

**1 Structural variation turnovers and defective genomes: key drivers for the *in***  
**2 *vitro* evolution of the large double-stranded DNA koi herpesvirus (KHV)**

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20

**21 Abstract**

22 Structural variations (SVs) constitute a significant source of genetic variability in virus genomes.  
23 Yet knowledge about SV variability and contribution to the evolutionary process in large double-  
24 stranded (ds)DNA viruses is limited. Cyprinid herpesvirus 3 (CyHV-3), also commonly known as  
25 koi herpesvirus (KHV), has the largest dsDNA genome within herpesviruses. This virus has  
26 become one of the biggest threats to common carp and koi farming, resulting in high morbidity  
27 and mortalities of fishes, serious environmental damage, and severe economic losses. A  
28 previous study analyzing CyHV-3 virulence evolution during serial passages onto carp cell  
29 cultures suggested that CyHV-3 evolves, at least *in vitro*, through an assembly of haplotypes  
30 that alternatively become dominant or under-represented. The present study investigates the  
31 SV diversity and dynamics in CyHV-3 genome during 99 serial passages in cell culture using,  
32 for the first time, ultra-deep whole-genome and amplicon-based sequencing. The results  
33 indicate that KHV polymorphism mostly involves SVs. These SVs display a wide distribution  
34 along the genome and exhibit high turnover dynamics with a clear bias towards inversion and

35 deletion events. Analysis of the pathogenesis-associated ORF150 region in ten intermediate cell  
36 passages highlighted mainly deletion, inversion and insertion variations that deeply altered the  
37 structure of ORF150. Our findings indicate that SV turnovers and defective genomes represent  
38 key drivers in the viral population dynamics and *in vitro* evolution of KHV. Thus, the present  
39 study can contribute to the basic research needed to design safe live-attenuated vaccines,  
40 classically obtained by viral attenuation after serial passages in cell culture.

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### 43 **Keywords**

44 KHV, virus evolution, virulence, virus attenuation, structural variations, defective genome, carp  
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### 47 **Introduction**

48 Viruses have a remarkable ability to adapt to the complex and hostile host immune and  
49 physiological constraints. Such capability is directly associated with the viral population's genetic  
50 diversity, and deep characterization of this diversity is the cornerstone of our understanding of  
51 virus evolutive response to a new cellular environment. The starkly evident examples are RNA  
52 viruses. These viruses, such as HIV, hepatitis C, and influenza, display high mutation rates  
53 which generate significant polymorphism levels, allowing the viral population to quickly adapt to  
54 newly infected cellular environments and evolve vaccine and antiviral drug resistance (Lauring  
55 and Andino 2010; Loiseau et al., 2020). However, the genetic diversity has been thoroughly  
56 characterized in only a handful of viruses, mainly targeting SNPs (Single Nucleotide  
57 Polymorphisms) in RNA viruses (Sanjuán and Domingo-Calap 2016). Although the mutation  
58 rate of large double-stranded (ds) DNA viruses is up to four folds lower than that of RNA  
59 viruses, due to the use of high-fidelity proofreading polymerases, and most SNPs in dsDNA  
60 viruses are neutral and at low frequency, SNP-based approaches were chosen to analyze the  
61 genetic diversity in Human cytomegalovirus (HCMV in the species *Human betaherpesvirus 5*,  
62 HHV-5), Autographa californica multiple nucleopolyhedrovirus (AcMNPV) and Human  
63 herpesvirus 2 (HHV-2), for example (Renzette et al., 2015; Chateigner et al., 2015; Akhtar et al.,  
64 2019).  
65 Structural variations (SVs) play a key role in viral evolutionary processes. Genome  
66 rearrangements such as deletions, insertions, duplications and inversions can lead to defective  
67 viral genomes (DVGs) (O'Hara et al., 1984; Molenkamp et al., 2000; Vignuzzi and López 2019).

68 Preben von Magnus first identified DVGs in the late 40's as incomplete influenza viruses that  
69 can interfere with the wild-type virus replication (Vignuzzi and López 2019). Since then, the role  
70 of DVGs in antiviral immunity, viral persistence and their negative impact on virus replication  
71 and production has been established (Bull et al., 2003; Li et al., 2011; Vignuzzi and López 2019;  
72 Loiseau et al., 2020). Nowadays, DVGs have been described in most RNA viruses and to a  
73 lesser extent in dsDNA viruses (Vignuzzi and López 2019; Loiseau et al., 2020). Despite the  
74 critical role of SVs in virus infection dynamics, the knowledge about structural variation diversity,  
75 and their evolutionary impact in viral populations, especially those with large dsDNA, is limited.  
76 The large dsDNA Cyprinid herpesvirus 3 (CyHV-3), more commonly known as koi herpesvirus  
77 (KHV), is one of the most virulent viruses of fish. It is a lethally infectious agent that infects  
78 common carp and koi (*Cyprinus carpio*) at all stages of their life (Hedrick et al., 2000; Haenen et  
79 al., 2004). KHV infections are usually associated with high morbidities and mortalities (up to  
80 95%), resulting in serious environmental damages and severe economic losses (Sunarto et al.,  
81 2011; Rakus et al., 2013). This threatening virus had a rapid worldwide spread due to global fish  
82 trade and international ornamental koi exhibitions (Gotesman et al., 2013). Classified within the  
83 family *Alloherpesviridae*, genus *Cyprinivirus*, CyHV-3 is the subject of an increasing number of  
84 studies and has become the archetype of alloherpesviruses (Boutier et al., 2015). Despite this  
85 "status", only 19 isolates have been entirely sequenced so far (source: NCBI) since the release  
86 of the first complete genome sequences in 2007 (Aoki et al., 2007). Such a low number of full  
87 genomes impairs large-scale phylogenomic studies (Gao et al., 2018). On the other hand, KHV  
88 infections have been shown to be the result of haplotype mixtures, both *in vivo* and *in vitro*  
89 (Hammoumi et al, 2016; Klafack et al, 2019). If mixed-haplotype infections probably represent  
90 an additional source of diversification for KHV (Renner and Szpara, 2018), they make genomic  
91 comparisons more challenging.

92

93 KHV has the largest genome among all known herpesviruses, with a size of approximately 295  
94 kb and 156 predicted open reading frames (ORFs) (Aoki et al. 2007). Several studies focusing  
95 on the analysis of viral ORFs have shown the implication of some of them in KHV virulence  
96 (Boutier et al., 2015; Fuchs et al. 2014). KHV isolates are known to carry mutations in ORFs  
97 that are likely to alter gene functions, and these mutations may vary from virus to virus (Gao et  
98 al., 2018) and even within viruses (Hammoumi et al., 2016). Aoki et al (2007) hypothesized that  
99 virulent KHV would have arisen from a wild-type ancestor by loss of gene function. However,  
100 nearly 15 years later, this hypothesis has still not been tested, probably because of the lack of  
101 extensive genomic comparisons. SVs may play a key role in this gene function loss, as recently

102 shown by Klafack et al (2019). These authors conducted a comparative study of a cell culture-  
103 propagated isolate that suggested that CyHV-3 evolves through an assemblage of haplotypes  
104 whose composition changes within cell passages. This study revealed a deletion of 1,363 bp in  
105 the ORF150 of the majority of haplotypes after 78 passages (P78), which was not detected after  
106 99 passages. Furthermore, experimental infections showed that the virus passaged 78 times  
107 was much less virulent compared to the original wild-type on the one hand and slightly less  
108 virulent compared to the same virus passaged 99 times (P99), highlighting the potentially  
109 important role of the ORF150 in the virulence of KHV. Besides, this study demonstrated that  
110 haplotype assemblages evolve very rapidly along successive *in vitro* cell passages during  
111 infectious cycles, and raised many questions regarding the mechanisms leading to such rapid  
112 gene loss and gain *in vitro*.

Commenté [lc1]: Assemblies

113 The present study sought to characterize the SV diversity and dynamics in the KHV genome  
114 using viruses propagated onto cell cultures. First, P78 and P99 whole virus genomes were  
115 sequenced using ultra-deep long-read sequencing, a first with KHV. Then, the obviously  
116 pathogenesis-associated ORF150 region (~5 kb) was sequenced in ten intermediate successive  
117 cell passages through an Oxford nanopore® amplicon-based sequencing approach to gain  
118 insights into the gene loss and gain mechanisms.

119119

## 120 Material and methods

### 121 Extraction of high molecular weight DNA from P78 and P99 cell culture passages

122 The virus isolate used in this study was the same as that previously described in Klafack et al.  
123 (2019), *i.e.* an isolate collected from an infected koi in Taiwan (KHV-T) and passed 99 times  
124 onto common carp brain (CCB) cells. Considering previous results, a special focus was made  
125 on passages 78 (P78) and 99 (P99). Genomic DNA was extracted from cell cultures stored at -  
126 80°C, using the MagAttract HMW DNA Kit (Qiagen). Each frozen culture was thawed quickly in  
127 a 37°C water bath, equilibrated to room temperature (25°C) and divided into 12 cell culture  
128 aliquots of 250 µL. Tubes were centrifuged at 3,000× g for 1 minute and supernatants were  
129 transferred into new 2-mL tubes containing 200 µL of proteinase K and RNase A solution. DNA  
130 was subsequently extracted according to the manufacturer's recommendations and eluted in  
131 200 µL distilled water provided in the kit. The 12 replicates of each sample were pooled together  
132 and evaporated at room temperature using a vacuum concentrator, to reach a final volume of  
133 around 60 µL. Concentrated DNA was quantified by fluorometry (Qbit, ThermoFisher Scientific)

Commenté [lc2]: Qbit

134 and its quality was evaluated by spectrophotometry (Nanodrop 2100) and agarose gel  
135 electrophoresis. The final concentration of P78 and P99 was 14.4 and 2.6 ng· $\mu\text{L}^{-1}$ , respectively.  
136136

### 137 Quantitative PCR assays

138 Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was applied to evaluate cellular and viral DNA ratio. Two sets of  
139 primers were used: primers targeting the ORF150 of CyHV-3 (GenBank #AP008984.1, KHV-J,  
140 nt 259,965-260,110: 5'-GAGCGAGGAAGCTACACAAC-3' and 5'-  
141 GGTAAGGGTAAAGCAGACCATC-3') and primers targeting the glucokinase gene of *Cyprinus*  
142 *carpio* (GenBank #AF053332.2, nt 225-293: 5'-ACTGCGAGTGGAGACACAT-3' and 5'-  
143 TCAGGTGTGGAGGGGACAT-3'). Amplification reactions contained 1  $\mu\text{L}$  of 2X SYBR Green I  
144 Master mix (Roche), 200 nM of each primer, and 1  $\mu\text{L}$  of template DNA in a final volume of 10  
145  $\mu\text{L}$ . Amplifications were carried out in a LightCycler 480 (Roche) and cycling conditions  
146 consisted in an initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min followed by 45 cycles of amplification at  
147 95°C for 10 sec, annealing at 60°C for 20 sec and elongation at 72°C for 10 sec with a single  
148 fluorescence measurement. After amplification, a melting step was applied, which comprised a  
149 denaturation at 95°C for 5 sec, a renaturation at 65°C for 60 sec and a heating step from 65 to  
150 97°C with a ramp of 0.1°C per second and a continuous fluorescence acquisition. Specificity of  
151 amplification was verified by visual inspection of the melting profiles, and the ratio between  
152 cellular and viral DNA was estimated as  $2^{-\Delta\Delta\text{Cq}}$ , assuming that each primer pair has an  
153 amplification efficiency close to 2 and that each amplicon is present as a single copy per  
154 genome.

155155

### 156 Genomic library preparation and MinION sequencing

157 High-quality genomic DNA from the two samples (P78 and P99) was sequenced using Oxford  
158 Nanopore technology®. DNA libraries were prepared using the Ligation Sequencing Kit (SQK-  
159 LSK109) according to the manufacturer's instructions (Oxford Nanopore®). A total input amount  
160 of 48  $\mu\text{L}$  (corresponding to 692 ng of P78 and 124 ng of P99 high molecular weight DNA) was  
161 used for sequencing library preparation. DNA was first end-repaired using NEBNext FFPE DNA  
162 Repair Mix and NEBNext Ultra II End repair, and then cleaned up with Agencourt AMPure XP  
163 beads (Beckman Coulter Inc) at a 1:1 bead to DNA ratio. Sixty-one  $\mu\text{L}$  of clean-up elution were  
164 transferred into a new 1.5-mL tube for subsequent adapter ligation. Adapter ligation was  
165 achieved using NEBNext Quick T4 DNA ligase adapter mix (AMX), ligation buffer (LNB), Long  
166 Fragment Buffer (LFB) and Elution Buffer (EB), following the provider's recommendations. The  
167 quantity of the retained DNA fragments was measured again by Qbit fluorometry. The final

Commenté [l3]: Maybe replace or precise « MinION »  
by « Whole Genome Sequencing MinION »

Commenté [l4]: Qubit

168 amount of P78 and P99 DNA was 346 ng and 94 ng, respectively. Each library was directly  
169 sequenced on R9.4.1 flow cells using a MinION sequencing device. Sequencing runs were  
170 controlled with MinKNOW version 0.49.3.7 and operated for about 30 hours.

Commenté [lc5]: Question: Did you well used one flow cell per sample ?

171171

## 172 Amplicon-based Minlon sequencing

Commenté [lc6]: VH: For me, it is not exactly an amplicon but more a « target region », what do you think ?

173 To specifically investigate ORF150 region, a fragment of ~4.3 kb encompassing the whole  
174 ORF150 of CyHV-3 (257,103-261,345 according to GenBank #AP008984) was sequenced  
175 from various intermediate passages of KHV-T (P10, P20, P30, P40, P50, P70, P78, P80, P90  
176 and P99). A ligase-free protocol was used to limit the risk of potential artifacts linked with  
177 sample preparation, e.g. the creation of chimeric sequences during the end-repair or ligation  
178 steps (White et al., 2017). Moreover, the inversion found in the middle of the reads excluded the  
179 formation of *in silico* chimeras, i.e., chimeras resulting from the basecaller when two molecules  
180 are sequenced in the same pore that undergoes fast reloading (Martin and Legget, 2021).

Commenté [lc7]: Did you really performed the sequencing for these ten passages, because you precised line 194 using « Four barcodes » and two flow cells (So 8 samples and not ten) ?

181 Genomic DNA was extracted from cell cultures stored at -80°C, using the Nucleospin virus kit  
182 (Macherey-Nagel). Purified DNA was subsequently used for PCR amplification with the  
183 following primers: 5'-TGGGCGCAATCAAGATGT-3' (F) and 5'-TGAAGTGTGAGGGTCAGAGT-  
184 3' (R). PCR was performed with GoTaq G2 DNA Polymerase (Promega) in a final volume of 40  
185 µL containing 1 µL of total genomic DNA, 10 µL of Taq Buffer, 5 µL of dNTPs 2 mM, 2.5 µL of  
186 MgCl<sub>2</sub> and 1.25 µL of each primer (10 µM). Cycling conditions were as follows: initial  
187 denaturation at 95°C for 10 min, amplification with 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 sec, 60°C for 20  
188 sec, 72°C for 3 min, and final extension at 72°C for 5 min. PCR products were purified using 1X  
189 Agencourt AMPure XP beads, tested for purity using the NanoDrop™ One spectrophotometer  
190 (ThermoFisher Scientific), and quantified fluorometrically using the Qubit dsDNA High sensitivity  
191 kit. DNA libraries were prepared using the Rapid Barcoding kit (SQK-RBK004), following the  
192 manufacturer's instructions. For each sample, 400 ng of purified amplicon were adjusted with  
193 nuclease-free water to a total volume of 7.5 µL and supplemented with 2.5 µL of Fragmentation  
194 Mix RB01-4 (one for each sample). Four barcoded samples were combined with an equimolar  
195 ratio by mixing 2.5 µL of each sample in a total volume of 10 µL. Pooled libraries were  
196 sequenced on 2 R9.4.1 flow cells for 24 hours and sequencing runs were controlled with  
197 MinKNOW version 0.49.3.7.

Commenté [lc8]: VH: For me, this sentence is not a Method, and should be find in the result or in the Discussion part..

## 198 DNA sequence analysis

199 For each sample, bases from raw FAST5 files with a pass sequencing tag were recalled using

200 the high-accuracy model of ONT Guppy basecalling software version 4.0.15 which improves the  
201 basecalling accuracy. The obtained fastq files were filtered to keep reads with a length  $\geq 2$  kb.  
202 Sequencing depth was calculated for each sample using the *plotCoverage* tool implemented in  
203 deepTools2.0 tool suite (Ramírez et al., 2016). Sequencing coverage was assessed with the  
204 bamCoverage tool from the same tool suite and normalized using the RPGC (reads per genome  
205 coverage) method (Figure 1).

206206

### 207 Structural variant detection

208 To detect structural variants (SVs) in the P78 and P99 whole genomes, a mapping step followed  
209 by BAM filtering was performed. Two aligners were used to map the raw long-reads against the  
210 KHV-J AP008984.1 reference genome: minimap2 (Li, 2018) and NGMLR (Sedlazeck et al.,  
211 2018). BAM files were then filtered using the option '-F' of Samtools view (Li et al., 2018) with  
212 the flag "4" to keep only mapped reads and with the flag "0x800" to remove chimeric reads  
213 (inconsistent/supplemental mapping). For P78 and P99, 99.33% and 97.77% of reads were  
214 mapped, respectively, before the filtering steps. Chimeric reads represented 28.05% and  
215 17.74% of the mapped reads in P78 and P99, respectively. The resulting filtered BAM files from  
216 each mapper were used as input data for SV caller, Sniffles (Sedlazeck et al., 2018). Only SVs  
217  $\geq 30$  bp and supported by at least 10 reads were kept in the final VCF files. A cross-validation  
218 step was performed using SURVIVOR (Jeffares et al., 2017) by extracting common SVs from  
219 each mapper/caller combination for each sample. Although the KHV-J reference genome used  
220 for the mapping is phylogenetically close to the KHV-T isolate, some genetic diversity exists  
221 (Klafack et al. 2017). Hence, to exclude inter-isolate SVs, a pairwise comparison between P78  
222 and P99 was made.

223 The distribution of the different SVs along with P78 and P99 genomes was assessed by  
224 estimating their occurrences using a 5 kb sliding window. SNPs and Indels variants were called  
225 in P78 and P99 by *medaka\_variant* implemented in medaka (1.4.4) using KHV-J AP008984.1  
226 as a reference genome. To detect structural variants in the amplified region (257,103-261,345)  
227 of P10 to P99 samples, a size filtering step using *guppyplex* was added to the steps described  
228 above. Only reads from 1.5 kb to 8 kb were used for the analysis.

229229

### 230 Results

#### 231 Main features of sequencing data for P78 and P99

232 A total of 4,900,000 and 2,293,830 long-reads were obtained for P78 and P99, respectively.

Commenté [lc9]: VH: This step is not really clear. The basecalling with Guppy could have been done with High-accuracy parameters during the sequencing process.

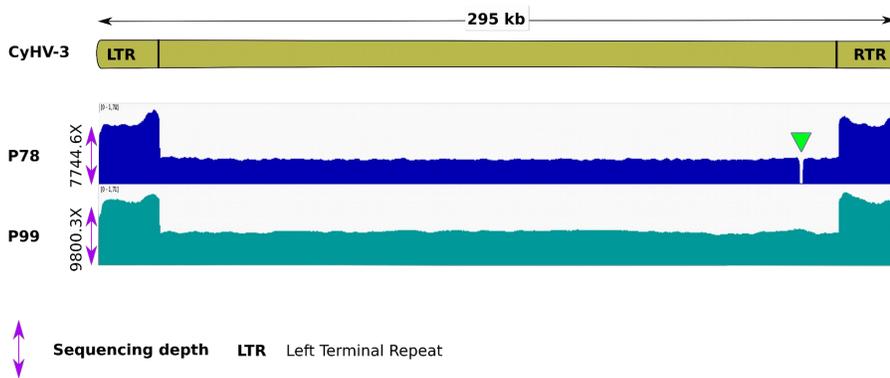
Commenté [lc10]: VH: Could you precise why you selected this length please ?

Commenté [lc11]: VH: Did you performed a mapping process to evaluate the sequencing depth, if so, maybe precise the mapper at this moment? (As Line 210 « minimap2... »)

Commenté [lc12]: VH: Did these steps concern the length filtering ?

233 After filtering, 462,982 long-reads with an average length of 4.96 kb were retained for P78, and  
 234 418,034 reads with an average length of 7.06 kb for P99 (Table 1, Table S1). The ratio between  
 235 cellular and viral DNA was 34800 and 33200 for P78 and P99, and the percent of mapped reads  
 236 99.33% and 97.77%, respectively. 100% of the sampled bases from the P78 genome had at  
 237 least 5,000 overlapping reads and 100% of the sampled bases from the P99 genome had at  
 238 least 7,500 overlapping reads (Figure S2). Both P78 and P99 genomes were entirely covered  
 239 by the sequencing data (Figure 1).

240240  
 241241



242 Deleted region RTR Right Terminal Repeat  
 243243

244 **Figure 1.** Normalized sequencing coverage for P78 and P99 samples using the RPGC (reads  
 245 per genome coverage) method. Both P78 and P99 genomes were totally covered by the  
 246 sequencing. For P78, the coverage break (green triangle) corresponds to the 1.3 kb deletion.

247247  
 248248

249 **Table 1** Main features of reads obtained for each genome after the read length filtering step.  
 250 min\_len= minimum length, avg\_len= average length, max\_len= maximum length.

Sample	reads	min_len	avg_len	max_len	N50	Q20(%)	Q30(%)
P78	462982	2000	4960.8	91494	6091	59.53	17.71
P99	418034	2000	7061.4	176512	8845	58.27	19.22

251 N50= the length for which all sequenced reads of that length or greater sum to 50% of the set's  
 252 total size Q20=1 in 100 probability of an incorrect base call, Q30= 1 in 1000 probability of an  
 253 incorrect base call. Here 59.53% of P78 bases=Q20 and 58.27% of P99 bases=Q20.

254254  
 255255

Commenté [Ic13]: The ratio is based on PCR results ? If so maybe the sentence need to be move to the end of the paragraph ?

Commenté [Ic14]: VH: Perhaps, it could be interesting to add the position of the ORF150 on the CyHV-3 genome schema ..

Commenté [Ic15]: VH: These Q score values are surprising, they seems to correspond to Illumina data. For the MinION we use usually Q7 or Q9 ..

## 256 SV distribution in P78 and P99

257 For P78, the mapper/caller combination minimap2/Sniffles detected 731 structural variations  
258 (SVs), and the combination NGMLR/Sniffles detected 460 SVs (Table S2). For P99, the  
259 combination minimap2/Sniffles detected 210 SVs and NGMLR/Sniffles detected 397 SVs (Table  
260 S2). Independently from the mapper/caller combination that was used, P78 showed more SVs  
261 than P99 (Table S2). After the cross-validation step (extracting common SVs from each mapper/  
262 caller combination), 236 and 87 SVs were kept for P78 and P99, respectively. For comparison,  
263 the number of short SVs (with a size < 30 nt) amounted to 57 and 77 for P78 and P99,  
264 respectively.

265 In both samples, inversions and deletions were the most prevalent SVs. In P78, inversions  
266 represented 75% of the events and deletions 20% (Figure 2.A). In P99, 80% of the SVs were  
267 inversions and 11% were deletions (Figure 2.A). Inversions were found along the entire  
268 genome, with the highest number detected within the [70-75 kb] window in P78 and within the  
269 [235-245 kb] and [270-275 kb] windows in P99 (Figure 2.B). In P78, deletions were mainly  
270 detected within [10-40 kb], [70-100 kb] and [245-270 kb] windows (Figure 2.B). In P99, the two  
271 major deletions were found within [10-20 kb] and [205-215 kb] regions (Figure 2.B). The  
272 frequencies of these SVs were low and did not exceed 1% of the total reads (with a few  
273 exceptions, Table S2). In spite of such low frequencies, it is interesting to note that the most  
274 frequent SVs were located in ORFs potentially involved in DNA replication and encapsidation,  
275 e.g. ORF33, 46, 47, 55 (Aoki et al, 2007; Table S2).

276 Altogether, these results highlight high SV turnover dynamics during the *in vitro* infection cycles  
277 (from 78 passages to 99) with a clear bias towards inversion and deletion events.

## 278 Dynamics and impacts of SVs in ORF150 region

279 Taking advantage of the high-resolution SV detection provided by the long-read sequencing, we  
280 looked for the SV events around the potential virulence-linked ORF150 in P78 and P99 (nt  
281 257,103-261,345 according to AP008984.1). Results confirmed that P99 had a reference-like  
282 profile with an unmodified ORF150. In P78, the deletion (nt 258,154-259,517; D258153) was  
283 found in 6,902 reads (100% of the reads), whereas the reference haplotype was also detected  
284 in 30 reads, representing 0.44% of the total 6,734 supporting reads (Figure 3, Tables S3).  
285 Surprisingly, 26 reads revealed a haplotype as yet unidentified (INV258153), consisting of an  
286 inversion of the same length (1,363 bp) and at the same breakpoints as the deletion. The  
287 inverted haplotype (INV258153) in P78 deeply altered the ORF150, by inverting the first 1200  
288 bp of the ORF and 160 bp of the 5'UTR in the middle of the ORF (Figure 3).

289 In order to trace the unexpected dynamics of gain and loss of the full ORF150 along passages,

Commenté [l16]: VH: on Line217 you indicated that you kept only > or = 30. Could you precise this information on line 263 ?

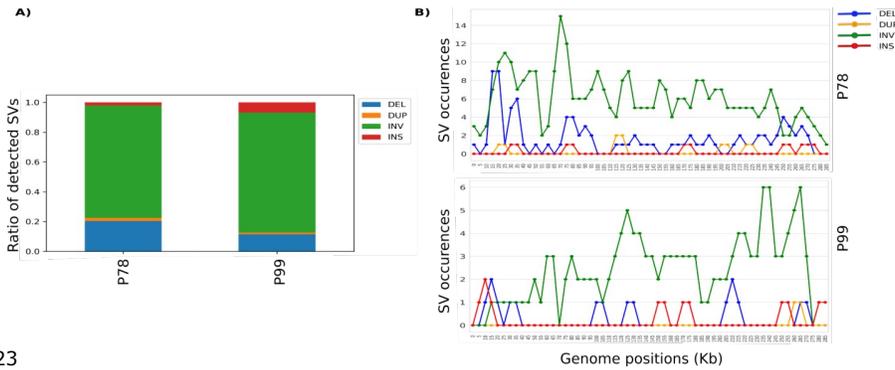
Commenté [l17]: VH: I do not correctly understand this sentence ? Why a bias ? Could you develop a little ?

290 we searched for the SV turnovers during 10 intermediate passages (P10, P20, P30, P40, P50,  
291 P70, P78, P80, P90, P99). This analysis revealed the presence of haplotype D258153 at low  
292 frequency (from 0.05 to 0.15% of the reads) in passages P10 to P40 and a strong increase in its  
293 frequency at P50 (88.7% of the reads) (Figure 4). The frequency of the haplotype D258153  
294 reached a maximum at P78 (100% of the reads) then dropped quickly at P80 (30.7% of the  
295 reads) to stabilize at low frequency (0.31% of readings) at P90., as during the first 40 passages  
296 (Figure 4, Table S3). Interestingly, shorter deletions of 119 and 881 bp were observed near the  
297 5' end of the ORF150 in P40 and P80, respectively, at low frequencies (0.42 % in P40 and  
298 0.18% in P80) (Figure 4, Table S3). The haplotype D258153 completely disappeared at  
299 passage 99 (Figure 4, Table S3).

300 This analysis also evidenced several other SVs that alter the structure of ORF150 and of its  
301 upstream region, including the beginning of ORF149 (Figure 5). Besides the large deletion,  
302 inversions and insertions were also observed in the ORF149-ORF150 region. Inversions were  
303 at a low frequency (between 0.01% and 0.53% of the supporting reads) in all passages except  
304 for P70, P90 and P99. P10 and P40 showed the lowest and the highest inversion frequencies,  
305 respectively (Figure 5, Table S3). A large insertion of about 1 kb appeared in P50 and P70 at  
306 moderate frequencies (14,34% and 16.01% of the supporting reads, respectively) to disappear  
307 in P78 and re-appear at a lower frequency (6,79% of the supporting reads) in P80. The  
308 consensus sequence of this insertion corresponds to the fragment 259,517-260,477 of the KHV  
309 genome, with an identity of about 90%. In P90, an intriguing inverted-duplicated haplotype was  
310 observed at a low proportion (0.054% of the supporting reads). Surprisingly, P99 exhibited a  
311 unique reference-like, SV-free haplotype (Figure 5, Table S3). All the variations deeply impacted  
312 the structure of ORF150 - and sometimes that of ORF149 as well - by shrinking or increasing its  
313 size, causing the ORF149 and ORF150 fusion, inverting the ORF150 sequences and  
314 duplicating the ORF150 with the deleted, inserted, inverted and inverted-duplicated haplotypes  
315 (Figure 5).

316316  
317317  
318318  
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320320  
321321  
322322

Commenté [lc18]: VH: You precise in Material investigated only the ORF150 (Line173) so how did you obtained the ORF149 ? Not clear enough ..



323323

324 **Figure 2.** The ratio and distribution of SVs detected in P78 and P99 genomes. **A)** The  
 325 frequency of each type of SV detected in P78 and P99. **B)** The occurrences and distribution of  
 326 each SV type in the P78 and P99 genomes using a 5kb window.

327327

328328

329329

Positions (Kb)

255 K 256 K 257 K 258 K 259 K 260 K 261 K

Reference haplotype



P78 deleted haplotype (D258153)



330 P78 inverted haplotype (INV258153)



331 **Figure 3.** Impact of structural variations D258153 and INV258153 on the P78 genomic  
 332 structure. The inversion is highlighted by an inverted arrow compared to the reference  
 333 haplotype.

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336336

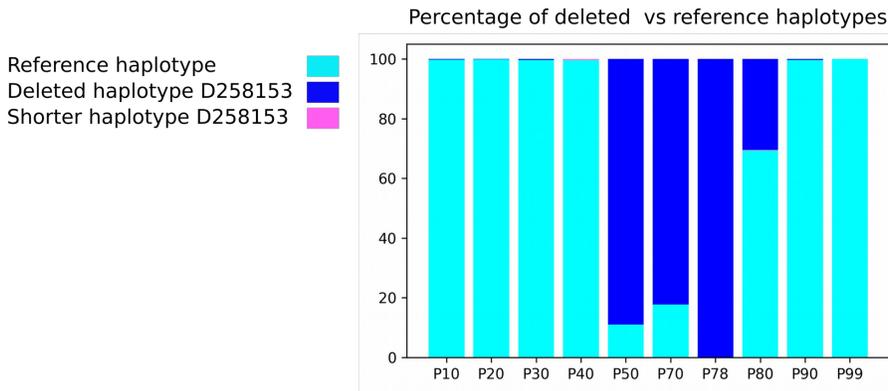
337337

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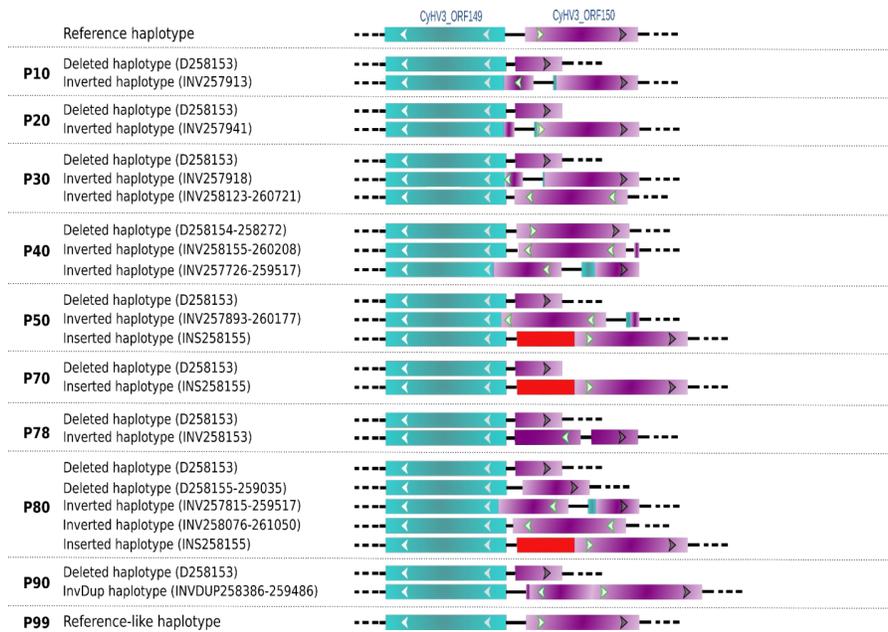
339339

**Commenté [lc19]:** VH: it is not the same scale for P78 and P99 and it could be interesting to see the region of ORF150 at the top of the graph B.

**Commenté [lc20]:** VH: The scale indicate the length of ORF150 only so it is not really clear with the presence of ORF149. Maybe you could replace the scale or replace the scale with ORF150



341 **Figure 4.** The prevalence of the deleted haplotype during the 10 intermediate passages (P10,  
 342 P20, P30, P40, P50, P70, P78, P80, P90, P99)  
 343



344 **Figure 5.** Impact of SV dynamics on the ORF149-ORF150 structure in the successive passages  
 345 P10, P20, P30, P40, P50, P70, P78, P80, P90 and P99. The inversion is highlighted by an  
 346 inverted arrow compared to the reference haplotype. Red blocks correspond to an inserted  
 347

348 sequence.

349 InvDup = Inverted-duplicated haplotype.

350350

### 351 Discussion

352 SVs significantly impact the adaptation of viruses to their natural host and environment (Pérez-  
353 Losada et al., 2015). Yet the role of SV diversity and dynamics in large DNA viruses is barely  
354 known. Ultra-deep long-read sequencing opens unprecedented ways to gain insights into these  
355 untapped viral genome polymorphisms. The present study started to tackle the impact of SVs in  
356 the evolution of the large dsDNA KHV during cell culture serial passages using ultra-deep  
357 whole-genome and amplicon-based sequencing. The sequence data showed a wide distribution  
358 of various SVs along the genome associated with high SV turnover dynamics during the *in vitro*  
359 infection cycles and a clear bias towards inversion and deletion events. Analysis of the  
360 pathogenicity-associated ORF150 region in ten serial passages mainly highlighted deletions,  
361 inversions and insertions that deeply altered the structure of ORF150.

362 Serial passages of viruses in cell culture may lead to the accumulation of mutations and gene  
363 disruptions (Spatz 2010; Colgrove et al., 2014). These mutations can modify viral adaptation  
364 and increase or decrease virulence (Boutier et al., 2017; López-Muñoz et al., 2021; Vancsok et  
365 al., 2017). In the case of KHV, a previous work using short-read sequencing showed that 99  
366 consecutive *in vitro* passages onto CCB cells resulted in the accumulation of less than 60 small  
367 variations (<100 nt) (Klafack et al., 2019). It also showed that the haplotype composition can  
368 quickly vary along with infection cycles of KHV *in vitro*. The present study unexpectedly  
369 highlighted a high number of structural variations: 87 for P99 and 236 for P78. In contrast, the  
370 accumulation of small variations was consistent with what had been observed with short-read  
371 sequencing (Klafack et al, 2019). These findings illustrate that long-read sequencing is highly  
372 suitable for genome-wide comparisons of viruses. Most importantly, they revealed a hidden  
373 source of virus diversification, which had never been reported so far for KHV. They also  
374 confirmed that P78 consists of a mixture of undeleted and deleted haplotypes revealing that the  
375 undeleted haplotype did not correspond to the native one but to an inverted version of it. We  
376 experimentally validated this inversion in P78 by PCR followed by sequencing. These structural  
377 variations form a 'mosaic' of viral subpopulations that seem to result from multiple  
378 rearrangement events, mainly inversions and deletions and, to a lesser extent, insertions and  
379 duplications. Such sub-viral variants often lead to Defective Viral Genomes (DVGs) (Vignuzzi  
380 and López 2019). Because of their negative impact on viral replication, some forms of DVGs  
381 have been extensively studied, and three pathogenesis-related functions have been well-

382 described: interference with viral replication, immunostimulation, and viral persistence (Marriott  
383 and Dimmock 2010; Vignuzzi and López 2019). DVGs play a role in viral production interference  
384 by accumulating at higher rates than the full-length viral genomes and consequently interfere  
385 with viral replication by taking up the polymerase activity and competing for structural proteins  
386 (Calain and Roux 1995; Portner and Kingsbury 1971). In addition, DVGs can act as primary  
387 stimuli and trigger antiviral immunity by inducing the expression of some interleukins and pro-  
388 inflammatory cytokines (for review, see Vignuzzi and López 2019; Xiao et al, 2021). However,  
389 the implication of DVGs for virus persistence is complex and still unclear. Nevertheless, a  
390 combination of viral replication interfering and cycle asynchrony between full-length viruses and  
391 DVGs seems to establish chronic infection (for review, see Vignuzzi and López 2019).  
392 The observed dynamics of structural variations in the KHV genomes during cell culture  
393 passages where selection pressures are virtually non-existent may indicate an accumulation of  
394 DVGs impacting the pathogenicity. Indeed, Klafack et al. (2019) showed that serial passages  
395 significantly attenuated this infectious virus. This attenuation was associated with a truncated  
396 KHV genome bearing a 1.3-kb deletion that removes the majority of the ORF150. A very recent  
397 study showed that partial or complete depletion of ORF150 leads to a clear attenuation of the  
398 virus. It also brought *in vivo* evidence that ORF150 may down-regulate the inflammatory  
399 response of carp to enhance viral proliferation, thus confirming a key role of ORF150 product in  
400 KHV virulence (Klafack et al., 2022 submitted). ORF150 seems to belong to the RING family  
401 genes. In aquatic viruses, RING family genes have been reported to be involved in virus  
402 latency, replication, and host protein degradation (Shekar and Venugopal 2019; Wang et al.,  
403 2021).  
404 As previously observed, the most significant difference affecting all viral haplotypes between  
405 P78 and P99 was around the ORF150. For this reason, we focused on this interesting region to  
406 determine the passage number at which the presence of the deletion inversion first arose, by  
407 sequencing selected representative passages (P10, P20, P30, P40, P50, P70, P80 and P90).  
408 We found that deleted and inverted haplotypes appeared as soon as P10 and that their  
409 proportion varied along the successive passages. The most striking feature was the rapid and  
410 total disappearance of the deletion between P8 and P99, raising many questions regarding the  
411 mechanisms that led to the clearance of this major haplotype.  
412 The rapid SV turnover of DNA viruses, including herpesviruses, likely involves recombination  
413 (Szpara and VanDoorslaer, 2021; Renner and Szpara, 2018; Cudini et al., 2019; Wilkinson and  
414 Weller, 2003; Kolb et al., 2017; Tomer et al., 2019), which is often linked to replication and DNA  
415 repair, as well as errors during viral genome replication (Kulkarni and Fortunato 2011; Xiaofei

Commenté [lc21]: P78

416 and Kowalik 2014). In the present case, the pretty good conservation of breakpoints around  
417 ORF150 may be a sign of homologous recombination. However, whether this recombination  
418 occurs within the same genomic entities or between different viruses remains open. It would be  
419 interesting to assess the involvement of each of these mechanisms in generating the observed  
420 structural diversity. The multiple mechanisms of DNA virus evolution beyond single nucleotide  
421 substitutions likely confer KHV a high level of evolutionary adaptability.

422 Classically, the generation of live-attenuated vaccines is achieved by passaging the virus in cell  
423 culture under different conditions (in different host species or at lower or higher temperatures),  
424 in order to induce mutation accumulation that supports viral adaptation to the specific conditions  
425 and provides viral attenuation (Minor, 2015, Hanley 2011). With the exception of the OPV polio  
426 vaccine viruses (Kew et al., 2005), the exact mechanisms by which these mutations lead to  
427 attenuated phenotypes are usually poorly characterized (Lauring et al., 2010). However, live-  
428 attenuated viruses can revert to virulent phenotypes either by reversions (as shown here  
429 between P78 and P99), introduction of compensatory mutations, or recombination with viruses  
430 belonging to the same genus (Cann et al., 1984; Bull et al., 2018; Muslin et al., 2019).

431 Additionally, the combination of multiple live-attenuated viruses may result in competition or  
432 facilitation between individual vaccine viruses, resulting in undesirable increases in virulence or  
433 decreases in immunogenicity (Hanley 2011; Pereira-Gomez et al., 2021). Recently, genetic  
434 engineering has led to many novel approaches to generate live-attenuated virus vaccines that  
435 contain modifications to prevent reversion to virulence (Yeh et al., 2020) and improve  
436 interferences among multiple vaccine strains (Pereira-Gomez et al., 2021).

#### 437 **Conclusion**

438 Our findings confirm that CyHV-3 can evolve rapidly during infectious cycles in cell culture, and  
439 SVs are a major component in the evolutionary process of this virus. SVs are extremely  
440 dynamic under *in vitro* controlled conditions, and it would now be interesting to evaluate their  
441 dynamics *in vivo*. The present study also contributes to the basic research on the mechanisms  
442 underlying attenuation, and may have important outcomes for the design of safe live-attenuated  
443 vaccine formulations.

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#### 457 Conflict of interest disclosure

458 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest relating to the content of this article.

#### 459 Authors' contributions

460 **Nurul Novelia Fuandila:** Investigation; Methodology; Formal analysis; Writing – original draft;  
461 Data Validation

462 **Anne-Sophie Gosselin-Grenet:** Investigation; Methodology; Data curation; Data Validation;  
463 Writing – original draft

464 464

465 **Marie-Ka Tilak:** Investigation; Methodology ; Data Validation

466 466

467 **Sven M Bergmann:** Resources; Writing – review and editing

468 468

469 **Sandro Klafack:** Resources; Writing – review and editing

470 470

471 **Angela Lusiasmuti:** Methodology; Writing – review and editing

472 472

473 **Munti Yuhanna:** Methodology; Writing – review and editing

474 **Jean-Michel Escoubas:** Methodology; Funding acquisition; Writing – review and editing

475 **Anna-Sophie Fiston-Lavier:** Writing – review and editing

476 **Jean-Christophe Avarre:** Conceptualization; Data curation; Methodology; Funding acquisition;  
477 Data Validation; Writing – original draft

478 **Emira Cherif:** Conceptualization; Data curation; Formal analysis; Software; Writing – original  
479 draft;

480 480

#### 481 **Data availability**

482 Raw sequences (fastq files) were stored in the public Sequence Read Archive (SRA) repository  
483 and can be accessed under the bioproject PRJNA511566.

484 The original genetic data yielded by genotyping (in vcf format) and additional metadata are  
485 available in a publicly-available OSF repository:

486 [https://osf.io/3c2ag/?view\\_only=c9cc68a2cc3943138373eda1ed05ed25](https://osf.io/3c2ag/?view_only=c9cc68a2cc3943138373eda1ed05ed25)

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