



Bovine coronavirus infections in Turkey: molecular analysis of the full-length spike gene sequences of viruses from digestive and respiratory infections

Secil Sevinc Temizkan¹ · Feray Alkan^{1,2}

Received: 10 January 2021 / Accepted: 3 May 2021 / Published online: 1 July 2021
© The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer-Verlag GmbH Austria, part of Springer Nature 2021

Abstract

Bovine coronavirus (BCoV) can be spread by animal activity. Although cattle farming is widespread in Turkey, there are few studies of BCoV. The aim of this study was to evaluate the current situation regarding BCoV in Turkey. This is the first study reporting the full-length nucleotide sequences of BCoV spike (S) genes in Turkey. Samples were collected from 119 cattle with clinical signs of respiratory (n = 78) or digestive tract (n = 41) infection on different farms located across widely separated provinces in Turkey. The samples were screened for BCoV using RT-nested PCR targeting the N gene, which identified BCoV in 35 samples (9 faeces and 26 nasal discharge). RT-PCR analysis of the S gene produced partial/full-length S gene sequences from 11 samples (8 faeces and 3 nasal discharge samples). A phylogenetic tree of the S gene sequences was made to analyze the genetic relationships among BCoVs from Turkey and other countries. The results showed that the local strains present in faeces and nasal discharge samples had many different amino acid changes. Some of these changes were shown in previous studies to be critical for tropism. This study provides new data on BCoV in Turkey that will be valuable in designing effective vaccine approaches and control strategies.

Introduction

Coronaviruses, which cause infections in many species, including humans, have gained importance among zoonotic viruses in the last decade due to SARS coronavirus (SARS-CoV) and MERS-CoV infections and the recent COVID-19 pandemic caused by a novel coronavirus named SARS coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) [1–3]. In animals, coronaviruses are etiologically associated with enteric and respiratory diseases across a wide range of mammalian and avian species. Bovine coronavirus (BCoV) is mainly recognized as a cause of severe neonatal calf diarrhea, respiratory tract illnesses in calves, and winter dysentery in adult cattle, which cause economic losses to the livestock industry [4–6].

BCoV belongs to the species *Betacoronavirus 1*, which was recently assigned by the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV) to the order *Nidovirales*, suborder *Cornidovirineae*, family *Coronaviridae*, subfamily *Orthocoronavirinae*, genus *Betacoronavirus*, and subgenus *Embecovirus* [7]. The BCoV genome is a linear, single-stranded RNA with 31,028 bases [8]. There are five structural genes, encoding the phosphorylated nucleocapsid (N) protein, the integral membrane (M) protein, the small membrane (E) protein, the hemagglutinin/esterase (HE) protein, and the spike (S) glycoprotein [9]. The S glycoprotein is cleaved into S1 (N-terminal) and S2 (C-terminal) subunits by an intracellular protease [10]. The S glycoprotein has two main biological functions: viral attachment to target cells and fusion of viral and cellular membranes [11–13]. S1 is responsible for attaching the large receptor binding domain of the S protein to cell receptors, and it is responsible for induction of neutralizing antibodies and for hemagglutination activity. The S2 protein mediates the fusion of viral and cellular membranes by forming a spear-like stem. While the S2 subunit is highly conserved, the S1 subunit is more variable among BCoV isolates [6, 13–15]. Mutational changes in amino acid composition in cleavage sites may have a significant effect on tissue and cell tropism and pathogenicity.

Handling Editor: Pablo Pineyro.

✉ Secil Sevinc Temizkan
sevinc@ankara.edu.tr

¹ Department of Virology, Graduate School of Health Sciences, Ankara University, Ankara, Turkey

² Department of Virology, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ankara University, Ankara, Turkey

Although BCoV was reported in Turkey before 2011, the first detailed molecular study was conducted by Alkan et al. [16], who determined the partial sequence of the S gene from two faecal samples. While there have been seroprevalence studies over many years, no detailed molecular studies have yet been conducted.

Accordingly, the first aim of this research was to determine the full-length S gene sequences of BCoV strains in Turkey, which could be valuable for designing vaccination approaches and control strategies. The study's second aim was to investigate the possible interaction of digestive and respiratory BCoV.

Materials and methods

Sampling

A total of 119 samples were obtained from cattle suspected of BCoV infection from different farms in widely distributed provinces of Turkey between 2001 and 2019 (Fig. 1). Faecal samples ($n = 41$) were obtained from animals aged four days to 15 months, while nasal discharge samples ($n = 78$) were obtained from animals aged seven days to ≥ 5 years. Details of sample information are summarized in Supplement 1.

Samples were diluted 1:10 (v/v and w/v for nasal discharge and faeces, respectively) in phosphate-buffered saline solution and centrifuged at $906 \times g$ for 20 minutes at 4°C . The supernatants were collected and stored at -80°C .

RNA extraction and reverse transcription

Viral RNA was extracted using TRIzol® LS Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific), following the manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription (RT) was carried out using a Geneall® HyperScript™ First-Strand Synthesis Kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. All RNAs and cDNAs were stored at -80°C .

Polymerase chain reaction for the N and S gene regions of local BCoV isolates

To investigate the presence of BCoV, a nested PCR assay targeting the N gene region was carried out using primers and methods described previously [17]. All PCR reactions were performed using Thermo Scientific DreamTaq DNA Polymerase in a Biometra (Germany) thermal cycler.

For the first round of nested PCR for N gene amplification, $2.5 \mu\text{l}$ of cDNA was added to a mixture of $2.5 \mu\text{l}$ of 10X DreamTaq buffer, $0.5 \mu\text{l}$ of 10 mM dNTP mix, $1 \mu\text{l}$ of 10 μM primers (BCoV N-F/BCoV N-R), $0.25 \mu\text{l}$ of DreamTaq DNA polymerase (5 U / μl), and $17.25 \mu\text{l}$ of nuclease-free water per sample. PCR was performed according to the following protocol: an initial step of 3 minutes at 95°C , followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 seconds, 50°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C for 1 minute, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 minutes. The second round was conducted with the same master mix, using the primers nBCoV N-F/nBCoV N-R with the same thermal profile but with a different annealing temperature (58°C). The samples showing positive results for the N gene were used for the S gene amplification (4,112



Fig. 1 Map showing the provinces where samples were collected in this study. Numbers indicate the number of samples from each location.

bp) with various primer pairs as reported previously [1, 6, 18] (Supplement 2).

PCR for amplification of the S gene region was conducted using the same master mix with different primers (Supplement 2). PCR was performed according to the following protocol: an initial step of 3 minutes at 95 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 95 °C for 30 seconds, 51–58 °C for 30 seconds for the different reactions (Supplement 2), and 72 °C for 1 minute, and a final extension at 72 °C for 10 minutes. Each amplicon was analyzed on a 1% agarose gel stained with Safeview™ Classic (NextGen Life Sciences Private Limited), using 1 µl of 100-bp marker (Fermentas, Lithuania) to determine the product size.

Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis

Sequence analysis of the PCR products was performed by a commercial company (BM Labosis, BM Lab. Schist. Ltd. Sti. Ankara, Turkey). The obtained sequences were identified using BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool), provided on the NCBI (National Center for Biotechnology Information) web page. Sequences were aligned using Aliview software [19], using viral reference sequences from the GenBank database [9, 20]. Following alignment, amino acid sequences were deduced and sequence variation tables were created using MEGA X and Aliview software, based on the nucleotide sequences. The sequences were submitted to the GenBank database under accession numbers MK787427–MK787439 and MK989614–MK989619 for the N gene and S gene sequences, respectively, as shown in Table 1. Nucleotide sequence comparisons were performed using the SIAS [21] web tool. The phylogenetic relationships between partial or full-length nucleotide sequences of the S gene and the predicted amino acid sequences of the

local isolates and various BCoV strains from other countries (Fig. 2; Supplement 3) were analyzed using the minimum-evolution methodology in MEGA X software. Minimum-evolution trees were computed with p-distance parameters, while confidence levels were estimated using 1,000 bootstrap replicates.

Results

Detection of BCoV

Thirty-five samples out of 119 tested positive for N gene fragments (407 bp). The gel electrophoresis results for several amplicons are presented in Supplement 4. The positivity rates for the faecal and nasal discharge samples were 21.9% (9/41) and 33.3% (26/78), respectively.

Molecular characterization of the S gene and phylogenetic analysis

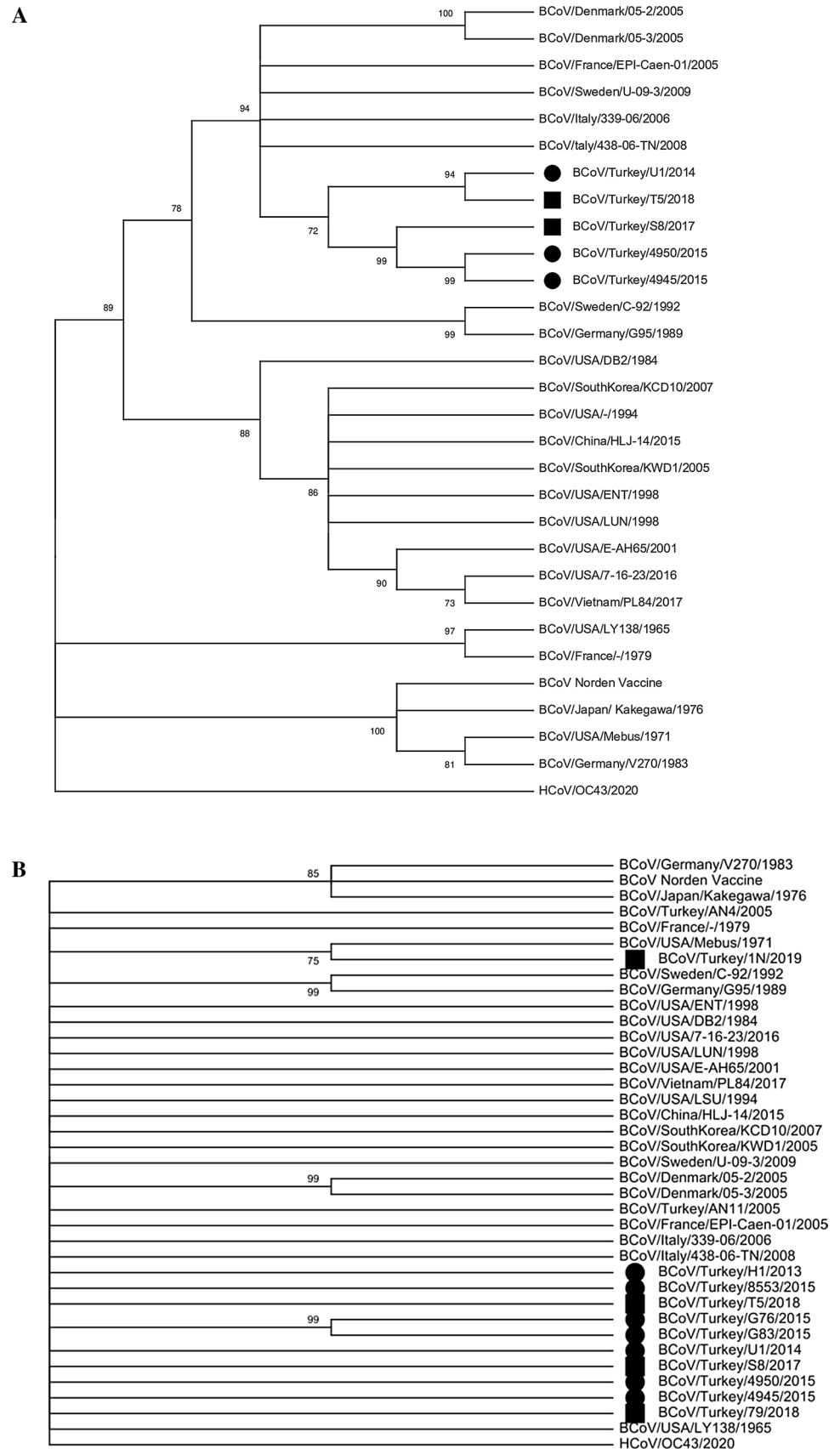
S gene PCR results were evaluated for the 35 BCoV-positive samples, although not all samples were amplicon positive. As shown in Table 1, the full-length S gene sequence was obtained from five samples (3 faecal and 2 nasal discharge samples) while various partial S gene fragment sequences were obtained from six samples (4 faecal and 2 nasal discharge samples). The 488-bp S1 region, which plays a critical role in tropism and antigenicity, was amplified from 11 samples (5 full-length), using S1 primers (Supplement 2). The S1 region was therefore used for nucleotide and amino acid sequence comparisons and phylogenetic analysis. The gel electrophoresis results for some of the amplicons are presented in Supplement 5.

Table 1 Accession numbers of partial and full-length sequences of the S gene of local BCoV isolates. Because the partially sequenced region of S1 (488 bp) was located in the region amplified using the

SC and SD primers, an additional accession number was not taken. Faecal samples are indicated by an asterisk (*).

BCoV isolate name	Primer pair										
	SA	SB	SC	SD	SE	SF	SG	SH	S1		
BCoV/Turkey/4950/2015 *	MK989620										+
BCoV/Turkey/4945/2015 *	MK989621										+
BCoV/Turkey/U1/2014 *	MK989622										+
BCoV/Turkey/S8/2017	MK989624										+
BCoV/Turkey/T5/2018	MK989623										+
BCoV/Turkey/G76/2015 *	MK989628				-	MK989629					+
BCoV/Turkey/G83/2015 *	MK989630		MK989631	-	-	MK989632					+
BCoV/Turkey/H1/2013 *	-	-	MK989633	-	-	-	MK989634				+
BCoV/Turkey/79/2018	MK989627			-	-	-	-	-	-		+
BCoV/Turkey/8553/2015 *	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		MK989626
BCoV/Turkey/1N/2019	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		MK989625

Fig. 2 Rooted phylogenetic trees constructed using full-length (A) and partial (B) S gene nucleic acid sequences of local BCoV isolates from Turkey and reference BCoV strains from other countries. The trees were constructed using the minimum-evolution method with bootstrap values calculated for 1000 replicates. Values greater than 70% are indicated. The strains from faecal and nasal discharge samples are indicated by black circles and squares, respectively.



The deduced amino acid sequences obtained from the amplicons exhibited differences when compared to the Mebus strain. Notably, all samples with one exception (BCoV/Turkey/1N/2019, accession no. MK989625) had several amino acid differences (Table 2). Most were synonymous mutations that had been reported previously in other local sequences (GQ259978 and GQ259979) [16]. No frameshift mutations, deletions, insertions, or recombinations were found in our study. In addition, there was no association between the nucleotide or amino acid changes and the type of material from which the virus originated (Table 2).

The nucleotide and amino acid sequences from the faecal samples (n = 3) were 97.6-99.0% and 96.9-98.2% identical, respectively, and those from the nasal discharge samples (n = 2) were 97.8% and 97.7% identical, respectively. The nucleotide and amino acid sequences of the full-length S genes (n = 5) were 97.4-99.0% and 96.9-98.2% identical,

respectively, to each other and 96.9-97.5% and 97.3-97.9% identical, respectively, to those of the Mebus strain from faeces and the LSU strain obtained from nasal discharge. Identity rates were also calculated by SIAS for the partial sequences 488 (bp) from local strains. The partial S1 gene sequences (n = 11) showed 90.92-100% nucleotide sequence identity and 87.4-100% amino acid sequence identity to each other, and 94.78-99.11% and 96.23-97.72% nucleotide identity to the Mebus and LSU strains, respectively. The nucleotide and amino acid sequences of the faecal samples (n = 7) were 90.92-100% and 90.5-100% identical, respectively, and those from nasal discharge samples (n = 4) were 95.13-98.75% and 90-96.8% identical, respectively.

A phylogenetic tree was constructed based on full-length (4,112) and partial (488 bp) S gene sequences from local BCoV with other randomly selected BCoV S gene sequences from around the world (Supplement 3), as shown in Fig. 2A and B. A phylogenetic tree based on amino acid

Table 2 Amino acid variations in the BCoVs S protein.

Asterisks (*) represent amino acids that are identical to those of the reference sequence. The strains investigated in this study are indicated in bold.

Strain/isolate name	458	465	470	484	499	501	509	525	531	543	571	608
BCoV/USA/Mebus/1971	F	V	H	S	N	P	N	H	N	S	Y	D
BCoV/Turkey/1N/2019	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	-
BCoV/Turkey/4950/2015	*	A	D	T	S	S	T	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Turkey/4945/2015	*	A	D	T	S	S	T	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Turkey/U1/2014	S	A	D	T	S	S	T	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Turkey/G76/2015	S	A	D	T	S	S	T	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Turkey/G83/2015	S	A	D	T	S	S	T	Y	D	A	H	-
BCoV/Turkey/H1/2013	*	A	D	T	S	S	*	Y	D	A	H	-
BCoV/Turkey/8553/2015	S	A	D	T	S	S	T	Y	D	A	H	-
BCoV/Turkey/T5/2018	S	A	D	T	S	S	T	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Turkey/S8/2017	*	A	D	T	S	S	*	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Turkey/79/2018	*	A	D	T	S	S	T	Y	D	A	H	-
BCoV/Turkey/AN4/2005	S	A	*	T	*	S	*	*	D	*	*	-
BCoV/Turkey/AN11/2005	S	A	*	T	S	S	*	Y	D	G	H	-
BCoV/USA/LY138/1965	S	*	D	T	S	S	*	*	*	*	*	*
BCoV/China/HLJ-14/2015	S	A	D	T	*	S	*	*	D	A	*	*
BCoV/Denmark/05-2/2005	S	A	D	T	S	F	*	*	D	A	H	G
BCoV/France/-/1979	S	*	D	T	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
BCoV/S.Korea/KCD10/2007	S	A	D	T	S	S	*	*	D	A	*	*
BCoV/Sweden/C-92/1992	S	A	D	T	T	*	T	*	D	*	H	G
BCoV/Italy/339-06/2006	S	A	*	T	T	S	*	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Japan/Kakegawa/1976	S	*	D	T	*	*	*	*	D	*	*	*
BCoV/Vietnamese/PL84/2017	S	A	D	T	S	S	H	*	D	A	H	*
BCoV/USA/LSU/1994	S	A	D	T	S	S	*	*	G	A	*	*
BCoV/Germany/G95/1989	S	A	D	T	T	*	T	*	D	*	H	G
BCoV/Denmark/05-3/2005	S	A	D	T	S	F	*	*	D	A	H	G
BCoV/France/EPICaen01/2005	S	A	D	T	S	S	*	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/S.Korea/KWD1/2005	S	A	D	T	S	S	*	*	D	A	*	*
BCoV/Sweden/U-09-3/2009	S	A	D	T	S	S	*	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Italy/438-06TN/2008	S	A	D	T	S	S	*	Y	D	A	H	G
BCoV/Germany/V270/1983	S	*	*	T	*	*	*	*	D	*	*	*

sequences showed no differences between the local viruses (data not shown).

Discussion

In this study, faeces and nasal discharge samples were collected from cattle with suspected BCoV infection from various regions in Turkey ($n = 119$). Analysis by RT-PCR specific for the S gene region revealed that 21.9% (9/41) of the faecal samples and 33.3% (26/78) of the nasal discharge samples were positive. Previous studies conducted in Turkey reported significant numbers of BCoV cases alongside infections with many other enteropathogens in cases of calf diarrhoea [22–28]. Furthermore, faecal-based serological studies have shown that BCoV is prevalent in cattle in Turkey [16, 26, 28–32], while two studies have shown that is associated with nasal discharge in Turkey [29, 33]. The prevalence of BCoV in our study is consistent with that reported previously in Turkey and in various other regions worldwide [5, 34–40].

Numerous studies based on partial or full-length S gene sequences have been conducted to determine and compare the biological, antigenic, and genetic characteristics of BCoV strains obtained from cattle with respiratory and enteric infections [1, 18, 41, 42] and have shown that the viruses affecting both systems are identical, with dual tropism [5, 17, 18]. The deduced amino acid sequences corresponding to the region of the S gene sequenced in the present study were 87.4–100% identical to each other and 94.78–99.11% identical to those of selected reference strains. Phylogenetic trees (Fig. 2) constructed based on partial and full-length sequences of the S gene region indicated that respiratory or digestive system origin of the samples made no significant difference in their placement in the phylogenetic tree, and the amino acid sequence identity values were similar to those reported in other studies worldwide [9, 20, 34, 35, 40, 41].

The S1 subunit of the S protein enables the virus to bind to host cell receptors, and it also stimulates neutralizing antibody synthesis and is responsible for hemagglutinin activity [12, 15, 43]. Thus, changes in this subunit could significantly affect antigenicity and pathogenicity [44]. In the present study, the S1 subunit exhibited more genetic variability than the S2 subunit (Table 2), as has been reported previously in Turkey [16] and in other countries [18, 45, 46].

Mutations make a significant contribution to the survival of infectious agents in nature. While many mutations do not notably change the structure of the virus, some may enable cross-species transmission or increase transmissibility. One of the most recent and striking examples is the SARS-CoV-2 S1 region 614 (D → G) mutation, which increases its infectivity [47]. A six-amino acid deletion

(aa 526–531) found in Brazilian BCoV strains is identical to one found in human coronavirus (HCoV) OC43 [1]. We also observed multiple changes in the S amino acid sequences of local BCoV isolates. Moreover, there were some persistent changes in the S gene sequences, as seen in the amino acid variation table based on the reference strain Mebus, the study sequences, and two previously reported local viruses (GQ259978 and GQ259979). Additionally, there were similar persistent changes in different countries (Table 2), although one sample (BCoV/Turkey/IN/2019, accession number MK989625), did not show these changes but had the same partial sequence as Mebus. This may be due to vaccination shortly before sampling, although this cannot be evaluated, because no information was available. However, it should be noted that only a partial sequence fragment (488 bp) was analyzed.

Vaccination plays a crucial role in protection against infections. Among the factors affecting the success of vaccination is the level of antigenic similarity between the vaccine strain and local strains. Antigenic differences may increase due to serotype differences and variations from spontaneous mutations. Previous studies have shown that a single amino acid change in BCoV (528A → V) may cause resistance to neutralization [12]. We found no 528A → V mutations in our local BCoV sequences. Consequently, the data suggest that the present vaccines should be protective at a certain level, although further studies should be conducted to determine whether amino acid changes in the antigenic domains of local viruses could lead to resistance.

Conclusions

This is the first report of full-length BCoV S gene sequences from Turkey. The sequencing results demonstrate once again that the same BCOVs strains affect both the digestive and respiratory systems. The local strains were very similar to previously reported strains. Moreover, we found only insignificant sequence differences between the local strains and those used for vaccination. Thus, this study confirms that BCoV persists widely in Turkey and suggests that the current vaccines will remain protective at a certain level.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00705-021-05147-2>.

Acknowledgements This manuscript represents part of a thesis submitted by SST to the Department of Virology, Graduate School of Health Sciences, Ankara University, in fulfillment of the requirements for a Ph.D. degree.

Funding This project was funded by the Ankara University Scientific Research Projects Coordination Unit (Project no. 18L0239002).

Declarations

Conflict of interest All authors declare that there are no financial or other relationships that might lead to a conflict of interest. All authors have seen and approved the manuscript and have contributed significantly to the work.

Ethical approval This study was approved by the ethics committee of Ankara University with document number 2017-15-127.

References

- Brandao PE, Gregori F, Richtzenhain LJ, Rosales CAR, Villarreal LYB, Jerez JA (2006) Molecular analysis of Brazilian strains of bovine coronavirus (BCoV) reveals a deletion within the hyper-variable region of the S1 subunit of the spike glycoprotein also found in human coronavirus OC43. *Arch Virol* 151:1735–1748. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00705-006-0752-9>
- Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, Ren L, Zhao J, Hu Y, Zhang L, Fan G, Xu J, Gu X, Cheng Z, Yu T, Xia J, Wei Y, Wu W, Xie X, Yin W, Li H, Liu M, Xiao Y, Gao H, Guo L, Xie J, Wang G, Jiang R, Gao Z, Jin Q, Wang J, Cao B (2020) Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. *Lancet* 395(10223):497–506. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30183-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30183-5)
- Song Z, Yanfeng X, Bao L, Zhang L, Yu P, Qu Y, Zhu H, Zhao W, Han Y, Qin C (2019) From SARS to MERS, thrusting coronaviruses into the spotlight. *Viruses*. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v11010059>
- Anthony SJ, Johnson CK, Greig DJ, Kramer S, Che X, Wells H, Hicks AL, Joly DO, Wolfe ND, Daszak P, Karesh W, Lipkin WI, Morse SS, Predict Consortium, Mazet JAK, Golstein T (2017) Global patterns in coronavirus diversity. *Virus Evol* 3(1):1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ve/vex012>
- Beutemuller EA, Alfieri AF, Headley SA, Alfieri AA (2017) Brazilian strain of bovine respiratory coronavirus is derived from dual enteric and respiratory tropism. *Genet Mol Res* 16(2):1–7. <https://doi.org/10.4238/gmr16029580>
- Martinez N, Brandao PE, Souza SP, Barrera M, Santana N, Arce HD, Perez LJ (2012) Molecular and phylogenetic analysis of bovine coronavirus based on the spike glycoprotein gene. *Infect Genet Evol* 12:1870–1878. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid.2012.05.007>
- ICTV (2016) International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses. <https://talk.ictvonline.org/taxonomy/>. Accessed 05 June 2018
- Maclachlan NJ, Dubovi EJ (2011) Fenner's Veterinary Virology, 4th edn. Academic Press Elsevier, New York
- Chouljenko VN, Kousoulas KG, Lin X, Storz J (1998) Nucleotide and predicted amino acid sequences of all genes encoded by the 3' genomic portion (9.5 kb) of respiratory bovine coronaviruses and comparisons among respiratory and enteric coronaviruses. *Virus Genes* 17(1):33–42. <https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1008048916808>
- Saif LJ (2010) Bovine respiratory coronavirus. *Vet Clin N Am Food Anim Pract* 26(2):349–364. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cvfa.2010.04.005>
- Beniac DR, Andonov A, Grudeski E, Booth TF (2006) Architecture of the SARS coronavirus prefusion spike. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* 13(8):751–752. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nsmb1123>
- Yoo D, Deregt D (2001) A single amino acid change within antigenic domain II of the spike protein of bovine coronavirus confers resistance to virus neutralization. *Clin Diagn Lab Immunol* 8:297–302. <https://doi.org/10.1128/CDLI.8.2.297-302.2001>
- Yoo DW, Parker MD, Babiuk LA (1991) The S2 subunit of the spike glycoprotein of bovine coronavirus mediates membrane fusion in insect cells. *Virology* 180(1):395–399. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0042-6822\(91\)90045-D](https://doi.org/10.1016/0042-6822(91)90045-D)
- Fehr AR, Perlman S (2015) Coronaviruses: an overview of their replication and pathogenesis. *Methods Mol Biol* 1282:1–23. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-2438-7_1
- Kubo H, Yamada YK, Taguchi F (1994) Localization of neutralizing epitopes and the receptor-binding site within the amino-terminal 330 amino acids of the murine coronavirus spike protein. *J Virol* 68(9):5403–5410. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.68.9.5403-5410.1994>
- Alkan F, Ozkul A, Bilge-Dagalp S, Karaoglu T, Oguzoglu TC, Caliskan E, Burgu I (2011) The detection and genetic characterization based on the S1 gene region of BCoVs from respiratory and enteric infections in Turkey. *Transbound Emerg Dis* 58(2):179–185. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1865-1682.2010.01194.x>
- Cho KO, Hasoksuz M, Nielsen PR, Chang KO, Lathrop S, Saif LJ (2001) Cross-protection studies between respiratory and calf diarrhea and winter dysentery coronavirus strains in calves and RT-PCR and nested PCR for their detection. *Arch Virol* 146:2401–2419. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s007050170011>
- Hasoksuz M, Sreevatsan S, Cho KO, Hoet AE, Saif LJ (2002) Molecular analysis of the S1 subunit of the spike glycoprotein of respiratory and enteric bovine coronavirus isolates. *Virus Res* 84:101–109. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1702\(02\)00004-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1702(02)00004-7)
- Larsson A (2014) Aliview: a fast and lightweight alignment viewer and editor for large datasets. *Bioinformatics* 30:3276–3278. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu531>
- Mebus CA, White RG, Stair EL, Rhodes MB, Twiehaus MJ (1972) Neonatal calf diarrhea: results of a field trial using a re-live virus vaccine. *Vet Med Small Anim Clin* 67:173–178
- SIAS (2020) Sequence identity and similarity. <http://imed.med.ucm.es/Tools/sias.html/>. Accessed 06 Jan 2020
- Alkan F (1998) Buzağı ishallerinde rotavirus ve coronavirusların rolü. *Ankara Univ Vet Fak Derg* 45:29–37
- Cabalar M, Kaya A, Arslan S (2007) Yeni doğan buzağların ishal olgularında rotavirus ve coronavirus araştırılması. *Vet Bil Derg* 23(3–4):103–106
- Erdogan HM, Unver A, Gunes V, Cital M (2003) Frequency of rotavirus and coronavirus in neonatal calves in Kars district. *Kafkas Univ Vet Fak Derg* 9(1):65–68
- Gumusova SO, Yazıcı Z, Albayrak H, Meral Y (2007) Rotavirus and coronavirus prevalence in healthy calves and calves with diarrhea. *Medycyna Wet* 63:62–64
- Hasircioglu S (2005) Buzağlarda enterik BCoV enfeksiyonlarının araştırılması ve epidemiyolojide klinik olarak sağlıklı sığırların rolü. <http://acikerisim.selcuk.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/5050/163292.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>. Accessed 31 Mar 2019.
- Kozat S, Tuncay I (2018) Prevalance of rotavirus, coronavirus, *Cryptosporidium* spp., *Escherichia coli* K 99, and *Giardia lamblia* pathogens in neonatal calves with diarrheic in Siirt Region. *Van Vet J* 29(1):17–22
- Yavru S, Yapıcı O, Kale M, Sahinduran S, Pehlivanoglu F, Albay MK, Avcı O (2016) Bovine coronavirus (BoCV) infection in calves with diarrhoea and their dams. *Acta Sci Vet* 44:1–7
- Hasoksuz M, Kayar A, Dodurka T, Ilgaz A (2005) Detection of respiratory and enteric shedding of bovine coronaviruses in cattle in Northwestern Turkey. *Acta Vet Hung* 53:137–146
- Saklı GU (2017) İshalli buzağı dışkılarında sığır coronavirusu ve sığır rotavirusunun hızlı tanı kiti ve rt-pcr ile araştırılması. <http://acikerisim.selcuk.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/10176/462482.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>. Accessed 31 Mar 2019

31. Tokgoz BS, Ozdemir R, Turut N, Mirioglu M (2013) Adana Bölgesinde Görülen Neonatal Buzağı Enfeksiyonlarının Morbidite ve Mortalitetleri ve Risk Faktörlerinin Belirlenmesi. *AVKAE Derg* 3(1):7–14
32. Yıldırım Y, Dagalp SB, Tan MT, Kalaycıoğlu AT (2008) Seroprevalence of the rotavirus and coronavirus infections in cattle. *J Anim Vet Adv* 7:1320–1323
33. Timurkan MO, Aydın H, Belen S (2015) Erzurum Bölgesinde Sığırlarda Respiratorik Coronavirus Enfeksiyonunun RT-PCR ile Tespiti ve Moleküler Karakterizasyonu. *Atatürk Üni Vet Bil Derg* 10(3):186–192
34. Bidokhti MR, Traven M, Krishna NK, Munir M, Belak S, Alenius S, Cortey M (2013) Evolutionary dynamics of bovine coronaviruses: natural selection pattern of the spike gene implies adaptive evolution of the strains. *J Gen Virol* 94(9):2036–2049
35. Boireau P, Cruciere C, Laporte J (1990) Nucleotide sequence of the glycoprotein S gene of bovine enteric coronavirus and comparison with the S proteins of two mouse hepatitis virus strains. *J Gen Virol* 71(2):487–492
36. Decaro N, Elia G, Campolo M, Desario C, Mari V, Radogna A, Colaianni ML, Cirone F, Tempesta M, Buonavoglia C (2008) Detection of bovine coronavirus using a TaqMan-based realtime RT-PCR assay. *J Virol Methods* 151:167–171
37. Gunn L, Collins PJ, O'connello'shea MJH (2015) Phylogenetic investigation of enteric bovine coronavirus in Ireland reveals partitioning between European and global strains. *Ir Vet J* 68(31):1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13620-015-0060-3>
38. Park SJ, Kim GY, Choy HE, Hong YJ, Saif LJ, Jeong JH, Park SI, Kim HH, Kim SK, Shin SS, Kang MI, Cho KO (2007) Dual enteric and respiratory tropisms of winter dysentery bovine coronavirus in calves. *Arch Virol* 152(10):1885–1900. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00705-007-1005-2>
39. Fernandes AM, Brandao PE, Lima MS, Martins MSN, Silva TG, Pinto VSC, Paula LT, Vicente MES, Okuda LH, Pituco EM (2018) Genetic diversity of BCoV in Brazilian cattle herds. *Vet Med Sci* 4:183–189. <https://doi.org/10.1002/vms3.102>
40. Shin J, Tark D, Le VP, Choe S, Cha RM, Park GN, Cho IS, Nga BTT, Lan NT, An DJ (2019) Genetic characterization of bovine coronavirus in Vietnam. *Virus Genes* 55(3):415–420. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11262-019-01647-1>
41. Decaro N, Mari V, Desario C, Campolo M, Elia G, Martella V, Greco G, Cirone F, Colaianni ML, Cordioli P, Buonavoglia C (2008) Severe outbreak of bovine coronavirus infection in dairy cattle during the warmer season. *Vet Microbiol* 126(1–3):30–39. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2007.06.024>
42. Liu L, Hagglund S, Hakhverdyan M, Alenius S, Larsen LE, Belak S (2006) Molecular epidemiology of bovine coronavirus on the basis of comparative analyses of the S gene. *J Clin Microbiol* 44(3):957–960. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.44.3.957-960.2006>
43. Schultze B, Gross HJ, Brossmer R, Herrler G (1991) The spike protein of bovine coronavirus is a hemagglutinin recognizing 9-o-acetylated sialic acid as a receptor determinant. *J Virol* 65:6232–6237. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.65.11.6232-6237.1991>
44. Ballesteros ML, Sanchez CM, Enjuanes L (1997) Two amino acid changes at the N-terminus of transmissible gastroenteritis coronavirus spike protein result in the loss of enteric tropism. *Virology* 227:378–388. <https://doi.org/10.1006/viro.1996.8344>
45. Gallagher TM, Buchmeier MJ (2001) Coronavirus spike proteins in viral entry and pathogenesis. *Virology* 279:371–374. <https://doi.org/10.1006/viro.2000.0757>
46. Takiuchi E, Alfieri AF, Alfieri AA (2008) Molecular analysis of the bovine coronavirus S1 gene by direct sequencing of diarrheic fecal specimens. *Braz J Med Biol Res* 41(4):277–282. <https://doi.org/10.1590/s0100-879x2008000400004>
47. Zhang L, Jackson CB, Mou H, Ojha A, Rangarajan ES, Izard T, Choe H (2020) The D614G mutation in the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein reduces S1 shedding and increases infectivity. *bioRxiv*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.06.12.148726>

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.