

# Genetic evolution of hemagglutinin and neuraminidase genes of H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza viruses in Thailand

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**Background.** Ongoing outbreaks of H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) viruses and the emergence of the genetic-related hemagglutinin (*HA*) gene of reassortant H5Nx viruses currently circulating in wild birds and poultries pose a great global public health concern. In this study, we comprehensively analyzed the genetic evolution of Thai H5N1 *HA* and neuraminidase (*NA*) genes between 2003 and 2010. The H5N1 Thailand virus clade 2.3.4 was also genetically compared to the currently circulating clade 2.3.4.4 of H5Nx viruses.

**Methods.** Full-length nucleotide sequences of 178 *HA* and 143 *NA* genes of H5N1 viruses circulating between 2003 and 2010 were phylogenetically analyzed using maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic construction. Bayesian phylogenetic trees were reconstructed using BEAST analysis with a Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach. The maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree was determined, and the time of the most recent common ancestor (tMRCA) was estimated. The H5N1 *HA* nucleotide sequences of clade 2.3.4 Thailand viruses were phylogenetically analyzed using ML phylogenetic tree construction and analyzed for nucleotide similarities with various subtypes of reassortant H5Nx *HA* clade 2.3.4.4.

**Results.** ML phylogenetic analysis revealed two distinct *HA* clades, clade 1 and clade 2.3.4, and two distinct *NA* groups within the corresponding H5 clade 1 viruses. Bayesian phylogenetic reconstruction for molecular clock suggested that the Thai H5N1 *HA* and *NA* emerged in 2001.87 (95% HPD: 2001.34-2002.49) and 2002.38 (95% HPD: 2001.99-2002.82), respectively, suggesting that the virus existed before it was first reported in 2004. The Thai H5N1 *HA* clade 2.3.4 was grouped into corresponding clades 2.3.4, 2.3.4.1, 2.3.4.2, and 2.3.4.3, and shared nucleotide similarities to reassortant H5Nx clade 2.3.4.4 ranged from 92.4-96.8%. Phylogenetic analysis revealed monophyletic H5Nx clade 2.3.4.4 evolved from H5N1 clade 2.3.4.

**Conclusion.** H5N1 viruses existed, and were presumably introduced and circulated in avian species in Thailand, before they were officially reported in 2004. *HA* and *NA* genes continuously evolved during circulation between 2004 and 2010. This study provides a better understanding of genetic evolution with respect to molecular epidemiology. Monitoring and surveillance of emerging variants/reassortants should be continued.

1 **Genetic evolution of hemagglutinin and neuraminidase genes of H5N1 highly pathogenic**  
2 **avian influenza viruses in Thailand**

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22 **Running title:** Genetic evolution of Thai H5N1 *HA* and *NA* genes

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 **Background.** Ongoing outbreaks of H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) viruses  
28 and the emergence of the genetic-related hemagglutinin (*HA*) gene of reassortant H5Nx viruses  
29 currently circulating in wild birds and poultries pose a great global public health concern. In this  
30 study, we comprehensively analyzed the genetic evolution of Thai H5N1 *HA* and neuraminidase  
31 (*NA*) genes between 2003 and 2010. The H5N1 Thailand virus clade 2.3.4 was also genetically  
32 compared to the currently circulating clade 2.3.4.4 of H5Nx viruses.

33 **Methods.** Full-length nucleotide sequences of 178 *HA* and 143 *NA* genes of H5N1 viruses  
34 circulating between 2003 and 2010 were phylogenetically analyzed using maximum likelihood  
35 (ML) phylogenetic construction. Bayesian phylogenetic trees were reconstructed using BEAST  
36 analysis with a Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach. The maximum clade  
37 credibility (MCC) tree was determined, and the time of the most recent common ancestor  
38 (tMRCA) was estimated. The H5N1 HA nucleotide sequences of clade 2.3.4 Thailand viruses  
39 were phylogenetically analyzed using ML phylogenetic tree construction and analyzed for  
40 nucleotide similarities with various subtypes of reassortant H5Nx HA clade 2.3.4.4.

41 **Results.** ML phylogenetic analysis revealed two distinct HA clades, clade 1 and clade 2.3.4, and  
42 two distinct NA groups within the corresponding H5 clade 1 viruses. Bayesian phylogenetic  
43 reconstruction for molecular clock suggested that the Thai H5N1 HA and NA emerged in  
44 2001.87 (95% HPD: 2001.34-2002.49) and 2002.38 (95% HPD: 2001.99-2002.82), respectively,  
45 suggesting that the virus existed before it was first reported in 2004. The Thai H5N1 HA clade  
46 2.3.4 was grouped into corresponding clades 2.3.4, 2.3.4.1, 2.3.4.2, and 2.3.4.3, and shared

47 nucleotide similarities to reassortant H5Nx clade 2.3.4.4 ranged from 92.4-96.8%. Phylogenetic  
48 analysis revealed monophyletic H5Nx clade 2.3.4.4 evolved from H5N1 clade 2.3.4.

49 **Conclusion.** H5N1 viruses existed, and were presumably introduced and circulated in avian  
50 species in Thailand, before they were officially reported in 2004. *HA* and *NA* genes continuously  
51 evolved during circulation between 2004 and 2010. This study provides a better understanding of  
52 genetic evolution with respect to molecular epidemiology. Monitoring and surveillance of  
53 emerging variants/reassortants should be continued.

54

## 55 **Introduction**

56 Influenza A viruses are classified into 18 hemagglutinin (HA) (H1-H18) and 11  
57 neuraminidase (NA) (N1-N11) subtypes. Subtypes H1-H16 and N1-N9 can be isolated from  
58 aquatic birds, while H17N10 and H18N11 were discovered in bats using nucleotide sequence  
59 analysis (*Webster et al., 1992; Dugan et al., 2008; Forrest & Webster, 2010; Tong et al., 2012; Tong*  
60 *et al., 2013; Long et al., 2019*). Several subtypes of avian influenza A viruses, i.e., H5N1, H5N6,  
61 H5N8, H7N7, H7N9, and H9N2, have been reported to cross the species barrier and infect  
62 humans (*Wong & Yuen, 2006; Peiris, de Jong & Guan, 2007; Forrest & Webster, 2010; Gao et*  
63 *al., 2013; Mok et al., 2015*). Among these avian influenza subtypes, H5N1 highly pathogenic  
64 avian influenza (HPAI) virus is the most virulent, causing the highest percent case fatality (53%)  
65 in humans (*WHO, 2022*). The recent emergence of evolutionary-related H5 HA of reassortant  
66 H5Nx subtypes in combination with different NA subtypes has been globally detected in wild  
67 birds and poultries (*Li et al., 2017; Antigua et al., 2019; Nuñez & Ross, 2019; Liang et al., 2020;*  
68 *Li, Su & Smith, 2021; Gu et al., 2022*).

69           The first emergence of H5N1 viruses causing human infections occurred in Hong Kong  
70 in 1997 and resulted in 18 cases and six deaths (33% case fatality) (*Gutiérrez et al., 2009*). The  
71 virus re-emerged in 2003, and it has been uncontrollable until the present. Between January 2003  
72 and June 2022, there have been 864 human cases including 456 fatalities globally (53% case  
73 fatality) (*WHO, 2022*). The latest case of H5N1 infection was reported in the United States in  
74 April 2022 (*CDC, 2022; WHO, 2022*). Moreover, H5Nx reassortants with different NA subtypes,  
75 particularly H5N6 and H5N8, emerged in China during the successful control of H5N1 virus in  
76 poultry (*Li, Su & Smith, 2021*), and subsequently caused global outbreaks, mainly in Asia,  
77 Europe, and North America (*Li et al., 2017; Antigua et al., 2019; Nuñez & Ross, 2019; Liang et*  
78 *al., 2020; Li, Su & Smith, 2021; Gu et al., 2022*). A total of 78 laboratory-confirmed H5N6  
79 human cases, 32 of which with fatal outcomes (41% case fatality), were reported in China from  
80 2015-2022 and Laos in 2021 (*WHO, 2022*), while seven positive cases of H5N8 virus infection  
81 were reported in Russia in 2021 (*WHO, 2021a*). Thailand first reported an H5N1 avian influenza  
82 outbreak in poultry and humans in January 2004 (*Puthavathana et al., 2005*). The last human case  
83 was reported in 2006, while the last poultry outbreak was reported in 2008 (*Uchida et al., 2008;*  
84 *Chaichoune et al., 2009*). Nevertheless, three new genomic sequences of H5N1 isolates were  
85 deposited in the GenBank database in 2010. There has been a total of 25 human cases with 17  
86 deaths (68% case fatality). To date, no H5Nx human infections have been detected in Thailand,  
87 although one isolate of the H5N8 virus was found in chicken in 2008.

88           A putative ancestor of H5N1 viruses re-emerged in 2003 is A/goose/Guandong/1/96  
89 (H5N1) (Gs/GD/1/96) (*WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution Working Group, 2008; Harfoot &*  
90 *Webby, 2017*). All the viral genomic segments are of avian origin (*World Health Organization*  
91 *Global Influenza Program Surveillance Network, 2005*) and naturally acquired through genetic

92 reassortment. The *HA* and *NA* genes were derived from the Gs/GD/1/96-like lineage; while six  
93 internal genes originated from various avian influenza virus subtypes, serving as the basis for the  
94 assignment to different genotypes based on the gene-constellation analysis of each genomic  
95 segment using phylogenetic analysis (neighbor-joining bootstrap support >70% or Bayesian  
96 posterior probability >95%) (*Guan et al., 2002; Gutiérrez et al., 2009; Li et al., 2004*). By 2001,  
97 six genotypes (A, B, C, D, E and X<sub>0</sub>) had been identified, and an additional nine new genotypes  
98 (G, V, W, X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>3</sub>, Y, Z and Z<sup>+</sup>) were detected between 2002 and 2004. Genotype Z has  
99 become the dominant H5N1 virus in southern China and has been responsible for subsequent  
100 outbreaks in Asia (*Gutiérrez et al., 2009*). Continuous H5N1 virus outbreaks and the emergence  
101 of reassortant H5Nx viruses over the past decade have resulted in the evolution and genetic  
102 diversity of H5 HA. The WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution Working Group identified and  
103 updated the nomenclature for genetic clades (clades 0-9) based on HA nucleotide sequences  
104 (*WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution Working Group, 2008; WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution*  
105 *Working Group, 2014; Smith et al., 2015*). With the rapid evolution of H5 HA, new clades have  
106 emerged in several countries, e.g., clades 2.1.3.2a-c in Indonesia, Vietnam, and Cambodia (*Le &*  
107 *Nguyen, 2014; Lee et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2015; Suttie et al., 2019*). Furthermore, the  
108 widespread emergence of H5 HA clade 2.3.4.4 of Nx reassortants (including H5N1, H5N2,  
109 H5N3, H5N5, H5N6, and H5N8) has been documented in Asia, Europe, and North America (*Li*  
110 *et al., 2017; Antigua et al., 2019; Liang et al., 2020; Li, Su & Smith, 2021; Gu et al., 2022*). The  
111 currently circulating H5 clade 2.3.4.4 was further classified into clades 2.3.4.4a-h after a  
112 proposed update to the unified nomenclature for HPAI H5 viruses by WHO (*WHO, 2021b*).  
113 H5N1 genotypes Z and V, and HA genetic clades 1 and 2.3.4 were identified in Thailand

114 between 2003 and 2010 (*Chutinimitkul et al., 2007; Chaichoune et al., 2009; Amonsin et al.,*  
115 *2010*), and since then, they have not been detected till present.

116 In this study, we comprehensively analyzed the genetic evolution of Thai H5N1 HA and  
117 NA between 2003 and 2010. The H5N1 Thailand virus clade 2.3.4 was also genetically  
118 compared to the currently circulating clade 2.3.4.4 of H5Nx viruses.

119

## 120 **Materials and Methods**

### 121 **H5N1 HA and NA genomic sequences and data sets**

122 HA and NA nucleotide sequences from 333 H5N1 viruses reported in Thailand between  
123 2003 and 2010 were retrieved from the Influenza Virus Resource (National Center for  
124 Biotechnology Information, U.S. National Library of Medicine)  
125 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/FLU/Database/nph-select.cgi?go=database>). Among  
126 them, full-length nucleotide sequences of 178 HA and 143 NA were retrieved and  
127 phylogenetically analyzed (Tables S1 and S2).

128

### 129 **Phylogenetic analysis of HA and NA**

130 Full-length of 178 HA and 143 NA nucleotide sequences were aligned using Muscle in  
131 AliView v1.26 (<https://ormbunkar.se/aliview/>) (*Larsson, 2014*) with the reference sequences  
132 corresponding to clades 0, 1, 2.1.1, 2.1.2, 2.1.3, 2.2, 2.2.1, 2.2.2, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 3, 4, 5,  
133 6, 7, 8, and 9 reported from World Health Organization/World Organisation for Animal  
134 Health/Food and Agriculture Organization (WHO/OIE/FAO) H5N1 Evolution Working Group  
135 (*WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution Working Group, 2008; WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution*  
136 *Working Group, 2014; Smith et al., 2015*). For genetic clade classification, a maximum

137 likelihood (ML) phylogenetic tree was constructed using IQ-TREE with 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap  
138 replicates with substitution model of TIM+F+G4 and GTR+F+G4 which were the best-fit  
139 models for HA and NA alignment, respectively (*Trifinopoulos et al., 2016*). The percentages of  
140 bootstrapping with  $\geq 80$  in which the associated taxa clustered together were shown on the nodes.  
141 The datasets of viruses analyzed in the study are shown in Tables S1 and S2.

142 To determine divergence time and ancestral origin, datasets including ancestor strain  
143 Gs/GD/1/96 (GenBank accession number: AF148678) and H5N1 viruses reported in Thailand  
144 and neighboring countries (Vietnam, Cambodia, China, Hong Kong, Laos, and Malaysia) during  
145 2002 and 2014 were prepared (Additional data file). The time-scaled tree was reconstructed  
146 using BEAST package v1.10.4 with a Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach  
147 under GTR substitution model, strict clock, and exponential growth tree prior (*Suchard et al.,*  
148 *2018*). The triplicate runs of MCMC lengths of 30,000,000 generations with sampling every  
149 3,000 generations were performed and the individually obtained effective sample sizes over 200  
150 traced in Tracer v1.7.1 were combined in LogCombiner v1.10.4 provided in the BEAST  
151 package. The maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree was determined using TreeAnnotator  
152 v1.10.4 and visualized in Figtree v1.4.4 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree>). The time of  
153 the most recent common ancestor (tMRCA) and its 95% highest probability density (95% HPD)  
154 were expressed as a year.

155

#### 156 **Genetic comparison between H5N1 clade 2.3.4 and H5Nx clade 2.3.4.4**

157 H5N1 HA nucleotide sequences of identified clade 2.3.4 Thailand viruses were  
158 phylogenetically analyzed using ML phylogenetic tree construction with the reference strains  
159 including H5N1 HA clades 2.3.4, 2.3.4.1, 2.3.4.2, 2.3.4.3 (covering 2005 to 2013) and various

160 subtypes of reassortant H5Nx HA clades 2.3.4.4 and 2.3.4.4a-h covering 2013 to 2021 (*WHO*,  
161 *2021b*), retrieved from GenBank and the EpiFlu™ database of the Global Initiative on Sharing  
162 All Influenza Data (GISAID) database (<https://www.gisaid.org/>) (*Shu & McCauley, 2017*)  
163 (Additional data file). The nucleotide similarity was analyzed using the Sequence Identity  
164 Matrix application on BioEdit program v7.0.5.2 (*Hall, 1999*).

165

## 166 **Results**

### 167 **Genetic characteristics of Thai H5N1 HA and NA**

168 As of 30 September 2021, Thailand had submitted a total of 333 H5N1 isolates to the  
169 Influenza Virus Resource (NCBI). There was one isolate collected in 2003, 198 isolates in 2004,  
170 81 isolates in 2005, 22 isolates in 2006, 11 isolates in 2007, 17 isolates in 2008, and three  
171 isolates in 2010. The viruses were discovered from several host species i.e., chickens (n=162),  
172 ducks (n=37), birds (n=93), humans (n=20), tigers (n=11), leopards (n=6), cats and canines  
173 (n=2), the environment, and unknown sources (n=2). Among the 333 H5N1 viruses, there were  
174 347 HA nucleotide sequences of which 178 full-length HA sequences were available. While  
175 there were 318 NA nucleotide sequences, only 143 full-length NA sequences were reported in  
176 the database. The genetic determinants on HA and NA were analyzed. All viruses contained  
177 multiple basic amino acids (mostly RERRRKKR↓GLF [81%]) at the HA cleavage site, and  
178 showed  $\alpha$ 2,3-galactose linked-sialic acid avian type receptor preference (residues 190E [100%],  
179 225G [100%], 226Q [100%], and 228G [100%]) (H3 numbering) on HA molecules. In addition,  
180 the 20-amino acid deletion (100%), and oseltamivir susceptible marker (274H, 100%) (N2  
181 numbering) were present in NA of all viruses (Table 1).

182

### 183 **ML phylogenetic analysis of Thai H5N1 HA and NA**

184 We phylogenetically analyzed the full-length 178 HA and 143 NA nucleotide sequences  
185 using ML phylogenetic construction together with the H5 clade reference sequences. The  
186 phylogenetic tree topology of H5 HA revealed two distinct clades (clade 1 and clade 2.3.4). A  
187 nucleotide similarity of 93.0-96.2% was revealed between two genetic clades, while a nucleotide  
188 similarity of 98.3-99.1% was revealed within intra-clade 1 viruses. Clades 1 and 2.3.4 viruses  
189 were clearly separated by 100% bootstrapping support (Fig. 1). In addition, clade 1 was the  
190 major clade containing viruses collected from 2003-2010, mostly during the early introduction  
191 time period 2003-2005, whereas clade 2.3.4 was the minor clade with only four viruses collected  
192 in 2006-2007 from the northeastern part of Thailand.

193 For NA-based ML phylogenetic tree topology, H5N1 NA corresponding to H5 clade 1  
194 virus was classified into two distinct major groups (groups 1 and 2). Most H5N1 viruses  
195 contained NA genes genetically related to viruses from Vietnam and Cambodia, except one  
196 isolate of clade 2.3.4 (A/duck/NongKhai/KU-50/2007, EU221251) which was closely related to  
197 viruses corresponding to clade 2.3.4 identified in China (Fig. 2). The nucleotide sequence  
198 similarity among NA ranged from 96.9-100%.

199

### 200 **Divergence time estimation by Bayesian phylogenetic analysis**

201 Datasets of HA and NA H5N1 clade 1 and clade 2.3.4 Thailand viruses, H5N1 viruses  
202 from neighboring countries, and the Gs/GD/1/96 (H5N1) ancestor strain, were retrieved for  
203 Bayesian phylogenetic analysis. An MCC reconstructed tree based on H5N1 HA clade 1 viruses  
204 revealed that the rooted tMRCA was 1990.35 (95% HPD: 1987.91-1992.77) with posterior  
205 probability (PP)=1. Subsequently, the H5N1 clade 1 descendant viruses of Gs/GD/1/96 in the

206 neighboring regions such as Hong Kong between 2002 and 2006 had an estimated tMRCA of  
207 1999.07 (95% HPD: 1998.02-2000.18) with PP=1. The H5N1 clade 1 Thailand viruses clustered  
208 together with H5N1 clade 1 viruses from Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos, and Malaysia circulating in  
209 2003-2005. Those viruses formed the monophyletic clade with a PP of 1 by the tMRCA, which  
210 was 2000.95 (95% HPD: 2000.41-2001.57). The introduction time of most H5N1 viruses  
211 circulating in Thailand from 2003 to 2010 was estimated to be 2001.87 (95% HPD: 2001.34-  
212 2002.49). However, the PP support was poor, possibly due to the low number of sampled viruses  
213 (Fig. 3). Additionally, the MCC reconstructed tree based on HA revealed that the tMRCA of  
214 H5N1 clade 2.3.4 viruses was 2003.87 (95% HPD: 2003.54-2004.05) with PP=1. The viruses  
215 were detected earlier in China and Hong Kong in 2005. The H5N1 clade 2.3.4 Thailand viruses  
216 isolated in 2007 were phylogenetically related to viruses from Laos and Vietnam isolated in  
217 2006-2007, showing the monophyletic clade. These viruses shared a tMRCA of 2005.83 (95%  
218 HPD: 2005.08-2005.58) with PP=1 (Fig. 4).

219         The MCC reconstructed tree based on NA of H5N1 clade 1 viruses revealed that rooted  
220 tMRCA was 1992.95 (95% HPD: 1990.98-1995.32) with PP=1. The NA of Gs/GD/1/96 virus  
221 introduced into neighboring regions, (particularly Hunan, Yunnan, and Hong Kong) was around  
222 1998.99 (HPD: 1997.83-2000.33) with PP=1. H5N1 clade 1 viruses emerged later in Southeast  
223 Asia, indicated by the estimated tMRCA of 2001.28 (95% HPD: 2000.63-2001.97). In addition,  
224 the earliest of H5N1 Thailand viruses was isolated from openbill stork in 2003 in the central part  
225 of Thailand, and then rapidly spread as shown in the short branch. As shown in the phylogenetic  
226 tree, the tMRCA of H5N1 NA Thailand viruses corresponding to H5 clade 1 was 2002.38 (95%  
227 HPD: 2001.99-2002.82) with PP=1, together with the related strains from nearby countries  
228 including Cambodia, Laos, and Malaysia reported in 2004 (Fig. 5). Moreover, the MCC

229 reconstructed tree based on NA of H5N1 clade 2.3.4 viruses revealed that these viruses emerged  
230 in 2001.06 (95% HPD: 2000.13-2001.04). The introduction of H5N1 NA corresponding to H5  
231 clade 2.3.4 Thailand viruses was estimated to be 2005.32 (95% HPD: 2005.05-2005.61) with  
232 PP=1. Thailand viruses formed a cluster together with Laos and Vietnam viruses with a similar  
233 collection date from 2006-2007 (Fig. 6).

234

### 235 **ML phylogenetic analysis of HA between H5N1 clade 2.3.4 Thailand viruses and H5Nx** 236 **clade 2.3.4.4 viruses**

237 We constructed the ML phylogenetic tree of four H5N1 viruses belonging to clade 2.3.4  
238 (A/chicken/Mukdahan/NIAH403901/2007, A/duck/Nong-Khai/Thailand/KU-56/2007,  
239 A/chicken/Thailand/NP-172/2006 and A/chicken/Nongkhai/NIAH400802/2007), and H5Nx  
240 clades 2.3.4, 2.3.4.1, 2.3.4.2, 2.3.4.3 and 2.3.4.4 reference strains. The tree topology  
241 demonstrated that H5N1 clade 2.3.4 Thailand viruses were closely related to clades 2.3.4,  
242 2.3.4.1, 2.3.4.2, and 2.3.4.3, and clearly separated from the clade 2.3.4.4 with 100%  
243 bootstrapping support (Fig.7A and Fig. S1). They had nucleotide similarities ranging from 92.4-  
244 96.8% and 90.1-94.8% to H5Nx clade 2.3.4.4 and clades 2.3.4.4a-h viruses, respectively (Fig. 7B  
245 and Table S3).

246

### 247 **Discussion**

248 H5Nx viruses, which have H5 HA in combination with various NA subtypes, caused  
249 global poultry disease outbreaks. These viruses, particularly the H5N1 subtype pose a pandemic  
250 threat to humans. A H5N1 virus that caused human infections in Hong Kong in 1997 was a  
251 reassortant virus that acquired HA from a Gs/GD/1/96 (H5N1)-like virus, NA from a

252 A/teal/Hong Kong/W312/97(H6N1)-like virus, and internal genes from a A/quail/Hong  
253 Kong/G1/97(H9N2)-like virus or A/teal/Hong Kong/W312/97 (H6N1)-like virus (*Guan et al.*,  
254 2002; *Puthavathana et al.*, 2005; *Gutiérrez et al.*, 2009). Also, the Gs/GD/1/96 virus was a  
255 progenitor which provided *HA* and *NA* genes for the re-emerged H5N1 viruses that caused  
256 outbreaks in East and Southeast Asia in 2003 (*Gutiérrez et al.*, 2009), and for descendant HA  
257 clade 2.3.4.4 of currently circulating reassortant H5Nx viruses (*Smith et al.*, 2015; *Antigua et al.*,  
258 2019). Thailand first reported H5N1 virus infection in both poultry and humans in January 2004.  
259 The first laboratory-confirmed human case occurred in Kanchanaburi province on January 23<sup>rd</sup>,  
260 2004 (*Puthavathana et al.*, 2005), and the most recent human case was confirmed in September  
261 2006 in Nong Bua Lum Phu province in Northeast Thailand (*Sangsiriwut et al.*, 2021). The  
262 causative H5N1 viruses belonged to genotype Z or clade 1 viruses, which subsequently became  
263 the predominant viruses circulating in poultry in the central and lower-north region (*Uchida et*  
264 *al.*, 2008; *Chaichoune et al.*, 2009; *Amonsin et al.*, 2010). All human cases in Thailand were  
265 infected with the clade 1 virus (*Puthavathana et al.*, 2005; *Sangsiriwut et al.*, 2021). However,  
266 genotype V or the clade 2.3.4 virus caused the poultry outbreaks in northeast provinces during  
267 2006 to 2007 (*Chutinimitkul et al.*, 2007).

268 *HA* and *NA* genes, which encode major viral surface glycoproteins, are hypervariable and  
269 continuously evolve (*Gutiérrez et al.*, 2009). The biological properties and immune responses  
270 against HA and NA glycoproteins of these H5N1 viruses have been previously characterized  
271 (*Panaampon et al.*, 2012; *Noisumdaeng et al.*, 2013; *Noisumdaeng et al.*, 2014; *Changsom et al.*,  
272 2016; *Noisumdaeng et al.*, 2021). This study comprehensively analyzed the genetic evolution of  
273 Thai H5N1 HA and NA nucleotide sequences available in the GenBank database from 2003 to  
274 2010. No newer H5N1 data from Thailand were available. ML phylogenetic analysis

275 demonstrated that two clades, the predominant clade 1 and clade 2.3.4, were found in Thailand,  
276 corresponding to several previously reports (*Uchida et al., 2008; Chaichoune et al., 2009;*  
277 *Amonsin et al., 2010*). The replacement of clade 1 with clade 2.3.4 viruses was observed in  
278 Southeast Asian countries (*Wan et al., 2008; Gutiérrez et al., 2009*). Moreover, genetic  
279 characterization demonstrated that all H5N1 Thailand viruses were HPAI regarding the presence  
280 of multiple basic amino acids (81% of viruses possessed RERRRKKR↓GLF) at proteolytic  
281 cleavage sites on HA. These viruses showed an avian receptor preference by presenting 190E,  
282 225G, 226Q, and 228G (H3 numbering) (*CDC, 2012; Long et al., 2019*). Nevertheless, probable  
283 human-to-human transmission was first reported in Thailand (*Ungchusak et al., 2005*).  
284 Additionally, H5N1 NA of all Thailand viruses had a 20-amino acid deletion at the stalk region,  
285 which contributed to the high pathogenicity and host adaptation of the virus (*Li et al., 2014;*  
286 *Stech et al., 2015*). The presence of histidine at amino acid position 275 (N1 numbering) or 274  
287 (N2 numbering) in NA suggested that all viruses were oseltamivir sensitive. Gene-constellation  
288 analyzes revealed the intra-H5N1 clade 1 reassortment in poultry (*Chaichoune et al., 2009;*  
289 *Amonsin et al., 2010*), and one human case (*Sangsiriwut et al., 2021*).

290 Our Bayesian phylogenetic analysis of HA revealed that H5 HA viruses emerged  
291 approximately in 1990, although the first isolate was reported in 1996 in China (putative ancestor  
292 strain Gs/GD/1/96). The viruses circulated among avian host species until 1999 and subsequently  
293 re-emerged in 2003. Our analysis postulated that H5 HA clade 1 viruses had an emergence time  
294 around 1999, but they were discovered in several cities in China and Hong Kong beginning in  
295 2002. Similarly, the virus strain A/openbilledstork/Thailand/VSMU-12-BKK/2003 (H5N1)  
296 (GenBank accession no. HM627945) was the first isolate reported in Thailand, but it may have  
297 been introduced into Thailand in 2001. Several reports revealed that the H5 HA clade 1, which

298 predominantly circulated in Cambodia, Thailand, and Vietnam during 2003-2005, was  
299 responsible for human infections (*Gutiérrez et al., 2009*). Likewise, the Bayesian phylogenetic  
300 analysis of NA demonstrated that the tMRCA estimation was comparable to the HA  
301 phylogenetic tree. The mean rate of nucleotide substitution of *HA* and *NA* genes among clade 1  
302 viruses was  $2.46 \times 10^{-3}$  substitution/site/year and  $2.47 \times 10^{-3}$  substitution/site/year, respectively  
303 (*Suwannakarn et al., 2009*).

304 As the result of genetic evolution, the H5 HA clade 2 viruses emerged and continually  
305 circulated in several regions in Asia (East, Southeast, and Middle East), Europe and Africa.  
306 Subsequently, the clade 2 viruses genetically diverged into distinct subclades and sub-subclades  
307 (*WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution Working Group, 2014; Smith et al., 2015*). Thailand reported  
308 four isolates of clade 2.3.4 (A/chicken/Mukdahan/NIAH403901/2007, A/duck/Nong-  
309 Khai/Thailand/KU-56/2007, A/chicken/Thailand/NP-172/2006, and  
310 A/chicken/Nongkhai/NIAH400802/2007), which were isolated to the northeast region of the  
311 country. Those viruses were previously reported as genetically related to the Fujian-like virus  
312 clade 2.3.4 (*Smith et al., 2006; Suwannakarn et al., 2009*). Our results revealed that Thailand H5  
313 HA clade 2.3.4 viruses possibly emerged in late 2005. Later, clades 2.3.4.1, 2.3.4.2, 2.3.4.3, and  
314 2.3.4.4, and the proposed update clades 2.3.4.4a-h viruses were identified in several regions in  
315 Asia, Middle East, and Europe, but those were not detected in Thailand (*WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1*  
316 *Evolution Working Group, 2014; Smith et al., 2015; WHO, 2021b*).

317 At present, H5Nx clades 2.3.4.4 viruses globally spread and cause outbreaks among wild  
318 birds and poultries. H5Nx viruses are likely to become predominant and replace H5N1 viruses in  
319 the future. Reassortment has long been known as the major mechanism of viral emergence.  
320 HPAI viruses that jump across species to infect humans have emerged through this mechanism.

321 The first emergence of H5N1 viruses occurred in Hong Kong in 1997, followed by the re-  
322 emergence of new H5N1 reassortment in 2003, and the emergence of H5N6 and H5N8 subtypes  
323 (*Li et al., 2017; Antigua et al., 2019; Nuñez & Ross, 2019; Liang et al., 2020; Li, Su & Smith,*  
324 *2021; Gu et al., 2022*). The emergence of these reassortants suggested that the genetic co-  
325 evolution of HA and NA through natural genetic reassortment among avian influenza viruses  
326 might generate novel pathogenic reassortants (*World Health Organization Global Influenza*  
327 *Program Surveillance Network, 2005*). Even though the other avian influenza reassortant  
328 subtypes (e.g., H7Nx) can cause serious disease in humans, our study was confined solely to the  
329 H5 virus subtype. Laboratories worldwide should carry out the monitoring and surveillance of  
330 novel avian influenza viruses through genetic analysis for health and safety.

331

### 332 **Conclusion**

333 *HA* and *NA* genes continue to evolve. As such, the reassortant H5Nx viruses generated  
334 from reassortment among pools of avian influenza genomic segments presented in avian species.  
335 Our results provide information for a better understanding of genetic evolution and molecular  
336 epidemiology, as well as support the need for continuous monitoring and active surveillance of  
337 H5N1 and H5Nx viruses.

338

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**Table 1** (on next page)

Analysis for genetic determinants of HPAI H5N1 HA and NA compared to the H5N1 genetic change inventory (CDC, 2012).

1 **Table legend**

2 **Table 1.** Analysis for genetic determinants of HPAI H5N1 HA and NA compared to the

3 H5N1 genetic change inventory (*CDC, 2012*).

Protein	Amino acid observed in Thai HPAI H5N1 isolates	Amino acid mutation previously reported	Association and function
HA <sup>1</sup>	190E (100%) and 225G (100%)	D190E and D225G	190D and 225D - human receptor preference 190E and 225G - avian receptor preference
	226Q (100%) and 228G (100%)	Q226L and G228S	226Q and 228G - receptor binding site for avian receptors 226L and 228S - receptor binding site for human receptors
	R <u>RRRR</u> KKR↓GLF (81%) RE <u>KRR</u> KKR↓GLF (10%) IE <u>RRR</u> KKR↓GLF (4%) RE <u>KRR</u> KKR↓GLF (3%) R <u>RRR</u> KR↓GLF (1%) R <u>RRR</u> KR↓GLF (1%)	RRRKK (329-333)	Polybasic amino acid insertion at HA cleavage site: RRRKK - indicator for HPAI and systemic infection
NA <sup>2</sup>	20-amino acid deletion at stalk region (100%)	20-amino acid deletion at stalk region <sup>3</sup>	Contribute to the high pathogenicity of H5N1 viruses
	274H (100%)	274H 274Y	Oseltamivir sensitive Oseltamivir resistance

4 Note: <sup>1</sup> Amino acid position on HA based on H3 numbering

5 <sup>2</sup> Amino acid position on NA based on N2 numbering

6 <sup>3</sup> NA of A/goose/Guangdong/1/96 (H5N1) contained CNQSIITYENNTWVNQTYVN at stalk region, but  
7 it was not present in NA of HPAI H5N1 Thailand isolates.

8

# Figure 1

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis for H5 HA clade identification among H5N1 isolates reported in Thailand between 2003 and 2010.

The percentage of bootstrapping ( $> 80$ ) in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown on the nodes. Thai H5N1 and reference viruses are shown in blue and black, respectively. The reference clades are shown with the sharp symbol (#) in the front of each tip. The ML tree was rooted to A/goose/Guangdong/1/96 (H5N1).



## Figure 2

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis of NA among H5N1 isolates reported in Thailand between 2003 and 2010.

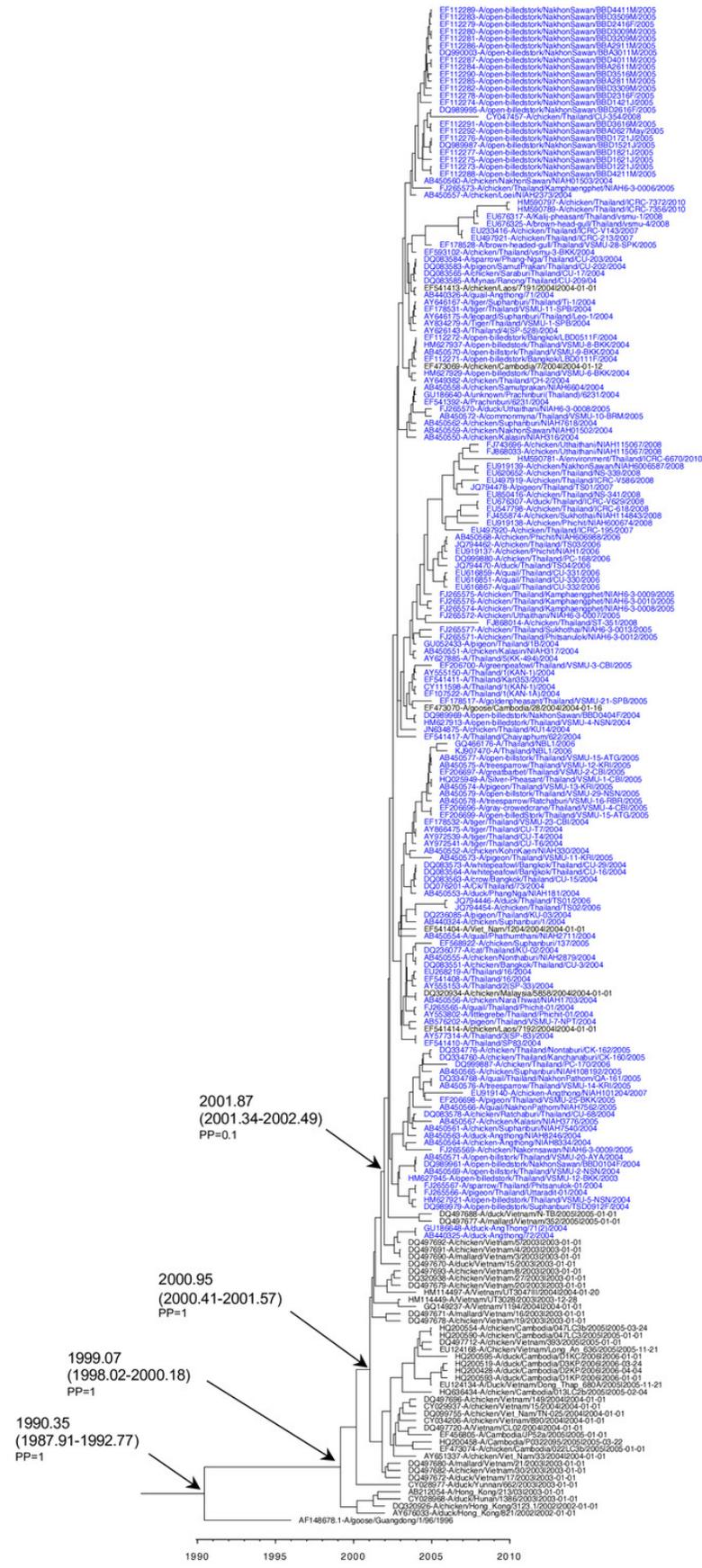
The percentage of bootstrapping ( $> 80$ ) in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown on the nodes. Thai H5N1 and reference viruses are shown in blue and black, respectively. The reference clades are shown with the sharp symbol (#) in the front of each tip. The ML tree was rooted to A/goose/Guangdong/1/96 (H5N1).



## Figure 3

Maximum clade credibility tree based on HA of H5N1 clade 1 viruses.

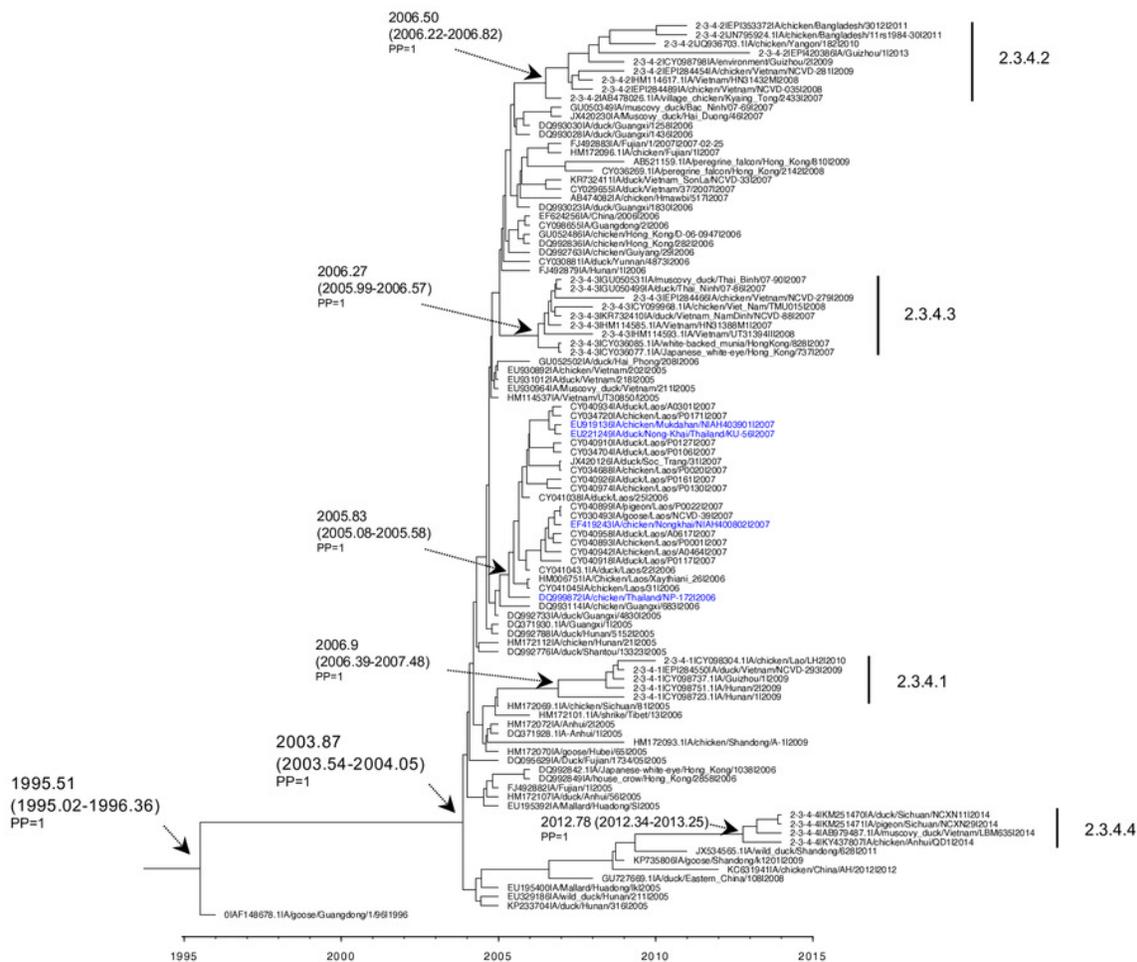
Time-scale tree was estimated in BEAST package v1.10.4 with GTR model, strict clock, and exponential growth tree prior. The tMRCA and 95% HPD are indicated with a black arrow, and posterior probability (PP) value is indicated. The name of each taxon is presented in order of GenBank accession number, virus name, and year of collection.



## Figure 4

Maximum clade credibility tree based on HA of H5N1 clades 2.3.4, 2.3.4.1, 2.3.4.2, 2.3.4.3, and 2.3.4.4 viruses.

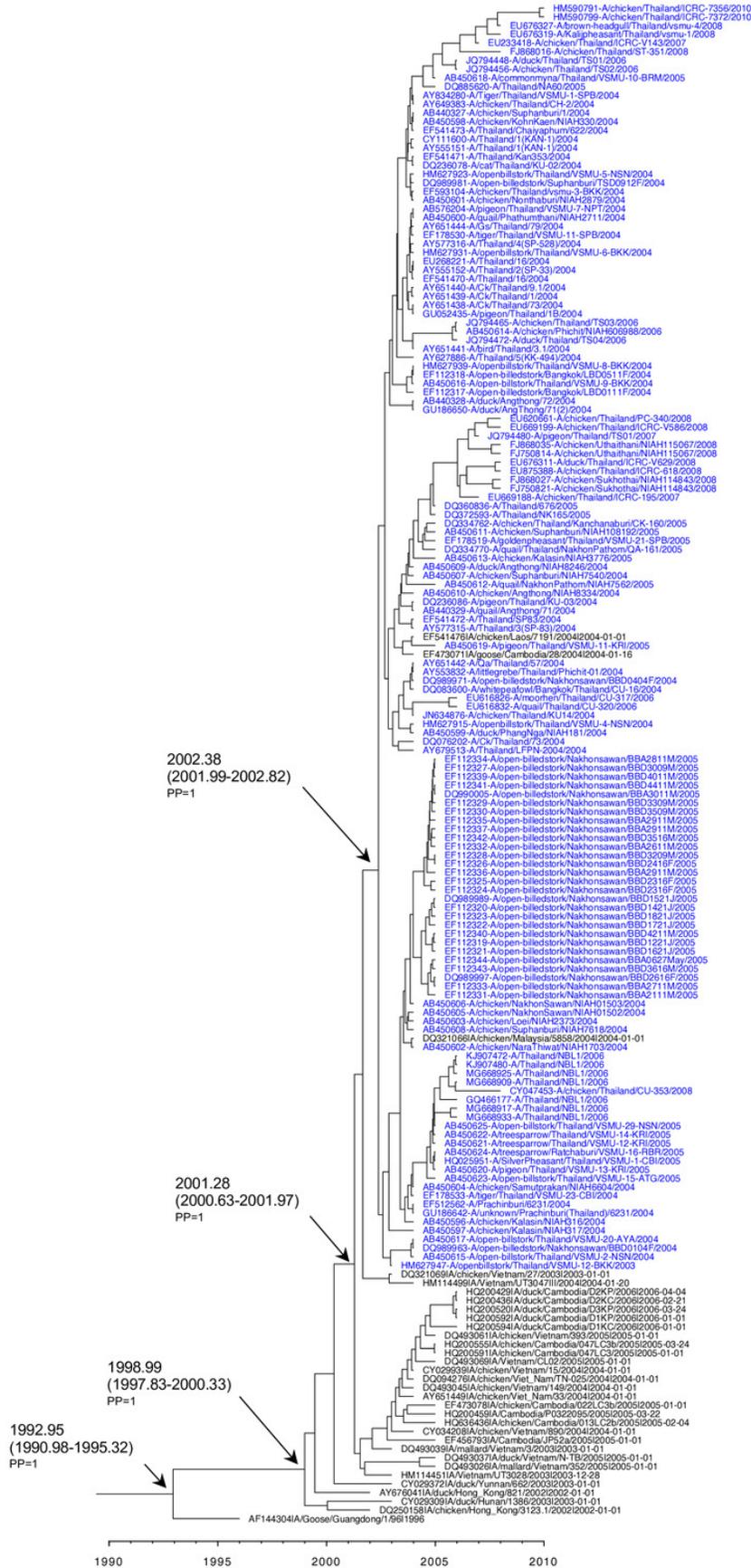
Time-scale tree was estimated in BEAST package v1.10.4 with GTR model, strict clock, and exponential growth tree prior. The tMRCA and 95% HPD are indicated with a black arrow, and posterior probability (PP) value is indicated. The name of each taxon is presented in order of GenBank accession number, virus name, and year of collection.



## Figure 5

Maximum clade credibility tree based on NA of H5N1 clade 1 viruses.

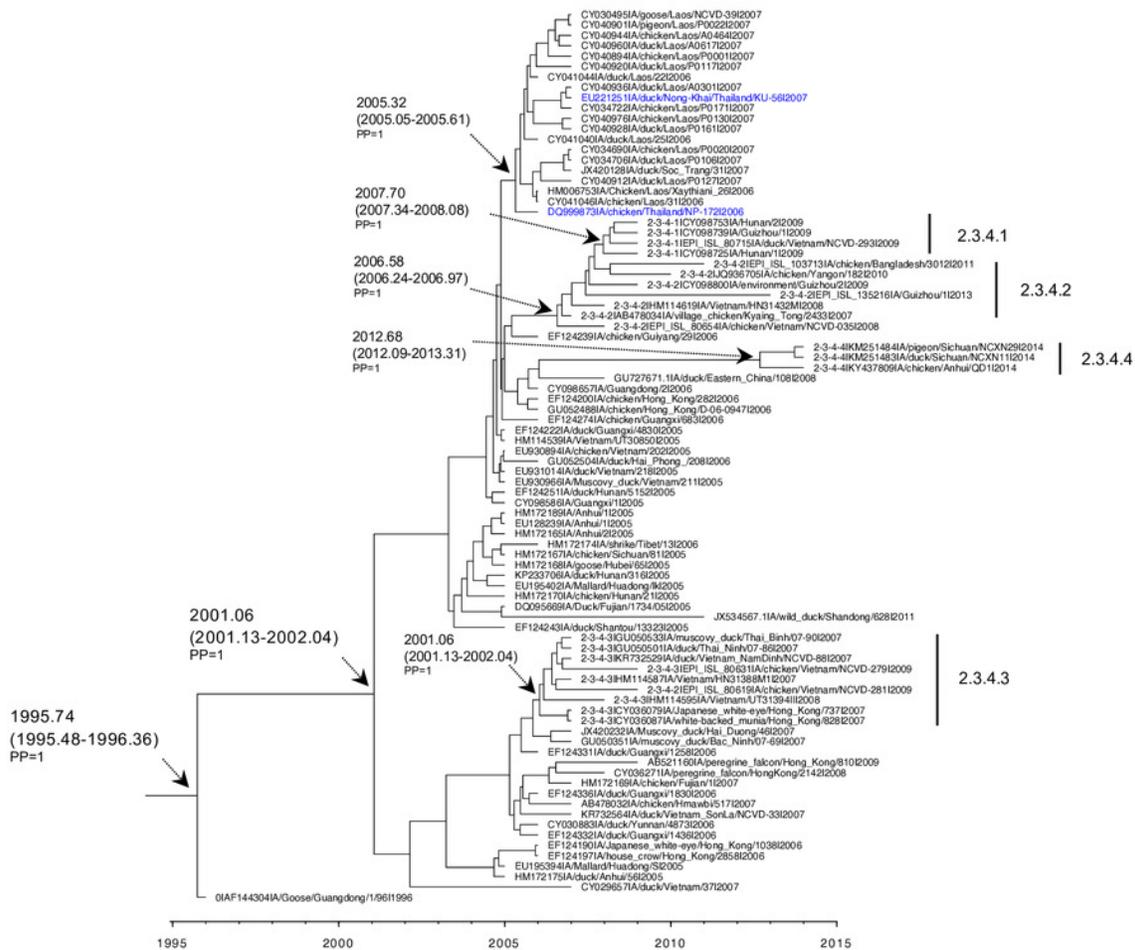
Time-scale tree was estimated in BEAST package v1.10.4 with GTR model, strict clock, and exponential growth tree prior. The tMRCA and 95% HPD are indicated with a black arrow, and posterior probability (PP) value is indicated. The name of each taxon is presented in order of GenBank accession number, virus name, and year of collection.



## Figure 6

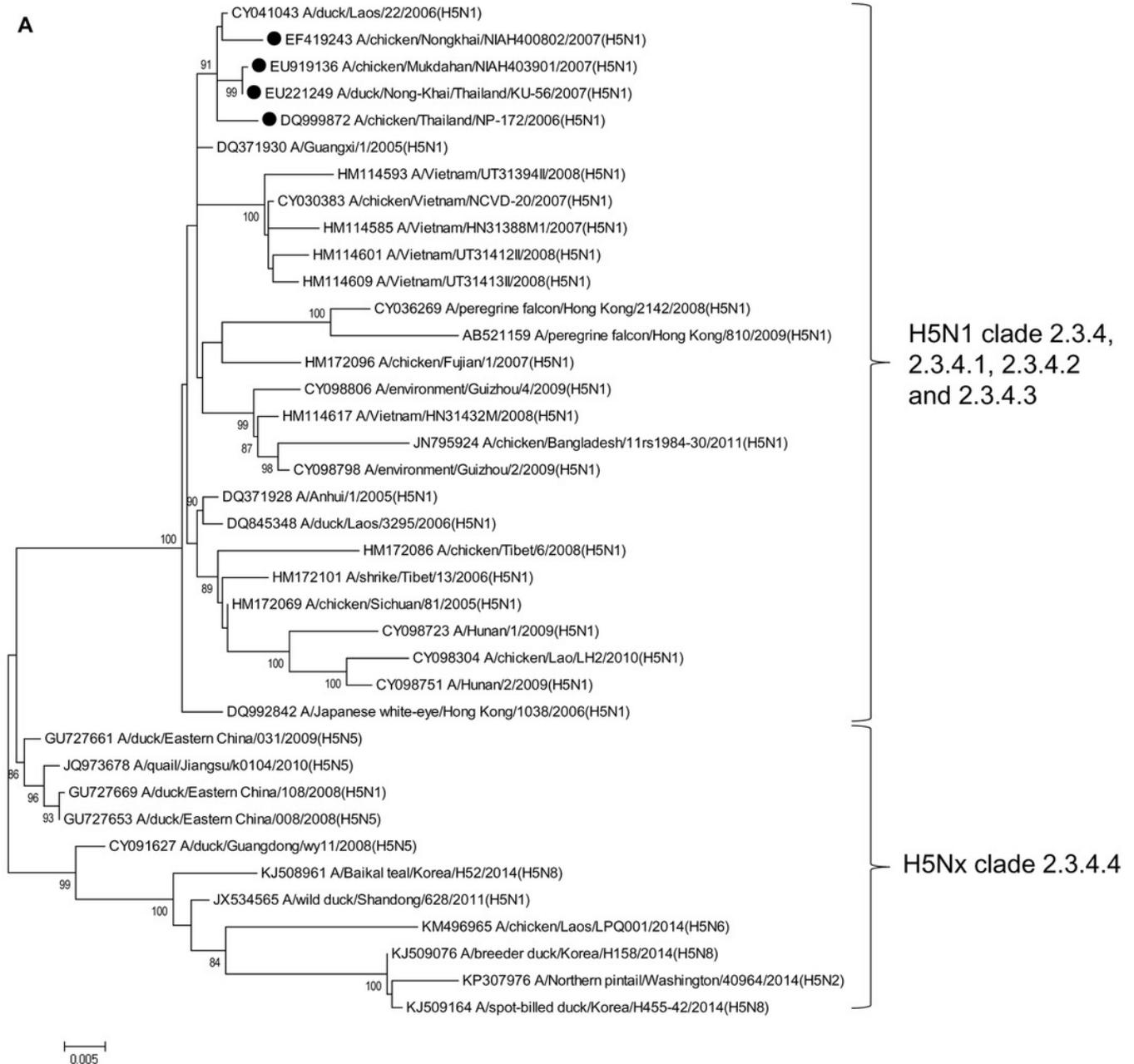
Maximum clade credibility tree based on NA of H5N1 clades 2.3.4, 2.3.4.1, 2.3.4.2, 2.3.4.3 and 2.3.4.4 viruses.

Time-scale tree was estimated in BEAST package v1.10.4 with GTR model, strict clock, and exponential growth tree prior. The tMRCA and 95% HPD are indicated with a black arrow, and posterior probability (PP) value is indicated. The name of each taxon is presented in order of GenBank accession number, virus name, and year of collection.



## Figure 7

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis (A) and genetic comparison between Thai H5N1 clade 2.3.4 and H5Nx clade 2.3.4.4 (B).



H5N1 clade 2.3.4 viruses in Thailand	Nucleotide similarity to H5Nx HA with clades				
	2.3.4 (n=10)	2.3.4.1 (n=3)	2.3.4.2 (n=4)	2.3.4.3 (n=5)	2.3.4.4 (n=11)*
A/chicken/Mukdahan/NIAH403901/2007	97.3-99.5	96.8-97.2	94.1-98.3	95.5-98.2	92.7-96.8
A/duck/Nong-Khai/Thailand/KU-56/2007	97.3-99.5	96.8-97.2	94.3-98.3	95.6-98.2	92.7-96.8
A/chicken/Thailand/NP-172/2006	97.1-99.2	96.5-96.8	93.9-98.0	95.4-97.9	92.4-96.5
A/chicken/Nongkhai/NIAH400802/2007	97.1-99.4	96.5-96.9	93.9-98.1	95.3-98.0	92.6-96.6

\* H5 HA clade 2.3.4.4 included subtypes H5N1 (n=2), H5N2 (n=1), H5N6 (n=1), H5N8 (n=3), H5N5 (n=4)