

# 1 Delimitation of the Tick-Borne Flaviviruses. Resolving the Tick-Borne 2 Encephalitis and Louping-III Virus Paraphyletic Taxa

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17

## 18 Abstract

19 The tick-borne flavivirus (TBFV) group contains at least 12 members where five  
20 of them are important pathogens of humans inducing diseases with varying  
21 severity (from mild fever forms to acute encephalitis). The taxonomy structure of  
22 TBFV is not fully clarified at present. In particular, there is a number of  
23 paraphyletic issues of tick-borne encephalitis virus (TBEV) and louping-ill virus  
24 (LIV). In this study, we aimed to apply different bioinformatic approaches to  
25 analyze all available complete genome amino acid sequences to delineate TBFV  
26 members at the species level. Results showed that the European subtype of TBEV  
27 (TBEV-E) is a distinct species unit. LIV, in turn, should be separated into two  
28 species. Additional analysis of the diversity of TBEV and LIV antigenic  
29 determinants also demonstrate that TBEV-E and LIV are significantly different  
30 from other TBEV subtypes. The analysis of available literature provided data on

other virus phenotypic particularities that supported our hypothesis. So, within the TBEV+LIV paraphyletic group, we offer to assign four species to get a more accurate understanding of the TBFV interspecies structure according to the modern monophyletic conception.

## Keywords

TBFV, species delimitation, genomics, phylogenetics

## 1. Introduction

Genus *Flavivirus* includes 53 species (as of November 2020) and more than 40 of them are pathogenic for humans. In accordance with a vector, flaviviruses can be divided into the tick-borne flavivirus (TBFV) group, the mosquito-borne flavivirus group, and the no known vector group (Grard et al., 2007; Moureau et al., 2015).

TBFV are a large group of arboviruses transmitted by hard and soft ticks. Members of the TBFV are widely dispersed across Africa, Europe, Asia, Oceania, and North America (Heinze et al., 2012). TBFV may infect vertebrates which can be reservoirs and play a vital role in maintenance of viruses in natural foci.

The TBFV group has 12 members: Louping ill virus (LIV), Kyasanur Forest diseases virus (KFDV), Powassan virus (POWV), Omsk haemorrhagic fever (OHFV), tick-borne encephalitis virus (TBEV), Gadgets Gully virus (GGYV), Langat virus (LGTV), Royal Farm virus (RFV), Meaban virus (MEAV), Saumarez Reef virus (SREV), Tyuleny virus (TYUV), Kadam virus (KADV); the first five of them (LIV, KFDV, POWV, OHFV, and TBEV) are important pathogens of humans also known as the “tick-borne encephalitis (TBE) serocomplex”: OHFV and KFDV cause haemorrhagic fever in humans, other three viruses (LIV, POWV, and TBEV) induce meningitis, encephalitis, and meningoencephalitis (Shi et al., 2018). The most notorious member of this complex is TBEV. About 12,000 tick-borne encephalitis (TBE) cases are detected annually. Foci of TBEV have been

identified in the Russia, Europe, northern China, South Korea, and Japan (Dobler et al., 2017). Recently, Fares et al. (2020) have reported the presence of TBEV (European subtype) in northern Africa (Tunisia).

Not so long ago, taxonomy rearrangements within the TBFV group have taken place. Based on genetic analysis of a polyprotein and an envelope protein of KFDV and Alkhumra haemorrhagic fever virus (AHFV), species *Kyasanur Forest diseases virus* and *Alkhumra haemorrhagic fever virus* have been fused into the one taxon – *Kyasanur Forest diseases virus* (Charrel et al., 2001). Also, considering genetic distances, species *Powassan virus* and *Deer tick virus* have been merged into one as well (Beasley et al., 2001).

Interesting taxonomy perturbations have occurred with species *Royal farm virus* and *Karshi virus*: according to the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV) these two species had been merged in 1999 with no specific reasons mentioned in the available literature. Here, it is important to note that the phylogenetic distance between RFV and Karshi virus (KFV) significantly exceeds empirical interspecies threshold regarding the other TBFV species (Grard et al., 2007; Moureau et al., 2015).

Another vague situation in terms of taxonomy is observed within the TBEV group: on the phylogenetic trees, LIV is a sister group of the European subtype of the TBEV clade (Dai et al., 2018; Uzcátegui et al., 2012), thus the species *Tick-borne encephalitis virus* is a paraphyletic group. This fact contradicts not only modern cladistics, but also the ICTV definition of the species taxon: “A species is a **monophyletic group** of viruses whose properties can be distinguished from those of other species by multiple criteria <https://talk.ictvonline.org/information/w/ictv-information/383/ictv-code>”.

Therefore, the taxonomy status of the TBEV+LIV group remains unclear. Also, there are several LIV-like viruses (Spanish goat encephalitis virus (SGEV), Spanish sheep encephalitis virus (SSEV), Turkish sheep encephalitis virus (TSEV), and Greek goat encephalitis virus (GGEV)) that are not currently classified.

90 The intraspecies structure of TBEV is presented by five main subtypes  
 91 (listed in the order they were discovered and described): the Far-Eastern (TBEV-  
 92 FE), the European (TBEV-E), the Siberian (TBEV-S), the Baikalian (TBEV-B;  
 93 Adelshin et al. (2019); Kovalev and Mukhacheva (2017); Kozlova et al. (2018)),  
 94 the Himalayan (TBEV-H; Dai et al. (2018)). The subtype names point out their  
 95 prevalent geographic distribution, however, for TBEV-E and TBEV-S, there are  
 96 “irregular” isolates found far from their primary foci. TBEV-S, in particular, is  
 97 most widespread, it is found almost across TBEV distribution range. On a  
 98 phylogenetic tree, the TBEV subtypes are all monophyletic groups and divided by  
 99 internal branches with the lengths possibly being long enough to delineate these  
 100 subtypes as species taxa.

101 In addition to monophyly and genomes relatedness, ICTV also considers the  
 102 follow criteria: natural and experimental host range, cell and tissue tropism,  
 103 pathogenicity, vector specificity, and antigenicity.

104 The final solution on the TBFV taxonomy issue is important concerning  
 105 epidemiology and prevention. A virus species due to the natural selection obtains  
 106 specific biological properties allowing them to adopt to specific host range. In the  
 107 case of TBFV, during infection, primary cell barrier is overcome due to  
 108 physicochemical interactions between virus envelope glycoprotein (E protein) and  
 109 receptors on the host cell surface. Amino acid sequences of E protein of different  
 110 TBFVs determine their specific host range. In humans, E protein is the main target  
 111 of immune response both after natural infection and vaccination. Several studies  
 112 showed significant variation of the E protein of TBEV subtypes that reduce cross-  
 113 immune response to infection by different TBEV strains (Bukin et al., 2017; Rey et  
 114 al., 1995). Clarification of taxonomy status of different TBFV members can aid  
 115 universal multivalent vaccine developers to improve prevention of virus infections.

116 This study aimed to clarify the ambiguity in the taxonomy structure of the  
 117 TBFV group using three molecular species delimitation methods and all available  
 118 complete genome data. Then, we focused on the analysis of the most dangerous  
 119 and widespread group of TBEV (including LIV). For TBEV and LIV we carried

120 out analysis of antigenic determinants of envelope protein (E) to clarify the issue of  
121 interspecies position of them. In conclusion, we analysed available literature on the  
122 remaining species criteria to make our approach in determining the interspecific  
123 threshold more comprehensive and holistic.

124

## 125 **2. Materials and methods**

### 126 *2.1. Genome data set preparation*

127 To delimit species units within the TBFV group, amino acid sequences of a  
128 complete ORF (3414 aa) available in ViPR (Pickett et al., 2012) were used. For  
129 each species, at least one sequence was found. A total of 278 amino acid sequences  
130 were used in the analysis (Table 1).

131 Sequences were visualised with AliView v.1.26 (Larsson, 2014) and aligned  
132 with MAFFT v.7 online (Kato et al., 2017; Kuraku et al., 2013).

### 133 *2.2. Phylogenetic analysis and model selection*

134 Phylogenetic analysis was performed with BEAST v.1.10.4 (Suchard et al.,  
135 2018) and IQTREE v. 1.6.12 (Nguyen et al., 2015) as implemented on the CIPRES  
136 web server (Miller et al., 2010). The best-fit amino acid substitution matrix with the  
137 lowest value of the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) (FLU+G<sub>4</sub>+I) was chosen  
138 by ModelFinder implemented (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017); number of gamma  
139 categories, alpha (shape) parameter of a gamma distribution (0.78) and proportion  
140 of invariant sites (0.13) were fixed in further analysis in BEAST. Based on  
141 coefficient of variation values of substitution rates (a mean value = 0.58; 95%  
142 HPD, 0.49-0.68), the relaxed clock with an uncorrelated lognormal distribution  
143 (UCLD) was selected as a molecular clock model. The birth-death (BD) model was  
144 chosen over a Yule prior since a preliminary BEAST run has demonstrated that a  
145 95 % highest posterior density (HPD) interval of death rate lay far enough from  
146 zero (0.991-0.999).

147 The reproducibility of each Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analysis  
148 was tested by five independent BEAST runs. Each MCMC analyses was run for

149 100 million iterations, with a tree sampled every 2,500 steps. Burn-in proportion  
150 was selected in each run individually. Then, we combined all analysis logs (\*.log  
151 and \*.trees file of the BEAST output) in LogCombiner and analysed the summary  
152 log with TreeAnnotator to obtain the most credible clade tree. The convergence  
153 and effective sample sizes (ESS) of the summary log were assessed using a Tracer  
154 v.1.7.1 program (Rambaut et al., 2018). The BEAST project file, the consensus  
155 tree and the output Tracer logs (combined by LogCombiner) are available from  
156 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13614080>.

### 157 2.3. *Species delimitation*

158 To delineate TBFV species we employed three bioinformatics delimitation  
159 methods. The maximum likelihood tree, reconstructed in IQTREE, was rooted by  
160 Apoi virus (NC\_003676) as an outgroup and used to delimit species by a Bayesian  
161 implementation of the Poisson tree processes (PTP) model (Zhang et al., 2013)  
162 using an online service: <https://species.h-its.org/>.

163 The generalized mixed Yule coalescent (GMYC) method (Fujisawa and  
164 Barraclough, 2013) implemented in the “splits” package for the R was applied to  
165 determine clusters at the species level on the ultrametric tree previously  
166 reconstructed with BEAST.

167 The amino acid distance matrix calculated by the maximum likelihood  
168 method implemented in IQTREE program was used for species delimitation by  
169 using the Automatic barcode gap discovery (ABGD) method (Puillandre et al.,  
170 2012) with the online service: <https://www.abi.snv.jussieu.fr/public/abgd/>.

### 171 2.4. *Comparative analysis of viral antigenic determinants sequences*

172 The TBEV Sofjin strain (1488 nt) was used for a nucleotide BLAST  
173 (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) to search for homologous E gene  
174 nucleotide sequences in GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>).  
175 BLAST parameters were set as following: word size was set as 11;  
176 match/mismatch scores – 2,-3; gap costs – existence: 5, extensions: 2. Initially, 982  
177 nucleotide sequences were found. The nucleotide data set obtained was translated

178 to amino acids and filtered by a length threshold of 367 aa (~75 % of E protein).  
 179 Using the resulting data set (932 sequences), we performed phylogenetic analysis  
 180 with IQTREE v.1.6.12 program to determine a virus subtype. As a result, we  
 181 assigned the next five phylogenetic groups: TBEV-FE, TBEV-S, TBEV-E, TBEV-  
 182 B and LIV. TBEV-H and other TBEV lineages were excluded cause of an  
 183 insufficient number of sequences for inter- and intragroup genetic analysis. After  
 184 that, based on published crystallography results (Rey et al., 1995), fragments  
 185 exposed at the virus surface – the antigenic determinants, – were defined and  
 186 isolated from full-length amino acid sequences of the E protein (the length of  
 187 antigenic determinants was 224 aa; for more information on this procedure see  
 188 Bukin et al. (2017)). For the amino acid sequences of antigenic determinants, a  
 189 length threshold was set as 190 aa (85% of total determinants length). The final  
 190 alignment comprised 812 antigenic determinant amino acid sequences of TBEV  
 191 and LIV (Table 2).

192 To calculate the inter- and intragroup pairwise protein evolutionary distances  
 193 for antigenic determinants, we performed phylogenetic analysis by IQTREE  
 194 v.1.6.12 with ultrafast bootstrap replicates (1000 trees in total) (Hoang et al.,  
 195 2018). The best-fit amino acid substitution matrix according to the lowest BIC  
 196 values calculated by ModelFinder was HIVb+G<sub>4</sub>. Further, inter- and intragroup  
 197 pairwise distances with 95% credible intervals (CIs) in each tree were analysed  
 198 with an R script. The R script is available from  
 199 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14774094.v1>. The  $F_{st}$  values were (the  
 200 measure of intergroup subdivision) obtained as follows:

$$F_{st} = 1 - \frac{H_w}{H_b},$$

201 where  $H_w$  are mean intragroup genetic distances,  $H_b$  are intergroup genetic  
 202 distances (Hudson et al., 1992). The P-values were determined as a proportion of  
 203 negative or zero  $F_{st}$  values from the total number of tree samples (1000).

204 Visualization of violine plots was executed in R with the Vioplot v.0.2.  
 205 package (<https://github.com/TomKellyGenetics/vioplot>).



206

### 207 **3. Results**

#### 208 *3.1. Phylogenetic analysis*

209 Results of phylogenetic analysis performed in BEAST revealed a clear  
210 asymmetric tree shape with very high posterior probability (pp) of main nodes  
211 except for the KADV isolate with pp of 0.46; its phylogenetic position regarding  
212 the other TBFV members remains uncertain (Fig. 1). All species clusters revealed  
213 (which are not singletons) have pp of 1.

#### 214 *3.2. Delimitation results and discrepancies with the official taxonomy*

215 The TBFV group was divided into 34, 18, 44 evolutionary significant  
216 species units by the GMYC, ABGD and PTP analysis, respectively (Table 3).

217 The discrepancy between the official taxonomy and the delineation results is  
218 observed within the TBEV+LIV paraphyletic group and OHFV, KFDV+AHFV,  
219 POWV, GGYV, RFV+KSIV, TYUV monophyletic groups (Fig. 1).

220 The TYUV cluster was divided into two species units according to GMYC  
221 and PTP methods. The isolate DQ235148 from the Three Arch Rocks National  
222 Wildlife Refuge (USA, Oregon) was separated from two other isolates (KF815939,  
223 KT224356) from the Russian Far East (the Sea of Okhotsk, Tyuleniy Island), with  
224 air distance between these isolation places being about 6,000 km.

225 The RFV+KSIV isolates from the Central Asia (Uzbekistan, Afghanistan,  
226 Turkmenistan, and Northwest China) showed significant intragroup amino acid  
227 diversity despite their geographic distance is relatively small. Notably that the  
228 isolate DQ235149 (Afghanistan) diverged from other RFV+KSIV members more  
229 than TUYV diverged from SREV and MEAV. The GMYC, the ABGD and the  
230 PTP algorithms split the RFV+KSIV cluster into 4, 3, 4 distinct species units,  
231 respectively.

232 The GGYV cluster formed by two isolates (MN830233, DQ235145) from  
233 Australia and Antarctica has split into two species units by all three methods.



234 The POWV group has split into two species units by the GMYC method,  
235 however the PTP algorithm discovered 4 species. The POWV group consists of  
236 two distinct clades, which have a clear geographical determinant (the Russian Far-  
237 East and USA) of isolates clustering (Supplemental Fig. 1). The PTP method  
238 delimits the each of two main cluster into two species units. The GMYC methods  
239 identified two main clusters as two species units without splitting them within.  
240 ABGD showed the most conservative point of view and didn't split POWV cluster  
241 as it is in the official taxonomy. Thus, delimitation methods remained POWV  
242 taxonomy structure unresolved.

243 According to GMYC and PTP, the KFDV+AHFV cluster is delimited into  
244 two distinct species – KFDV (India) and AHFV (Saudi Arabia). In turn, the ABGD  
245 support official taxonomy status of the RFDV+AHFV group as a single species  
246 taxon.

247 The OHFV group was divided into two species units by the GMYC and PTP  
248 methods, and the ABGD method defined the cluster as a single species.

249 Delimitation methods showed the most inconsistency in the case of the  
250 TBEV+LIV paraphyletic group. All three delineation methods defined TBEV and  
251 LIV as distinct species, however interspecies separation in both viruses was  
252 different. Generally, within the TBEV group, the GMYC and PTP methods,  
253 compared to ABGD, delimited species more frequently – 10, 16, and 3 species,  
254 respectively. Concerning LIV and LIV-like viruses, ABGD once again was more  
255 conservative (2 species clusters – LIV + SGEV + SSEV and TSEV + GGEV),  
256 whereas GMYC and PTP determined 6 and 8 species, respectively. Notably, TSEV  
257 isolated in Turkey and GGEV isolated in Greece were not only delimited by all of  
258 three methods but they were also geographically distant from LIV (British Isles)  
259 and both LIV-like viruses (Spain). In this case, phylogenetic analysis provided  
260 strong evidence of geographic clustering, which is also consistent with delimitation  
261 analysis. Since the TBEV+LIV group are most representative in terms of a number  
262 of available sequences and literature information on the other viral species criteria  
263 (e.g., pathogenicity, cell and tissue tropism, vector specificity, etc.), we decided to

do the additional analysis of this group. We have analysed the envelope protein amino acid sequences of TBEV and LIV to distinguish these putative viruses considering their antigenic properties.

### 3.3 Comparing antigenic determinants of TBEV and LIV

The analysis of protein evolutionary distances between the antigenic determinants of TBEV and LIV showed that LIV is statistically different from all TBEV subtypes (including TBEV-E; Fig. 2, Table 4).

LIV intragroup distances have the highest mean value and the widest 95% CI that, in turn, indicate the highest antigenic polymorphism of LIV (Fig. 3). However, 95% CI of LIV are visibly overlapped with TBEV-FE and TBEV-S CIs.

As with LIV, TBEV-E are significant different from other TBEV subtypes (Supplemental Fig. 2c, g), with an exception of TBEV-S (there is a slight overlapping of 95% CIs; Supplemental Fig. 2e). In contrast, the inter- and intragroup genetic distances of the remaining three TBEV subtypes (TBEV-FE, TBEV-B, TBEV-S) do not significantly differ (there is overlapping of CIs; Supplemental Fig. 2b, d, f).

In all cases of comparing TBEV-E and LIV versus other TBEV subtypes,  $F_{st}$  values were more than 0.5 (Table 4). Notably, in the same table we can see that the mean values of intergroup distances of all viruses analysed are more than intragroup distances, but, as we discussed above, CIs of TBEV-FE, -B, and -S pairwise intragroup distances are overlapped significantly and, as a consequence, are not statistically distinct.

On the consensus phylogenetic tree (Supplemental Fig. 3) of TBEV and LIV reconstructed using the amino acid sequences of antigenic determinants, TBEV-S has no reliable bootstrap support (91 and 45 score for ultrafast bootstrap and SH-aLRT methods, respectively) and, therefore, cannot be surely separated from TBEV-FE and -B unlike TBEV-E and LIV which have high enough support score (95/94 and 99/100, respectively).

## 293 4. Discussion

### 294 4.1. Delimitation of TBEV and LIV phylogenetic group

295 All three delimitation methods separated TBEV-E into a distinct species  
 296 taxon. The results of the TBEV and LIV antigenic determinants comparison  
 297 demonstrated that TBEV-E and LIV are probably different from each other and the  
 298 remaining TBEV subtypes regarding their antigenic properties. Concurrently,  
 299 TBEV-FE, -B, and -S subtypes are not statistically distinct by antigenic  
 300 determinants structure. To keep monophyly principle, we should whether to  
 301 combine TBEV-E and LIV as a single species, or assign them as two separate taxa.  
 302 Thereby, to holistically scrutinised this problem, we have analysed available  
 303 literature for other viral species criteria. It should be noted that according to all  
 304 three delimitation methods TBEV-H was delineated as separated species as well,  
 305 however, there is no data on its biological particularities and we will therefore not  
 306 consider it as an independent taxon.

307

### 308 4.2. Consideration of the biological and ecological peculiarities of TBEV and 309 LIV and comparing them with species delimitation results

310 It is reliably known that TBEV infects humans causing severe meningitis,  
 311 encephalitis, and meningoencephalitis. Contrarily, cases of LIV infections in  
 312 humans are relatively rare, with signs of acute meningoencephalitis and  
 313 poliomyelitis being described. The clinical picture for humans infected with LIV is  
 314 very similar for that produced by TBEV-E: The first phase of disease is  
 315 characterised by fever (2–11 days) followed by remission (5–6 days) and then the  
 316 re-emergence of fever and meningoencephalitis lasting 4–10 days, usually with full  
 317 recovery (Gritsun et al., 2003). Notably, a biphasic course is observed in 74% of  
 318 TBE patients infected with TBEV-E (Kaiser, 1999), but TBEV-FE and -S  
 319 infections are predominantly monophasic, only a small reminder demonstrating a  
 320 biphasic pattern (Mansfield et al., 2009). Also, infections with TBEV-FE often

321 cause an illness with a gradual onset, more severe course, higher rates of severe  
322 neurologic sequelae compared to TBEV-E infections (Bogovic and Strle, 2015).

323 One of the most important peculiarities of neurotropic viruses is their ability  
324 to across the blood brain barrier (BBB) and cause encephalitis. LIV induce  
325 encephalitis in sheep annually, morbidity and mortality rates ranging from 5 to  
326 60% (Jeffries et al., 2014). In contrast, TBEV seems to show nonvirulence for  
327 livestock (there are no reports of mass epizootics in Eurasia) and, apparently,  
328 persists in wild rodents asymptotically. In experiments, it was demonstrated that  
329 three TBEV subtypes (TBEV-FE, -E, -S) are able to induce encephalitis in bank  
330 voles (*Myodes glareolus*) but causing neuronal death in this natural host in very  
331 rare cases (Tonteri et al., 2013). In the same study it was shown that TBEV-FE has  
332 distinctive infectious kinetics in bank voles: The long duration of TBEV-FE  
333 viremia may suggest a different transmission pattern as compared to TBEV-E.

334 Intriguing results were obtained during experiments with sheep (Votikov et  
335 al., 2002). In the number of studies, sheep received virus solution containing  
336 TBEV-FE and TBEV-E subcutaneously and by intracerebral infection (15 and 24  
337 sheep for TBEV-FE and -E experiments on intracerebral infection, respectively). It  
338 was shown that subcutaneous infection of sheep as well as infection via ticks with  
339 TBEV-E didn't yield transition of BBB induced only meningitis. In the case of  
340 intracerebral infectious, TBEV-E showed clear biphasic course with neurological  
341 symptoms (anisocoria, ptosis, myelitic paresis, tonic-clonic spasm) and mortality  
342 rate only 12,5%. The viral titer in the different parts of brain (cortex, cerebellum,  
343 medulla, cervical, lumbar) during the first phase (fever phase) ranged 1.2-2.8  
344 lgLD<sub>50</sub> (mean = 2.0). In the blood, virus titer averaged 2.5 lgLD<sub>50</sub> and was higher  
345 than in the CNS. The morphological studies of the CNS showed glial nodes took  
346 8.5-21.5% of microscope fields of view (FOV; mean – 14,6%). Neuronophagia  
347 took only 5.6-10.0% of FOV (mean – 7.4%). Damage to the neurons occurs only in  
348 some animals as a secondary inflammatory effect arising from infection of glial  
349 cells. Whereas, in contrast, the intracerebral infection of sheep with TBEV-FE (the  
350 strain “198”) demonstrated mortality rate of 100%. The course of the disease was

monophasic and severe and developed rapidly. Already on days 2-3, signs of focal brain damage simultaneously with fever were rapidly developing in sheep. The viral titer in the CNS was on average 1.3 lgLD<sub>50</sub> higher (1.2-1.8 lgLD<sub>50</sub>) than in the blood. Primary degenerative CNS disorders prevailed. Neuronophagia took 32.5-42.5% of FOV (mean – 37.5%). Glial nodes ranged widely 34.0-99.0% of FOV (mean – 56.1%). For details, see Supplemental table 2.

Votiakov et al. (1978) also showed that European virus initially did not replicate in or damage neuronal cells even after intracerebral infection. Instead, the primary target of European virus was lymphoid tissue and the virus subsequently appeared in the brains, 6–9 days after inoculation (in cerebellum predominantly) of those animals that developed encephalitis. In turn, Far-Eastern virus directly infected and damaged neurons in the brain, resulting in severe encephalitis. These facts evidently indicate that TBEV-FE is more neurotropic than TBEV-E.

In USSR, in the periods 1954-1961 and 1966-1968 Votiakov V.I. and Protas I.I. conducted clinical observations of TBE in humans in Belarus (BSSR) and Khabarovsk Krai (the Far-East region, where pioneering TBEV research work was done by Lev Zilber's expedition) (Votiakov et al., 2002). In Belarus, 198 individuals were observed during 1954-1961, and, furthermore, Votiakov et al. continued their observation until 1998 with a number of patients reaching 928. In Khabarovsk Krai (1966-1968), total number of individuals observed was 149. All of them had a contact with ticks. Observations showed clear differences in forms of the disease between cases in Belarus and the Far-East. In Belarus (1954-1961), no cases of encephalitis were reported (meningoencephalitis had a diffuse form with transient signs (32%), whereas focal forms were absent), with serous meningitis prevailing (52%). Furthermore, Votiakov et al. (2002) also reported that for 44 years of observations, no cases of meningoencephalitis with focal forms was registered in Belarus. Opposite, in Khabarovsk Krai (1966-1968), serous meningitis was absent, meningeal form with encephalitis signs predominated (32.2%); together with that diffuse and focal meningoencephalitis were observed (16.1% and 14.1%, respectively). Moreover, in Belarus (1954-1998), no cases of

polioencephalomyelitis were observed, unlike Khabarovsk Krai where this form of the disease accounted for 21.5%. For details, see Supplemental table 1. Also, Votikov et al. (2002) provide data on the number of cases of laboratory-acquired infection in their laboratory in Belarus (9 cases), in laboratories of Slovakia (11 cases), and 10 cases of infections with far-eastern TBEV strains in the Far-East. Five of ten cases involved the far-eastern strains were lethal, while in Slovakia and Belarus no lethal cases were registered. As it was described above, the Far-Eastern strains induced focal meningoencephalitis (4 of 10 cases) and polioencephalomyelitis with wide paresis and bulbar palsy. In Slovakia and Belarus, none of those clinical forms was observed, with meningitis prevailing (6 of 11 cases in Slovakia, 5 of 9 cases in Belarus). The given data once again indicates a more severe nature of the course of TBEV-FE and its relatively high neurotropicity.

Case fatality rates (CFR) for each TBEV subtype are different – TBEV-FE has the highest fatality rate (~20%) (Bogovic and Strle, 2015; Dobler et al., 2017), TBEV-S CFR rarely exceeds 6-8% (Gritsun et al., 2003), and TBEV-E CFR ranges from 1-2% (Bogovic and Strle, 2015). In turn, only one fatal case of LIV infection has been recorded (Williams and Thorburn, 1962). It should be mentioned that epidemiological data show wide variability – the findings may be biased by the different types of medical treatment and by the distinctions in evaluating abortive and asymptomatic forms proportion of TBE.

The other important particularities of virus species are vector and geographic distribution. It is interesting that for TBEV and LIV ticks are both a vector and a reservoir. It was found that the main vector for TBEV-FE and TBEV-S is *Ixodes persulcatus*, for TBEV-E and LIV, in turn, – *I. ricinus*. The spatial distribution of TBEV and LIV is based mainly on the habitats of these tick species and reservoir hosts: TBEV-E is predominantly distributed in Central Europe, TBEV-S and TBEV-FE are mostly spread throughout Siberia and the Far East. LIV is primarily found in the British Isles (upland areas of Great Britain and Ireland), with records also from the Russian Far-East (Leonova et al., 2015), Norway and Spain (Jeffries



et al., 2014). Not so long ago, it was believed that TBEV is absent in the British Isles, though it has been recently shown the presence of TBEV-E in the East of England (Holding et al., 2020).

Considering reservoir transmission hosts, LIV once again demonstrates an obvious difference from TBEV. Unlike all TBEV subtypes, LIV is primarily found in red grouse and sheep inducing encephalitis and high mortality rate in both (78% in red grouse (Gilbert, 2016), 5–60% in sheep (Jeffries et al., 2014)), not small rodents. Although rodents such as field voles (*Microtus agrestis*), bank voles (*M. glareolus*) and wood mice (*Apodemus sylvaticus*) raised an antibody response to infection, they could not produce a substantial viremia and did not support non-viraemic transmission between co-feeding ticks (Gilbert et al., 2000). Furthermore, red grouse tend not to feed adult *I. ricinus* and is not therefore able to maintain transmission cycle without aid of another host that feeds adult ticks (e.g. deer, so-called “reproduction hosts” (Gilbert, 2016)). This leads to the fact that LIV has patchy spatial distribution with different combinations of reservoir hosts occurring. This is exactly opposite of the TBEV transmission patterns and natural foci structure formed by primarily small rodents.

The dissimilarity of the clinical picture, cell tropism, host range specificity, and pathogenicity of TBEV subtypes and LIV may speculatively be explained by differences in the antigenic determinants structure. Hubálek et al. (1995) employed indirect immunofluorescence test and revealed a clear difference between LIV strains and the TBEV-FE prototype strain “Sofjin”. On the UPGMA tree, representing of antigenic relationships of the viruses, LIV strains formed a common cluster with a TBEV-E strain, the TBEV-FE strain laying far from them as an outgroup. It is consistent with our results of TBEV and LIV antigenic determinants comparative analysis (Fig. 2).

The data reviewed supports the hypothesis of considering TBEV-E and LIV as distinct virus species.



### 439 4.3. Delimitation of the remaining members of the TBFV group

440 The delimitation methods elucidated cryptic species within following clades:  
 441 TYUV, RFV+KSIV, GGYV, POWV, KFDV+AHFV, and OHFV. In all of these  
 442 cases, phylogenetic species concept (members descend from a common ancestor)  
 443 is kept. Some of the clades (e.g. RFV+KSIV, GGYV) contain distances that  
 444 obviously exceed the interspecies threshold. In some cases, the situation with  
 445 cryptic species still remains uncertain.

### 446 4.4. Our taxonomy proposal

447 Taking into account all the phenotypic manifestations of viruses described  
 448 above as well as our analysis results, we offer to delineate TBEV-E (with the NL  
 449 lineage) and LIV into two distinct taxa from the joint TBEV clad and assign them  
 450 as *European tick-borne encephalitis virus* and *Louping-ill virus*, respectively. To  
 451 keep the conception of monophyly, we propose to join SGEV and SSEV with the  
 452 LIV clade into the single species. As a consequence, to maintain monophyly,  
 453 TSEV and GGEV should be considered as a distinct species as well (Fig. 1) and  
 454 assigned as *Turkish-Greek louping-ill virus*. The other TBEV subtypes (TBEV-FE,  
 455 TBEV-B, TBEV-S, TBEV-H) being a monophyletic group are treated by us as a  
 456 single species (Fig. 1) which we propose assign as *Asian tick-borne encephalitis*  
 457 *virus*.

458 Consideration of taxonomic status of the other virus species outside the  
 459 TBEV complex is beyond the scope of this study, however our delimitation results  
 460 indicate possible fields of future TBFV taxonomy investigation.

461

## 462 5. Conclusion

463 To summaries, we have put the data on all TBEV and LIV particularities  
 464 observed into a Supplemental table 3. LIV has shown clear differences in severity  
 465 of the disease in humans and sheep being biphasic like TBEV-E. LIV also has  
 466 relatively low CFR (only one official recorded case). In our analysis, all three  
 467 delimitation methods showed that LIV and TBEV-E are distinct species.

Comparison of envelope protein amino acid distances elucidated that LIV and TBEV-E are significantly different from all TBEV subtypes (and from each other). TBEV-E as well as LIV has a biphasic course in humans, less disease severity with meningitis prevailing, low CFR, and shares with LIV the common vector – *I. ricinus*. However, experiments with sheep showed that TBEV-E cannot cross BBB, had relatively small lethality rate (even after intracerebral infection), and didn't cause encephalitis and death after subcutaneous infection or infection via ticks.

We believe that the differences described above are sufficient to delineate TBEV-E and LIV from the joint TBEV clade into distinct taxa.

Considering TBEV-E as a separate species is also of practical importance. In particular, two commercially available vaccines for TBEV prevention based on the K23 and Neudoerfl strains (TBEV-E), namely Encepur (“Novartis Vaccines and Diagnostics” Germany) and FSME Immun Inject (“Baxter”, Austria) have been used in Russia (Siberia region) until 2015 despite that TBEV-E isn't widespread in this territory (in the literature, there are only isolated cases are described (Adelshin et al., 2015; Demina et al., 2010; Demina et al., 2017)). Our results showed significant differences in phylogenetic pairwise distances of antigenic determinants of main TBEV subtypes and LIV. Design of vaccine based on subtype-specific strains may theoretically increase the vaccination efficient (for details, see Bukin et al. (2017)). However, this hypothesis ought to be tested in animals in the future.

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**Fig. 1.** The phylogenetic tree of TBFVs. The tree was reconstructed in BEAST using complete amino acid sequences (n = 278) of the polyprotein (3414 aa). For clarity, some of the wide clades were collapsed. Vertical bars to the right of tree tips indicate official classification (brown), our taxonomy proposal (orange), and delimitation results. Internal nodes with pp = 1 are marked as white circles, otherwise support values are shown by numbers ranged from 0 to 1.

**Fig. 2.** Comparing intra- and intergroup pairwise genetic distances of LIV and TBEV epitopes (224 aa). The distances were calculated based on 1000 replicates of ultrafast bootstrap analysis using 812 amino acid sequences. Distributions of intra- and intergroup pairwise distances are displayed as white and grey violin plots, respectively. Upper and lower boundaries of violin plots represent 95% CIs. Black vertical bars within plots are standard deviation, white circles – a mean value. The Y axes show genetic distances expressed in amino acid residue substitutions per site. On the X axis are TBEV subtypes (FE – Far-Eastern, S – Siberian, E – European, B – Baikalian) and LIV.

**Fig. 3.** Distributions of intragroup pairwise genetic distances of LIV and TBEV antigenic determinants (224 aa). The designations are the same as in the figure 2.

**Table 1.** The number of amino acid sequences of an ORF region (~ 3414 aa) for each TBFV group member used for phylogenetic reconstruction and species delimitation.

Member	A number of ORF sequences
GGYV	2
KADV	1
KFDV+AHFV	25
LGTV	3
LIV+LIV-like	30
MEAV	1
OHFV	3
POWV+DTV	23
RFV+KSIV	5
SREV	1
TBEV	181
TYUV	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>278</b>

**Table 2.** The number of sequences used in antigenic determinants comparative analysis.

Phylogenetic group	Number of sequences
TBEV-FE	293
TBEV-S	159
TBEV-E	308
TBEV-B	12
LIV	40
<b>Total</b>	<b>812</b>

**Table 3.** Results of the species delimitation tests in the TBFV group

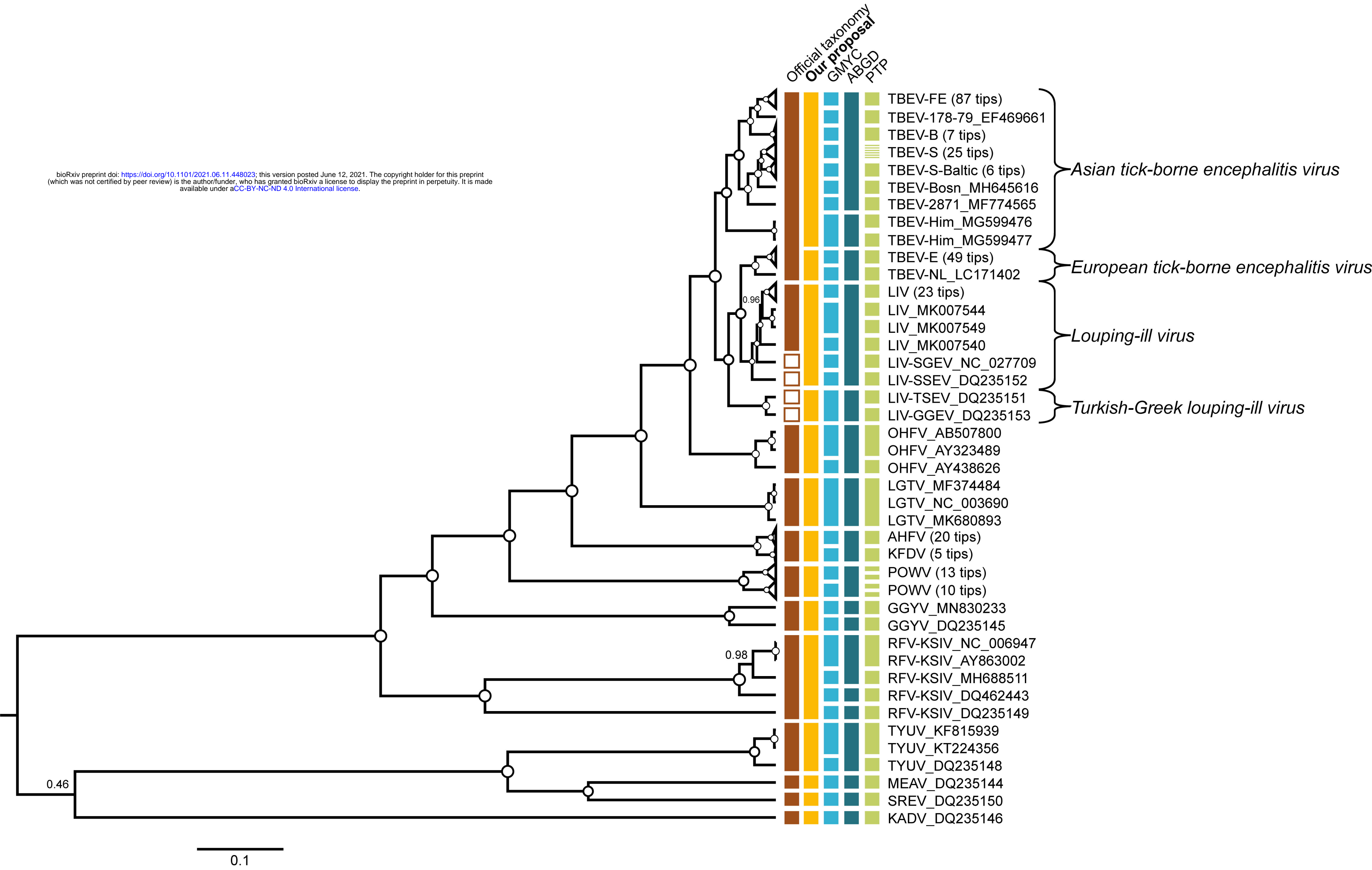
Gene	A number of species clusters		
	GMYC (P value for LR-test)	ABGD	PTP
Polypeptide	34 (1.3E-9)	18	44

686

687 **Table 4.** Inter- and intragroup pairwise genetic distances of TBEV and LIV  
688 antigenic determinants

Comparing virus pairs	Mean intragroup distance	Mean intergroup distance	F <sub>st</sub>	P-value
S-B	0.0062	0.0115	0.3666	0
FE-B	0.0047	0.0096	0.3968	
FE-S	0.0102	0.0203	0.4424	
*E-S	0.0088	0.0327	<b>0.7003</b>	
FE-E	0.0073	0.0410	<b>0.7961</b>	
<b>E-LIV</b>	0.0122	0.0817	<b>0.8424</b>	
S-LIV	0.0152	0.1080	<b>0.8541</b>	
FE-LIV	0.0136	0.1163	<b>0.8773</b>	
<b>E-B</b>	0.0033	0.0322	<b>0.8794</b>	
B-LIV	0.0096	0.1075	<b>0.9069</b>	

689 \* - pairs with TBEV-E or/and LIV were bolded



Intra- and intergroup genetic distances (aa substitutions per site)

