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Li, A.Y., Adams, P.J., Abdad, M.Y. and Fenwick, S.G. (2010) High prevalence of Rickettsia gravesii sp. nov. in Amblyomma triguttatum collected from feral pigs. Veterinary Microbiology, 146 (1-2). pp. 59-62.

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1	High prevalence of Rickettsia gravesii sp. nov. in Amblyomma triguttatum collected from feral pigs.
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# 25 Abstract

26	A survey of ectoparasites on feral pigs identified two commonly occurring ixodid tick species;
27	Amblyomma triguttatum triguttatum and Ixodes australiensis. Molecular screening of A. t. triguttatum
28	and I. australiensis for the presence of Rickettsia species detected the presence of rickettsiae belonging
29	to the Spotted Fever Group (SFG) in 78.4% of screened A. t. triguttatum. None of the screened I.
30	australiensis were positive for rickettsiae. Sequence analysis of the gltA and ompA loci of positive
31	Rickettsia isolates were 100% homologous to the newly described species Rickettsia gravesii sp. nov.
32	BWI-1. Serological screening of feral pigs detected antibodies to SFG Rickettsia in 50% of serum
33	samples tested. These findings suggest that A. t. triguttatum is a potential vector/reservoir for R.
34	gravesii sp. nov.
35	
36	Keywords: Amblyomma triguttatum; Ixodes australiensis; Spotted Fever Group; Rickettsia gravesii sp.
37	nov. BWI-1; molecular; serology; feral pigs.
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# 49 **1. Introduction**

Feral pigs, Sus scrofa Linnaeus, 1758 are a highly invasive pest species in many parts of the world, 50 51 including Australia (Choquenot et al., 1996). They are widely recognised as potential vectors of both 52 exotic and endemic disease however few studies have investigated the ectoparsites and tick borne 53 diseases associated with feral pigs, in particular *Rickettsia* species. Ticks are second only to mosquitoes in importance as vectors of human infectious diseases worldwide (Parola and Raoult, 2001), 54 55 and ticks removed from wild pigs in both southern France and north-eastern Spain have been shown to harbour pathogenic *Rickettsia* species (Ortuno et al., 2006; Sanogo et al., 2003). 56 57 58 Rickettsiae are short, obligate intracellular gram-negative bacteria which require arthropod vectors for

60 *Rickettsia* may be classified into the spotted fever group, the typhus group, *R. belli* and *R. canadensis* 

their transmission between mammalian hosts, (Fournier and Raoult, 2007). Members of the genus

61 (Renvoisé et al., 2009). Several species of spotted fever group rickettsiae have been documented in

62 Australia including R. australis, R. felis, R. honei and R. honei subsp. marmionii which are members of

the SFG and tick transmitted (Odorico et al., 1998; Schloderer et al., 2006; Unsworth et al., 2007a; b).

64 The occurrence of human cases of spotted fever throughout Western Australia have been reported

65 (Owen et al., 2006a), but no organism has yet been confirmed as the aetiological agent.

66

59

67 A rickettsia of unknown pathogenicity (*Rickettsia gravesii* sp. nov. BWI-1) has recently been isolated

68 from *Ambylomma triguttatum triguttatum* ticks from Western Australia (Owen et al., 2006a; b).

69 Sequence analysis of the rickettsial 16S rRNA, *gltA*, *ompA*, *ompB* and *sca*4 genes demonstrated that

70 Rickettsia gravesii sp. nov. BWI-1 is sufficiently divergent to be classified as a novel species (Owen et

al., 2006b). As such, this study aimed to investigate the tick species commonly occurring on feral pigs

72 in Western Australia and any *Rickettsia* spp. they may harbour.

# 74 **2. Materials and Methods**

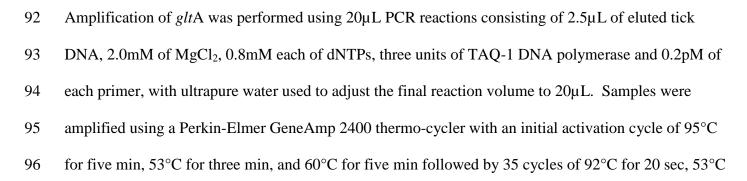
#### 75 Collection of Ectoparasites

Ectoparasites were removed from feral pigs post mortem and preserved in 70% ethanol containing 5% glycerol prior to identification. The presence or absence of lice and their eggs were recorded from all pigs, however ticks were the predominant ectoparasites collected. Ticks were examined under 1.5-30x magnification using a Wild MZA stereomicroscope and were identified to the species level based on standard morphological features including the presence or absence of eyes, the anal groove position, the coxal and the number of spurs present (Roberts, 1970). Sexing was performed based on scutum size and the presence of a genital pore.

83

#### 84 DNA Extraction and PCR

Ticks were diced with a sterile surgical blade to break the exoskeleton prior to DNA extraction using
the QIAamp® DNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions.
Extracted DNA was resuspended in 70µL Elution Buffer and stored at –20°C until required. PCR
amplification of the citrate synthase (*glt*A) and outer membrane protein A (*omp*A) genes utilised
primers derived from a conserved region of *R. prowazekii* (*glt*A) and *R. rickettsii* (*omp*A) (Regnery et
al., 1991).



for 30 sec and 60°C for two min, with a final extension phase at 72°C for seven min. Each PCR run
incorporated a positive control containing *R. australis* (SFG) and *R. typhi* (TG) DNA as well as a
negative control.

100

101 Amplification of OmpA was performed using 25µL PCR reactions consisting of 2.0µL of eluted tick 102 DNA, 0.5mM of MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.1mM each of dNTPs, two units per sample of TAQ-1 DNA polymerase and 103 0.16pM of each primer, with ultrapure water used to adjust the final reaction volume to 25µL. Samples 104 were amplified using a Perkin-Elmer GeneAmp 2400 thermo-cycler with an initial activation cycle of 105 95°C for three min, 48°C for three min, and 60°C for five min followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 20 sec, 106 48°C for 30 sec and 60°C for two min, with a final extension phase at 72°C for seven min. Each PCR 107 run incorporated a positive control containing *R. honei* (SFG) DNA as well as a negative control. 108 *Rickettsia australis* DNA was not used as a control as it requires its own specific primers for 109 amplification of the *omp*A gene (Fournier et al., 1998; Regnery et al., 1991).

110

# 111 Visualisation and Sequencing of PCR products

112 All PCR products were electrophoresed at 86V for 50 min in a 1.5% agarose gel containing 20 µg/ml 113 ethidium bromide. Amplification products from 15 tick DNA extracts, five from each sampling area, 114 for both the *gltA* and *ompA* loci were selected for sequencing (a total of 30 isolates). The PCR 115 products were extracted using the QIAquick Gel extraction kit catalogue number 28704, as per the 116 manufacturer's instructions. Purified PCR products were sequenced using the Big Dye version 3.1 117 terminator kit (Applied Biosystems, USA) and the Applied Biosystems 373 automatic sequencer and 118 were compared to those of previously characterised rickettsiae in GenBank using BLAST analysis 119 (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov:80/BLAST/).

122	Serological testing of feral pig (n=40) and control pig (n=40) sera for rickettsial antibodies using
123	micro-immunofluorescence was performed using the method described by Philip et al. (1978). The
124	control pig sera used was sourced from intensively farmed indoor pigs and collected post mortem at the
125	abattoir. The cut off titre (1:128) was determined by the lowest titre at which zero members of the
126	control group had any reaction to the rickettsial antigens to prevent misreading of false positives in the
127	event of cross reactivity.
128	
129	Statistical Analysis
130	Pair-wise analysis of the presence of ticks on feral pigs at time of capture and antibody presence was
131	performed using Fisher's Exact test with Bonferroni's correction.
132	
133	3. Results
134	Prevalence of Ectoparasites
135	Feral pigs were trapped and sampled from the three study areas over a six month period. Ticks were
136	detected on 102 (49.0%) of 208 feral pigs sampled. Pigs in all three sampling areas were prone to tick
137	infestation however there was a marked difference in tick prevalence between areas (Table 1). Ticks
138	were primarily located on pigs in and around the ears, between the front and rear legs and along the
139	belly. Ticks were also infrequently found attached to the facial region of pigs. Two species of ticks
140	were identified based on morphological characterization from feral pigs; Amblyomma triguttatum
141	triguttatum and Ixodes australiensis. Lice were detected on 199 (95.7%) feral pigs and were identified
142	as Haematopinus suis, the common pig louse. Lice were predominantly located on pigs behind the ears
143	and between the front and rear legs.
144	

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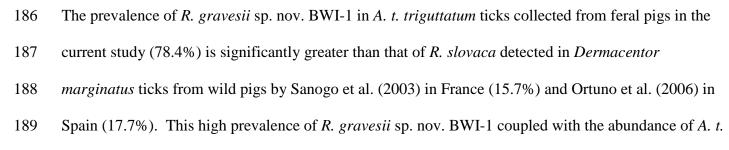
146	Amplification of 88 A. t. triguttatum DNA extracts using the gltA primers detected 69 (78.4%) samples
147	positive for rickettsial DNA (Table 2). Four negative A. t. triguttatum were collected from feral pigs
148	which also had A. t. triguttatum collected from them that screened positive for rickettsial DNA. None
149	of the DNA extracts from <i>I. australiensis</i> $(n = 28)$ or <i>H. suis</i> $(n = 7)$ produced a positive result. All 69
150	DNA extracts of A. t. triguttatum that screened positive for the rickettsial gltA gene also screened
151	positive for the rickettsial <i>omp</i> A gene. There was no significant difference in the prevalence of A. t.
152	triguttatum shown to be infected with rickettsiae between any of the sampling areas.
153	
154	Sequence profiles were produced from both <i>glt</i> A and <i>omp</i> A amplification products from 15 randomly
155	selected positive A. t. triguttatum DNA extracts (5 from each sampling area) to identify the Rickettsia
156	species present. A BLAST search of the GenBank database confirmed all 15 sequences to have 100%
157	homology at both the gltA and ompA loci for Rickettsia gravesii sp. nov. BWI-1 (GenBank accession
158	nos. <b><u>DQ269435</u></b> and <b><u>DQ269437</u></b> respectively).
159	
160	Serology
161	Screening of feral pig sera (n=40) revealed the presence of anti-SFG rickettsial antibodies $\geq$ 1:128 in
162	50% (20/40) of samples tested. All control sera tested negative for anti-SFG antibodies. There was no
163	significant correlation between tick presence on feral pigs at time of capture and the presence of
164	rickettsial antibodies in their sera.
165	
166	4. Discussion
167	Tick species

168	Several tick species have previously been reported from both domestic and feral pigs in Australia
169	however reports of A. t. triguttatum and I. australiensis are limited (Masters, 1979; Roberts, 1970).
170	Both A. t. triguttatum and I. australiensis are three-host ticks with wide distributions throughout
171	Australia and are able to colonise a wide range of hosts (Roberts, 1970). Whilst A. t. triguttatum has
172	previously been reported to be a vector of Coxiella burnetii, the causative agent of Q fever in humans
173	(Beaman and Marinovitch, 1999; McDiarmid et al., 2000), no diseases have been associated with I.
174	australiensis to date (Bengis et al., 2002; Roberts, 1970).

# 176 Rickettsial Disease

177 The current study and recent work has shown A. t. triguttatum collected from both humans and wildlife 178 throughout Western Australia to commonly harbour *Rickettsia gravesii* sp. nov. BWI-1 (Owen et al., 179 2006a). The pathogenic potential of *R. gravesii* sp. nov. BWI-1 is currently unknown however it is 180 closely related to the *R. massiliae* subgroup of SFG rickettsiae (Owen et al., 2006b), which are 181 pathogenic to humans and prevalent in southern and eastern Europe (Brouqui et al., 2007). In this 182 regard it seems pertinent to treat R. gravesii sp. nov. BWI-1 with some caution, especially considering 183 the recent recognition of *R. parkeri* as a human pathogen more than 65 years after first being isolated 184 (Paddock et al., 2004).

185



190 triguttatum in the environment (Owen et al., 2006a; Pearce and Grove, 1987), may represent an

increased health risk associated with occupational and recreational activities which expose people tocontact with wildlife and their habitats.

193

194	All three life stages (adult, nymph and larval) of A. t. triguttatum recovered from feral pigs were shown
195	to be infected with the R. gravesii sp. nov. BWI-1. Additionally, the prevalence of rickettsial
196	antibodies in 50% of feral pigs tested in the present study suggests that the potential for transmission of
197	R. gravesii sp. nov. BWI-1 from tick to host and/or vice versa is significant.
198	
199	Given the wide host range of A. t. triguttatum and the high prevalence of R. gravesii sp. nov. BWI-1 in
200	this tick species, there is potential for the transmission of rickettsiae to many different hosts; including
201	humans. This work highlights a need to increase tick awareness, especially for those people who
202	frequent tick infested areas or have contact with feral pigs during the course of their occupational or
203	recreational activities to further enhance the prevention of tick borne disease.
204	
205	Acknowledgements

206 Special thanks to R. Hobbs for his assistance with the identification of collected ticks. Thanks also go

207 to R. Staines, J. Liddington, C. Kerfoot, B. Walters and Water Corporation and the Department of

208 Environment and Conservation staff for their trapping efforts. This work was supported via funding by

- 209 the Australian Research Council.
- 210

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   by "marmionii" strain of *Rickettsia honei*, Eastern Australia. Emerging Infect. Dis. 13, 566-573.
- 264

Area	No. of pigs	No. of pigs	No. of ticks	No. of ticks identified	
Alta	examined	with ticks	collected	A. t triguttatum	I. australiensis
Mundaring	32	18 (56.2%)	131	131 (100%)	0 (0%)
Serpentine	103	63 (61.2%)	349	299 (85.7%)	50 (14.3%)
$Dwellingup^\dagger$	73	21 (28.8%)	116	9 (7.8%)	107 (92.2%)
Total	208	102 (49.0%)	596	439 (73.7%)	157 (26.3%)

**Table 1.** Distribution of ticks identified from feral pigs across three sampling sites.

<sup>†</sup> Significantly fewer ticks present on pigs from Dwellingup than Serpentine (p<0.001) or Mundaring (p<0.01).

Area	Ticks Positive for Rickettsia sp. nov. BWI-1			
Alca	A. t. triguttatum	I. australiensis		
Mundaring	21/27 (77.8%)	n/a		
Serpentine	46/59 (72.9%)	0/13 (0%)		
Dwellingup	5/5 (100%)	0/15 (0%)		
Total	69/88 (78.4%)	0/28 (0%)		

Table 2. Prevalence of rickettsiae in two species of ticks collected from feral pigs across three sites.

Note: Larval stages from 4 pigs from Mundaring and from 5 pigs from Serpentine were pooled (respectively) for PCR screening for *Rickettsia*. No *I. australiensis* were found on feral pigs from Mundaring.