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# **Interaction between norovirus and Histo-Blood Group Antigens: a key to**

# **understanding virus transmission and inactivation through treatments?**

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- <sup>1</sup> Abbreviations

## **Abstract**

- Human noroviruses (HuNoVs) are a main cause of acute gastroenteritis worldwide. They are
- frequently involved in foodborne and waterborne outbreaks. Environmental transmission of the virus
- depends on two main factors: the ability of viral particles to remain infectious and their adhesion
- capacity onto different surfaces. Until recently, adhesion of viral particles to food matrices was mainly
- investigated by considering non-specific interactions (e.g. electrostatic, hydrophobic) and there was
- only limited information about infectious HuNoVs because of the absence of a reliable *in vitro*

BP: Binding pocket; CaCV: Canine calicivirus; Ct: Concentration of chlorine x Time given in mg.min.L<sup>-1</sup>; ELISA: Enzymelinked immunosorbent assay; FCV: Feline calicivirus; FUT: Fucosyltransferase; GI: Genogroup I; GII: Genogroup II; HAV: Hepatitis A virus; HBGAs: Histo-Blood Group Antigens; HID50: 50% human infectious dose; HIE: Human intestinal enteroids; HPP: High pressure processing; HuNoV: Human norovirus; ISO: International Organization for Standardization; MNV: Murine norovirus; ORFs: Open reading frames; PCR: Polymerase chain reaction; PFU: Plaque-forming unit; PGM: Porcine gastric mucin; PV: Poliovirus; RT-qPCR: Reverse-transcription quantitative PCR; RV: Rotavirus; TCID50: 50% tissue culture infective dose; TEM: Transmission electron microscopy; TFL: Time to reduce the first  $log_{10}$ ; TV: Tulane virus; UV: Ultraviolet; VLPs: Virus-like particles; WWTPs: Wastewater treatment plants.

HuNoV cultivation system. Many HuNoV strains have now been described as having specific binding interactions with human Histo-Blood Group Antigens (HBGAs) and non-HBGA ligands found in food and the environment. Relevant approaches to the *in vitro* replication of HuNoVs were also proposed recently. On the basis of the available literature data, this review discusses the opportunities to use this new knowledge to obtain a better understanding of HuNoV transmission to human populations and better evaluate the hazard posed by HuNoVs in foodstuffs and the environment. Keywords: Norovirus; Histo-Blood Group Antigens; Infectivity; Foods; Virus transmission.

## **1. Introduction**

Poliovirus (PV), discovered at the beginning of the  $20<sup>th</sup>$  century, was the first enteric virus to be described that is transmitted through food and water. Cell culture of PV, as proposed by Enders and Wellers in 1949, allowed the development of the first vaccination strategies, the evaluation of the viral contamination of food and water, and the optimization of processing technologies to inactivate infectious particles. PV risk is currently under control worldwide. Some basic and applied improvements are currently required to manage other enteric viruses, especially human noroviruses (HuNoVs).

HuNoVs are a leading worldwide cause of acute gastroenteritis, of which more than 200,000 cases are reported annually (Kirk et al., 2015). HuNoVs are the most prevalent pathogens associated with foodborne or waterborne outbreaks reported in the USA (CDC 2018), and have been ranked in the top three in Europe for many years (EFSA, 2017). HuNoVs were discovered in 1972 (Kapikian et al., 1972), and the first reliable approaches to the *in vitro* replication of HuNoVs, using human intestinal enteroids (HIE) or zebrafish larvae, were recently published (Ettayebi et al., 2016; Todd and Tripp, 2020; Van Dycke et al., 2019). As with PV, these first approaches to the replication of HuNoVs are still highly complex and time-consuming, but are facilitating research intended to improve our understanding of virus-host interactions and of strategies for the mitigation of HuNoV transmission (Atmar et al., 2018).

The routine application of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) methods at the end of the 20th century supported improved epidemiological studies, greater understanding of the genetic evolution of HuNoV strains, and the development of diagnostic assays in humans (Ambert-Balay et al., 2005; Atmar et al., 2018; Beek et al., 2018; Bull et al., 2010; Gallimore et al., 2007). Because of the absence of a reliable *in vitro* HuNoV cultivation system that could be routinely used, quantitative reverse transcription PCR (RT-qPCR) approaches using a standard method (ISO 15216-1, 2017) were thought to be useful for the management of the risk of HuNoV in foodstuffs. However, the usefulness of this ISO standard for surveillance in vulnerable foodstuffs and water has limitations due to its inability to discriminate infectious from non-infectious HuNoVs once a viral genome has been detected. It has been widely demonstrated that viral genomes persist for longer in the environment than infectious particles (Gassilloud et al., 2003; Hartard et al., 2015). In this context, there is an urgent need to develop more reliable methods of estimating HuNoV infectivity in food and the environment and to better evaluate the efficacy of processing technologies that could be used by the food and water industries. Many strategies have been developed over the past two decades. The use of culturable viruses (e.g. feline calicivirus (FCV), murine norovirus (MNV), Tulane virus (TV), or fecal coliphages) or virus-like particles (VLPs) as HuNoV surrogates has frequently been proposed, but their capacity to mimic the behavior of infectious HuNoVs has not been clearly demonstrated (Ausar et al., 2006; Bosch et al., 2018; Boudaud et al., 2012; Hirneisen et al., 2010; Manuel et al., 2018; Sato et al., 2016; US EPA, 2006; WHO, 2011). Molecular-based methods (e.g. detection of the whole genome, the use of enzymatic pre-treatments or intercalating dyes prior to genome detection, and detection of oxidative damages to the capsid) are regularly developed to evaluate the integrity of the genome and/or the viral capsid, but they have not been fully adapted for use (Kostela et al., 2008; Manuel et al., 2018; Nuanualsuwan and Cliver, 2002; Oristo et al., 2018; Sano et al., 2010). The use of Histo-Blood Group Antigens (HBGAs) is another approach proposed for estimating the

integrity of the HuNoV capsid (Li et al., 2012b; Lou et al., 2012; Manuel et al., 2018; Moore and

Jaykus, 2017). HBGAs are complex carbohydrates linked to glycolipids or glycoproteins, found on red

blood cells and mucosal epithelial cells, or present as free antigens in biological fluids, such as saliva

(Huang et al., 2005). They have been described as putative attachment factors for several HuNoV strains and promote the infection of host cells (Ettayebi et al., 2016; Harrington et al., 2002; Hutson et al., 2002; Lindesmith et al., 2003; Marionneau et al., 2002; Rockx et al., 2005). A specific type of 81 carbohydrate, called HBGA-like carbohydrates, which have the capacity to bind to HuNoVs, was also 82 recently identified in certain vulnerable food products (e.g. lettuce, oysters) (Almand et al., 2017a). Advances in knowledge of the structure of HuNoV and HBGA-binding to HuNoVs have already been well described (Atmar et al., 2018; Shirato, 2011; Tan and Jiang, 2014, 2005). This review will therefore mainly focus on the ability of HBGA-binding to be used to i) select only infectious particles prior to genome detection and, ii) participate in the environmental transmission of HuNoV. To do this, 87 this review will consider the recent knowledge on the presence of HBGA-like carbohydrates in vulnerable foodstuffs. On the basis of the literature data, we compare the virus removal rates during processing technologies between infectious HuNoV surrogates, determined by cell culture; HuNoV genome, directly quantified by RT-qPCR; and HuNoV genome, after HBGA-binding assays. We then attempt to determine whether HuNoV interactions with the HBGA-like carbohydrates present in specific food items could influence the transmission of some HuNoV genotypes.

#### **2. Human Norovirus**

HuNoVs belong to the family *Caliciviridae* and the genus *Norovirus*. They are non-enveloped viruses (~40 nm in diameter) with an icosahedrally symmetrical capsid, and positive-sense single-stranded RNA (~7,500 nucleotides), containing three open reading frames (ORFs). ORF1 encodes non-structural proteins, while ORF2 and ORF3 encode for the major (VP1, 530 amino acids) and minor (VP2, 212 amino acids) capsid proteins, respectively. The capsid is composed of 180 copies of VP1 assembled into 90 dimers and a few copies of VP2. VP1 is organized into two domains, the shell domain (S) and the protruding domain (P) which is subdivided into P1 and P2 subdomains (Donaldson et al., 2010). P2 subdomain, which contains the putative receptor-binding sites, is highly variable and is located on the external surface of the capsid (**Fig. 1**). Thus, P2 subdomain has direct interactions

with the local environment (Cao et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011; Hansman et al., 2011; Shanker et al., 2011).

HuNoVs, mainly belonging to genogroup I (GI) and genogroup II (GII), are subdivided into at least 9

(GI.1–9) and 25 (GII.1–27) genotypes, respectively (Nordgren and Svensson, 2019). A recent study highlighted structural polymorphism and different particle sizes between and within HuNoV genogroups (Jung et al., 2019). GII.4 HuNoV is the most prevalent genotype, responsible for about 70% of total HuNoV outbreaks reported annually (Beek et al., 2018). HuNoVs exhibit high genetic and antigenic variabilities, as shown by the emergence of the last six pandemic strains since 1995 (Beek et al., 2013; Bull et al., 2010; Eden et al., 2014, 2010; Lopman et al., 2004; Vinjé et al., 1997; Yen et al., 2011). On the basis of the analysis of the amino acid sequence of VP1 in 164 HuNoV strains, Zheng et al. (2006) showed different levels of variability within the same species (e.g. 0– 14.1% for Norwalk virus), the same genotype (e.g. 14.3–43.8% for GI.1 HuNoVs), and the same genogroup (e.g. 44.9–61.4% for GI HuNoVs). The evolution of the VP1 protein influences resistance to human infection because single amino acid changes in or peripheral to receptor-binding domains may i) change receptor-binding specificities (Rougemont et al., 2011) and/or ii) promote escape from the immune response (Donaldson et al., 2010). A complete overview of the antigenic variability of HuNoVs has been well described (White, 2014).

Human infection by HuNoVs can be diagnosed in clinical samples through the detection of i) VP1 proteins, using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) approaches; ii) viral genomes, using RT-qPCR; or iii) whole virus particles, using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Rabenau et al., 2003). Although a correlation could be made between HuNoV genome detection and infectious particles from symptomatic individuals, these approaches have not yet proven sufficient to detect infectious HuNoVs in food and environmental matrices. In humans, the 50% human infectious dose (HID50) of Norwalk virus (GI.1) has been estimated to have between 18 and 2,800 genomic 128 equivalents, by considering the viral aggregation (Atmar et al., 2014; Teunis et al., 2008). This HID<sub>50</sub> needs to be better defined, using more accurate methods, because the ratio of genomes to infectious particles may change over time or during disinfection treatments, thus making it impossible to link the 131 number of genome copies to  $HID_{50}$  in food or the environment. Like culturable pathogenic enteric



#### **3. HBGA-binding to HuNoVs**

Numerous studies have described about HBGA-binding to HuNoVs. HBGAs are complex

carbohydrates resulting from the sequential addition of different monosaccharide units to precursor

144 structures present on cell surfaces. The biosynthesis of ABH and Lewis HBGAs (i.e. Le<sup>a</sup>, Le<sup>b</sup>, Le<sup>b</sup>,

145 Le<sup>y</sup>, S Le<sup>x</sup>, A, B, or H antigens) is governed by the ABO and fucosyl-transferase *FUT2* and *FUT3* gene

146 families. The expression of active or non-active *FUT2* defines secretor or non-secretor status,

respectively. This has been widely described in the literature (de Graaf et al., 2016; Marionneau et al.,

2002, 2001; Tan and Jiang, 2014). The phenomenon of HBGA-binding to HuNoVs through the

"binding pocket" (BP), which is located in a region of the P2 subdomain of VP1 has also been

extensively reviewed (Donaldson et al., 2008; Ruvoën‐Clouet et al., 2013; Shirato, 2011; Tan and

Jiang, 2014, 2010). Polymorphic HBGA expression and the natural evolution of HuNoVs contribute to

the diversity of HBGA-binding patterns (Shirato et al., 2008; Tan et al., 2009). Interactions between

HuNoVs and HBGAs can be classified according to their relative affinities. Three distinct groups have

been proposed by Huang et al (2005), independent of HuNoV genogroup and genotype: the "A/B

binding group," the "Lewis binding group," and the "no binding group."

Numerous *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have shown the importance of HBGAs in HuNoV infection. The

role of HBGA-binding during the process of host cell infection needs to be clarified. Current

knowledge suggests two possibilities: i) HBGAs may act as a cellular receptor (or co-receptor), which

participates in the release of the HuNoV genome into the host cell; or ii) HBGA-binding may facilitate

its passage through the gastrointestinal tract up to the host cell. Many studies have provided evidence that human susceptibility to HuNoV infection is dependent on both polymorphic HBGA expression and HuNoV genotype (Hutson et al., 2002; Lindesmith et al., 2003; Nordgren and Svensson, 2019; Rockx et al., 2005; Tan and Jiang, 2014). It is widely acknowledged that non-secretor individuals are less susceptible to HuNoV infection than secretor individuals because most HuNoVs recognize ABO secretor antigens (Tan and Jiang, 2014). Conversely, other studies observed no correlation between HuNoV infection and ABO or secretor status (Ayouni et al., 2015; Larsson et al., 2006; Lindesmith et al., 2005; Sharma et al., 2019). Recently, host cell infection by HuNoVs using HIE demonstrated that the replication of GII.4 — but not GII.3 — strains is dependent on secretor status (Ettayebi et al., 2016). As described below, some HuNoV strains do not recognize any HBGA type (Huang et al., 2005), which reinforces the assumption that human susceptibility is mainly dependent on HuNoV genotype.

In any case, it has never been demonstrated that HBGA-binding to the BP allows genome entry into

the host cell. It can therefore be concluded that the presence of HBGAs is not an exclusive

requirement for HuNoV replication.

HBGAs or HBGA-like carbohydrates present on bacteria found in the human gut and their interactions with HuNoVs have been well described (Almand et al., 2019, 2017a, 2017b). Various mechanisms that may promote or prevent HuNoV infection in humans have been well highlighted by Monedero et al. (2018). One study evidenced that the gut bacterium *Enterobacter cloacae* bound HuNoVs through the H-like carbohydrate present on the bacterial surface (Miura et al., 2013). The role of *E. cloacae* for HuNoV replication needs to be clarified, since discrepancies have been reported between *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies (Jones et al., 2014; Lei et al., 2016). The ability of HuNoVs to bind to lactic acid bacteria present in the human microbiota through HBGA-like substances, has also been demonstrated (Rubio-del-Campo et al., 2014). The same authors made the assumption that surface carbohydrates on bacteria are responsible for HuNoV attachment.

Other factors found in the human gastrointestinal tract may also promote HBGA-binding to HuNoVs.

It has been shown that bile enhanced the replication of HuNoV strains in HIE (Ettayebi et al., 2016),

which is explained by a stabilization of the P domain that allows for better interaction with the fucose

residue (Kilic et al., 2018). Trypsin could also promote HBGA-binding to HuNoVs (Huo et al., 2017, 2016). Current data from the literature suggests that HBGA-binding to HuNoVs is specific and highly diverse. HBGAs are currently considered to be putative attachment factors for several HuNoV strains that promote human infection. HuNoV replication in the host cell could be enhanced by other factors, such as bacterial microbiota, bile, or proteases, but some progress will be needed to improve our basic knowledge. However, it remains unclear to what extent HuNoV–HBGA interaction influences the infectivity of HuNoVs.

#### **4. Interaction with HBGAs: proof of infectivity?**

There is currently an urgent need to improve the management of HuNoV hazard in food and the environment. When considering the behavior of viruses outside the host cell, two main factors have to be taken into account: inactivation and adhesion capacity. With regard to inactivation: it is well known that infectious particles may be exposed to various inactivation factors in the environment or during food processing and water treatment and that these factors affect the integrity of viral particles but not the detection of the target viral genome and/or antigen. Therefore, characterization of virus infectivity is critical for better evaluation of HuNoV hazard in foodstuffs and the efficacy of the processing technologies used in the food and water industries.

There is already a lot of available data on the effects of inactivation factors (e.g. temperature,

sanitizers, ultraviolet (UV) light, high pressure processing (HPP)) on several culturable viruses (e.g.

PV, FCV, Hepatitis A virus (HAV), MNV, TV, F-specific RNA phages, adenovirus) in different

matrices (e.g. drinking water, wastewater, groundwater, oysters, berries, fresh vegetables). It is well

known that viral genomes are more resistant to inactivation factors in the environment or processing

technologies than infectious viruses. This has led to an overestimation of the HuNoV hazard in

vulnerable foodstuffs, but also an underestimation of the virucidal impact of food processing and

water treatments (Espinosa et al., 2008; Ogorzaly et al., 2010; Simonet and Gantzer, 2006b). The

impact of different processing technologies on the reduction of HuNoV genomes and the discrepancy

- between the inactivation of infectious culturable HuNoV surrogates and the reduction of the
- corresponding viral genomes have been well reviewed (Bosch et al., 2018; DiCaprio et al., 2013;

Hirneisen et al., 2010; Knight et al., 2016; J. Li et al., 2012). Clinical trials have provided few data on the survival of infectious HuNoVs in groundwater at room temperature or after disinfection treatment (i.e. HPP) (Leon et al., 2011; Seitz et al., 2011).

Demonstration of cytopathic effects on host cell cultures is the most reliable method for the detection of infectious viruses. As described above, the *in vitro* replication of HuNoVs is now possible using HIE or zebrafish larvae (Ettayebi et al., 2016; Van Dycke et al., 2019). These approaches will undoubtedly improve knowledge (e.g. cellular biology, survival in the environment, and the validation of HuNoV indicators, for example), but they will probably not be suitable for routine food testing or for the assessment of disinfection treatments, owing to their complexity, high cost, low sensitivity, and time-consuming nature. In addition, extraction and concentration procedures for infectious viruses in foodstuffs are matrix dependent and yield variable recovery rates.

The detection and quantification of HuNoV genomes in food are currently performed using ISO

228 15216-2 (2019) and ISO 15216-1 (2017) standard methods, respectively. The prevalence of HuNoV

229 genomes in commercial food products ranged from 9.0% and 71.6% for oysters, 6.7% and 16.0% for

berries, and 5.0% and 28.2% for lettuce (Baert et al., 2011; EFSA, 2018; Loutreul et al., 2014;

Lowther et al., 2012; Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2014; Schaeffer et al., 2013). A recent analysis of the

European baseline survey of HuNoVs in oysters showed that the prevalence of HuNoV genomes was

estimated at 34.5% and 10.8% in European production areas and dispatch centers, respectively (EFSA,

2019).

Based on these prevalence data, new approaches are required for the specific detection of infectious HuNoVs in vulnerable foodstuffs and the environment. Measurements of the capsid integrity of HuNoVs, using HBGA-binding assays prior to genome detection, could be relevant. The benefits and drawbacks of this approach to predicting HuNoV infectivity have been comprehensively reviewed by Manuel et al. (2018). Some authors have suggested that HBGA-binding assays could indicate the 240 extent of capsid damage in response to inactivation factors, and allow to better estimate HuNoV hazard in vulnerable foodstuffs, by discriminating infectious from non-infectious particles (Afolayan et al., 2016; Dancho et al., 2012; Moore et al., 2017). However, another study highlighted the fact that

HuNoVs may specifically bind to HBGAs for particles with i) intact capsid with altered genome or, ii) intact genome with capsid damage(s) located in surrounding regions of the BP (Robin et al., 2019). To more clearly define the potential relevance of HBGA-binding assays to the selection of infectious HuNoVs, this review has collected literature data related to the inactivation of culturable HuNoV surrogates (i.e. MNV, FCV, canine calicivirus (CaCV), TV, HAV, and PV) and data related to the reduction in HuNoV genomes after four processing technologies (heat, chlorine, HPP, UV light). MNV, FCV, CaCV, and TV were selected because they belong to the *Caliciviridae* family. HAV and PV, belonging to the *Picornaviridae* family, were selected because of their high resistance to inactivation treatments, such as heat and UV light (Bertrand et al., 2012; Park et al., 2015). The use of these diverse surrogates gives us a better overview of how the behavior of HuNoVs is affected by different processing technologies. Data on reduction of HuNoV genomes were obtained from direct detection of viral genomes using RT-qPCR and from HBGA-binding assays, followed by genome detection (**Table 1**). Studies using porcine gastric mucin (PGM) before genome detection to evaluate the capsid integrity of HuNoVs after different treatments were also included because PGM (which contains A-like and Lewis-like HBGAs, and sialic acids) can bind to some GI and GII HuNoV strains (Tian et al., 2007b). All these data have been compared to determine whether HBGA-binding to HuNoVs followed by genome detection can be a reliable way of discriminating infectious from non-infectious particles.

#### **4.1. Heat treatment**

The inactivation of infectious HuNoV surrogates and reduction of HuNoV genomes have been examined in various foodstuffs and water, at different temperatures and with different exposure times. Bertrand et al. (2012) thoroughly reviewed the impact of heat treatment on virus inactivation in simple and complex matrices and described a specific regression model to determine the time (in days) to 267 reduce the first  $log_{10}$  (TFL) as a function of temperature according to various parameters (virus species, detection method, matrix, low/high temperature). According to that review, the regression model was used to obtain the TFL values of infectious HuNoV surrogates (i.e. HAV, MNV, CaCV, 270 and FCV) as a function of temperature, for temperatures ranging from  $50^{\circ}$ C to  $80^{\circ}$ C, in simple

matrices (i.e. synthetic media, drinking water, groundwater). A second regression model was drawn up for HuNoV genomes in simple matrices, based on the TFL values used in that review and those 273 determined by another, more recent studies (Bertrand et al., 2012; Escudero-Abarca et al., 2014). Both regression models of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes directly quantified by RT-qPCR were compared to the TFL values of HuNoV genomes quantified after HBGA-binding assays calculated from data obtained by Robin et al. (2019) and Wang and Tian (2014) (**Fig. 2**). As extensively described in the literature, heat-induced inactivation of infectious HuNoV surrogates is known to increase with temperature (Bertrand et al., 2012). Conversely, the decay in TFL values of HuNoV genomes is systematically lower than that of the infectious HuNoV surrogates in the 50–80°C temperature range. This observation confirms the greater persistence of viral genome compared to infectious particles, thus reinforcing the proof that viral genome detection alone cannot predict the behavior of infectious particles after heating. However, quantifying HuNoV genomes after HBGA-binding assays reduces the overestimation of potential infectious HuNoVs provided by the direct 284 detection of viral genome. This overestimation was higher than 1.8  $\log_{10}$  for temperatures below 65°C 285 and remained below 1.0 log<sub>10</sub> at 72 °C. For infectious HuNoV surrogates, 20.6 and 1.3 additional 286 minutes were required to reach a 1.0  $log_{10}$  reduction in HuNoV genomes after HBGA-binding assays 287 at 65°C and 72°C, respectively. RNAse treatments before genome detection by RTqPCR were often used for assessing capsid integrity (i.e. viral particles with damaged capsid allows entry of RNase and genomes of such particles are no more detected by RT-qPCR). Similar results were reported by Walker et al. (2019) when the assessment of the capsid integrity of GA bacteriophages, assessed using two different approaches (i.e. RNAse and PGM assays prior to genome detection), was compared with 292 the corresponding number of infectious particles after heating. Neither method provided  $log_{10}$ reductions similar to those obtained from cultures of infectious GA bacteriophages at temperatures 294 below 72°C held for 5 minutes. It is widely acknowledged that heat treatments mainly cause damages to capsid integrity, rather than to

the RNA genome. For GII.4 HuNoVs, the critical temperature leading to capsid disruption seems to be

297 close to 70 $\degree$ C (Robin et al., 2019). At temperatures below 60 $\degree$ C, mechanisms of virus inactivation

seem to be mainly due to minor modifications/alterations of the capsid, since the viral genome was not accessible to RNAses (Brié et al., 2016).

In conclusion: HBGA-binding assays, followed by HuNoV genome detection can reduce underestimation of the virucidal efficacy of heat treatments that induce significant changes to the capsid structure (i.e. above 70°C). However, this approach does not prevent an overestimation of infectious HuNoVs following heat treatments ranging from 50°C to 70°C because of the minor changes of the capsid.

## **4.2. Chlorine treatment**

Chlorinated water is widely used in many countries for washing fresh vegetables (e.g. salads, carrots) or berries (e.g. raspberries). Chlorine disinfection is also widely used in drinking water plants prior to distribution. The virucidal efficacy of chlorine disinfection has been evaluated in many studies over 310 the years (Bosch et al., 2018; Knight et al., 2016). Log<sub>10</sub> C/C<sub>0</sub> values of infectious HuNoV surrogates (i.e. MNV, TV, and FCV) and HuNoV genomes (whether or not they are associated with HBGA-binding assays) as a function of chlorine doses in water or cell culture media were collected from the 313 literature data. The results are shown in **Fig. 3**.  $C_0$  corresponds to the value obtained at time 0 and C corresponds to the value obtained after chlorine disinfection for a given Ct value. Ct values were 315 defined as the free chlorine concentration  $(mg.L^{-1})$  multiplied by the contact time (in minutes). As expected, chlorine-induced inactivation of infectious HuNoV surrogates increases with Ct value. 317 More than 4.0-log<sub>10</sub> inactivation was obtained for Ct values from 2.5 mg.min.L<sup>-1</sup> for MNV. Reductions in HuNoV genomes directly quantified by RT-qPCR as a function of Ct values were highly variable. The efficacy of chlorine disinfection on HuNoV genomes seems to be dependent on study design, and particularly on the methods used to measure free chlorine during the experiments and the purification of HuNoV particles before treatment. "Purified HuNoVs" from human stool samples were more sensitive to chlorine disinfection than "untreated HuNoVs" for the same Ct value. For example, a 3.6  $log_{10}$  reduction in genomes of "purified HuNoVs" was obtained for a Ct value of 15 mg.min.L<sup>-1</sup>, while 324 a 0.4 log<sub>10</sub> reduction in genomes of "untreated HuNoVs" was reached for a Ct value of 250 mg.min.L<sup>-1</sup> (Kitajima et al., 2010; Tung et al., 2013). The matrix effect promotes the persistence of HuNoVs

during chlorine disinfection. The efficacy of decontamination depends on the amount of organic matter present in water, since this promotes the formation of chlorination by-products, but also the accessibility of viral particles to free chlorine (Bosch et al., 2018). As observed, after heating, HBGA-binding assays followed by HuNoV genome detection reduce the underestimation of the virucidal efficacy of chlorine disinfection provided by direct HuNoV genome detection. Free chlorine exerted a dose-dependent reduction in HuNoV genomes after HBGA-binding, as demonstrated by Wang and Tian (2014).

The mechanisms of virus inactivation induced by free chlorine have been shown to damage both the capsid and the genome (Brié et al., 2017; Wigginton et al., 2012b). Some authors showed that some particles may no longer recognize their receptors, while others are no longer able to inject their genomes into the host cell (Wigginton et al., 2012b). Both capsid disruption and RNA damages were observed by the same authors, even though the capsid structures of the viruses remained unbroken after high doses of chlorine (Brié et al., 2017; Loison et al., 2016). Another study showed a positive correlation between the reduction in infectious human astrovirus and the amount of oxidative damage to the viral capsid (i.e. carbonyl groups) after chlorine disinfection (Sano et al., 2010). The same authors suggest that the detection of carbonyl groups could be useful to estimate the reduction in HuNoV infectivity induced by oxidative treatments. Using Qβ and MS2 bacteriophages, Bastin et al. (2020) have located oxidative damages to viral particles, and especially to cysteine, methionine, tyrosine, and tryptophan.

In conclusion: the reduction in the underestimation of HuNoV inactivation induced by chlorine disinfection using HBGA-binding assays prior to genome detection can be explained either by capsid disruption or by oxidative damages in the BP region. However, this approach has the drawback that it is unable to specifically select infectious HuNoVs, since oxidative damages can be incurred in the viral genome and/or capsid amino acids located in remote regions of the BP.

## **4.3. High pressure processing**

For the past two decades, use of HPP has been a promising alternative for food products that cannot be treated using heat or chlorine disinfection. HPP compresses food suspended in liquid and then rapidly

releases the pressure (Barbosa-Cánovas et al., 1998). The virucidal impact of HPP on contaminated 355 foodstuffs has been thoroughly reviewed by Kingsley (2013). Using the literature data, the  $log_{10}$  C/C<sub>0</sub> values of infectious HuNoV surrogates (i.e. MNV, TV, and FCV) and HuNoV genomes (whether associated with HBGA-binding assays or not) following 2 min of HPP in simple matrices (i.e. water or cell culture media) were collected. The results are shown in **Fig. 4** and **Fig. 5** for HPP at temperatures of 0–4°C and 20–25°C, respectively. As described previously (Bosch et al., 2018; Kingsley, 2013), the inactivation of infectious HuNoV surrogates increases with pressure applied, in a dose-dependent 361 manner. HPP led to  $0.1-7.4 \log_{10}$  inactivation at 100–700 MPa and 0.7–6.0 log<sub>10</sub> inactivation of infectious viruses at 150–450 MPa at 0–4°C and 20–25°C, respectively. We also noted a higher 363 persistence of HuNoV genomes, since a reduction to below 1 log<sub>10</sub> was achieved below 450 MPa at both temperature ranges. This was confirmed by a randomized clinical trial for the inactivation of infectious HuNoV in artificially contaminated oysters (Leon et al., 2011). The same authors showed that GI.1 HuNoVs were completely inactivated at 600 MPa, but not at 400 MPa, after 5 minutes. The capability of HBGA-binding to GII.4 and GI.1 HuNoVs gradually decreased with increased HPP. There were clear differences between these two genotypes in the resistance of the viral capsid in response to HPP. Here again, by quantifying HuNoV genomes following HBGA-binding assays we can avoid the underestimation of the efficacy of HPP provided by estimating this based on direct detection of viral genome. This is particularly true of HPP above 200–250 MPa and 450–500 MPa in the two temperature ranges used for GII.4 HuNoVs and GI.1 HuNoVs, respectively. As previously described (Bosch et al., 2018), the inactivation of infectious viruses by HPP is influenced by the temperature, with greater efficacy in the 0–4°C temperature range. The same authors emphasize that other factors, such as pH and salt concentrations within the foodstuffs, influence HPP performance in virus inactivation. The mechanisms of virus inactivation induced by HPP mainly occur on the viral capsid, and involve the dissociation and denaturation of the capsid proteins (Bosch et al., 2018; Kingsley, 2013; Kingsley

et al., 2002; Lou et al., 2011). Thus, alteration of the capsid proteins can prevent attachment to the cell

receptors or genome injection into the host cell.

In conclusion: the use of HBGA-binding followed by genome detection decreases the overestimation of infectious GII.4 HuNoVs and GI.1 HuNoVs for HPP above 200–250 MPa and 450–500 MPa, respectively. But this approach does not appear to be suitable for predicting HuNoV infectivity in all situations, especially at low doses.

## **4.4. Ultraviolet light**

UV light is frequently used as a sanitizer for drinking water, food contact surfaces, and liquid and solid food items (Food and Drug Administration, 2011). Many studies have been performed to assess the virucidal efficacy of UV light, particularly in water or buffer solutions (Bosch et al., 2018; Lee et 390 al., 2008; Thurston-Enriquez et al., 2003). Log<sub>10</sub> C/C<sub>0</sub> values of infectious HuNoV surrogates (i.e. MNV, HAV, TV, PV, and FCV) and HuNoV genomes (including a direct detection and after HBGA-binding assays) as a function of UV-C radiation between 220 nm and 254 nm were collected from the

literature data (**Fig. 6**).

Infectious HuNoV surrogates are very sensitive to UV light, since less than 200 mJ/cm² is sufficient to

395 reach 6.0  $log_{10}$  inactivation. Conversely, HuNoV genomes are more persistent since a less than 3.0

log<sub>10</sub> reduction was obtained after UV disinfection at 1,000 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>. No difference appears between

HuNoV genomes directly quantified by RT-qPCR and HuNoV genomes quantified after HBGA-

binding. Walker et al. (2019) compared the inactivation by UV light of infectious GA bacteriophages

to that of HuNoVs, using two methods to determine capsid integrity (i.e. RNAse and PGM assays

before genome quantification). The same authors showed that both methods could remove some of the

- non-infectious particles, but most of them were still detected by RT-qPCR, leading to an
- underestimation of the virucidal efficacy of UV treatment.

The mechanisms of virus inactivation induced by UV light have been widely investigated over the last

four decades. Photons are absorbed by nucleic acids (i.e. RNA and DNA) and cause several types of

- damages involving either single bases, cross-links between adjacent bases, or cross-links between
- nucleic acids and proteins (Shetlar, 1980; Simonet and Gantzer, 2006a; Wigginton et al., 2010, 2012b,
- 2012a). These cross-links can modify the integrity or conformation of the viral capsid (Bastin et al.,
- 2020).

In conclusion: estimation of HuNoV inactivation by UV treatment through the use of HBGA-binding followed by genome detection does not provide any added value compared with direct detection of viral genomes. Damages to the capsid proteins or RNA genomes were not sufficient to prevent HBGA-binding and/or genome detection. Alternative approaches based on the measurement of genome integrity, such as detection of the whole genome or both ends of the genome could reduce the overestimation of infectious HuNoVs following UV treatments (Kostela et al., 2008; Li et al., 2002). 

For all processing technologies (heat, chlorine, HPP, and UV light), direct genome detection very clearly underestimates the virucidal efficacy of treatments. The specific selection of HuNoV particles able to recognize HBGAs reduces this underestimation, but only for processing technologies inducing significant changes in capsid structure, such as heating above 70°C or HPP above 450–500 MPa. Conversely, this method does not prevent the overestimation of potential infectious HuNoVs after heating at lower temperatures, low dose HPP or UV treatments. Even though HBGA-binding assays followed by genome detection seem to limit this overestimation after chlorine disinfection, further investigation, using harmonized experiments, is required to better evaluate the impact of this treatment on capsid integrity.

#### **5. HBGA-binding to HuNoVs: a factor promoting virus transmission**

Virus transmission is not only affected by the inactivation of the virus but also by its adhesion to different surfaces. Virus adhesion is usually explained by non-specific (i.e. electrostatic or hydrophobic) interactions (Gerba and Betancourt, 2017; Vega et al., 2008). HBGA-binding to HuNoVs is specific, highly diverse, and may demonstrate the integrity of the BP on the capsid. Almand et al. (2017a) have classified non-HBGA ligands with specific binding interactions with HuNoV capsids into four groups: simple chemical components, complex human biological components, food ligands, and HBGA-like carbohydrates. All these groups are of interest to those seeking to better understand virus transmission through food and the environment, since they can bind to HuNoV capsids outside the host cell (Almand et al., 2017a; Etzold and Bode, 2014; Hansman et al., 2012; Koromyslova et al., 2015). With regard to foodstuffs, it has been demonstrated that HBGA-like

carbohydrates found in the digestive tissues of oysters (i.e. A and H types, and sialic acids) promote the accumulation of HuNoVs in that specific organ (Le Guyader et al., 2006a; Maalouf et al., 2011, 2010; Tian et al., 2007a). Some food ligands were also found on the surface of fresh vegetables and berries (i.e. A, H, and Lewis a types), and thus contribute to increase HuNoV adhesion (Esseili et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2016; Li et al., 2012a; Zhang et al., 2019). Finally, some HBGA-like carbohydrates present on bacteria found in the human gut (e.g. *E. cloacae*, lactic acid bacteria) can also participate in HuNoV transmission through food and the environment. Specific binding interactions between HuNoVs and environmental matrices, through HBGA-like carbohydrates, have been well described by Amarasiri and Sano (2019). In addition to non-specific interactions, these specific interactions with foodstuffs and bacteria can influence the attachment, behavior, and circulation of infectious HuNoVs in the environment.

If specific adhesions to foods, through HBGA-like carbohydrates, are significant compared to non-specific adhesions, HuNoVs able to interact with HBGAs should be more frequently detected in matrices responsible for viral foodborne outbreaks. This may be true of food contaminated by HuNoVs through the water cycle (e.g. fecal pollution of water, food that has come into contact with contaminated water) where adhesion capacity is important. In the case of contamination by HuNoVs through food handling operations, the most frequent mode of contamination, adhesion capacity probably has a minor impact because of the high degree of virus dissemination. It is highly difficult to classify food pollution origins by HuNoVs (i.e. from water cycle and others). For example, HuNoV outbreaks reported as person-to-person transmission events may have initially originated in food. Many HuNoV foodborne outbreaks are also due to food handling by infected people (Verhoef et al., 2015). Thus, it is of interest to compare the diversity of HuNoV genotypes detected in foodstuffs to that reported in infected human populations. This will potentially highlight a selection by foods based on their HBGA-binding profiles. However, it is important to underline that the relative HuNoV genotype prevalence in people and foods could differ between regions, based on a number of human host, societal, and cultural factors, so all comparisons should take that caveat into consideration. GII.4 HuNoV is the most prevalent genotype worldwide, and has caused around 70% of outbreaks since 2002 (Beek et al., 2018). The ability of GII.4 HuNoVs to adapt to water/food transmission needs

more comprehensive study, focusing on survival and/or adhesion properties in the environment (Mans, 2019; Matthews et al., 2012; Verhoef et al., 2010). At the genogroup level, it has been reported that waterborne outbreaks related to GI HuNoVs outnumbered those of GII HuNoVs (Matthews et al., 2012). At the genotype level, GI.2 and GI.4 HuNoVs were more frequently reported in foodborne than in human outbreaks from 1999 to 2004 (Verhoef et al., 2010). In studies of prevalence in foodstuffs, GI HuNoVs were more frequently detected in bivalve molluscan shellfish (46%) than in infected people (12%) (Verhoef et al., 2010). Moreover, GI and GII HuNoVs were detected in 43% and 88%, respectively, of raw wastewaters from four municipal wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) during winter months, and in 24% and 14%, respectively, of treated wastewaters (Silva et al., 2007). These same authors have suggested that WWTPs are less effective for the removal of GI HuNoVs than for that of GII HuNoVs. Since HBGA-binding to HuNoVs is highly specific, with multiple binding patterns and variable relative affinities as a function of genotype, rather than at the genogroup level (Huang et al., 2005; Shirato et al., 2008), in 2019, literature data were analyzed to determine the presence of HuNoV genotypes in food matrices, whether or not they were implicated in foodborne outbreaks. The data were collected by separating prevalence studies from studies of foodborne outbreaks. For the first set of studies, the keywords "norovirus," "food," and "detection" were searched for, and a total of 441 records were found. Forty-three of these were selected, after the exclusion of non-relevant publications (e.g. those unrelated to food, and those dealing with viral detection in water or development of methods). Bivalve molluscan shellfish represented 86.3% of the total food matrices, compared with 13.6% for berries and vegetables. HuNoV genotypes are more rarely identified in berries and vegetables, but both GI and GII HuNoVs were found in similar proportions, ranging from 5% to 24.3% (Brassard et al., 2012; De Keuckelaere et al., 2015; El-Senousy et al., 2013; Loutreul et al., 2014; Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2014; Stals et al., 2011). In the case of bivalve molluscan shellfish, 18 publications identified the HuNoV genotypes in their prevalence studies from 2003 to 2016. The data are represented in **Fig. 7**.

For the second set of studies dedicated to HuNoVs involved in foodborne outbreaks, the keywords "norovirus," "foodborne" and "outbreak" were searched for and a total of 432 records were found.

Ninety of these, published between 1993 and 2019, were selected, after the exclusion of a large number of publications (i.e. those that dealt with transmission by food handlers, co-outbreaks with other pathogens, or waterborne outbreaks, or that did not contain information about the contaminated foodstuffs involved). Of the 90 publications, only 51 (56.7%) characterized the genotypes by sequencing. The proportions of bivalve molluscan shellfish, berries, vegetables, and other food items implicated in outbreaks in the selected publications were 53%, 16%, 14%, and 17%, respectively. The frequency of detection of each genotype for each food category is represented in **Fig. 8**. Unlike the direct detection of HuNoVs in vulnerable foodstuffs using the ISO 15216 standard, which is limited to the genogroup, the determination of the genotype by sequencing is used in investigations of foodborne outbreaks when HuNoVs are detectable in leftover food. In the case of oysters, 23–25 different HuNoV genotypes were reported by Yu et al. (2015), based on molecular epidemiology and temporal–geographical distribution from 1983 to 2014. The diversity of HuNoV genotypes reported in oysters could be explained by the dissemination of viral particles through the effluents of municipal WWTPs (or personal sanitation) located near shellfish production areas. In the case of berries and vegetables, water irrigation is considered a major source of viral contamination (Kokkinos et al., 2017). To better understand whether some food items could influence HuNoV transmission, HuNoV genotypes characterized by prevalence studies performed on bivalve molluscan shellfish (**Fig. 7**) and by several foodborne outbreak investigations (**Fig. 8**) were compared to those described in the literature as responsible for human gastroenteritis cases between 2000 and 2016 (Chan et al., 2015; Ferreira et al., 2010; Kumthip et al., 2018; Vega et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2012). As expected, GII.4 HuNoV is the most prevalent genotype reported in oysters in surveys and foodborne outbreak investigations. GI.4 HuNoV is the second most prevalent genotype reported in foodstuffs. Surprisingly, this genotype is not highly represented in cases of human infection, with a prevalence ranging from 0.3% to 1.1% (**Table 3**). GII.7, GII.6, GI.2, and GII.3 HuNoVs are also described as frequently detected in foodstuffs, but their occurrence in reported human cases is variable, ranging from 0.3% to 15% (**Table 3**). To summarize: some genotypes, particularly GII.4, GII.3, and GII.6 HuNoVs, are frequently identified

in both food and infected people. Conversely, other genotypes, such as GI.4, GI.2, and GII.7 HuNoVs,

are frequently detected in food, but less often characterized in infected people. This could suggest the potential selection of certain HuNoV genotypes based on their adhesion capacities and/or survival in the environment and in humans. However, other reasons should not be overlooked, such as the detection of some less virulent strains in food, which would be less frequently isolated in clinical cases. Interestingly, we may observe that the six most prevalent genotypes in food, described above, belong to the A/B binding group described by Huang et al. (2005) (**Table 4**). However, GI.3, GII.1, and GII.12 HuNoVs belonging to the A/B binding group are less often described in foods but were frequently reported in human cases (**Table 3**). Thus, more comprehensive studies are required to improve knowledge of the potential selection of some HuNoV genotypes in food through non-HBGA ligands. In conclusion: various non-HBGA ligands have been found in food or in the environment. It can

therefore be assumed that specific binding interactions between HuNoVs and HBGA-like carbohydrates may have a direct influence on the adhesion capacity of HuNoVs to food matrices. This may occur directly, through ligands present in food items, or indirectly, through specific bacteria potentially present on food surfaces. These specific interactions in food and the environment are HuNoV genogroup- or genotype-dependent, but the selection of the genogroup or genotype by non-HBGA binding capacity remains unclear and needs further investigation.

#### **6. Conclusions**

Molecular methods are currently widely used to detect HuNoV genomes in surveys of food or environmental matrices, but this strategy both overestimates the number of infectious HuNoVs in surveys and underestimates the virucidal efficacy of processing technologies. Several studies assume that HBGAs, putative attachment factors that promote HuNoV infection in host cells, could be suitable for selecting potential infectious particles. However, basic knowledge is required to better define the role of HBGAs during host cell infection before using HBGA-binding assays to potentially select infectious HuNoVs. This review highlighted the fact that HBGA-binding followed by genome detection can reduce the overestimation of infectious HuNoVs, but only for processing technologies 548 that allow significant changes to the capsid structure (e.g. heating above 70 $\degree$ C or HPP above 450–500

MPa). Conversely, this approach is not suitable for estimating the virucidal efficacy of processing technologies (e.g. heating below 65–70°C, low dose HPP, UV light) that allow minor disruption of the capsid. Thus, HBGA-binding assays can only select the presence of intact BP located in the viral capsid, but cannot predict HuNoV infectivity. In addition, a large number of non-HBGA ligands found in either food or the environment have now been identified. It is widely acknowledged that some HBGA-like carbohydrates promote the adhesion or accumulation of HuNoVs in food items, especially oysters and some fresh vegetables. Such interactions may enhance viral transmission through food and the environment. Epidemiological data indicate a trend toward the transmission of HuNoV genotypes, but the influence of specific binding interactions between HuNoVs and non-HBGA ligands on the behavior, survival, and circulation through the environment of viruses is still unclear and more comprehensive studies are needed. **Acknowledgements** The review was performed within the scope of OxyVir, a project funded by the "*Fonds Européen pour les Affaires Maritimes et la Pêche*" (FEAMP). This study was also supported by the Joint Technological Unit ACTIA VIROcontrol. **Funding**  This research did not receive a specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors. **References**  Afolayan, O.T., Webb, C.C., Cannon, J.L., 2016. Evaluation of a porcine gastric mucin and RNase A assay for the discrimination of infectious and non-infectious GI.1 and GII.4 norovirus following thermal, ethanol, or levulinic acid plus sodium dodecyl sulfate treatments. Food Environ. Virol. 8, 70–78. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12560-015-9219-z. Almand, E.A., Moore, M.D., Jaykus, L.-A., 2019. Characterization of human norovirus binding to gut-associated bacterial ligands. BMC Res. Notes. 12, 607. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13104-019- 4669-2.

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#### **FIGURE LEGENDS**

**Figure 1: Capsid structure of GI.1 Norwalk virus (PDB 1IHM**). Capsid composed of 180 copies of VP1 assembled into 90 dimers (A). Dimer (B) and monomer (C) of VP1. In purple: shell domain; in orange and red: P1 subdomain; in green: P2 subdomain (Prasad et al. (1999); http://www.jmol.org). 

**Figure 2: Time to reduce the first log10 (TFL) of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV** 

**genomes as a function of temperature.** The dotted line represents the regression model of infectious HuNoV surrogates defined by Bertrand et al. (2012). The solid line represent the regression model of HuNoV genomes using eight TFL values determined from raw data obtained by Bertrand et al. (2012) and Escudero-Abarca et al. (2014). Squares represent the TFL values of HuNoV genomes quantified after HBGA-binding assays, determined from the raw data obtained by Wang and Tian (2014) and Robin et al. (2019).

**Figure 3: Decay of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes as a function of chlorine disinfection.** Grey triangles, grey circles and black squares correspond to infectious HuNoV surrogates, HuNoV genomes, and HuNoV genomes after HBGA-binding, respectively (for more 1390 information about data collection, see **Table 1**). C<sub>0</sub>: initial concentration; C: concentration obtained after chlorine treatment. The lines representing HuNoV genomes (solid line) and infectious HuNoV surrogates (dotted line) indicate decay rates using the data collected.

#### **Figure 4: Decay of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes as a function of high**

**pressure processing between 0°C and 4°C**. Grey triangles, grey circles, black squares and white

squares correspond to infectious HuNoV surrogates, HuNoV genomes, GII.4 HuNoV genomes after

HBGA-binding, and GI.1 HuNoV genomes after HBGA-binding, respectively (for more information,

1398 see **Table 1**). C<sub>0</sub>: initial concentration; C: concentration obtained after high pressure processing. Lines

representing HuNoV genomes (solid line) and infectious HuNoV surrogates (dotted line) indicate

decay rates using the data collected.

**Figure 5: Decay of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes as a function of high** 

**pressure processing between 20°C and 25°C**. Grey triangles, grey circles, black squares and white

squares correspond to infectious HuNoV surrogates, HuNoV genomes, GII.4 HuNoV genomes after

HBGA-binding, and GI.1 HuNoV genomes after HBGA-binding, respectively (for more information,

1406 see **Table 1**). C<sub>0</sub>: initial concentration; C: concentration obtained after high pressure processing. Lines

representing HuNoV genomes (solid line) and infectious HuNoV surrogates (dotted line) indicate

decay rates using the data collected.

**Figure 6: Decay of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes as a function of UV light**. Grey triangles, grey circles, and black squares correspond to infectious HuNoV surrogates, HuNoV genomes, and HuNoV genomes after HBGA-binding, respectively (for more information, see **Table 1**). C<sub>0</sub>: initial concentration; C: concentration obtained after UV. Lines representing HuNoV genomes (solid line) and infectious HuNoV surrogates (dotted line) indicate decay ratesusing the data collected. 

# **Figure 7: HuNoV genotypes detected in shellfish, based on 18 reports published between 2003**

**and 2016.** The frequency of occurrence of each given genotype is expressed as a percentage. HuNoV

genotypes with detection frequencies greater than or equal to 6% are shown in text boxes with bold

borders. Adapted from Boxman et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2005; Costantini et al., 2006; Croci et al.,

2007; Hansman et al., 2008; Imamura et al., 2017, 2016; Kittigul et al., 2016, 2011; La Rosa et al.,

2017; Lowmoung et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2013; Myrmel et al., 2004; Nishida et al., 2007; Pu et al.,

2018, 2016; Rajko-Nenow et al., 2013; Tunyakittaveeward et al., 2019.

#### **Figure 8: HuNoV genotypes detected in shellfish, berries, vegetables, and other food items**

**responsible for foodborne outbreaks worldwide, according to 51 published reports.** Each

percentage corresponds to the frequency of occurrence of a given genotype, according to the reports.

The six most prevalent HuNoV genotypes in foodstuffs (i.e. GII.4, GI.4, GII.7, GII.6, GI.2, and GII.3)

are shown in text boxes with bold borders. GI: genogroup 1; GII: genogroup 2. For more information,

see **Table 2**.

## 1430 **TABLES**

- 1431 **Table 1: Data collection related to inactivation of infectious HuNoV surrogates and reduction of**
- 1432 **HuNoV genomes following the use of processing technologies.** MNV: Murine Norovirus; CaCV:
- 1433 Canine Calicivirus; HAV: Hepatitis A Virus; TV: Tulane Virus; FCV: Feline Calicivirus; PV:
- 1434 Poliovirus; HuNoVs: genomes directly detected by RT-qPCR; HuNoVs + HBGAs: HuNoV genomes
- 1435 detected after HBGA-binding. HPP: high pressure processing. UV: ultraviolet light. The ranges used
- 1436 in the respective processing technologies were as follows: heating from 50 to 80°C; chlorine
- 1437 disinfection of between 0.25 and 500 mg.min.L<sup>-1</sup>; HPP of 100 to 700 MPa, and 100 to 550 MPa, in the
- 1438 0–4°C and 20–25°C temperature ranges, respectively; and UV light of 4 to 1,000 mJ/cm².





# 1440 **Table 2: HuNoV genotypes associated with 51 reported foodborne outbreaks.** F: Number of times



1441 a given genotype was detected. Ref (x): References (number of publications reporting the genotype).

# 1443 **Table 3: Estimated frequencies of HuNoV genotypes associated with foodborne outbreaks.** Data



1444 from 5 reported outbreaks were used to calculate frequencies, which are expressed as a percentage.

## 1446 **Table 4: HBGA-binding profiles of HuNoV genotypes according to the three binding groups**

1447 **described by Huang et al. (2005)** A/B: A/B binding group; Le: Lewis binding group; NB: No binding



1448 group; ND: Not determined.

1449 Adapted from Donaldson et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2005, 2003; Jin et al., 2016; Nordgren et al., 2010;

1450 Shanker et al., 2014; Shirato, 2011.

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**Figure 1: Capsid structure of GI.1 Norwalk virus (PDB 1IHM).** 







**genomes as a function of temperature.** 



**Figure 3: Decay of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes as a function of chlorine disinfection.** 



**Figure 4: Decay of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes as a function of high** 

**pressure processing between 0°C and 4°C**.



**Figure 5: Decay of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes as a function of high pressure processing between 20°C and 25°C**.







1482<br>1483 **Figure 6: Decay of infectious HuNoV surrogates and HuNoV genomes as a function of UV light.**



**Figure 7: HuNoV genotypes detected in shellfish, based on 18 reports published between 2003** 

**and 2016.** 





# **responsible for foodborne outbreaks worldwide according to 51 published reports.**