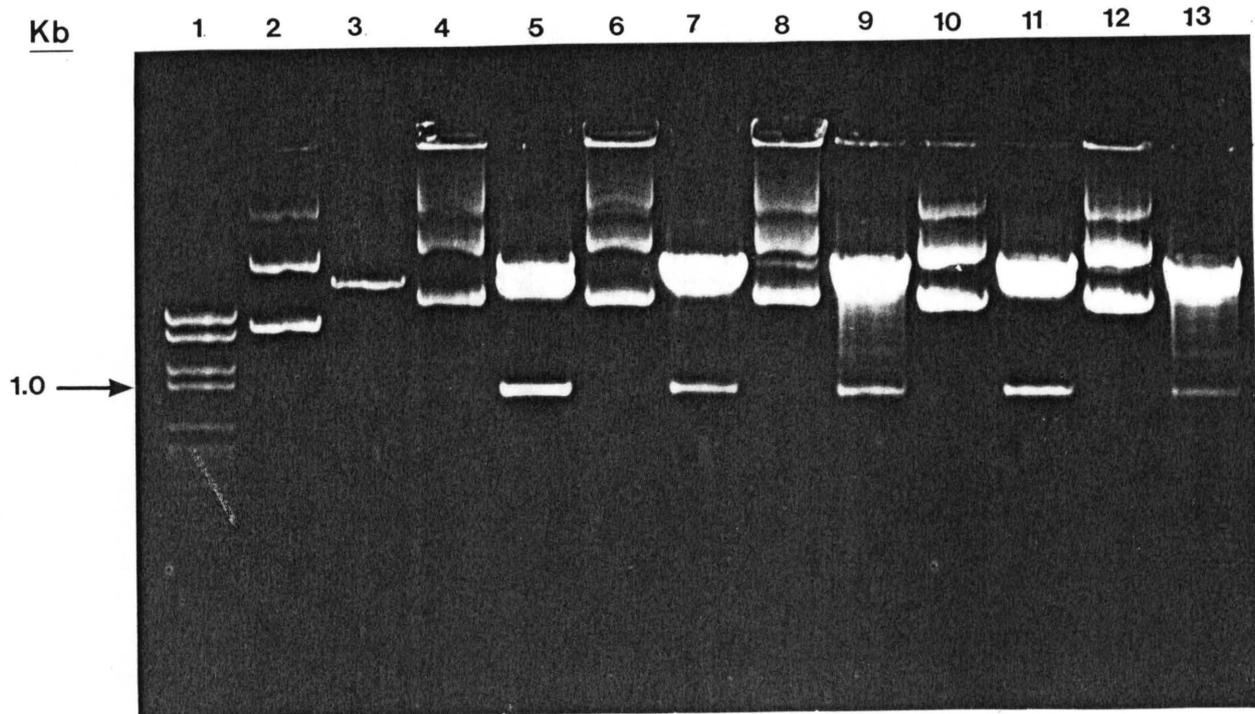


Figure 2.3 Agarose gel electrophoretic analysis of recombinant plasmids, derived by cloning a 850 bp PCR product into the dephosphorylated SmaI site of pBS, KS⁺. Lanes 4, 6, 8, 10 and 12 contains the unrestrained recombinant plasmids. The result of the double restriction enzyme digestion (XbaI and EcoRI) of the same plasmids are present in lanes 5, 7, 9, 11, and 13, showing the G-L intergenic amplicon of 701/92, 668/92, 298/90, 637/90 and 970/93. Marker VI (lane 1), undigested (lane 2) and linearized (lane 3) pBS were included as molecular weight markers.

derived plasmids with EcoR I and Xba I confirmed that the PCR products were cloned into the vector (Figure 2.3).

2.3.2 Nucleotide sequence determination.

The nucleotide sequence of the cytoplasmic domain and the G-L intergenic region were determined from gel-purified DNA fragments or recombinant plasmids using the SequiTherm Cycle Sequencing System as described in the sections 2.2.6 and 2.2.8. Each template was sequenced using both the G primer and the internal P₁ primer. On average about 300 bases of nucleotide sequences were generated from each sequencing reaction. The primary sequences are given in Figure (2.4) in the format of multiple alignment generated by Clustal W (section 2.2.10). Pairwise comparison of the nucleotide sequences revealed that canid viruses had an overall nucleotide similarity of 95% but differed from the viverrid viruses by up to 33%. Variation between 2%-30% were found in pairwise alignments of the viverrid virus sequences..

2.3.3 Phylogenetic analysis.

2.3.3.1 Analysis of viverrid viruses

In this study the nucleotide sequence of two variable genomic regions, the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein and the G-L intergenic region, were analysed for each isolate. These particular regions were shown to be reliable for molecular genetic analysis (Sacramento *et al.*, 1991). The molecular genetic relationships were investigated by comparing sequence information using the neighbour-joining method of the Clustal W computer programme (section 2.2.10). A resulting phylogenetic interpretation is shown in Figure 2.5. This tree was composed of two major lineages. In the first the canid and the European reference strain, PV, are grouped together whilst the second lineage indicates the position of all viruses from viverrid hosts. Within the radiation defined by the viverrid viruses four distinct clusters were evident. Virus isolates from typical viverrid species (mongoose species, suricates and genets) were present in all four clusters. Isolates obtained from mongoose host species, in particular the yellow mongoose, were essentially present in clusters I and II. The remaining yellow mongoose isolate (m669) and one water

mongoose isolates (ati113) were present in clusters III and IV respectively. Viruses from feline species and a ground squirrel were present in clusters I and IV. Isolates from clusters I and II differ from each by a maximum of 12%, while the nucleotide sequence variation within clusters III and IV equals 16% and 18% respectively. An isolate from a genet, ge1236, originating from an area associated with cluster II, was recovered as a separate lineage but shares a common ancestor with the second cluster

The occurrence of cross-or spillover infection of the viverrid virus of typical canid hosts has been established serologically (King *et al.*, 1993) and genetically (Nel *et al.*, 1993 & von Teichman *et al.*, 1995). These viruses were similar to those viverrid viruses infecting typical viverrid hosts. A further investigation here of such viverrid spillover isolates here indicated them to be phylogenetically heterogeneous. Cluster I contained isolates j701, j5 and d421 from black-backed jackals and a dog respectively, while isolates from a bat-eared fox (b256) and a black-backed jackal (j158) belonged to cluster II. The other isolate from a bat-eared fox, b127, was placed within cluster IV.

The observed genetically separable clusters of South African viverrid viruses could not be attributed to their different hosts of origin. When the geographical origin of the viverrid viruses were considered, it was clear that these clusters correlated closely with four geographical pockets (Figure 2.1). Members of the first genetic cluster were all isolated from an area which stretches from the eastern part of the country northwards, while those belonging to cluster II were obtained from an area extending from east to west. The two isolates of the third cluster were obtained from an area isolated in the northern part of the country. Cluster IV were composed of isolates originating from a more central position in the south-western part of the country.

To ascertain the reliability of the tree topologies, phylogenetic trees were constructed using the parsimony algorithm (Chapter 1, section 1.7.3.3) within PHYLIP. The parsimony method uses phylogenetically informative sites to infer the tree that requires the smallest number of evolutionary changes to explain the observed differences among

isolates. The inferred most parsimonious tree (results not shown) showed a corresponding tree topology supporting the basic concept of four genetically distinguishable groups.

2.3.3.2 Analysis of canid viruses

A group of rabies viruses from known viverrid reservoirs reacted atypically with the nucleoprotein-specific monoclonal antibodies. These virus isolates (indicated by * in Table 2.1) conformed to the canid biotype reactivity pattern indicating, the existence of a possibly new or unrecognised spillover event opposite to the viverrid spillover (section 2.3.3.1). These spillover isolates m81, ati1523, gal767, geHR1, hb21041, hb292, s683 were obtained from mongoose species, genets and suricates. In an attempt to analyse the viruses responsible for the canid spillovers, sequence analysis were undertaken as described previously (section 2.2.8-2.2.10). In a phylogenetic comparison (Figure 2.6) of canid viruses from typical canid hosts (dogs, jackals, bat-eared foxes) and these canid spillover viruses no obvious clustering according to spillover event, host species or geographic origin were evident. Typical canid viruses and canid spillover viruses differed on average by 5% in terms of their nucleotide composition..

	201	211	221	231	241	251	261	271	281	291	300
pv	AA----	CCT GGGTTCAATA	GTCCTCCTTG	AACTCCATGC	AACTGGGTAG	ATTCAAGAGT	CATGAGATTT	TCATTAATCC	TCTCAGTTGA	TCAAGCAAGA	
b380	---	T. C
1523	--- C A ATT CA T.G. T G A A G
d57	--- T A C G
d56	--- TT A T CG G
ge446	--- C A ATT CA T.G. T G A AA G
ge1236	--- T A T A CA T.G. T A CG G
s485	--- C T A AA CA T.G. T G A G
gal636	--- T A A A CA G T G T G
s19	--- T A A A CA G T G T G
d421	--- T A A A CA G T G T G
gs637	--- T A A A CA G T G T G
j701	--- T A A A CA G T G T G
fe298	--- T A A A CA G T G T G
m710	--- T A A A CA G T G T G
m732	--- T A A A CA G T G T G
j5	--- TTA A A A C TTG T A A G
ati668	--- TTA A C TC AG A CA T G G
m420	TC T A G AA CA TTG T A CA G
m466	C T A G AA CA TTG T A CA G
m480	C T A G AA CA TTG T A CA G
gal878	--- TC A A AA CA TTG T A CA G
s693	C T A A AA CA TTG T A CA G
s970	--- T A GG AA CA TTG T A CA G
j158	--- T A A AA CA TTG AT A CA G
b256	--- T A A AA CA TTG T A CA G
m669	--- TAA A A G CA TCT G T ATA G
s926	--- T A A A CA TCT G T G G
fe47595	--- C A A ATT CA T G T G G
ati113	--- C A A ATT CA T T G A G
ge611	--- A A A ATT A T G T G G
ge1049	--- C A A ATT CA T G T G G
fe380	--- C A A ATT CA T G T G G
b127	--- C A C ATT CA T G T G G
galz1951	--- C A A A CA TAG AT GA AGGA G

	301	311	321	331	341	351	361	371	381	391	400
pv	TCATGTAGAT	TCTCATAATA	GGGGAGATCT	TCTAGCAGTT	TCAGTGACTA	ACGGTGCTTT	CATTCTCCAG	GAACTGACAC	CAACAGTTGT	AGACAAATCA	
b3E0	--- T A C A G G G T AG G
1523	--- T C A T T G
d57	--- T C A T T G
d56	--- T C A T T G
ge446	--- T A G CAA AGC G AC G T TC
ge1236	--- G T T CAA AG G TC T CA GGT
s485	--- G T T C A A G G C TC
gal636	--- G T T CAA AGC G G G TC G
s19	--- G T T CAA AGC G G G TC G
d421	--- G T T CAA AGC G G G TC G
gs637	--- G T T CAA AGC G G G TC G
j701	--- G T T CAA AG G G G TC G
fe298	--- T T T CAA GC G G G TC G
m710	--- T T T C A AGC G G TC G
m732	--- T T T CAA AGC G G G TC G
j5	--- T T T C A AGC G G TC G
ati668	--- G T T CAA A G G G TC G
m420	--- G T T C A A G G TC G
m466	--- G T T C A A G G TC G
m480	--- G T T C A A G G TC G
gal878	--- G T T C A A G G TC G
s693	--- G T TG C A A G G TC G
s970	--- G T T CAA AC G G G TC G
j158	--- G T G C A A G G TC G
b256	--- G T G C A A CG C G TC
m669	--- G T T AA GA G G G TC G
s926	--- G T G CAA A GA G G TC G
fe47595	--- G T T CAA AGC G AC G T TC
ati113	--- G T T A A C G G TC CA
ge611	--- G T T CAA AGC G AC G T TC
ge1049	--- G T T CAA AGC G G G TC G
fe380	--- G T T CAA A C G G TC G

	401	411	421	431	441	451	461	471	481	491	500
pv	CGGGGTGTCT	CAGGTGATTC	TGCGCTTGGG	CACAGACAAA	GGTCATGGTG	TGTTCCATGA	TAGCGGACTC	AGGATGA-GT	TAATTGAGAG	AGGCAATCTT	
b380	A.A.A.A.A.	.G.A.C.C.	C.T.	.G.	.T.A.A	CA.C.A.	.G.A.	.AC	CGT	.A	.G
1523	A.A.A.A.T.	.G.A.C.C.	C.T.	.G.	.A.A	C.C.A.	.A.	.A	CG	.A	.G
d57	A.A.A.A.T.	.G.A.C.C.	C.T.	.G.	.A.A	ACG.C.A.	.A.	.A	CG	.A	.G
d56	A.A.A.A.T.	.G.A.C.C.	C.T.	.G.	.A.A	C.C.A.	.A.	.A	CG	.A	.G
ge446	G.A.A.A.	.A.	.A.	.TA.	.G.	.A.TG.A.	.CA.C.C.	.G.AA.	.AT.C.	.C.G.	.A.G.CCT.G
ge1236	A.A.A.A.G	.G.A.A.	.A.AT.	.G.	.T.CA.C	CACC.C	.AA.	.AC.CA.	.C.GG.	.A.G.	.C.G
s485	A.A.A.A.G	.G.A.A.	.A.AT.	.G.	.A.T.A.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.CC.G
gal636	G.A.A.A	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AAG.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.	.A.G.	.TC.G
s19	G.A.A.A	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AAG.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.	.A.G.	.TC.G
d421	G.A.A.A	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.A.A.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.	.A.G.	.TC.G
gs637	A.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.A.	.A.G.	.TC.G
j701	A.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CA.GT.	.C.T.A.	.A.G.	.TC.CG
fe298	G.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.A	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CAG.	.C.T.	.A.G.	.TC.G
m710	G.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.	.A.G.	.TC.G
m732	G.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.	.A.G.	.TC.G
j5	A.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.A.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.	.A.G.	.TC.G
ati1668	A.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.A.	.A.G.	.TC.G
m420	A.A.A.A.G	.G.A.A.	.A.ATG.	.GA.G.	.T.G.A.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.C.CAG.	.C.	.A.G.	.C.G
m466	A.A.A.A.G	.G.A.C.	.A.ATG.	.TGA.GG	.A.TG.A.	CACC.C	.AA.CT	.AC.CAG.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.C.G
m480	A.A.A.A.G	.G.A.C.	.A.ATG.	.GA.GG	.A.TG.A.	CACC.C	.AA.CT	.AC.CAG.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.C.G
gal878	A.A.A.A.G	.G.A.A.	.A.AT.C.	.G.G.	.A.T.A.	CACC.C.A	.C.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.C.G
s693	A.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.AT.	.G.G.	.A.T.A.	CACC.C	.C.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.CC.G
s970	A.A.A.A.G	.G.A.C.	.A.ATG.	.GA.GG	.A.TG.A.	CACC.C	.AA.CT	.AC.CAG.	.C.	.A.G.	.C.G
j158	G.A.A.A.G	.G.A.	.A.T.C.	.G.G.	.A.T.A.	CACC.CC	.AA.T	.GAC.CA.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.CC.G
b256	G.A.A.A.G	.G.A.	.G.AT.	.G.A.	.T.A.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.GAC.CA.	.C.G.	.A.T.	.CC.G
m669	A.A.A.A.TG	.G.	.A.AT.A	.G.	.AA.	CACC.C	.G.AAGAA	.AC.C.	.C.GA.	.A.G.	.CC.G
s926	GT.A.A.TG	.G.	.A.AT.A	.G.	.AA.	CACC.C	.G.AAGAA	.AC.C.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.CC.G
fe47595	G.A.A.A.TG	.A.	.A.CC.	.AG.G.	.A.TG.A.	CA.C.C	.G.AA.	.AT.C.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.CCT.G
ati113	TTA.A.TG	.A.	.A.CC.	.TG.G.G.	.ATGGA.	CA.C.C	.G.A.	.AT.C.	.C.G.	.A.	.CC.C
ge611	GT.A.A.GC	.AG.A.T.	.CT.C	.AG.G.	.A.TG.A.	.C.C	.G.AA.T	.AT.C.	.C.G.	.A.GA.	.CC.G
ge1049	G.A.A.A.G	.AG.A.	.A.CT.	.TG.G.G.	.TGCA.	CACC.C	.AA.T	.AC.CA.	.C.T.A.	.A.G.	.TC.G
fe380	G.A.A.A.TG	.A.	.A.C.	.G.G.	.A.TG.A.	CA.C.C	.G.AA.	.AT.C.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.C.C.G
b127	GA.A.A.TG	.A.C.	.A.CC.	.TG.G.G.	.A.TG.A.	CA.C.C	.G.AA.	.AT.C.G.	.C.G.	.A.G.	.CC.CG
galz1951	A.A.A.A.T	.G.C.	C.T.	.G.	.A.CA	CACC.C	.A.	.AT.C.	.C.TC.A.	.G.	.CCT.G

	501	511	521	531	541	551	561	571	581	591	601
pv	CCTCCCGTGA	AGGACACAAG	CAGTAGCTCA	CAATCATCTC	GTGTTTCAGC	AAAGTGTGCA	TAATTATAAA	GTGCTGGGTC	ATCTAAGCTT	TTCAGTCGAG	AAAAA
b380	.AA.	.T.	.A.	.G.	.T	.CA.C	.T.	.G.	.G.	.A.	.A
1523	.AA.	.T.	.A.	.TG.	.T	.CA.C	.T.	.G.	.G.	.A.	.A
d57	.AA.	.T.	.A.	.G.	.T	.CA.C	.T.	.G.	.G.	.A.	.A
d56	.AA.	.T.	.A.	.G.	.T	.CA.C	.T.	.G.	.G.	.A.	.A
ge446	.G.A.	.T.T.	.CA.A.	.GT	.CA.C	.T	.TC.	.C.C	.G.A.	.C.AC	
ge1236	.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.T	.C.C.G.	.G.C.	.C.A.C	.A
s485	.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.T	.CA.C	.GTT	.T	.C.C.G.	.G.C.	.C.A.C	.A
gal636	.C.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.G	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.	.C.GA
s19	.C.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.G	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.GA.A
d421	.C.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.G	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.GA.A
gs637	.C.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.G	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.GA.A
j701	.C.AA.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.G	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.GA.A
fe298	.C.T.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.G	.TCT	.CA.C	.T	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.TGA.A
m710	.TA.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.TG	.C	.CA.CC	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.A.A
m732	.T.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.TG	.C	.CA.CC	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.A.A
j5	.TA.	.T.	.CA.A.	.T.G.TG	.C	.CA.CC	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.A.A
ati1668	.C.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.G	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.G.A.C	.GA.A
m420	.A.	.CT.T	.CA.A.	.T	.CA.C	.TT	.T	.C.C	.G.TTC	.C.A.C	.A
m466	.A.	.CT.T	.CA.A.	.T	.CA.C	.TT	.T	.C.C	.G.TTC	.C.A.C	.A
m480	.A.	.T.T	.CA.A.	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.T	.C.C	.G.TTC	.C.A.C	.A
gal878	.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.CT	.CA.C	.GTT	.T	.C.C	.G.TTC	.C.A.C	.A
s693	.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.T	.CA.C	.GTT	.T	.C.C	.G.TTC	.C.A.C	.A
s970	.A.	.T.T	.CA.A.	.CT	.CA.C	.GTT	.T	.C.C	.G.TTC	.C.A.C	.A
j158	.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.CT	.CA.C	.GTT	.T	.C.C	.G.TTC	.C.A.A	.A
b256	.A.	.T.	.CA.	.T	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.C.C	.G.TTC	.A.C	.A
m669	.A.	.GT.	.CA.AC	.T	.G.CT	.CA.C	.T	.C.CC	.G.AA	.G.A.	.A.A
s926	.A.	.GT.	.CA.A.	.T	.G.CT	.CA.C	.T	.A.CC	.G.AA	.G.A.	.A.A
fe47595	.G.A.	.G.T.	.CA.A.	.GT	.CA.C	.T	.C	.C.C	.G.AA	.C.GA	.C.AC
ati113	.G.A.	.T.T.	.CA.G.A.	.AGT	.CA.C	.T	.C	.C.C	.G.AA	.C.GA	.C.AC
ge611	.G.A.	.T.T.	.CA.A.	.AT	.CA.C	.T	.C	.C.C	.G.AA	.C.AC	.A
ge1049	.C.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.G.G	.CT	.CA.C	.TT	.A	.C.C	.G.A.C	.GA.A
fe380	.A.	.T.	.CA.A.	.T	.CA.C	.TT	.TC.	.C.C	.G.AA	.C.AC	.A
b127	.G.TA.	.G.T.	.A.A.	.GT	.GA.C	.T	.C	.C.C	.G.AA	.C.AC	.A
galz1951	T.A.	.G.G.	.CA.A.	.T	.CA.C	.T	.A	.C.C	.G.AA	.C.AC	.A

Figure 2.4 Alignment of the nucleotide sequences of the intergenic region and the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein of rabies virus isolates. The full nucleotide sequence of the reference strain, the Pasteur Virus (PV) are shown. Sequence identity with PV are indicated by dots (.), deletions indicated by dashes (-). Alignments were generated by the ClustalW computer program (Thompson *et al.*, 1994). The prefixes d, j, b, s, gal, ge, fe, m, ati and gs indicates the host species namely dogs, jackals, bat-eared foxes, suricates, galerella, genets, felines, mongoose, atilax and ground squirrels.

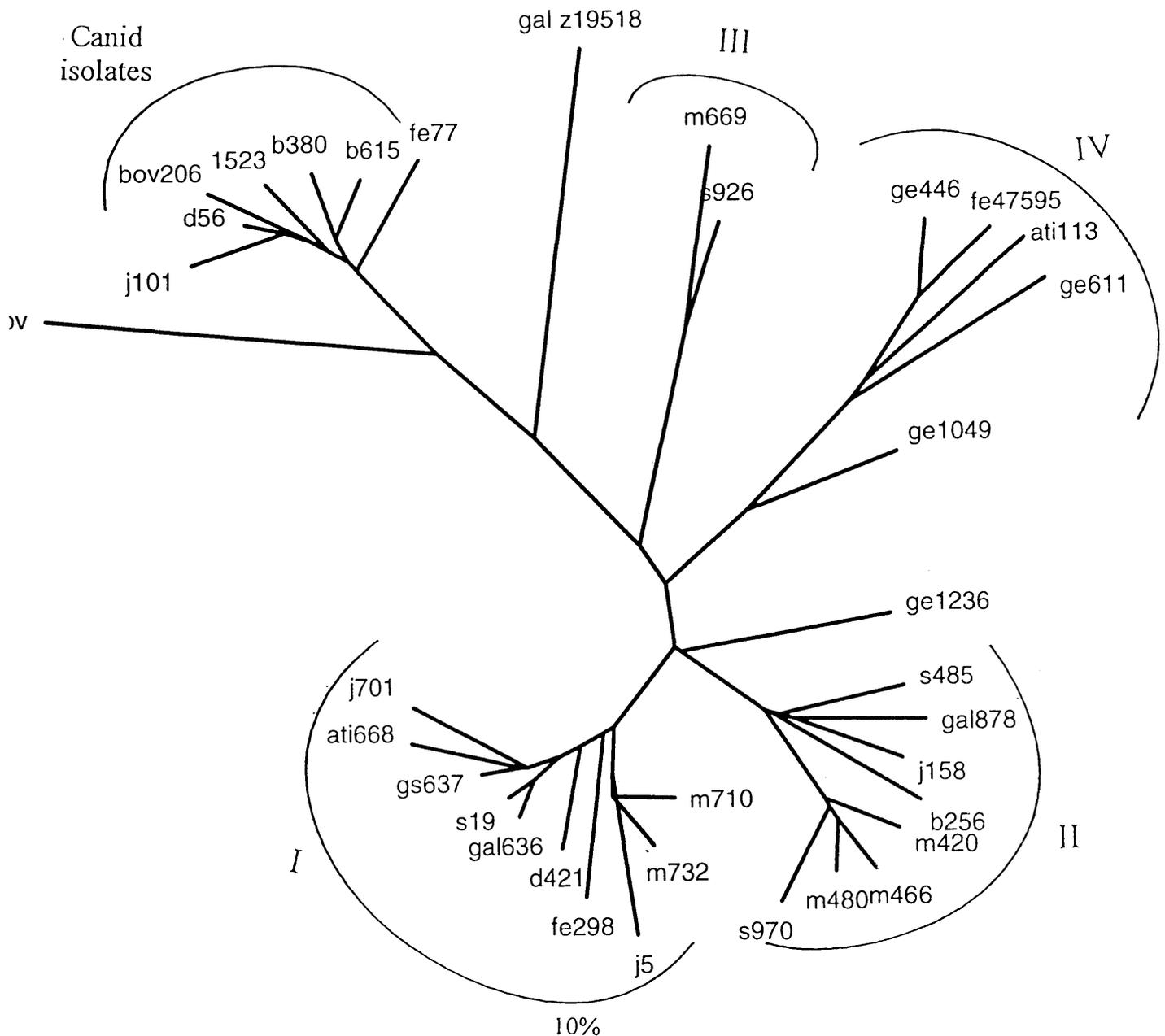


Figure 2.5 Phylogenetic relationship of South African rabies viruses isolated from viverrid and canid hosts. The relationships are presented as an unrooted tree with branch lengths being proportional to the estimated genetic distance between the virus isolates. The scale bar represents the % nucleotide difference. The tree was generated by the ClustalW program (Thompson *et al.*, 1994) by comparing sequence data derived from the G/L intergenic region and the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein. The prefixes d, j, b, s, gal, ge, fe, m, ati, bov and gs indicates the host species namely dogs, jackals, bat-eared foxes, suricates, galerella, genets, mongooses, atilax, bovine and ground squirrels. The position of the Zimbabwean isolate, gal z19518, is also indicated (section 2.3.3.3).

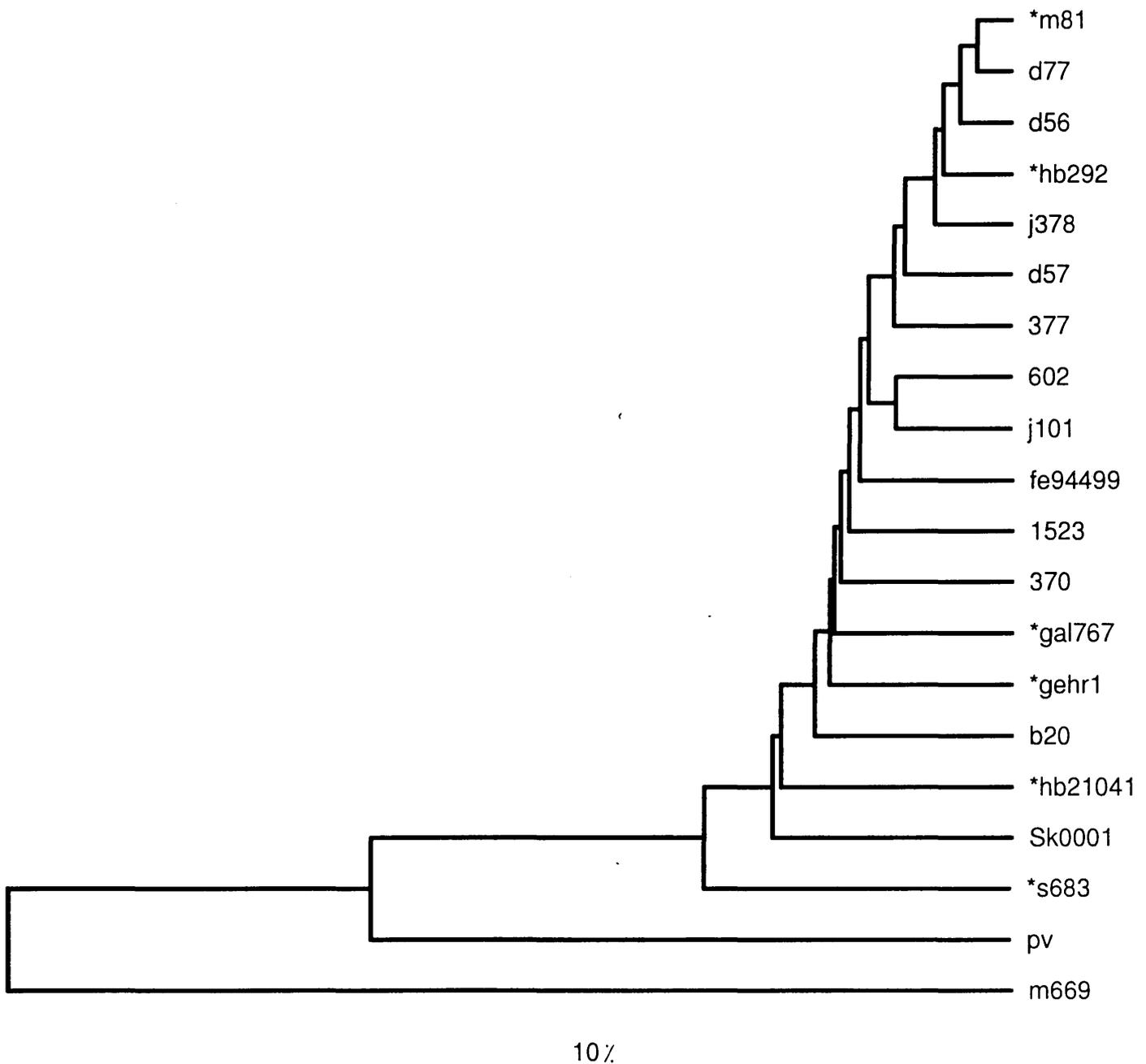


Figure 2.6 Phylogenetic relationship of South African canid rabies viruses: those from typical canid hosts and from spillover viverrid hosts. Spillover isolates are indicated by *. Isolates m669 and pv was included to indicate the position of the viverrid viruses and the European canid viruses, respectively. Horizontal branch lengths reflect the phylogenetic distances, vertical lines are non-informative and set for clarity only. The PHYLIP programme KITSCH (Felsenstein, 1993) was used for this analysis. The prefixes d, j, b, sk, gal, ge, fe, m, hb, and s indicate the host species namely dogs, jackals, bat-eared foxes, skunk, galerella, genets, felines, mongoose, honey badgers and suricates.

2.3.3.3 Sequence analysis of rabies isolates from Zimbabwe.

It has been demonstrated that Zimbabwean rabies viruses of mongoose origin (in particular the slender mongoose) were antigenically related to three other South African viverrid viruses. In correspondence to the South African rabies epidemiology, these “mongoose” viruses exhibited serological reactivity patterns distinguishable from those viruses circulating in dogs and jackals (Foggin, 1988 & King *et al.*, 1993). In an attempt to investigate the relationship of these viruses to our current viverrid isolates, two isolates: one from a slender mongoose (galz19518) and the other from a civet (zim22574) were retained for similar genetic analysis. Isolate galz19518 (viverrid biotype) was clearly separable from the South African viverrid isolates, showing up to 30% sequence divergence, but sharing a common ancestor with isolates from cluster III (Figure 2.5). The analysis of z22574 (biotype indeterminate) proved more difficult due to poor amplification and only an internal 260 bp of the G-L intergenic region was sequenced. Phylogenetic analysis was carried out by aligning this sequence to corresponding portions of other canid and viverrid viruses (Figure 2.7). This isolate was closely associated with the known canid viruses as indicated in Figure 2.8, sharing a recent common ancestor with a dog isolate from Pietermaritzburg. Nucleotide sequence differences of 21% and 37% was observed when respectively compared to the reference strain, PV and m669, a typical South African viverrid isolate. An overall sequence similarity of 96% was observed when compared to known canid viruses.

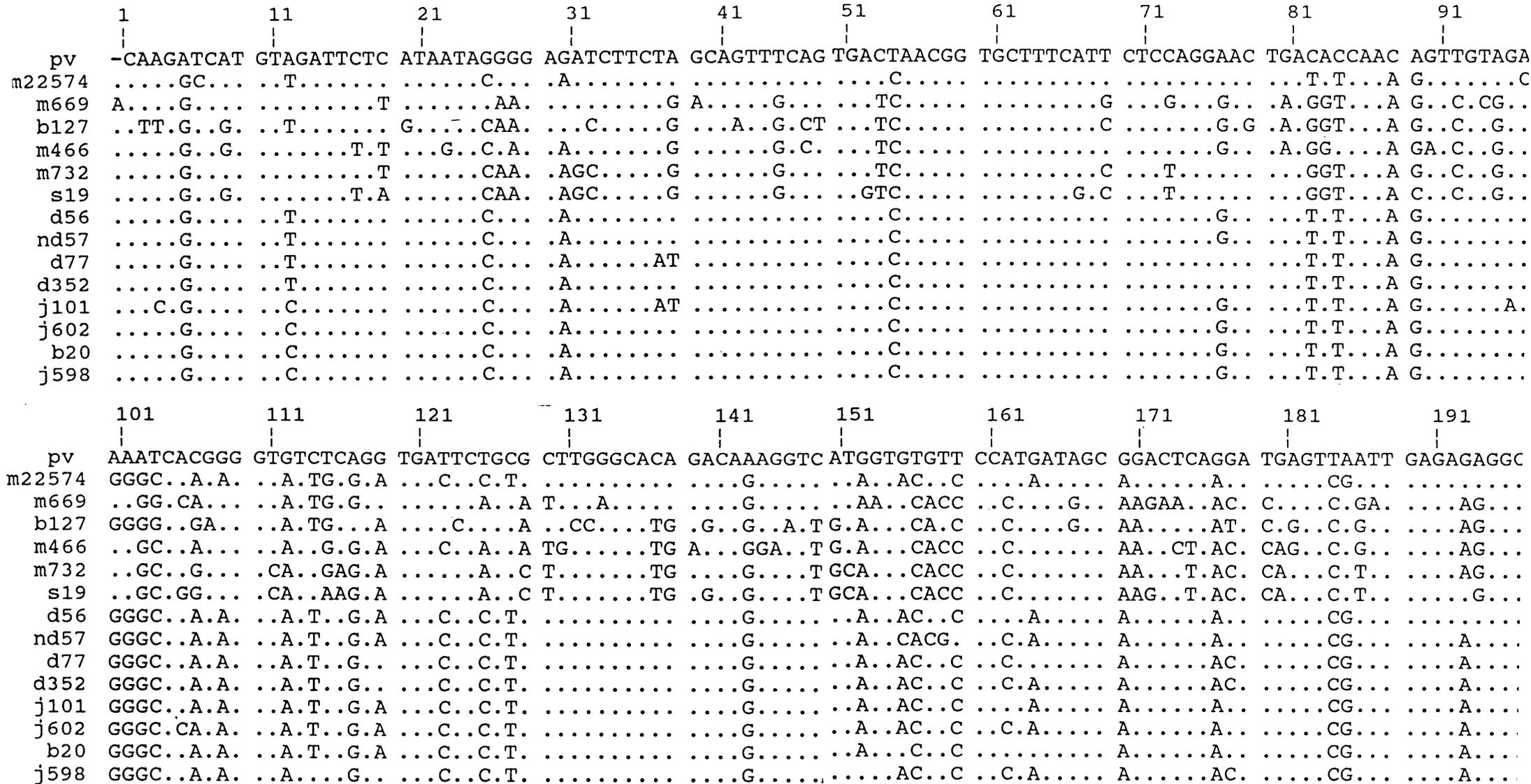


Figure 2.7 Alignment of the nucleotide sequences of isolate z22574. A 260 bp sequence within the intergenic region was obtained using the P₁ sequencing primer and aligned against the corresponding regions of the Pasteur Virus (PV) and a selection of other rabies isolates. Dots show identity. Alignments were carried out as described in text (section 2.2.10)

continuation of Figure 2.7

	201	211	221	231	241	251
pv	ATCTTCCTCC	CGTGAAGGAC	ACAAGCAGTA	GCTCACAATC	ATCTCGTGTT	TCAGCAAAGT
zim22574G.....	AA.....	.T.....A..TG...T.CA.CT.
m669	CC..G.....	.A.....	GT....CA..	.AC..T....	.G.CT.CA.C	...T..GT.-
b127	CC.CG..G.T	A.....G.	.T.....A..	.A.....	...GT.GA.C	...T.....C
m466	C...G...ACT	.T....CA..	.A.....T.CA.C	...TT.....
m732	TC..G.....	T.....	.T....CA..	.A....G.T	G..C..CA.C	C..TT.....
s19	TC..G..C..	.A.....	.T....CA..	.A....G..	G..CT.CA.C	...TT.....
d56G.....	AA.....	.T....A..G...T.CA.CT.
nd57G.....	AA.....	.T....A..G...T.CA.CT.
d77G.....	AA.....	.T....A..G...T.CA.CT.
d352G.....	AA.....	.T....A..	...T.G...T.CA.CT.
j101G.....	AA.....	.T....A..TG...T.CA.CT.
j602G.....	AA.....	.T....A..	...TTG...T.CA.C	...T...C.
b20G.....	AA.....	.T....CA..GT.CA.C	...T...C.
j598G.....	AA.....	.T....A..G...T.CA.CT.

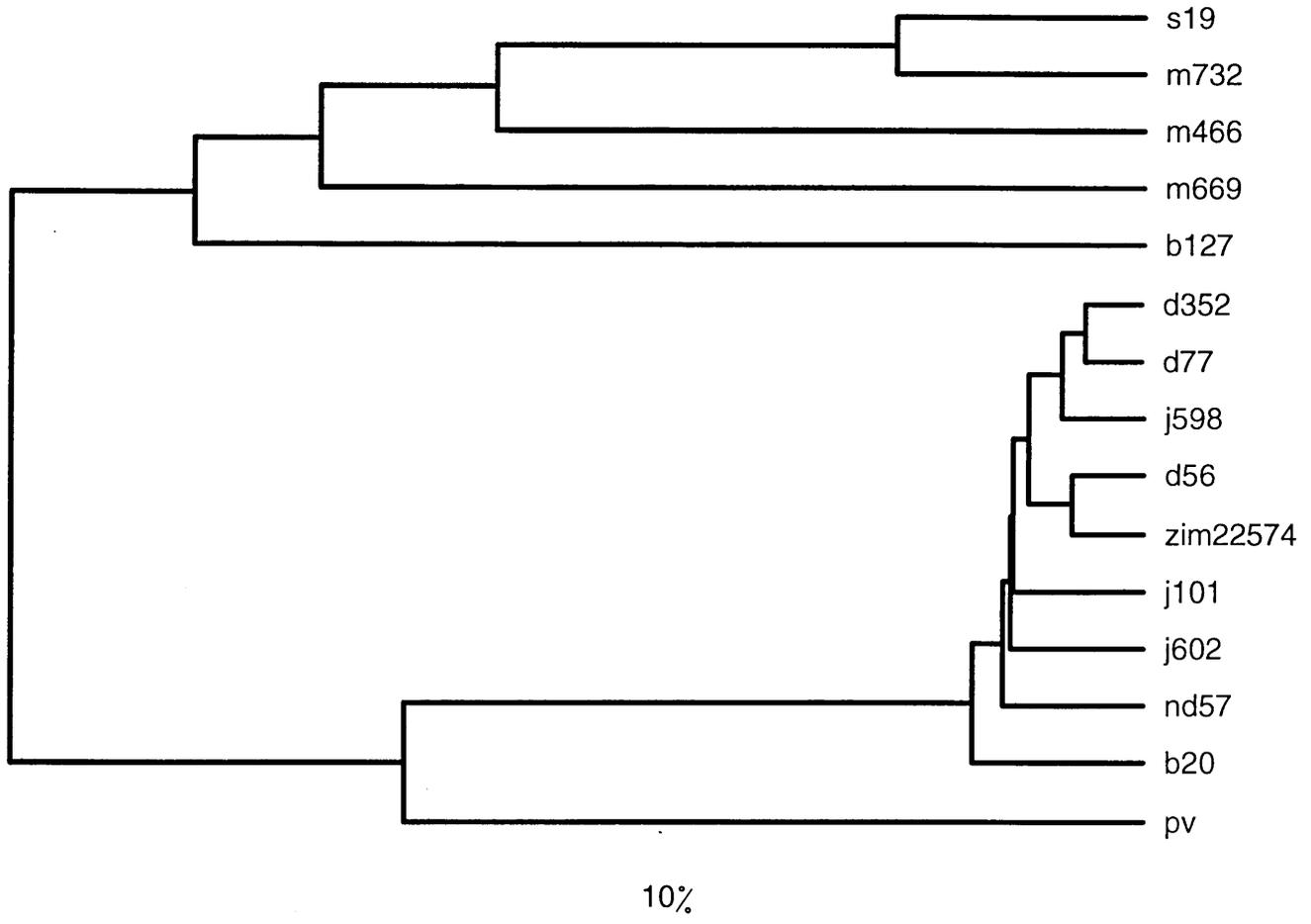


Figure 2.8 A phylogenetic analysis expressing the relationship of South African canid and viverrid rabies viruses and zim22574. This unrooted tree was constructed using sequence data obtained from a portion of the intergenic region (260 bp) as described in section 2.3.3.3. Isolates s19, m732, m466, m669 and b127 were included to indicate the viverrid lineage. The pasteur virus (pv) was included to indicate the position of the European canid isolates. The prefixes d, j, b, m and s indicate the host species namely dogs, jackals, bat-eared foxes, mongoose and suricates.

2.4 DISCUSSION.

It has been known for some time now that two rabies virus biotypes are present in southern Africa: those infecting members of the family *Canidae* and those infecting viverrid hosts (King *et al.*, 1993). The objective of this part of the current study had been to characterise these viral variants by nucleotide sequence analysis focusing particularly on the viruses infecting viverrid hosts. To this end the variable G-L intergenic region and the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein were targeted and found suitable for the phylogenetic resolution of the rabies viruses circulating in southern Africa. The most important wildlife viverrid hosts from which isolates were obtained includes: different mongoose species, genets, suricates and civets.

It was clear that the South African viverrid viruses were composed of four genetically distinct clusters. These clusters were not defined in terms of a specific viverrid host species but rather correlated closely to the geographic origin of the virus isolates. The occurrence of this genetically distinct virus groups is indicative of independent evolutionary processes, suggesting possible physical isolation of the viruses. The gregarious nature of viverrid species, in particular the yellow mongoose, in combination with physiographical barriers facilitates the maintenance of the virus within a given geographic area. Past climatic regimes were responsible for the establishment of three genetically separable subspecies of yellow mongooses (Taylor, 1993). One of the subspecies, occurring over the central part of the country, may be more susceptible to rabies virus infection than the other subspecies. Additionally, the social structure of the yellow mongoose leads to low heterozygosity, which predisposes them to higher susceptibility to disease (O'Brien and Everman, 1988). The preservation of these epidemiological units depends on the mobility of the species and the geographical determinants involved. The position of isolate ge1236 on phylogenetic trees, where the isolate is placed indeterminately between major phylogenetic clusters is of interest. This placement may indicate the position of previously unrecognised groups or the merging of neighbouring clusters; a more accurate description may emerge as more isolates become available.

Rabies and rabies-related viruses in Zimbabwe had been serologically characterised by Foggin (1988). Although the disease in *Galerella sanguinea* (slender mongoose) appeared to represent a separate cycle of rabies infection it was related to the South African viverrid rabies. The close relationship of one of these viruses (galz19518) to the third viverrid cluster possibly indicates the phylogenetic position of a new cluster of viverrid viruses extending beyond the South African borders. The inability of our current approach to determine the complete G-L intergenic sequence of the other isolate (z22574) speculates this to be a unique and previously uncharacterised rabies strain.

The occurrence of the principal viverrid viral type in jackals and bat-eared foxes has been described by King *et al.*, (1993). Monoclonal antibody analysis recently indicated the occurrence of the inverse situation; where canid viruses were recovered from mongoose species, genets and suricates. This investigation suggests that spillover events in both directions do not constitute a separate lineage within canid or viverrid rabies indicating little modification of the viruses in atypical hosts. Canid spillover viruses are closely related to the known canid cluster while viverrid spillovers are associated with the clusters corresponding to their geographic origin. Studies by Chapparo *et al.*, (1993) indicated that transmission of the canid virus to mongoose leads to lethal infection with little virus being excreted in the saliva thus reducing the possibility of further transmission. This indicates the high level of host species adaptation. A closer examination of epizootiological information and distribution of the host species led to the identification of the probable source of viverrid spillovers. Spillover isolates b127 and b256 from bat-eared foxes and j158 from a black-backed jackal were obtained from geographical regions where viverrid rabies is most commonly observed in the yellow mongoose, a most likely source for these spillover events. The hypothesis is further supported by the position of these isolates, with the exception of b127, within a cluster which are primarily composed of isolates obtained from yellow mongooses. In a similar way suricates could also be considered possible sources for the spillover events concerning j5, d421 and j701. The responsible source for canid spillover into viverrid hosts is not easily identifiable suggesting multiple origins of infections.

The results obtained in this part of the investigation indicates the genetic heterogeneity of South African viverrid viruses, which may be particularly unique when considering the size of the enzootic area. This detailed analysis substantially contributed to the existing sequence database of South African rabies virus isolates. These nucleotide sequences were subsequently used for the development of a discriminating PCR assay as described in the following chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

A NUCLEOTIDE-SPECIFIC POLYMERASE CHAIN REACTION ASSAY TO DIFFERENTIATE RABIES VIRUS ISOLATES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The molecular genetic relationships of rabies viruses circulating in southern Africa were investigated in the previous chapter. A phylogeny of these viruses was derived based on sequence variation within the G-L intergenic region and the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein. This analysis, complementing similar investigations by Nel *et al.*, (1993) and von Teichman *et al.*, (1995), indicated that two distinct viral types are respectively infecting canid and viverrid host species and that the viverrid virus genotype is composed of four geographically related clusters.

Confirmatory tests such as the intracerebral inoculation of new-born mice, rabies tissue culture infection and the rapid rabies enzyme immunodiagnosis represent significant advances made over the last thirty years in rabies diagnosis. The major drawback of most of these techniques, especially the intracerebral inoculation, is the amount of time required before a positive confirmation can be made (Sacramento *et al.*, 1991). Consequently, two less time-consuming approaches, the demonstration of the virus antigen by immunofluorescence and the enzyme-linked immunoassay, are widely used diagnostic tools (Swanepoel, 1994; Bourhy *et al.*, 1989) although fixatives such as formalin might mask the viral antigen (Barnard *et al.*, 1982). The application of the polymerase chain reaction (Saiki *et al.*, 1985 & 1988, Mullis *et al.*, 1987) provided improved methods for rapid and reliable diagnosis and strain differentiation. Ermine *et al.*, (1990) employed a polymerase chain reaction protocol in an attempt to increase the sensitivity of rabies virus hybridisation tests. Further examples of the application of PCR to rabies diagnosis include the partial amplification of the nucleoprotein of rabies samples (Sacramento *et al.*, 1991) and an investigation into the unexplained deaths of three immigrants in the United States (Smith *et al.*, 1991). Demonstrating the advantage of PCR-based diagnosis over the conventional immunological detection, Kamolvarin *et al.*, (1993) were able to detect viral RNA (as little as 8 pg) in brain samples left at room temperature for an extended period of time.

Currently, the diagnosis and detection of rabies in South Africa is based on a fluorescent antibody analysis. In order to distinguish between the viverrid and the canid viruses, fluorescent positive rabies samples are passaged in Baby Hamster Kidney cells and analysed by exposure to a panel of nucleoprotein-specific monoclonal antibodies (King *et al.*, 1993).

Based on the difference in fluorescence patterns, canid and viverrid rabies viruses can be identified. Although sequence analysis has been used to determine the epidemiological relationships among different rabies viruses (Smith *et al.*, 1992 & 1993; Sacramento *et al.*, 1992; Nadin Davis *et al.*, 1993 and von Teichman *et al.*, 1995), its application to routine diagnosis may prove extremely expensive. To rapidly differentiate and identify the infecting strain, several authors have consequently used strain-specific oligonucleotides in a PCR analysis as an alternative to routine sequencing (Marschall *et al.*, 1995; Sullivan *et al.*, 1995; Vangrysperre *et al.*, 1996). Recently, Nadin-Davis *et al.* (1996) employed a similar approach to discriminate between the racoon rabies virus and the indigenous strains in Ontario. In contrast to genome sequencing, type-specific PCR assays presents a rapid method for characterising virus isolates.

Thus, the aim of this part of the investigation was to develop a PCR assay which can distinguish between canid and viverrid viruses irrespective of host species or geographic origin. The discriminating oligonucleotides were designed based on the sequences of the G-L intergenic region and the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein. It was envisaged that, when used in a hemi-nested reaction, these primers would give amplification products of distinctly different sizes enabling rapid differentiation of the viruses.

3.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.2.1 Rabies virus isolates

Isolates included in this investigation were selected so as to include a representative number of both the canid and the viverrid virus biotypes. These isolates were previously characterised by sequence analysis (Chapter 2) or by von Teichman *et al.*, (1995). The viverrid viruses were: 701/92, 636/90, 926/93, 421/92, 5/91, 668/92, 158/91, 298/90, 256/90 and 669/90 while the canid viruses were: 152, 77/93, 820, HR1/79, NBA5, 589/90, 831, 31/96, SK0001 and NBA2. Information regarding their host species and geographic origin are summarised in Table 2.2 (Chapter 2). Additionally a collection of 12 rabies positive isolates were obtained from the Rabies Unit of the Veterinary Institute at Onderstepoort. These isolates were analysed by a panel of anti-nucleoprotein monoclonal antibodies; molecular characteristics with regard to their nucleotide sequence variations were unknown. A summary of the 12 isolates are given in Table 3.1.

3.2.2 cDNA synthesis and Reverse transcription PCR

A detailed methodology of RNA preparation, cDNA synthesis and PCR amplification of the relevant genome regions are described in Chapter 2. Briefly, the viral RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA and used as template for amplifying the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein and the G-L intergenic region. Amplification was achieved using the G(+) and L(-) primer set; the priming positions of these oligonucleotides are indicated in Figure 2.2.

3.2.3 Design of biotype-specific oligonucleotides.

The two biotype-specific primers were designed based on the sequence of the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein and the G/L intergenic region. These sequences were generated from this study (Chapter 2) and a previous analysis by von Teichman *et al.*, (1995). Multiple sequence alignments were performed using the automatic sequence alignment function of the DAPSA (Harley, 1992) computer package. Sequences from the cytoplasmic domain (cd) and the intergenic region were aligned separately to allow for optimal sequence alignment. Optimal alignments were generated by manipulating program's parameters in the following way: sequence segments of varying length were considered and the % match required between these segments were varied by adjusting the stringency level. An increase in this value increases the % match required between segments being compared before an alignment is

(i)

10	20	30	40	50	60	70
tcaatcgacc	agaatctacg	caacgcagtc	tcggagggac	agggaggaag	gtgtcgggtca	cttcccaaag
80	90	100	110	120	130	140
cggaaggtc	atatcttcat	gggagtcata	taaaagtggg	ggtgagacta	gactgtaaaa	gctgggtcatc
150	160	170	180	190	200	210
ctttcgacgc	ttcaagtctt	gaaggtcacc	tccccttggg	cttgggggga		

(ii)

10	20	30	40	50	60	70
tccatcgacc	agaatccaaa	caacacagtc	tcagagggac	agagaggaag	gtgtcgggtca	cctcccaaag
80	90	100	110	120	130	140
cgaaaagcc	atatacctcat	gggagtcata	taagaacggg	ggtgagacca	gaatgtgagg	gccgggtcggt
150	160	170	180	190	200	210
ctttcgacgc	ttaagtctt	ggaggtcatc	tccccttggg	gttaagggga		

Figure 3.1 (A) Consensus sequences of the cytoplasmic domain of the (i) canid and the viverrid biotype(ii)

(i)

10	20	30	40	50	60	70
TCTGAGTTCA	ACAGTCCCTCC	TTGAACTCCA	TGCAACAGGG	TAGATTCAAG	AGTCATGAGA	CTTTCATTAA
80	90	100	110	120	130	140
TCATCTCAGT	TGATCAAACA	AGGTCATGTT	GATTCTCATA	ATACGGGAAA	TCTTCTAGCA	GTTTCAGTGA
150	160	170	180	190	200	210
CCAACGGTGC	TTTCATTCTC	CAGGAACTGA	TATCAAAGGT	TGTAGACGGG	CCAAGAGGTA	TTTCGGGTGA
220	230	240	250	260	270	280
CTCCGTGCTT	GGGCACAGAC	AGAGGTCATA	GTACGTCCCA	TAATAGCAGA	CTCAACATGA	GTCGATTGAG
290	300	310	320	330	340	350
AAAGGCAATC	TGCCTCCAAT	GAAGGACATA	AGCAATAAGC	TCACGATCAT	CTTGCATCTC	AGCAATTGTG
360	370	380	390	400	410	420
CATAATTATA	AAGGGCTGGG	TCATCTAAGC	TTTTTCAGTCG	AGAAAAAAA		

(ii)

10	20	30	40	50	60	70
TCAGAGTTCA	ATAGACCCTCC	TCAAACCTCG	TGTAACAGGG	TAGATTCCAG	AGTCACGAGG	TTTTCTTCAA
80	90	100	110	120	130	140
TCATCTCAGT	TGATCAGACA	AGGTCGTGTA	GATTTTTATA	ATACAAGAAG	CCTTCTGGCA	GTTGCAGTGA
150	160	170	180	190	200	210
TCAACGGTGC	TTTCATCCTC	TAGGAACTAA	GGTCAAAGGT	CGTGGACAAG	CCAGGGGGTA	TCGAGGATGA
220	230	240	250	260	270	280
TTCAGCATTT	GGGCACGGAC	AGAGGTTGTA	GTGCACCCCC	TGATAGCAA	CTTAACACAA	GTCAGTTGAG
290	300	310	320	330	340	350
AAGGGCACCC	TGCCTCCCAT	GAAGGACATA	AGCCATAGAT	CACAATCATC	CTGCATCTCA	TTAAAGTGTG
360	370	380	390	400	410	420
CACAACTATA	AAGGGCTGGT	TCATCTGAAC	TCTTCAATCG	AGAAAAAAA		

Figure 3.1 (B) Consensus sequence of the G/L intergenic region for the (i) canid and (ii) viverrid biotype.

TABLE 3.1 Rabies virus isolates used in this study including their reactivity with the type-specific oligonucleotides. Other rabies isolates used (section 3.2.1) are described in Table 2.1(section 2.2.1)

REFERENCE NUMBER	HOST SPECIES	GEOGRAPHICAL ORIGIN	Mab TYPING	Pcan(+) and L(-)	Pviv(+) and L(-)
928/94	<i>Galerella sanguinea</i>	Coligny	V	-	+
610/94	<i>Feline sp.*</i>	Tarkastad	V	-	+
1716/80	<i>Feline sp.*</i>	Kuruman	V	-	+
567/94	<i>Atilax paludinosus</i>	Alexandria	V	-	+
461/94	<i>Feline sp.*</i>	Prins Alber	V	-	+
710/90	<i>Cynictis penicillata</i>	Fauresmith	V	-	+
522/95	<i>Felis serval</i>	Hofmeyer	V	=	=
866/94	<i>Galerella sanguinea</i>	Ventersdorp	V	-	+
782/94	<i>Bovine</i>	Ventersdorp	V	-	+
919/95	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	Kuruman	V	-	+
1058/94	<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	Vrede	V	-	+
110/95	<i>Cynictis penicillata</i>	Port Elizabeth	V	-	+
558/95	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Middelburg	V	-	+
262/95	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Piketberg	V	=	+
500/94	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Fort Beaufort	V	=	=
484/94	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	Exelsior	V	=	+
427/94	<i>Feline sp.*</i>	Molteno	V	-	+
774/95	<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	Carnavon	C	+	-
48/94	<i>Canis mesomales</i>	Warmbaths	C	+	-
460/94	<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	Namaqualand	C	+	-
489/95	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	Graaff Reinett	C	+	-
716/95	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	Wesselbron	C	+	-
583/94	<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	Malmesbury	C	+	-
718/94	<i>bovine sp.</i>	Ermelo	C	+	-

+ amplification

- no amplification

= double bands, larger than the expected size.

* exact species not positively identified

accepted. A stringency level of 12 was sufficient for our purposes. Using these alignments consensus sequences (Figure 3.1) were determined manually for each of the established rabies biotypes. In a similar way the consensus sequences were aligned each other to identify areas of sequence variation (Figure 3.2). Type-specific primers were designed to anneal specifically to their respective genotypes, thereby generating amplification products of characteristic size for each rabies biotype. The target regions for each of these type-specific primers are indicated in Figure 3.3. The canid-specific and the viverrid-specific primers were designated $P_{\text{can}(+)}$ and $P_{\text{viv}(+)}$ respectively and were chemically synthesized (Boehringer Mannheim), at a scale of 0.2 μM .

3.2.4 Rabies virus typing by a nested PCR using type-specific primers.

The virus typing was performed in two separate reaction tubes in a second round hemi-nested PCR. The template for this reaction was generated by a first round of amplification using the G-L primer set as described in section 3.2.2. The reaction was performed in a 50 μl reaction containing 5 μl of diluted first round product (1:500 in sterile distilled water), 100 μM of each dNTP, 1.5 mM MgCl_2 , 50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 9.0; 0.1% Triton X-100 (supplied in *Taq* 10X buffer), 100 pMol of the L(-) as common primer and 100 pMol of either $P_{\text{can}(+)}$ or $P_{\text{viv}(+)}$ and 0.25U of *Taq* DNA polymerase (Promega). Following an initial denaturation of 5 minutes at 95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, the samples were subjected to 30 cycles of denaturing at 94 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 seconds, annealing at 68 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($P_{\text{can}(+)}$) or 59.5 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($P_{\text{viv}(+)}$) for 30 seconds and elongation of 1 minute at 72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Amplified products were visualised on 1.5% agarose gels (Saambrook *et al.*, 1989).

3.2.5 Direct sequencing of type-specific amplification products

Direct sequence analysis was performed on a selection of differential products of amplification in order to verify their identity. These products were purified by gel elution and subsequent phenol-chloroform extractions or the GeneClean method (Bio 101Inc) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Sequencing reactions were carried using the SequiThermTM Cycle Sequencing System (Epicentre Technologies). These reactions were primed by either the $P_{\text{can}(+)}$ primer or $P_{\text{viv}(+)}$ oligonucleotides depending on the template in question. A detailed description of the purification and the sequencing reactions are given in Chapter 2.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Design of biotype-specific primers

In order to design biotype-specific primers a consensus sequence for the both genotypes were determined. The consensus sequences of the cytoplasmic domain and the intergenic region are indicated in Figure 3.1. A comparison between the two biotype-specific consensus sequences revealed a 17% nucleotide difference when considering the cytoplasmic domain. A similar comparison of the consensus sequences of the intergenic region showed a 20% nucleotide difference. These areas of sequence variation within the consensus sequence were considered for potential priming sites, boxed in Figure 3.2. The first potential primer position was located within the cytoplasmic domain, approximately 204 bp downstream from the priming site of the G(+) primer. Within this region 5 nucleotide substitutions were present in, three of which were present near the 3' end of the site. The comparison of the intergenic consensus sequences provided the second potential site with 9 nucleotide substitutions were present in close proximity. The first site was selected as a priming site for a viverrid-specific primer, a wobble position was included within this primer (marked by an arrow) as 12% of isolates analysed had an Adenine (A) residue at this position. When compared to homologous sequence, templates of the canid biotype, this primer had an average melting temperature (T_m) of 45⁰C; on heterologous templates this primer had a T_m = 21. The target site for the canid-specific primer was the second region within the intergenic. A 17-mer primer, with an average homologous T_m =50⁰C and a heterologous T_m =18⁰C was designed with the potential to amplify canid isolates preferentially.

(i)

						60
gcan	TCAATCGACC	AGAATCTACG	CAACGCAGTC	TCGGAGGGAC	AGGGAGGAAG	GTGTCGGTCA
gviv	••C••••••••	••••••••C•AA	••••••A•••••	••A••••••••	••A••••••••	••••••••••••
						120
gcan	CTTCCCAAAG	CGGGAAGGTC	ATATCTTCAT	GGGAGTCATA	TAAAAGTGGG	GGTGAGACTA
gviv	•C••••••••	••••A•A•C•	••••••C••••	••••••••••	•••G•AC•••	••••••••••C•
						180
gcan	GACTGTAAAA	GCTGGTCATC	CTTTCGACGC	TTCAAGTTCT	GAAGGTCACC	TCCCCTGGG
gviv	••A•••G•GG	••C••••G•T	••••••••••	••T••••CT•	•G••••••T•	••••••C••••
gcan	CTTGGGGGGA					
gviv	G••AA•••••					

(ii)

						60
canids	TCTGAGTTCA	ACAGTCCTCC	TTGAACTCCA	TGCAACAGGG	TAGATTCAAG	AGTCATGAGA
vivs	••A••••••••	•T•A••••••	•CA••••T•G	••T•••••••	•••••••C••	••••••C•••G
						120
canids	CTTTCATTAA	TCATCTCAGT	TGATCAAACA	AGGTCATGTT	GATTCTCATA	ATACGGGAAA
vivs	T••••T•C••	••••••••••	••••••G•••	••••••G•••A	••••T•T•••	••••AA•••G
						180
canids	TCTTCTAGCA	GTTTCAGTGA	CCAACGGTGC	TTTCATTCTC	CAGGAACTGA	TATCAAAGGT
vivs	C•••••G•••	•••G••••••	T•••••••••	••••••C•••	T•••••••A•	GG••••••••
						240
canids	TGTAGACGGG	CCAAGAGGTA	TTTCGGGTGA	CTCCGTGCTT	GGGCACAGAC	AGAGGTCATA
vivs	C••G•••AA•	•••G•G••••	CGA••A•••	T•A•CAT••	••••••G•••	••••••TG••
						300
canids	GTACGTCCCA	TAATAGCAGA	CTCAACATGA	GTCGATTGAG	AAAGGCAATC	TGCCTCCAAT
vivs	••G•AC•••C	•G••••••A•	••T••••CA•	••AG••••••	••G••••CC•	•••••••C••
						360
canids	GAAGGACATA	AGCAATAAGC	TCACGATCAT	CTTGCATCTC	AGCAAT-TGT	GCATAATTAT
vivs	••••••••••	•••C•••-•A	•••A••••••	•C••••••••	•TT••AG•••	•••C••C•••
canids	AAAGGGCTGG	GTCATCTAAG	CTTTTCAGTC	GAGAAAAAAA		
vivs	••••••••••	T•••••G•A	••C••••A••	••••••••••		

Figure 3.2 Alignment of the consensus sequences of the (i) the cytoplasmic domain and (ii) the G/L intergenic region. Areas of sequence variation are indicated by the appropriate nucleotide showing the areas of sequence; similar nucleotides indicated by dots (.). Priming sites for the viverrid-specific primer (single box) and the canid primer (double box) are indicated.

3.3.2 RNA extraction, first round reverse transcription PCR and subsequent type-specific analysis.

A number of isolates of known sequence identity were selected to determine whether the designed primers differentially amplify viruses specific to the canid or viverrid group. These included isolates from which the primers were derived. Template for the virus-specific typing was generated by a first round amplification of reverse transcribed viral RNA, using the G-L primer and yielded a virus-specific product of approximately 850 bp (Fig. 3.4a). Second round amplification was carried out in two separate reactions containing either $P_{\text{can}}(+)$ or $P_{\text{viv}}(+)$ and L(-) as the common primer (section 3.2.4). The inclusion of one of the type-specific primers in a PCR reactions with the common L(-) primer and homologous DNA templates yielded the expected amplicons of 650 bp (viverrid biotype, Fig 3.4b) and 400 bp (canid biotype, Fig. 3.4c). The specificity and reliability of the type-specific primers were confirmed in a PCR reaction on heterologous templates. At this stage cross amplification was observed only in one viverrid (637/90) and one canid (1265/80) isolate.

The usefulness of these primers to accurately distinguish between these viral types were investigated next in a blind trial using isolates described in Table 3.1. The blind trial being a test of the PCR protocols on isolates which had not been sequenced, but for which the Mab profile were known. Seven of these were of the canid biotype and 17 of the viverrid biotype as determined by monoclonal antibody analysis. Both $P_{\text{can}}(+)$ and $P_{\text{viv}}(+)$ successfully amplified their respective templates. However, the viverrid-specific primer also reacted with all of the canid templates when the standard conditions of amplification (section 3.2.4) were applied. By lowering the dNTP concentration to 20 μ M these cross reactions were prevented. In a reaction of $P_{\text{can}}(+)$ on four viverrid templates (522/95, 262/95, 500/94 and 484/94), multiples products of amplification were visible. These multiple amplicons were usually larger than the expected size of the typical canid product. Altering the reaction conditions (dNTP concentration) did not eliminate this cross amplification.

The identity of the differential products of amplification of two isolates: 637/90 and 1265/80 from a $P_{\text{viv}}(+)$ and $P_{\text{can}}(+)$ reaction respectively, were confirmed by sequence analysis. The obtained sequences (approximately 200 bp for each isolates) showed 100% concordance with sequences previously determined.

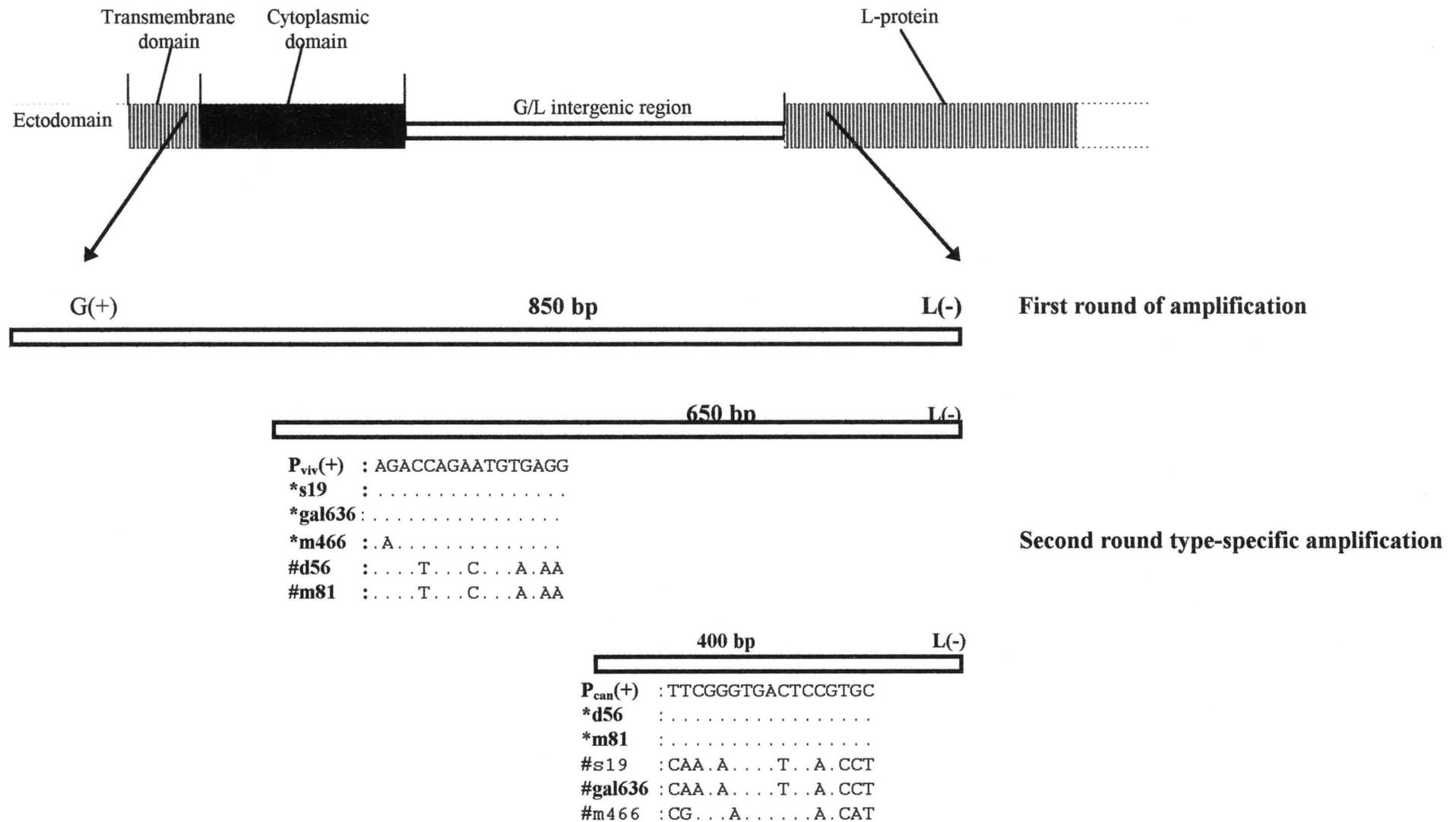


Figure 3.3 Schematic representation of the type-specific assay. The target regions for P_{viv}(+) and P_{can}(+) and the differential products of amplification are indicated. A comparison of the primer sequence with homologous (*) and heterologous (#) templates are indicated below each primer.

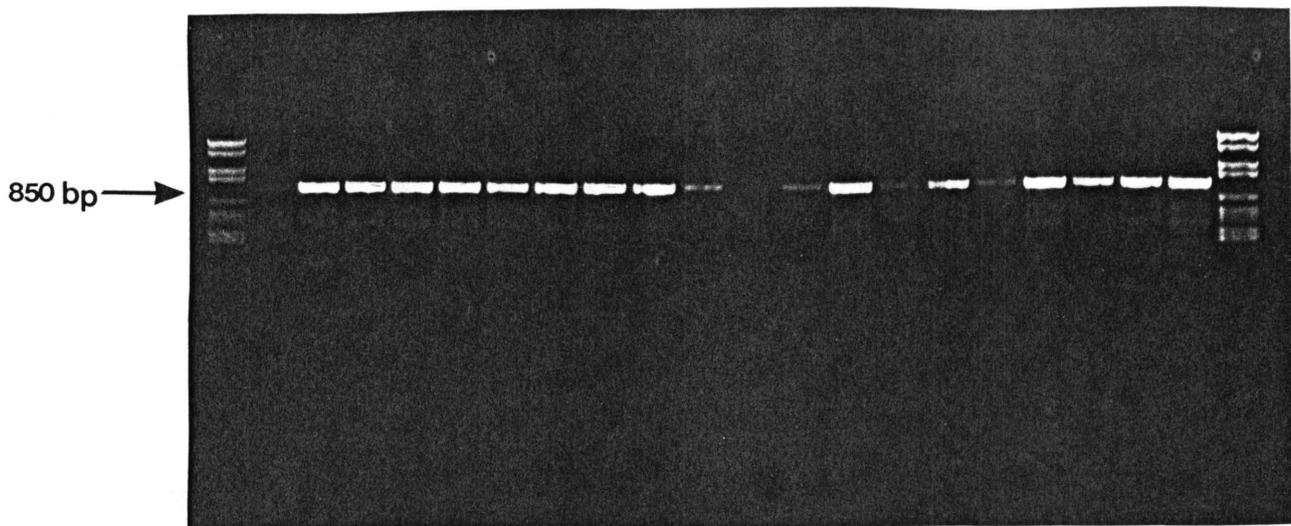


Figure 3.4A

First round amplification products using the G/L primer set. The outer lanes contain DNA molecular weight marker VI. Lanes 2-11 typical viverrid isolates(701/92, 636/90, 926/93, 421/92, 5/91, 668/92, 158/91, 298/90, 256/90 and 669/90). Lanes 12-21 contain typical canid isolates (152, 77/93, 820, HR1/79, NBA5, 589/90, 831, 31/96, sk0006 and NBA2).

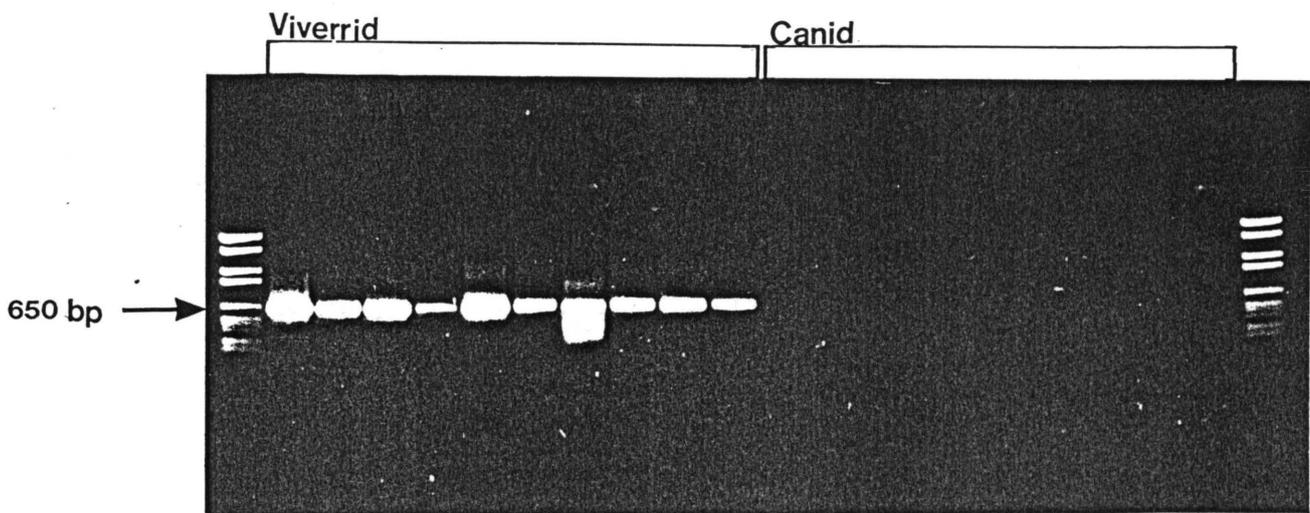


Figure 34 B Second round type-specific reaction using the $P_{viv}(+)$ primer on homologous (lanes 2-11) and heterologous (12-21). The expected amplification product of 650 bp was visible in all viverrid isolates. No amplification is visible with canid isolates.

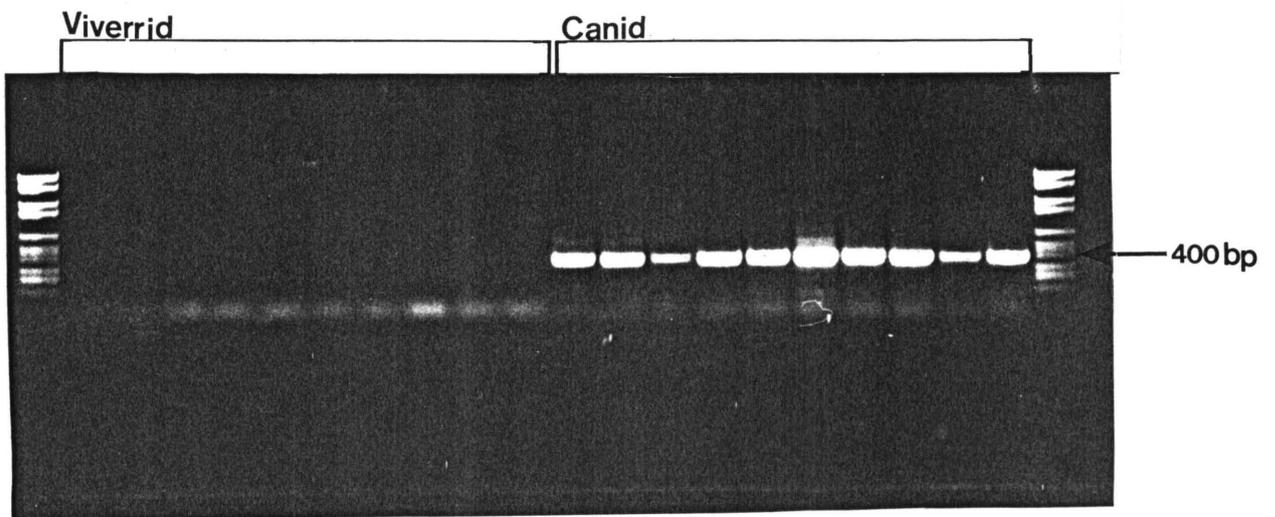


Figure 3.4C

Second round amplification using the $P_{can(+)}$ primer. All the canid isolates (lanes 12-21) shows the desired 400 bp amplification product. No cross reactivity observed with the viverrid isolates.

3.4 DISCUSSION

DNA sequencing is increasingly applied to accurately type and characterise viral genomes. However, its application to numerous samples can be impractical even when sequencing PCR products directly. Rabies viruses circulating in southern Africa were previously characterised serologically and it is only recently that comparative sequence analysis was applied as an alternative and augmentative technique. The development of a hemi-nested PCR assay is described to rapidly differentiate between the canid and the viverrid viruses. A comparative sequence analysis of the variable G/L intergenic region and cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein (Chapter 2) indicated that these domains are sufficiently informative to allow differentiation of rabies virus isolates. A nucleotide sequence difference of up to 33% was observed between canid and viverrid rabies isolates. In this analysis the pattern and distribution of nucleotide substitutions between the two biotypes were manipulated to design biotype specific oligonucleotides.

Two oligonucleotides were designed based on conserved nucleotide sequences in the rabies biotype. These primers were designed from alignments of sequences of all isolates for which the data was available. The use of these primers together with the common L(-) primer as downstream primer produced two characteristic amplicons permitting discrimination of the biotypes solely on the basis of PCR product size. The use of primers homologous to conserved regions on the rabies genome ensures the amplification of rabies viruses during the first round of amplification. This approach also contributed to the specificity of the type-specific reaction. The success of these primers was assayed in a trial consisting of rabies viruses from diverse origin and host species. Both type-specific oligonucleotide cross reacted with heterologous templates despite the three mismatches in the last four 3'-terminal bases of the primers.

Kwok *et al.*, (1990) evaluated the effect of various 3'-terminal mismatches in primers used for the amplification of a region of the human immunodeficiency virus type 1. Single internal mismatches had no significant effect on PCR yield, while terminal mismatches had varied effects on the efficiency of extension. A:G, G:A and C:C mismatches reduced PCR yield about 100-fold, while the effects of A:A and G:G are less dramatic allowing elongation. Mismatches involving T (i.e. T:C, T:G, T:T), G:G and A:C appear to amplify as efficiently as

the fully complementary primer-template duplex. In this case, a closer examination of the primer:template duplexes indicated three G:T 3'-terminal mismatches of P_{viv}(+) on canid templates, while P_{can}(+) on viverrid templates included T:G, G:G and C:A terminal mismatches. These mismatches could provide a partial explanation for the observed instances of cross-reactivity.

Type-specific oligonucleotides used to characterise human polyomavirus (Ault *et al.*, 1994) showed a similar degree of cross reactivity to that described for the rabies primers during this investigation. In the case of the polyomavirus, the type-specific primers were based on a single nucleotide difference at the 3' end of each primer. A protocol incorporating hot start, touchdown annealing and lower primer and dNTP concentrations proved sufficient to decrease the amount of cross-reactivity. Mismatched A:C and G:T was however unaffected by this protocol allowing readthrough. These conditions were mimicked in our experiments, but a touchdown cycle profile in our case unfortunately did not show the same rate of success.

The occurrence of multiple bands when using the canid specific primer does not altogether disqualify this approach. Other genome portions could be targeted and a more stable primer designed compensating for the 3' nucleotides as described by Kwok *et al.*, (1990). The technique could be further extended to target protein coding regions such as the glycoprotein and the conserved nucleoprotein. Primers can be designed to target the conserved amino acids in particular those domains that are involved in host species interaction. This approach would represent the first step in diagnosis and when amplification is observed with both primers, serological characterisation could prove useful. Factors including genome heterogeneity, other mismatches and the thermodynamics of duplex formation at the priming position cannot be excluded when addressing the observed cross reactivity. It has been shown that parameters such as the concentration of the dNTPs and annealing temperature can also contribute significantly to the product yield (Kidd *et al.*, 1995).

The differentiation of the rabies viruses is important in understanding the viral epidemiology and subsequent development and adjustment of disease control measures. This type-specific assay therefore provides a simple method to type isolates within three hours following RNA extraction, despite the fact that the methods described here have in a small number of cases

failed to accurately characterise the virus. PCR methods are increasingly applied to compliment traditional screening approaches. As PCR protocols are continually being improved difficulties such as those described in this investigation are expected to be resolved, leading to more widespread applications.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Rabies is an infectious disease that is commonly known all over the world. This disease is probably one of the oldest diseases known to modern mankind since prehistoric drawings and ancient writings, describing the result of rabies virus infections, have been discovered. In South Africa the disease has been documented since 1700. Several reports indicated that an apparently similar disease to rabies were present in wildlife viverrid species, in particular the yellow mongoose. However, viverrid species such as genets, suricates and other mongoose species were also thought to be involved in the spread of the disease. The disease involving canid species, is to a large extent still a major problem in the country, especially in rural parts. This epizootic had two possible sources of origin namely a trans-Atlantic European introduction at the eastern shores and a multiple invasion from north and north-west of the country.

Nucleotide sequence analysis is without question a reliable and informative method for epidemiological analysis as this approach has been applied for all major virus families. Consequently, comparative sequence analysis of the infectious agents involved in rabies enzootics have been undertaken in an attempt to contribute to the current knowledge of the disease in South Africa. Thus, the primary objective of this investigation was to study the epidemiology of rabies focusing on the viverrid viruses, not only of yellow mongoose origin, but also other viverrid reservoirs. These included isolates obtained from genets, suricates, slender mongooses and water mongooses.

Monoclonal antibody analysis has been particularly useful in the characterisation and monitoring of rabies in South Africa. Two distinct serogroups were implicated in the maintenance of the disease; the first infects mainly members of the *Canidae*, while the other is specific to the members of the *Viverridae*. Sequence analysis was undertaken in an attempt to explain the observed serological difference in terms of genetic composition of the two groups. Sequence variations within the non-protein coding G/L intergenic region and the cytoplasmic domain of the glycoprotein were effective for this purpose. The existence of a number of definite virus groups was shown by comparison of molecular genetic characteristics of different isolates. This approach was shown to contribute to our knowledge of the molecular heterogeneity of these virus groups.

It was established in this study that although the viverrid viruses are heterogeneous they tend to group according to geographical origin rather than host species. This is not unexpected since the communal nature of yellow mongoose species, believed to be the principal wildlife vector, is well known. Mongooses are burrowing species; their distribution is therefore restricted to areas of suitable habitat. This restriction coupled with other geographical barriers (possibly mountain ranges and major rivers) leads to the circulation of the viruses within fixed populations. The existence of three distinct subspecies of yellow mongoose may have direct bearing on the epidemiology of the viverrid rabies. These subspecies differences inevitably imply differential evolutionary pressures on the circulating virus. Therefore both geographical barriers and host selective pressures are probable factors that led to the formation of these clusters of viverrid viruses. The exact origin of the viverrid biotype still remains speculative in the absence of a clear progenitor-descendant relationship. However, extending the study of viverrid virus epidemiology beyond South African borders may prove significant in the reconstruction of events leading to the introduction of viverrid rabies into the country or may reflect the extent of the viverrid enzootic area.

Sequence data from this study and biological data from transmission studies show that spillover events occur. These isolates do not represent a separate lineage of viruses but are likely initiated by interspecies transmissions. The importance of the host specific determinants involved in the maintenance of the specific biotypes should be further investigated.

There are limits to any phylogenetic analysis and evolutionary relationships of the rabies viruses, in particular the viverrid biotype, will be reflected more accurately as soon as more sequence data become available. The present evidence suggests that two lineages of the rabies virus are presently cocirculating in South Africa. Whether this situation will continue or whether one group will supersede the other can only be anticipated through careful monitoring of the existing situation. Whatever the outcome, the development of more effective control measures will be necessary.

As a step towards more careful monitoring of the current epidemiology and diagnosis of rabies a two-step PCR typing assay was developed. Two type-specific oligonucleotides were designed reducing typing of isolates to the electrophoresis of an amplified product of

characteristic size. This approach significantly reduces the time required for typing of isolates and may be simplified and improved in future investigations. These improvements include a further reduction in the time required for typing rabies isolates and the design of oligonucleotides which targets a different region on the rabies genome.

REFERENCES

Allworth, A., Murray, K. And Morgan, J. 1996. A human case of encephalitis due to a lyssavirus recently identified in fruit bats. *Communicable Disease Intelligence*. **20**: 24.

Anilionis, A., Wunner, W. and Curtis, P.J. 1981. Structure of the glycoprotein gene in rabies virus. *Nature*. **294**: 275- 277.

Ault, G.S., Ryschkewitsch, C.F. and Stoner, G.L. 1994. Type-specific amplification of viral DNA using touchdown and hot start PCR. *J. Virol. Meth.* **46**: 145-156.

Baer, G.M., Bellini, W.J. and Fishbein, D.B. 1990. Rhabdoviruses. In: *Virology, 2nd Ed.* B.N. Fields and D.M. Knipe *et al.* (Eds), Raven Press, LTD, New York, pp 883-920.

Barnard, B.J.H. and Voges, S.F. 1982. A simple technique for the rapid diagnosis of rabies in formalin-preserved brain material. *Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res.* **49**: 193-194.

Banerjee, A.K. 1987. Transcription and replication of Rhabdoviruses. *Microbiol. Rev.* **51**: 68-87.

Barik. S., Erling, W.R., Luk, D., Banerjee, A.K. and Kang, C.Y. 1990. Nucleotide sequence analysis of the L gene of vesicular stomatitis virus (New Jersey serotype): Identification of conserved domains in L proteins of nonsegmented negative-strand RNA viruses. *Viol.* **175**:332-337.

Blancou, J. 1988. Epizootiology of rabies: Eurasia and Africa. In *Rabies*. J.B. Campbell and K.M. Charlton (Eds), Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, pp 243-265.

Bourhy, H., Kissi, B. And Tordo, N. 1993. Molecular diversity of the Lyssavirus genus. *Virology* **194**: 70-81.

Bourhy, H., Rollin, P.E. Vincent, J. and Sureau, P. 1989. Comparative field evaluation of the fluorescent -antibody test, virus isolation from tissue culture, and enzyme immunodiagnosis of rabies. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **27**: 519-523.

Bourhy, H. Tordo, N., Lafon, M. and Sureau, P. 1989. Complete cloning and molecular organization of a rabies-related virus, Mokola virus. *J. Gen. Virol.* **70**: 2063-2074.

Chaparro, F. and Esterhuysen, J.J. 1993. The role of the yellow mongoose (*Cynictis penicillata*) in the epidemiology of rabies in South Africa-preliminary results. *J. Vet. Res* **60**: 373-377.

Chomel, B.B. 1993. The modern epidemiological aspects of rabies in the world. *Comp. Immun. Microbiol. Infect. Dis.* **16**: 11-20.

Cluver, E. 1927. Rabies in south Africa. *J. Med. Ass. South Africa* **1**: 247-253.

Coetzer, J.A.W., Thompson, G.R. and Tustin, R.C. (1994). Rhabdoviridae. In *Infectious diseases of livestock with special reference to Southern Africa*. J.A.W. Coetzer, G.R. Thompson and R.C. Tustin (Eds), Oxford University Press, New York, pp 491-492.

Culliton, B.J. 1990. Emerging viruses, emerging threat. *Science.* **247**: pp 279-280.

De, B.P. and Banerjee, A.K. 1984. Specific interaction of vesicular stomatitis virus L and NS proteins with heterologous genome ribonucleoprotein template lead to mRNA synthesis in vitro. *J. Virol.* **51**: 628-634.

Dietzschold, B., Rupprecht, C.E., Tollis, M., Lafon, M., Mattei, J., Wiktor, T.J. and Koprowski, H. 1988. Antigenic diversity of the glycoprotein and nucleocapsid proteins of rabies and rabies-related viruses: Implications for epidemiology and control of rabies. *Rev. Infect. Dis.* **10**: S758-S798.

Dietzschold, B., Wunner, W., Wiktor, T.J., Lopes, A.D., Lafon, M., Smith, C.L. and Koprowski, H. 1983. Characterization of an antigenic determinant of the glycoprotein that correlates with pathogenicity of rabies virus. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* **80**: 70-74.

Domingo, E., Martinez-Salas, E., Sobrino, F., De La Torre, J.C., Portela, A., Ortin, J., Lopez-Galindez, C., Peresbrena, P., Villanueva, N., Najera, R., Vandepol, S., Steinhauer, D., Depolo, N. and Holland, J.J. 1985. The quasispecies (extremely heterogeneous) nature of viral RNA genome populations. *Gene* **40**: 1-8.

Emerson, S.U. and Schubert, M. (1987). Location of the binding domain for the RNA polymerase L and the ribonucleocapsid template within different halves of the NS phosphoprotein of vesicular stomatitis virus. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. **84**: 5655-5659

Erlich, H.A., Gelfand, D. and Sninsky, J.J. 1991. Recent advances in the polymerase chain reaction. *Science* **252**: 1643-1651.

Ermine, A., Larzul, D., Ceccaldi, P.E., Guesdon, J.L. and Tsiang, H. 1990. Polymerase chain reaction amplification of rabies virus nucleic acid from total mouse brain RNA. *Mol. Cell. Prob.* **4**: 189-191.

Feldmann, H., Slenczka, W. And Klenk, H.D. 1996. Emerging and Reemerging of filovirus. *Arch. Virol.* **S11**: 77-100.

Felsenstein, J. 1988. Evolutionary trees from DNA sequences: A maximum likelihood approach. *J. Mol. Evol.* **17**: 368-376.

Felsenstein, J. 1985. Confidence limits on phylogenies: an approach using the bootstrap. *Evolution* **39**: 783-791.

Felsenstein, J. 1993. PHYLIP - Phylogeny Inference Package (version 3.5). Department of Genetics, University of Washington, Seattle.

Flammand, A., Wiktor, T.J. and Koprowski, H. 1980. Use of hybridoma antibodies in the detection of antigenic differences between rabies and rabies-related virus proteins, II. The glycoprotein. *J. Gen. Virol.* **48**: 105-109.

Fodor, I., Grabko, V.I., Khozinski, V.V. and Selimov, M.A. (1994). Nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of the glycoprotein gene of rabies virus vaccine strain Vnukovo-32. *Arch Virol.* **135**: 451-459.

Foggin, C.M.. 1988. Rabies and rabies-related viruses in Zimbabwe: historical, virological and ecological aspects. Ph.D thesis: University of Zimbabwe. Harare.

Fraenkel-Conrat, H., Kimbal, P.C. and Levy, J.A. 1988. *Virology*, 2nd Ed. Prentice-Hall, Inc. Eaglewood Cliffs, pp 127-134.

Fu, Z.F., Zheng, Y., Wunner, W.H., Koprowski, H. and Dietzschold, H. 1994. Both the N- and the C-terminal domains of the nominal phosphoprotein of rabies are involved in binding to the nucleoprotein. *Virol.* **200**: 590-597.

Galinski, M.S., Mink, M.A. and Pons, M.W. 1988. Molecular cloning and sequence analysis of the Human Parainfluenza 3 virus gene encoding the L-protein. *Virol.* **165**: 499-510.

Harley, E.H. 1992. DAPSA - A program for DNA and protein sequence analysis. Version 1.3. Department of Chemical Pathology, University of Cape Town.

Henning, M.W. 1949. Rabies, hydrophobia-hondsdolheid. In: *Animal diseases in South Africa, 2nd ed.* M.W. Henning (Ed.), Central News Agency, LTD. South Africa, pp 733-771.

Hofmann, M.A., Brechtbuhl, K. and Stauber, N. 1994. Rapid characterization of new pestivirus strains by direct sequencing of PCR-amplified cDNA from the 5' noncoding region. *Arch. Virol* **139**: 217-229.

Holland, J.J., De La Torre, J.C. and Steinhauer, D.A. 1992. RNA virus populations as quasispecies. In: *Genetic diversity of RNA viruses.* J.J. Holland (Eds.) Springer-Verlag. Berlin. Heidelberg, pp 1-16.

Holland, J.J., Spindler, K., Horodyski, F., Grabau, E., Nichol, S. and Vandepol, S. 1982. Rapid evolution of RNA genomes. *Science* **215**: 1577-1585.

Irvin, A.D. 1970. The epidemiology of wildlife rabies. *Vet. Rec.* **87**: 333-348.

Iverson, L.E. and Rose, J.K. 1981. Localized attenuation and discontinuous synthesis during vesicular stomatitis virus transcription. *Cell* **23**: 477-484.

Kamolvarin, N., Tirawatnpong, T., Rattanasiwamoke, R., Tirawatnpong, S., Panpanich, T., Hemachudha, T. 1993. Diagnosis of rabies by polymerase chain reaction with nested primers. *J. Infect. Dis.* **167**: 207-210.

Kaplan, C., Turner, G.S. and Warrell, D.A. 1986. Rabies the Facts, 2nd Ed., Oxford University Press, New York.

Kidd, K and Ruanno, G. 1995. Optimizing PCR. In: *PCR2. A practical approach*. M.J. McPherson, B.D. Hames, G.R. Taylor (Eds), Oxford University Press, New York, pp 1-12.

King, A.A., Meredith, C. and Thompson, G.R. 1993. Canid and viverrid viruses in South Africa. *Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res.* **60**: 295-299.

King, A.A., Meredith, C. and Thompson, G.R. (1994). The biology of southern African Lyssavirus variants. *Current Topics in Microbiology and Immunology: Lyssavirus*, vol. 187. C.E. Rupprecht, B. Dietzschold and H. Koprowski (Eds), Springer-Verlag, New York, pp 267-295.

Kurath, G. And Leong, J.C. 1985. Characterization of infectious hematophoretic necrosis virus mRNA species reveals a nonvirion rhabdovirus protein. *J. Virol.* **53**: 462-468.

Kwok, S., Kellogg, D.E., McKinney, N., Spasic, D., Goda, L., Levenson, C. and Sninsky, J.J. 1990. Effects of primer-template mismatches on the polymerase chain reaction: human immunodeficiency virus type 1 model studies. *Nucl. Acids. Res.* **18**: 999-1005.

Lafon, M. and Wiktor, T.J. 1985. Antigenic sites on the ERA rabies virus nucleoprotein and non-structural protein. *J. Gen. Virol.* **66**: 2125-2133.

Lanciotti, R.S., Lewis, J.G., Gubler, D.J. and Trent, D.W. 1994. Molecular evolution and epidemiology of dengue-3 viruses. *J. Gen. Virol.* **75**: 65-75.

Li, W, and Grauer, D. 1991a. What is molecular evolution?. In: *Fundamentals of molecular evolution*. W. Li and D. Grauer (Eds.), Sinauer Associates, Inc. Publishers, Sunderland, Massachusetts, pp 1-2.

Li, W, and Grauer, D. 1991b. Evolutionary change in nucleotide sequences. In: *Fundamentals of molecular evolution*. W. Li and D. Grauer (Eds.), Sinauer Associates, Inc. Publishers, Sunderland, Massachusetts, pp 43-66.

Li, W, and Grauer, D. 1991c. Molecular phylogeny. In: *Fundamentals of molecular evolution*. W. Li and D. Grauer (Eds.), Sinauer Associates, Inc. Publishers, Sunderland, Massachusetts, pp 99-133.

Lipman, D.J. and Pearson, W.R. 1985. Rapid and sensitive protein similarity searches. *Science* **227**: 1435-1441.

Macdonald, D.W. 1980. The background. In: *Rabies and wildlife: A biologist's perspective*. D.W. Macdonald (Eds), Oxford University Press, New York, pp 1-8.

Marschall, M., Schuler, A., Boswald, C., Helten, A., Hechtfisher, A., Lapatschek, M. And Meier-Ewert, H. 1995. Nucleotide-specific PCR for molecular virus typing. *J. Virol. Methods* **52**: 169-174.

Miyamoto, M. and Cracraft, J. 1991. Phylogenetic Inference, DNA Sequence Analysis, and the Future of Molecular Systematics. In: *Phylogenetic Analysis of DNA sequences*. M.M. Miyamoto and J. Cracraft (Eds), Oxford University Press, New York, pp 3-17.

Mullis, K.B. and Faloona, F.A. 1987. Specific synthesis of DNA in vitro via a polymerase catalyzed chain reaction. In: *Methods in Enzymology*, Vol 155. R. Wu (Eds), Academic Press, London, pp 335-350.

Murphy, F.A. 1994. New, emerging and reemerging infectious diseases. *Adv. Virus Res.* **43**: 1-52.

Nadin-Davis, S.A., Casey, G.A. and Wandeler, A. 1993. Identification of regional variants of the rabies virus within the Canadian province of Ontario. *J. Gen. Virol.* **74**:829-837.

Nadin-Davis, S.A., Huang, W. and Wandeler, A.I. 1996. The design of strain-specific polymerase chain reactions for discrimination of the raccoon rabies virus strain from the indigenous rabies viruses of Ontario. *J. Virol. Methods* **57**: 141-156.

Nei, M. 1991. Relative efficiencies of different tree-making methods for molecular data. In: *Phylogenetic Analysis of DNA sequences*. M.M. Miyamoto and J. Cracraft (Eds), Oxford University Press, New York, pp 90-128.

Nel, L.H., Thompson, G.R. and von Teichman, B.F. 1993. Molecular epidemiology of rabies in South Africa. *Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res.* **60**: 301-306.

Nerurkar, V.R., Babu, P.G., Song, K., Melland, R.R., Gnanamuthu, C., Saraswathi, N.K., Chandy, M., Godec, M.S., John, T.J. and Yanagihara. 1993. Sequence analysis of human T cell lymphotropic virus type I strains from southern India: gene amplification and direct sequencing from whole blood blotted onto filter paper. *J. Gen. Virol.* **74**: 2799-2805.

O'Brien, J.J. and Evermann, J.F. 1988. Interactive influence of infectious disease and genetic diversity in natural populations. *Trends Biol. Evol.* **3**: 254-259.

O'Hara, P.J., Nichol, S.T., Horodyski, F.M. and Holland, J.J. 1984. Vesicular stomatitis virus defective interfering particles can contain extensive genomic sequence rearrangements and base substitution. *Cell* **36**: 1468-1474.

Prehaud, C., Coulon, P., Lafay, F., Thiers, C. And Flamand, A. 1988. Antigenic site II of the rabies virus glycoprotein: structure and role in viral virulence. *J. Virol.* **62**:1-7.

Rabies Programme Report (OV4). 1996. Onderstepoort Veterinary Institute. South Africa.

Ravkov, E.V., Smith, J.S. and Nichol, S.T. 1995. Rabies virus glycoprotein gene contains a long 3' noncoding region which lacks pseudogene properties. *Viol.* **206**: 718-723.

Sacramento, D., Bouhry, H. and Tordo, N. 1991. PCR technique as an alternative method for diagnosis and molecular epidemiology of rabies virus. *Mol. Cell. Prob.* **5**: 229-240.

Sacramento, D., Badrane, H., Bouhry, H. and Tordo, N. 1992. Molecular epidemiology of rabies in France: comparison with vaccine strains. *J. Gen. Virol.* **73**: 1149-1158.

Saiki, R.K., Gelfand, D.H., Stoffel, S., Scharf, S.J., Higuchi, R., Horn, G.T., Mullis, K.B. and Erlich, H.A. 1988. Primer-directed enzymatic amplification of DNA with a thermostable DNA polymerase. *Science* **2**: 487-491.

Saiki, R.K., Scharf, S., Faloona, F., Mullis, K., Horn, G., Erlich, H.A. and Arheim, N. 1985. Enzymatic amplification of b-globulin genomic sequences and restriction site analysis of diagnosis of sickle cell anemia. *Science* **230**: 1350-1354.

Saitou, N and Nei, M. 1987. The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **4(4)**: 406-425.

Sambrook, J., Fritsch, E.F. and Maniatis. T. 1989. Molecular cloning: A laboratory manual. Second edition. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York.

Sanger, F., Nicklen, S. and Coulson, R.A. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **74**: 5463-5467.

Satcher, D. 1995. Emerging Infections: Getting ahead of the curve. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **1**: 1-11.

Seif, I., Coulon, P., Rollin, P.E. and Flammand, A. 1985. Rabies virulence: effect on pathogenicity and sequence characterization of rabies virus mutations affecting antigenic site II of the glycoprotein. *J. Virol.* **53**: 926-934.

Sidow, A. and Wilson, A.C. 1991. Compositional statistics evaluated by computer simulations. In: *Phylogenetic Analysis of DNA sequences*. M.M. Miyamoto and J. Cracraft (Eds), Oxford University Press, New York, pp 129-146.

Smith, J.S., Fishbein, D.B., Rupprecht, C.E. and Clark, K. 1991. Unexplained cases of rabies in three immigrants in the United States. A virologic investigation. *The New Eng. J. Med.* **324**: 205-211.

Smith, J.S., Reid-Sanden, F., Roumillat, L.F., Trimarchi, C., Clark, K., Baer, G.M. and Winkler, W.G. 1986. Demonstration of antigenic variation among rabies virus isolates by using monoclonal antibodies to nucleocapsid proteins. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **24**: 573-580.

Smith, J.S., Orciari, L.A., Yager, P.A., Seidel, H.D. and Warner, C.K. 1992. Epidemiologic and historical relationships among 87 rabies virus isolates as determined by limited sequence analysis. *J. Infect. Dis.* **166**: 296-307.

Smith, J.S., Yager, P.A. and Orciari, L.A. 1993. Rabies in wild and domestic carnivores of Africa: epidemiological and historical associations determined by limited sequence analysis. *Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res.* **60**: 307-314.

Steinhauer, D.A., De La Torre, J.C. and Holland, J.J. 1989a. High nucleotide substitution error frequency in clonal pools of vesicular stomatitis virus. *J. Virol.* **63**: 2063-2071.

Steinhauer, D.A., De La Torre, Meier, E. and Holland, J.J. 1989b. Extreme heterogeneity in populations of vesicular stomatitis virus. *J. Virol.* **63**: 2072-2080.

Steinhauer, D.A. and Holland, J.J. 1987. Rapid evolution of RNA genomes. *Ann. Rev. Microbiol.* **41**: 409-433.

Sullivan, D.G. and Akkina, R.K. 1995. A nested polymerase chain reaction assay to differentiate pestiviruses. *Virus Res.* **38**: 231-239.

Swanepoel, R. (1994). Rabies. In *Infectious diseases of livestock with special reference to Southern Africa*. J.A.W. Coetzer, G.R. Thompson and R.C. Tustin (Eds), Oxford University Press, New York, pp 493-552.

Swanepoel, R., Barnard, B.J.H., Meredith, C., Bishop, G.C., Bruckner, G.K., Foggin, C.M. and Hubschle, O.J.B. 1993. Rabies in southern Africa. *Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res.* **60**: 325-346.

Taylor, P.J. 1993. A systematic and population genetic approach to the rabies problem in the yellow mongoose (*Cynictis penicillata*). *Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res.* **60**: 379-387.

Thompson, J.D., Higgins, D.G. and Gibson T.J. 1994. CLUSTALW: improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **22**: 4673-4680.

Tordo, N., Poch, O., Ermine, A., Keith, G. and Rougeon, F. 1986a. Walking along the rabies genome: Is the large G-L intergenic region a remnant gene?. *Prco. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* **83**: 3914-3918.

Tordo, N., Poch, O., Ermine, A. and Keith, G. 1986b. Primary structure of leader RNA and nucleoprotein genes of the rabies genome: segmented homology with VSV. *Nucleic Acid Res.* **14**: 2671-2683.

Tordo, N. and Kouknetzoff. 1993. The rabies virus genome: an overview. *Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res.* **60**: 263-269.

Tordo, N., Poch, O., Ermine, A., Keith, G. and Rougeons, F. 1988. Completion of the rabies virus genome sequence determination: highly conserved domains among the L (polymerase) proteins of unsegmented negative-strand RNA viruses. *Virology*. **165**: 565-576.

Tordo, N., Bouhry, H., Slater, S. and Ollo, R. 1993. Structure and expression in the baculovirus of the Mokola virus glycoprotein: an efficient recombinant vaccine. *Virology*. **194**: 59-69.

Van der Heijden, R.W.J., Landedijk, J.P.M., Groen, J., UytdeHaag, F.G.M.C., Meloen, R.H. and Osterhaus, A.D.M.E. 1993. Structural and functional studies on a unique linear neutralizing antigenic site (G5) of the rabies virus glycoprotein. *J. Gen. Virology*. **74**: 1539-1545.

VanDemark, P.J. and Batzing, B.L. 1987. The development and scope of microbiology. In: *The Microbes. An introduction to their nature and importance*. P.J. VanDemark and B.L. Batzing (Eds), Benjamin/Cummings Publishing Company Inc, USA, pp 3-29.

Vangrysperre, W and Clercq, K. 1996. Rapid and sensitive polymerase chain reaction based detection and typing of foot-and-mouth disease virus in clinical samples and cell culture isolates, combined with other genomically and/or symptomatically related viruses. *Arch. Virology*. **141**: 331-344.

Von Teichman, B.F., Thompson, G.R., Meredith, C. and Nel, L.H. 1995. Molecular epidemiology of rabies virus in South Africa: evidence for two distinct virus groups. *J. Gen. Virology*. **76**: 73-82.

Wagner, R.R. 1990. Rhabdoviridae and their replication. In: *Virology*, 2nd Ed. B.N. Fields and D.M. Knipe *et al.* (Eds), Raven Press, LTD. New York. Pp 867-881.

Waterman, M.S., Joyce, J. and Eggert, M. Computer alignment of sequences. In: *Phylogenetic Analysis of DNA sequences*. M.M. Miyamoto and J. Cracraft (Eds), Oxford University Press, New York, pp 59-72.

Wilbur, W.J., and Lipman, D.J. 1983. Rapid similarity searches of nucleic acid and protein data banks. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* **80**: 726-730.

World Health Organization, Emerging and other communicable diseases. November 22, 1996.

Wunner, W.H., Larson, J.K., Dietzschold, B. and Smith, C.L. 1988. The molecular biology of rabies virus. *Rev. Infect. Dis.* **10**: S771-S784.

Communications

L.H. Nel, G.R. Thompson, J. Jaftha, M. Olivier & C.D. Meredith. Genome sequence diversity of Rabies virus isolates from South Africa. *Vth International Congress on the Impact of Viral Diseases in the Developing World*, Johannesburg, South Africa, July 1995.

J. Jaftha, M. Olivier, B. von Teichman & L.H. Nel. Genetic Diversity of Rabies Virus in South Africa. *Biotechnology for Africa Congress*, University of Pretoria, November 1995. (Poster).

J. Jaftha, J. Jacobs, M. Olivier, C. Meredith & L.H. Nel. Rabies virus Epidemiology: Recent Developments in southern Africa. *Ninth Biennial Congress. South African Society for Microbiology*, July 1996, University of Pretoria. (Poster).

Rabies Programme (OV4): Project Evaluation. Onderstepoort Veterinary Institute, Pretoria, 1995 & 1996.

L.H. Nel, B.F. von Teichman, J.B. Jaftha, M. Olivier, C.D. Meredith and G.R. Thompson. Viverrid rabies in South Africa: A Re-evaluation of the viruses involved. Manuscript in preparation

L.H. Nel, J.A. Jacobs, J.B. Jaftha and C. Meredith. Natural two-directional spillover of genetically distinct biotypes of rabies viruses associated with Canidae and Viverridae hosts in southern Africa. Manuscript in preparation.

L.H. Nel, M. Olivier, J.B. Jaftha and C.D. Meredith. Characterisation of new isolates of Mokola virus from South Africa. Manuscript in preparation.