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¹**Evaluation of un-methylated DNA enrichment in sequencing of**

²**African Swine Fever Virus complete genome.**

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12 **Abstract**

13 African swine fever is a febrile hemorrhagic fever disease that is caused by the African swine fever 14 virus (ASFV) and is lethal for domestic pigs and wild boar. ASFV also infects soft ticks of the genus 15 *Ornithodoros,* some species of which can act as a vector for ASFV. Whole genome sequencing of 16 ASFV is a challenge because, due to the size difference of the host genome versus the viral genome, 17 the higher proportion of host versus virus DNA fragments renders the virus sequencing poorly 18 efficient. A novel approach of DNA enrichment, based on the separation of methylated and un-19 methylated DNA, has been reported but without an evaluation of its efficacy. In this study, the 20 efficiency of the un-methylated DNA enrichment protocol was evaluated for pig and tick samples 21 infected by ASFV. As expected, fewer reads corresponding to ASFV were found in the methylated 22 fraction compared to the un-methylated fraction. However, the sequencing coverage of the un-23 methylated fraction was not improved compared to the untreated DNA. In our hands, the ASFV DNA 24 enrichment was inefficient for tick samples and very limited for pig samples. This enrichment process 25 represents extra work and cost without a significant improvement of ASFV genome coverage. The 26 efficiency of this enrichment approach and the cost/benefit ratio are discussed.

27

28 **Keywords:** African swine fever virus, NGS, enrichment, methylation

29 **1-Introduction**

30 African swine fever (ASF) is a highly contagious hemorrhagic fever in *Suidae* that is lethal for 31 domestic pigs and wild boar. The African swine fever virus (ASFV), a large enveloped DNA virus with a 32 genome size between 170 and 190 kb, is the etiologic agent of ASF and the only member of 33 *Asfarviridae* family. ASFV can infect two different hosts, *Suidae* and soft ticks of the genus 34 *Ornithodoros*, the last being a possible vector of ASFV (Boinas et al., 2011; Plowright et al., 1969). 35 Although ASFV is a large DNA virus, with a genome of 170 to 190 kb, this genome is far smaller than 36 the genomes of its two hosts. Pigs have a genome of 2.8 billion kb (Groenen et al., 2012) while ticks 37 have a genome estimated at 1 billion kb (Geraci et al., 2007). Standard DNA extraction methods, like 38 commercial kits using an affinity column or phenol chloroform, do not separate the host and viral 39 DNA genomes, leading to a heavily unbalanced output of sequences in favor of the host's genome, 40 even after cell culture amplification of the virus prior to sequencing. This is particularly critical for 41 samples that have low viral titers, such as tick samples, making the sequencing of the virus from 42 these samples highly challenging.

43 The first complete ASFV sequence, published in 1995, was of the non-virulent isolate BA71V, 44 a Vero cell culture adapted strain (Yáñez et al., 1995). This first full ASFV genome sequence, 170 kb 45 long, was obtained by Sanger sequencing after viral DNA fragmentation and cloning of the whole 46 genome into several plasmids. Despite the subsequent emergence and use of Next Generation 47 Sequencing (NGS), the sequencing of ASFV genomes has remained challenging, and ASFV sequences 48 have had to be completed or confirmed by PCR amplification of some DNA fragments followed by 49 Sanger sequencing (Chapman et al., 2011; de Villiers et al., 2010; Olesen et al., 2018; Zani et al., 50 2018).

51 Different strategies for viral genome enrichment have been used, including 52 centrifugation/ultracentrifugation, filtration, and DNAse and RNAse treatments (Hall et al., 2014). 53 Genome capture, a more sophisticated technique based on a library of probes specifically designed 54 to selectively hybridize to a target genome, also has been used for the sequencing from clinical 55 samples of viruses that are difficult to sequence like Herpes Simplex Virus (Briese et al., 2015; Gaudin 56 and Desnues, 2018; Greninger et al., 2018). While very efficient, capture techniques are expensive, 57 and the preliminary knowledge of the viral sequences needed for the design of the probes also limits 58 their use for quasispecies studies.

59 In eukaryotes, DNA methylation is an epigenetic modification targeting CpG dinucleotides, 60 extremely stable DNA sequences frequently found in CpG islands that are involved in gene regulation 61 (Dor and Cedar, 2018). DNA methylation is also present in some large DNA viruses, such as 62 Herpesviruses and Iridoviruses, which replicate in the nucleus (Hoelzer et al., 2008). Interestingly, 63 contrary to most DNA viruses, the viral replication of ASFV occurs exclusively in the cytoplasm of 64 infected host cells (Dixon et al., 2013), whereas the DNA methylase is exclusively present in the 65 nucleus of the cell. The ASFV genome thus should avoid CpG methylation, as suggested by a recent 66 study demonstrating, on a small part of the genome, that ASFV DNA was un-methylated (Weber et 67 al., 2018). Recently, new complete genome sequences of African ASFV strains were obtained after an 68 enrichment step based on the separation of methylated and un-methylated DNA (Masembe et al., 69 2018; Ndlovu et al., 2020). However, the efficiency of this approach on the different samples used 70 (high or low quantity of ASFV DNA) was not evaluated.

71 In this study, we investigated the efficiency of this un-methylated DNA enrichment strategy 72 for ASFV sequencing. Two types of samples infected with the Georgia2007/1 ASFV strain were 73 tested: 1) blood of viremic pigs, representing samples with a high quantity of ASFV DNA, and 2) 74 infected *Ornithodoros erraticus*, a European soft tick from Portugal, representing samples with a low 75 quantity of ASFV DNA. If efficient, sample enrichment based on methylated and un-methylated DNA 76 discrimination should separate host DNA from viral DNA. For comparison purposes, we sequenced 77 the untreated DNA (UD), the methylated fraction (MF) and the un-methylated fraction (UMF) 78 resulting from the enrichment process.

79 **2-Materials and methods**

80 **2.1-Infection of SPF pigs and soft tick** *Ornithodoros erraticus*

81 The ASFV strain Georgia2007/1 was used for this experiment. This strain, member of the 82 ASFV genotype II group, was initially isolated from domestic pigs in Georgia in 2007 and was kindly 83 provided by Dr. Linda Dixon (OIE reference Laboratory, Pirbright Institute, UK). This strain has a 84 genome size of 189 344 bp coding for 269 ORFs (Forth et al., 2019). Five specific-pathogen-free (SPF) 85 pigs (889Geo, 936Geo, 941Geo, 6547Geo, 6518Geo) were inoculated intra-muscularly with 10^4 50% 86 hemadsorbing dose (HAD₅₀) of Georgia2007/1 ASFV strain. Heparin blood samples were collected on 87 viremia at day 3 post-inoculation. *Ornithodoros erraticus* (E geo F1-6, E geo M1-2) were infected by 88 feeding on Georgia2007/1 infected pigs and were frozen three months after the blood meal.

89 **2.2-DNA extraction**

90 DNA extractions were performed with the High Pure PCR Template Preparation Kit (Roche 91 Diagnostics, Meylan, France). For pigs, DNA extraction was realized from 400 µL of heparin blood 92 sample. Ticks, at 3 months post-infection, were washed 5 secs on sodium hypochlorite 2.6 % then 3 93 times in sterile Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS). After washing, ticks were crushed in 200 µL of sterile 94 PBS with two steel beads of 3 mm and 4 mm at 25 Hz during 3 min with VWR Star-Beater (VWR 95 International bvba, Leuven, Belgium). Then 800 µL of sterile PBS were added and the whole solution 96 was clarified by centrifugation at 5000 g during 5 min. Supernatants were filtered on 0.22 μ m Sterile 97 Millex filter (Merck Milipore, Carrigtwohill, Ireland) for E geo F1-2, E geo M1 and 0.45 µm filter for E

98 geo F3-6 and E geo M2. Filtered supernatants were centrifuged at 13000 g during 5 min and 400 µL 99 of the supernatants were used for DNA extraction.

100 **2.3-Real-time PCR**

101 Each DNA extract was tested by quantitative real-time PCR for ASFV VP-72 and beta-actin 102 genes. The primers and probe used for ASFV VP-72 gene were previously described (Tignon et al., 103 2011). The beta-actin primers and probes used in our study were also described for swine by Tignon 104 et al.. For the tick samples, the primers described by Duron et al. (2018) were used, however, instead 105 of SYBR Green, a Taqman probe was designed for our duplex real-time PCR Hex-5'- 106 CGAGAGGAAGTACTCCGTCTGG-3'-BHQ1.

107 **2.4-Quantification of DNA, sample enrichment, library preparation and sequencing**

108 DNA samples were assayed with Qubit Fluorometer (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK). For the pig 109 samples, DNA quantification was performed with 1 µL of DNA; for the tick samples, DNA 110 quantification was performed with 10 μ L of DNA. The quantities of DNA obtained for each initial 111 sample are presented in Table 1.

112 After purification, all initial DNA samples were submitted to an enrichment step by 113 separating methylated DNA and non-methylated DNA with NEBNext Microbiome DNA Enrichment Kit 114 (NEW ENGLAND Biolabs, Evry, France) according to the manufacturer's protocol. More precisely, for 115 the pig samples, 100 ng of DNA were used for the NE library and the leftover (around 550 ng) for the 116 enrichment procedure. For the tick samples, 100 ng of DNA were also used for the NE library and the 117 leftover DNA, which varied between 260 ng and 450 ng, for the enrichment procedure. After the 118 enrichment procedure, each initial sample was then split into three fractions: 1) fraction 1, the initial 119 DNA sample, corresponding to an aliquot before the enrichment process (UD), 2) fraction 2, the 120 enriched methylated DNA sample (MF), and 3) fraction 3, the depleted methylated DNA sample 121 (UMF). DNA quantification of the MF and UMF fractions was performed after the enrichment

122 process. For library preparation, Ion Xpress Plus Fragment Library Kit (Thermo Fischer Scientific, 123 Frederick, Maryland, USA) was used and DNA fragments between 250 bp and 290 bp were size-124 selected with Ion Xpress Barcode Adapters 1-96 kit (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Frederick, Maryland, 125 USA). For the DNA purification steps, magnetic beads from Agencourt AMPure XP Kit (Beckman 126 Coulter, Villepinte, France) were used.

127 All samples were sequenced with Proton Ion Torrent technology (Thermofischer Scientific, 128 Frederick, Maryland, USA). For the sequencing, the different libraries (UD, UMF, MF) were 129 multiplexed and simultaneously sequenced on a P1 chip for Proton sequencing. The P1 chip allows 130 the production of up to 100 M reads. The Phred Quality Score ≥20 was calculated for generated 131 bases and expressed as a percentage (%≥Q20). Row data can be found in the GenBank SRA under 132 accession no. PRJNA643370.

133 **2.5-Bioinformatic analysis**

134 The reads were cleaned with Trimmomatic 0.36 software using the following parameters: 135 ILLUMINACLIP:oligos.fasta: 2:30:5:1: true; LEADING: 3; TRAILING: 3; MAXINFO: 40:0.2; MINLEN: 36 136 (Bolger et al., 2014). An alignment then was performed using Bowtie2 (version 2.2.5) (Langmead and 137 Salzberg, 2012) set on very fast (-D 5 –R 1 –N O –L 22 –i s,0,2.50) with cleaned down-sampled reads 138 on a local ncbi nucleotide database. This very fast alignment detected only the highly similar 139 sequences (>99% homology) and provided a snapshot picture of the data. The bam files were then 140 converted to a blast output readable by Krona taxonomic viewer (Ondov et al., 2011) to visualize the 141 gross organisms distribution in the different samples. For an accurate count of ASFV reads, the 142 sequence of strain Georgia2007/1, Genbank accession number FR682468.1 (Chapman et al., 2011), 143 was used as reference for a Bowtie2 alignment (command line option –al) versus all cleaned reads.

144 **2.7-Statistical analysis**

145 Statistical analyses were performed with RStudio software (version 1.1.463). For all data 146 analyses, three groups were considered: 1) the pool of UD fractions, 2) the pool of UMF fractions and 147 3) the pool of MF fractions. The Wilxocon test was used for the statistical analysis of these three 148 groups. Our analysis focused on the impact that the enrichment process had on the NGS results, and 149 more specifically on ASFV genome enrichment and coverage between each group.

150 **3-Results**

151 **3.1-Detection and relative quantification of viral and host DNA in initial samples**

152 A duplex quantitative real-time PCR directed against ASFV and beta-actin was performed for 153 all samples and the ASFV/beta-actin ratios of the PCR Ct were calculated for the estimation of the 154 relative quantity of the genomes of ASFV and the hosts (Table 1). Assuming a similar efficiency of our 155 PCR reactions, a ratio of less than 1 indicates a higher level (by genome copy number) of ASFV 156 genomes than host genomes. Such a ratio (less than 1) was found for pig samples. For tick samples, 157 the ratio was superior to 1, excepting the E geo F1 and E geo M1 samples for which the ratio was 158 respectively 0.99 and 0.96.

159 **3.2-Quality analysis of generated data**

160 After the enrichment process, for pig samples, 158 ng to 205 ng of total DNA were obtained 161 for UMF and 208 ng to 325 ng for MF. For tick samples, 153 ng to 391 ng of total DNA were obtained 162 after enrichment for UMF and 9 ng to 24 ng for MF (Table 2).

163 The generated bases, reads and Phred quality scores are shown in Table 3. Briefly, for pig 164 samples, a mean number of 6 635 376 reads were generated for UD, 2 510 484 for UMF and 165 1 963 487 for MF. For tick samples, a mean number of 4 820 610 reads were generated for UD, 7 317 166 952 for UMF and 1 733 646 for MF.

167 The Phred quality scores were equivalent between all of the libraries, for both pig and tick 168 samples.

169 **3.3-Metagenomic analysis**

170 Due to a high variability in the number of reads obtained by samples, from 15 000 to 21x10⁶ 171 reads (Table 3), and for computing time efficiency, the metagenomic classification of the reads was 172 performed on subsets of the raw data ranging from 5 to 100% of the reads according to samples 173 (Table 4). The output of taxonomical assignment of the reads with the fast bowtie alignment varied 174 greatly according to the samples, with lower outputs for tick samples due to a poor representation of 175 this species in the databases. As far as possible, the order of magnitude in the number of reads 176 analyzed was kept in a range of hundreds of thousands of reads to be representative of the samples, 177 with the exception of the MF fraction of the 889Geo sample, which displays only 15 736 reads (Table 178 4).

179 The taxonomic classification of reads obtained from pig samples was divided into three main 180 groups: pig genome, ASFV genome and other sequences, which represent reads that are not assigned 181 to a specific taxon. For UD pig samples, 93% of detected reads belonged to the pig genome, 0.18% to 182 the ASFV genome and 6.82% to other sequences (Fig. 1A). For UMF pig samples, 83% of reads 183 belonged to the pig genome, 0.75% to the ASFV genome and 16.25% to other sequences (Fig. 1B). 184 For MF pig samples, 92.20% of reads belonged to the pig genome, 0.04% to the ASFV genome and 185 7.76% to other sequences (Fig. 1C). A statistical difference was found only for the proportion of ASFV 186 reads obtained in UD and UMF (p-value = 0.034).

187 The taxonomic classification of reads obtained from tick samples was divided into five 188 groups: tick, pig, ASFV, bacteria and other sequences. For UD tick samples, 38.63% were identified as 189 tick, 27.71% as pig, 0.03% as ASFV, 3.85% as bacteria and 32.78% as other sequences (Fig. 1D). For 190 UMF tick samples, 35.38% corresponded to tick, 25.71% to pig, 0.04% to ASFV, 4.48% to bacteria and 191 34.39% to other sequences (Fig. 1E). For MF samples, 36.63% corresponded to tick, 24.35% to pig, 0% 192 to ASFV, 1.34% to bacteria and 37.68% to other sequences (Fig. 1F). No statistical difference was 193 found between UD, UMF and MF samples.

194 **Fig. 1: Relative abundance of reads generated in the different samples classified according the** 195 **taxonomic origin**. Pig samples are presented in the left of the panel, and tick samples in the right. UD 196 samples are presented in **A** and **D**. UMF samples are presented in **B** and **E**. MF samples are presented 197 in **C** and **F**.

198

199 **3.4-Number and percentage of ASFV reads in all samples**

200 For all samples, the number of reads, the percentage and the mean coverage of reads aligned 201 on the ASFV reference are shown in Table 5.

202 For pig samples, the quantity of ASFV reads varied between 3000 and 71 286 for UD, 203 between 95 and 40 620 for UMF, and between 45 and 1220 for MF, representing 0.29%, 0.35% and 204 0.098% of total reads obtained for UD, UMF and MF of pig samples, respectively. The slight 205 difference in the number of ASFV reads between the UD and MF fractions was statistically significant 206 (p-value = 0.024).

207 For tick samples, the quantity of ASFV reads varied between 0 and 604 for UD, between 0 208 and 813 for UMF, and between 0 and 57 for MF. ASFV reads represented, for the best fraction, 209 0.002% of the total reads in tick samples (Table 5). No statistical difference was found between the 210 UD, UMF and MF samples.

211 ASFV genome sequencing coverages are also shown in Table 5. For pig samples, the mean 212 coverage was 15.11 for UD, 9.63 for UMF and 0.25 for MF fractions. For tick samples, the mean 213 coverage was 0.11 for UD, 0.12 for UMF and 0.005 for MF fractions.

214 **4-Discussion and conclusion**

215 In this study, we evaluated a new strategy of DNA enrichment for high-throughput 216 sequencing of the ASFV genome. The strategy, already used in two studies (Masembe et al., 2018; 217 Ndlovu et al., 2020) but without an evaluation of its efficacy, is based on a specificity of the ASFV 218 DNA genome which is not methylated, contrary to the host genome. Separation of methylated and 219 un-methylated DNA should result in an enrichment in ASFV reads in un-methylated samples. This 220 strategy was tested against samples corresponding to the different ASFV hosts, i.e., pig and tick 221 samples.

222 Before the enrichment process, ratios in genome copy number of ASFV and hosts were 223 roughly estimated (by PCR ratio) to be 1 in tick samples, and around 0.7 in pig samples. After 224 mapping the reads on the different genomes, the ASFV DNA indeed represented less than 0.4% and 225 0.01% of the reads obtained in pig and tick samples respectively.

226 For all pig samples, in the UMF fractions (depleted methylated DNA), the percentage of ASFV 227 genome reads increased from 0.18% to 0.75% and, conversely, the percentage of pig genome reads 228 decreased by 10% compared with the UD fractions. For tick samples, the proportion of reads 229 corresponding to the host genome decreased by 3% between UMF and UD, indicating a low 230 efficiency of the enrichment process. The decrease between the UD and UMF factions was more 231 extensive for pig genome reads (10%) than the decrease for tick genome reads (3%). These 232 observations can be explained by the difference in DNA methylation between invertebrates and 233 vertebrates. Indeed, the DNA of invertebrates is less methylated than the DNA of vertebrates (Bird 234 and Taggart, 1980; Tweedie et al., 1997). However, the sequence of the whole *Ornithodoros erraticus* 235 genome is unknown, so the percentage of tick reads is probably underestimated. Moreover, the 236 proportion of ASFV reads in tick samples only increased in two samples out of eight and remained 237 lower than 0.01%, which in our case is insufficient to obtain the whole sequence of the ASFV 238 genome, with a mean coverage of less than 0.61.

239 In comparison with another enrichment approach for ASFV whole genome sequencing, DNA 240 extraction from erythrocytes of a viremic pig showed 0.84% of ASFV reads in their total reads with a 241 mean coverage of 103 reads per nucleotide (Olesen et al., 2018). This approach could be a good 242 strategy for fresh isolated erythrocytes but is not suitable for frozen whole blood.

243 In 2019, a workflow for efficient ASFV sequencing was proposed. This consisted of a target 244 enrichment approach by ASFV hybridization with probes fixed on magnetic beads followed by the use 245 of NGS technologies (either Illumina alone, or a combination of Illumina and Nanopore sequencing). 246 This target enrichment approach allows better coverage compared to the no enrichment approach, 247 and a smaller amount of data is generated during sequencing (Forth et al., 2019). However, this 248 approach has only been tested on the reference genome used for the design of the probes and a 249 strain close to this reference. Knowing that the core genome was constituted of 102 ortholog genes 250 on the 301 ortholog genes described in ASFV pan-genome (Wang et al., 2019), the efficiency of 251 enrichment by ASFV hybridization should be validated on other genotypes before being applied to 252 unknown strains.

253 Our study is the first to investigate the efficiency and the utility of the separation of 254 methylated and un-methylated DNA for the whole genome sequencing of the ASFV genome. Our 255 results suggest a low enrichment of ASFV DNA using this approach. The cost of the enrichment 256 process by separation of methylated and un-methylated DNA is around \$35 per sample. An increase 257 in the deepness of sequencing would most probably give similar results as EMD samples, with less 258 extra work on the samples and may be cheaper than the enrichment process. In comparison, the 259 target enrichment strategy, which costs approximately \$225 per sample, is most effective, resulting 260 in a significant reduction of data generated. However, the reduction of the sequencing costs does not 261 compensate for the extra cost of the enrichment process; the real advantage of this strategy is the 262 high quality of the sequence obtained.

263 In our hands, the enrichment of samples in un-methylated DNA for the sequencing of the 264 ASFV genome represented extra work and cost without a significant improvement in the final results 265 for very low ASFV load samples.

266 **Author contributions**

267 **Rémi Pereira De Oliveira**: Investigation, writing original draft, writing-review & editing. 268 **Pierrick Lucas**: Investigation. **Amélie Chastagner**: Writing-review & editing. **Claire De Boissesson**: 269 Investigation. **Laurence Vial**: Resources, writing-review & editing. **Marie-Frédérique Le Potier**: 270 Writing-review & editing. **Yannick Blanchard**: Conceptualization, writing-review & editing, validation 271 supervision.

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276 **Declaration of competing Interest**

277 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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389 **Table 1: Relative quantification of ASFV genome, host beta-actin and total DNA in pig and tick**

390 **samples.**

 391 *Ct = Cycle Threshold.

392 **Table 2: DNA quantity used for enrichment process and DNA quantity obtained after enrichment.**

394 **Table 3: Quantity of total bases generated, quality score of bases, quantity of total reads and mean**

- 395 **read length per sample.** Quality of bases was analyzed by Phred Quality Scores ≥20 (%≥Q20) and
- 396 expressed in percentage**.**

399 **Table 4: Number and percentage of the total reads used for metagenomics analysis.**

400

402 **Table 5: Number and percentage of ASFV reads per sample and the sequencing coverage of the**

403 **reference strain Georgia2007/1.**

404 Cov. = sequencing coverage in average number of reads per nucleotide position.

