

Diversity and molecular epidemiology of Ostreid herpesvirus 1 in farmed Crassostrea gigas in Australia: Geographic clusters and implications for "microvariants" in global mortality events

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3	mortality events
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32 Highlights

- A relatively low diversity of OsHV-1 genotypes was found in Australia
 Distinct *OsHV-1* genotypes were geographically clustered in estuaries
 Australian *OsHV-1* genotypes grouped in a globally distinct cluster
 Australian POMS outbreaks were not due to OsHV-1 microvariants
- 38 Abstract

39 Since 2010, mass mortality events known as Pacific oyster mortality syndrome (POMS) have 40 occurred in Crassostrea gigas in Australia associated with Ostreid herpesvirus 1. The virus was 41 thought to be an OsHV-1 µVar or "microvariant", i.e. one of the dominant variants associated 42 with POMS in Europe, but there are few data to characterize the genotype in Australia. 43 Consequently, the genetic identity and diversity of the virus was determined to understand the 44 epidemiology of the disease in Australia. Samples were analysed from diseased C. gigas over 45 five summer seasons between 2011 and 2016 in POMS-affected estuaries: Georges River in 46 New South Wales (NSW), Hawkesbury River (NSW) and Pitt Water in Tasmania. Sequencing 47 was attempted for six genomic regions. Numerous variants were identified among these regions 48 (n = 100 isolates) while twelve variants were identified from concatenated nucleotide sequences 49 (n = 61 isolates). Nucleotide diversity of the seven genotypes of C region among Australian isolates (*Pi* 0.99 x 10⁻³) was the lowest globally. All Australian isolates grouped in a cluster 50 51 distinct from other OsHV-1 isolates worldwide. This is the first report that Australian outbreaks 52 of POMS were associated with OsHV-1 distinct from OsHV-1 reference genotype, µVar and 53 other microvariants from other countries. The findings illustrate that microvariants are not the 54 only variants of OsHV-1 associated with mass mortality events in C. gigas. In addition, there 55 was mutually exclusive spatial clustering of viral genomic and amino acid sequence variants within estuaries, and a possible association between genotype/amino acid sequence and the 56

prevalence and severity of POMS, as this differed between these estuaries. The sequencing
findings supported prior epidemiological evidence for environmental reservoirs of OsHV-1 for
POMS outbreaks in Australia.

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Keywords: Ostreid herpesvirus, variant, diversity, polymorphism, phylogeny, *Crassostrea gigas*, Australia

- 63
- 64 **1. Introduction**

Since late last century, the Pacific oyster, Crassostrea gigas, has been subject to 65 recurrent disease events (Nicolas et al., 1992; Renault et al., 2000; Renault et al., 1994; Samain 66 et al., 2007). However, in 2008 a marked increase in mass mortality outbreaks occurred in 67 France (Cochennec-Laureau et al., 2010; Martenot et al., 2011; Segarra et al., 2010) and later 68 69 in other areas in the world (Abbadi et al., 2018; Batista et al., 2015; Gittenberger et al., 2016; 70 Hwang et al., 2013; Keeling et al., 2014; Mortensen et al., 2016; Peeler et al., 2012; Roque et 71 al., 2012; Segarra et al., 2010). The disease was called Pacific oyster mortality syndrome 72 (POMS) when it first appeared in Australia in 2010 in the Georges and Parramatta rivers, which 73 are both major estuaries in Sydney (Jenkins et al., 2013; Paul-Pont et al., 2013a). POMS causes 74 considerable economic losses in Australia, New Zealand and Europe (Fuhrmann et al., 2019). 75 It is a multifactorial disease influenced by environmental conditions such as water temperature 76 and host characteristics such as age and size (Hick et al., 2018; Petton et al., 2013) and although 77 it has a proposed polymicrobial etiology involving bacteria (de Lorgeril et al., 2018; Friedman 78 et al., 2005; Petton et al., 2021), outbreaks are induced by infection with Ostreid herpesvirus 1 79 microvariants (Batista et al., 2015; Gittenberger et al., 2016; Hwang et al., 2013; Jenkins et al., 80 2013; Keeling et al., 2014; Mortensen et al., 2016; Peeler et al., 2012; Renault et al., 2012; 81 Roque et al., 2012). The disease typically occurs in summer and mortality can be reproduced experimentally by controlled exposure of oysters to the virus alone in a dose-responsive and
temperature-dependent manner (de Kantzow et al., 2016; Paul-Pont et al., 2015).

84 Ostreid herpesvirus 1, OsHV-1, which is the only species included in the genus 85 Ostreavirus, is a double-stranded DNA virus (Davison et al., 2009). The presence of the gene 86 coding for the ATPase subunit of a terminase involved in the packaging of viral DNA inside 87 the capsid, in addition to intranuclear replication, places OsHV-1 in the Malacoherpesviridae under the order Herpesvirales (Davison et al., 2009; Davison et al., 2005). Members of this 88 89 taxon are widespread, both in terms of the range of species infected and also geographically. 90 They have been detected in many hosts besides C. gigas including Crassostrea virginica (Farley 91 et al., 1972), Ostrea angasi (Hine and Thorne, 1997), Ostrea edulis (Comps and Cochennec, 92 1993), Tiostrea chilensis (Hine et al., 1998), Pecten maximus (Arzul et al., 2001a), Ruditapes philippinarum (Renault et al., 2001), Ruditapes decusstaus (Renault and Arzul, 2001), 93 94 Crassostrea angulata (Batista et al., 2015), Scapharca broughtonii (Bai et al., 2016; Xia et al., 95 2015), Carcinus maenas (Bookelaar et al., 2018), Chlamys farreri (Bai et al., 2019), Octopus 96 vulgaris (Prado-Alvarez et al., 2021) and in numerous sites around the world including Europe, 97 Asia, Oceania and the Americas (Abbadi et al., 2018; Batista et al., 2015; Burge et al., 2021; 98 Gittenberger et al., 2016; Hwang et al., 2013; Jenkins et al., 2013; Keeling et al., 2014; 99 Mortensen et al., 2016; Peeler et al., 2012; Roque et al., 2012; Segarra et al., 2010; Shimahara 100 et al., 2012).

101 A specific microvariant, OsHV-1 μ Var, was described in association with the large 102 increase in mortality in *C. gigas* on the French coast in 2008 (Segarra et al., 2010), but the 103 detection of this virus in a specimen collected before 2008 (Martenot et al., 2012) raises the 104 question of its actual or exclusive involvement in the increasing global phenomenon of oyster 105 mortality. OsHV-1 μ Var was strictly characterised by mutations upstream of ORF 4 consisting 106 mainly of 12 deletions in the microsatellite zone and a few mutations upstream and downstream 107 which impact the amino acid sequence. In addition, at ORF 42-43 OsHV-1 µVar had a 108 subtitution of a thymine instead of a cytosine downstream of the sequence without showing any 109 impact on the amino acid sequence (Segarra et al., 2010). Following the publication of the 110 OsHV-1µVar sequence from region C, partly located at ORF 4 (Segarra et al., 2010), several 111 isolates were analysed and this revealed a range of « microvariants » close to the OsHV-1 μ Var 112 sequence (Burge et al., 2021; Burioli et al., 2018; Martenot et al., 2012; Morga et al., 2021). 113 Data for numerous OsHV-1 genotypes characterised by sequencing of various coding and non-114 coding regions or whole genomes are available: in Europe, the reference genome isolated from 115 C. gigas larvae (Davison et al., 2005), the variant OsHV-1var sampled from P. maximus (Arzul 116 et al., 2001a) and the microvariant OsHV-1 µVar from C. gigas spat and juveniles (Abbadi et 117 al., 2018; Burioli et al., 2017; Segarra et al., 2010); in China, Acute Viral Necrosis Virus (Ren 118 et al., 2013), OsHV-1-SB isolated from S. broughtonii (Bai et al., 2016; Xia et al., 2015) and 119 the variant isolated from C. farreri (Bai et al., 2019); in Sweden OsHV-1 SW6 found in O. 120 edulis (Morga et al., 2021); and in many parts of the world, so called « microvariants » or 121 µVars, which are similar to OsHV-1 µVar (Burge et al., 2021; Morga et al., 2021). Double-122 stranded DNA viruses are known to be genetically stable; DNA viruses in general have mutation rates of 10^{-8} to 10^{-6} substitutions per nucleotide site per cell infection, a lower rate than 123 124 RNA viruses, due the viral DNA polymerase that exhibits proofreading activity (Peck and 125 Lauring, 2018). However, Morga et al. (2021) recently reported a faster evolutionary rate than 126 usual for OsHV-1. The emergence of variations may be due to selection pressure and the ability 127 of the virus to adapt to its environment and host as reported in other members of the 128 Herpesvirales (Renzette et al., 2013). The available data suggest that pathogenic subtypes of 129 OsHV-1 known as microvariants possess genetic diversity beyond that defined for a single 130 genotype by Segarra et al. (2010), but the extent of diversity and how this relates to their global 131 emergence is unclear.

132 The first detection of OsHV-1 associated with mortality of C. gigas in Australia occured 133 in 2010 but despite recurrent outbreaks there has been little characterisation of the genetic 134 diversity of the viruses affecting C. gigas in Australia (Jenkins et al., 2013). Available data 135 suggest that the genotype responsible for the index case in 2010 was close to $OsHV-1 \mu Var$ but 136 had some differences (Jenkins et al., 2013). Given that OsHV-1 genetic diversity could affect 137 the gravity of the disease (Delmotte et al., 2022; Martenot et al., 2011; Morga et al., 2021), it is 138 important to study the genetic composition of the Australian isolates to better understand 139 epidemiological patterns in Australia. Detailed, long term, epidemiological studies in Australia 140 revealed that POMS outbreaks recurred at the same sites over successive years (Whittington et 141 al., 2019). The source of OsHV-1 for these disease events between 2011 and 2016 was 142 environmental rather than spread through oyster farming activities (Whittington et al., 2018).

The aim of this report is to (i) study the identity and genetic diversity of OsHV-1 in archival samples collected during mortality events in Australia using six regions sequenced by Sanger technology, (ii) compare the Australian viruses with international isolates previously published, and iii) make inferences based on diversity and phylogeny about the source and transmission of the virus to inform management decisions for disease prevention and control.

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149 **2.** Materials and methods

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151 2.1. Oyster sample selection

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Oyster samples were selected over the five summer seasons between 2011 and 2016 from the entire geographical distribution of POMS disease outbreaks in commercial aquaculture in Australia. Comprehensive data for each sample including location, age, size, mortality rate and viral load are provided in Supplementary data 1, linked by references to scientific 157 publications on these populations. In summary, all samples were collected on oyster farms by 158 researchers from the University of Sydney and all oysters in the final dataset were initially 159 recruited as spat from an OsHV-1 free hatchery in Tasmania (Table 1). All samples were tested 160 using OsHV-1 real-time PCR (Martenot et al., 2010) and positive samples containing the 161 highest concentration of OsHV-1 DNA from among the samples collected that day were 162 selected for sequencing. A total of 118 samples were selected and sequence was subsequently obtained from at least one region of the genome from 107 samples to which a unique "isolate 163 164 ID" was then assigned. For seven of these (all wild *C. gigas* or *Saccostrea commercialis* from 165 the Georges River in the 2013-2014 season) sequence was obtained only for Region 3 which 166 had no variation (see below); these isolates were excluded from further analysis, leaving 100 167 isolates available for analysis, all being samples from farmed C. gigas (Supplementary data 1). 168 Of the 100 samples of C. gigas, 38 were collected during periods of OsHV-1 infection in the 169 Hawkesbury River estuary north of Sydney NSW (from Coba Bay n=2; Kimmerikong Bay 170 n=5; Mooney Mooney n=15; Mullet Creek n=10; Porto Bay n=6), 60 were collected in the 171 Georges River estuary south of Sydney NSW (from Limekiln Bar n=1; Neverfail Bay n=2; Site 172 A n=13; Site B n=10; Site C n=25; Sylvania Waters n=1; The Shed n=8), while two were 173 collected in Tasmania (from Pitt Water n=2) (Figure 1). Exact locations are illustrated in maps 174 in Whittington et al. (2019) and in de Kantzow et al. (2017). Sampled oysters had an age range 175 of 5.5 months to 17 months and a size range of 5mm to 110mm. They were all the subject of 176 published studies in which details of the oyster populations are reported (de Kantzow et al., 177 2017; Hick et al., 2018; Paul-Pont et al., 2013a; Paul-Pont et al., 2013b; Paul-Pont et al., 2014; 178 Whittington et al., 2015a; Whittington et al., 2015b; Whittington et al., 2019) (Supplementary 179 data 1).

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183	Six regions of the OsHV-1 genome were targeted for Sanger sequencing. Firstly, four
184	regions were selected based on their discriminatory value for distinguishing microvariant
185	genotypes from among other OsHV-1 variants. Region 1 and Region 2 targeted ORF 4 and
186	ORF 43, respectively. They were selected in order to distinguish OsHV-1 μ Var (Segarra et al.,
187	2010), OsHV-1µVarΔ9, OsHV-1µVarΔ 15 described in Europe (Martenot et al., 2012;
188	Martenot et al., 2011) and other microvariants (Bai et al., 2016). Region 3 covered ORFs 35,
189	36, 37 and 38 and bounded a large deletion in OsHV-1 μ Var that induced the suppression of
190	ORF 36 and 37 and disrupted ORF 38 (Burioli et al., 2017; Martenot et al., 2015; Martenot et
191	al., 2013; Morga et al., 2021; Renault et al., 2012). Region 4 was selected for the high level of
192	polymorphism suitable for distinguishing genotypes of OsHV-1 (Batista et al., 2015). It is
193	located between ORF 49 and ORF 50 and is a non-coding site. Region 5 located on ORF 11,
194	showed a large deletion of 1386bp in microvariants (Morga et al., 2021; Burioli et al., 2017;
195	Martenot et al., 2013). Finally, Region 6, which could be involved in virulence mechanisms is
196	a polymorphic region of interest; it targets ORF 88 coding for a transmembrane glycoprotein
197	(Martenot et al., 2013). PCR and sequencing reaction primers used for each region are provided
198	in Table 2.

200 2.3. Sample processing

201 2.3.1. Extraction

Each sample was derived from whole animal or dissected mantle and gill tissues of one or more oysters, depending on their size (Supplementary data 1). The DNA extraction was performed according to previous studies (Evans et al., 2014; Whittington et al., 2019). Briefly, oysters were collected in the field and transported directly to the laboratory where they were frozen at -80°C until processed. A 400±100 mg sample was homogenised by bead beating 207 using sterile stainless steel beads (Aussie Sapphires) and 1 mL distilled water and placed into a 208 TissueLyser II machine (Qiagen) for 2 min at frequency 30, repeated once. All samples were 209 clarified by centrifugation at 1340 g for 2 min in a microcentrifuge and supernatants were 210 removed and stored in sterile tubes at -80°C. Nucleic acids were purified using a 5X 211 MagMAXTM-96Viral RNA Isolation Kit (Ambion, Life TechnologiesTM, 212 Mulgrave, Australia) and then MagMAXTM Express 96 magnetic particle processor (Applied 213 BiosystemsTM, Life TechnologiesTM, Mulgrave, Australia) according to manufacturers' 214 instructions for a final volume of 50 µL using the AM1836 deep-well standard programme 215 (Ambion, Life TechnologiesTM, Mulgrave, Australia). Purified nucleic acids were stored at 216 −20°C.

217

218 2.3.2. PCR

219 Various PCR were perfored in order to target the 6 regions described above in part 2.2. 220 The primers are reported in Table 2. For Region 1 and Region 2, each reaction contained 5 µl 221 DNA extract, 5µl 10X PCR buffer (66.6mM Tris-HCl,16.6mM (NH4)2SO4, 2.5mM MgCl2, 222 1.65mg/ml bovine serum albumin,10mM beta-mercaptoethanol), 10µl dNTP mix (1mM), 223 250nM each forward and reverse primer, 5U DNA polymerase (taq:pfu mix) and nuclease-free 224 water to a final volume of 50µl. Thermocycling was performed (Corbett Research CGI960) 225 according to the following conditions: 1 cycle at 94°C for 2min; 35 cycles consisted in 94°C 226 for 1min, 50°C for 1 min and 72°C for 1min, and a final extension at 72°C for 5 min. For the 227 remaining regions, each reaction contained 10µl 5X HiFi reaction buffer (Bioline) (containing 10mM Mg2+), 0.5µl dNTP mix (100mM), 1µl each forward and reverse primer (400nM), 1µl 228 229 (2U) Velocity DNA polymerase (Bioline), 1.5µl DMSO (BIO-21098 -Bioline Aust Pty. Ltd), 230 5µl template DNA and nuclease-free water to a final volume of 50µl; thermocycling was performed according to the following conditions: 1 cycle at 98°C for 2min; 35 cycles consisted
in 98°C for 30s, 62°C for 30s and 72°C for 30s, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min.

The amplicons were visualised using 5µl of each amplification product on a 2% agarose gel, assessed against a molecular weight marker and visualised using RedSafe (iNtRON Biotechnology) on a GelDoc transilluminator (Biorad).

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237 2.3.3. Sequencing

238 Amplified PCR product was purified by incubation with ExoSAP-IT/Cleansweep 239 (ThermoFisher Scientific) then submitted for Sanger sequencing. For several samples where a 240 single amplicon was not obtained, bands of the expected size were excised from the agarose gel 241 and DNA was purified using the QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen). The amplicons were 242 sent to the Australian Genome Research Facility or to the Monash Health Translation Precinct 243 Medical Genomics Facility Australia for sequencing. Forward and reverse sequencing were performed in reactions with relevant PCR primers and internal primers (Table 2). 244 245 Chromatograms were reviewed, analyzed and primer sequence was removed, using FinchTV 246 (Geospiza).

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248 2.4. DNA data processing

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For each region targeted, nucleotide sequences were aligned with the reference genome NC_005881.2 and the two microvariant genomes KY242788 and KY271630, using MEGA10 (Kumar et al., 2018) with the MUSCLE algorithm. The sequences were trimmed and the chromatograms were again specifically checked for all mutations on forward and reverse strands. Base positions described in results are mapped to the reference genome NC_005881.2. 255 Phylogenetic trees were constructed using MEGA 10 with the Neighbour Joining 256 method and 1000 replications of boostraps and the method based on Maximum Composite 257 Likelihood was applied. Two trees were obtained: the first was based on the concatenated 258 sequence of Regions 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 (Region 5 was not included due to too few sequences - see 259 results); the second tree was based on Region 1. The trees were unrooted because the ancestry 260 of the reference genotype is uncertain. In addition, the use of another *malacoherpesviridae*, 261 Haliotid herpesvirus, was impracticable because the ORFs had no sequence in common making 262 alignment impossible. The unrooted tree allows the analysis of diversity but does not orient the 263 genotypes temporally.

264 Nucleotide diversity (Pi) for Region 1 (C region) including the microsatellite region was 265 calculated using DnaSP v6: DNA Sequence Polymorphism Analysis of Large Datasets (Rozas 266 et al., 2017) and compared with the results of Mineur et al. (2015), after adding six sequences 267 (JN800089, JN800075, JN800082, JN800083, JN800088 and JN800072) to be consistent with 268 these authors. Briefly, the calculation was performed on the alignment; the indel polymorphism 269 module with the "Multiallelic" gap option was used to consider all InDel events. Nucleotide 270 diversity was listed according to geographic region. Pi values reported by Mineur et al. (2015) 271 were corrected for frequency equal to one because multiple occurrences of an identical 272 genotype may not be reported. To make the data comparable, *Pi* in the current study was not 273 corrected because only one sequence per genotype was included in the calculation.

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- 276 2.5. Amino acid sequence prediction

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In order to estimate whether some putative mutations could induce a modification in the phenotype of the variant, a prediction of amino acid sequence was performed on coding sites in

280	Regions 1, 2, 3, 5 and 6. The translations of the ORFs were performed with ORF Finder (https:
281	//www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/orffinder/) and the Bioedit sequence alignment editor. The translations
282	were checked using Blastp (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi?PAGE=Proteins). These
283	predictions were aligned with the prediction of the reference genome NC_005881.2 and the two
284	microvariant genomes KY242788 and KY271630 using Mega 10.
285	
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287	3. Results
288	3.1. DNA sequencing analysis
289	
290	3.1.1. Description of the variants
291	All nucleotide sequences are available on the NCBI database and accession numbers are
292	listed in Table 3. Results and metadata for each of the 100 samples is provided in Supplementary
293	data 1. Sequence alignments are illustrated in Supplementary data 2.
294	
295	For Region 1, located at ORF 4, nucleotide sequence was obtained from 87 of 100
296	samples. None of the sequences were identical to the OsHV-1 reference sequence but they were
297	partially similar to the microvariants, with the presence of most of the mutations except the two
298	substitutions of adenine instead of guanine in the downstream region (base 178,696 and
299	178,702). However, they all presented a novel substitution of an adenine instead of a guanine
300	in a different position (base 178,705), also in the downstream region. Several mutations were
301	observed allowing the identification of five different nucleotide sequences: G1, G2, G4, G6 and
302	G7 (Figure 1, Supplementary data 2). Eight of the sequences that grouped in G4 (Supplementary
303	data 2) had 15 deletions (base 178,558 - 178,572) in the microsatellite zone instead of the 12

304 deletions seen in microvariants (Burioli et al., 2017; Segarra et al., 2010), as was observed in 305 OsHV-1 μ Var Δ 15 reported in Martenot et al. (2012).

For Region 2, situated at ORF 43, nucleotide sequence was obtained from 77 of 100 samples. They were all different from the reference sequence and the microvariants. They were separated into two groups, classified by one deletion of a thymine in the downstream region (base 60,504) (G8) for 36 samples and two deletions of two adenine in the upstream region (base 60,059 - 60,060) for 41 samples (G9) (Figure 2, Supplementary data 2).

In the third region coding for ORF 35 to ORF 38, nucleotide sequences were obtained from 96 of 100 samples and all were identical to the two microvariant sequences. The features included the large deletion zone of 606bp (base 52,251 - 52,856) common to microvariants and the substitution of a cytosine instead of a thymine (base 52,885). They were classified into G10 (Figure 3, Supplementary data 2).

316 Eighty-seven of 100 samples presented an amplification of the fourth region located on 317 the non-coding site between ORF 49 and ORF 50. All the nucleotide sequences presented a 318 common substitution of an adenine instead of a guanine in the upstream zone (base 72,489) and 319 two deletions of two thymine next to the middle zone (base 75,592 - 75,593). However there 320 were many differences compared to the reference genotype and microvariants consisting of 19 321 mutations over 408 nucleotides which were not observed in the microvariant genotypes. These 322 mutations allowed the characterization of 14 groups (Figure 4, Supplementary data 2), 323 confirming the prior observations of high variability in this region (Batista et al., 2015). Four 324 samples of a nucleotide sequence named G12 presented a thymine as well as a cytosine (Y) at 325 the same position (base 72,536). The chromatograms of this and all the other regions of these 326 four samples comprising G12 were unambiguous. All samples which contained the G12 variant 327 were pools of 5 spat (Supplementary data 1).

For Region 5 sitting on ORF 11, nucleotide sequence was obtained from 42 of 100 samples. None had the large deletion observed in the microvariants. Even though the nucleotide sequences were close to the reference sequence, a few mutations were present allowing their classification into four groups (G31, G32, G33, G34) (Figure 5, Supplementary data 2). All had a common substitution of a thymine instead of a guanine (base 18,621).

Of the 91 samples which amplified from Region 6 in the first part of ORF 88, 54 nucleotide sequences were similar to the reference sequence (G37). The others clustered into two groups, comprising the substitution of a cytosine instead of a guanine (base 133,574) in 36 samples (G36) and a substitution of a guanine instead of an adenine (base 133,574) in one sample (G35) (Figure 6, Supplementary data 2).

Nucleotide sequences for Regions 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 were obtained from 61 samples, which
when concatenated led to the identification of 12 DNA variants (Table 4). V1 and V8 were the
most numerous of these variants.

341

342 3.1.2. Phylogenetic analyses

343 Firstly, a phylogenetic tree using Regions 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 was constructed with the 344 concatenated nucleotide sequences of the 12 variants and the 29 whole genomes present in 345 NCBI. All Australian genotypes clustered in the same clade, distinct from isolates from Europe, 346 China and the reference genotype and with a distinctly shorter branch length (Figure 2). 347 Secondly, a phylogenetic tree was constructed based only on the C region (Region 1), which 348 has been well-studied internationally, in order to incorporate a wider range of isolates (Figure 349 3). A single cluster distinguished all Australian genotypes from those from Europe, New 350 Zealand, Japan and the Americas.

351

352 3.1.3 Diversity

353	The number of genotypes available for analysis had almost doubled from 48 to 95 since
354	the study of Mineur et al in 2015 (Table 5). The Australian isolates had the lowest genetic
355	diversity overall (Pi 0.99 x 10 ⁻³) when compared to viruses from other regions of the world
356	where diversity ranged from 5.31 x 10^{-3} to 7.61 x 10^{-3} (Table 5).

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359 3.1.3. Influencing factors

The distribution among the sites over time of the 12 DNA variants identified from concatenated nucleotide sequences is illustrated in Table 6 while similar data for all genomic regions is presented in Table 1, Supplementary data 2.

363 Considering the concatenated nucleotide sequences, up to four variants were found in 364 one summer season in the Georges River, compared to only one or two variants in the 365 Hawkesbury River. Nine of the 12 variants occurred at only one site and in only one summer 366 season. The variants V1 and V6 were present only in the Hawkesbury River; V1 was present at 367 most sites and in each of the four summers, while V6 was found only at Kimmerikong Bay and 368 Mooney Mooney in summer 2013-2014. The other variants were confined to the Georges River 369 where V8 was identified at various sites within Woolooware Bay in three summer seasons. The 370 other variants in the Georges River were detected only at a single site and a single sampling 371 date.

More than one variant was detected over time at some sites; for example, five were seen at Site B in the Georges River while two were seen at both Kimmerikong Bay and Mooney Mooney in the Hawkesbury river (Table 7). More than one variant was found in the same summer season at some sites; for example, in 2014-2015 V8, V11 and V12 were found at Site B, while in 2013-2014 both V1 and V6 were found at Kimmerikong Bay and at Mooney Mooney. Furthermore, there were also several instances where different variants were detected in the same population of oysters at the same time: V11 and V12 were both present at Site B
on 27/1/15; V1 and V6 were both present at Kimmerong Bay and Mooney Mooney on 13/12/13
and also on 25/1/14.

There were similar observations for Region 4 (Figure 4, Supplementary data 2), which had the most variability; 12 of the 14 variants were found in only one season and at only one site. Three of five variants in Region 1 and two of four variants in Region 5 were also seen in only one season and at only one site.

385 Two isolates from Tasmania were not incorporated into the phylogenetic analysis 386 because of incomplete sequencing of regions from those samples. However one of these 387 samples was the only isolate classified as G6 in Region 1 (Table 1 and Figure 1, Supplementary 388 data 2); there were no sequencing data from this region of the other sample from Tasmania. The 389 oysters sampled in New South Wales had been supplied from at least nine different production 390 batches (i.e. different broodstock spawnings) from one hatchery in Tasmania. Oysters grown 391 from five of these batches yielded more than one variant, and in one case, five different OsHV-392 1 variants, which has important implications when assessing the sources of the virus (see 393 discussion).

394

395 3.2. Amino acid sequence prediction of variants

396 3.2.1. Description of the predicted amino acid sequences

397 Predicted amino acid sequences were aligned with the reference and microvariant 398 sequences. All alignments are illustrated in Supplementary data 2. Regions 3 and 4 were not 399 included in this analysis because Region 3 had a large deletion of ORF 36 and 37, inducing 400 overlap of ORF 35 and 38 and creating uncertainty about whether a longer ORF could be 401 translated, while Region 4 was a non-coding area. For Region 1, two amino acid sequences were identified for ORF 4 among the five DNA sequences described above in part 3.1.1. They were both different to the reference genotype and the microvariants. The first group was named <<A>> and contained G1, G2, G4 and G7; it had an asparagine (N) instead of an aspartic acid (D). The second group named <> contained G6 and had in addition a leucine (L) instead of a serine (S) (Figure 7, Supplementary data 2).

For Region 2, the two DNA groups characterised for ORF 43 presented two different amino acid sequences. The first was named <<C>> and contained of G8. It had a similar amino acid sequence to the reference genotype and the microvariant. The second was named <<D>>. It contained G9 and was characterised by three successive mutations of a serine (S), lysine (K) and a deletion instead of a phenylalanine (F), a glutamic acid (E) and an arginine (R) (Figure 8, Supplementary data 2).

Region 5 located on ORF 11 had four DNA groups which translated into 3 amino acid
sequences. One was similar to OsHV-1 reference genotype, and was named « E ». The second
was named « F » and had a mutation of an asparagine (N) instead of a lysine (K). The third was
named « G » and had 4 substitutions of a lysine (K) (Figure 9, Supplementary data 2).

Region 6 coding for the first part of ORF 88 presented two amino acid sequences named
« H » containing G36 and G37 and « I » containing G35. <<H>> had a similar sequence to the
reference genotype and one of the microvariants, KY242785, while <<I>> had one mutation of
a glutamic acid (E) instead of lysine (K) (Figure 10, Supplementary data 2).

The amino acid prediction of the 12 DNA variants identified among 61 samples resulted in two profiles based on ORF 4, ORF 43 and ORF88: ACH (n= 34) and ADH (n=27) (Table 8). Region 5 (ORF11) was not included because there were only 42 sequences available for it.

425

426 3.2.2. Influencing factors

427	The amino acid profile of isolates was different between the two estuaries in NSW
428	(Tables 6 and 7). The ACH profile was found only in the Hawkesbury River, an estuary located
429	40 km north of Sydney while the ADH profile was found only in the Georges River, an estuary
430	located 20 km south of Sydney.
431	
432	4. Discussion
433	
434	Australian OsHV-1 isolates have lower diversity than OsHV-1 isolates globally
435	
436	It is difficult to compare genomic diversity between published studies of OsHV-1 due
437	to differences in the genomic regions sequenced, sample sizes, time span, geographic extent,
438	host species and disease state (healthy, sick, or dead). However, in this study we report diversity
439	of Ostreid herpes virus-1 in estuaries near Sydney Australia that may be lower than in other
440	geographic regions of the world.
441	Regions of the OsHV-1 genome under selection pressure and other regions which
442	accumulate a high number of substitutions have been reported (Morga et al., 2021). Selection
443	pressure is less on a non-coding area and mutations acquired over time are less likely to be
444	eliminated. The diversity revealed in this study is mainly explained by inclusion of non-coding
445	Region 4 between ORF 49 and ORF 50, which is a polymorphic area (Batista et al., 2015). In

isolates). Similarly, Batista et al. (2015) identified one variant for every 6.0 isolates examined
in a study of 18 isolates from mostly diseased *C. gigas* in Portugal.

this region alone, 14 groups were identified among the 87 samples (one variant for every 6.2

446

449 C region, corresponding to Region 1 in the present study, is the most commonly 450 analysed part of the OsHV-1 genome. With the typical primers C2/C6 used for amplification 451 there is representation of part of a non-coding region and part of ORF 4 (Batista et al., 2015). 452 Nucleotide diversity in the C region was calculated formally and compared to data published in 453 2015 (Mineur et al., 2015). There were more sequences in public databases, but the nucleotide 454 diversity had not changed markedly except for Europe where it appeared to have decreased (from 15.3 x 10^{-3} to 7.6 x 10^{-3}). The Australian isolates had the lowest genetic diversity (*Pi* 0.99) 455 456 x 10⁻³) overall. Globally, 48 different genotypes had been identified in C region (including the 457 microsatellite region) by 2015 (Mineur et al., 2015). Expressed in simple terms of the frequency 458 of genotypes among isolates examined, in Australia seven genotypes have been identified 459 among 89 samples in diseased C. gigas (five from 87 isolates in the present study and two 460 existing in NCBI), which equates to one variant for every 12.7 isolates. In contrast, in a study covering a wide area of coastal Japan, 23 genotypes were found among 123 samples from 461 462 healthy Crassostrea species (one variant for every 5.4 isolates) (Shimahara et al., 2012); in both 463 countries samples were collected over about 5 years. The genetic diversity among diseased 464 oysters in Australia was clearly much less than that in healthy oysters in Japan. The data from 465 Japan in the north west Pacific region likely represent the diverse environmental reservoir of 466 viral types detectable in healthy shellfish, while the low diversity in Australia may represent 467 selected environmental strains of OsHV-1 capable of causing disease in farmed oysters under 468 certain environmental conditions, that then became locally dominant. Relatively low diversity 469 was seen in Europe after 2008 when OsHV-1 *uVar* became the most common strain in diseased 470 ovsters (Table 5). In Europe there had been spread of the virus with movements of live ovsters 471 for farming, for example from France to Ireland and Jersey (Peeler et al., 2012). Within France, 472 OsHV-1 uVar was dispersed widely with commercial movements of live oysters from 473 Marennes-Oléron to farming areas on both the Atlantic and Mediterranean coasts (Delmotte et 474 al., 2022). Thus, in addition to the health/disease condition of oysters and their geographic 475 locations, the observed regional differences in the diversity of OsHV-1 genotypes depends on

476 epidemiological differences between the sources and modes of spread of the viruses. All these477 factors will need to be considered in future studies of the diversity of OsHV-1.

478

479 In Region 4 we observed a double nucleotide (thymine and cytosine) in four individual 480 samples for which remaining nucleotide sequences were unambiguous (G12 - Figure 4, and 481 Supplementary data 2) and otherwise matched the nucleotide sequence of G18 which had a 482 cytosine at this position (Figure 4, Supplementary data 2). Our first hypothesis is that there has 483 been a recent mutation at this position to explain why we found two different copies of this part 484 of the genome, one being the ancestral form and the other being the mutated one. This is feasible 485 due to the persistence of the herpesvirus in surviving oyster hosts (Evans et al., 2017b), because 486 gene exchange in herpesviruses can occur by recombination (Thiry et al., 2005) and because 487 Rosani and Venier (2017) showed the presence of DNA recombination-initiating promoter 488 binding in Malacoherpesviridae. The four samples with this mutation were from oysters in 489 close proximity to one another and they could have been infected almost simultaneously from 490 a host in which the mutation first occured, resulting in a pool of two variants in each of the four 491 samples. This is consistent with Martenot et al (2011) who reported various genotypes in the 492 same batch of oysters and Morga et al (2021) who reported various genotypes in the same 493 individual. A second possibility would be that there were two otherwise identical but long-494 standing OsHV-1 variants in each of the four samples, due to different individuals containing a 495 different genotype of OsHV-1, because each sample came from a pool of five individual 496 oysters. While this does increase the chance of mixing several variants into one DNA extract, 497 in no other sample did we find a group with a thymine at this position. The least likely 498 explanation because the non-coding area between ORF 49 and ORF 50 is present as a single 499 copy in the complete OsHV-1 genomes available on NCBI, is the existence of a double copy 500 of this region.

502	The microsatellite zone of the C region of OsHV-1 is polymorphic because of repeated
503	trinucleotides which allow replication mistakes, as observed by many authors (Martenot et al.,
504	2012; Martenot et al., 2011; Mineur et al., 2015; Renault et al., 2014). The range in the number
505	of ACT trinucleotide repeats across all genotypes globally was reported to be 3 - 13 (Mineur et
506	al., 2015), corresponding to a range of 3 - 10 trinucleotide deletions (9 - 30 base deletions).
507	However, we observed only two profiles among a large number of isolates, either 12 or 15 base
508	deletions. This is consistent with the only other Australian sequences deposited in NCBI; these
509	came from the first episode of mortality in 2010 and had 12 base deletions.

510

511 Australian isolates differed from OsHV-1 isolates globally

512 Concatenated nucleotide sequences showed a distinct cluster including all the Australian 513 isolates, different from all other genotypes reported worldwide and supported by the distinct 514 distribution with a shorter branch size for the Australian genotypes (Figure 2). Although the 515 bootstrap value was only 63, this could be explained by the presence of Region 3 located 516 between ORF 35 and 38 including a large deletion area and region 5 located on ORF 11, with 517 a 462bp deletion only in the microvariant. These differences are calculated as multiple mutation 518 events when it is more likely that each corresponds to a single mutation event. Burioli et al. 519 (2016) studied the same disturbed region and discussed the need for "sophisticated algorithms 520 for alignment and phylogenetical analysis, adapted to take into account DNA-virus evolution 521 analysis, in order to obtain accurate results with the correct phylogenetic distance". The 522 Australian clade was also confirmed by the inclusion of the only two NCBI sequences from 523 Australia, KC685525.1 and MT157286.1 (Burge et al., 2020; Jenkins et al., 2013) in the C 524 region tree (Figure 3). This is consistent with the phylogeny reported in Mineur et al. (2015), 525 which was performed on the same locus with another algorithm, median joining genotype, and 526 showed three closely related genotypes from temperate Australasia. In contrast, the 527 phylogenetic tree presented in Burge et al. (2021) with the neigbour joining method showed 528 that the Australian genotype was close to the Japanese, American, Korean and French 529 microvariants. However, unlike the current phylogeny, the tree described in Burge et al. (2021) 530 is not based on evolutionary distance and contains too few samples - a single genotype from 531 Australia - which is not sufficient to construct a cluster. The Australian viruses appear to be 532 genetically different across the genomic regions analyzed and this raises the question about 533 their true phylogenic origins. Sanger sequencing of a limited number of genomic regions may 534 bias analyses compared to whole genome analysis, which will be indispensable for determining 535 clades of OsHV-1 and should be the subject of future studies.

536

537 Australian isolates were not OsHV-1 reference strain, OsHV-1 µVar or microvariants

538 Neither OsHV-1 reference genotype nor OsHV-1 µVar were identified among the Australian samples. Currently OsHV-1 "microvariants" are described as being close to OsHV-539 540 1 µVar as defined by Segarra et al. (2010) but not identical to it (Burge et al., 2021; Morga et 541 al., 2021). In all of the Australian isolates the two regions which characterise OsHV-1 µVar 542 according to Segarra et al. (2010), ORF 4 and ORF 43, had dissimilar nucleotide sequences. 543 None of these sequences had the large deletion in ORF 11 reported in the microvariant 544 sequences (Burioli et al., 2017; Martenot et al., 2013; Morga et al., 2021) and presented a similar 545 nucleotide sequence to the OsHV-1 reference virus on ORF 11 except for one point mutation. 546 Moreover, half the samples from Australia did not present an amplification product from this 547 region. Since there was enough biological material in the same samples to perform sequencing 548 of the other regions, we suggest that there were changes at the primer binding sites, which others 549 have also mentioned to be a likely reason for this problem (Arzul et al., 2001b; Martenot et al., 550 2011); PCR-sequencing of the other regions was not uniformly successful either, consistent551 with many other studies of OsHV-1.

552

553 The variant of OsHV-1 known as μ Var is thought to be responsible for the sudden 554 escalation of mass mortality events in C. gigas in France from 2008, and then later in other 555 European countries. However, µVar and the more recently described "microvariants" are 556 clearly not the only variants of OsHV-1 associated with mass mortality events in C. gigas. The 557 disease outbreaks in both Australia since 2010 have not been caused by these types of OsHV-1 558 but have been just as sudden in onset, recurrent and economically devastating for the oyster industry as those in France (Fuhrmann et al., 2019). Therefore further research is required to 559 560 understand the virulence determinants of OsHV-1 and how these are coded in the genome.

561

562 Internal comparison of Australian isolates

563

564 The two estuaries studied in New South Wales had different OsHV-1 profiles. At the 565 Georges River sites, ten variants were identified over five summer seasons while at the 566 Hawkesbury River sites only two variants were found. Delmotte et al. (2022) showed a great diversity of variants in areas with high oyster farming activity. However, the causes of the 567 568 different patterns of distribution of variants here are unknown since these two estuaries in 569 Australia had equivalent, intense oyster farming activity using similar genetic stock of C. gigas 570 from the same OsHV-1 free hatchery in Tasmania. As a consequence of the two distributions 571 of DNA variants, the amino acid sequences of the viruses present in the Hawkesbury and 572 Georges river estuaries were different: the ACH profile in the Hawkesbury River and ADH in 573 the Georges River. This distinct pattern has a precedent in Europe, but with far greater 574 geographic separation than the 60 km that exists between these two estuaries. Based on RNA-

575 Seq SNP analysis, Delmotte et al. (2020) reported two genetically different OsHV-1 576 populations in POMS outbreaks in *C. gigas* on the Atlantic and Mediterranean coasts of France; 577 they had amino acid sequence differences in viral membrane proteins, which may affect 578 virulence (Delmotte et al., 2020).

579

580 Due to the selection of samples based on high viral load, which in general is correlated 581 with mortality (Oden et al., 2011), it was not appropriate to compare the OsHV-1 isolates in 582 this study according to their degree of replication fitness or observed mortalities. However, in 583 the oyster populations from which the samples were collected there were differences in the 584 patterns of mortality: spat in the Georges River estuary were 6.4 times more likely to have 585 mortality due to OsHV-1 than those in the Hawkesbury River estuary (Whittington et al., 2019). 586 Subclinical infection of oysters with OsHV-1 was also more likely in the Georges River (Evans 587 et al., 2017b; Whittington et al., 2019). It is possible that the mutually exclusive genotypic 588 variants of OsHV-1 identified between the two estuaries differed in virulence. However, other factors could also be involved. While oyster genotype was similar between the two rivers 589 590 because of the common origin of spat, there could be a wide range of environmental differences. 591 These could include differences in the co-occurrence of reservoirs/hosts, paticulate vectors, 592 filter feeding species and seaweeds that could all influence the severity of POMS (Dugeny et 593 al., 2022; Evans et al., 2017c; Pernet et al., 2021; Whittington et al., 2018).

594

To our knowledge there were no transfers of commercial oysters between the Georges and Hawkesbury Rivers after first detection of OsHV-1 in the Georges River late in 2010 due to government biosecurity directives (Paul-Pont et al., 2014). The only common factor between the two oyster production locations was the recruitment site of all batches of farmed *C. gigas* in this study: Tasmania. However, the current data indicate that the virus contamination did not 600 come from this recruitment step but from the culture environment. There are three reasons for 601 this: i) consistent pre-shipment PCR testing of all batches of spat from the hatchery by the 602 government laboratory in Tasmania and again upon arival in NSW by the researchers (all 603 negative results) means that spat were specific-pathogen free (SPF); ii) different genotypes of 604 OsHV-1 were detected in the same batch of spat after deployment in NSW; iii) a unique 605 genotype (G6) of OsHV-1 was detected in Tasmania; G6 was not found among 85 samples 606 from the Hawkesbury River or Georges River. Epidemiological observations alone had 607 suggested that recurrent POMS outbreaks in Australia were derived from the environment and 608 were not due to disease transfer with oysters during farming (Whittington et al., 2018), a feature 609 which is now strongly supported by DNA sequence evidence. This scenario is in direct contrast 610 to France where evidence points to a radiation of disease associated with commercial spat 611 distribution (Delmotte et al., 2022). The time of first appearance of OsHV-1 in a putative 612 environmental host in Australia cannot be determined, but it could have been a point source 613 introduction to a naive population, then adaptation to local conditions. In fact there are historical 614 records of a virus like Ostreid herpesvirus from Ostrea angasi in Western Australia (Hine and 615 Thorne, 1997). These authors demonstrated herpes-like viral particles by electron microscopy, 616 but did not have the molecular tools to identify the virus. In any case, this observation raises 617 the possibility that OsHV-1 could be either indigenous to Australia or could have been 618 introduced many decades ago and become endemic, and it could have mutated to form its own 619 lineage over time, as is supported by the current phylogenetic analysis. Knowing that OsHV-1 620 μ Var emerged around 2008 in Europe and then dispersed rapidly, the absence of OsHV-1 μ Var 621 in Australia suggests that there has been effective compliance with the strict quarantine laws 622 that aim to prevent introduction of exotic pathogens into Australia.

623 Arzul et al. (2001a) speculated 20 years ago that pathogenic forms of OsHV-1 arose 624 from possibly benign bivalve herpesviruses which could be transmitted between bivalve species 625 and which would be favoured by modern shellfish farming practices (Arzul et al., 2001a; Arzul 626 et al., 2001b). In Australia, there is evidence that invertebrate species in the Georges River 627 besides C. gigas are exposed to OsHV-1 and may become infected, but their role in the 628 epidemiology of POMS remains to be determined (Evans et al., 2017c). The environment is an 629 important factor in the transmission cycle because OsHV-1 can be found in seawater and 630 sediments (Evans et al., 2014 ;2017) and is likely transported on suspended particles over 5µm 631 (Evans et al., 2017a; Evans et al., 2017c; Paul-Pont et al., 2013b; Whittington et al., 2015b). 632 Depending on conditions such as temperature, the virus is expected to persist in seawater and 633 remain infectious for several days according to in vitro experimentation (Hick et al., 2016; 634 Martenot et al., 2015). This gives the virus time to transit between hosts through the 635 environment. Ostreid herpesvirus 1 can infect several different host species (Arzul et al., 2001a; 636 Bai et al., 2016; Batista et al., 2015; Bookelaar et al., 2018; Comps and Cochennec, 1993; Evans 637 et al., 2017c; Farley et al., 1972; Hine and Thorne, 1997; Hine et al., 1998; Prado-Alvarez et 638 al., 2021; Renault and Arzul, 2001; Renault et al., 2001; Xia et al., 2015) and may persist in 639 survivors of outbreaks or remain latent (Arzul et al., 2002; Evans et al., 2017b), which may 640 explain why each environment has its own assemblage of viruses. While the molecular evidence 641 strongly suggested that the virus contamination came from reservoirs in the local culture 642 environment rather than a point source such as an oyster hatchery, the distribution of the 643 variants across sites and time suggests that some reservoirs were persistent and widespread, 644 while others were highly site and time specific and therefore possibly short-lived, or that 645 transmission was infrequent. The reservoirs may be subject to local environmental influences 646 which affect their distribution and abundance. Further field research is required to discover the 647 environmental reservoir of OsHV-1 and the specific environmental factors that facilitate 648 emergence of the virus. Climate change, short term climatic and water quality variations and 649 intensification of farming are among the many factors to be considered.

651

652 **5. Conclusion**

653

654 Sequencing analyses of OsHV-1 isolates from estuaries near Sydney, Australia, 655 revealed a low diversity of genotypes relative to other geographic regions, reflecting differences 656 in sources and modes of spread of the viruses and the types of oyster populations (healthy, or 657 diseased) that have been examined so far. Importantly, Australian POMS outbreaks were 658 associated with a type of OsHV-1 distinct from others globally and were not a "microvariant" 659 genotype. Elsewhere, since 2008 OsHV-1 microvariants have been the only variants associated 660 with mass mortality events in C. gigas. Future whole genome sequencing investigations will 661 allow more detailed classification of Australian isolates of OsHV-1. Based on both DNA and 662 amino acid sequences, OsHV-1 variants were absolutely correlated to estuary. The C. gigas 663 populations in the two estuaries near Sydney had different prevalence and severity of POMS, 664 which suggests that the geographically mutally exclusive genotypes differed in virulence. The 665 molecular evidence supports field epidemiological evidence that the disease-causing virus came 666 from reservoirs in the local environment. The sequencing findings in this study help inform 667 understanding of the various sources and modes of spread of OsHV-1 that have led to mass 668 mortality events in farmed C. gigas globally.

669

670 Author contributions

Suzanne Trancart: Investigation, Data curation, Methodology, Visualization, Formal analysis,
Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing. Alison Tweedie: Investigation, Data
curation, Writing - Review & Editing. Olivia Liu: Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing.
Ika Paul-Pont: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. Paul Hick:
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Supervision, Writing - Review & Editing. Richard Whittington: Funding acquisition, Project

administration, Supervision, Resources, Conceptualization, Investigation, Data curation,
Formal analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing.

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696 **Captions to figures**

Figure 1 : Sampling sites. George river estuary sites are located on the bottom map
corresponding to the south of Sydney and Hawkesbury river estuary sites are located on the
upper map corresponding to the north of Sydney.

700

701 Figure 2: Distribution of the DNA variants according to the NCBI deposited nucleotide 702 sequences. The unrooted phylogenetic tree was performed using the neighbour joining 703 method and 1000 bootstrap replications were applied based on maximum composite 704 likelihood. Regions 1,2,3,4 and 6 were concatenated on 61 Australian isolates showing 12 705 variants (V1, V2, V3, V4, V5, V6, V7, V8, V9, V10, V11, V12). Yellow rectangle is the 706 reference nucleotide sequence of OsHV-1. Metadata for the nucleotide sequences of the 707 current study that are included in the tree are in Supplementary data 1 while metadata for the 708 nucleotide sequences that are already available in NCBI are in Table 1, Supplementary data 709 3.

- 710 Figure 3: Distribution of the DNA variants according to nucleotide sequences deposited in
- 711 NCBI. The unrooted phylogenetic tree was performed using the neighbour joining method
- and 1000 bootstrap replications were applied based on maximum composite likelihood.
- Region 1 from 87 Australian isolates was used, showing 5 groups (G1, G2, G4, G6, G7).
- 714 Crosses indicate Australian nucleotide sequences extant in NCBI; asterisks indicate the New
- 715 Zealand nucleotide sequences. Yellow rectangle is the reference nucleotide sequence of
- 716 OsHV-1. Metadata for the nucleotide sequences of the current study that are included in the
- 717 tree are in Supplementary data 1 while metadata for the nucleotide sequences that are already
- available in NCBI are in Table 2, Supplementary data 3.
- 719

720 List of supplemental data

- 721 Supplemental data 1
- 722 Table 1 Metadata for all samples

Table 2 Citations of scientific publications describing the populations of oysters from which

- 724 samples were collected
- 725
- 726 Supplemental data 2
- 727 Table 1 Variants by genomic region and geographic location
- Figures 1 to 10 DNA and amino acid alignments
- 729
- 730 Supplemental data 3
- 731 Genbank accession numbers of isolates included in phylogenetic trees

Table 1 : Number of samples of OsHV-1 PCR-positive oysters from which nucleotide sequences were analysed according to the estuary and the season of collection. The number of sites sampled are in parentheses; sites differed between seasons.

Estuary	2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015	2015-2016	Total
Georges River NSW	19 (3)	9 (3)	14 (4)	13 (3)	5 (3)	60
Hawkesbury River NSW		11 (3)	15 (2)	9 (2)	3 (2)	38
Pitt Water TAS					2(1)	2
Total	19	20	29	22	10	100

Table 2 : Regions	of the OsHV-1 genome	e targeted for PCR amplification.

	Amplification target											
Sequencing region	Position ^a	Gene	Primer name and purpose ^b	Primer sequence (5'→3')	Amplicon size (base pairs)	Reference						
1			C2 (A, S)	CTCTTTACCATGAAGATACCCACC	700	(Renault and						
			C6 (A, S)	GTGCACGGCTTACCATTTTT	709	Arzul, 2001)						
	178211		C1585 (S)	GTATAAATAGGCGCG		This paper						
(Cracion)	178919	ORF 4	C1586 (S)	CGCGCCTATTTATAC		This paper						
(C region)			C1587 (S)	CAGACGAGGTTAAC		This paper						
			C1588 (S)	GTTAACCTCGTCTG		This paper						
			C1593 (S)	GGAGCTGCGGCGCTATG		This paper						
2	59950		IA1 (A, S)	CGCGGTTCATATCCAAAGTT	(07	Segarra et al.						
()	60557	ORF 42-43	IA2 (A, S)	AATCCCCATGTTTCTTGCTG	607	(2010)						
(A region)			C1589 (S)	CTTGCTCATCGTATTC		This paper						
3			Del 36-37F2 (A,	ATACGATGCGTCGGTAGAGC	989 384 or no	(Renault et al						
	51979	ORF 35 -36 -	Del 36-37R (A, S)	CGAGAACCCCATTCCTGTAA	amplification	2012)						
(605bpDel)	52968	52968	52968	52968	52968	52968	52968	37 and 38	C1590 (S)	CATGGTGATGAATGAAG		This paper
(0000p20)							C1591 (S)	CTTCATTCATCACCATG		This paper		
			C1592 (S)	CATTCCTGTAAACAC		This paper						
4	72414	Between	NC1 (A, S)	ACACCTAATGACCCCAAAGG		(Batista at al						
(NC1NC2 region)	72919	ORF49 and 50	NC2 (A, S)	GACCAATCACCAGCTCAACA	506	(Balista et al., 2015)						
5			ORF11For (A, S)	ACCACCGCGCCAAAATCTG	2116 or 721	(Martenot et al.,						
	17402		ORF11Rev (A, S)	CGCTTCCTATCACCTTGTGG	2110 of 731	2013)						
	19518	ORF 11	C1872 (S)	CTAGTCGTGCTCGTTCCTCTGC		This paper						
			C1873 (S)	GGCAGAGATAGAACACAATG		This paper						
			C1874 (S)	CATTGTGTTCTATCTCTGCC		This paper						
6	133088		ORF88aFor (A,S)	CCCAGTCTATTATCCAGGTAC		(Martenot et al						
	134107	07 ORF 88a	ORF88aRev (A,S)	ACCGTTCCTCAATCAGTCCC	1020	2013)						

^a Position on the OsHV-1 genome relative to the OsHV-1 reference genome, GenBank: AY509253 ^b Purpose: A amplification, S sequencing

Region		Gene	Sequence Group	GenBank Accession No.
			G1	ON953753
			G2	ON953754
1	C region	ORF4	G4	ON953755
			G6	ON953752
			G7	ON953756
n	A region	ODE 42 42	G8	ON953757
Z	A legion	OKF 42-43	G9	ON953758
3	605 bpDel	ORF 35 to 38	G10	ON953759
			G11	ON954001
			G12	ON954014
			G13	ON954007
			G14	ON954004
			G15	ON954003
			G17	ON954002
			G18	ON954013
4	NC2 region	Non-coding, between ORF 49 and ORF 50	G19	ON954012
			G20	ON954006
			G21	ON954010
			G22	ON954009
			G23	ON954008
			G24	ON954005
			G29	ON954011
			G31	ON953762
-	000011		G32	ON953760
5	ORF 11 gene	ORF 11	G33	ON953763
			G34	ON953761
			G35	ON953765
6		ORF 88	G36	ON953764
			G37	ON953766

Table 3: GenBank accession numbers of the 29 DNA groups of the 6 regions analysed.

748
749Table 4:Description of the 12 genotypic variants based on concatenated nucleotide sequences of Regions 1,2,3,4 and 6 for 61
isolates according to their group identification numbers for these regions.

Variant	n	R 1	R2	R3	R4	R6
		ORF 4	ORF 43	ORFs 35, 36, 37, 38	uncoded site between ORF49 and 50	ORF 88
V1	32	G7	G8	G10	G11	G36
V2	3	G1	G9	G10	G11	G37
V3	1	G7	G9	G10	G20	G37
V4	1	G7	G9	G10	G21	G37
V5	1	G7	G9	G10	G29	G37
V6	2	G7	G8	G10	G11	G37
V7	5	G7	G9	G10	G13	G37
V8	10	G7	G9	G10	G11	G37
V9	2	G4	G9	G10	G12	G37
V10	2	G7	G9	G10	G14	G37
V11	1	G7	G9	G10	G15	G37
V12	1	G7	G9	G10	G17	G37

754 755 756 757 758 Table 5: Nucleotide diversity in the C region (including the microsatellite region) of OsHV-1 from different geographical regions. The data are based on sequences listed in Table 2 of Supplementary data 3 as well as sequences from the current study. Six sequences were added to be consistent with Mineur et al (2015) (see materials and methods). NW Pacific includes isolates from China, Japan and Korea; NE Pacific includes Mexico and USA; Europe includes France, Ireland, Italy,

Portugal and Spain; Australasia includes Australia and New Zealand.

	Cu	rrent study	Mineur et al (2015)				
Geographic region	No. of genotypes	Nucleotide diversity (Pi)	No. of genotypes	Nucleotide diversity (<i>Pi</i>)**			
All	95	7.46 x 10 ⁻³	48	14.97 x 10 ⁻³			
NW Pacific	45	6.45 x 10 ⁻³	27	9.34 x 10 ⁻³			
Australasia	10	1.49 x 10 ⁻³	3	2.09 x 10 ⁻³			
Australia	7	0.99 x 10 ⁻³	nr	nr			
NE Pacific	5	6.24 x 10 ⁻³	2	6.27 x 10 ⁻³			
Europe all years	41	7.61 x 10 ⁻³	16	15.30 x 10 ⁻³			
*Europe < 2008	9	3.43 x 10 ⁻³	10	4.67 x 10 ⁻³			
Europe ≥ 2008	32	2.07 x 10 ⁻³	6	3.45 x 10 ⁻³			
France	27	5.31 x 10 ⁻³	nr	nr			

759

*One sequence (AY459363) with a high frequency of undetermined nucleotides ("N") was 760

761 excluded from the current study

762 **corrected for Hd=1, see materials and methods

763 nr, no result

		2011-	-2012				2012-2013			201	3-2014				2014-2015			2	2015-2016	
	Isolate	Site	Date collected	Variant	Isolate	Site	Date collected	Variant	Isolate	Site	Date collected	Variant	Isolate	Site	Date collected	Variant	Isolate	Site	Date collected	Variant
	13	Site	16-11-11	V9	19	Site A	07-11-12	V4	65	The Shed	28-01-14	V7	102	Neverfail	16-12-14	V10	108	Site C	09-11-15	V8
	14	Site	16-11-11	V9	26	Site B	28-11-12	V5	66	The Shed	28-01-14	V 7	103	Neverfail	16-12-14	V10	109	Site C	09-11-15	V8
ar	4	Site	24-11-11	V8					67	The Shed	28-01-14	V7	104	Site B	27-1-15	V11				
ss Rive	9	A Site B	10-02-12	V3					68	The Shed	28-01-14	V 7	105	Site B	27-1-15	V12				
orge		Б							69	The Shed	28-01-14	V7	79	Site C	27-1-15	V8				
Ë									70	Site C	25-02-14	V2	80	Site C	27-1-15	V8				
									71	Site C	25-02-14	V2	81	Site C	27-1-15	V8				
									73	Site C	25-02-14	V2	82	Site C	27-1-15	V8				
													84	Site C	27-1-15	V8				
													85	Site C	27-1-15	V8				
													106	Site B	24-2-15	V8				
					31	Mullet	21-01-13	V1	42	Kimmerikon	31-12-13	V1	74	Mooney	18-11-14	V 1	114	Mullet	26-10-15	V1
					32	Mullet	21-01-13	V1	43	g Kimmerikon	31-12-13	V1	75	Mooney	18-11-14	V1				
					33	Mullet	21-01-13	V1	44	Kimmerikon	31-12-13	V1	76	Mooney	18-11-14	V1				
River					34	Mullet	21-01-13	V1	46	Kimmerikon	31-12-13	V6	77	Mooney	18-11-14	V1				
[Ŋ]					36	Mullet	21-01-13	V1	48	Mooney	25-01-14	V1	78	Mooney	18-11-14	V1				
sbu					37	Mullet	21-01-13	V1	49	Mooney	25-01-14	V1	110	Porto	28-11-14	V1				
vke					38	Mullet	21-01-13	V1	50	Mooney	25-01-14	V1	111	Porto	28-11-14	V1				
Hav					41	Coba	29-01-13	V1	51	Mooney	25-01-14	V1	112	Porto	28-11-14	V1				
-					39	Porto	15-02-13	V1	52	Mooney	25-01-14	V1	113	Porto	28-11-14	V1				
					40	Porto	15-02-13	V1	53	Moonev	25-01-14	V1								
									54	Moonev	25-01-14	V1								
									55	Moonev	25-01-14	V1								
									56	Mooney	25-01-14	V1								
									57	Mooney	25-01-14	V6								

Table 6 : Distribution of 12 genomic variants of OsHV-1 among 61 isolates in the Georges and Hawkesbury River estuaries according to site and date of collection over five summer seasons between 2011-2012 and 2015-2016.

Table 7: Distribution of 12 DNA variants and protein prediction profiles among 61 samples from ten different sites in the Georges and Hawkesbury river estuaries between 2011 and 2016

Estuary	Site	No. samples	DNA variant	Predicted protein
	Coba Bay	1	V1	ACH
Hawkesbury river (n=34)	Kimmerikong Bay	4	V1 (n=3) V6 (n=1)	ACH
	Mooney Mooney	15	V1 (n=14) V6 (n=1)	ACH
	Mullet Creek	8	V1	ACH
	Porto Bay	6	V1	ACH
	Neverfail	2	V10	ADH
George river (n=27)	site A	2	V4 V8	ADH
	site B	5	V3 V5 V8 V11 V12	ADH
	site C	13	V8 (n=8) V9 (n=2) V2 (n=3)	ADH
	The shed	5	V7	ADH

Variant	n	ORF 4	ORF 43	ORF 88
V1	32	А	С	Н
V2	3	А	D	Н
V3	1	А	D	Н
V4	1	А	D	Н
V5	1	А	D	Н
V6	2	А	С	Н
V7	5	А	D	Н
V8	10	А	D	Н
V9	2	А	D	Н
V10	2	А	D	Н
V11	1	А	D	Н
V12	1	А	D	Н

Table 8: Protein profiles of the 12 DNA variants identified among 61 samples from ten different sites in the Georges and Hawkesbury river estuaries between 2011 and 2016

101	7	8	1
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