

## **Molecular epidemiology of African swine fever in East Africa**

**B. A. Lubisi<sup>1,2</sup>, A. D. S. Bastos<sup>2</sup>, R. M. Dwarka<sup>1</sup>, and W. Vosloo<sup>1,3</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>ARC-Onderstepoort Veterinary Institute, Exotic Diseases Division,  
Onderstepoort, South Africa

<sup>2</sup>Mammal Research Institute, Department of Zoology and Entomology,  
University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa

<sup>3</sup>Department of Veterinary Tropical Diseases, University of Pretoria,  
Onderstepoort, South Africa

Received February 10, 2005; accepted June 6, 2005  
Published online August 1, 2005 © Springer-Verlag 2005

**Summary.** African swine fever (ASF) a lethal, viral hemorrhagic disease of domestic pigs, first reported from East Africa in 1921, is still widespread in this region. In order to assess field heterogeneity at the regional level, nucleotide sequences corresponding to the C-terminal end of the *p72* gene were determined for 77 ASF viruses of diverse temporal and species origin occurring in eight East African countries. The number of sites completely conserved across all East African sequences characterized in this study was 84.2% and 86.8% on nucleotide and amino acid level, respectively. Phylogenetic analysis of a homologous 404 bp region revealed the presence of thirteen East African genotypes, of which eight appear to be country specific. An East African, pig-associated, homogeneous virus lineage linked to outbreaks in Mozambique, Zambia and Malawi over a 23 year period was demonstrated. In addition, genotype I (ESACWA) viruses were identified in East African sylvatic hosts for the first time which is significant as this genotype was previously thought to be restricted to the West African region where it occurs only in domestic pigs. The presence of discrete epidemiological cycles in East Africa and recovery of multiple genotypes affirms the epidemiological complexity of ASF in this region.

### **Introduction**

African swine fever (ASF) is a viral disease of domestic pigs that causes a lethal peracute or acute hemorrhagic fever, or a less virulent chronic disease [22]. It was first described from East Africa in 1921 [19], but subsequently identified in southern, central and West Africa [22]. The aetiological agent, ASF virus

(ASFV), is a large enveloped icosahedral arbovirus of the *Asfivirus* genus in the family *Asfarviridae* and has a linear, covalently close-ended, double-stranded DNA genome, 170–190 kbp in size [6].

The disease is indigenous to the African continent where it circulates in one of three distinct cycles: (1) an ancient sylvatic cycle involving eyeless argasid ticks of the *Ornithodoros* genus and wild suids such as warthogs (*Phaecochoerus aethiopicus*) and bushpigs (*Potamochoerus porcus*), (2) a tick – domestic pig cycle and (3) a domestic pig cycle that occurs in the absence of ticks [22]. In the sylvatic cycle, the natural hosts of the virus are wild African suids, which become sub-clinically infected, and argasid ticks, which when infected, amplify and transmit the virus when feeding on wild or domestic pigs [22, 23, 25, 30]. Once the virus is introduced into a naïve herd, horizontal transmission occurs swiftly among domestic pigs, a factor that was readily appreciated following the introduction of the disease to Europe in 1957 [2].

Although eradicated from most of Europe, ASF remains a disease of worldwide relevance as many countries within and outside the African continent have suitable hosts for ASFV in their pig and wild suid populations. In addition, the threat of virus maintenance posed by diverse globally distributed argasid ticks of the *Ornithodoros* genus is significant [10, 14]. The fact that the virus has high morbidity, is shed in all excretions of clinically ill domestic pigs [19], is extremely resistant to harsh environmental conditions [8, 24], and that there is no vaccine to protect against the disease [31], makes potential ASF introduction to naïve pig herds a serious threat.

In the event of an ASF outbreak, stamping out and movement restriction are the main control measures undertaken and hinge on the rapid laboratory confirmation of ASFV. Initial detection is usually followed by molecular characterization of outbreak strains in order to identify the possible source of the virus, thereby preventing further introductions. PCR amplification and sequencing of the *p72* gene coding for the major capsid protein is increasingly being used to distinguish viruses from recent outbreaks in sub-Saharan Africa [1, 2, 9] and 10 distinct viral genotypes are presently known to occur in this region [1]. Of these, genotype I comprising viruses from Europe, South America, the Caribbean and West Africa (and termed the ESACWA genotype), represents the most widespread and homogeneous genotype identified thus far.

The epidemiology of ASF in East Africa is complex. Not only is there evidence for a sylvatic cycle, but a domestic pig cycle and a pig-tick cycle have also been described [11, 22]. Despite the presence of all three cycles no extensive molecular database comprising ASFV strains from different host species is available which would assist in clarifying the epidemiology of the disease in this region. This study aims to address this shortcoming by extensive sampling and *p72* gene characterization of East African viruses of diverse species and temporal origins so that a comprehensive regional database can be established that will be useful for future outbreak eventualities and that will provide epidemiological insights into historical and contemporary outbreaks of the disease in this region.

## Materials and methods

### *Study area and samples*

For the purpose of this study, East African countries are defined as those occurring east of latitude 20°00 E and south of latitude 5°00 N, but excluding Namibia, South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe. This area encompasses the following eight countries: Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. A total of 77 viruses of diverse species and temporal origin from these eight East African countries were sequenced and characterized in this study, with the majority of viruses being supplied by the World Reference Laboratory, Institute for Animal Health (IAH), Pirbright. Additional strains were isolated at the Onderstepoort Veterinary Institute (OVI), Agricultural Research Council (ARC) from clinical material supplied by the respective departments of veterinary services (summarized in Table 1).

### *Virus isolation*

Primary swine macrophage cultures were prepared in 96 well plates as described by Malmquist and Hay [17] with slight modifications. Inoculum containing 10% (w/v) of sample material in wash buffer consisting of phosphate buffered saline (PBS), antibiotics (Penicillin, Streptomycin, and Neomycin) and normal bovine serum (NBS), was inoculated on the cells in 10 fold dilutions. The cells were examined daily for cytopathogenic effect or haemadsorption. Viruses from positive wells were harvested and stored at  $-70^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

### *Extraction and genomic amplification of viral DNA*

DNA was extracted from 100  $\mu\text{l}$  aliquots of virus samples or tissue sample homogenates using a silica/guanidium-based nucleic acid extraction method [3]. A diagnostic PCR was used to confirm the presence of ASF viral DNA using ASF-1 and ASF-2 primers and protocols prescribed for ASF diagnosis in Chapter 2.1.12 of the 2000 edition of the OIE Manual of Standards for Diagnostic Tests and Vaccines, whilst *p72* genotyping was achieved by PCR using P72-U and P72-D primers [1] which amplify a 478 bp C-terminal region of the *p72* gene. All PCRs were conducted in a final volume of 50  $\mu\text{l}$ , containing 1  $\times$  buffer (Roche), 2.5 U *Taq* polymerase (Roche), 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$  of each primer and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  dinucleotide triphosphates (dNTPs) (Roche). Amplification of the C-terminal region of *p72* was achieved following 40 cycles of denaturation at  $96^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 12 s, annealing at  $50^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 20 s and extension at  $70^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 90 s.

### *Genomic characterization and phylogenetic analysis*

Amplification products were electrophoresed on a 1.5% agarose gel against a 100 bp DNA marker (Promega) and visualized by UV irradiation and ethidium bromide staining. Amplicons of the correct size were excised from the agarose gel and purified using the NucleoSpin Extract 2 in 1 kit (Macherey-Nagel) according to the manufacturer's specifications. Nucleotide sequences were generated with an ABI Prism 310 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) using Big Dye v.3.0 cycle sequencing kit ready mix, and aligned using the DAPSA programme [12]. Thirty-five ASF viruses representative of each of the ten previously identified *p72* genotypes [1] were included for phylogenetic analysis purposes, bringing the total number of viruses used in this study to 102. A homologous region of 404 nucleotides was used for Minimum Evolution (ME), Maximum Parsimony (MP) and Maximum Likelihood (ML) methods of phylogenetic analysis. The HKY 85 nucleotide substitution model [13] with parameters recovered from the Akaike Information Criterion of Model Test [26] was used for ML analysis in PAUP [27]. For MP, equal weighting and successive weighting schemes

**Table 1.** Summary of the *African swine fever virus* isolates characterised in this study

Virus name	Country of origin	Town/District	Year of isolation	Species of origin	GenBank accession number
BAN 91/1	Malawi	Bangula, Lower Shire	1991	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351501
Bartlett II	Kenya	Timau	1959	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351532
BUR 90/3	Burundi	Muyinga	1990	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351525
CHG 88/1	Zambia	Chaguza, Katete, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351552
CHJ 89/1	Zambia	Chiphanje, Petauke, Eastern Province	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351519
CHK 89/2	Zambia	Chikuwe, Chipata, Eastern Province	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351526
CHM 88/1	Zambia	Chambula, Petauke, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351520
<sup>6</sup> DED 89/1	Malawi	Chiphazi, Dedza District	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351502
DED 91/1	Malawi	Mtenden Campus, Dedza	1991	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351503
Davis	Kenya	Nanyuki	1959	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351527
Doig	Kenya	Kiganjo	1957	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351528
<sup>6</sup> DOWA	Malawi	Moya, Dowa	1986	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351509
Gasson	Kenya	Nanyuki	<1961	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351529
GUL 88/1	Zambia	Gulumule, Katete, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351521
Hinde I	Kenya	Nanyuki	1954	Suid	AY351530
<sup>7</sup> KAB 6/2	Zambia	Livingstone game park, south Zambia	1983	Tick*	AY351522
KAC 91/2	Malawi	Kachendere Seminary, Chisengu, Mchinji	1991	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351504
KANA 89/1	Zambia	Kangwero farm 17, Katete, Eastern Province	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351523
Killean I	Kenya	Nanyuki	1959	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351550
Killean II	Kenya	Nanyuki	1959	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351551
Killean III	Kenya	Nanyuki	1959	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351531
Kimakia I	Kenya	UK	1961	<i>Potamochoerus porcus</i>	AY351533
Kimakia II	Kenya	UK	1961	<i>Potamochoerus porcus</i>	AY351534
KIRT 89/2	Tanzania	Kiriwira	1989	Tick*	AY351511
KIRT 89/3	Tanzania	Kiriwira	1989	Tick*	AY351512
KIRT 89/4	Tanzania	Kiriwira	1989	Tick*	AY351513
KIRW 89/1	Tanzania	Kiriwira	1989	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351514
KLI 88/2	Zambia	Kalinda, Petauke, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351553
<sup>6</sup> LIL 89/1	Malawi	Mlozi, Lilongwe District	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351505
LIL 90/1	Malawi	Kafere diptank, Lilongwe	1990	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351510
<sup>7</sup> LIV 5/40	Zambia	Livingstone Game Park, south Zambia	1982	Tick*	AY351536
<sup>7</sup> LIV 5/4	Zambia	Livingstone Game Park, south Zambia	1983	Tick*	AY351537
LIV 9/31	Zambia	Livingstone Game Park, south Zambia	1983	Tick*	AY351538

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Virus name	Country of origin	Town/District	Year of isolation	Species of origin	GenBank accession number
LIV 9/35	Zambia	Livingstone Game Park, south Zambia	1983	Tick*	AY351539
<sup>7</sup> LIV 10/11	Zambia	Livingstone Game Park, south Zambia	1983	Tick*	AY351535
<sup>7</sup> LIV 12/17	Zambia	Livingstone Game Park, south Zambia	1983	Tick*	AY351524
<sup>7</sup> LIV 13/33	Zambia	Livingstone Game Park, south Zambia	1983	Tick*	AY494560
LUS 93/1	Zambia	Nawande farm, Lusaka district, Lusaka Province	1991	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351563
Magadi w/hog 1	Kenya	Magadi	1959	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351548
Magadi w/hog 9	Kenya	Magadi	1959	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351565
<sup>1</sup> MAL 2002/1	Malawi	Mpemba Quarantine Camp	2002	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494553
MAN 89/2	Zambia	Mangulu, Katete, Eastern Province	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351562
<sup>6</sup> MCH 89/1	Malawi	Kachebere Seminary, Mchinji	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351506
<sup>6</sup> MCH 89/3	Malawi	Chisikwa diptank, Lilongwe District	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351507
<sup>6</sup> Mchinji 075	Malawi	Mchinji	1987	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351508
<sup>7</sup> MFUE 6/1	Zambia	Mfue, Luangera National Park	1982	Tick*	AY351561
<sup>5</sup> MOZ 2001/1	Mozambique	Zambezi, Quilemane	2001	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351516
<sup>5</sup> MOZ 2002/1	Mozambique	Northern Nampula region	2002	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351517
<sup>5</sup> MOZ 2002/2	Mozambique	Northern Nampula region	2002	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351518
MPI 89/1	Zambia	Mpima Seminary, Kabwe, Central Province	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351540
MPO 89/1	Zambia	Mpoka, Petauke, Eastern Province	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351541
MZI 92/1	Malawi	Euthini, Mzinda District, north Malawi	1992	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351543
NGE 92/1	Malawi	Ngerenge diptank, Karonga District	1992	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351544
NKZ 88/1	Zambia	Nyankonzi, Petauke, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351554
NYA1/2	Zambia	Kalumo	1986	Tick*	AY351555
PHW 88/1	Zambia	Phwata, Chipata, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351567
SAL 92/1	Malawi	Chiripa diptank, Salima District	1992	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351546
SIY 91/2	Malawi	Sinyala diptank, Lilongwe	1991	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351566
<sup>7</sup> SUM 14/11	Zambia	Sumbu National Park	1983	Tick*	AY351542
<sup>2</sup> TAN/1/01	Tanzania	Dar Es Salaam	2001	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494552
<sup>2</sup> TAN/2003/1	Tanzania	Arusha	2003	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494550
<sup>2</sup> TAN/2003/2	Tanzania	Arusha	2003	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494551
TEN 89/1	Zambia	Tenesi, Petauke, Eastern Province	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351556
THY 90/1	Malawi	Comforzi farm, Thyolo District	1990	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351545
TMB 89/1	Zambia	Tembo, Petauke, Eastern Province	1989	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351557
Trench	Kenya	Mweiga	1959	<i>Phaecochoerus aethiopicus</i>	AY351547
<sup>4</sup> UGA2003/1	Uganda	Maria Village, Masaka District	2003	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351564

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Virus name	Country of origin	Town/District	Year of isolation	Species of origin	GenBank accession number
YEL88/4	Zambia	Yelani, Petauke, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351558
<sup>3</sup> ZAM01/1	Zambia	Lusaka	2001	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494554
<sup>3</sup> ZAM01/2	Zambia	Kafue	2001	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494555
<sup>3</sup> ZAM01/3	Zambia	Mazabuka	2001	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494556
<sup>3</sup> ZAM01/4	Zambia	Namwala	2001	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494557
<sup>3</sup> ZAM01/5	Zambia	Monze	2001	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494558
<sup>3</sup> ZAM02/1	Zambia	Kyiundi Ranch	2002	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY494559
Zaire	DRC	NK	NK	NK	AY351515
ZAM 88/1	Zambia	Gulumule, Katete, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351559
ZON 88/1	Zambia	Zondola, Katete, Eastern Province	1988	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	AY351560

Virus supplied by: <sup>1</sup>Dr. Klauz Lorenz (Divisional Veterinary Officer, Blantyre Agricultural Development Division, Malawi); <sup>2</sup>Dr. J. I. G. Masambu, ADRI-TEMEKE, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania; <sup>3</sup>Chief Research Officer, Virology Laboratory, Central Veterinary Laboratories, Lusaka, Zambia; <sup>4</sup>Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), Department of Livestock, Health and Entomology, Uganda; <sup>5</sup>The National Veterinary Institute, Mozambique. Viruses previously characterised by RFLP analysis in the studies of Sumption et al. 1990 and Dixon & Wilkinson 1988, are denoted by the superscript numbers '6' and '7', respectively. NK: Not known, \*Indicates *Ornithodoros* ticks collected from warthog burrows, DRC: Democratic Republic of the Congo

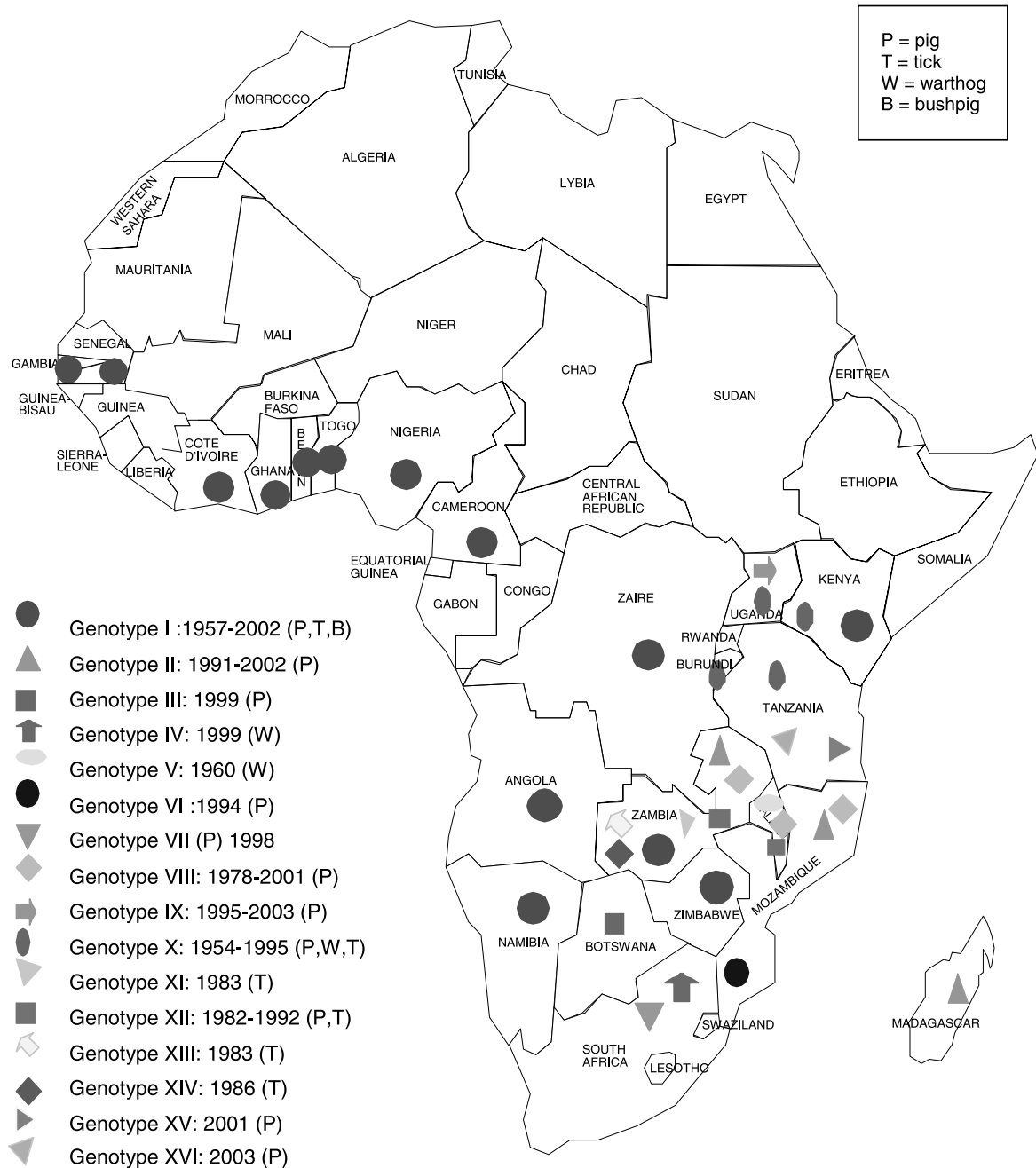
were investigated. A ME tree was inferred with MEGA v 2.1 [15], employing the Tamura-Nei nucleotide substitution model [29] with a gamma distribution shape parameter of 0.80. Genotypes were assigned following previously defined criteria [1].

## Results

Trees with comparable topology were obtained with all methods of phylogenetic inference. A total of sixteen *p72* genotypes were consistently recovered (Fig. 1), of which thirteen occur within the East African region (Fig. 2). Genotypes I–X correspond to those identified previously [1], whilst *p72* genotypes XI–XVI are reported here for the first time and are therefore regarded as novel (Table 2). Genotype I (also referred to as the ESACWA genotype), initially identified in pig isolates from Europe, South America, the Caribbean islands and West Africa [1], was found in this study to be present in East African sylvatic hosts such as bushpigs and ticks. Similarly, genotype V, X and XII viruses were recovered from both domestic pigs and from wild vertebrate and invertebrate hosts, indicating that the argasid tick vector moves readily between wild and domestic vertebrates within

**Fig. 1.** Minimum evolution tree depicting the 16 ASFV *p72* genotypes from this study (labeled I–XVI) and the three main evolutionary lineages (labeled A–C). Bootstrap values >50% are indicated next to the relevant node and were obtained following 10 000 replications. Bootstrap values in brackets are those obtained from NJ analysis





**Fig. 2.** Geographical distribution of the 16 major *African swine fever virus* genotypes identified by *p72* genotyping

the regions in which these genotypes occur (Fig. 2). These four genotypes I, V, X and XII were shown to be present in three, one, four and two East African countries, respectively (Fig. 2), with some of these genotypes having a field presence of more than four decades (Table 2). Genotypes XI, XIII and XIV appear to be associated



**Table 2.** Distribution, field presence and intra-genotypic variation of the major *African swine fever virus p72* genotypes using data of 141 virus sequences from this study and that from previous studies (Lopez-Otin et al. 1990; Yu et al. 1996; Odemuyiwa et al. 2000; Bastos et al. 2003; Bastos et al. 2004)

Genotype	Representative countries	Presence in the field	Species affected	No. of viruses	No. of countries	Mean intragenotypic nucleotide variation
I	Zambia, Kenya, Zaire, Cameroon, Ghana, Senegal, Nigeria, Gambia, Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Togo, Angola, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Portugal, Brazil, Spain, Sardinia, Malta, Holland, Belgium, Dominican Republic	1957–2002	Bushpig Domestic pig Tick (warthog)	57	22	0.2%
II	Mozambique, Zambia, Madagascar	1991–2002	Domestic pig	5	3	0.0%
III	Botswana	1999	Domestic pig	1	1	–
IV	Republic of South Africa	1999	Warthog	1	1	–
V	Malawi	1960	Domestic pig Warthog	4	2	0.4%
VI	Mozambique	1994	Domestic pig	3	1	0.0%
VII	Republic of South Africa	1998	Domestic pig	1	1	–
VIII	Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique	1978–2001	Domestic pig	39	3	0.1%
IX	Uganda	1995–2003	Domestic pig	2	1	0.0%
X	Uganda, Burundi, Tanzania, Kenya	1954–1995	Domestic pig Tick (warthog) Warthog	22	4	0.6%
XI	Zambia	1983	Tick (warthog)	1	1	–
XII	Malawi and Zambia	1982–1992	Domestic pig Tick (warthog)	2	2	0.7%
XIII	Zambia	1983	Tick (warthog)	1	1	–
XIV	Zambia	1986	Tick (warthog)	1	1	–
XV	Tanzania	2001	Domestic pig	1	1	–
XVI	Tanzania	2003	Domestic pig	2	1	0.0%

IC(3/96) <sup>1</sup>	1111222	2355667778	8899900133	4568900111	1233444455	6678990123	4455566788	8888999990	2679024457	9902031285	6713658025	4859817357	9814035681	4705146246	2517836234	56789935680	TGCTATAGAA	GTCCCAAGTGA	GGGTGCATCA	TTGTCGCCAG	ACCTGTCCGCT	TGGCCTCCAT	CGCGTCTTTA	TCGGCTCTTA
Lisbon/57 <sup>1</sup>	111111	1111122222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222	2222222222
LIV10/11/ZAM/T(W)																								
VICT90/1 <sup>1</sup>																								
LIV9/35/ZAM/T(W)																								
LIV5/40/ZAM/T(W)																								
LIV9/31/ZAM/T(W)																								
NAMI/80 <sup>1</sup>																								
ZAM021/P																								
AF159503 <sup>2</sup>																								
ZAM014/P																								
ZAM013/P																								
MAD1/98 <sup>1</sup>																								
BOT1/99 <sup>1</sup>																								
RSA1/99W <sup>1</sup>																								
MOZ94/1 <sup>1</sup>																								
MAL2002/1/P																								
Tengani/60 <sup>1</sup>																								
MOZ/1960 <sup>3</sup>																								
RSA1/98 <sup>1</sup>																								
NYA1/2/ZAM/T(W)																								
TAN/2003/2/P																								
TANI01/P																								
SUM14/11/ZAM/T(W)																								
MZ1921/MAL/P																								
MFUF6/1/ZAM/T(W)																								
KAB6/2/ZAM/T(W)																								
NDA1/90 <sup>1</sup>																								
SAL921/MAL/P																								
TMB89/1/ZAM/P																								
PHW88/1/ZAM/P																								
JON/89/13 <sup>1</sup>																								
CHG881/ZAM/P																								
KLI882/ZAM/P																								
SIY912/MAL/P																								
UGA1/95 <sup>1</sup>																								
MWHOG9/KEN/W																								
BARTLETT2/KEN/W																								
GASSON/KEN/P																								
DOIG/KEN/W																								
HindeII/59 <sup>1</sup>																								
Uganda <sup>4</sup>																								
KILLEAN/KEN/W																								
HINDEI/KEN																								
TRENCH/KEN/W																								
DAVIS/KEN/W																								
MWHOG1/KEN/W																								
UGA/3/95 <sup>1</sup>																								
KIRW89/1/TAN/W																								

**Fig. 3.** Nucleotide sequence alignment of the 49 unique sequences identified in this study and in previous studies. Only variable sites are presented with relevant variable site numbers being shown in bold above master sequence IC3/96. Dots indicate nucleotide sites identical to that of the master sequence, and superscript numbers 1 through 4 indicate those viruses included in the studies of Bastos et al. 2003, Odemuyiwa et al. 2000; Bastos et al. 2004 and Yu et al. 1996, respectively

exclusively with a sylvatic cycle as these viruses, which were collected in Zambia between 1983 and 1986, were all of tick (from warthog burrow) origin. Genotypes II, VI, VIII, IX, XV and XVI comprised exclusively domestic pig strains. Of these, II and VIII were confined to three countries each, and circulated for between 10 and 20 years in the field, genotype IX caused two temporally unrelated outbreaks in domestic pigs in 1995 and 2003, while the remaining genotypes were restricted to one country each and were associated with a single epizootic (and sometimes a single virus). The molecular phylogeny further revealed the presence of three distinct evolutionary groups (labeled A–C in Fig. 1). Viruses sharing a common evolutionary history fall within the following genotype clades:

- (A) Genotypes I–VII (80% bootstrap support)
- (B) Genotypes VIII and XI–XVI (66% bootstrap support)
- (C) Genotypes IX and X (100% bootstrap support)

The 404 nucleotide region sequenced was A-T rich (57.3%) with a transition:transversion (si/sv) ratio of 4.1. There were 71 variable sites (Fig. 3), of which 49 were parsimony informative and 22 were singletons. On amino acid level, 20 of the 134 codon sites were variable and 6 of these variable sites were parsimony informative. Levels of mean intra-genotypic variation ranged from 0% (genotypes II, VI, IX and XVI) to 0.7% (genotype XII), whilst mean inter-genotypic levels of variation ranged from 0.9% (between genotypes V and VI, and between genotypes XI and XII) to 8.0% (between genotypes V and X). The maximum level of sequence divergence between any two isolates was 9.8%.

## Discussion

The presence of six more East African genotypes than was previously identified [1] was revealed by the molecular phylogeny. Genotypes I, V, X, XI, XIII and XIV are examples of viruses that are present within a sylvatic cycle (occurring either within eyeless tamarins or sylvatic vertebrate hosts, or both), half of which have also caused outbreaks in domestic pigs. Genotype XII which comprised two viruses isolated 10 years apart from a tick and domestic pig may be an example of a pig-tick cycle but this requires confirmation by more intensive screening of sylvatic vertebrates within Malawi and Zambia. The pig-to-pig cycle is however classically exemplified by genotype VIII, which has been in active circulation for at least 23 years and is represented by 39 outbreak strains from three countries. A genetic feature of a domestic pig cycle appears to be a pronounced lack of genetic variation, as both genotype I in West Africa (where it has only been isolated from domestic pigs) and genotype VIII in East Africa have extremely low levels of intratypic variation (0.2% and 0.1%, respectively), with most isolates being identical to each other. This lack of genetic variation was also found following restriction enzyme profiling of some genotype VIII viruses from Malawi [28]. Although sample sizes of the remaining genotypes are inadequate to permit speculation on the

epidemiological cycles into which they may be classified, the results indicate that all three ASF epidemiological cycles appear to exist in East Africa. Wherever a sylvatic cycle is confirmed, higher levels of genetic variation are recovered [1, 7].

The East African region is the most genotype rich, with thirteen *p72* genotypes being identified. This far exceeds West Africa, which only contains one genotype in the ten countries previously screened [1]. Southern Africa is intermediate with at least eight genotypes (when Mozambique is excluded from the results) being identified thus far [5]. While many of the East African genotypes are apparently country specific (V, VI, IX, XI, XIII, XIV, XV and XVI), others (I, II, V, VIII, X and XII) are not restricted by national boundaries. In addition, most countries within the East African region have more than one genotype within their borders. Zambia is particularly genotype rich with seven genotypes being identified, followed by Mozambique with four, Malawi and Tanzania with three each, and Kenya and Uganda with two each.

The ASFV introduced to Europe through illicit movement of pig products [17] and which is widespread throughout West Africa [1] may have its origins in East Africa as this study revealed it to be present in the natural sylvatic hosts in Kenya (Kimakia I and Kimakia II viruses) as far back as 1961. As the classical ASFV transmission mode involving a sylvatic cycle could not be proven in West Africa [22], it is likely that the disease was originally introduced from the East of the continent before becoming established in a domestic pig cycle in West Africa. The more widespread distribution of the ESACWA genotype identified in this study makes this genotype the most successful and extensively distributed genotype (being present in 22 countries) described to date.

The low levels of intratypic genetic diversity within the large and homogeneous genotype VIII necessitates an investigation into a more variable gene region in order to clarify within genotype relationships. In addition, the possibility that genotype I, which was previously believed to be confined to West Africa, originated from East Africa should be confirmed through sequencing of an alternative and more informative gene region. By focusing on typing ASFV from domestic pigs in East and Central African countries, where genotype I is present in the sylvatic hosts, it may also be possible to trace the route of entry of this virus into West Africa.

Both the sylvatic and domestic pig cycles appear to play an important role in the epidemiology of ASF in East Africa. The existence of multiple genotypes within countries, trans-boundary distribution of genotypes between countries and regional genotype richness adds to the complexity of ASF epidemiology in East Africa. As genotyping in this study was based on partial characterization of the gene coding for the immunodominant protein VP72, future vaccination campaigns could utilize this information when formulating vaccine for specific countries, since immunizing pigs with antigens from viruses distantly related to those with which they are challenged offers less protection [4, 20]. These factors are important considerations that need to be taken into account for effective control of the disease in East Africa.

### Acknowledgements

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to Dr. Comfort Phiri for helpful information on some of the isolates and the late Mr. Simon Mokuwe (both of OVI-EDD), for invaluable technical assistance. Our gratitude also extends to collaborators in Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia for supplying samples and information, Dr. M.-L. Penrith for reviewing the manuscript and two anonymous reviewers for helpful comments. This project was partially funded by the Red Meat Research and Development Trust of South Africa.

### References

1. Bastos ADS, Penrith M-L, Crucière C, Edrich JL, Hutchings G, Roger F, Couacy-Hymann E, Thomson GR (2003) Genotyping field strains of African swine fever virus by partial *p72* gene characterization. *Arch Virol* 148: 693–706
2. Bastos ADS, Penrith M-L, Macome F, Pinto F, Thomson GR (2004) Co-circulation of two genetically distinct viruses in an outbreak of African swine fever in Mozambique: no evidence for individual co-infection. *Vet Microbiol* 103: 169–182
3. Boom R, Sol CJ, Salimans MMM, Jansen CL, Wertheim-Van Dillen PME, Van Der Noordaa J (1990) Rapid and simple method for purification of nucleic acids. *J Clin Microbiol* 28: 495–503
4. Boinas FS, Hutchings GH, Dixon LK, Wilkinson PJ (2004) Characterization of pathogenic and non-pathogenic African swine fever virus isolates from *Ornithodoros erraticus* inhabiting pig premises in Portugal. *J Gen Virol* 85: 2177–2187
5. Boshoff CI, Bastos ADS, Gerber L, Vosloo W (2004) Determination of the origin and spread of African swine fever outbreaks in southern Africa by genetic characterization of the virus (in prep)
6. Dixon LK, Costa JV, Escribano JM, Rock DL, Viñuela E, Wilkinson PJ (2000) Family Asfarviridae. In: Van Regenmortel MHV, Fauquet CM, Bishop DHL, Carestens EB, Estes MK, Lemon SM, Maniloff J, Mayo MA, McGeoch DJ, Pringle CR, Wickner RBFA, Murphy CM, Fauquet DHL, Bishop SA, Ghabrial AW, Jarvis GP, Martelli MD (eds) *Virus taxonomy: Seventh Report of the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses*. Summers Academic Press, San Diego, pp 159–165
7. Dixon L, Wilkinson PJ (1988) Genetic diversity of African swine fever virus isolates from soft ticks (*Ornithodoros moubata*) inhabiting warthog burrows in Zambia. *J Gen Virol* 69: 2981–2993
8. Donaldson AI, Ferris NP (1976) The survival of some airborne animal viruses in relation to relative humidity. *Vet Microbiol* 1: 413–420
9. Gonzague M, Roger F, Bastos A, Burger C, Randriamparany T, Smondack S, Cruciere C (2001) Isolation of a non-haemadsorbing, non-cytopathic strain of African swine fever virus in Madagascar. *Epidemiol Infect* 126(3): 453–459
10. Groocock CM, Hess WR, Gladney WJ (1980) Experimental transmission of African swine fever virus by *Ornithodoros coriaceus*, an argasid tick indigenous to the United States. *Am J Vet Res* 41(4): 591–594
11. Haresnape JM (1984) African swine fever in Malawi. *Trop Anim Health Prod* 16: 123–125
12. Harley EH (1994) DAPSA. DNA and protein sequence analysis, version 2.9. Department of Chemical Pathology, University of Cape Town, South Africa
13. Hasegawa M, Kishino H, Yano T (1985) Dating of the human-ape splitting by a molecular clock of mitochondrial DNA. *J Mol Evol* 22: 160–174
14. Hays SM (1996) African swine fever poses risk to U.S. hogs. *Agric Res* 44: 14–17
15. Kumar S, Tamura K, Jakobsen IB, Nei M (2001) MEGA 2. Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis software, version 2.0 Pennsylvania State University, USA

16. Lopez-Otin C, Freije JM, Parra F, Mendez E, Vinuela E (1990) Mapping and sequence of the gene coding for protein p72, the major capsid protein of African swine fever virus. *Virology* 175: 477–484
17. Malmquist WA, Hay D (1960) Haemadsorption and cytopathic effect produced by African swine fever virus in swine bone marrow and buffy coat cultures. *Am J Vet Res* 21: 104–108
18. Manso Ribeiro J, Rosa Azevedo JA, Texeira MJO, Braco Forte MC, Rodrigues Ribeiro AM, Oliveira E, Noronha F, Grave Perreira C, Dias Viagrio J (1958) An atypical strain of swine fever virus in Portugal / Peste porcine africaine provoquée par une souche different (Souche L) de la souche classique. *Bull Off Int Epiz* 50: 516–534
19. Montgomery RE (1921) On a form of swine fever occurring in British East Africa (Kenya Colony). *J Comp Pathol* 34: 159–191
20. Neilan JG, Zsak L, Lu Z, Burrage TG, Kutish GF, Rock DL (2004) Neutralizing antibodies to African swine fever virus proteins p30, p54, and p72 are not sufficient for antibody-mediated protection. *Virology* 319: 337–342
21. Odemuyiwa SO, Adebayo IA, Ammerlaan W, Ajuwape AT, Alaka OO, Oyedele OI, Soyelu KO, Olaleye DO, Otesile EB, Muller CP (2000) An outbreak of African swine fever in Nigeria: virus isolation and molecular characterization of the VP72 gene of a first isolate from West Africa. *Virus Genes* 20(2): 139–142
22. Penrith ML, Thomson GR, Bastos ADS (2005) African swine fever. In: Coetzer JAW, Tustin RC (eds) *Infectious diseases of Livestock*. Oxford University Press, Southern Africa, pp 1087–1119
23. Pini A, Hurter LR (1975) African Swine Fever: An epizootiological review with special reference to the South African situation. *J S Afr Vet Med Assoc* 46(3): 227–232
24. Plowright W, Parker J (1967) The stability of African swine fever virus with particular reference to heat and pH inactivation. *Arch Ges Virusforsch* 21(3): 383–402
25. Plowright W, Parker J, Pierce MA (1969) The epizootiology of African swine fever in Africa. *Vet Rec* 85: 668–674
26. Posada D, Crandall KA (1998) MODELTEST: testing the model of DNA substitution. *Bioinformatics* 14(9): 817–818
27. Swofford DL (1998) PAUP: phylogenetic analysis using parsimony (and other methods). Sinauer, Sunderland, Mass
28. Sumption KN, Hutchings GH, Wilkinson PL, Dixon LK (1990) Variable regions on the genome of Malawi isolates of African swine fever virus. *J Gen Virol* 71: 2331–2340
29. Tamura K, Nei M (1993) Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions in the control region of mitochondrial DNA in humans and chimpanzees. *Mol Biol Evol* 10(3): 512–526
30. Thomson GR (1985) The epidemiology of African swine fever: the role of free-living hosts in Africa. *Onderstepoort J Vet Res* 52: 201–209
31. Tulman ER, Rock DL (2001) Novel virulence and host range genes of African swine fever virus. *Curr Opin Microbiol* 4: 456–461
32. Yu M, Morrissey CJ, Westbury HA (1996) Strong sequence conservation of African swine fever virus p72 protein provides the molecular basis for its antigenic stability. *Arch Virol* 141: 1795–1802

Author's address: Dr. A. D. S. Bastos, Mammal Research Institute, Department of Zoology and Entomology, University of Pretoria, Pretoria 0002, South Africa; e-mail: ADBastos@zoology.up.ac.za