

Evolution of dengue virus in Mexico is characterized by frequent lineage replacement

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Received: 12 February 2010 / Accepted: 1 June 2010 / Published online: 15 June 2010
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Abstract Both dengue fever and its more serious clinical manifestation, dengue hemorrhagic fever, represent major public health concerns in the Americas. To understand the patterns and dynamics of virus transmission in Mexico, a country characterized by a marked increase in dengue incidence in recent years, we undertook a molecular evolutionary analysis of the largest sample of Mexican strains of dengue virus compiled to date. Our E gene data set comprises sequences sampled over a period of 27 years and representing all of the Mexican states that are endemic for dengue. Our phylogenetic analysis reveals that, for each of the four dengue viruses (DENV-1 to DENV-4), there have been multiple introductions of viral lineages in Mexico, with viruses similar to those observed throughout the Americas, but there has been strikingly little co-circulation. Rather, dengue virus evolution in Mexico is typified by

frequent lineage replacement, such that only a single viral lineage dominates in a specific serotype at a specific time point. Most lineage replacement events involve members of the same viral genotype, although a replacement event involving different genotypes was observed with DENV-2, and viral lineages that are new to Mexico are described for DENV-1, DENV-3 and DENV-4.

Introduction

Dengue is one of the most important re-emerging infections in the Americas. The rise of dengue in this region is particularly striking given that many countries were declared free of the principal mosquito vector, *Aedes aegypti*, by the mid-1950s, which greatly reduced the levels of transmission of dengue virus [33]. However, the breakdown of mosquito-control measures precipitated the reappearance of both *A. aegypti* and dengue. An important case in point concerns Mexico, where re-emergent dengue

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s00705-010-0721-1) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

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fever (DF) was first described in 1978. DENV-1 was the first virus detected, and cases occurred throughout the country until 1981, when DENV-2 was introduced, followed by DENV-4 in 1982 and DENV-3 in 1995. The first cases of dengue hemorrhagic fever (DHF) were reported in 1984 [20]. All four DEN viruses now cause regular dengue epidemics in Mexico, sometimes with relatively high levels of mortality due to DHF, and with a marked increase in incidence at locations close to the border with the United States [4, 26]. In total, some 26,500 cases of DHF were reported in Mexico between 1995 and 2007, and it now represents a major public health problem, with increases in dengue incidence noted in a number of states, such as Oaxaca [14].

Dengue is caused by a group of four viruses (DENV-1 to DENV-4; also referred to as serotypes) that are classified within the family *Flaviviridae* of single-strand positive-sense RNA viruses. Notably, each of the four viruses is comprised of a number of phylogenetically distinct lineages, termed ‘genotypes’ or ‘subtypes’, which differ in both geographical and sometimes clinical association [16, 27]. Although phylogenetic trees of DENV are typically drawn comprising all available genotypes, it is clear that DENV lineages, including whole genotypes, experience regular birth and death, such that some lineages proliferate while others perish (reviewed in ref. [15]). It is just such a process that has seemingly led to replacement of the American by ‘Asian’ genotype viruses in the Americas [28], while more fine-scale lineage replacement events have been observed in several Asian countries [32, 35, 36].

Although the renewed presence of the *A. aegypti* mosquito, coupled with a largely susceptible host population, is undoubtedly a major reason for the reappearance of dengue in the Americas, the factors that drive the irregular appearance of dengue epidemics in countries such as Mexico are unclear. In principle, the reasons underlying these distinctive epidemiological patterns could be either ecological or virological, involving such factors as climate change, the increasing global connectedness of human populations, rapid urbanization, and the presence of viral genotypes (or component lineages) that have elevated transmissibility in either the human or mosquito populations in this geographical region. Although it is tempting to invoke climate as a driving force of dengue epidemics, a recent analysis revealed that multiyear incidence patterns of dengue in Mexico could not be explained by either changes in precipitation, temperature, or the El Niño southern oscillation [17]. However, it is clear that other ecological factors are important in Mexico, as competence of the *A. aegypti* mosquito vector differs across the country in a manner that is explained by major geographic features, particularly the Neovolcanic axis [23].

Despite the public health importance of dengue in Mexico, there have been relatively few studies of the molecular epidemiology of DENV in this country. Most of the studies undertaken to date have tended to focus on specific geographic regions within Mexico, such as the Yucatan [8] or Oaxaca [5, 21, 25], have considered very small genetic regions [24], or have focused on the prM gene, even though most studies of DENV genetic variability on a global scale have considered the envelope (E) protein. The most comprehensive study to date was that of Díaz et al. [8], who surveyed the phylogenetic diversity in 40 E gene sequences representing all four DEN viruses sampled up to the year 2002. As is true of other geographical locations, clear cases of lineage replacement were noted within the Mexican population.

Our aim in this paper was to update the analysis of Díaz et al. [8] by examining patterns of sequence evolution in a large number (83) of E gene sequences sampled up to the year 2007 and from a variety of locations within Mexico. In particular, we wished to reveal the number of independent introductions of DENV into Mexico, the time-scale of these events, and the occurrence of all lineage replacement events. Given that the introduction of distinct viral lineages may trigger dengue epidemics, such a phylogenetic survey is of clear importance.

Materials and methods

Samples and E gene sequencing

All samples included in this study were obtained from the dengue virus collection of the Instituto de Diagnóstico y Referencia Epidemiológica, Secretaría de Salud, México. This produced a total 14 DENV-1, 16 DENV-2, 3 DENV-3 and 1 DENV-4 new samples (Table 1; Fig. 1). Samples consisted of acute serum or first-passage C6/36-infected cells from DF cases. Serotyping was performed either by immunofluorescence or RT-PCR [18, 19] according to the standard procedure recommended by PAHO/WHO. E gene sequencing was performed as described previously [29]. Specifically, RNA was extracted from 200 µl of the sample using a QIAmp viral RNA kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer’s recommendations. cDNA was produced using random hexamers (Promega) and MuLV reverse transcriptase (Promega). Amplicons for direct sequencing were generated by PCR for the entire E gene using the following specific primers: DENV-1: EIF (AACAA GARCYGARACRTGGATGTC) and E4R (YARTTCAT TTGATATTTGYTTCCACAT); DENV-2: DEN2-env-S3 (ACACCATAGGRACGACRYATTT) and DEN2-env-R3 (CCRCTGCCACAYTTYAGTTCT); DENV-3: DEN3-E2-S (GARAARGTAGARACATGGGC) and DEN3-E2-R

(TCNGCYTGRAAATTTGTATTGCTC); DENV-4: DEN4-env-S2 (TGGATACTYAGAAAYCCAGGART) and DEN4-env-R2 (ACTCTGGTTGYAATTMGACTG). All sequences generated here have been submitted to GenBank and assigned accession numbers HM171538–HM171571 (Table 1).

Phylogenetic analysis

All complete E gene sequences of the four DEN viruses from which the country and year of isolation were available were downloaded from GenBank and combined with these sequences generated here. Viruses sequenced by The Broad

Table 1 Isolates of DENV from Mexico newly sequenced as part of this study

Isolate	Year of sampling	Place of sampling	State	GenBank accession number
DENV-1				
D1/Mexico/Cuernavaca/2/2006	2006	Cuernavaca	Morelos	HM171557
D1/Mexico/Veracruz/23/2006	2006	Veracruz	Veracruz	HM171558
D1/Mexico/Mocorito/10/2006	2006	Mocorito	Sinaloa	HM171559
D1/Mexico/Jalpan de Serra/9/2006	2006	Jalpan de Serra	Queretaro	HM171560
D1/Mexico/Othon P Blanco/14/2007	2007	Othon P Blanco	Quintana Roo	HM171561
D1/Mexico/Ocosingo/22/2006	2007	Ocosingo	Chiapas	HM171562
D1/Mexico/Mujica/16/2007	2007	Mujica	Tabasco	HM171563
D1/Mexico/Ixtaczoquitlan/17/2007	2007	Ixtaczoquitlan	Veracruz	HM171564
D1/Mexico/Leon/18/2007	2007	Leon	Guanajuato	HM171565
D1/Mexico/Huimanguillo/2006	2006	Huimanguillo	Tabasco	HM171566
D1/Mexico/La Colorada/13/2006	2006	La Colorada	Sonora	HM171567
D1/Mexico/Puerto Vallarta/6/2006	2006	Puerto Vallarta	Jalisco	HM171568
D1/Mexico/Cd Victoria/5/2007	2007	Cd Victoria	Tamaulipas	HM171569
D1/Mexico/Nejapa de Morelos/3/2006	2006	Nejapa de Morelos	Oaxaca	HM171570
DENV-2				
D2/Mexico/Amatepec/2/2002	2002	Amatepec	Estado de Mexico	HM171541
D2/Mexico/Jiutepec/3/2002	2002	Jiutepec	Morelos	HM171542
D2/Mexico/Apodaca/4/2002	2002	Apodaca	Nuevo León	HM171543
D2/Mexico/Desconocido/5/2002	2002	Unknown	Unknown	HM171544
D2/Mexico/La Paz/6/2003	2003	La Paz	Baja California Sur	HM171545
D2/Mexico/Tlayacapan/10/2003	2003	Tlayacapan	Morelos	HM171546
D2/Mexico/Cosala/12/2003	2003	Cosala	Sinaloa	HM171547
D2/Mexico/Huatabampo/13/2003	2003	Huatabampo	Sonora	HM171548
D2/Mexico/Playa Vicente/15/2003	2003	Playa Vicente	Veracruz	HM171549
D2/Mexico/Frontera/16/2005	2005	Frontera	Tabasco	HM171550
D2/Mexico/Huautla/17/2005	2005	Huautla	Oaxaca	HM171551
D2/Mexico/Doctor Arroyo/18/2005	2005	Doctor Arroyo	Nuevo León	HM171552
D2/Mexico/Mazatlan/19/2005	2005	Mazatlan	Sinaloa	HM171553
D2/Mexico/Ocosingo/20/2007	2007	Ocosingo	Chiapas	HM171554
D2/Mexico/Tapachula/21/2002	2002	Tapachula	Chiapas	HM171555
D2/Mexico/Ciudad Madero/22/2004	2004	Ciudad Madero	Tamaulipas	HM171556
DENV-3				
D3/Mexico/Alto Lucero/5/2006	2006	Alto Lucero	Veracruz	HM171538
D3/Mexico/La Paz/1/2003	2003	La Paz	Baja California Sur	HM171539
D3/Mexico/Tlaltizapan/3/2006	2006	Tlaltizapan	Morelos	HM171540
DENV-4				
D4/Mexico/Cardenas/2/2006	2006	Cardenas	Tabasco	HM171571

Fig. 1 Map of Mexico showing the division into individual states. Those states from which sequences included in this study were available are shaded gray



Institute were excluded, as these will be described in other publications. This resulted in data sets of the following sizes: DENV-1 = 700 sequences, 1,485 nt; DENV-2 = 860 sequences, 1,485 nt; DENV-3 = 525 sequences, 1,479 nt; DENV-4 = 247 sequences, 1,485 nt. The sequences were aligned manually (available from the authors on request). These data contained the following numbers of Mexican sequences, either generated here or taken from GenBank: DENV-1 = 23 sequences; DENV-2 = 37 sequences; DENV-3 = 10 sequences; DENV-4 = 13 sequences. These sequences were sampled over a period of 27 years (1980–2007) and from 20 different states within Mexico (Fig. 1). Our analysis excluded two isolates previously assigned to the Asian 2 genotype of DENV-2—C932/Guerrero-Mx/97 and C1077/Guerrero-Mx/97 [8]. Because the E gene sequences of these viruses are extremely closely related to those of the New Guinea C strain isolated in 1944, it cannot be conclusively excluded that they are laboratory contaminants. Similarly, we excluded a DENV-2 isolate sampled in Mexico in 1983 (GenBank accession L04561), as it is connected to members of the American genotype by an anomalously long branch [30]. Finally, DENV-2 isolates Oaxaca/1656/2005 and Oaxaca/1038/2005 were excluded because they are claimed to represent inter-genotypic recombinants [25].

To obtain a provisional understanding of the phylogenetic relationships of these sequences, we inferred maximum-likelihood trees using the PHYML package [13], employing SPR branch swapping. In all cases, the GTR + Γ_4 model of nucleotide substitution was utilized

(exact parameter values available from the authors on request). From these initial phylogenies, we selected 100 ‘background’ isolates of each of the four DEN viruses, along with those sampled from Mexico, that could be subjected to more in-depth phylogenetic analysis. Background sequences were selected so as (1) to represent all of the circulating genotypes of each of the four DEN viruses, (2) to include sequences from as wide a sample of years as possible in order to maximize the sensitivity of analysis of temporal dynamics (see below), and (3) to include all sequences that are closely related to those sampled in Mexico and which therefore give information on the introduction of these viruses into this country. This selection process resulted in data sets of the following sizes: DENV-1 = 123 sequences; DENV-2 = 137 sequences; DENV-3 = 110 sequences; DENV-4 = 113 sequences.

Bayesian MCMC analysis

We estimated both the rate of nucleotide substitution per site and the time to the most recent common ancestor (TMRCA) for each DENV data set using the Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach available in the BEAST package (<http://beast.bio.ed.ac.uk/>; ref. [10]). In each case, we used both strict and relaxed (uncorrelated lognormal) molecular clocks and a substitution model employing the GTR substitution matrix with a different rate assigned to each codon position (as this is often an appropriate descriptor of evolution of RNA viruses including DENV; ref. [31]). As expected, very similar

results were obtained under both strict and relaxed molecular clocks. We also employed the Bayesian skyline population coalescent prior in all cases, as this is clearly the best descriptor of the complex population dynamics of DENV, and inferring demographic processes was not the aim of this study. In each case, MCMC chains were run for a sufficient time to achieve convergence (assessed using the TRACER program; <http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/tracer/>), with uncertainty in parameter estimates reflected in values of the 95% highest probability density (HPD). Finally, for the relaxed clock analysis, we also used BEAST to compute the maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree using the TreeAnnotator program, with the first 10% trees removed as burn-in. The level of support for each node on the tree is given as the Bayesian posterior probability (BPP) value. With these trees in hand we were able to (1) determine the number of independent introductions of each DEN virus in Mexico, defined as the presence of phylogenetically distinct clusters of sequences supported by BPP values >0.90, and (2) compute the 95% HPD values on the age of each Mexican lineage, as this provides information on the timing of each introduction event into the Mexican population (although it is important to note that age of a lineage is not necessarily the same as time of introduction).

Results

Our provisional phylogenetic analysis of 2,332 complete E genes of all four DEN viruses revealed that the 83 sequences of Mexican origin fell into a number of discrete clusters indicative of independent introductions into this population (results not shown; available from the authors on request). To analyze these evolutionary patterns in more detail, we selected 100 representative ‘background’ sequences from each DEN virus, combined these with those sampled from Mexico, and undertook more rigorous Bayesian phylogenetic analysis.

The Bayesian relaxed molecular clock MCC trees for each of the four DEN viruses (human isolates only) are shown in Figs. 2, 3, 4 and 5. Those sequences sampled from Mexico are shaded in each figure, and the number of discrete Mexican clusters, indicative of separate introductions, is marked. In this context it is important to note that because we defined introductions as phylogenetically distinct clusters of viruses with high posterior probability values, our count of the number separate introduction events is inherently conservative. Indeed, in a number of cases, clusters of Mexican viruses also contain isolates sampled in other localities, principally from Central America, that might be indicative of multiple entries into Mexico. This is considered in more detail below. Rates of

nucleotide substitution were similar to those estimated previously [34]: 95% HPD values across all DEN viruses of $5.7\text{--}9.5 \times 10^{-4}$ nucleotide substitutions per site, per year (Supplementary Table 1).

In the case of DENV-1, all 23 Mexican E gene sequences analyzed here, sampled from the states of Sonora, Sinaloa, Tamaulipas, Jalisco, Querétaro, Michoacán, Morelos, Veracruz, Tabasco, Oaxaca, Chiapas and Quintana Roo (from north to south of the country; Fig. 1), fall into genotype III of this virus that is widespread throughout the Americas (Fig. 2). However, even though only a single DENV-1 genotype is observed in Mexico, our phylogenetic analysis reveals that there have been at least three introductions of genotype III, as signified by the presence of three phylogenetically distinct lineages. In addition, our analysis of times to common ancestry (and sampling) indicates that there was little, if any, co-circulation of the viral lineages associated with these three introductions. The cluster of viruses associated with introduction #1 has an estimated age dating to 1973–1978, compatible with an appearance in Mexico shortly before the major epidemic of 1979–1981, and circulates until at least 1986 (the date of the last sequence sampled). In contrast, the TMRCA of the viruses associated with introduction #2 is between 1985 and 1992, suggesting a more recent introduction into Mexico, and viruses of this cluster circulate until 1995. Finally, the largest phylogenetically distinct group of viruses, denoted here as introduction #3, has an inferred date of common ancestry of 1997–2001 and circulates until 2007. As 2007 is also the date of the most recent sample, this viral lineage is likely to be circulating today. Introduction #3 is also of note because it is described here for the first time, it circulates in nearly all Mexican states, and it seems to have dispersed more widely around Central America, as isolates from El Salvador and Nicaragua are very closely related to those from Mexico.

In the case of DENV-2, our phylogenetic analysis suggests that there have been at least three separate introductions of this virus into Mexico (Fig. 3). As with DENV-1, these introductions are staggered in time and hence are indicative of limited co-circulation and persistence but frequent lineage replacement. However, unlike the case of DENV-1, all of these introductions involve a different genotype of DENV-2. The first introduction of DENV-2 sampled here involves viruses of the American genotype, which evidently spread to a variety of localities throughout the Americas. Our Bayesian coalescent analysis suggests that the age of this lineage dates to the mid to late 1970s (95% HPD = 1974–1980), although entry into Mexico may not have occurred until the early 1980s, corresponding to a major epidemic of DENV-2 in the Americas [8]. As this lineage has not been sampled since 1995, it is likely



◀ **Fig. 2** MCC tree of 123 isolates of human DENV-1 circulating globally. The 23 viruses sampled from Mexico are *shaded gray*, with the number of separate introductions into Mexico noted as well as the 95% credible intervals for the age of each introduced lineage. Isolates sampled outside of Mexico that fall in Mexican clusters are shown in *bold italic*. As this phylogeny was estimated using a relaxed molecular clock, the position of the root is assigned automatically, and the tip position of each isolate corresponds to the time of its sampling (with time shown on the x-axis). BPP values are shown for relevant nodes

that it is now extinct in Mexico [8]. Indeed, the demise of this genotype reflects part of the continent-wide replacement of the American genotype by viruses of Asian origin in the Americas [28]. The second introduction of DENV-2 into Mexico concerns the presence of a single virus of the geographically widespread Cosmopolitan genotype that was sampled in 1996, with a credible time of origin ranging from 1966 to 1996 (as in all cases where single viral isolates are involved, the credible intervals on estimates of TMRCA are necessarily large). Although the identification of a single Cosmopolitan virus makes its countrywide prevalence difficult to judge, phylogenetic analyses of prM sequences have noted its presence in regions such as the Yucatan [9], so there has clearly been some onward transmission of this genotype within Mexico. However, the fact that viruses of the Cosmopolitan genotype have not been reported since 2002 suggests that this lineage may also have suffered extinction.

The final introduction of DENV-2 recorded here involves viruses of the Asian/American genotype, which is clearly now the dominant genotype in Mexico. The appearance of Asian/American genotype viruses was initially described in the Yucatan during a DENV-2 epidemic in 2002 [22]. Subsequent phylogenetic analysis showed that this genotype had spread to the state of Oaxaca, and our study shows that viruses from the states of Sonora, Coahuila, Nuevo León, Tamaulipas, Baja California Sur, Sinaloa, Durango, Hidalgo, Estado de México, Morelos, Veracruz and Chiapas can also be assigned to the Asian/American genotype. In addition, that the Mexican viruses assigned to introduction #3 are closely related to those sampled from Costa Rica and Nicaragua indicates that this genotype has spread to multiple countries in Central America. Our analysis of the TMRCA suggests that Asian/American genotype viruses in Mexico have a credible time of origin of between 1993 and 1997, although it is unclear exactly when these viruses first entered the country. Finally, as viruses of the Asian/American genotype are associated with DHF and have relatively high fitness in both humans and mosquitoes [1, 6, 7], such that they are able to out-compete co-circulating viruses, their apparent establishment in the Mexican population is a major cause for concern.

In a similar manner to DENV-1, all introductions of DENV-3 into Mexico involve viruses of a single

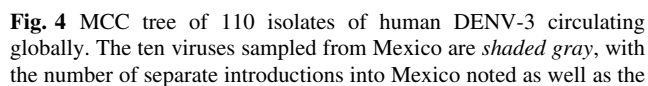
genotype—genotype III—that is relatively widespread in the Americas (Fig. 4). Like DENV-1, there have also been at least three independent introductions of DENV-3 into Mexico, although the very small sample size cautions against strong conclusions. The first introduction sampled here is represented by a single isolate sampled in 1995. Although our estimate of the TMRCA of this lineage goes back to 1991, that DENV-3 was not detected in Mexico until 1995 suggests that it most likely appeared close to this latter time [8]. Similarly, we estimate that viruses of the second lineage of genotype III viruses in Mexico last shared a common ancestor during the period 1991–1995, which is again compatible with their first appearance in Mexico at a time concomitant with the DENV-3 epidemic of 1995. This lineage then appears to have circulated until at least 2000. Finally, introduction #3, identified here for the first time, clearly took place more recently, with an inferred common ancestry dating to 2002–2003. As viruses of this lineage circulate until at least 2006, it can also be regarded as the current lineage of DENV-3 in Mexico, although this will clearly need to be confirmed on a larger sample of viruses. Hence, despite the small sample size, it is clear that DENV-3 also experiences a clear turnover of viral lineages through time.

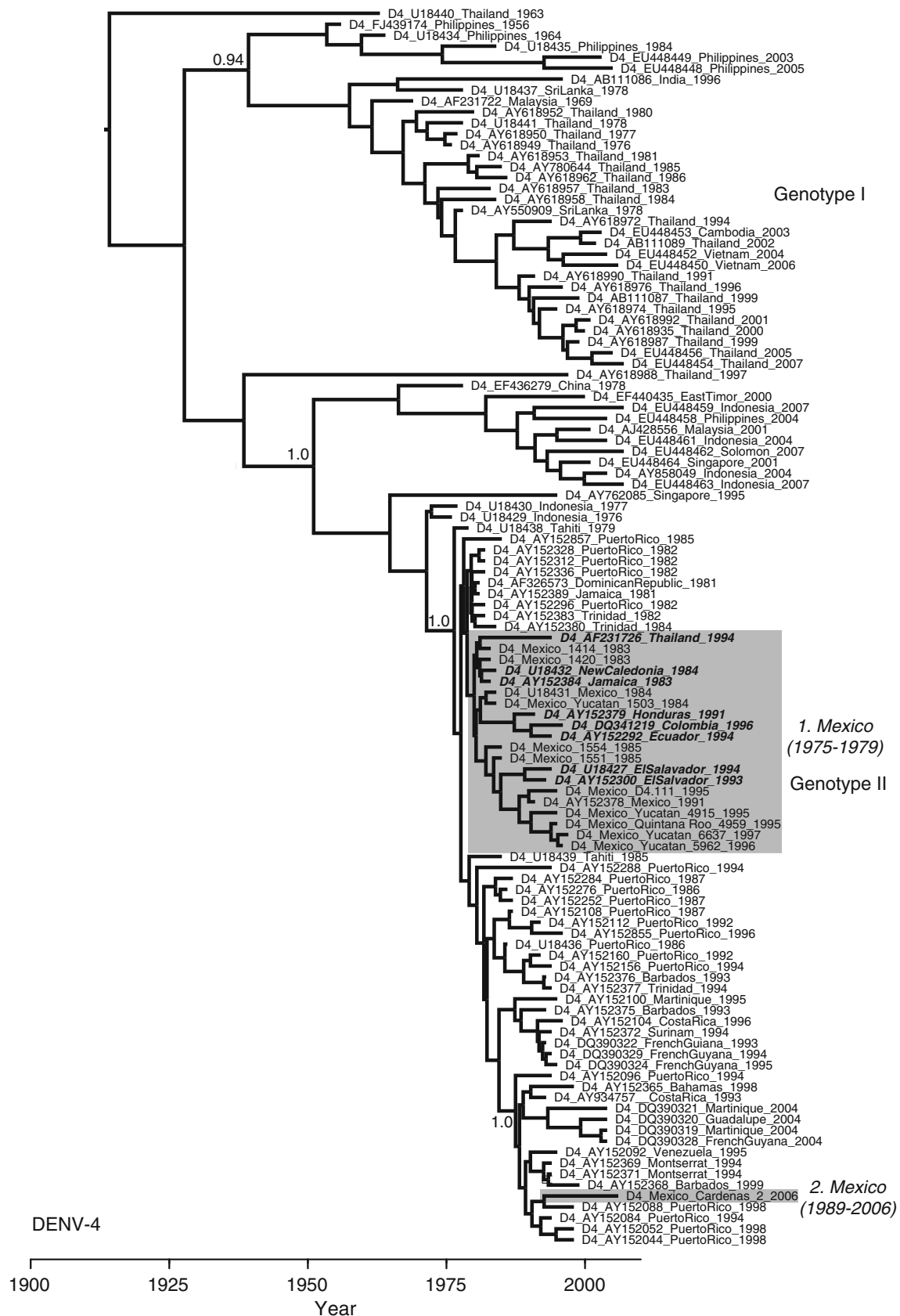
The small sample of sequences available for DENV-4 again provides strong evidence for an episode of lineage replacement (Fig. 5). Specifically, our phylogenetic analysis reveals at least two introductions of genotype II viruses into Mexico. The first of these is likely to have occurred at the time of a DENV-4 outbreak in 1981, although our molecular clock analysis suggests that these group of viruses in fact share a common ancestry that dates back to 1975–1979. This is the most common lineage of DENV-4 in the Mexican population, and one that was clearly successful in Latin America and the Caribbean region more broadly [3, 11]. However, as this lineage has not been sampled since 1997, it is likely to have gone extinct. The second introduction, newly detected here, comprises a single viral isolate that was sampled in 2006, with an inferred ancestry that may date back to 1989 (although it is obviously likely to have entered Mexico at a time far closer to 2006). However, as this is a single virus lineage, it is difficult to assess its potential for future spread in the Mexican population.

Discussion

Our phylogenetic analysis reveals that DENV evolution in Mexico is characterized by the independent entry of multiple viral lineages, with at least 11 separate introductions over the last 30 years, relatively limited co-circulation of lineages of individual DEN viruses (even though the 4



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◀ **Fig. 5** MCC tree of 113 isolates of human DENV-4 circulating globally. The 13 viruses sampled from Mexico are *shaded gray*, with the number of separate introductions into Mexico noted as well as the 95% credible intervals for the age of each introduced lineage. Isolates sampled outside of Mexico that fall in Mexican clusters are in *bold*. BPP values are shown for relevant nodes. See Fig. 2 for other details

exception is DENV-2, where the emergent Asian/American genotype has seemingly established itself as the major lineage of DENV-2 in Mexico.

As is now increasingly frequently observed in studies of DENV evolution, lineage replacement appears to be a more common occurrence than long-term lineage persistence [2, 12]. Unfortunately, determining the evolutionary basis of individual replacement events is inherently problematic, particularly whether they are selectively mediated because lineages differ sufficiently in fitness that natural selection is able to favor one over another, they reflect larger-scale oscillations in the prevalence of each DEN virus, or they are largely due to stochastic events such as periodic bottlenecks in vector population size [15]. Growing experimental evidence for the relative inferiority of the American genotype of DENV-2 [27], coupled with the non-overlapping nature of lineage distributions in Mexico, suggests that more attention should be paid to the possible role of natural selection in determining patterns of lineage turnover.

More generally, the viral lineages that have circulated in Mexico appear to be of the same evolutionary origin as those detected more widely in the Americas, and particularly in countries that are geographically close to Mexico, indicating that there has been considerable local diffusion across relatively fluid borders. A simple prediction for the future is therefore that any newly emerging lineages that are successful in Mexico are likely to be equally able to spread across a far wider geographic area. Such a dynamic evolutionary process further illustrates the ability of DENV to exploit the movement patterns of the human host populations and argues that Mexico could eventually be exposed to viral strains with very different phenotypic features, such as increased virulence. The continued surveillance of dengue in Mexico, using the modern methods of molecular epidemiology, is therefore of utmost importance.

Acknowledgments The authors wish to thank Ms. Silvia Tenorio-Salgado for technical assistance. This work was supported by a grant FOSSIS-CONACYT SALUD-2005-01-13852 to JRC.

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