## $\sim$ FFF $\sim$  1.1  $\sim$  1.

## Kapoor et al. 10.1073/pnas.1101794108

## SI Materials and Methods

Genome Sequencing and Phylogenetic Analysis. Sequences with similarity to flaviviruses were assembled against prototype hepatitis C virus (HCV) strains. Gaps were filled by primer walking using specific and degenerate flavivirus primers. Both termini of the genome were acquired by using RACE (1). Thereafter, sequence validity was tested in 4× genome coverage by classical dideoxy Sanger sequencing. Nucleotide compositions of different flaviviruses and canine hepacivirus (CHV) were determined by using EMBOSS compseq ([http://emboss.](http://emboss.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/emboss/compseq) [bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/emboss/compseq](http://emboss.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/emboss/compseq)). Translated amino acid sequences were aligned with ClustalW. Trees were constructed by neighbor joining of pairwise amino acid distances with the program MEGA5 (2), using bootstrap resampling to determine robustness.

Screening and Quantitative PCR. All respiratory and tissue samples were extracted with Qiagen viral RNA extraction kit and RNeasy tissue DNA/RNA extraction kit. RNA was converted to cDNA using random primers and then used in nested PCR with primers for the first round (Chv-0F1: 5′-TCCACCTATGGTAAGTTC-TTAGC-3′ and Chcv-0R1: 5′-ACCCTGTCATAAGGGCGTC-3′) and the second round (Chcv-0F2: 5′-CCTATGGTAAGTTC-TTAGCTGAC-3′ and Chcv-0R2: 5′-CCTGTCATAAGGGCG-TCCGT-3′). All PCR products were sequenced to confirm the presence of CHV in samples. Quantitative PCR to determine the CHV genome copy number in respiratory samples was performed by using SYBR green chemistry and a plasmid containing HCV helicase gene as a copy number standard. The primers used were 5′-GCCATAGCACAGACTCCAC-3′ (CHV-SG-F1) and 5′-GACGGAAACATCCAAACCCCG-3′ (CHV-SG-2R1) with ready-to-use PCR mix (Applied Biosystems).

Evolutionary Analysis. Bayesian Markov chains Monte Carlo (MCMC) phylogenies and associated time to most recent com-

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mon ancestor (TMRCA) for representative members of the HCV strains, CHV-01, and GHV-B were estimated by using a 555-nt segment of the NS5B gene in the program BEAST v1.6 (3). TMRCA was estimated by using a relaxed molecular clock with an uncorrelated log-normal distribution on the rate that was calibrated by using external rate estimates based on the NS5B genes of  $(i)$  the global diversity of HCV subtypes 1a and 1b  $(4)$ and  $(ii)$  HCV subtype 6 diversity in Asia  $(5)$ . Normal and lognormal distributions were determined by the mean and 95% highest posterior densities (HPDs) of the reported substitution rates for all three codon positions as well as only the first and second codon positions to limit the effect of potential site saturation at the third position. A general time reversible of nucleotide substitution was used, with rate heterogeneity among sites modeled by a discrete gamma distribution with four rate categories, as determined by ModelTest (6). All analyses were performed with several tree priors, including a speciation model (Yule) and two unconstrained coalescent models, the Bayesian Skyline (7) and Bayesian Skyride (8) demographic models. MCMC sampling was performed for  $5 \times 10^7$  generations, sampling every 5,000 generations. Convergence and mixing were assessed with the program Tracer v1.5 [\(http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk\)](http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk). Maximum clade credibility trees were generated with TreeAnnotator (3).

For the data sets calibrated with both HCV subtypes 1 a/b and subtype 6, the Yule speciation model had the best fit to the data, as assessed by comparing the posterior tree likelihoods ([Fig. S3\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1101794108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201101794SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF3). Analyses that included third-codon positions resulted in wider 95% HPDs around the mean TMRCA, likely because of an increased number of substitutions at that site. However, all modelprior combinations for each of the rate calibrations resulted in 95% HPDs that were overlapping between the analyses, indicating that estimates are robust to the choice of tree prior and inclusion of third-codon positions.

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Fig. S1. Sequence alignment of envelope proteins E1 and E2 of CHV, GB virus B (GBV-B), and HCV genotypes 1a through 7a. Cysteine and asparagine residues are highlighted in yellow and green, respectively. Cysteines experimentally determined to form disulfide bridges in HCV E2 are shown in blue boxes, and blue numbers indicate disulfide connectivity (9). Predicted N-glycosylation sites in E1 and experimentally determined sites in E2 are shown in red boxes (10).



Fig. S2. RNA folding prediction with the thermodynamic folding energy minimization algorithm (MFOLD) of the terminal 540 nt of the CHV coding sequence. Base positions are numbered according to the HCV H77 numbering reference sequence.



Fig. S3. Evolutionary analysis. Bayesian MCMC estimation of the TMRCA for the HCV strains, GBV-B, and CHV. Maximum clade credibility phylogeny of representative members of HCV (HCV 1: NC\_004102; HCV 2: NC\_009823; HCV 3: NC\_009824; HCV 4: NC\_009825; HCV 5: NC\_009826; and HCV 6: NC\_009827), hepatitis GBV-B (NC\_001655), and CHV-01. TMRCAs were calculated by calibration with evolutionary rates estimated for NS5B based on HCV subtypes 1a and 1b (4) (A) and HCV subtype 6 (5) (B). The mean TMRCAs with associated 95% highest probability densities for each node are shown to the left of the node, and the Bayesian posterior probabilities are given to the right. The scale bars are in units of years before present (ybp).





Amino acid divergence is given in parentheses. IH, Insufficient homology for valid comparison; ND, not done (only one sequence available); PgV, Pegivirus (GBV-A, -C, and -D).

## Table S2. Sequences, accession nos., and virus abbreviations used in the phylogenetic analysis described in Fig. 4



cds, coding sequence; Unassgd, unassigned.

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