

1 **Genomic characterization of novel bat kobuviruses in Madagascar:**  
2 **implications for viral evolution and zoonotic risk**

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## 21 **Abstract**

22 Kobuviruses (family *Picornaviridae*, genus *Kobuvirus*) are enteric viruses that infect a wide  
23 range of both human and animal hosts. Much of the evolutionary history of kobuviruses remains  
24 elusive, largely due to limited screening in wildlife. Bats have been implicated as major sources  
25 of virulent zoonoses, including coronaviruses, henipaviruses, and filoviruses, though much of the  
26 bat virome still remains uncharacterized. While most bat virus research has historically focused  
27 on immediately recognizable zoonotic clades (e.g. SARS-related coronaviruses), a handful of  
28 prior reports catalog kobuvirus infection in bats and posit the role of bats as potential progenitors  
29 of downstream kobuvirus evolution. As part of a multi-year study, we carried out metagenomic  
30 Next Generation Sequencing (mNGS) on fecal samples obtained from endemic, wild-caught  
31 Madagascar fruit bats to characterize potentially zoonotic viruses circulating within these  
32 populations. The wild bats of Madagascar represent diverse Asian and African phylogeographic  
33 histories, presenting a unique opportunity for viruses from disparate origins to mix, posing  
34 significant public health threats. Here, we report detection of kobuvirus RNA in Malagasy fruit  
35 bat (*Eidolon dupreanum*) feces and undertake phylogenetic characterization of one full genome  
36 kobuvirus sequence, which nests within the Aichivirus A clade - a kobuvirus clade known to  
37 infect a wide range of hosts including humans, rodents, canids, felids, birds, and bats. Given the  
38 propensity of kobuviruses for recombination and cross-species infection, further characterization  
39 of this clade is critical to accurate evaluation of future zoonotic threats.

40 **Keywords:** Madagascar, bats, kobuvirus, picornavirus, metagenomic Next Generation  
41 Sequencing (mNGS)

42

## 43 **Background**

44 Picornaviruses in the viral family *Picornaviridae* are non-enveloped RNA viruses that infect a  
45 wide range of vertebrates, from birds and fish to a variety of mammals, including both humans  
46 and bats<sup>1,2</sup>. Famed human picornaviruses include poliovirus (genus: *Enterovirus*), which causes  
47 the paralyzing human disease poliomyelitis<sup>3</sup>, and the rhinoviruses (also genus: *Enterovirus*)  
48 which cause the common cold<sup>4,5</sup>. Arguably the most well-known animal picornavirus is the first  
49 described in this clade, Foot-and-Mouth-Disease Virus (genus: *Apthovirus*), which causes the  
50 agriculturally-devastating disease of the same name in cloven-hoofed animals<sup>6</sup>. To date, bat  
51 picornaviruses have been generally overlooked as potential zoonotic pathogens due to the lack of  
52 documented zoonotic spillover events in this clade<sup>7</sup>. This oversight has resulted in limited bat  
53 picornavirus surveillance which hinders efforts to describe their evolutionary history. In contrast,  
54 bat coronaviruses have garnered significant attention due to their established zoonotic potential.  
55 Unlike coronaviruses, which exhibit tight coevolutionary signatures with specific bat host  
56 species, picornaviruses show low host specificity, as highly similar variants have been detected  
57 across a wide array of bat species, suggesting a more generalized host range<sup>2,8</sup>. Further screening  
58 for bat picornaviruses in high-risk areas of wildlife-human interaction will provide crucial  
59 insights into their evolutionary history and potential for cross-species transmission.

60

61 Kobuviruses represent one clade of many recently discovered enteric picornaviruses known to  
62 cause severe gastroenteritis in humans and animals<sup>7</sup>. As a clade, they are subdivided into  
63 genotypes Aichivirus A-F. Genotypes falling under the Aichivirus A classification are hosted by  
64 humans, canids, rodents, felids, birds, and bats<sup>9-11</sup>, and those within the Aichivirus B-F  
65 classification are hosted by cattle, swine, sheep, rabbits, and bats<sup>12-17,11,18</sup>. Structurally,

66 kobuviruses are small (~30-32 nm), icosahedral, non-enveloped viruses with a single-stranded  
67 positive sense RNA genome of 8.2-8.4 kb in length<sup>18</sup>. They contain only one open reading frame  
68 (ORF), which encodes three structural proteins (VP0, VP3, and VP1) and eight nonstructural  
69 proteins (L, 2A, 2B, 2C, 3A, 3B, 3C, and 3D)<sup>19</sup>. These genomic and structural features not only  
70 play a critical role in the ability of kobuviruses to infect a wide range of hosts but also provide  
71 valuable insight into their evolutionary adaptability and potential for zoonotic transmission.

72  
73 Madagascar is home to 51 species of bat<sup>20</sup>, many of which are endemic and have undergone long  
74 evolutionary divergence from sister species in both Africa and Asia<sup>21,22</sup>. Recent evidence  
75 identifies Madagascar fruit bats as hosts for numerous circulating viruses<sup>23–27</sup>, some of which are  
76 potentially zoonotic. Additionally, longitudinal serological surveillance shows that female  
77 Malagasy bats exhibit elevated antibody titers during the periods of gestation and reproduction,  
78 suggesting that their exposure to viruses such as henipaviruses and filoviruses may be seasonally  
79 linked. Routine bat virus surveillance is thus a critical public health priority, particularly in  
80 regions with high human-bat contact rates<sup>28</sup>. With rapidly changing ecology, urbanization,  
81 climate change, increased travel, and fragile public health systems, the frequency of bat zoonoses  
82 is likely to rise<sup>29</sup>. Despite growing evidence of viral circulation in Madagascar's diverse bat  
83 populations, the prevalence and evolutionary history of many viral taxa—including  
84 kobuviruses—remain largely unexplored in these hosts.

85  
86 Here, we carried out metagenomic Next Generation Sequencing (mNGS) of RNA extracted from  
87 fecal samples collected from three endemic Malagasy fruit bat species (*Pteropus rufus*, *Eidolon*  
88 *dupreanum*, *Rousettus madagascariensis*). We present the first detection and characterization of

89 any kobuvirus circulating within Malagasy fruit bats and use phylogenetic tools to demonstrate  
90 that Malagasy fruit bat kobuviruses share immediate ancestry with previously described  
91 members of kobuvirus sub-clade Aichivirus A, a clade that includes several human-infecting  
92 species. We aim for our descriptive work to provide a baseline on which future work will build  
93 understanding of kobuvirus dynamics within Malagasy wildlife hosts and evaluate their potential  
94 capacity for cross-species transmission.

95

## 96 **Materials and Methods**

### 97 *Bat Sampling*

98 As part of a multi-year study examining the dynamics of potentially zoonotic viruses in three  
99 endemic species of Madagascar fruit bats (*Pteropus rufus*, *Eidolon dupreanum*, *Rousettus*  
100 *madagascariensis*), bats were captured monthly in species-specific roost sites in the Districts of  
101 Moramanga and Manjakandriana, Madagascar between 2018 and 2019 (*P. rufus*: Ambakoana  
102 roost, -18.513 S, 48.167 E; *E. dupreanum*: Angavobe cave, -18.944 S, 47.949 E; Angavokely  
103 cave = -18.933 S, 47.758 E; *R. madagascariensis*: Maromizaha cave, -18.9623 S, 48.4525 E).  
104 Bats were live-captured using nets hung in tree canopies (*P. rufus*) and over cave mouths (*E.*  
105 *dupreanum*, *R. madagascariensis*) at dusk (17:00-22:00) and dawn (03:00-07:00). Captured bats  
106 were manually restrained, and bat sex, species, and age (juvenile or adult) were  
107 morphometrically determined in the field following previously published protocols<sup>23,30-32</sup>. Fecal  
108 swabs were collected from all captured individuals, placed into viral transport medium, and  
109 frozen in liquid nitrogen. After sampling, swabs were transported to -80°C freezers at the  
110 Virology Unit at Institut Pasteur de Madagascar for long-term storage. In total, 690 bats were  
111 captured (*P. rufus*: 68, *E. dupreanum*: 288, *R. madagascariensis*: 334).

112

113 This study was carried out in strict accordance with research permits obtained from the  
114 Madagascar Ministry of Forest and the Environment (permit numbers 019/18, 170/18, 007/19)  
115 and under guidelines posted by the American Veterinary Medical Association. All field protocols  
116 employed were pre-approved by the UC Berkeley Animal Care and Use Committee (ACUC  
117 Protocol #AUP-2017-10-10393), and every effort was made to minimize discomfort to animals.

118

### 119 *RNA Extraction*

120 A random subset of fecal samples distributed across all three species was selected for  
121 downstream molecular analysis, including RNA extraction and mNGS (*P. rufus*: 26 male/18  
122 female, *E. dupreanum*: 52 male/93 female, *R. madagascariensis*: 49 male/47 female) (**Table 1**).  
123 Samples undergoing mNGS corresponded to captures in Feb-Apr, Jul-Sep, and December 2018  
124 or in January 2019. RNA was extracted at the Virology Unit at the Institut Pasteur de  
125 Madagascar, using the Zymo Quick DNA/RNA Microprep Plus kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA,  
126 USA), adhering to the manufacturer's instructions while also including a DNase digestion step.  
127 Water controls were extracted in conjunction with samples on each extraction day. Post-  
128 extraction, RNA underwent quality control on a nanodrop to assess its purity. A 260/280 ratio  
129 absorbance that did not exceed 2 was used to ensure that a quantifiable concentration was  
130 present. Extractions that passed screening were stored in freezers at -80°C and transported to the  
131 Chan Zuckerberg Biohub (San Francisco, CA, USA) for library preparation and mNGS.

132

### 133 *Library Preparation and mNGS*

134 Four randomly selected samples from each bat species (*Pteropus rufus*, *Eidolon dupreanum*,  
135 *Rousettus madagascariensis*) underwent additional quantification using an Invitrogen Qubit 3.0  
136 Fluorometer and the Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific, Carlsbad, CA, USA).  
137 Following quantification, RNA samples, and water samples from prior extraction, were pipetted  
138 into 96-well plates to automate high throughput mNGS library preparation. Based on initial  
139 quantification, 2uL aliquots from each plated sample were diluted 1:9 on a Bravo liquid handling  
140 platform (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). 5uL aliquots from each diluted sample were pipetted  
141 into 384-well plates for mNGS library preparation. Fecal samples were arrayed on distinct 384  
142 well plates for sequencing runs. Each 384-well plate included additional RNA samples isolated  
143 from cultured HeLa cells and lab water samples, which served as controls for library preparation.  
144 Samples were transferred into a GeneVac EV-2 (SP Industries, Warminster, PA, USA) to  
145 evaporate to conduct miniaturized mNGS library preparation with the NEBNext Ultra II RNA  
146 Library Prep Kit (New England BioLabs, Beverly, MA, USA). Library preparation was  
147 performed following manufacturer's instructions with a few modifications: 25pg of External  
148 RNA Controls Consortium Spike-in mix (ERCCS, Thermo-Fisher) was added to each sample  
149 prior to RNA fragmentation, input RNA mixture was fragmented for 8 minutes at 94°C prior to  
150 reverse transcription, and a total of 14 cycles of PCR with dual-indexed TruSeq adapters was  
151 applied to amplify the resulting individual libraries. Resulting library pools then underwent  
152 quality and quantity measurements via electrophoresis (High-Sensitivity DNA Kit and Agilent  
153 Bioanalyzer; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), real-time quantitative polymerase  
154 chain reaction (qPCR) (KAPA Library Quantification Kit; Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, MA,  
155 USA), and small-scale sequencing (2x146bp) on an iSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA,  
156 US). Equimolar pooling of individual libraries from each plate was performed before running

157 large-scale paired-end sequencing (2x146bp) on an Illumina NovaSeq sequencing system  
158 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). The pipeline used to separate individual library outputs into  
159 FASTQ files of 146bp paired-end reads can be found at <https://github.com/czbiohub-sf/utilities>.

160

### 161 *Prevalence of Kobuvirus Sequence Detection in Field Specimens*

162 Raw reads recovered from Illumina sequencing were host-filtered, quality-filtered, and  
163 assembled on CZID (v3.10, NR/NT 2019-12-01), an open-source, cloud-based *de novo* assembly  
164 pipeline for microbial mNGS data<sup>33</sup>, using publicly available full-length bat genomes from  
165 GenBank at the time of sequencing (July 2019) as the host background model. Samples were  
166 deemed kobuvirus positive if CZID assembled at least two contigs with an average read depth >2  
167 reads/nt that showed significant nucleotide or protein BLAST alignments (alignment length >100  
168 nt/aa and E-value < 0.00001 for nucleotide BLAST/ bit score >100 for protein BLAST) to  
169 kobuvirus reference sequences contained within NCBI NR/NT databases.

170

171 Offline BLASTn/x analyses of non-host contigs were conducted to cross-validate our search with  
172 CZID using a custom database of kobuvirus sequences from NCBI (last accessed: October  
173 2021). Prior to BLAST searches, contigs were first deduplicated to remove redundant sequences  
174 using CD-HIT<sup>34</sup> (v.4.8.1). BLAST hits from both searches identified two key contigs. One of  
175 these, a novel, full-genome length sequence that we eventually submitted to GenBank under  
176 accession number OP287812, was used as a reference for a third and final search aimed at  
177 filtering out low-quality hits from our prior runs.

178

### 179 *Genome quality assessment and annotation*



180 We used CheckV<sup>35</sup> (v1.0.1) to estimate genome completeness and potential host contamination  
181 of our putative genome (OP287812). We visualized OP287812 in Geneious Prime (V.2023.0.1)  
182 and aligned to previously annotated kobuvirus sequences obtained from NCBI with MAFFT<sup>36</sup>  
183 (v.1.5.0). Protease cleavage sites were identified and used to define individual proteins, with  
184 NCBI sequences serving as references. We assumed that the 5' and 3' ends encompassed regions  
185 flanking the single open reading frame.

186

### 187 *Sequence similarity search*

188 We conducted BLASTn and BLASTx searches to identify similarities between OP287812 and  
189 NCBI's database of kobuvirus sequences within Geneious. We organized BLAST hits using  
190 Geneious Prime's grade metric, a measure that produces a weighted score for hits composed of  
191 E-value, pairwise identity, and coverage to create a list of top 10 BLAST hits. We also generated  
192 an alignment between our full- (OP287812) and partial-length (OR082796) kobuvirus sequences,  
193 as well as with previously described bat kobuviruses, which we summarized using NCBI MSA  
194 Viewer (v.1.25.0).

195

### 196 *Sequence similarity analysis*

197 We generated nucleotide and amino acid similarity plots comparing OP287812 to publicly  
198 available kobuvirus sequences recovered from NCBI (Accessions: KJ934637 and NC\_001918).  
199 MAFFT sequence alignments were used as input for PySimPlot<sup>37</sup> (v.0.1.1) using default window  
200 (Default: 100) and step sizes (Default: 1). Further data analyses and visualizations were carried  
201 out in RStudio<sup>38</sup> (v.2024.04.2+764) using the tidyverse<sup>39</sup> suite (v.2.0.0).

202

## 203 *Phylogenetic Analysis*

204 We integrated our novel sequences with publicly available sequences on NCBI to perform three  
205 separate phylogenetic analyses: (a) a picornavirus maximum-likelihood (ML) tree spanning a  
206 conserved 7,000bp region, (b) a kobuvirus-only ML tree spanning a conserved 4,500bp region,  
207 and (c) a time-resolved Bayesian kobuvirus-only phylogeny spanning a conserved 5,500bp  
208 region. Sequences were aligned with MAFFT under default parameters and subjected to  
209 ModelTest-NG<sup>40</sup> (v.0.1.7) to determine the best fit nucleotide substitution models to describe  
210 evolutionary relationships within each respective alignment. ML trees were built using RAxML<sup>41</sup>  
211 (v.8.2.13) and visualized within RStudio using the ggtree<sup>42</sup> (v3.16) package. Following standard  
212 practice outlined in the RAxML-NG manual, we computed 20 tree searches using 10 random and  
213 10 parsimony-based starting trees under default heuristic search parameters for each original  
214 alignment, then selected the best-scoring topology. MRE-based bootstrapping tests were  
215 performed after every 50 replicates<sup>43</sup>, following Felsenstein's method<sup>44</sup>, terminating at 1,000  
216 bootstrap replicates. A similar approach was used to construct our Bayesian phylogenetic tree  
217 with BEAST2<sup>45</sup> (v2.6.3), with the key difference being that representative sequences were  
218 selected from across the Kobuvirus-only ML phylogeny using Parnas<sup>46</sup> (v.0.1.4) to ensure  
219 adequate coverage of tree diversity. More details for the generation of each phylogeny are  
220 available in our open-access GitHub repository (see Data Availability).

221

## 222 *Nucleotide Sequence Accession Number*

223 We submitted both our annotated full-length genome sequence (8,263 bp) and partial-length  
224 sequence (2,077 bp) to NCBI where they were, respectively, assigned accession numbers:

225 OP287812 and OR082796. Detailed descriptions of analyses are available on our GitHub  
226 (<https://github.com/brooklabteam/Madagascar-Bat-Kobuvirus>).

227

## 228 **Results**

229 *Sequencing of fecal samples from Malagasy bats reveals kobuvirus*  
230 *prevalence and identification of a full-length genome*

231 Two (2/285) fecal samples sequenced were kobuvirus positive via offline BLAST analyses  
232 (0.70% positivity) (**Table 1**), each originating from a different individual *Eidolon dupreanum*  
233 bat. Samples collected from *P. rufus* and *R. madagascariensis* did not demonstrate any evidence  
234 of kobuvirus infection.

235

Roost site	Species	Total sampled by site (n = 285)	Total Kobuvirus positive (n = 2)	Total sampled (Male, Female)	Total Kobuvirus positive (Male, Female)
Ambakoana	<i>Pteropus rufus</i>	37	0 (0%)	23,14	0,0 (0%, 0%)
Angavobe	<i>Eidolon dupreanum</i>	37	1 (2.7%)	11,26	0,1 (0%, 3.84%)

Angavokely	<i>Eidolon dupreanum</i>	108	1 (0.93%)	41,67	0,1 (0%, 1.49%)
Maromizaha	<i>Rousettus madagascariensis</i>	96	0 (0%)	49,47	0,0 (0%, 0%)
Mahialambo	<i>Pteropus rufus</i>	7	0 (0%)	3,4	0,0 (0%, 0%)

236 **Table 1 - Positive Kobuvirus Samples.** Summary table showing total bats captured by species  
237 and location from a random subset of fecal samples subject to mNGS.

238

239 The single full-length kobuvirus genome (OP287812) was identified in a sample collected from a  
240 juvenile *E. dupreanum* female in Angavokely cave, while the partial-length genome (OR082796)  
241 was identified in a sample collected from a non-lactating female adult *E. dupreanum* in  
242 Angavobe cave. Sequence OP287812 is 8,263 bp in length and was designated as ‘high quality’  
243 by CheckV (completeness = 100, contamination = 0, CheckV quality = High quality, MIUVIG  
244 Quality = High quality). This sequence represents the most complete bat kobuvirus genome  
245 identified to date and the first bat kobuvirus to be identified in Madagascar.

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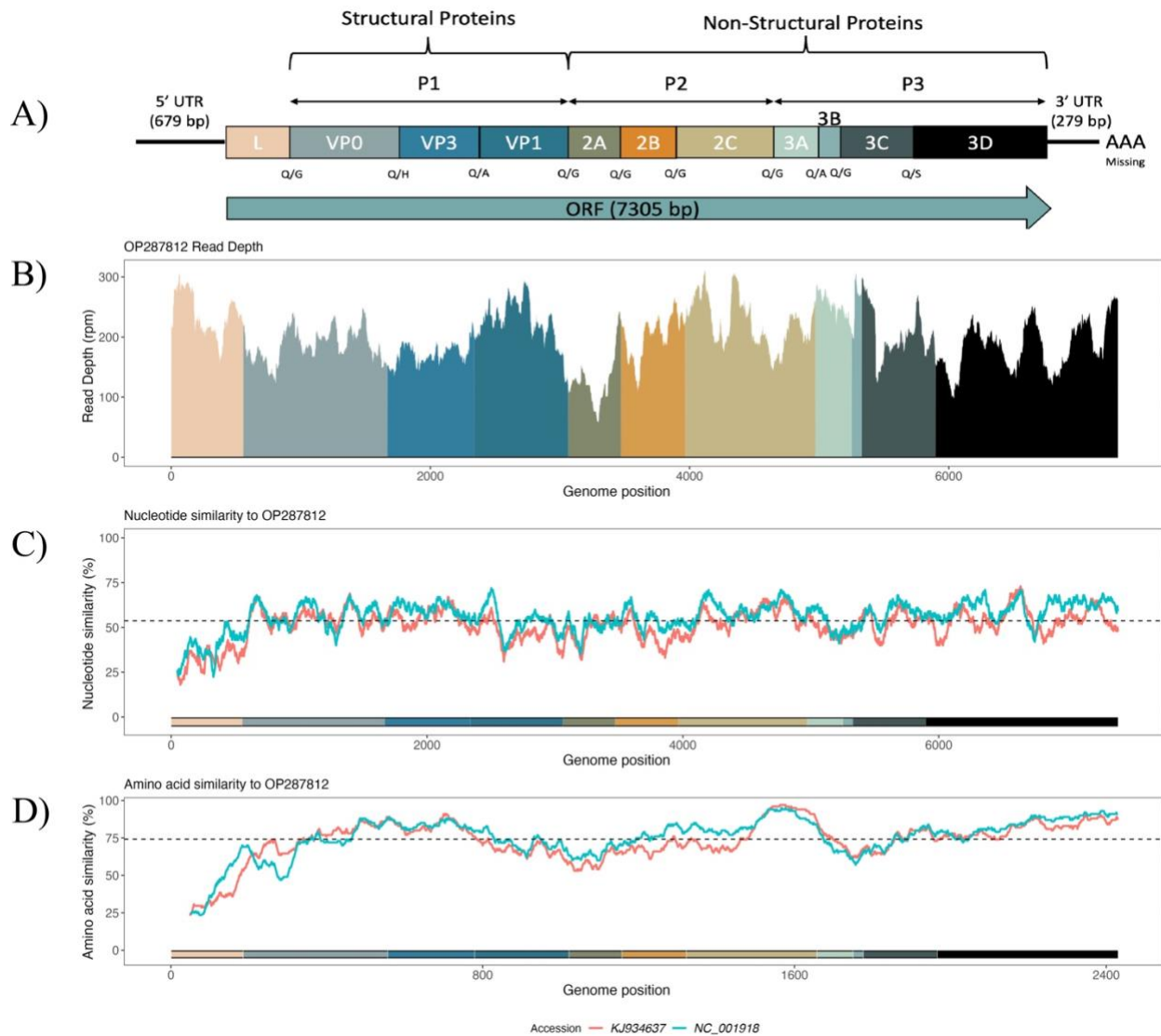
248

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251

252 *Genome annotation and comparative genomic analysis of the full-length*  
253 *kobuvirus genome OP287812 reveals homology across clades*



254

255 **Figure 1 - Genome Annotation and Similarity plot for OP287812.** A) Genome annotation for  
256 OP287812 is shown at the top, with amino acid cleavage sites indicated below their  
257 corresponding proteins. Proteins are color-coded and displayed in panels B-D. B) Coverage map  
258 across OP287812's open reading frame (ORF), excluding the 5' and 3' UTRs. Sequence depth is  
259 represented in reads per million (rpm), with colors indicating the proteins along the ORF. C) and

260 **D)** Nucleotide and amino acid similarity plots, with OP287812 as the reference. The plots  
261 compare OP287812 to the most derived human kobuvirus sequence (NC\_001918), and the most  
262 basal avian kobuvirus (KJ934637), in subsequent phylogenetic trees. Dashed lines indicate the  
263 average percent similarity between OP287812 and the query sequences.

264

265 We annotated the single ORF that spans OP287812 (7,305 nt and 2,435 aa) and identified  
266 protease cleavage sites across the genome (**Fig. 1A**). Reference sequences used to annotate the  
267 OP287812 genome can be found on **Supplemental Table 1**. Predicted cleavage sites occurring  
268 at junctions between L and VP0 (Glutamine/Glycine), 2A and 2B (Glutamine/Glycine), 2B and  
269 2C (Glutamine/Glycine), 3A and 3B (Glutamine/Serine), and 3C and 3D (Glutamine/Serine)  
270 were consistent with prior findings in kobuviruses carried by other hosts<sup>47,48</sup>, suggesting  
271 considerable conservation of genomic content despite diverse host species.

272

273 We then plotted genome similarity between OP287812 and the most basal Aichivirus A variant,  
274 as well as between OP287812 and the most derived Aichivirus A variant included in our  
275 phylogenies (**Fig. 1C-1D**). We found that OP287812 shares an average nucleotide identity of  
276 53.70% (**Fig. 1C**) and an average amino acid sequence similarity of 74.19% (**Fig. 1D**) to  
277 previously described kobuviruses (NC\_001918 - Human and KJ934637 – Avian), consistent with  
278 BLAST results in which we recover high genome similarity to Aichivirus A variants.

279

280 We conducted additional BLAST searches of OP287812 against publicly available sequences in  
281 NCBI to assess its genomic similarity to previously identified kobuviruses (**Table 2**). Whole-  
282 genome BLASTn searches revealed a top hit to a human kobuvirus (Accession: GQ927711)

283 covering 87.23% of the query and demonstrating 74.10% pairwise identity to OP287812.  
284 Additionally, one BLASTn hit indicated homology to a partial Ghanaian *Eidolon helvum*  
285 kobuvirus sequence, which resolved as basal to canid and human Aichivirus A in phylogenetic  
286 analysis (Accession: JX885611, Peptide: L Peptide, Contig Length: 1,120bp, Query Coverage:  
287 100%, Pairwise Identity: 96.60%)<sup>49</sup>. Most hits indicated homology to Aichivirus A variants and  
288 coincided with findings from our BLASTx search (**Supplemental Table 2**).  
289

<b>Genome Region</b>	<b>Start (nt)</b>	<b>End (nt)</b>	<b>Predicted Protease Cleavage Site</b>	<b>Pairwise Identity %</b>	<b>E-Value</b>	<b>NCBI Accession</b>	<b>Hit Length (bp)</b>
Whole Genome	1	8263	-	74.10%	0	GQ927711	7240
5'UTR	1	679	-	70.70%	8.88E-60	MK671314	657
ORF	680	7984	-	74.70%	0	MW292482	7016
L	680	1234	Q/G	96.60%	0	JX885611	554
VP0	1235	2347	Q/H	77.10%	0	MN648601	1117
VP3	2348	3016	Q/A	78.60%	2.50E-155	MK201778	668
VP1	3017	3742	Q/G	72.20%	5.28E-101	KJ950958	724
2A	3743	4150	Q/G	74.80%	2.85E-63	KJ950958	391
2B	4151	4645	Q/G	76.10%	8.83E-90	MF175074	478
2C	4646	5650	Q/G	78.10%	0	MG200054	995
3A	5651	5929	Q/A	68.40%	1.86E-08	KJ934637	209



3B	5930	6007	Q/G	78.30%	3.94E-06	MT610361	80
3C	6008	6577	Q/S	76.00%	8.40E-110	GQ927706	569
3D	6578	7984	-	81.10%	0	MH052678	1406
3'UTR	7985	8263	-	-	-	-	-

290 **Table 2 – Top BLASTn Hit for OP287812.** Identity percentages, E-Values, corresponding hit  
291 lengths, and NCBI Accessions for the highest-ranking BLASTn hit between OP287812 and  
292 NCBI kobuvirus sequences. Nucleotide lengths for the whole OP287812 genome, including the  
293 ORF, individual proteins, and the UTRs, along with the predicted protease cleavage sites (in  
294 single-letter amino acid code) marking the start and end positions of each protein, are included.  
295 There were not hits observed for the 3'UTR.

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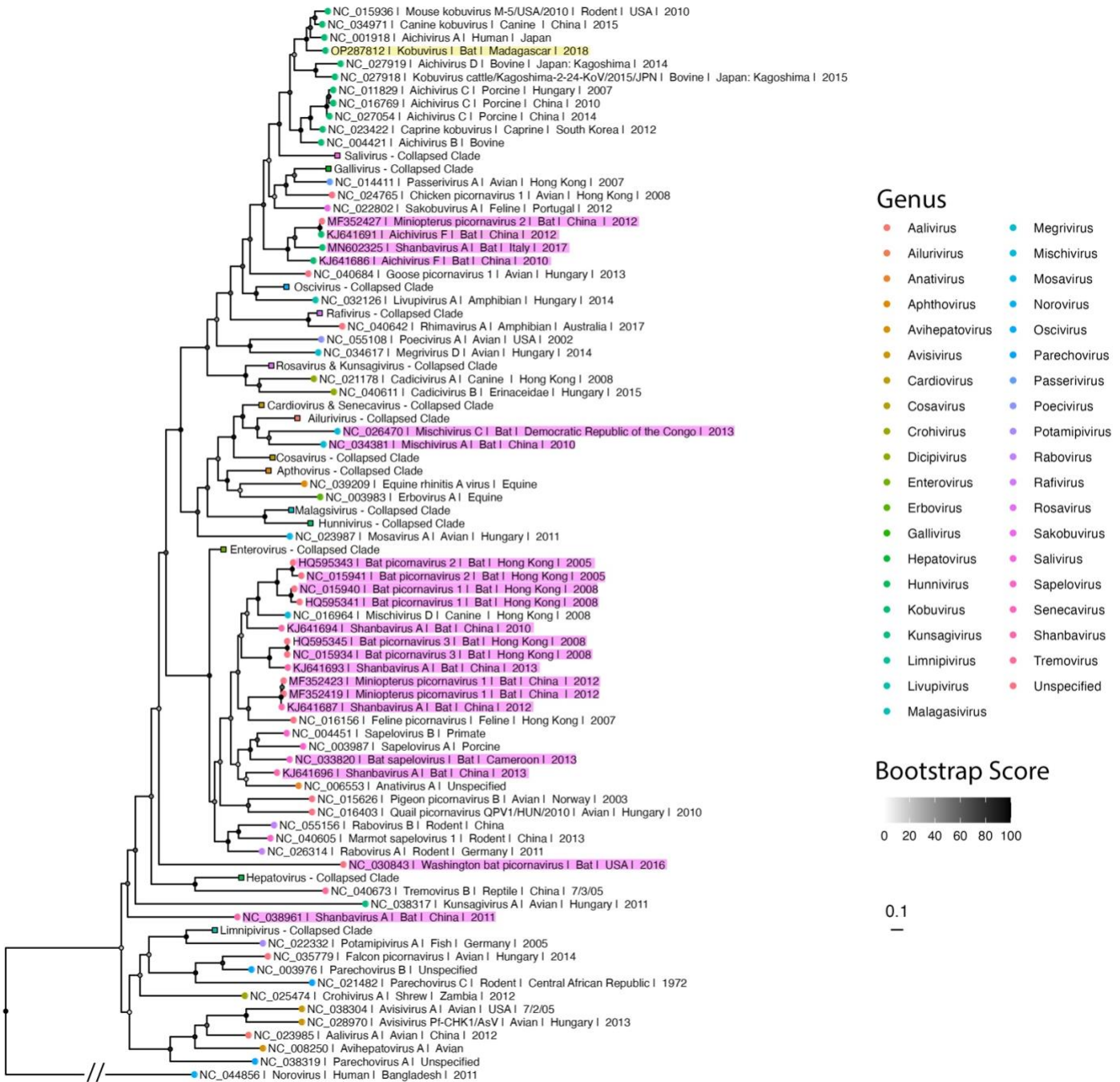
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303

304 *Phylogenetic analysis suggests common ancestry between bat kobuvirus*

305 *OP287812 and Aichivirus A genotypes*



307 **Figure 2 – Phylogenetic analysis of OP287812 among previously identified picornaviruses.**

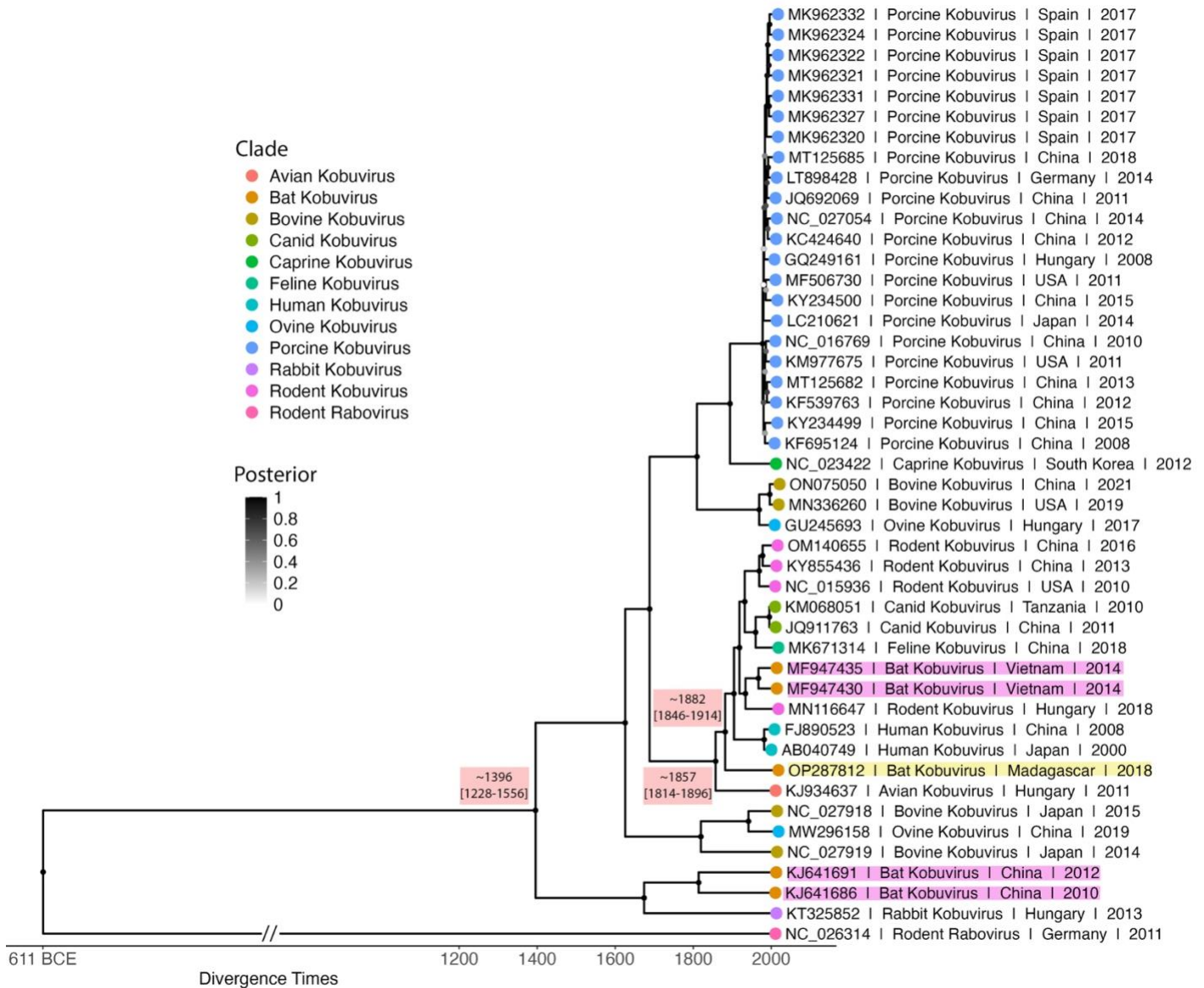
308 Maximum likelihood phylogeny of *Picornaviridae* sequences (nucleotide substitution model:

309 TVM+I+G4). Node color, represented in greyscale, indicates bootstrap support, with darker  
310 shades corresponding to higher support values and lighter shades to lower support values.  
311 OP287812 is highlighted in yellow, while bat *Picornaviridae*, excluding OP287812, are  
312 highlighted in pink. Tip points are colored by broad viral taxonomic groups. Tip labels include  
313 NCBI accession number, virus species or genus, host, geographic origin, and year of  
314 identification, as available from NCBI. Branch lengths are scaled by nucleotide substitutions per  
315 site, noted by the scalebar. The tree is rooted with human norovirus (NC\_044856). The branch  
316 length of this outgroup was shortened to improve phylogenetic tree visualization and is denoted  
317 as such with a double hash.

318

319 We generated a nucleotide-based ML phylogeny for the *Picornaviridae* family, incorporating our  
320 newly identified *E. dupreanum* sequence (OP287812) alongside Picornavirus sequences obtained  
321 from NCBI (**Fig. 2**). OP287812 clustered within the previously described kobuviruses, consistent  
322 with earlier BLAST analyses. Specifically, OP287812 localized within the Aichivirus A  
323 subclade of kobuvirus. This clade received strong support, with a bootstrap value of 100/100.  
324 Notably, previously described bat kobuvirus sequences (Accessions: KJ641691 and  
325 KJ641686)<sup>18,50,51</sup> did not cluster with our Malagasy bat kobuvirus but instead grouped sister to  
326 the clade containing our sequence, with other species in the Aichivirus F clade. We also  
327 constructed a second ML phylogeny focusing specifically on sequences within the kobuvirus  
328 genus. This tree included previously identified bat kobuvirus sequences visualized in our  
329 *Picornaviridae* tree, along with additional bat kobuvirus sequences from Vietnam<sup>11</sup>  
330 (**Supplemental Figure 1**). These sequences also clustered within the Aichivirus A subclade but  
331 grouped separately and were more derived compared to our *E. dupreanum* sequence. Alignment

332 statistics between our novel Malagasy sequences and these previously identified bat kobuviruses  
 333 can be found in **Supplemental Table 3**.



334  
 335 **Figure 3 - Bayesian phylogeny estimating time to MRCA for our novel *Eidolon dupreanum***  
 336 **Kobuvirus (OP287812) and other kobuvirus sequences.** The Bayesian tree was constructed  
 337 with 700 million runs of a strict molecular clock Bayesian Skyline Coalescent model  
 338 (GTR+I+G4), implemented in BEAST2<sup>45,52</sup>. Node color, represented in greyscale, indicates  
 339 posterior support, with darker shades corresponding to higher support values and lighter shades

340 to lower support values after averaging of all 700 million trees after 10% burn-in. OP287812 is  
341 highlighted in yellow, while other bat kobuviruses are highlighted in pink. Tip points are colored  
342 by kobuvirus clade. Tip labels include NCBI accession number, clade, geographic origin, and  
343 year of identification, as available from NCBI. Estimated divergence times, with 95% highest  
344 posterior density (HPD) intervals, are depicted alongside key nodes. The outgroup is rodent  
345 rabovirus (NC\_026314). The branch length of this outgroup was shortened to improve  
346 phylogenetic tree visualization and is denoted as such with a double hash.

347

348 Our time tree (**Fig. 3**) estimated the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) for all kobuviruses  
349 to be in the year 1396 (~628 years ago; 95% HPD: 1228–1556). It also supported the clustering  
350 of our Malagasy kobuvirus among Aichivirus A variants, with OP287812 diverging from its  
351 closest relatives at an MRCA dated to 1882 (~142 years ago; 95% HPD: 1846–1914). This  
352 divergence occurred after an ancestral avian variant (GenBank Accession: KJ934637) diverged  
353 from the lineage approximately in 1857 (~25 years prior; 95% HPD: 1814–1896). These  
354 divergence estimates suggest a relatively recent evolutionary history for kobuviruses

355

## 356 **Discussion**

357 Characterizing virus diversity in wildlife hosts serves as a foundational step towards downstream  
358 comprehensive analysis of host-virus ecology, transmission dynamics, and zoonotic risk. Bats  
359 are critical targets for pathogen surveillance due to their role as reservoirs for numerous zoonotic  
360 viruses, including coronaviruses, filoviruses, and henipaviruses. Effective surveillance in bat  
361 populations not only aids in detecting novel pathogens before they spill over into human

362 populations but also provides key insights into the ecological and evolutionary factors that  
363 influence virus maintenance and transmission within and between species.

364

365 High genetic similarity between kobuviruses found in a variety of diverse mammalian hosts  
366 suggests the potential for interspecies transmission, with specific cross-species transmission  
367 events likely going undetected. For example, phylogenetic analyses provide evidence of shared  
368 kobuvirus ancestry between bat and rodent hosts<sup>11</sup>, bat and rabbit hosts<sup>11</sup>, as well as between cow  
369 and pig hosts<sup>53</sup>. More recently, compelling evidence for cross-species kobuvirus exchange  
370 between hosts has been identified on farms where a novel kobuvirus sequenced from sheep  
371 sampled in a paddock adjacent to a cattle farm, nested with viruses previously identified from the  
372 bovine clade<sup>53,54</sup>. Given the increasing evidence of kobuvirus circulation across diverse animal  
373 hosts, continuous surveillance in bat populations is essential for identifying potential spillover  
374 events early. Bat proximity to humans and livestock increases the opportunities for viral  
375 spillover<sup>29</sup>, and while kobuviruses have not yet been linked to major disease outbreaks, their  
376 evolutionary relationships with viruses in domestic animals suggest they could pose an emerging  
377 zoonotic threat. Understanding the prevalence, diversity, and transmission pathways of  
378 kobuviruses in bats could help mitigate this risk, providing critical insight into the dynamics of  
379 virus evolution and interspecies transmission.

380

381 Madagascar presents a unique environment for virus diversification due to its long isolation and  
382 dual African and Asian phylogeographic history. The high endemicity and unique diversity of  
383 Madagascar's mammalian fauna, combined with widely-practiced wild meat consumption, rapid  
384 population growth, and multiple interacting anthropogenic threats, present considerable

385 opportunity for viral crossover among diverse hosts<sup>55-61</sup>. We observe evolutionary relationships  
386 between Malagasy bat kobuviruses and Aichivirus A genotypes, including previously described  
387 bat kobuviruses<sup>11</sup>. Notably, our newly identified Malagasy bat kobuvirus appears basal to the  
388 vast mammalian host radiation<sup>62</sup> that has since taken place within the Aichivirus A subclade. Our  
389 studies highlight the growing complexity of kobuvirus classification, suggesting that bat  
390 kobuviruses form a polyphyletic group across Aichivirus A and Aichivirus F clades<sup>11,51</sup>. This is  
391 especially concerning considering the potential for bat host coinfection with kobuvirus and other  
392 viruses with significant zoonotic potential, such as coronaviruses and henipaviruses<sup>25,26</sup>. Prior  
393 work has provided robust evidence for interspecies transmission of Aichivirus E kobuviruses  
394 from bats to rabbits<sup>11</sup> and more muted evidence of cross species transmission of Aichivirus A  
395 kobuviruses from bats to rodents<sup>11</sup>. Broadly, high genetic similarity between kobuviruses found  
396 in a variety of mammalian hosts, including humans, suggests the potential for interspecies  
397 transmission, with specific cross-species transmission events likely going undetected. For  
398 example, phylogenetic analysis provide evidence of shared kobuvirus ancestry between bovine  
399 and porcine hosts, though definitive spillover has not yet been demonstrated<sup>53</sup>. Our findings fill a  
400 critical gap in understanding the diversity of kobuviruses in bats, emphasizing the need for  
401 enhanced surveillance in this unique ecological context.

402

403 Understanding the geographical distribution of bat kobuviruses is crucial for elucidating their  
404 evolutionary dynamics and potential zoonotic risks. A significant geographical bias in sampling  
405 is evident in the study of bat kobuviruses. For instance, previously described bat kobuvirus  
406 sequences used in our analyses (MF947429-MF947440 – *Scotophilus kuhlii*, KJ641691 –  
407 *Miniopterus fuliginosus*, KJ641686 – *Myotis ricketti*) were exclusively recovered from fecal

408 samples of Asian bat species<sup>11,63</sup>. Madagascar's unique dual African and Asian evolutionary  
409 history may hold keys to understanding ancestral forms of bat kobuviruses and *Picornaviridae*  
410 more broadly. To fill these gaps, ongoing surveillance and additional sequencing data from  
411 diverse regions are essential. Such efforts could yield critical insights into the complex  
412 evolutionary histories and spatial dynamics that have shaped the trajectory of bat kobuviruses.  
413  
414 Our comparative analyses indicate conservation within genomic regions responsible for viral  
415 entry and replication<sup>51,64,65</sup>, such as VP1 and RdRP regions, between OP287812 and previously  
416 identified kobuviruses. Given these findings, it is crucial to explore the zoonotic potential of  
417 these Malagasy bat kobuviruses further. To advance our understanding, future studies should  
418 implement existing PCR protocols targeting the RdRp gene<sup>64,66</sup> in RNA extracted from bat fecal  
419 samples. This approach will enable us to conduct longitudinal studies that build time series of  
420 infections, thereby elucidating the viral dynamics - such as transmission pathways and seasonal  
421 prevalence – that underlie the persistence of this pathogen in bat hosts.

422

## 423 **Conclusion**

424 mNGS-based surveillance for bat viruses has resulted in incredibly diverse datasets, allowing for  
425 novel insights into wild bat virus ecology and evolution<sup>25–27,63,67,68</sup>. Here, we expand the known  
426 host and geographic range of kobuviruses to include *E. dupreanum* fruit bats of Madagascar,  
427 thereby expanding our understanding of bat-borne kobuviruses in the region. We describe the  
428 most complete bat kobuvirus genome identified to date, offering a glimpse into the origin and  
429 diversification of the kobuvirus genus more broadly. We find that bat kobuviruses in Madagascar  
430 phylogenetically nest among Aichivirus A genotypes and are highly divergent from previously



431 described bat kobuviruses. Genome similarity analyses demonstrate significant conservation of  
432 kobuvirus genomic content across clades, particularly in regions of the virus genome involved in  
433 virus entry and replication. Further analyses are needed to determine whether this trend holds for  
434 other kobuviruses obtained from bats in various geographic landscapes, including unsampled  
435 species within Madagascar, or if the high identity between bat- and human-hosted kobuviruses  
436 identified here is unique to the region. While we did not identify kobuviruses in other sampled  
437 species (*P. rufus* and *R. madagascariensis*), these species should remain a focus of future  
438 sampling efforts, as their inclusion is essential for understanding the full ecological and  
439 evolutionary dynamics of bat kobuviruses. Moreover, our discovery of a partial kobuvirus  
440 genome in a second *E. dupreanum* bat highlights the need for more comprehensive sampling.  
441 Given the high rates of human-bat contact in Madagascar<sup>69</sup>, our findings raise concern for public  
442 health. We strongly advocate for enhanced surveillance and detection efforts to further elucidate  
443 the ecology of these viruses in their wild bat hosts, as well as other animal hosts, as these efforts  
444 are critical for understanding their potential impact on both wildlife conservation and zoonotic  
445 disease transmission.

446

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					Predicted N-Terminal Cleavage Site	% Similarity to Reference Sequence	Reference Sequence Description
<b>Polyprotein</b>	<b>Start</b>	<b>End</b>	<b>Length</b>				
5'UTR	1	679	679				
ORF	680	7984	7305			71.37%; (JN387133)	Canine
L	680	1234	555	Q/G			
VP0	1235	2347	1113	Q/H		71.17%; (FJ890523)	Aichivirus 1
VP3	2348	3016	669	Q/A		78.42%; (FJ890523)	Aichivirus 1
VP1	3017	3742	726	Q/G		67.72%; (JQ898342)	KobuV Sewage Isola
2A	3743	4150	408	Q/G		70.10%; (MH747478)	Canine
2B	4151	4645	495	Q/G		75.35%; (JQ898342)	KobuV Sewage Isola
2C	4646	5650	1005	Q/G		77.41%; (FJ890523)	Aichivirus 1
3A	5651	5929	279	Q/A		65.37%; (MH747478)	Canine
3B	5930	6007	78	Q/G		67.07%; (JN387133)	Canine