

1 **Detection and genetic characterization of porcine sapovirus from pigs with**
2 **diarrhea**

3

4 Huigang Shen^{1,§}, Jianfeng Zhang^{1,2,§}, Phillip C. Gauger¹, Eric R Burrough¹, Jianqiang Zhang¹,
5 Karen Harmon, Leyi Wang³, Ying Zheng¹, Thomas Petznick⁴, Ganwu Li^{1*}

6

7 ¹Department of Veterinary Diagnostic and Production Animal Medicine, College of Veterinary
8 Medicine, Iowa State University, Ames, IA 50011, USA

9 ²Institute of Animal Health, Guangdong Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Key Laboratory of
10 Livestock Disease Prevention of Guangdong Province, Scientific Observation and Experiment
11 Station of Veterinary Drugs and Diagnostic Techniques of Guangdong Province, Guangzhou,
12 Guangdong 510640, China

13 ³Department of Veterinary Clinical Medicine and the Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory, College
14 of Veterinary Medicine, University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61802, USA

15 ⁴Arkcare, 70929 574th Ave, Fairbury, NE 68352, USA

16

17 [§]These two authors contributed to this work equally.

18

19 ***Correspondence**

20 Ganwu Li, Department of Veterinary Diagnostic and Production Animal Medicine, College of
21 Veterinary Medicine, Iowa State University, Ames, IA. Email: liganwu@iastate.edu

22

23 **Abstract**

24 Porcine Sapovirus (SaV) was first identified by electron microscopy in the United States in 1980
25 and has since been reported from both asymptomatic and diarrheic pigs usually in mixed
26 infection with other enteric pathogens. SaV as the sole etiological agent of diarrhea in naturally
27 infected pigs has not previously been reported in the United States. Here, we used four
28 independent lines of evidence including metagenomics analysis, real-time RT-PCR (rRT-PCR),
29 histopathology, and in situ hybridization to confirm porcine SaV genogroup III (GIII) as the sole
30 cause of enteritis and diarrhea in pigs. A highly sensitive and specific rRT-PCR was established
31 to detect porcine SaV GIII. Examination of 184 fecal samples from the outbreak farm showed
32 that pigs with clinical diarrhea had significantly lower Ct values (15.9 ± 0.59) compared to
33 clinically unaffected pigs (35.8 ± 0.71). Further survey of 336 fecal samples from different states
34 in the United States demonstrated that samples from pigs with clinical diarrhea had a comparable
35 positive rate (45.3%) with those from non-clinical pigs (43.1%). However, the SaV-positive pigs
36 with clinical diarrhea had significantly higher viral loads ($Ct = 26.0 \pm 0.5$) than those positive but
37 clinically healthy pigs ($Ct = 33.2 \pm 0.9$). Phylogenetic analysis of 20 field SaVs revealed that all
38 belonged to SaV GIII and recombination analysis indicated that intra-genogroup recombination
39 occurred within the field isolates of SaV GIII. These results suggest that porcine SaV GIII plays
40 an important etiologic role in swine enteritis and diarrhea and rRT-PCR is a reliable method to
41 detect porcine SaV. Our findings provide significant insights to better understand the
42 epidemiology and pathogenicity of porcine SaV.

43 INTRODUCTION

44 Sapovirus (SaV) is a member of the genus *Sapovirus* within the family *Caliciviridae*. It is a
45 positive sense, single-stranded RNA virus with a genome of approximately 7.1 to 7.7 kb in
46 length and a poly A tail at the 3' end (Alhatlani, Vashist, and Goodfellow, 2015; Oka et al.,
47 2016). The SaV genome contains two open reading frames (ORFs). The ORF1 encodes a large
48 polyprotein and the major capsid protein VP1 and the ORF2 encodes the minor structural protein
49 VP2 (Oka et al., 2016). The ORF1-encoded polyprotein undergoes protease processing to
50 produce nonstructural (NS) proteins including NS1, NS2, NS3 (putative NTPase), NS4, NS5
51 (VPg), and NS6-NS7 (protease and RNA dependent RNA polymerase, RdRp) (Oka et al., 2015).
52 SaVs are classified into different genogroups based on the VP1 sequences (Farkas et al., 2004;
53 Scheuer et al., 2013). A pairwise identity of VP1 amino acid sequence (< 57%) was used to
54 define a different SaV genogroup (Oka et al., 2016; Yinda et al., 2017). At present, SaVs are
55 classified into 19 genogroups and at least 52 genotypes based on complete VP1 sequences using
56 a pairwise distance cut-off value of ≤ 0.488 to distinguish different genogroups and ≤ 0.169 to
57 distinguish different genotypes (Nagai et al., 2020; Oka et al., 2015). Among them, 17
58 genogroups (GII, GIII, and GV–GXIX) have been identified in animals and four (GI, GII, GIV,
59 and GV) in humans (Scheuer et al., 2013) with genogroups II (GII) and V (GV) detected in both
60 animals and humans (Oka et al., 2015). Thus far, at least eight genogroups (GIII, GV, GVI,
61 GVII, GVIII, GIX, GX, and GXI) of SaVs have been associated with pigs (Nagai et al., 2020;
62 Oka et al., 2016; Scheuer et al., 2013). Our recent genomic characterization study reveals that
63 highly divergent porcine SaV strains co-circulate in the field in the US (Wang et al., 2020). In
64 addition to nucleotide mutation, insertion and deletion in genome and recombination might
65 contribute to virus evolution (Wang et al., 2020).

66 SaVs can cause gastroenteritis in humans and animals (Oka et al., 2015). Porcine SaV was first
67 identified by electron microscopy in the United States in 1980 in a mixed infection with other
68 viruses (Saif et al., 1980) and since then, SaVs have been reported from both diarrheic and
69 asymptomatic pigs (das Mercedes Hernandez et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2006).
70 Experimental infection of cell culture-adapted SaVs in gnotobiotic piglets successfully induced
71 enteritis and diarrhea (Flynn, Saif, and Moorhead, 1988; Guo et al., 2001). However, in the field,
72 SaVs are often identified as a mixed infection with other diarrheic pathogens (Dufkova et al.,
73 2013; Mijovski et al., 2010; Scheuer et al., 2013), while SaV as the sole etiological agent of
74 diarrhea in naturally infected pigs has, until this time, never been reported in the United States.

75 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

76 **Clinical samples and history**

77 In February of 2019, the Iowa State University Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory (ISU VDL)
78 received a diagnostic submission from a farm experiencing an ongoing problem with piglet
79 diarrhea in the lactation phase for more than 2 years (Case #1 in Table 1). The pigs reportedly
80 exhibited a pasty to occasional semiliquid diarrhea starting around 10 days of age. The diarrhea
81 was generally described as self-limiting, but the pigs would typically lose 1-2 lbs of expected
82 weaning weight. Fecal and intestinal tissue samples were received at the ISU VDL as part of this
83 diagnostic submission. Histopathological examination of intestinal samples from five clinically
84 affected piglets revealed that 5/5 small intestines had moderate villous atrophy with lymphocytic
85 infiltration in the lamina propria suggestive of an enteric viral infection (Fig. 1A-D). Porcine
86 epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV), porcine deltacoronavirus (PDCoV), transmissible
87 gastroenteritis virus (TGEV), and rotaviruses (genogroups A-C) were not detected in the

88 intestinal contents using real-time RT-PCR (rRT-PCR) assays. Additionally, there was no
89 significant growth of common bacterial pathogens from the affected small intestines.
90 As part of a follow-up investigation, a total of 184 fecal swab samples were collected from pigs
91 with clinical diarrhea and healthy pigs of varying ages. These swabs included 34 samples from
92 pigs between 8 and 12 days of age, 100 samples from two-week-old pigs, and 50 samples from
93 pigs between 12 and 16 weeks of age. All samples were collected from the original submitting
94 farm and were subjected to SaV GIII rRT-PCR.

95 In addition, 234 fecal samples from swine with diarrhea and 102 from clinically healthy pigs that
96 were submitted to the ISU VDL for routine diagnostics by unrelated farms from different states
97 across the United States were also tested by SaV GIII rRT-PCR.

98 **Next generation sequencing (NGS)**

99 Total nucleic acid of clinical samples was extracted using MagMAX Pathogen RNA/DNA Kit
100 with KingFisher™ Flex System (Thermo Fisher Scientific) (Zhang et al., 2017). Double stranded
101 cDNA was synthesized using NEXTflex™ Rapid RNA-Seq Kit (Bioo Scientific Corp, TX).
102 Sequencing library was prepared using Nextera XT DNA library preparation kit (Illumina, CA)
103 with dual indexing. The pooled libraries were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq platform at the
104 NGS unit in the ISU VDL, with 500-Cycle v2 Reagent Kit (Illumina) to generate 250 base-pair
105 paired-end reads by following standard Illumina protocols. Raw reads of each sample were
106 demultiplexed automatically on the MiSeq with the default settings.

107 **Bioinformatics analysis**

108 Raw sequencing reads were pre-processed using Trimmomatic v0.36 to remove adapters and
109 trim low quality ends (Bolger, Lohse, and Usadel, 2014). Raw reads and pre-processed reads
110 were subjected to sequencing quality analysis with FastQC

111 (<https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>) to ensure the efficiency of
112 cleaning. Cleaned reads were fed to a comprehensive reference-assisted virus genome assembly
113 pipeline (Chen et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2017) with modifications. The cleaned reads were
114 aligned to host reference genome using BWA-MEM (Li and Durbin, 2009). The non-host reads
115 were classified using Kraken v1.0 (Wood and Salzberg, 2014) and the unclassified reads were
116 further classified using Kaiju v1.6.2 (Menzel, Ng, and Krogh, 2016). KronaTools-2.7 (Ondov,
117 Bergman, and Phillippy, 2011) was used to generate the interactive html charts for hierarchical
118 classification results. Reads of interest were extracted and used for assembly by using ABySS
119 v1.3.9 (Simpson et al., 2009). The resulting contigs were manually curated to remove
120 contaminated contigs and trim chimeric contigs in SeqMan Pro (DNASTAR® Lasergene 11
121 Core Suite) and finally refined to obtain the genome sequence.

122 **Histopathology and Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH)**

123 Sections of duodenum, jejunum, and ileum were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin and
124 processed by standard paraffin embedding technique and then stained with hematoxylin and
125 eosin (HE). Histopathological evaluation was performed by diagnostic pathologists at the ISU
126 VDL. Sections from selected paraffin blocks with lesions of atrophic enteritis were then used for
127 FISH development with an Alexa555-labeled probe Psap5122 (Table 2) and an in-house
128 hybridization buffer as previously described (Burrough et al., 2013) with slight modification (20
129 mM of Tris, 0.9 M of NaCl, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate [SDS] buffer, 20% formamide, 10%
130 dextran sulfate [pH 7.2]). In situ hybridization was performed using an automated system
131 (Discovery Ultra, Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN) with the manufacturer's standard
132 protocol and commercial reagents with the exception of the hybridization buffer as noted above.
133 Hybridization was carried out at 52 °C for 12 hours.

134 **Development of real-time RT-PCR (rRT-PCR) for porcine SaV GIII**

135 An rRT-PCR assay specific for porcine SaV GIII was developed with the primers PSapV-F and
136 PSapV-R, and probe PSapV-P (Table 2), which were commercially synthesized (Integrated DNA
137 Technologies, Coralville, IA). The real-time RT-PCR was performed in a reaction mixture of 25
138 μl containing 12.5 μl 2 \times AgPath-ID RT-PCR Buffer (Applied Biosystems), 1 μl 25 \times RT-PCR
139 Enzyme Mix, 1 μl (final concentration 0.4 μM) of each of the primers, 0.5 μl (final concentration
140 0.2 μM) of probe, 4 μl nuclease-free water, and 5 μl extracted RNA. The amplification was
141 performed at 48 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 10 minutes, 95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 10 minutes, followed by 40 cycles at 95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 15
142 s, 55 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 20 s, and 60 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 45 s. For each amplification plot a cycle threshold (Ct) value was
143 calculated representing the cycle number at which the reporter signal was above threshold.

144 The sensitivity of the real-time PCR assay was evaluated by using serial 10-fold dilutions of the
145 *in vitro* transcribed RNA, which was produced by Transcript Aid T7 High Yield Transcription
146 Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) with primers Sap-T7-F1 and Sap5193R (Table 2).

147 The specificity of SaV GIII rRT-PCR was evaluated using oligo DNA fragments with length
148 between 107 and 117 nt designed for SaV GV, GVI, GVII, GVIII, GIX, GX and GXI according
149 to their corresponding sequences at the same region that SaV GIII rRT-PCR targeted (Table 2).

150 All oligo DNAs were synthesized in the DNA Facility at Iowa State University. In addition, the
151 specificity was evaluated with other viral pathogens related to swine diarrhea including virus
152 isolates of PEDV, TGEV, PDCoV and rotavirus A, and fecal samples positive for rotavirus B
153 and C, and bacterial pathogens *Salmonella* spp. and *E. coli*.

154 **Sequence comparison and analysis**

155 Sequence comparison was performed with MegAlign (DNASTAR® Lasergene 11 Core Suite).
156 Sequences representative of different SaV genogroups were obtained from GenBank and aligned

157 with the 20 SaV genome sequences in the present study. Phylogenetic trees were constructed
158 using the neighbor-joining method in MEGA 7.0 (Kumar, Stecher, and Tamura, 2016) with p-
159 distance as the substitution model. Bootstrap analysis was carried out with 1,000 replicates.
160 Recombination analysis was performed in the region from ORF1 55 nt to ORF2 522 nt using
161 SimPlot software v. 3.5.1 (Lole et al., 1999).

162

163 **RESULTS**

164 **Next-generation sequencing (NGS)**

165 NGS and bioinformatics analysis were performed on the fecal and tissue samples from the
166 outbreak farm (case 1 in Table 1). The hierarchical classification results were shown as an html
167 pie-chart by Kraken and Krona Tools. Surprisingly, the classification results showed that 100%
168 of the viral reads belong to SaV. The complete genome sequence of porcine SaV was then
169 assembled and designated as NE9550B. No other viral pathogens were identified in the
170 classification; these results were consistent with the real-time PCR results in which all other
171 common viruses related to porcine enteric disease were negative (Table 1). NGS analysis also
172 identified SaV as the sole viral pathogen from fecal samples of 8 to 10-day-old diarrheic piglets
173 (case # 2) (Table 1).

174

175 **Histopathology and fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH)**

176 Histopathological examination revealed lesions consistent with viral infection in the small
177 intestine. Specifically, there was moderate segmental villous blunting, atrophy, and contraction
178 (Fig. 1A-B) with marked, locally extensive villous vascular congestion (Fig. 1C). Low to
179 moderate numbers of lymphocytes, macrophages and fewer neutrophils were observed in the

180 lamina propria (Fig. 1B-C) and multifocal crypts contained low to moderate numbers of
181 neutrophils and cellular debris. Apical enterocytes over affected villi ranged from vacuolated to
182 flattened or attenuated (Fig. 1C) and some villi lacked apical enterocytes with exposed lamina
183 propria (Fig. 1D). In the colon, multifocal glands contained low to moderate numbers of
184 neutrophils admixed with cellular debris and low numbers of lymphocytes and macrophages
185 were identified in the lamina propria (data not shown).
186 For slides with histopathological lesions that also originated from SaV rRT-PCR positive
187 intestine tissue samples, additional sections of small intestine were further subjected to FISH.
188 Fluorescently-labeled enterocytes were identified along the attenuated villi indicating that the
189 lesion was caused by SaV infection (Fig. 1E-F).

190 **Development of real-time RT-PCR (rRT-PCR)**

191 Standard curves were established using the 10-fold serially diluted RNA control *in vitro*
192 transcribed from a DNA fragment amplified by SaV GIII primers Sap-T7-F1 and Sap5193R
193 (Table 2). RNA control was serially diluted from 2.4×10^1 to 2.4×10^9 copies per reaction (in 5
194 μ l) and amplified in triplicate. The threshold cycle (Ct) values were plotted against the copy
195 numbers. The SaV GIII rRT-PCR was able to detect the RNA control over a linear range. The
196 standard curve obtained showed a slope of -3.80, an intercept of 43.33, and a regression
197 coefficient (R²) of 0.9998. The detection limit of the assay using RNA control as template was 5
198 copy numbers per reaction. No PCR amplification signals were detected in the SaV GV, GVI,
199 GVII, GVIII, GIX, GX and GXI oligos, PEDV, TGEV, PDCoV and rotavirus A isolates,
200 rotavirus B and C fecal samples, or the *Salmonella* spp. and *E. coli* cultures by the SaV GIII rRT-
201 PCR (Ct \geq 40).

202

203 **rRT-PCR examination of porcine sapovirus in clinical and non-clinical pigs from the**
204 **outbreak farm**

205 The intestine and fecal samples of the original case from the outbreak farm were analyzed using
206 the SaV rRT-PCR assay. SaV was detected with high viral amounts in both intestine and fecal
207 samples, with Ct values of 18.6 in the tissue sample and 15.4 in the fecal sample, respectively.

208 A follow-up investigation was performed with samples from the outbreak farm. In total, 34 fecal
209 samples from pigs 8 to 12 days old with clinical signs were examined and 85.5% of samples
210 were found positive with an average Ct value of 21.5 ± 3.38 (Fig. 2). Another 100 fecal swab
211 samples from two-week-old pigs with and without clinical signs were compared. The 50 samples
212 from pigs with clinical signs had significantly lower Ct values (15.9 ± 0.59) compared to the 50
213 samples from non-clinical pigs (35.8 ± 0.71) ($p < 0.01$). All fecal samples from pigs 12 to 16
214 weeks old without clinical signs were negative with Ct values of equal to or higher than 40 (Fig.
215 2).

216 **Determine the incidence of porcine sapovirus in swine herds of the United States**

217 Totally, 234 fecal samples from pigs with diarrhea from different states across the United States
218 (U.S.) were examined using SaV rRT-PCR. Among them, 106 samples (45.3%) were positive
219 with Ct values of 26.0 ± 0.5 ; in contrast, 128 samples were negative with Ct values equal to or
220 higher than 40. In addition, 102 fecal samples from clinically healthy pigs from different states
221 across the United States were also examined with SaV rRT-PCR. Among them, 44 samples
222 (43.1%) were positive by SaV rRT-PCR with Ct values of 33.2 ± 0.9 , which were significantly
223 higher than those from pigs with diarrhea (26.0 ± 0.5). The remaining 58 samples were negative
224 by SaV rRT-PCR.

225 **Sequence comparison, phylogenetic analysis, and recombination analysis**

226 NGS analysis was performed with the fecal samples submitted to ISU VDL and totally 20
227 genome sequences from field porcine SaVs were assembled. The neighbor-joining (NJ)
228 phylogenetic tree based on genome sequences showed that all 20 SaVs were clustered with GIII
229 reference isolate sequences (Fig. 3). The genome sequences of the six GIII SaVs that were from
230 the outbreak farm showed 99.8% to 100% nucleotide (nt) identity, indicating that SaV is stable at
231 the farm level. Whereas, the genome sequences of the SaV from the outbreak farm showed only
232 82.0-98.0% nt identities to all other 14 GIII SaVs (Table S1).

233 SimPlot analysis was performed with SaV strains MW316746_IN17168-3A_2020,
234 MW316747_IL16624_2020, and MW316757_IA4517-2_2019, in the region between ORF1 55
235 nt and ORF2 522 nt, to determine recombination events within the genogroup GIII (Fig. 4). The
236 strain IN17168-3A showed higher nt identity (89.8%) to the IL16624 strain in the NS-VP1
237 coding region (ORF1 55-5235nt), but much lower nt identity (74.8%) to IA4517-2. While in the
238 VP2 coding region (ORF2 61-522nt), strain IN17168-3A showed higher nt identity (89.2%) to
239 the IA4517-2 strain, but lower nt identity (82.0%) to IL16624. These results suggested that the
240 strain IN17168-3A could be a recombinant from IL16624 and IA4517-2.

241

242 **DISCUSSION**

243 Porcine SaV is widely detected in pig herds throughout the world (Liu et al., 2012; Reuter et al.,
244 2010; Scheuer et al., 2013). Although experimental inoculation of isolated SaVs into gnotobiotic
245 pigs successfully induced enteritis (Flynn, Saif, and Moorhead, 1988; Guo et al., 2001), porcine
246 SaV is usually detected from asymptomatic pigs (Collins et al., 2009) or diarrheic piglets with
247 mixed infections with other viral or bacterial enteric pathogens (Dufkova et al., 2013; Mijovski

248 et al., 2010; Scheuer et al., 2013). In this study, a metagenomics analysis detected a porcine
249 sapovirus of genogroup III from fecal and intestine samples of piglets with diarrhea. PEDV,
250 PDCoV, TGEV, or rotavirus were not detected using rRT-PCR assays and additionally, there was
251 no significant bacterial pathogens isolated from the intestine. The newly developed rRT-PCR
252 revealed large amounts of porcine sapovirus RNA in the small intestine and the FISH assay
253 conducted on tissue with microscopic lesions consistent with a viral enteritis further confirmed
254 that GIII SaV was the cause of the observed clinical scenario. To the best of our knowledge, this
255 is the first confirmation that SaV can serve as a sole etiological agent of enteritis and diarrhea in
256 naturally infected piglets in the United States.

257 In this study, a significantly sensitive (5 copy numbers per reaction) and highly specific rRT-PCR
258 was successfully developed to detect porcine GIII sapovirus, the most prevalent genogroup in
259 swine worldwide. Examination of 184 fecal samples from pigs from the outbreak farm showed
260 that those pigs with clinical diarrhea had significantly lower Ct values (15.9 ± 0.59) than those
261 from clinically healthy pigs (35.8 ± 0.71) with 1024-fold difference in quantity. We further
262 investigated the prevalence of SaV in fecal samples of 234 pigs with diarrhea and 102 clinically
263 healthy pigs from different states across the United States. Our results showed that pigs with
264 clinical diarrhea had a comparable positive rate (45.3%) with non-clinical pigs (43.1%), which is
265 consistent with previous reports. However, the SaV-positive pigs with clinical diarrhea had
266 significantly higher virus loads ($Ct=26.0 \pm 0.5$) compared to rRT-PCR positive but clinically
267 healthy pigs ($Ct=33.2 \pm 0.9$). Most porcine SaVs have so far been reported from asymptomatic
268 pigs and several studies reported no significant differences in the positive rates of porcine SaV
269 between clinical and non-clinical pigs (Barry, Alfieri, and Alfieri, 2008; Collins et al., 2009; das
270 Mercedes Hernandez et al., 2014; Dufkova et al., 2013; Mijovski et al., 2010; Reuter et al., 2010).

271 Further, it has been suggested that testing for the presence of SaV may not provide significant
272 diagnostic value (Salamunova et al., 2018). Our results suggest that rRT-PCR is a reliable
273 method to detect porcine SaV and that porcine GIII sapovirus likely plays an important role in
274 suckling pig enteritis. This PCR provides an additional diagnostic tool that can be used in cases
275 of suckling pig diarrhea, particularly in those cases where other common agents are not detected.
276 The FISH probe developed herein is another highly specific tool that can be used for direct
277 detection of porcine SaV within intestinal lesions. It should be noted that other genogroups of
278 SaVs could not be excluded in the samples in our study since only porcine GIII SaV was
279 screened.

280 The age susceptibility of pigs to porcine SaV infection was investigated by different groups
281 (Barry, Alfieri, and Alfieri, 2008; Martinez et al., 2006; Valente et al., 2016). Post-weaning pigs
282 (4 to 8 weeks of age) have been suggested to have a higher positive frequency of SaV ($p < 0.05$)
283 than grower-to-finish and breeder pigs (Valente et al., 2016) and the lowest prevalence of porcine
284 GIII SaVs was found in nursing pigs (Wang et al., 2006). In our study, 85.3% of suckling piglets
285 (8 to 12 days) were detected positive ($Ct = 15.9 \pm 0.59$) with porcine SaV infection, a decent
286 percentage of pigs at 2-weeks-old were still positive ($Ct = 15.9$), while none of pigs at 12-16
287 weeks-old were rRT-PCR positive. Our results suggest that the suckling and post-weaning pigs
288 are most susceptible to porcine SaV infection, which is consistent with the previous studies.

289 The genome sequences of 20 SaVs obtained in this study all belong to GIII, which is the
290 predominant genogroup of porcine sapovirus worldwide (Keum et al., 2009; L'Homme et al.,
291 2010; Nakamura et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2006; Yu et al., 2008). The genome sequences of some
292 GIII strains shared only 85.8% nt identities. Both intra- and inter-genogroup recombinant strains
293 have been reported for porcine SaV (Kuroda et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2020; Wang

294 et al., 2005); however, most of the recombinant studies were performed with reference strains
295 and few recombination studies have been investigated among field strains. In the present study,
296 strain IN17168-3A shared high AA identity (98.7%) with strain IL16624 in the NS-VP1 region,
297 whereas a high AA identity (92.8%) with strain IA4517-2 in the VP2 region. The results
298 suggested that intra-genogroup recombination may occur between field GIII strains. To the best
299 of our knowledge, this is the first report of intra-genogroup recombination within GIII SaV
300 among field strains circulating in swine. NGS analysis also identified coinfections of several (up
301 to three) different SaV strains in the same fecal sample (data not shown), and coinfections of
302 different strains and/or different genogroups in the same pig could facilitate viral recombination
303 and thus increase genetic diversity.

304 In summary, using metagenomics analysis, GIII porcine SaV was detected from fecal and
305 intestine samples of piglets with enteritis that were negative for PEDV, PDCoV, TGEV, rotavirus,
306 or other bacterial enteric pathogens. Independent evidence of viral-induced microscopic lesions
307 and *in situ* hybridization confirmed that porcine SaV was the cause of the observed clinical
308 scenario, indicating it is the sole etiological agent. A highly sensitive and specific rRT-PCR
309 method was established for the detection of porcine GIII SaV. An epidemiological survey
310 demonstrated that the clinical pigs had significantly higher viral loads of SaV compared to the
311 non-clinical pigs. Further recombination analysis indicated that intra-genogroup recombination
312 occurs within the SaV GIII field isolates. Our findings provide significant insights for a better
313 understanding of the epidemiology and pathogenicity of GIII SaV in swine.

314

315 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

316 This study was partially supported by the Swine Health Information Center (SHIC#19-220).

317

318 **Conflict of Interest**

319 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

320

321 **Ethical Approval**

322 Ethical statement is not applicable.

323

324 **Data Availability Statement**

325 All data generated or analyzed in this study are included in the article

326

327 **Reference**

328 Alhatlani, B., Vashist, S., and Goodfellow, I. (2015). Functions of the 5' and 3' ends of
329 calicivirus genomes. *Virus Res* **206**, 134-43.

330 Barry, A. F., Alfieri, A. F., and Alfieri, A. A. (2008). High genetic diversity in RdRp gene of
331 Brazilian porcine sapovirus strains. *Vet Microbiol* **131**(1-2), 185-91.

332 Bolger, A. M., Lohse, M., and Usadel, B. (2014). Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina
333 sequence data. *Bioinformatics* **30**(15), 2114-2120.

334 Burrough, E. R., Wilberts, B. L., Bower, L. P., Jergens, A. E., and Schwartz, K. J. (2013).
335 Fluorescent in situ hybridization for detection of "Brachyspira hampsonii" in porcine
336 colonic tissues. *J Vet Diagn Invest* **25**(3), 407-12.

337 Chen, Q., Wang, L., Zheng, Y., Zhang, J., Guo, B., Yoon, K. J., Gauger, P. C., Harmon, K. M.,
338 Main, R. G., and Li, G. (2018). Metagenomic analysis of the RNA fraction of the fecal

339 virome indicates high diversity in pigs infected by porcine endemic diarrhea virus in the
340 United States. *Viol J* **15**(1), 95.

341 Collins, P. J., Martella, V., Buonavoglia, C., and O'Shea, H. (2009). Detection and
342 characterization of porcine sapoviruses from asymptomatic animals in Irish farms. *Vet*
343 *Microbiol* **139**(1-2), 176-82.

344 das Mercedes Hernandez, J., Stangarlin, D. C., Siqueira, J. A., de Souza Oliveira, D., Portal, T. M.,
345 Barry, A. F., Dias, F. A., de Matos, J. C., Mascarenhas, J. D., and Gabbay, Y. B. (2014).
346 Genetic diversity of porcine sapoviruses in pigs from the Amazon region of Brazil. *Arch*
347 *Viol* **159**(5), 927-33.

348 Dufkova, L., Scigalkova, I., Moutelikova, R., Malenovska, H., and Prodelalova, J. (2013).
349 Genetic diversity of porcine sapoviruses, kobuviruses, and astroviruses in asymptomatic
350 pigs: an emerging new sapovirus GIII genotype. *Arch Virol* **158**(3), 549-58.

351 Farkas, T., Zhong, W. M., Jing, Y., Huang, P. W., Espinosa, S. M., Martinez, N., Morrow, A. L.,
352 Ruiz-Palacios, G. M., Pickering, L. K., and Jiang, X. (2004). Genetic diversity among
353 sapoviruses. *Arch Virol* **149**(7), 1309-23.

354 Flynn, W. T., Saif, L. J., and Moorhead, P. D. (1988). Pathogenesis of porcine enteric
355 calicivirus-like virus in four-day-old gnotobiotic pigs. *Am J Vet Res* **49**(6), 819-25.

356 Guo, M., Hayes, J., Cho, K. O., Parwani, A. V., Lucas, L. M., and Saif, L. J. (2001).
357 Comparative pathogenesis of tissue culture-adapted and wild-type Cowden porcine
358 enteric calicivirus (PEC) in gnotobiotic pigs and induction of diarrhea by intravenous
359 inoculation of wild-type PEC. *J Virol* **75**(19), 9239-51.

360 Keum, H. O., Moon, H. J., Park, S. J., Kim, H. K., Rho, S. M., and Park, B. K. (2009). Porcine
361 noroviruses and sapoviruses on Korean swine farms. *Arch Virol* **154**(11), 1765-74.

362 Kumar, S., Stecher, G., and Tamura, K. (2016). MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics
363 Analysis Version 7.0 for Bigger Datasets. *Mol Biol Evol* **33**(7), 1870-4.

364 Kuroda, M., Masuda, T., Ito, M., Naoi, Y., Doan, Y. H., Haga, K., Tsuchiaka, S., Kishimoto, M.,
365 Sano, K., Omatsu, T., Katayama, Y., Oba, M., Aoki, H., Ichimaru, T., Sunaga, F.,
366 Mukono, I., Yamasato, H., Shirai, J., Katayama, K., Mizutani, T., Oka, T., and Nagai, M.
367 (2017). Genetic diversity and intergenogroup recombination events of sapoviruses
368 detected from feces of pigs in Japan. *Infect Genet Evol* **55**, 209-217.

369 L'Homme, Y., Brassard, J., Ouardani, M., and Gagne, M. J. (2010). Characterization of novel
370 porcine sapoviruses. *Arch Virol* **155**(6), 839-46.

371 Li, H., and Durbin, R. (2009). Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler
372 transform. *Bioinformatics* **25**(14), 1754-60.

373 Li, J., Shen, Q., Zhang, W., Zhao, T., Li, Y., Jiang, J., Yu, X., Guo, Z., Cui, L., and Hua, X.
374 (2017). Genomic organization and recombination analysis of a porcine sapovirus
375 identified from a piglet with diarrhea in China. *Virol J* **14**(1), 57.

376 Liu, G. H., Li, R. C., Huang, Z. B., Yang, J., Xiao, C. T., Li, J., Li, M. X., Yan, Y. Q., and Yu,
377 X. L. (2012). RT-PCR test for detecting porcine sapovirus in weanling piglets in Hunan
378 Province, China. *Trop Anim Health Prod* **44**(7), 1335-9.

379 Lole, K. S., Bollinger, R. C., Paranjape, R. S., Gadkari, D., Kulkarni, S. S., Novak, N. G.,
380 Ingersoll, R., Sheppard, H. W., and Ray, S. C. (1999). Full-length human
381 immunodeficiency virus type 1 genomes from subtype C-infected seroconverters in India,
382 with evidence of intersubtype recombination. *J Virol* **73**(1), 152-60.

383 Martinez, M. A., Alcala, A. C., Carruyo, G., Botero, L., Liprandi, F., and Ludert, J. E. (2006).
384 Molecular detection of porcine enteric caliciviruses in Venezuelan farms. *Vet Microbiol*
385 **116**(1-3), 77-84.

386 Menzel, P., Ng, K. L., and Krogh, A. (2016). Fast and sensitive taxonomic classification for
387 metagenomics with Kaiju. *Nat Commun* **7**, 11257.

388 Mijovski, J. Z., Poljsak-Prijatelj, M., Steyer, A., Barlic-Maganja, D., and Koren, S. (2010).
389 Detection and molecular characterisation of noroviruses and sapoviruses in asymptomatic
390 swine and cattle in Slovenian farms. *Infect Genet Evol* **10**(3), 413-20.

391 Nagai, M., Wang, Q., Oka, T., and Saif, L. J. (2020). Porcine sapoviruses: Pathogenesis,
392 epidemiology, genetic diversity, and diagnosis. *Virus Res* **286**, 198025.

393 Nakamura, K., Saga, Y., Iwai, M., Obara, M., Horimoto, E., Hasegawa, S., Kurata, T., Okumura,
394 H., Nagoshi, M., and Takizawa, T. (2010). Frequent detection of noroviruses and
395 sapoviruses in swine and high genetic diversity of porcine sapovirus in Japan during
396 Fiscal Year 2008. *J Clin Microbiol* **48**(4), 1215-22.

397 Oka, T., Lu, Z., Phan, T., Delwart, E. L., Saif, L. J., and Wang, Q. (2016). Genetic
398 Characterization and Classification of Human and Animal Sapoviruses. *PLoS One* **11**(5),
399 e0156373.

400 Oka, T., Wang, Q., Katayama, K., and Saif, L. J. (2015). Comprehensive review of human
401 sapoviruses. *Clin Microbiol Rev* **28**(1), 32-53.

402 Ondov, B. D., Bergman, N. H., and Phillippy, A. M. (2011). Interactive metagenomic
403 visualization in a Web browser. *BMC Bioinformatics* **12**, 385.

404 Reuter, G., Zimsek-Mijovski, J., Poljsak-Prijatelj, M., Di Bartolo, I., Ruggeri, F. M., Kantala, T.,
405 Maunula, L., Kiss, I., Kecskemeti, S., Halaihel, N., Buesa, J., Johnsen, C., Hjulsager, C.

406 K., Larsen, L. E., Koopmans, M., and Bottiger, B. (2010). Incidence, diversity, and
407 molecular epidemiology of sapoviruses in swine across Europe. *J Clin Microbiol* **48**(2),
408 363-8.

409 Saif, L. J., Bohl, E. H., Theil, K. W., Cross, R. F., and House, J. A. (1980). Rotavirus-like,
410 calicivirus-like, and 23-nm virus-like particles associated with diarrhea in young pigs. *J*
411 *Clin Microbiol* **12**(1), 105-11.

412 Salamunova, S., Jackova, A., Mandelik, R., Novotny, J., Vlasakova, M., and Vilcek, S. (2018).
413 Molecular detection of enteric viruses and the genetic characterization of porcine
414 astroviruses and sapoviruses in domestic pigs from Slovakian farms. *BMC Vet Res* **14**(1),
415 313.

416 Scheuer, K. A., Oka, T., Hoet, A. E., Gebreyes, W. A., Molla, B. Z., Saif, L. J., and Wang, Q.
417 (2013). Prevalence of porcine noroviruses, molecular characterization of emerging
418 porcine sapoviruses from finisher swine in the United States, and unified classification
419 scheme for sapoviruses. *J Clin Microbiol* **51**(7), 2344-53.

420 Simpson, J. T., Wong, K., Jackman, S. D., Schein, J. E., Jones, S. J., and Birol, I. (2009).
421 ABySS: a parallel assembler for short read sequence data. *Genome Res* **19**(6), 1117-23.

422 Valente, C. S., Alfieri, A. F., Barry, A. F., Leme, R. A., Lorenzetti, E., and Alfieri, A. A. (2016).
423 Age distribution of porcine sapovirus asymptomatic infection and molecular evidence of
424 genogroups GIII and GIX? circulation in distinct Brazilian pig production systems. *Trop*
425 *Anim Health Prod* **48**(1), 21-7.

426 Wang, L., Marthaler, D., Fredrickson, R., Gauger, P. C., Zhang, J., Burrough, E. R., Petznick, T.,
427 and Li, G. (2020). Genetically divergent porcine sapovirus identified in pigs, United
428 States. *Transbound Emerg Dis* **67**(1), 18-28.

429 Wang, Q. H., Han, M. G., Funk, J. A., Bowman, G., Janies, D. A., and Saif, L. J. (2005). Genetic
430 diversity and recombination of porcine sapoviruses. *J Clin Microbiol* **43**(12), 5963-72.

431 Wang, Q. H., Souza, M., Funk, J. A., Zhang, W., and Saif, L. J. (2006). Prevalence of
432 noroviruses and sapoviruses in swine of various ages determined by reverse transcription-
433 PCR and microwell hybridization assays. *J Clin Microbiol* **44**(6), 2057-62.

434 Wood, D. E., and Salzberg, S. L. (2014). Kraken: ultrafast metagenomic sequence classification
435 using exact alignments. *Genome Biol* **15**(3), R46.

436 Yinda, C. K., Conceicao-Neto, N., Zeller, M., Heylen, E., Maes, P., Ghogomu, S. M., Van Ranst,
437 M., and Matthijssens, J. (2017). Novel highly divergent sapoviruses detected by
438 metagenomics analysis in straw-colored fruit bats in Cameroon. *Emerg Microbes Infect*
439 **6**(5), e38.

440 Yu, J. N., Kim, M. Y., Kim, D. G., Kim, S. E., Lee, J. B., Park, S. Y., Song, C. S., Shin, H. C.,
441 Seo, K. H., and Choi, I. S. (2008). Prevalence of hepatitis E virus and sapovirus in post-
442 weaning pigs and identification of their genetic diversity. *Arch Virol* **153**(4), 739-42.

443 Zhang, J., Zheng, Y., Xia, X. Q., Chen, Q., Bade, S. A., Yoon, K. J., Harmon, K. M., Gauger, P.
444 C., Main, R. G., and Li, G. (2017). High-throughput whole genome sequencing of
445 Porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus from cell culture materials and
446 clinical specimens using next-generation sequencing technology. *J Vet Diagn Invest*
447 **29**(1), 41-50.

448

449

450

451 **Table 1. Presence of viral pathogens in fecal samples of two NGS cases**

452

Case #	Sequence ID	Age	SaV GIII	PEDV*	PDCoV	TGEV	Rota A	Rota B	Rota C
1	MW316743_NE9550B	2 w	(+)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
2	MW316759_IA0365	8-10 d	(+)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)

453 *, all viruses other than SaV GIII were tested by real-time PCR; (+), positive; (-), negative, i.e. Ct > = 36.

454

455

456 **Table 2. Primers, probe and oligo sequences used in this study**

Name	Sequence	Used for
PSapV-F	AACGCRGTGGCAACGTACAA	rRT-PCR
PSapV-R	GCCTCCATCACGAACACTTC	rRT-PCR
PSapV-P	FAM-TGGCTCYTCATCTTCATTGGTGGGAGC-TAMSp	rRT-PCR
Sap-GV-115	AATTACGAGCAGGCCACTGCCTGTTACAACAGCTGGTTTATTGGC GGGAGCCAACCTGAGGTGCCCACTACCAGTGAAGGCTATGGGCT ATTAGTGTGGAGATGGAGGGCAATC	Specificity assay
Sap-GVI-112	GATTACACAGAGGCATTTGACGTCATGCGCAACTTGTCATCTACC CAACCCGATGGCGGGGCTGTTGTGTACACAATGGAGGGGCCAA GCCCTCTCGTGCCTCGAATGGGT	Specificity assay
Sap-GVII-107	GAATACTCTGAGGCCATCGAGGTGATAACCAACATTCATCAGGC ACGCCGAGGGCGAGGCAATTGTGTATAAAATGGAGGGTCTGA GGGGCCAAAGCCACAGA	Specificity assay
Sap-GVIII-116	CACCAATTATGCTCAAGCTGCAGCCACCTACAATGCGTGGTATAT TGGTGGCGTGAACCACAATTGGGGAGCCTCGCCAGTGAAGGTT CAGCTCAAGTAGTGTGGAGATGGAGG	Specificity assay
Sap-GIX-117	CTGGTGTGGAATACTCAGAGGCAATTAACGTGCTAACATCTATTT CATCCAGACCGCCTGAGGGTGAGGCAATAGTGTATGTGATGGAG GGTCCAAACGGCCCTAAGGGCGCTCAGC	Specificity assay
Sap-GX-116	CTGGTGTGGAATACTCAGAGGCAATACACGTATTGACATCAATTT CATCCAAACCGCCGAGGGCGAGGCAATAGTGTATGTGATGGAG GGCCAAAGGGTCCCCTGAGGGCGAG	Specificity assay
Sap-GXI-116	CTGGTGTGGAATACTCAGAGGCAATACACGTATTGACATCAATTT CATCCAAACCGCCGAGGGCGAGGCAATAGTGTATGTGATGGAG GGCCAAAGGGTCCCCTGAGGGCGAG	Specificity assay
Psap5122probe	Alex555N-GCCTCCATCACGAACACTTCTGGCTC	FISH
Sap-T7-F1	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAACGCAGTGGCAACGTACAA	Create RNA standards
Sap5193R	TTGAGTACCCTCTGGGTTGCT	Create RNA standards

457

458

459

460 **Table S1. Pairwise identities of SaV GIII strain MW316743_NE9550B from the outbreak**
 461 **farm compared with other strains**

462

Sequence ID	Genome	NS		VP1		VP2	
	nt	CDS	AA	CDS	AA	CDS	AA
MK965904_NE9550	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	100.0
MW316752_NE7211-1	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.7	99.7	99.4
MW316753_NE7211-2	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.8	99.4
MW316754_NE7211-3	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.7	98.9
MW316755_NE7211-4	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.4
MW316759_IA0365	98.0	97.7	99.5	98.1	99.5	97.2	100
MW316747_IL16624	97.7	97.6	99.5	97.2	98.1	97.5	99.4
MW316758_IL6678-1	97.2	96.7	99.2	97.4	99.0	97.2	100.0
MK965905_MO13472	96.0	95.3	99.2	96.2	98.8	95.9	99.4
MW316749_MI64533	95.4	95.0	99.3	95.1	97.8	93.9	98.9
MW316751_KS66065	95.4	95.0	99.2	94.9	98.0	93.7	98.9
MW316750_NE67454	91.7	90.1	98.4	92.6	95.9	92.7	96.6
MK965902_IA27912-A	90.8	91.6	98.5	85.7	87.8	86.0	86.3
MW316748_OH19789	90.7	86.9	96.9	96.1	98.8	96.0	98.9
MW316744_MO1188	90.5	86.6	96.8	96.1	99.0	95.5	97.7
MW316745_IN17168-1	90.5	91.7	98.7	84.5	87.4	84.1	82.9
MW316746_IN17168-3A	90.3	91.4	98.6	84.3	87.8	84.8	84.0
MW316757_IA4517-2	82.1	78.0	86.2	85.5	85.6	84.6	83.4
MW316756_IA4517-1	82.0	78.1	85.6	84.3	85.4	85.8	88.0
KT922089_GIII	92.4	93.6	98.8	87.7	90.5	85.1	84.0
LC215878_GIII	92.0	90.3	98.0	93.1	96.6	93.1	94.9
KF204570_GIII	91.9	89.8	97.9	94.3	96.9	93.4	96.0
KX688107_GIII	91.8	90.2	98.0	92.7	96.8	92.9	97.7
KT922087_GIII	87.1	85.2	95.6	87.5	88.8	85.5	83.4
LC215881_GIII	86.1	84.4	95.0	85.2	85.7	85.1	85.1
FJ387164_GIII	85.8	85.6	96.1	88.4	90.3	89.9	92.6
AB521771_GV	58.1	53.1	41.1	56.4	43.8	44.5	29.1
AY974192_GVI	55.4	46.7	32.8	49.9	37.5	41.0	25.1
LC215890_GVII	55.3	47.0	31.0	48.5	37.0	38.8	29.1
LC215895_GVIII	52.6	53.3	40.7	54.8	40.7	40.0	25.7
KC309418_GIX	NA	NA	NA	48.4	38.2	48.6	32.0
LC215897_GX	50.1	47.6	31.6	48.9	41.8	41.2	29.1
LC215899_GXI	54.7	46.6	31.8	49.6	38.9	41.2	25.7

463 nt, nucleotides; CDS, coding sequence; AA, amino acid sequence; NA, not available in GenBank.

464

465 **Figure legends**

466 **Fig. 1.** Microscopic lesions and fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) in the small intestine of
467 pigs naturally infected with porcine sapovirus GIII. (A) There is marked villous atrophy and rare
468 fusion. HE. 40 ×. (B) Mild lymphocytic infiltration in the lamina propria. HE. 200 ×. (C)
469 Variable villous vascular congestion. HE. 200 ×. (D) Mildly vacuolated villus enterocytes that
470 are often detached and exposing the lamina propria. HE. 200 ×. (E) Scattered FISH-positive
471 villus enterocytes (in the red circle) are observed within sections with villus attenuation; FISH
472 was performed with Alexa555-labeled sapovirus probe; observed with CY3 Filter. 200 ×. (F) No
473 fluorescence was observed in the FISH-positive cells when observed with a FITC Filter. 200 ×.
474

475 **Fig. 2.** Sapovirus GIII rRT-PCR results from the outbreak farm. The line indicates the average Ct
476 value, and the scattered plots indicate the individual values.
477

478 **Fig. 3.** Phylogenetic analysis based on SaV genome sequences. The phylogenetic tree was
479 constructed by the neighbor-joining (NJ) method. Significant bootstrap values are indicated as a
480 percentage for 1000 replicates; bootstraps higher than 50 are displayed along the relative
481 branches. ▲, the SaVs from the outbreak farm; ◆, the recombinant SaV strain; ■ and ■,
482 potential parent strains involved in recombination; ●, other strains obtained in this study.
483

484 **Figure 4.** Recombination analysis. SimPlot analysis for the region from ORF1 55 nt to ORF2
485 522 nt of the nucleotide sequences: MW316747_IL16624_2020 (green line),
486 MW316757_IA4517-2_2019 (blue line), and MW316746_IN17168-3A_2020 as the query
487 sequence. The position indicates the breakpoints, 5175 nt (ORF1 5235 nt) and 6768 nt (ORF2 61
488 nt), in the sequence alignment.