



INSTITUT AGRONOMIQUE ET VETERINAIRE HASSAN II

ANAPLASMA SPP IN DOGS AND HUMANS IN MOROCCO

Sarah El Hamiani Khatat

Student number (UGhent): 01311633 Order number (IAV Hassan II): 2017/10/VETO

Supervisor (s): Prof. Dr. Sylvie Daminet, Prof. Dr. Hamid Sahibi

A dissertation submitted in the fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Veterinary Sciences of Ghent University (UGhent) and l'Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II (IAV Hassan II)

Academic year: 2016-217

Defended in May 22th, 2017 before the examination committee consisting of:

| Mrs M. KACHANI | Professor, Western University of Health Sciences, the USA | President |
|-----------------|---|------------------|
| Mrs M. RIYAD | Professor, Hassan II University, Morocco | Recorder |
| Mr L. DUCHATEAU | Professor, Ghent University, Belgium | Recorder |
| Mr A. SADAK | Professor, Mohamed V University, Morocco | Recorder |
| Mr H. EL AMRI | Professor, Laboratory of the Royal Gendarmerie, Morocco | Examiner |
| Mr T. RAHALI | Professor, Mohamed V University, Morocco | Examiner |
| Mrs R. AZRIB | Professor, IAV Hassan II, Morocco | Thesis committee |
| Mrs S. DAMINET | Professor, Ghent University, Belgium | Supervisor |
| Mr H. SAHIBI | Professor, IAV Hassan II, Morocco | Supervisor |







INSTITUT AGRONOMIQUE ET VETERINAIRE HASSAN II

ANAPLASMA SPP IN DOGS AND HUMANS IN MOROCCO

Sarah El Hamiani Khatat

Student number (UGhent): 01311633 Order number (IAV Hassan II): 2017/10/VETO

Supervisor (s): Prof. Dr. Sylvie Daminet, Prof. Dr. Hamid Sahibi

A dissertation submitted in the fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Veterinary Sciences of Ghent University (UGhent) and l'Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II (IAV Hassan II)

Academic year: 2016-217

Defended in May 22th, 2017 before the examination committee consisting of:

| Mrs M. KACHANI | Professor, Western University of Health Sciences, the USA | President |
|-----------------|---|------------------|
| Mrs M. RIYAD | Professor, Hassan II University, Morocco | Recorder |
| Mr L. DUCHATEAU | Professor, Ghent University, Belgium | Recorder |
| Mr A. SADAK | Professor, Mohamed V University, Morocco | Recorder |
| Mr H. EL AMRI | Professor, Laboratory of the Royal Gendarmerie, Morocco | Examiner |
| Mr T. RAHALI | Professor, Mohamed V University, Morocco | Examiner |
| Mrs R. AZRIB | Professor, IAV Hassan II, Morocco | Thesis committee |
| Mrs S. DAMINET | Professor, Ghent University, Belgium | Supervisor |
| Mr H. SAHIBI | Professor, IAV Hassan II, Morocco | Supervisor |



Institut Agronomique et Vétérianire Hassan II

Dépôt legal: 2017 M0 2887 ISBN: 978-9954-444-74-0

Anaplasma spp. in dogs and humans in Morocco Sarah El Hamiani Khatat Department of Small Animal Medicine Faculty of Veterinary Medicine Ghent University Department of Pathology and Veterinary Public Health Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| List oj | List of abbreviations | | | | |
|---------|---|----|--|--|--|
| CHAI | PTER I General introduction | 8 | | | |
| 1. | Vector-borne diseases increasing interest | 10 | | | |
| 2. | Classification and morphology of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys | 13 | | | |
| | 2.1 Classification of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys | 13 | | | |
| | 2.2 Morphology and structure of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys | 15 | | | |
| 3. | Epidemiological aspects of Anaplasma phagocytophilum | 17 | | | |
| | 3.1 Genome | 17 | | | |
| | 3.2 Genetic variability | 18 | | | |
| | 3.3 Vector | 21 | | | |
| | 3.4 Reservoir hosts | 25 | | | |
| | 3.5 Life cycle of Anaplasma phagocytophilum transmission by Ixodes tick species | 28 | | | |
| | 3.6 Other transmission ways | 30 | | | |
| | 3.7 Anaplasma phagocytophilum infection in humans | 32 | | | |
| | 3.8 Epidemiological role of dogs | 38 | | | |
| 4. | Epidemiological aspects of Anaplasma platys | 40 | | | |
| | 4.1 Transmission ways | 40 | | | |
| | 4.2 Reservoir host and epidemiological role of dogs | 41 | | | |
| | 4.3 Zoonotic potential of Anaplasma platys | 41 | | | |
| | 4.4 Genetic diversity | 42 | | | |
| 5. | Distribution and prevalence of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys in dogs | 43 | | | |
| | m uvgs | | | | |

52

| CHAPTER II Scientific aims | 92 |
|--|-----|
| CHAPTER III Exposure to selected vector-borne pathogens in dogs in Morocco | 94 |
| CHAPTER IV Evaluation of <i>Anaplasma</i> spp. in dogs and humans in Morocco | 107 |
| CHAPTER V Human exposure to <i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> in northwestern Morocco | 129 |
| CHAPTER VI General discussion | 149 |
| 1. Exposure to vector-borne in dogs in Morocco | 150 |
| 2. Prevalence of <i>Anaplasma</i> spp. in dogs in Morocco | 153 |
| 3. Rhipicephalus sanguineus ticks and their epidemiological significance | 155 |
| 4. Anaplasma phagocytophilum exposure in healthy humans in Morocco | 157 |
| 5. Future perspectives | 160 |
| 6. Conclusion | 165 |
| Summary | 184 |
| Samenvatting | 188 |
| Résumé | 192 |
| ملخص | 196 |
| Curriculum vitae | 201 |
| Bibliography | 203 |

ABBREVIATIONS

| ACVIM | American College of Veterinary Internal Medicine | Mb | Megabase |
|-------------|--|------------|---------------------------------------|
| ankA | Ankyrin A protein | MMWR | Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report |
| AP-ha | A. phagocytophilum human pathogenic variant | MODS | Multiple organ dysfunction syndrome |
| AP-variant1 | A. phagocytophilum variant 1 | msp2/p44 | Major surface protein 2/p44 |
| AP-variant2 | A. phagocytophilum variant 2 | msp4 | Major surface protein 4 |
| AP-variant3 | A. phagocytophilum variant 3 | | |
| AP-variant4 | A. phagocytophilum variant 4 | | |
| CDC | Center of Disease Control and Prevention | PCR | Polymerase chain reaction |
| CGA | Canine granulocytic anaplasmosis | | |
| DNA | deoxyribonucleic acid | RNA | Ribonucleic acid |
| drhm | Distantly related to human marker | rRNA | Ribosomal ribonucleic acid |
| | | RT-PCR | Real-time polymerase chaine reaction |
| EDTA | Ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid. | SIRS | Systemic inflammatory response |
| ELISA | Enzyme-linked immunosorbant assay | | syndrome |
| G+C content | Guanine-cytosine content | TBDs /TBPs | Tick-borne diseases/pathogens |
| | | TBF | Tick-borne fever |
| | | | |
| HGA | Human granulocytic anaplasmosis | VBDs/VBPs | Vector-borne diseases/pathogens |
| HGE | Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis | VNRT | Variable number tandem repeat |
| | | WA | Washington canine A. phagocytophimun |
| | | WB | Western blot |
| ICG | Immunochromatography | | |
| IFA | Immunofluorescence assay | | |
| ICCT | Infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia | | |

CHAPTER I

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided in five parts.

In the first part, a general introduction on the importance of vector-borne diseases worldwide is provided and factors that contributed to their expansion and increasing interest are explained. This chapter focusses on tick-borne diseases and more specifically on *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and granulocytic anaplasmosis.

The second, third and fourth parts describe the main characteristics of *A. phagocytophilum* and *Anaplasma platys* including their classification, morphology and structure. An overview of the most important epidemiological features of both bacteria including the transmission modes, the reservoir host range, the life cycle, their zoonotic potential and an emphasis on the epidemiological roles of dogs in both infections are also exposed.

The fifth part summarizes the main studies about the distribution and prevalence of both *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* worldwide and discusses the limitations of prevalence studies.

1. Vector-borne diseases gain interest

Vector-borne diseases (VBDs) are caused by various infectious agents including parasites, bacteria and viruses that are transmitted to a host through the bite of hematophagous arthropods. A wide variety of VBDs are zoonoses,¹ i.e., infections or infectious diseases transmissible under natural conditions from vertebrate animals to humans. Zoonoses comprise almost 60% of all known infectious diseases and 75% of emerging infectious agents are zoonotic.² VBDs impact human and animal health and the global economy, representing approximately 17% of the burden of all infectious diseases, causing one billion cases, over one million deaths and millions of dollars in losses to the livestock industry annually.^{3,4} In addition, many people who survive infection are left permanently debilitated, disfigured, maimed, or blind. One sixth of the illness and disability suffered worldwide is due to VBDs, with more than half of the world's population currently estimated to be at risk of these diseases.³ Their distribution is determined by a complex dynamic of environmental and social factors.⁴ Although many VBDs affect mostly the least-developed countries such as malaria, dengue, schistosomiasis, leishmaniasis, Chagas disease, yellow fever, lymphatic filariasis and onchocerciasis, others are more prevalent in Europe and the USA such as Lyme disease and tick-borne encephalitis virus.⁵ Among VBDs, canine VBDs have been of increasing interest the past decades due to the close relationship between dogs and humans. Indeed, dogs share the same environment as humans; hence they are exposed to similar vectors. In addition, dogs may play important epidemiological roles as competent reservoirs host of vecor-borne pathogens (VBPs), source of infection for vectors, mechanical transporters of infected vectors, or effective sentinels of regional infection risk for humans.⁶⁻¹³

Ticks display a worldwide distribution and are considered to transmit the widest number of pathogens when compared to other arthropod vectors, producing the highest number of human disease cases in some regions of the world.^{13,14} Indeed, in North America and parts of Europe, Lyme disease transmitted by *Ixodes* spp ticks is the most important VBD and a main cause of human morbidity, surpassing any mosquito-borne disease. Lyme disease is responsible for more than 90% of all VBD cases in the USA and it may be responsible for disease in 255,000 persons annually worldwide, mostly in Europe and North America.^{13,15,16} According to the USA Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report (MMWR), a total of 484,352 cases were reported between 1992 and 2015, with a steady increase of 287% in the number of reported cases during this period.^{17,18} In Europe and China there is an estimated average of 85,000 and 30,000 cases per year, respectively.^{19,20} Tick-borne diseases (TBDs) are also responsible for several diseases in domestic animals causing serious illness, mortality and major depression in livestock production worldwide.²¹⁻²⁴ Unlike other human flying arthropod-borne diseases where infection can be independent of association with animals and humans are the main host, TBDs

are overwhelmingly zoonotic and humans are usually incidental hosts. Therefore, integration of veterinary and human reporting systems, surveillance in wildlife and tick populations, and combined teams of experts from several scientific disciplines such as entomology, epidemiology, medicine, public health and veterinary medicine are needed for the formulation of regulations and guidelines for the prevention of TBDs.¹³

Within the past decades, several VBDs have been considered to be emerging or re-emerging because they are newly recognized within an area or because of an increase in their incidence or expansion of their geographical distribution or host or vector range.^{2,5,7} Many VBDs have been reported in previously not affected areas such as babesiosis in northern Germany, Belgium, Poland and the Netherlands. Anaplasma platys seems to be more frequently diagnosed in Europe, Candidatus Neoehrlichia mikurensis seems to extend its distribution worldwide. Canine monocytic ehrlichiosis, granulocytic anaplasmosis, tick-borne encephalitis virus and D. immitis are reported to extend to northern Europe. Similarly, leishmaniasis is spreading to Northern Europe and Northern America.²⁵⁻³¹ Multiple factors are supposed to play a crucial role in arthropod-vectors expansion mainly increased animal travelling and migration, climatic changes with a global warming, landscape rehabilitation and management with increased urbanization, development of large suburban areas with private gardens, creation of artificial lakes, forests modification, increased popularity of open-air activities, changes in wildlife fauna, loss of biodiversity, decreased host population densities, and residential growth expanding into rural geographic areas. All these conditions affect the ecology and epidemiology of infectious diseases, enable the circulation, multiplication and spread of both vectors and pathogens into formerly unaffected areas, promote the creation of niches for vectors and their capacity to newly acquire pathogens, impact wildlife populations that serve as reservoirs and the dynamic of transmission amongst natural reservoirs, increase the risk for the host to enter in contact with vectors and impact the likelihood of animal-human transmission.^{1,5,30,32-34} Therefore, although traditionally regarded as a problem for countries in tropical settings, VBDs pose an increasingly wider threat to global public health, both in terms of the number of people affected and their geographical spread.⁵ Beside these environmental changes leading to increased hazard exposure to VBPs, increased clinician awareness, new diagnostic tools, improved surveillance and increased reporting and communication of these diseases in several countries can also explain the increased incidence.^{1,21,30,34} Advances in molecular biology also allow the discovery of new species, strains or genetic variants and extend the list of VBPs able to infect either animals or humans or both.^{13,35,36} Finally, VBP spectrum seems to expand, and some pathogens traditionally associated with domestic animal infections may also potentially emerge as human pathogens¹³ such as *Ehrlichia canis*^{37,38} and *Anaplasma platys*.³⁹⁻⁴¹

Anaplasma phagocytophilum, the agent of granulocytic anaplasmosis, is considered as an emerging zoonotic tick-borne pathogen.⁴² Indeed, the environment suitability of its main vector seems to increase in Canada⁴³ where human granulocytic anaplasmosis (HGA) is of growing concern for public health due to the recent establishment of *Ixodes scapularis* in southeastern and south central regions.⁴⁴ In the USA, human and canine infections with A. phagocytophilum have been reported in the Pacific northwest, the upper Midwest, and the northeastern and mid-Atlantic USA, and most cases occur in Minnesota, Wisconsin, New York state, New Jersey, and Connecticut, suggesting that expansion from the USA may further drive the emergence of this tick-borne disease in Canada.³² Possible implication of migratory birds in the expansion of *I. scapularis* ticks in Canada (especially in northern provinces) has also been suggested.⁴⁵ In the USA, HGA is a nationally notifiable disease and both canine and human exposure to A. phagocytophilum has progressively increased from 2008 to 2010.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹ Data from the USA Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and MMWR reported 10,670 human cases between 2010 and 2013, and an 8-fold increase in reported cases between 2000 and 2013.^{18,50,51} In Europe, high prevalence rates of A. phagocytophilum were observed in both Ixodid ticks and wild animals.⁵²⁻⁵⁵ *Ixodes ricinus*, the main vector of this bacterium in Europe,²³ has expanded its territories over the past few years in European countries due to several factors including climatic and ecological modifications and also probably because of a low host specificity and tolerance to various environments.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁹ Serological evidence of A. phagocytophilum infection and granulocytic anaplasmosis have been reported in several European countries in both dogs⁶⁰⁻⁶⁶ and humans.⁶⁷⁻⁷⁵ Currently, HGA is considered the third most important VBD in both the USA and Europe, and is also increasingly diagnosed in some Asian countries.^{77,76} In China, A. *phagocyophilum* exposure among high-risk populations seems to have rapidly increased and reported cases showed a higher severity and mortality than in the USA and Europe.⁷⁸ Despite the increased reporting of this infection, it is still unrecognized and underdiagnosed.⁷⁹ Moreover, its occurrence is unknown in large parts of the world including Africa, Oceania, South America and many Asian countries.^{80,81} In North Africa, ticks are abundant and might represent potential hazard for animal and human public health. Evidence of Anaplasmataceae species infection in various tick species have already been reported.^{82,83} However, only a few epidemiological data are available on A. phagocytophilum in this continent mostly on ticks^{84,85} and domestic animals (ruminants, horses and dogs)⁸⁶⁻⁸⁸ but studies on human exposure are still missing.

2. Classification and morphology of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys

2.1 Classification of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys

Anaplasma phagocytophilum and *A. platys* are α-proteobacteria belonging to the family of Anaplasmataceae in the order of Rickettsiales. The order Rickettsiales is divided in two families: Anaplasmataceae and Rickettsiaceae (Figure 1). The family Anaplasmataceae includes agents of *Ehrlichia, Anaplasma, Wolbachia, Neorickettsia, Cowdria* genera and provisionally the genus *Aegyptianella*. Except for *Wolbachia*, the family of Anaplasmataceae includes obligate intracellular arthropod-borne bacteria that infect mature and immature hematopoietic cells and develop within intracytoplasmic vacuoles.⁸⁹ They are responsible of endemic and emerging diseases of major relevance in both veterinary and human medicine with important economic and public health outcomes (Table 1).⁹⁰ Seven *Anaplasmataceae* organisms are able to infect humans namely, *Ehrlichia chaffeensis, E. ewingii, E. canis, E. ruminatum, A. phagocytophilum, A. platys, Neorickettsia sennetsu* and "*Candidatus* Neoehrlichia mikurensis" (Table 1) but only the former three species are sufficiently investigated because they are responsible of the majority for human ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis cases.^{37,91-93}

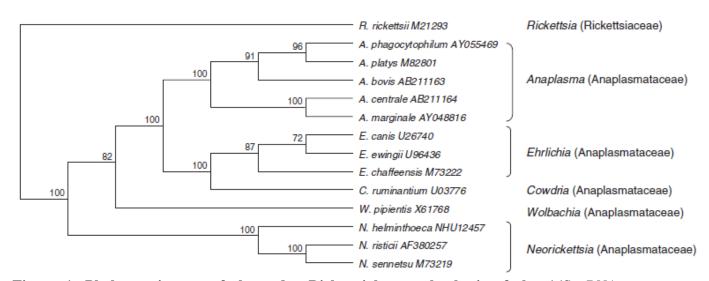


Figure 1. Phylogenetic tree of the order Rickettsiales on the basis of the *16S rRNA* gene sequencing, showing relationship between the belonging agents (species and family name on the right in parentheses). Bootstrap percentages are noted at the nodes of the tree. Bar, 10 substitutions per 100 nucleotides.¹⁰

Table 1. Rickettsial agents belonging to the family Anaplasmataceae infecting companion animals and human.

| Agents | Primary vector | Distribution | Host cells | Susceptible species and disease |
|-------------------------------|--|---|--|--|
| Anaplasma phagocytophilum | <i>Ixodes persulcatus</i> complex | Worldwide | Neutrophils Eosinophils | Granulocytic anaplasmosis, tick- borne fever, tick-borne pasture Humans, dogs, cats, horses, ruminants |
| Anaplasma platys | Rhipicephalus sanguineus? Dermacentor auratus? | Worldwide | Platelets | Dogs: Infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia Cats: questionable |
| Ehrlichia canis | Rhipicephalus sanguineus Dermacentor variabilis | Worldwide | Monocytes Macrophage Lymphocytes | Dogs: canine monocytic ehrlichiosis Cats: fever, lethargy, anorexia Human : infection identified in Venezuela |
| Ehrlichia chaffeensis | Amblyomma americanum | Southern USA Eastern USA California | Monocytes Macrophages Lymphocytes | Human : human monocytic ehrlichiosis Dogs: mild/subclinical unless present in co-infection |
| Ehrlichia ewingii | Amblyomma americanum | Southern USA Eastern USA | Neutrophils Eosinophils | Human : human granulocytic ehrlichiosis, uncommon Dogs: granulocytic ehrlichiosis |
| Ehrlichia ruminantium | Amblyomma spp. | Africa Caribbean | Endothelium Monocytes Nacrophages Neutrophils | Ruminants : heartwater Dogs: subclinical/rare |
| Neorickettsia risticii | Acanthatrium oregonense, caddisflies, aquatic insects | North America | Monocytes macrophages Enterocytes | Dogs: lethargy, fever, vomiting, arthritis, thrombocytopenia Cats: experimental infection |
| Neorickettsia helminthoeca | Trematodes: Nanophyetus salmincola | Northwest USA British Columbia Brazil | Monocytes Macrophages Enterocytes | Dogs: fever, anorexia, diarrhea, vomiting, lymphadenopathy |

Anaplasma phagocytophilum is known as a veterinary pathogen since the discovery of tick-borne fever (TBF) in Scotland in 1932.⁹⁵ The taxonomic position and the name of the bacterium changed several times being successively named *Rickettsia phagocytophila*,⁹⁶ *Cytoecetes phagocytophila*⁹⁷ and *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*.⁹⁸ *A. platys*, the agent of Infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia, was first reported in the USA in 1978 and was first named as *Ehrlichia platys*.⁹⁹ Phylogenetic molecular analysis based on the *16S rRNA*, *groESL* and surface protein genes sequencing in addition to morphologic and phenotypic characteristics have led to the reorganization of the Anaplasmataceae family and the reclassification of some agents. Consequently, *E. platys* was renamed as *Anaplasma platys*. Similarly, the name *A. phagocytophilum* was given in 2001 to three previously distinct agents, i.e., the agent that causes equine granulocytic anaplasmosis (*Ehrlichia equi*), the agent that causes tick-borne fever or

pasture fever in sheep and cattle, respectively (*Ehrlichia phagocytophila*) and the agent that causes HGA.^{89,100} The renaming of these three agents as *A. phagcytophilum* has been controversial because of differences in their host tropism and cell target from other *Anaplasma* species such as *Anaplasma marginale*.¹⁰¹ Additionally, although these three agents share genetic, antigenic and biological characteristics,⁸⁹ they are considered phenotypic variants due to differences in their distribution, prevalence, virulence and target host species.^{102,103}

2.2 Morphology and structure of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys

Anaplasma phagocytophilum and A. platys are gram-negative, non-motile pleomorphic bacteria that mostly display a coccoid to ellipsoid shape. Their sizes vary from 0.2 to 2.0 µm and 0.3 to 1.2 µm in diameter, respectively. Like the other members of the Anaplasma genus, these bacteria are obligate aerobe that lack glycolytic pathway. Their membrane is rippled, thin and lacks the peptidoglycan layer and lipopolysacharrides of the cell wall. These two features make them sensitive to mechanical stress including freezing, thawing, sonication and osmolarity changes.^{99,104-107} Both bacteria infect peripheral blood cells derived from bone marrow precursor with A. phagocytophilum infecting preferentially neutrophils but also occasionally eosinophils whereas A. platys parasitizes circulating platelets.^{99,106,108} A. *platys* is also able to infect megakaryocytes and promegacaryocytes of the bone marrow in naturally infected dogs.¹⁰⁹ These organisms develop within intracytoplasmic inclusions of varying size (from 1.5 to 6 mm in diameter) derived from the host cell membrane. These vacuoles are endosomes where the bacteria find nutrient and multiply by binary fission.^{79,81,110-112} The vacuoles can contain two distinct ultrastructural forms characterized by their DNA organization, i.e., a small dense core with condensed protoplasm also called 'elementary body' (0.2 to 0.4 µm) or a large reticulated form named 'reticulate body' (0.8 to 2.0 µm).^{79,81,90,110,111} Both forms can replicate by binary fission producing 1 to 20 organisms forming a "morula" (from Latin morum: "mulberry") (Figure 2).

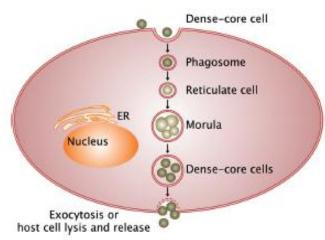


Figure 2. Intracellular development of Anaplasmataceae pathogens.⁹⁰

Morulae appear as basophilic intracellular inclusions of varying size from 1.5 to 2.5 μ m; but can be as large as 6 μ m.^{81,99, 106,108,110} Other authors consider that only the reticulated forms (vegetative form) multiply by binary fission until forming morulae, and then turns into the dense cored cells (infectious form), which are released and bind to host's cells target.^{10,90,113} Morulae of *A. platys* (Figure 3A) and *A. phagocytophilum* (Figure 3B) are detectable in peripheral blood smear 9 to 17 days and 4 to 14 day after experimental inoculation, respectively.^{99,114-117}

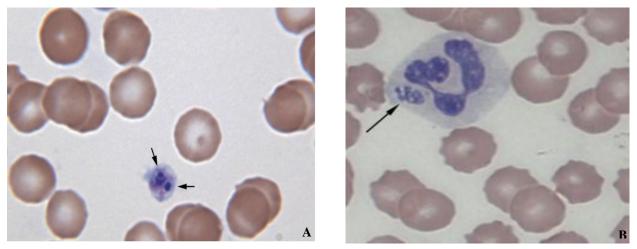


Figure 3. *Anaplasma platys* (**A**) and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* (**B**) intracytoplasmic inclusions (morulae) within a canine peripheral blood platelet after experimental infection and a canine neutrophil, respectively. Morulae appear as purple stained bodies within the platelet cytoplasm (arrow).^{10,117}

The only bacteria, other than *A. phagocytophilum*, known to survive and multiply in neutrophils are *E. ruminantium*, *E. ewingii*, and *Chlamydophila pneumonia*.⁷⁹ By light microscopy, morulae of *Ehrlichia ewingii* are identical to those of *A. phagocytophilum*. This can lead to misdiagnosis in the regions where both pathogens are present if only blood smear examination are performed.^{10,81}

3. Anaplasma phagocytophilum

3.1 Genome

The A. phagocytophilum genome is composed by a single circular double-stranded chromosome. The complete genomic sequence is estimated at 1.47 megabases (Mb) that contains 41.63% of G+C content, 1,369 open reading frames and 458 hypothetical proteins but lackes any associated plasmids.¹¹⁸ The complete genomic sequence of the bacterium has been submitted to GenBank in 2006 (NC007797) and comprises between 1,140 and 1,411 genes including protein coding sequences, rRNA, tRNA, and pseudogenes.^{118,119} This genome also contains many repeated sequences that are associated with important functions such as the expansion of outer membrane protein of the msp2/p44 family, type IV secretion system, vitamin/cofactor biosynthesis and many variable number tandem repeat (VNTR) sequences.¹¹⁸⁻¹²¹ The genome contains 113 "functional pseudogenes" msp2/p44 that encodes for the major surface antigen. These hypervariable pseudogene are recombined into a single expression site which enables the bacterium to serially express variable antigens and to escape from host immunity.^{118,122,123} Outer membrane proteins play several essential roles in the adaptation of the bacterium to variable environments and host niches, the transport of nutrients and molecules acting in the host-interaction, antimicrobial resistance, response to osmotic stress.^{124,125} and inducing neutralizing antibodies against homologous strains of A. phagocytophilum.^{126,127} Type IV secretion system has a crucial role in the pathogenesis of the disease.¹²⁸ Some genes may also contribute to the resistance of the bacterium in diverse environments.¹¹⁸

Despite the apparently genome simplicity of *A. phagocytophilum*, this bacterium exhibits an extensive genomic diversity.^{120,129,130} More than 500 partial pseudogene sequences derived from human, tick and animal strains from several USA, European and Asian regions are available in GenBank.¹²⁰ Moreover, twenty complete *A. phagocytophilum* genomes have been sequenced including sixteen American strains and four European strains. However, only a few genomes per host species are available, except for humans, which might underestimate the true strain diversity.^{56,118-120}

3.2 Genetic variability

The genetic variability has been suggested as an explanation to the ecological complexity, host tropism diversity and the observed differences in incidence, clinical severity, and disease manifestation between geographic regions.^{118,131-133} Clinical cases of granulocytic anaplasmosis in ruminants have exclusively been reported in Europe while only a few human cases have been described in this continent. In contrast, USA strains do not cause disease in domestic ruminants but a higher human incidence rate and severity of the disease were reported.^{56,120} In western states of the USA, the discordance between the distribution of clinical cases in humans, dogs and horses and the infection in the reservoir hosts suggests that multiple strains are circulating.¹³⁴ Genetic variants from Rhode Island and Connecticut could interfere with the transmission and maintenance of strains causing disease in humans. This presumed host competition between different variants could explain the lower incidence of human cases in some areas.^{130,135,136} Variants causing the disease in sheep and cattle failed to induce the disease in horses. Conversely, isolates from horses induced seroconversion but not clinical signs in lambs and cattle when inoculated.¹³⁷⁻¹³⁹

Genetic variability has been demonstrated first by the sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene.¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴² The TBF variant differs from the human variant in three positions of the 16S rRNA gene.¹⁴³ The sequencing of the 5' region of this gene enabled the identification fifteen A. phagocytohilum variants, respectively.¹¹³ In the USA, several variants have been identified based on the sequencing of the 16S rRNA and the only pathogenic variant to humans (Ap-ha) is also able to induce the disease in dogs, horses and mice but not in cattle. Another strain (Ap-variant 1) circulating in deer (Odocoileus spp), is genetically distant from the Ap-ha strain and infects only deer, goats (Capra aegagrus hircus), and tickorigin cell lines, while experimental infection of mice was not successful.^{129-131,135,144} In Europe, other variants have been identified in humans and the Ap-ha variant has also been detected in wild ruminants.^{56,118,141} Strains infecting domestic ruminants in Europe and white-tailed deer in the USA (Apvariant 1) seem to genetically differ from those infecting humans, horses and dogs.^{132,145} The Ap-ha and Ap-variant 1 can coexist in the same geographic area, could be transmitted by the same vectors, and seem to segregate only according to their host tropism.¹⁴⁶ Similarly, multiple 16S rRNA variants can coexist in a single infection and several phenotypically untyped variants have been reported in Europe and the USA.^{147,148} In Washington, five different 16S rRNA variants (named WA1 to 5) that differed at four nucleotide positions were identified from dogs displaying clinical signs consistent with granulocytic anaplasmosis. All WA variants were distinct from those identified in sheep in Norway and llama-associated ticks but one was identical to equine and human variants.¹³⁶ In another European study, seven different 16S rRNA variants were identified from dogs, with the two most common variants

showing statistically significant differences in the frequency of clinical signs and hematological abnormalities, suggesting possible differences in strain pathogenicity.¹³³

The 16S rRNA gene was considered too conserved for use in phylogenetic analysis between different strains of A. phagocytophilum. It had poor resolution and failed to discriminate between ecotypes circulating in wild ruminants compared to other animals. Furthermore, the 16S rRNA sequence analysis could not categorize human-infective isolates in order to detect virulent strains and was unable to distinguish variants according to their geographic origin.^{52,131,140,141} Consequently, other genes have been proposed to study the genetic variability of A. phagocytophilum including msp4, ankA, groEL operon, msp2/p44 genes.^{52,122,142,149,150} The genes encoding outer membrane proteins of the OMP-1/msp2/p44 protein superfamily are involved in the interactions with the hosts and vectors. The high variability of msp2/p44 is associated with multiple antigenic variations that arise during the A. phagocytophilum reproduction in mammals and ticks and facilitate bacterial survival in diverse hosts and persistence in vertebrate reservoir hosts.^{107,113,118,151} A comparison of the msp2/p44 sequences of ruminant and tick isolates from Europe and the USA have demonstrated that most of the sequences displayed only moderate identity to one another, and any distinct clustering of sequences from individual isolates, from different countries, or different host species was absent. Therefore, it has been hypothesized that the sequences of msp2/p44 gene in similarity groups may provide an index of adaptation of A. phagocytophilum strains to specific vectors or reservoir hosts in different geographical locations.^{122,152-154} In contrast, the *msp4* gene sequences are genetically stable during the multiplication in hosts' cells; thus, it is preferable for phylogenetic analysis. The analyzed strains of A. phagocytophilum showed a high degree of identity in the msp4 locus.^{141,155} The ankA gene encodes an ankyrin repeat protein involved in host cell transcription regulation named the ankyrin repeat-containing protein (*ankA*) (153-160 kDa).^{56,113} This gene is suspected to play a fundamental role in the pathogenesis by interfering in the transcription of some genes.^{79,156} The *ankA* gene enables the discrimination between animal host tropism only⁵² and some authors consider that it could not display the required level of discrimination for epidemiological studies.⁵⁶ The gene sequences seem to vary according to the geographic location and show a relative conservation among North American strains as opposed to European isolates⁷⁹ except for human European strains that seem identical.¹⁵⁰ European variants and American human variants were segregated in separate subgroups. Sequences of this gene were found to divide in distinct variant clusters associated with animal host tropism. Isolates from humans, horses, dogs and cats were found exclusively in the same cluster, which also included several variants from domestic and wild ruminants. Another cluster was composed of variants from wild ruminants (roe deer and red deer) while the third one included variants isolated from both wild (red and roe deer) and domestic ruminants (cattle and sheep). Two other clusters included exclusively variants isolated from

roe deer and rodents, respectively.^{52,56,157} Another study found four distinct animal hosts tropism ecotypes with different enzootic cycles based on the sequencing of the *groEL* heat-shock protein gene.¹⁴² The *groESL* heat shock operon has an intermediate genetic variability and is expected to act as a marker for demographic analysis. Hence, it could more clearly discriminate between *A. phagocytophilum* isolates from different origin and further between isolates of different pathogenicity than the *16S rRNA* gene.^{56,142,158} The first *groEL* cluster contained all human isolates and variants from wild (hedgehogs, mouflons, red deer) and domestic animals (cattle, dogs, horses and sheep). The second cluster included wild and domestic ruminant isolates (roe deer, red deer and sheep) and rodent variants. The third and the fourth clusters grouped exclusively isolates from rodents and birds, respectively.¹⁴² Different gene sequencing revealed similarities between human and canine isolates, suggesting that dogs and humans may be infected by the same strains in Europe and the USA.^{120,150,159-163}

All previous single gene based sequencing methods enabled the identification of geographic and/or host tropism clusters but failed to categorize human-infective isolates in order to detect virulent strains and had some contradictory results depending on the loci used. More recently, other methods such as multilocus strategy, whole genome sequencing or other locus targets^{56,113,162,163} were proposed to help solve these problems. A gene named *drhm* (for 'distantly related to human marker') was suggested to be a potential valuable marker of human strain virulence because it was identified in several strains including the USA Ap-variant 1 (ruminant), MRK (horse) and the European sheep variant but deleted in strains infecting humans and dogs in the USA.¹⁶² Despite the worldwide genomic diversity, human-infective strains seem to represent a conserved subset. Indeed, the homology between human-origin strains in the USA, Europe and Asia suggests that humans may not be susceptible to many of the circulating wildlife strains and that their susceptibility may be conditioned by selection pressures in small mammal reservoir hosts that cause evolution of novel strains able to invade and survive in humans.¹²⁰

3.3 Vector

Anaplasma phagocytophilum is commonly described as a TBD because most contaminations of people and animals occur after tick bites²⁸ especially when they come in contact with the vector in reservoir hosts habitat.¹⁶⁴ *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* is transmitted mostly by hard ticks of *Ixodes persulcatus* or *I. ricinus* complex. The genus *Ixodes* includes approximately 245 species among them 14 belong to the *I. ricinus* complex. This complex contains four tick species that are involved in the transmission of the majority of *Ixodes*-vectored human diseases, i.e., *I. scapularis, I. pacificus, I. ricinus* and *I. persulcatus*.^{23,80,89} Species of this complex are widely distributed throughout the world and are commonly found in the northern hemisphere (Figure 4). Their occurrence within a territory depends on climatic conditions (between 10 and 30°c, and >80% relative humidity) and the availability of feeding hosts.^{8,23}

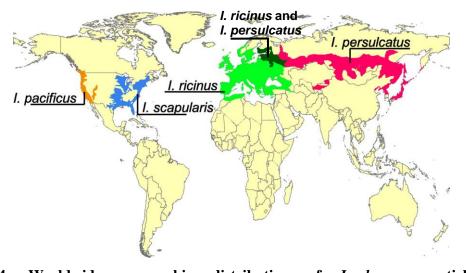


Figure 4. Worldwide geographic distribution of *Ixodes* spp. ticks, vectors ofAnaplasma phagocytophilum.

In the USA, several ixodid ticks are competent vectors of *A. phagocytophilum*, depending on the geographic location (Figure 4). The main vector in the humid forests of the upper Midwestern, north central and northeastern regions is *Ixodes scapularis* (Figure 5) whereas *Ixodes pacificus* (Figure 5) is located in shrub forests and deserts of the western USA.¹⁶⁵⁻¹⁶⁸ Surveys from Canada suggest that *I. scapularis* ticks are also the most important vectors of *A. phagocytophilum* in this country.^{169,170} The activity of *I. scapularis* varies during the year according to the life stage and the geographic localization. In the North of the USA, adult ticks are active from early spring to summer and in winter, nymphs are active during spring and summer whereas larvae activity extends from summer to fall. In the South, all stages are active from the end of fall until the end of spring.^{1,165} The prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* DNA among *I. scapularis* and *I. pacificus* ticks range from less than 1% up to 50% and 10%,

respectively.¹⁷¹⁻¹⁷⁴ Other tick species have been reported to be infected by *A. phagocytophilum* such as *Ampbyomma americanum* and *Dermacentor* spp., and *D. albipictus*, *I. spinipalpis* and *I. dentatus* are recognized as competent vectors.¹⁷⁵⁻¹⁷⁹ In central and southern America, very few studies are published on the prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* among ticks. However, among the three available studies, none have detected the DNA of this bacterium in *Ixodes* spp. ticks. In contrast, its DNA has been amplified from *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*, *Amblyomma cajennense*, *A. dissimile*, *A. maculatum*, *Dermacentor variabilis*.^{180,181,182} *Amblyomma* spp. and *D. variabilis* were positively correlated with *A. phagocytophilum* infection in Brazil and Mexico.^{180,182}



Figure 5. *Ixodes scapularis* and *Ixodes pacificus* ticks stages (TickEncounter Resource Center of the University of Rhode Island).

In Europe, the most common vector is *I. ricinus* (Figure 6),²³ which is widely distributed from Western Europe to central Asia (Figure 4). This tick lives mostly in humid wooded habitats and pastures and is rarely encountered in the Mediterranean region or in mixed or deciduous forests except at high altitudes.²⁸ It is active mostly in spring, from April to June.⁴² The prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* DNA among *I. ricinus* ticks in Europe range from less than 1% to 76.7%,^{53,183} and variation according to the stage of development and between countries are reported to occur.^{23,54} Other *Ixodes* spp. ticks seem to be involved in epidemiological cycles distinct from those involving *I. ricinus* including *I. trianguliceps, I. hexagonus* and *I. ventalloi*.^{26,141,184-186} In addition, the DNA of this bacterium has been detected in several other tick species in Europe including *Dermacentor reticulatus* and *Hyalomma concinna*.^{149,187,188} *Rhipicephalus* species were also infected with *A. phagocytophilum* and

could act as competent vectors in the Mediterranean area.^{121,189-193} *Ixodes persulcatus* (Figure 7) is another competent vector of *A. phagocytophilum* in Eastern Europe and Asia (Figure 4), with prevalence rates reported to be up to 16.7% and 21.6%, respectively.^{194,195}



Figure 6. Ixodes ricinus tick developmental stages (sheep or castor bean tick).¹⁹⁶

Although *I. persulcatus* is considered the primary vector in Asia, *A. phagocytophilum* DNA has been detected in several other tick species including *Ixodes nipponensis*, *I. ovatus*, *Rhipicephalus turanicus*, *R. microplus*, *R. sanguineus*, *Hyalomma marginatum*, *Boophilus kohlsi*, *Dermacentor silvarum* and several *Haemaphysalis* species.^{190,197-201} Molecular investigations indicated that *I. ovatus*, *D. silvarum*, *H. concinna*, *H. longicornis*, *R. microplus*, *R. sanguineus* and *D. nuttalli* might be involved in the transmission *A. phagocytophilum* in China.²⁰¹⁻²⁰⁴

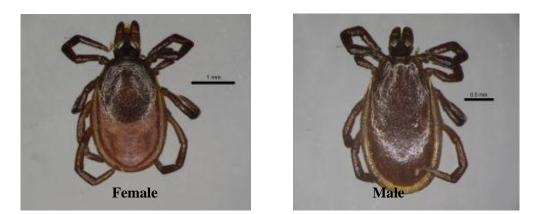


Figure 7. Ixodes persulcatus tick (Online photographic guide to ticks, Bristol University tick ID).

In North Africa, only a few studies have investigated the prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* DNA among ticks. A survey from Morocco and Tunisia detected *A. phagocytophilum* DNA in 1% and 3% of *I. ricinus* and *Hyalomma detritum*, respectively.⁸² Although *I. ricinus* has been suggested to be the main vector of *A. phagocytophilum* in this part of the world as well, some reports detected its DNA in several other tick species.⁸⁵ Indeed, two studies showed a prevalence of 13.7% and 2.3% in *R. sanguineus* (Figure 8) collected from free-roaming dogs in Egypt and *H. marginatum* collected from horses in Tunisia, respectively.^{84,85} Additionally, *Hyalomma dromedarii*, *H. excavatum* and *H. impeltatum* ticks have been collected from dromedaries with positive antibody titers to *A. phagocytophilum* in Tunisia.⁸⁷ Therefore, *A. phagocytophilum* is likely to circulate in a wide variety of ticks feeding on a wide range of hosts; however whether all these ticks are involved in the transmission to hosts or not is still unestablished.⁸⁵



Figure 8. *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* ticks or brown dog ticks (TickEncounter Resource Center of the University of Rhode Island).

3.4 Reservoir hosts

A reservoir host is defined as a biotic or abiotic environment that enables a pathogen to persist in a sustainable manner. As *A. phagocytophilum* is an obligate intracellular bacterium and not transovarialy transmission in *Ixodes* spp. ticks, its reservoirs should be animal hosts permitting its survival, particularly outside the activity period of its vectors. Although a wide range of domestic and wild animal species can be infected by the bacterium, hosts might fulfill several characteristics to be considered as reservoir hosts. Indeed, a host reservoir most be fed on by an infected vector tick at least occasionally, take up a critical number of the infectious agent during the bite by an infected tick, allow the pathogen to multiply and survive for a period in at least some parts of his body, and might allow the pathogen to find its way into other feeding ticks. Therefore, the detection of pathogens or their DNA in vertebrate hosts is not enough to consider them as reservoir hosts. If these hosts display also physiological and behavioral characteristics enabling the multiplication and transmission to the vector, they can be considered as candidate reservoir hosts. Otherwise, these animals can act as simple carrier or dead end hosts.^{33,205,206}

Wild mammals are considered to be the main reservoir host of A. phagocytophilum. Wild cervids are the most common reservoir hosts because they develop a persistent subclinical infection⁵⁴ with white-tailed deer (Odocoileus virginianus) and roe deer (Capreolus capreolus) the main feeding hosts for ticks in Eastern USA and Europe, respectively.^{54,57} Small mammals are also major feeding hosts for ticks.²⁰⁷ The host reservoir range of A. phagocytophilum seems to differ according to the geographic localization.²³ In Europe, prevalence rates of A. phagocytophilum in wild ruminants range from 10% to deer.^{52,55,208,209} recorded highest prevalence rates for roe more than 90%. with Anaplasma phagocytophilum is highly prevalent in other wild ruminant species that may act as efficient reservoir hosts in Europe including red deer (Cervus elaphus), feral goats (Capra hircus), fallow deer (Dama dama), sika deer (Cervus nippon), moose (Alces alces), elks (Alces alces), alpine ibex (*Capra ibex*) and chamois (*Rupicapra rupicapra*).^{24,56,210,211} Similarly, several small mammal species were found to be infected with A. phagocytophilum including bank vole (Clethrionomys glareolus), wood mouse (Apodemus sylvaticus), yellow-necked mouse (Apodemus flavicollis), common shrew (Sorex araneus) and European hedgehog (Erinaceus europaeus) with prevalence rates up to 85%.^{186,212-} ²¹⁵ However, even though A. phagocytophilum has been detected in a wide variety of wild animal species in Europe, reservoir hosts for the human pathogenic strain are still unknown.^{150,216} Indeed, the reservoir competence of rodents is not established and cervids were reported to mainly disseminate variants that have not been isolated in humans, dogs, horses or domestic ruminants.^{52,121,158,216-218} In

addition, the phylogenetic analysis based on several loci (*groEL*, *msp4* and *ankA*) revealed that rodent

strains are clustered in different groups than *A. phagocytophilum* isolates from other animal species, making these rodent strains unlikely to circulate in *A. phagocytophilum* epidemiological cycles involving other mammals. Furthermore, according to recent studies, rodents could be reservoir hosts in an independent epidemiological cycle, involving only rodents as mammalian hosts.^{142,157, 219}

The main reservoir hosts in the USA, with variations according to the region, are white-footed mouse (Peromyscus leucopus), white-tailed deer (Odocoileus virginianus), grey squirrels (Sciurus carolinensis), Eastern chipmunks (Tamias striatus), dusky-footed wood rats (*Neotoma fuscipes*) and southern red-backed voles (*Myodes gapperi*).^{23,35,54,136} In the eastern USA, the white-tailed deer is the principal reservoir host of the A. phagocytophilum AP-variant 1 with reported prevalence rates up to 46.6%.^{132,220} In contrast, rodents are considered the most important reservoir hosts of the bacterium in the northeastern, the upper Midwestern and the western coast of the USA. Both white-footed mouse (Peromyscus leucopus) and eastern chipmunks (Tamias striatus) were found to be the main reservoir hosts for the Ap-ha in Northeastern USA.²²¹ Other rodents such as southern redvole (Clethrionomys gapperi) are considered competent reservoir hosts backed for *A. phagocytophilum*.^{130,222,223} In the western states of the USA, among the most frequently infected small mammals species are dusky-footed woodrat (Neotoma fuscipes), western gray squirrel (Sciurus griseus), Douglas squirrel (Tamiasciuris douglasii), gray squirrel (Sciurus carolinensis), deer mouse (Peromyscus maniculatus) and red wood chipmunk (Tamias ochrogenys). DNA of the bacterium has been detected in several rodent species with prevalences ranging from 1.8% to 88.4%. 54,175,220,224-226 However, there is an important spatial discrepancy between human, canine and equine clinical disease in the western USA and infection in the supposed reservoir hosts, suggesting that multiple distinct A. phagocytophilum strains could circulate in the western USA ecosystems.¹³⁴

In Asia, no information is available on the reservoir host's competence of wild animals for *A. phagocytophilum*.¹⁹⁹ Only a few studies have been carried on wild ruminants and *A. phagocytophilum* has been detected in sika deer and Korean water deer (*Hydropotes inermis*) with prevalence rates up to 46% and 63.6%, respectively.²²⁷⁻²³⁰ Small mammals such as wood mouse (*Apodemus sylvaticus*), Korean field mouse (*Apodemus peninsulae*) and black striped field mouse (*Apodemus agrarius*) also showed relatively high prevalence rates up to 10%, 25% and 20.8%, respectively in China.^{199,231,232} In Korea, prevalence rates in black striped field mouse were up to 23.6%, hence this rodent species was suggested to be among the most important reservoir hosts in Asia.²³³

Anaplasma phagocytophilum has been detected in several other wild vertebrates including boars, foxes, bears, European bisons, donkeys, mooses, hares, Eurasian lynx, Coyotes, mountain lions, birds and reptiles. However, their role in the epidemiological cycle of the bacterium has not been assessed.^{54,234,235} In the western USA, lizards and snakes were both seropositive and PCR-positive to A. phagocytophilum, but I. pacificus larvae fed on lizards did not acquire or transmit the bacterium, suggesting that reptiles can be naturally infected but unlikely to be competent reservoir hosts.²³⁶ Raccoons (Procyon lotor), have been reported to be competent reservoir hosts for A. phagocytophilum.^{224,237} In northwestern California, gray foxes (Urocyon cinereoargenteus) hosted all three life stages of *Ixodes* spp. ticks, displayed a high seroprevalence of 51% and PCR-positivity of 9% and urban foxes had the same seroreactivity rate than dogs. Therefore, gray foxes were considered as good sentinels for the bacterium transmission in this part of the USA.²³⁸ Similarly, 25% of wild foxes (Vulpes vulpes) were PCR-positive for A. phagocytophilum in Austria.²³⁹ Wild boars (Sus scrofa) are strongly suspected to be reservoir hosts for A. phagocytophilum human strains in Europe as some studies demonstrated that A. phagocytophilum isolates from these animals and humans harbored the same groEL, ankA and msp4 gene sequences.^{54,150,216} Furthermore, all three-life stages of I. ricinus can feed on wild boars.²¹⁶ However, other studies suggested that wild boars are capable to control A. phagocytophilum infection through activation of innate immune responses, phagocytosis and autophagy explaining the low prevalence in some European regions and making them less likely to be a competent reservoir hosts.^{150,240,241} In some geographic areas, several bird species are thought either to be competent reservoir hosts or to contribute to the circulation and spread of infected ticks.^{45,242-247}

3.5 Life cycle of Anaplasma phagocytophilum transmission by Ixodes tick species

All *Ixodes*-transmitted pathogens of humans need a vertebrate reservoir host for their perpetuation in nature.⁵⁴ More specifically, *A. phagocytophilum* is considered to be naturally maintained in complex and not fully assessed enzootic tick-wild animals cycles (Figure 9).⁵⁶ In the case of bacterial tick-borne infections that often lead to immune system stimulation in the reservoir host or to its death limiting the bacteriaemic phase, ticks represent a critical feature for the maintenance of the enzootic cycle in nature. The perpetuation of cycles can be ensured either by the transmission of the pathogens between different tick developmental stages (transstadial transmission), or between generation (transovarian transmission) or between ticks during cofeeding.^{80,248,249}

The life cycle of *Ixodes* ticks lasts for almost two years⁸⁰ and its duration depends on climatic conditions varying from less than a year in tropical regions to three years or more in temperate regions.²⁵⁰ This life cycle comprises four distinct developmental stages, i.e., egg, larva, nymph and adult. *Ixodes* ticks activity varies according to the life stage and they mostly quest on vegetation in prime suburban real estate.⁸⁰ Some authors consider only three life stages including larvae, nymphs and adults.^{21,56} The feeding behavior at each life stage has a directly effect on the risk of tick-borne pathogens transmission.⁸⁰ All *Ixodes* species of public health relevance need to feed on a new host at each life stage after hatching except for males that do not feed, and the blood meal is completed in three to five days.^{56,80} Ticks belonging to *I. persulcatus* complex are nonspecific feeding ticks that can have their blood meal either on various host reservoirs or on humans.⁸⁰

Anaplasma phagocytophilum is transmitted to the host during the bite of a nymphal or adult tick infected during previous stages (larval or nymphal) (Figure 9).³⁵ Transmission of *A. phagocytophilum* to the host during tick feeding occurs usually within 24 to 48h.^{251,252} As nymphs have very small size (approximately 1mm), they are often able to feed much longer on humans and are at increased risk to transmit tick-borne pathogens such as *A. phagocytophilum*.⁸⁰ In a recent study, 41% of retrieved ticks from humans in Italy were from nymphal stage.²⁵³ Moreover, ticks have the capacity to modulate host immune and inflammatory responses that may also decrease the chance of detection.²⁵⁴ Considering that *A. phagocytophilum* is transmitted transtadially in ticks, nymphs and adults contaminated in a previous stage last infected after molting and are able to contaminate susceptible hosts during the following blood meals.⁸⁰ Adult female ticks require an addition blood meal and are thus twice likely to acquire the infection.^{21,54,80} As no transovarial transmission of *A. phagocytophilum* among *Ixodes* ticks occurs,¹¹⁸ larvae are mostly considered free from infection until hatching and having their first blood meal.^{54,80}

A. phagocytophilum cycle when adult female tick lay their eggs.²⁵⁵ However, transovarial transmission has been documented in moose ticks *Dermacentor albipictus* and seems to be due to an atypical feeding system as compared to normal *Ixodes* infection cycle.¹⁷⁹

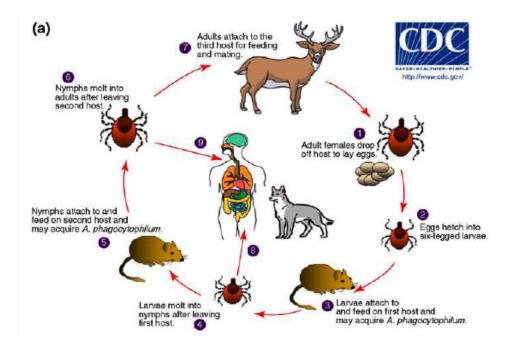


Figure 9. Transmission cycles of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in *Ixodes* spp. tick populations and infection of people and dogs. The pathogen is acquired from reservoir hosts during feeding by larval or nymphal ticks and then transmitted in subsequent feedings of nymphal or adult ticks.²⁵⁵

Ixodes tick species involved in the transmission of *A. phagocytophilum* in the USA, Europe and Asia are exophilic, telotropic and anthropophilic ticks. They have an open questing behavior, a wide host range and a ubiquitous distribution. Some of them such as *I. scapularis* are reported to have a high affinity for biting humans, hence are also able to transmit the bacterium from host reservoirs to people.^{1,54} Therefore, the trophic preferences of these ticks are difficult to determine although it has been suggested that larvae parasitize small mammals while nymphs and adult stages are more likely to feed on medium (such as rabbits) and large mammals (such as ruminants), respectively.⁵⁶ Other more nidicolous and host-specific endophilic ticks are thought to play a role in niche cycles which may contribute to the persistence of the bacterium in nature.⁵⁴ Some recent studies showed that rodents could be reservoir hosts for *A. phagocytohilum* in an independent epidemiological cycle, involving only rodents as mammalian hosts. In the USA, two potential alternative *A. phagocytophilum* epidemiological cycles have been described, one involving *N. mexicana*, *P. maniculatus* and *I. scapularis*.¹⁷⁸ Similarly, red wood chipmunk hosts both antropophilic (*I. pacificus*) and nidicolous (*I. angustus*) ticks and is

suggested to maintain niche cycles.²⁵⁷ In the UK and Central Europe, at least three independent epidemiological cycles have been described involving rodents with *I. trianguliceps*,^{141,185,213,258,259} and hedgehogs with *I. hexagonus*.²¹⁵ These mammilian hosts can harbor two to three different stages of both endophilic and exophilic ticks simultaneously and thus promote the transmission to human through the anthropophilic ticks.²⁶⁰

3.6 Other transmission ways

Although A. phagocytophilum is primarily a tick-borne pathogen, other ways of transmission have been described including percutaneous and blood sub inoculation, blood transfusion, vertical and nosocomial transmissions.^{164,261-263} Currently, eight human cases of transfusion-acquired granulocytic anaplasmosis have been reported, seven in the USA^{164,264-268} and one in Slovenia.²⁶⁹ Another probable transfusion-transmitted A. phagocytophilum infection has been described from the USA.²⁷⁰ The seroprevalence of A. phagocytophilum among human blood donors in the USA ranges from 0.5% to 11.3% (Table 2).^{271,272} In Europe, a very high prevalence rate has been reported in Greece with almost 21% of blood donors being seropositive for A. phagocytophilum (Table 2).²⁷³ Because the risk of developing complications seems to be increased in some transfused people such as immunocompromised patients and because A. phagocytophilum can persist up to 18 days in refrigerated (4°C) human blood products, this infection is among the TBDs considered to represent a potential risk for transmission by blood transfusion in the USA.^{274,265} Therefore, A. phagocytophilum should be suspected and researched in every transfused person who develops acute thrombocytopenia especially if associated with febrile illness and leucopenia. In addition, because sharing blood products between different areas is growing, such acute illness after blood transfusion might be included in the differential diagnosis even in nonendemic areas.^{164,265,266,269,275}

| Country | Number of blood donors | Prevalence (%) | Method | References |
|-------------------------|------------------------|----------------|--------|------------|
| AMERICA | | | | |
| USA | | | | |
| Connecticut | 992 | 3.5 | IFA | 271 |
| Wisconsin | | 0.5 | | |
| Westchester County (NY) | 159 | 11.3 | IFA | 272 |
| EUROPE | | • | | |
| Poland | 50 | 2.0 | IFA | 276 |
| Eastern | 32 | 9.4 | | 277 |
| Lublin | 56 | 5.4 | | 278 |
| Bulgaria | 70 | 2.9 | IFA | 279 |
| Norway | 301 | 16.2 | IFA | 280 |
| Germany | 103 | 1.9 | IFA | 281 |
| Austria | 357 | 9.0 | IFA | 70 |
| Switzerland | 530 | 1.1 | IFA | 282 |
| Belgium | 402 | 15.9 | IFA | 283 |
| France | 50 | 0.0 | IFA | 284 |
| Greece | 496 | 21.4 | IFA | 273 |
| Portugal | 96 | 4.2 | IFA WB | 285 |

Table 2. Seroprevalence of Anaplasma phagocytophilum in blood donors form the USA and several

 European countries.

IFA: immunofluorescence assay; WB: western blot.

In canine species, no cases of transfusion-transmitted granulocytic anaplasmosis have been recorded. A recent study carried in the UK screened 262 healthy canine blood donors without travel history outside of the country for several vector-borne pathogens by PCR, and none was positive for *Anaplasma* spp. Even though the UK is not an endemic region for *A. phagocytophilum* and its vectors, this bacterium is considered among the organisms of potential significance in transfusion medicine in this country.²⁸⁶ Another study from the USA failed to detect positive individuals to *A. phagocytophilum* among 118 feline blood donors.²⁸⁷ However, it has been strongly recommended to screen canine blood donors for *A. phagocytophilum* infection in endemic areas because some PCR-positive dogs can be clinically healthy and also because of possible chronic carrier status.^{62,287,288} Finally the consensus statement on canine and feline blood donor screening for infectious disease of the American College of Veterinary Internal Medicine (ACVIM) recommends to test for diseases that meet at least three of the following criteria: (1) the infectious agent can cause subclinical infections making asymptomatic carriers possible accidental blood donors, (3) the infectious agent can be cultured from the blood of an infected

animal and (4) the disease induced in the recipient is severe or difficult to clear. The consensus statement also recommends considering testing in the case of documented experimental transmission without described clinical transmission via transfusion or if the disease does not represent a threat to the recipient or is easily cleared.²⁸⁹

Perinatal and transplacental transmissions have also been reported in people and cattle, respectively.^{262,290} In dogs, no report described such transmission and a study on naturally infected bitch did not shown any perinatal transmission.²⁹¹ A study described the first nosocomial infection in people in China after direct contact with blood and respiratory secretions.²⁶³ However, a recent report contradicts the nosocomial transmission of *A. phagocytophilum* in those patients based on discrepancies in clinical and laboratory features when compared to HGA cases from the USA and suggests that those Chinese patients could have been infected with a newly discovered bunyavirus, called 'severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus' (SFTSV).²⁹² Human cases of granulocytic anaplasmosis have been also described after percutaneous exposure or inhalation of contaminated blood of deer in the USA.²⁶¹ According to these previous reports, respiratory secretions could also be a source of infection. In a case of canine granulocytic anaplasmosis with respiratory signs, inclusions of *A. phagocytophilum* have been identified in neutrophils from tracheal wash smear.²⁹¹ Consequently, precautions might be taken when necropsies are performed on animals suspected of granulocytic anaplasmosis.⁸¹

3.7 Anaplasma phagocytophilum infection in humans

Several wild and domestic animals are receptive to *A. phagocytophilum.* However, the disease has been reported only in a few species including domestic ruminants, horses, cats, dogs and humans.^{62,95,172,293-297} The first human granulocytic anaplasmosis (HGA) case has been reported in the USA in the mid-1990s.¹⁴³ In the USA, HGA is a nationally notifiable disease since 2000²⁹⁸ and the number of cases has critically and rapidly increased between 2000 and 2012 from 348 to 2389 cases.^{18,49} Data from the USA CDC and MMWR reported 10,670 human cases between 2010 and 2013, and a 8-fold increased number of reported cases between 2000 and 2013.⁵⁰ The disease incidence has increased from 1.4 to 6.3 cases per million persons per year between 2000 and 2010^{293,298,299} and a 12-fold increased incidence was recorded between 2001 and 2011.³⁰⁰ Figure 10 shows the evolution of annual cases of human granulocytic anaplasmosis in the USA from 1994 to 2010.

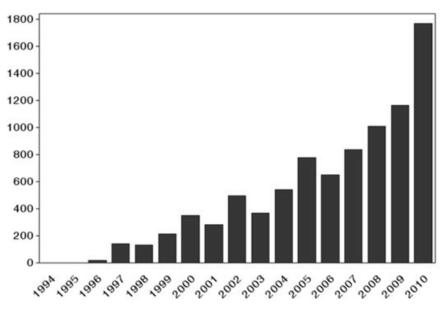


Figure 10. Number of annual human granulocytic anaplasmosis cases in the USA from 1994 to 2010 (<u>http://www.cdc.gov/anaplasmosis/stats/</u>).

HGA is currently considered the third most important VBD in both the USA and Europe and is also increasingly diagnosed in Asia.^{76,204,301} Endemic regions include the Upper Midwest, New England, parts of the midAtlantic states and northern California in the USA and also several parts of Europe (central, northern and western countries) and some Asian countries.^{73,78,92,302} Serological surveys carried in endemic areas of the USA found prevalence rates ranging from 15 to 36%.^{271,303} Serological evidence of human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* has been reported in almost all European countries with prevalence rates ranging from less than 1% to 32% and the disease has already been reported in several of them.^{21,71,73,304,305} Similarly, exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* in China has continuously increased in high-risk populations according to the Tianjin CDC from 8.8% to 59.2% between 2006 and 2009.^{77,306} Despite a moderate to high seroprevalence in several countries, HGA is still unrecognized and rarely diagnosed due to several factors including limited epidemiological, ecological, clinical and microbiological information, difficulties in the diagnosis, possible asymptomatic or subclinical infections and the lack of awareness by physicians and the public.^{21,78} Seroprevalence studies conducted worldwide are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Seroprevalence of Anaplasma phagocytophilum in healthy, high-risk or sick populations worldwide.

| Country | Number | Study population | Prevalence | Method | References |
|-----------------------------|--------|----------------------------------|------------|--------|------------|
| | | | (%) | | |
| AMERICA | | | | | |
| USA | | | | | |
| | 9,987 | Healthy military personnel | 2.6 | ELISA | 299 |
| | | | 0.11 | WB | |
| Wisconsin | 475 | Healthy permanent residents | 14.9 | IFA | 303 |
| New Jersey | 202 | People evaluated for Lyme | 16.3 | ELISA | 307 |
| Great Smoky Mountains and | 141 | disease | 8.1 | ELISA | 308 |
| ROMO National Parks | | Healthy permanent employees | | | |
| Peru | | | | | |
| Lima | 160 | Healthy urban residents | 0.0 | IFA | 309 |
| Northern coast, southern | | Healthy rural residents | | | |
| Peruvian Andes and Peruvian | | | | | |
| jungle region | | | | | |
| EUROPE | | | | | |
| Poland | | | | | |
| | 180 | Patients suspected for | 4.9 | IFA | 310 |
| | | rickettsiosis | | | |
| Eastern and southern | 216 | | 29.6 | IFA | 302 |
| Eastern | 400 | Employees of National Forest | 8.0 | ELISA | 311 |
| | | Healthy client-owned dogs | 2.8 | PCR | |
| Northern and northeastern | 478 | | 9.6 | IFA | 312 |
| Eastern | 39 | Raworkers from forest areas | 5.1 | IFA | 277 |
| | 119 | Farmers | 11.8 | | |
| Southeastern | 113 | Forestry workers | 17.7 | IFA | 278 |
| Northeastern | 130 | Forestry workers | 6.2 | IFA | 276 |
| | | People living in Białowieża | | | |
| | | Primeval Forest | | | |
| Bulgaria | 200 | Patients with a history of tick | 7.4 | IFA | 279 |
| | | bites | | | |
| Slovenia | 53 | Children with fever and tick | 1.9 | IFA | 313 |
| Koster Islands | 185 | bite | 11.4 | IFA | 314 |
| | 90 | Permanent residents | 17.0 | IFA | 315 |
| | | People bitten by ticks | | | |
| Czech Republic | 809 | Patients suspected of tick-borne | 9.9 | IFA | 208 |
| | | encephalitis | | | |

| Norway | 47 | Patients with clinical signs and | 29.8 | IFA | 316 |
|-----------------|-------|----------------------------------|------|-----|-----|
| | | history of tick bite | | | |
| UK | 518 | Farmworkers and family | 1.5 | IFA | 254 |
| | | members | | | |
| The Netherlands | 108 | Febrile patients with | 4.0 | IFA | 304 |
| | | unresolved etiology | | | |
| | 174 | Patients suspected of Lyme | 4.0 | | |
| | | disease | | | |
| | 154 | Forestry workers | 1.0 | | |
| | 54 | Healthy controls | 0.0 | | |
| | 626 | Patient with a tick bite or | 0.8 | PCR | 317 |
| | | erythema migrans | | | |
| Belgium | 1,350 | Patient with clinical signs | 31.0 | PCR | 73 |
| | | compatible with a TBD | | IFA | |
| | 148 | Workers professionally | 8.1 | IFA | 283 |
| | | exposed | | | |
| Germany | 150 | Forestry workers | 14.0 | IFA | 281 |
| | 105 | Patients with Lyme disease | 11.4 | | |
| Bavaria region | 107 | Patients with history of tick | 7.5 | IFA | 318 |
| | | bite | | | |
| Switzerland | 181 | patients with suspected tick- | 17.7 | IFA | 319 |
| | | borne encephalitis and healthy | | | |
| Northern | 70 | controls | 17.1 | IFA | 284 |
| Eastern | 258 | | 9.0 | IFA | 320 |
| | 149 | People bitten by Ixodes ticks | 12.7 | | |
| | | Hunters | | | |
| | 205 | Persons previously diagnosed | 19.5 | | |
| | | with Lyme disease | | | |
| | | Patients previously diagnosed | | | |
| | | with tick-borne encephalitis | | | |
| | | virus | | | |
| Cyprus | 227 | Farmers, or workers in farms, | 32.0 | IFA | 71 |
| | | people in contact with animals | | | |
| | | of veterinary importance and/or | | | |
| | | ticks | | | |
| Italy | 181 | Forestry rangers | 8.8 | IFA | 305 |
| | | | 0.6 | WB | |
| Portugal | 147 | Patients with Lyme disease, | 1.4 | IFA | 321 |
| | 1 | | 1 | | |
| | | forestry workers, and persons | | | |

| | 367 | Potentially exposed patients | 5.8 | IFA | 285 |
|--------------------------|-------|---------------------------------|------|-----|-----|
| | 792 | Clinically ill patients | 3.9 | IFA | 322 |
| Turkey | 637 | | 7.8 | IFA | 323 |
| ASIA | | | | • | |
| China | | | | | |
| Eight provinces | 3,669 | Healthy people living in forest | 7.11 | IFA | 324 |
| Nine provinces | 7,322 | areas | 15.4 | IFA | 78 |
| Two provinces | 819 | Healthy agrarian individuals | 1.5 | | |
| Beijing | 562 | Healthy urban residents | 14.1 | IFA | 201 |
| Yiyuan County | 46 | Healthy farmers from rural | 26.7 | IFA | 204 |
| Near Tianjin | 365 | areas | 8.8 | IFA | 77 |
| Central and Southeastern | 323 | Healthy farmers | 20.0 | IFA | 325 |
| | | Healthy Farmers | | | |
| | | People at high risk exposure to | | | |
| | | ticks and animals | | | |

IFA: immunofluorescence assay; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; PCR: polymerase chain reaction; WB: western blot.

High-risk populations (i.e., people living in forest areas and forestry workers, people living in rural areas and farmers, hunters, national parks rangers, military personnel, people in close contact with domestic animals, and people at high risk of exposure or previously exposed to ticks) have significantly higher prevalence rates of A. phagocytophilum exposure.^{78,278,299} The disease is typically seasonal with most cases recorded during spring and summer. Major risk factors for acquing A. phagocytophilum infection include outdoor activities especially related to wooded areas, meadow habitats and grasslands, immunodepression and blood transfusion.35,253 HGA is an unspecific flu-like illness mostly characterized by fever, headache, chills, myalgia and malaise.^{79,92,255} Symptoms usually appear five days to three weeks after a tick bite.²⁶⁵ Less frequently, human patients can display arthralgia, rash, liver injury, digestive (nausea, vomiting, diarrhea), respiratory (cough, pulmonary infiltrates, acute respiratory distress syndrome) or nervous signs (stiff neck, confusion).^{79,92} Clinical signs are frequently accompanied by nonspecific hematological and serum biochemistry profile modifications including thrombocytopenia, leukopenia, lymphopenia, anemia and increased liver enzymes activity.^{79,92,255} Leukopenia and lymphopenia can lead to severe opportunistic infections such as herpes simplex esophagitis, *Candida albicans* pneumonitis/esophagitis and invasive pulmonary aspergillosis.³²⁶⁻³²⁹ The severity of the disease and mortality are strongly correlated with advanced age of patients, immunosuppression, the presence of co-morbidities and delayed onset of treatment.^{316,330} The differential diagnosis should include other acute viral and bacterial infections, some inflammatory disorders, other vector-borne diseases and malignancies (Table 4).³⁰⁰

| Viral infections | Enterovirus infection, Epstein-Barr virus, Hantann virus, human herpes virus-6, | | | | | | |
|------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | human parvovirus B19 infections, viral hepatitis A, B, C | | | | | | |
| Bacterial infections | Acute bacterial endocarditis, group A streptococcal infection, leptospirosis, meningococcemia, <i>Mycoplasma pneuminiae</i> , Neisseria gonorrhea sepsis, Neisseria menongitidis sepsis, post-group A streptococcal infection, Q fever, rat-bite fever, | | | | | | |
| | secondary syphilis, septic shock syndromes, typhoid fevers | | | | | | |
| | African tick-bite fever, babesiosis, bartonellosis, chikungunya virus disease, Colorado | | | | | | |
| | tick fever, Ehrlichia muris-like agent infection, human granulocytic ehrlichiosis (E. | | | | | | |
| | ewingii), human monocytic ehrlichiosis (E. chaffeensis), heartland virus fever, Lyme | | | | | | |
| Other VBDs | disease, malaria, murine typhus, Rocky Mountain spotted fever, severe fever with | | | | | | |
| | thrombocytopenia virus infection, scrub typhus, tularemia, dengue virus fever, | | | | | | |
| | malaria, Powassan virus disease/tick-borne encephalitis, West Nile fever | | | | | | |
| | Allergic-drug reactions, idiopathic thrombocytopenia purpura, immune complex- | | | | | | |
| Inflammatory disorders | mediated illnesses, Kawazaki syndrome, thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura, toxic | | | | | | |
| | hemophagocytosis, macrophage activation syndromes | | | | | | |
| Malignancies | Lymphoma, acute leukemia | | | | | | |

Table 4. Differential diagnosis of human granulocytic anaplasmosis.^{255,300}

In most cases of HGA, clinical signs are mild and self-limited, with favorable evolution even without treatment. People usually recover completely after antibiotic therapy however some patients could display persistent clinical signs from one to three years after treatment.^{79,92,331} Life-threatening complications have been reported to occur in 3% of patients (Table 5).²⁹³ Two reports from China, described complications by systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) and multiple organs deficiency syndrome (MODS) in 45.8% and up to 41.2% of cases.^{78,301} Consequently, half of the HGA cases are hospitalized and up to 17% require intensive care unit admission especially when diagnosis and treatment were delayed.^{79,293,327,332-334} Due to the potential serious outcome associated with the disease, the Infectious diseases Society of America recommends to give antimicrobial therapy to every person suspected to have HGA on the basis of the clinical presentation although mild or self-limiting pending the laboratory results and to not delay treatment.^{255,292} Even though relatively high hospitalization rates are recorded in some studies, the fatality rate is usually lower than 1%.³⁰⁰ However, mortality rates up to 8.1 and 10% were recorded in China and the USA, respectively.^{21,78} Two reports from China, described 3.2% and 26.5% of fatality.^{263,301}

Table 5. Complications and associated risk factors in human granulocytic anaplasmosis.^{78,92,300,301}

| Clinical complications |
|--|
| Hemodynamic |
| Toxic or septic shock-like syndrome, coagulopathy, hemorrhage, myocarditis, pancarditis, renal failure, systemic |
| inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS), multiple organ deficiency syndrome (MODS) |
| Respiratory |
| Pneumonia, acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) |
| Nervous system |
| Meningoencephalitis, cranial nerve palsies, demyelinating polyneuropathy, brachial plexopathy, seizure |
| Others |
| Rhabdomyolysis, opportunistic infections, acute abdominal syndrome |
| Risk factors |
| Preexisting disease |
| Immunosuppressive conditions |
| |

3.8 Epidemiological role of dogs

Although dogs are susceptible to A. phagocytophilum, they are mostly recognized as incidental hosts and their role as potential reservoirs is still controversial.^{136,335} Dogs are considered unlikely reservoir hosts due to the potential short duration of bacteremia (< 28 days) and uncertainty regarding their ability to host enough nymphal tick stages to contribute to the spread of the bacterium.^{10,54} In Austria, no significant difference in the seroprevalence of A. phagocytophilum among owners of seropositive pets and owners without pets was observed, suggesting that pets are not a source of infection for humans.³³⁶ However, according to some authors, almost all studies investigating the role of dogs in the transmission of TBDs focused on companion dogs. These animals are usually treated against ectoparasites, have limited free access to the outdoors and reservoir host's habitats, and are less exposed to ticks when compared to hunting, stray or shelter dogs. Therefore, these studies may not accurately reflect the public health risk associated with dogs in endemic areas.³³⁷ Others suggested that domestic animals including dogs could be considered as potential reservoir hosts of A. phagocytophilum in Europe especially in urban areas.³³⁷⁻³⁴⁰ In a study from Hungary, the prevalence of A. phagocytophilum DNA in stray dogs was higher than in several studies from other European countries.³³⁷ In addition, two studies reported high prevalence rates of A. phagocytophilum DNA in dogs suspected to have Lyme disease and rural dogs from Poland and China, respectively.^{201,341} Anaplasma phagocytophilum was also the most frequently detected bacterium by PCR in stray dogs that lived in close contact with domestic animals and humans in rural and peri-urban areas of the Mediterranean zone of Jordan.³⁴² In addition, high prevalence rates of A. phagocytophilum DNA was found in I. ricinus collected from dogs in

Belgium and Poland, and *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (adult and nymphs) from free-roaming dogs in Egypt.^{84,343,344} Moreover, *A. phagocytophilum* DNA was detected in experimentally infected dogs during 60 days without immunosuppressive drug, and the canine immune response seems to have evolved to only partially control infection, suggesting a longer bacteremia that possibly allow timely transmission to the vector.^{117,161} Based on these results, dogs could act as potential reservoir hosts for the bacterium in some regions, but further studies are needed to confirm this hypothesis.

The geographical distribution of canine infection seems to parallel the distribution of HGA in the USA with a positive association of human and canine cases in many states.^{46,345} Indeed, several studies found the highest prevalence rates of *A. phagocytophilum* antibodies in dogs from the upper Midwest, Northeast and Mid-Atlantic, which correlate with areas where the highest incidence rates of human anaplasmosis were reported.^{46,50,293,345-347} In addition, the estimated regression coefficient for the endemic risk factor in the contiguous USA model was positive and significant. This implies higher prevalence among dogs living in areas where HGA is endemic.³⁴⁷ Furthermore, human and canine strains of *A. phagocytophilum* were similar according to several gene sequencing, and human isolates have been reported to induce clinical disease in dogs in both Europe and the USA.^{120,150,159-163} Therefore, in addition to the possible role of dogs as potential reservoir hosts, the prevalence data of *A. phagocytophilum* infection in dogs provides important information on the incidence, risk factors, sources of exposure, and real-time risk of exposure for human infection.⁴⁶

4. Anaplasma platys

4.1 Transmission

The natural mode of transmission of A. platys has not been demonstrated conclusively, but it likely involves a tick vector. This bacterium is most likely transmitted through R. sanguineus tick bites although the tick vector competency has not been proven.^{89,90} Indeed, although one experimental study failed to demonstrate the ability of *R. sanguineus* to transmit *A. platys*,³⁴⁸ its DNA has been frequently detected in this tick species. In addition, the 16S rRNA gene fragments amplified from ticks were identical to A. platys sequences obtained from dogs infested by these ticks and canine infection with this bacterium is common in areas with high R. sanguineus pressure.³⁴⁹⁻³⁶¹ Moreover, A. platys has been repeatedly reported from areas where other R. sanguineus-transmitted pathogens such as Ehrlichia canis, Babesia canis or Rickettsia conorii are commonly present³⁶²⁻³⁶⁴ and coinfection between A. platvs and these agents have been reported.³⁶⁵⁻³⁷¹ A recent study detected A. platvs DNA in adult and nymph R. sanguineus ticks collected from negative dogs and did not found any difference between A. platys detection in ticks collected from positive and negatives dogs. These findings suggest that these tick stages may acquire the bacterium in the previous life stage and may maintain a constant load after moulting. Therefore, as *R. sanguineus* ticks display a three-host life cycle (i.e., each life stage requires a new host to feed on), a transstadial transmission of A. platys may occur, possibly playing an important role in the pathogen spreading throughout canine populations.³⁵⁸

Anaplasma platys DNA has been detected in several other *Rhipicephalus* spp. ticks such as *R. camicasi*, *R. turanicus*, *R. evertsi* and *R. bursa*.^{360,372-375} In addition, the DNA of this bacterium has been detected in several other tick species including *Haemaphysalis longicornis*, *H. leachi*, *I. persulcatus*, *Hyalomma* spp., *Ampblyomma* spp.^{233,360} and in the dog chewing louse *Heterodoxus spiniger*.³⁷⁶ However, further studies are needed in order to confirm their role as competent vectors of *A. platys*.³⁶⁰ *Dermacentor auratus* could be a competent vector of *A. platys* in some Asian countries.^{90,352}

Similarly to other *Anaplasma* species, *A. platys* can be transmitted through direct blood subinoculation.^{117,364,377-379} Therefore, because transmission of these pathogens via infected blood can occur and asymptomatic infections are frequent, screening canine blood products for bacterial DNA with a PCR assay is recommended in highly endemic areas to ensure the safety of blood products.^{99,380} A recent study detected *A. platys* DNA in uterine, ovarian and fetal tissue samples from both pregnant and non-pregnant naturally infected bitches, suggesting possible vertical transmission of this infection in canine species.³⁸¹

4.2 Reservoir hosts and epidemiological role of dogs

Dogs are considered the main reservoir host of *A. platys* and are also a strongly preferred host for *R. sanguineus*.^{112,378,382} *Anaplasma platys* has been detected in all stages of *Haemaphysalis longicornis* and *I. persulcatus* ticks collected from small wild-caught mammals and striped field mouse (*Apodemus agrarius*) was found infected by this bacterium with a prevalence of 16% in Korea.²³³ Similarly, 14.5% of wild foxes were infected by *A. platys* in Portugal.³⁸³ These two studies suggest that some wild animals may play a role in the epidemiology of this infection and could act as candidate reservoir hosts.

4.3 Zoonotic potential of Anaplasma platys

For decades, *A. platys* was thought to infect dogs exclusively.⁴⁰ However, recent reports described this infection in domestic ruminants,^{384,385} cats^{386,387} and even in humans.³⁹⁻⁴¹ Camelids (*Camelus dromedarius*) infection by *Anaplasma* species closely related to *A. platys* in both Tunisia and Saudi Arabia were also recently reported.^{388,389} Another study detected *A. platys* DNA in Camelids in Nigeria.³⁹⁰ Previous reports have described intraplatelets inclusions resembling those of *A. platys* in a stained blood film from a cat in Brazil³⁹¹ and organisms within platelets of an impala in South Africa identified by transmission electron microscopy on blood.³⁹² In addition, organisms with 99.5% and 100% gene sequences homology with *A. platys* were identified from blood samples from sheep in South Africa³⁹³ and goats in Cyprus,³⁹⁴ respectively.

Infection with *A. platys* was suspected in people from Venezuela based on the appearance of inclusions in platelets in stained blood films. Indeed, between 1993 and 2012, 5,954 people had intraplatelet inclusions in buffy coat smear and most of these patients displayed moderate to severe clinical signs, some were hospitalized, and some patients responded well to tetracyclines, especially to doxycycline. When platelet-rich plasma from buffy coat smear-positive cases was prepared for

ultrastructural examination by transmission electron microscopy, and organisms compared with ultrastructural studies described in the United States¹¹¹ and in Venezuela, it was concluded that organisms infecting dogs and people appeared different. In canine organisms, a well-defined double membrane, characteristic of the Anaplasmataceae family, was evident and the intra-vacuolar space was clear, whereas in organisms from human cases, organism membranes were thickened and the intra-vacuolar space appeared electron-dense. To date, the etiology of these intra-platelet organisms has not been identified.^{40,395} Similarly, intra-platelets morulae were identified on blood smears from HIV-seropositive patients in Venezuela and showed morphological characteristics similar to those observed in infected dogs confirmed by PCR. However, the *Ehrlichia* or *Anaplasma* species involved was not identified.³⁹⁶

4.4 Genetic diversity

Comparison between experimental and natural A. platys infections in dogs revealed morphological and ultrastructural variations that have been associated with different developmental stages of A. platys but may also suggest differences between strains.^{106,108} Molecular analysis and variations in clinical severity also supports the possibility of multiple A. platys strains associated with geographic variation.^{108,397-399} Indeed, Infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia caused by A. platys infection is usually mild and self-limited especially in the USA and Australia.^{400,401} In the USA, although some clinical signs have been described, most reports of experimental and natural infections have indicated that A. platys causes no or few clinical signs in dogs.^{99,108,400,402,403} In contrast, experimental infection using an A. platys Greek strain seems to be more virulent than the inoculation with American strains.⁴⁰⁴ Similarly, A. platys natural infections were more frequently associated with severe and life threatening clinical signs, absence of response to treatment and mortality in Mediterranean and South American countries including France, Greece, Spain, Italy, Croatia, Portugal, Israel, Chile, Turkey and Tunisia.^{86,371,382,397,401,404-408} Although variations in pathogenicity could be caused by A. platys strains diversity, other factors can explain the variability in clinical signs including concurrent diseases and more specifically co-infections with other VBPs or intrinsic factor such as genetic factors, immune status of the animal and stress conditions.^{365,366,368,379,397,401} Some authors suggested that the genetic diversity of A. platys might be lower than the reported diversity of A. phagocytophilum possibly due to restricted movement of infected hosts and/or the limited host range of A. platys.³⁹⁸ Therefore, although a variety of polymorphisms has been reported among A. platys strains of different geographic origin, there is little genetic diversity among this species^{100,409} and this variability may also be associated with the range of hosts within a specific country.³⁹⁹

5. Distribution and prevalence of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys in dogs

Both *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* have worldwide distributions. Endemic areas of *A. phagocytophilum* include some regions of the USA (northeastern and mid-Atlantic, Upper Midwest, and Pacific Northwest states), Europe and Asia (China, Siberian Russia, and Korea). These regions correspond to occurrence areas of *I. persulcatus* group ticks.^{9,92,136,410,411} *Anaplasma platys* has been reported in all continents but is mainly present in tropical and subtropical regions such as southern USA, South America, the Mediterranean area including southern Europe and North Africa.^{86,106,112,354,369,382, 404,406,412-418} It is also prevalent in other African and Asian countries^{233,350,355,366,367,405,409,419-422} and has been reported in Australia.^{370,423} Several prevalence studies on both bacteria have been conducted in dogs in various American, European, Asian and African countries and are summarized in Tables 7 to 10. However, data are lacking in large parts of Asia, Africa, South America and Australia especially for *A. phagocytophilum*. The geographic variation in tick exposure, the differences in inclusion criteria to select canine populations, and the use of different serologic test (i.e., immunofluorescent antibody test, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay or Western blot) make comparison between studies difficult.^{81,288,357}

The first canine granulocytic anaplasmosis (CGA) cases in the USA were detected in California; therefore, the exposure of dogs to this organism has been recorded in more than 39 USA states and highest rates were noted in the upper Midwestern, northeastern and western states. Serological surveys revealed prevalence rates ranging from 0% to 40%.^{46,49,307,345-347,411,424-432} Infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia (ICCT) caused by A. platys has been first documented in the USA in 1978.⁹⁹ Five countrywide serologic studies showed an overall prevalence of Anaplasma spp. of 1.9% to 4.8% with the highest rates recorded in northeastern regions.^{46,432,345-347} One of these studies used species-specific peptides to detect canine antibodies to A. phagocytophilum and A. platys with prevalence rates of 3.5% and 1.5% in the USA, 1.1% and 1.8% in Canada and 3.4% and 10.3% in the Caribbean, respectively.⁴⁶ In addition, cases confirmed of CGA^{9,136,410,411,433-436} and of ICCT^{99,400,402} were confirmed in several USA states. In Canada, three serologic surveys on Anaplasma spp. are available (Table 7),^{43,46,437} and four cases of CGA from Vancouver Island⁴³⁸ and Saskatoon⁴³⁹ were confirmed by DNA detection. In addition, a case report described a coinfection with B. canis, E. canis and A. platvs in a dog imported from the Bahamas to Canada.440 In Latin America and the Caribbean, the seroprevalence of Anaplasma spp. ranges from 1.0% to 53.2%.^{441,442} In these regions, A. platys seems to be the most prevalent Anaplasma species with DNA detection rates among canine populations up to 48.8% in Brazil.⁴⁴³ However, some studies and a case report have also detected the DNA of *A. phagocytophilum* (Table 7).^{180,340,444} Recently, a report from Colombia detected *A. platys* and *Anaplasma* spp. closely related to *A. phagocytophilum* in canine blood samples.⁴⁴⁵

| | | Ser | ology | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------|---------------|---------|------------------------|---------------|------------|
| American | Number | Anaplasma spp | | PCR | PCR | References |
| countries | of dogs | % | Method | A. phagocytophilum (%) | A. platys (%) | |
| Canada | 86,251 | 0.19 | ELISA | | | 43 |
| 7 provinces | 285 | 1.1 | ELISA | | | 46 |
| South Ontario, Quebec | 53 | 0.0 | ELISA | | | 437 |
| USA | 3,950,852 | 3.8 | ELISA | | | 347 |
| | 3,588,477 | 4.4 | ELISA | | | 345 |
| | 479,640 | 4.8 | ELISA | | | 346 |
| | 14,496 | 1.9 | ELISA | | | 432 |
| | 6,268 | 1.5 - 3.5 | ELISA | | | 46 |
| Oregon, California | 2,431 | 2.4 | ELISA | | | 429 |
| North Carolina, Virginia | 1,845 | 1.1 | IFA | | | 426 |
| Maine | 1,087 | 7.1 | ELISA | | | 430 |
| California | 1,082 | 8.7 | IFA | | | 6 |
| | 182 | 40.0 | IFA | 7.2 | | 9 |
| Minnesota | 731 | 55.4 | IFA | 1.2 | | 411 |
| | 273 | | | 9.5 | 0.0 | 411 |
| Oklahoma | 259 | 33.0 | IFA | 2.5 | 0.0 | 424 |
| Northern Arizona | 233 | 11.6 | ELISA | 0.0 | 6.9 | 428 |
| New Jersey | 202 | 9.4 | ELISA | 0.0 | 0.9 | 307 |
| North Carolina | 118 | 0.0 | ELISA | | | 431 |
| | 27 | | | 11.1 | 33.3 | 365 |
| Connecticut, New York | 106 | 9.4 | IFA, WB | 11.1 | 55.5 | 425 |
| Brazil | 320 | | | | 7.2 | 446 |
| | 60 | | | | 1.6 | 447 |
| | 256 | | | | 16.4 | 448 |
| | 230 | | | | 15.6 | 449 |
| | 221 | | | | 14.9 | 450 |
| Rio de Janeiro | 398 | | | 6.0 | | 180 |
| | 253 | | | 7.1 | | 340 |
| Southeastern | 198 | | | 0.0 | | 451 |
| Southern | 196 | 9.7 | ELISA | 0.0 | 14.1 | 452 |
| Central-northern Parana | 138 | 13.8 | ELISA | | | 453 |

Table 7. Prevalence of antibodies to Anaplasma spp., DNA detection of Anaplasma phagocytophilumand Anaplasma platys in blood samples from dogs in American countries.

| Northeastern | 205 | | | | 48.8 | 443 |
|--------------------|-------|------|-------|-----|------|-----|
| Puerto Rico | 629 | 1.0 | ELISA | | | 441 |
| Colombia | 498 | 33.0 | ELISA | | | 454 |
| Northern | 218 | 53.2 | ELISA | | 16.1 | 442 |
| Uruguay | 191 | | | | 4.2 | 455 |
| Nicaragua | 39 | | | | 13.0 | 456 |
| Argentina | 86 | | | | 20.9 | 457 |
| Bueno Aires | 52 | | | | 13.5 | 357 |
| Mexico | 1,706 | 9.9 | ELISA | | | 458 |
| | 100 | | | | 31.0 | 459 |
| Panama | 201 | | | | 21.4 | 460 |
| Venezuela | 43 | | | 0.0 | 16.3 | 461 |
| Chile | 30 | | | | 20.0 | 382 |
| French Guiana | 65 | | | | 15.4 | 417 |
| Haiti | 210 | 17.6 | ELISA | | | 462 |
| | 207 | | | 0.0 | 6.3 | |
| West Indies | 157 | 10.8 | ICG | | 2.5 | 463 |
| | 110 | | | | 4.0 | 464 |
| Costa Rica | 300 | | | | 6.3 | 465 |
| | 146 | | | | 10 | 466 |
| Cuba | 100 | | | | 16.0 | 361 |
| Caribbean region | 29 | 10.0 | ELISA | | | 46 |
| | | | | | | |

IFA: immunofluorescence assay; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; PCR: polymerase chain reaction, WB: western blot; ICG: immunochromatography.

In Europe, seroprevalence to *Anaplasma* spp. has been reported in almost all countries with rates ranging from 1.1% to 56.5%.^{322,338,467-470} The detection of *A. phagocytophilum* DNA has also been reported mostly from central and northern countries (Table 8) with prevalence rates up to 14.2%.³⁴¹ Additionally, several cases of CGA have been described.^{60-66,471-474} In contrast, information is limited regarding the prevalence of *A. platys* infection in dogs from Europe, based on molecular analysis²⁸⁸ but this infection seems to be emerging in this continent.⁴⁷⁵ Most studies available are from southern countries with prevalence rates of *A. platys* DNA detection ranging from 0.4% to 57.7%.^{476,477} In addition, several cases of ICCT have been reported from Croatia, Romania, Italy, Spain, Portugal and France^{397,401,407,408,478} and a case of coinfection with *A. platys* and *B. canis* imported from Spain to Belgium.⁴⁷⁹

Table 8. Prevalence of antibodies to Anaplasma spp., DNA detection of Anaplasma phagocytophilumand Anaplasma platys in blood samples from dogs in European countries.

| | | Se | rology | | | |
|------------------|---------|------|-----------|--------------------|---------------|------------|
| European | Number | Anap | lasma spp | PCR | PCR | References |
| Countries | of dogs | % | Method | A. phagocytophilum | A. platys (%) | |
| | | | | (%) | | |
| Germany | 5,881 | 21.5 | ELISA | | | 480 |
| | 1,124 | 50.1 | IFA | | | 467 |
| | | | | | | |
| | 522 | 43.0 | IFA | 5.7 | | 481 |
| | | | | | | |
| | 111 | 43.2 | IFA | 6.3 | | 61 |
| Northeast | 1,862 | 17.8 | IFA | | | 482 |
| | 448 | 19.4 | ELISA | | | 483 |
| Southern | 171 | 50.3 | IFA | | | 470 |
| | 57 | 24.6 | IFA | | | |
| Brandenburg | 1,023 | | | 1.5 | | 484 |
| Russia | | | | | | |
| European part | 440 | 1.1 | ELISA | | | 469 |
| Voronezh Reserve | 82 | 34.1 | ELISA | | | 469 |
| Hungary | 1,305 | 7.9 | ELISA | | | 485 |
| | 199 | 10.6 | IFA | 1.9 | | 486 |
| Slovakia | 87 | | | 8.0 | | 487 |
| | 180 | 11.7 | ELISA | | | 488 |
| Bulgaria | | | | | | |
| Central-southern | 167 | 19.2 | IFA | | | 489 |
| Austria | 1,470 | 56.5 | IFA | | | 490 |
| United Kingdom | 120 | | | 0.8 | | 491 |
| Sweden | 611 | 17.7 | IFA | | | 492 |
| | 100 | 17.0 | IFA | | | 493 |
| Finland | 390 | 5.3 | ELISA | 0.5 | | 494 |
| Albania | 30 | 40.0 | IFA | 0.0 | | 495 |
| Tirana | 602 | 24.1 | IFA | 1.0 | 3.3 | 496 |
| Latvia | 470 | 0.85 | ELISA | | | 497 |
| Romania | 1,146 | 5.5 | ELISA | | | 498 |
| | 121 | 7.4 | IFA | | | 486 |
| | 109 | | | 2.7 | | 486 |
| | 357 | | | 5.3 | | 499 |
| Southeastern | 257 | 6.2 | ELISA | | | 500 |

Chapter I General introduction

| Serbia | 84 | 15.5 | IFA | | | 501 |
|--------------------|-------|------|-------|------|-----------|---------|
| Poland | 3,094 | 12.3 | ELISA | | | 502 |
| Eastern | 400 | 8.0 | ELISA | 2.8 | | 311 |
| Northwetern | 192 | | | 1.0 | | 503 |
| | 100 | | | 14.0 | | 341 |
| | 92 | 14.0 | | | | |
| | 50 | 0.0 | | | | |
| Central | 79 | | | 1.3 | | 504 |
| Czech Republic | 296 | 26.0 | IFA | 3.4 | | 505 |
| Italy | | | | | | |
| Stretto di Messina | 249 | 38.0 | IFA | | | 506 |
| | 5,881 | 32.8 | IFA | | | 507 |
| | 200 | | | 0.0 | 3.5 | 508 |
| Central Italy | 1,965 | 4.7 | IFA | | | 509 |
| | 1,232 | 8.8 | IFA | | | 510 |
| | 215 | 14.8 | IFA | 0.9 | 4.0 | 511 |
| Sicily | 344 | | | 0.0 | | 398 |
| | 87 | 45.0 | IFA | | 4.0 | 512 |
| | 344 | | | 0.0 | | |
| | 87 | 44.8 | IFA | | | 338 |
| | 2 | | | 0.0 | | |
| Southern | 165 | 37.6 | IFA | | 2.3 | 477 |
| | 170 | | | | 30.4-57.7 | |
| | 23-29 | | | | 52.9 | 514 |
| | 34 | | | | | 358 |
| Northeastern | 338 | 4.7 | IFA | 0.0 | | 515 |
| | 150 | 3.3 | IFA | 0.0 | | |
| Portugal | 1,185 | 4.5 | ELISA | | | 516 |
| | 49 | | | 0.0 | 14.3 | 508 |
| | 55 | 55.0 | IFA | 0.0 | 9.1 | 322,468 |
| Southern | 100 | 16.0 | IFA | | | 517 |
| | 1,010 | | | | 0.4 | 476 |
| France | 919 | 2.7 | ELISA | | | 518 |
| Spain | 466 | 11.5 | IFA | | | 8 |
| Nothwestern | 1,100 | 3.1 | ELISA | | | 519 |
| | 479 | 5.0 | IFA | | | 520 |
| Grenada | 73 | | | | 19.2 | 521 |
| Turkey | 757 | | | | 0.5 | 359 |
| Thrace region | 400 | 1 | | 4.0 | 6.0 | 375 |

IFA: immunofluorescence assay; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; PCR: polymerase chain reaction.

In Asia, *Anaplasma* spp. seroprevalence is available from China, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan and Israel and range from 1.2% to 24.7% (Table 9).^{522,523} *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* DNA have also been detected in dogs with prevalence rates up to 39.5% and 32%, respectively (Table 9).^{342,350} Case reports of ICCT have also been also described in Japan.^{421,524}

Table 9. Prevalence of antibodies to *Anaplasma* spp., DNA detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Anaplasma platys* in blood samples from dogs in Asian countries.

| | | Se | erology | | | |
|-------------|---------|---------------|---------|--------------------|---------------|------------|
| Asian | Number | Anaplasma spp | | PCR | PCR | References |
| Countries | of dogs | % | Method | A. phagocytophilum | A. platys (%) | |
| | | | | (%) | | |
| Japan | 154 | | | 0.0 | | 420 |
| | 200 | | | | 32.0 | 350 |
| China | 600 | 0.5 | ELISA | | | |
| | 243 | | | 0.4 | 0.0 | 525 |
| | 219 | 10.0 | IFA | 10.9 | | 201 |
| | 162 | | | | 0.0 | 526 |
| | 26 | 7.7 | ELISA | | | 527 |
| Korea | 1,058 | | | 0.1 | | 528 |
| | 418 | 1.2 | ELISA | | | 523 |
| | 229 | 18.8 | ELISA | | | 529 |
| | 182 | 4.4 | ELISA | 0.0 | 0.0 | 522 |
| | | 24.7 | IFA | | | |
| | 63 | | | 0.0 | | |
| Malaysia | 48 | 9.3 | ELISA | 4.3 | | 530 |
| | 30 | | | | 13.3 | 371 |
| Cambodia | 101 | | | | 0.0 | 531 |
| Thailand | 181 | | | | 4.4 | 532 |
| Philippines | 70 | | | | 0.0 | 533 |
| Taiwan | 344 | 5.2 | ELISA | | | 534 |
| India | 191 | 4.7 | ELISA | | | 535 |
| | 525 | | | | | |
| | | | | | 6.5 | 536 |
| Israël | 195 | 9.0 | IFA | | | 537 |
| Jordan | 38 | | | 39.5 | | 342 |

IFA: immunofluorescence assay; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; PCR: polymerase chain reaction.

In Africa, only a few prevalence studies have been published on *Anaplasma* spp. in dogs (Table 10). Seroprevalence rates recorded in African countries range from 11.8% to 47.7% (Table 10).^{88,538} Considering that *A. platys* seems to be the most prevalent species in African countries⁸¹ most molecular studies focused on this bacterium. Its prevalence among canine populations in Africa ranges from 1.2% to 20.4% (Table 10).^{539,540} In contrast, very limited studies have investigated *A. phagocytophilum* infection in dogs in this continent. The DNA of this bacterium has been detected in Tunisia, Nigeria, Cape Verde and South Africa (Table 10).^{86,541-543} In addition, an *Anaplasma* species closely related to *A. phagcytophilum* was detected in blood samples from South African dogs based on the *16S rRNA* gene sequencing⁵⁴⁴ whereas all dogs from Algeria, Ghana and Maio Island tested by PCR were found negative (Table 10).^{88,538,545}

In Australia, very few studies are available including one combining *Anaplasma* spp. seroprevalence and *A. platys* DNA detection⁵⁴⁶ and three other *A. platys*-molecular based studies (Table 10).^{370,546,547} Currently, no report on the occurrence of *A. phagocytophilum* is available from this continent.

Table 10. Prevalence of antibodies to Anaplasma spp., DNA detection of Anaplasma phagocytophilum

 and Anaplasma platys in blood samples from dogs in Africa and Australia.

| | | Ser | ology | | | |
|----------------------|---------|--------|----------|---------------------------|---------------|------------|
| Africa and Australia | Number | Anaple | asma spp | PCR | PCR | References |
| | of dogs | % | Method | A. phagocytophilum (%) | A. platys (%) | |
| AFRICA | | | | 1 | 1 | |
| Tunisia | 286 | 25.2 | IFA | | | 86 |
| | 228 | | | 0.9 | 4.4 | |
| Algeria | | | | | | |
| Algiers | 213 | 47.7 | IFA | 0.0 | 14.1 | 88 |
| Tizi Ouzou, Bejaïa | 110 | | | | 5.5 | 418 |
| Nigeria | 245 | | | 0.8 | | 542 |
| | 181 | | | | 6.6 | 549 |
| Senegal | 34 | | | | 2.9 | 550 |
| South Africa | 141 | | | 2.1 | | 543 |
| Ghana | 17 | 11.8 | ELISA | 0.0 | 5.9 | 538 |
| Côte d'Ivoire | 140 | | | | 8.5 | 360 |
| | 137 | | | | 1.5 | 539 |
| Cape Verde | | | | | | |
| Priai | 57 | | | 1.8 | | 541 |
| | 130 | | | | 7.7 | 551 |
| Maio Island | 153 | | | 0.0 | 3.3 | 545 |
| Kenya | 86 | | | | 18.6 | 360 |
| Gabon | 255 | | | | 1.2 | 539 |
| Angola | 103 | | | | 20.4 | 540 |
| AUSTRALIA | | | I | l | | |
| | 39 | | | | 51.0 | 547 |
| | 215 | | | | 10.0 | 370 |
| | 230 | | | | 21.3 | 548 |
| | 238 | 3.5 | ELISA | | 3.8 | 546 |

IFA: immunofluorescence assay; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; PCR: polymerase chain reaction.

Cross-reactivity between *Anaplasma* spp. pathogens is reported to occur for both IFA and ELISA.^{112,291,346,365,426,429,522} Therefore, in regions were both pathogens could be present (southern USA states, southern Europe, South America, Asia, and Africa), seropositivity may not necessary reflect exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* or *A. platys* and potential overestimation of their true prevalence and distribution can occur.^{81,112,346,365,375,428,450,496} As a result, PCR-based assay is required to determine which of the two agents is responsible for positive serologic test results in regions where both bacteria are present.¹¹² In areas where the *Ixodes* tick vector is less prevalent or absent, a positive *Anaplasma* spp. serologic result could be the result of *A. platys* exposure.⁴⁹⁸ Less frequent and minor serological cross-reactions were described at low titers between *A. phagocytophilm* and *Ehrlichia* species (i.e., *E. canis, E. chaffeensis, E. ewingii* and *E. sennetsu*), especially with hyper immune sera, when using IFA and immunoblot assay.^{101,111,410,425,426,553,554} However, it is not clear whether the cross-reactivity with *E. canis* was attributable, in part, to antibodies against *A. platys* because dogs are sometimes exposed to both *E. canis* and *A. platys*.^{498,552} In contrast, no cross-reactivity has been documented between *Anaplasma* spp. and *Ehrlichia* spp. when using the point-of-care dot ELISA.^{81,552}

6. Conclusion

Vector-borne diseases are of growing concern worldwide because of their extending distribution and impact on human and animal health. These diseases are not prevalent in tropical regions only since some of them are widely distributed or mainly found in Europe and the USA.

Anaplama phagocytophilum and Anaplasma platys are two tick-borne bacteria currently known to infect both humans and dogs and displaying wide geographic distributions that overlap in some regions of the world. These two bacteria are responsible of canine granulocytic anaplasmosis and Infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia in dogs, respectively. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis, caused by *A. phagocytophilum*, is increasingly recognized worldwide with possible transmission via blood transfusion and frequent clinical complications requiring hospitalization. Although *A. platys* has been reported to infect people its ability in causing disease in humans has not been described.

Several epidemiological data are published worldwide on both bacteria. However, information is lacking on their respective prevalence in several countries, the competent vector of *A. platys*, the ability of tick species other than *Ixodes* spp. to transmit *A. phagocytophilum* and the reservoir host range of both bacteria especially in some regions such as Africa, Latin America, Australia and large parts of Asia. It is obvious that the transmission cycle of *A. phagocytophilum* is complex and not fully elucidated, and variations of the tick species and the reservoir host range exist according to the geographic location. Geographic variability in pathogenicity and severity of clinical signs also occur for both *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* and could be explained by genetic variability. Due to these geographic variations, epidemiological data within a specific region are necessary to assess the risk of infection for dogs and humans and to sensitize local physicians on the presence of these pathogens. Finally, dogs play a crucial role in both infections as competent reservoir hosts for *A. phagocytophilum* human infection.

References

- 1. Parola P, Davoust, B, Raoult D. Tick- and flea-borne rickettsial emerging zoonoses. Vet Res 2005;36:469-492.
- 2. Jones KE, Patel NG, Levy MA, et al. Global trends in emerging infectious diseases. Nature 2008;451:990-993.
- 3. World Health Organization Report. Changing history. World Health Organization 2004, Geneva, Switzerland; available at: http://www.who.int/whr/2004/en/report04_en.pdf?ua=1.
- 4. World Health Organization. Vector-borne diseases. Overview 2016; available at: http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs387/en/.
- World Health Organization. A global brief on vector-borne diseases. World Health Organization 2014; available at:

http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/111008/1/WHO_DCO_WHD_2014.1_eng.pdf.

- 6. Foley JE, Foley P, Madigan JE. Spatial distribution of seropositivity to the causative agent of granulocytic ehrlichiosis in dogs in California. Am J Vet Res 2001;62:1599-1605.
- Shaw SE, Day MJ, Birtles RJ, et al. Tick-borne infectious diseases of dogs. Trends Parasitol 2001;17:74-80.
- Solano-Gallego L, Llull J, Osso M, et al. A serological study of exposure to arthropod-borne pathogens in dogs from northeastern Spain. Vet Res 2006;37:231-244.
- 9. Henn JB, Gabriel MW, Kasten RW, et al. Gray foxes (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*) as a potential reservoir of a *Bartonella clarridgeiae*-like bacterium and domestic dogs as sentinels for zoonotic arthropod-borne pathogens in northern California. J Clin Microbiol 2007;45:2411-2418.
- Carrade DD, Foley JE, Borjesson DL, et al. Canine granulocytic anaplasmosis: a review. J Vet Intern Med 2009;23:1129-1141.
- 11. Hamer SA, Tsao JI, Walker ED, et al. Use of tick surveys and serosurveys to evaluate pet dogs as a sentinel species for emerging Lyme disease. Am J Vet Res 2009;70:49-56.
- Day MJ. One health: the importance of companion animal vector-borne diseases. Parasit Vectors 2011;4:49-54.
- 13. Dantas-Torres F, Chomel BB, Otranto D. Ticks and tick-borne diseases: a One Health perspective. Trends Parasitol 2012;28 437-446.
- 14. Anderson JF, Magnarelli LA. Biology of ticks. Infect Dis Clin North Am 2008;22:195-215.
- Radolf JD, Caimano MJ, Stevenson B, et al. Of ticks, mice and men: understanding the dual-host lifestyle of Lyme disease spirochaetes. Nat Rev Microbiol 2012;10:87-99.
- 16. Rudenko N, Golovchenko M, Grubhoffer L, et al. Updates on *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato complex with respect to public health. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2011;2:123-128.

- Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Surveillance for Lyme Disease United States, 1992–2006. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2008;57(SS10):1-9.
- Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Reported cases of Lyme disease by state or locality, 2005-2015. Cited November 2016; available at : https://www.cdc.gov/lyme/stats/tables.html
- ECDC Meeting report: Second expert consultation on tick-borne diseases with emphasis on Lyme borreliosis and tick-borne encephalitis Stockholm, Sweden, 22–23 November 2011; available at: http://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/publications/Publications/Tick-borne-diseases-meetingreport.pdf.
- 20. Wu XB, Na RH, Wei SS, et al. Distribution of tick-borne diseases in China. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:119.
- Heyman P, Cochez C, Hofhuis A, et al. A clear and present danger: tick-borne diseases in Europe. Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 2010;8:33-50.
- 22. Woldehiwet Z. Anaplasma phagocytophilum in ruminants in Europe. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:446-460.
- 23. Woldehiwet Z. The natural history of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Vet Parasitol 2010;167:108-122.
- 24. Stuen S, Pettersen KS, Granquist EG, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* variants in sympatric red deer (*Cervus elaphus*) and sheep in southern Norway. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2013;4:197-201.
- Gaskin AA, Schantz P, Jackson J, et al. Visceral leishmaniasis in a New York foxhound kennel. J Vet Intern Med 2002;16:34-44.
- 26. Nijhof AM, Bodaan C, Postigo M, Nieuwenhuijs H, et al. Ticks and associated pathogens collected from domestic animals in the Netherlands. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2007;7:585-596.
- 27. McCall JW, Genchi C, Kramer LH, et al. Heartworm disease in animals and humans. Adv Parasitol 2008;66:193-285.
- 28. Beugnet F, Marie JL. Emerging arthropod-borne diseases of companion animals in Europe. Vet Parasitol 2009;163:298-305.
- 29. Shaw SE, Langton DA, Hillman TJ. Canine leishmaniosis in the United Kingdom: a zoonotic disease waiting for a vector? Vet Parasitol 2009;163:281-285.
- 30. Baneth G. Tick-born infections of animals and humans: a common ground. Int J Parasitol 2014; 44:591-596.
- Schreiber C, Krücken J, Beck S, et al. Pathogens in ticks collected from dogs in Berlin/Brandenburg, Germany. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:535-344.
- 32. Kulkarni MA, Berrang-Ford L, Buck PA, et al. Major emerging vector-borne zoonotic diseases of public health importance in Canada. Emerg Microb Infect 2015;4:e33.

- 33. Rizzoli A, Silaghi C, Obiegala A, et al. *Ixodes ricinus* and its transmitted pathogens in urban and peri-urban areas in Europe: new hazards and relevance for public health. Front Public Health 2014; 2:251.
- Folkema AM, Holman RC, Dahlgren FS, et al. Epidemiology of ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis among American Indians in the United States, 2000–2007. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2012;87:529-537.
- 35. Doudier B, Olano J, Parola P, et al. Factors contributing to emergence of *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* spp. as human pathogens. Vet Parasitol 2010;167:149-154.
- 36. Tijsse-Klasen E, Koopmans MPG, Sprong H. Tick-borne pathogen–reversed and conventional discovery of disease. Front Public Health 2014;2:73.
- 37. Perez M, Bodor M, Zhang M, et al. Human infection with *Ehrlichia canis* accompanied by clinical signs in Venezuela. Ann NY Acad Sci 2006;1078:110-117.
- 38. Bouza-Mora L, Dolz G, Solórzano-Morales A, et al. Novel genotype of *Ehrlichia canis* detected in samples of human blood bank donors in Costa Rica. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2017;8:36-40.
- 39. Maggi RG, Mascarelli PE, Havenga LN, et al. Coinfection with Anaplasma platys, Bartonella henselae and Candidatus Mycoplasma haematoparvum in a veterinarian. Parasit Vectors. 2013;6:103.
- 40. Arraga-Alvarado CM, Qurollo BA, Parra OC, et al. Molecular evidence of *Anaplasma platys* infection in two women from Venezuela. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2014;91:1161-1165.
- 41. Breitschwerdt EB, Hegarty BC, Qurollo BA, et al. Intravascular persistence of *Anaplasma platys*, *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*, and *Ehrlichia ewingii* DNA in the blood of a dog and two family members. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:298.
- 42. Jin H, Wei F, Liu Q, Qian J. Epidemiology and control of human granulocytic anaplasmosis: a systematic review. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:269-274.
- 43. Villeneuve A, Goring J, Marcotte L, et al. Seroprevalence of *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Dirofilaria immitis* among dogs in Canada. Can Vet J 2011;52:527-530.
- 44. Bouchard C, Leighton PA, Beauchamp G, et al. Harvested white-tailed deer as sentinel hosts for early establishing *Ixodes scapularis* populations and risk from vector-borne zoonoses in southeastern Canada. J Med Entomol 2013;50:384-393.
- 45. Ogden NH, Lindsay LR, Hanincová K, et al. Role of migratory birds in introduction and range expansion of *Ixodes scapularis* ticks and of *Borrelia burgdorferi* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Canada. Appl Environ Microbiol 2008;74:1780-1790.

- 46. Qurollo AB, Chandrashekar R, Hegarty BC, et al. A serological survey of tick-borne pathogens in dogs in North America and the Caribbean as assessed by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *A. platys*, *Ehrlichia canis*, *E. chaffeensis*, *E. ewingii*, and *Borrelia burgdorferi* species-specific peptides. Infect Ecol Epidemiol 2014;4.
- Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Summary of notifiable diseases: United States, 2008. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2010;57:1-94.
- Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Summary of notifiable diseases: United States, 2009. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2011;58:1-100.
- Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Summary of notifiable diseases: United States,
 2010. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2012;59:1-111.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Summary of notifiable diseases United States. MMWR 2011;60:1-117 (cited January 2015).
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Statistics and Epidemiology: Annual cases of anaplasmosis in the United States; available at: http://www.cdc.gov/anaplasmosis/stats/ (Cited January 2016).
- 52. Scharf W, Schauer S, Freyburger F, et al. Distinct host species correlate with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* ankA gene clusters. J Clin Microbiol 2011;49:790-796.
- 53. Asman M, Nowak M, Cuber P, et al. The risk of exposure to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, *Babesia* sp. and co-infections in *Ixodes ricinus* ticks on the territory of Niepołomice Forest (southern Poland). Ann Parasitol 2013;59:13-19.
- 54. Stuen S, Granquist EG, Silaghi C. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* a widespread multi-host pathogen with highly adaptive strategies. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 2013;3:1-33.
- 55. Overzier E, Pfister K, Herb I, et al. Detection of tick-borne pathogens in roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*), questing ticks (*Ixodes ricinus*) and ticks infesting roe deer in southern Germany. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2013;4:320-328.
- 56. Dugat T, Lagrée AC, Maillard R, et al. Opening the black box of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* diversity: current situation and future perspectives. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 2015;5:61.
- 57. Medlock JM, Hansford KM, Bormane A, et al. Driving forces for changes in geographical distribution of *Ixodes ricinus* ticks in Europe. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:1.
- 58. Jore S, Vanwambeke SO, Viljugrein H, et al. Climate and environmental change drives *Ixodes ricinus* geographical expansion at the northern range margin. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:11.
- 59. Jore S, Viljugrein H, Hofshagen M, et al. Multi-source analysis reveals latitudinal and altitudinal shifts in range of *Ixodes ricinus* at its northern distribution limit. Parasit Vectors 2011;4:84.
- 60. Egenvall AE, Hedhammar AA, Bjoersdorff AI. Clinical features and serology of 14 dogs affected by granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Sweden. Vet Rec 1997;140:222-226.

- 61. Jensen J, Simon D, Escobar HM, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dogs in Germany. Zoonoses Public Health 2007;57:94-101.
- Kohn B, Galke D, Beelitz P, et al. Clinical features of canine granulocytic anaplasmosis in 18 naturally infected dogs. J Vet Intern Med 2008;22:1289-1295.
- 63. Ravnik U, Tozon N, Strasek K, et al. Clinical and haematological features in *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* seropositive dogs. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15:39-40.
- 64. Domingos MC, Trotta M, Briend-Marchal A, Medaille C. Anaplasmosis in two dogs in France and molecular and phylogenetic characterization of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Vet Clin Pathol 2011;40:215-221.
- 65. Dewree R, Coquereaux G, Heymann P, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a dog in Belgium. Acta Clin Belg 2014;69 Suppl 2:4-5.
- Dondi F, Russo S, Agnoli C, et al. Clinicopathological and molecular findings in a case of canine *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in Northern Italy. ScientificWorldJournal 2014;doi: 10.1155/2014/810587.
- 67. Oteo JA, Blanco JR, Martinez de Artola V, et al. First report of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis from southern Europe (Spain). Emerg Infect Dis 2000;6: 430-432.
- Ruscio M, Cincà M. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Italy: first report on two confirmed cases. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2003;990:350–352.
- 69. von Loewenich FD, Stumpf G, Baumgarten BU, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Germany: evidence from serological studies, tick analyses, and a case of equine ehrlichiosis. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2003;990:116-117.
- 70. Walder G, Tiwald G, Dierich MP, et al. Serological evidence for human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Western Austria. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2003;22:543-547.
- 71. Chochlakis D, Ioannou I, Kokkini I, et al. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a high-risk human population. J Infect 2009;58:87-88.
- 72. Novakova M, Vichova B, Majlathova V, et al. First case of human granulocytic anaplasmosis from Slovakia. Ann Agric Environ Med 2010;17:173-175.
- 73. Cochez C, Ducoffre G, Vandenvelde C, et al. Human anaplasmosis in Belgium: a 10-year seroepidemiological study. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2011;2:156-159.
- Hagedorn P, Imhoff M, Fischer C, et al. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis acquired in Scotland, 2013. Emerg Infect Dis 2014;20:1079-1081.
- 75. Welc-Falęciak R, Kowalec M, Zajkowska J, et al. Clinical and molecular features of one case of human infection with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* from Podlaskie Province in eastern Poland. Ann Agric Environ Med 2015;22:414-417.

- Dumler JS. The biological basis of severe outcomes in *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection. Immunol Med Microbiol 2012;64:13-20.
- Zhang L, Shan A, Mathew B, et al. Rickettsial seroepidemiology among farm workers, Tianjin, People's Republic of China. Emerg Infect Dis 2008;14:938-940.
- 78. Zhang L, Liu H, Xu B, et al. Rural residents in China are at increased risk of exposure to tickborne pathogens *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*. Biomed Res Int 2014;2014:313867.
- 79. Dumler JS, Choi KS, Garcia-Garcia JC, et al. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Emerg Infect Dis 2005;11:1828-1834.
- 80. Swanson SJ, Neitzel D, Reed KD, et al. Coinfections acquired from *Ixodes* ticks. Clin Microbiol Rev 2006;19:708-727.
- Diniz PP, Breitschwerdt EB. Anaplasma phagocytophilum infection (canine granulocytic anaplasmosis). In: Green GE, ed. Infectious Diseases of the Dog and Cat, 4th ed. St. Louis: Saunders Elsevier; 2012:244-254.
- 82. Sarih M, M'Ghirbi Y, Bouattour A, et al. Detection and identification of *Ehrlichia* spp. in ticks collected in Tunisia and Morocco. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:1127-1132.
- Seng P, Sarih M, Socolovschi C, et al. Detection of Anaplasmataceae in ticks collected in Morocco. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15 Suppl 2:86-87.
- 84. Ghafar MW. Amer SA. Prevalence and first molecular characterization of Anaplasma phagocytophilum, the agent of human granulocytic anaplasmosis, in Rhipicephalus sanguineus ticks attached to dogs from Egypt. J Adv Res 2012;3:189-194
- 85. M'ghirbi Y, Yaïch H, Ghorbel A, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in horses and ticks in Tunisia. Parasit Vectors 2012;5:180-186.
- 86. M'ghirbi Y, Ghorbel A, Amouri M, et al. Clinical, serological, and molecular evidence of ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis in dogs in Tunisia. Parasitol Res 2009;104:767-774.
- Ben Said M, Belkahia H, Sayahi L, et al. First serological study of the prevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dromedary (*Camelus dromedarius*) in Tunisia. Bull Soc Pathol Exot 2014;107:1-6.
- 88. Azzag N, Petit E, Gandoin C, et al. Prevalence of select vector-borne pathogens in stray and client-owned dogs from Algiers. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2015;38:1-7.
- 89. Dumler JS, Barbet AF, Bekker CPJ, et al. Reorganization of genera in the families Rickettsiaceae and Anaplasmataceae in the order Rickettsiales: unification of some species of *Ehrlichia* with *Anaplasma*, *Cowdria* with *Ehrlichia* and *Ehrlichia* with *Neorickettsia*, descriptions of six new species combinations and designation of *Ehrlichia equi* and 'HGE agent' as subjective synonyms of *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 2001;51:2145-2165.

- 90. Pruneau L, Moumène A, Meyer DF, et al. Understanding Anaplasmataceae pathogenesis using "Omics" approaches. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 2014;4:86-92.
- Allsopp MT, Louw M, Meyer EC. *Ehrlichia ruminantium* an emerging human pathogen. S Afr Med J 2005;95:541.
- 92. Dumler JS, Madigan JE, Pusterla N, et al. Ehrlichioses in humans: epidemiology, clinical presentation, diagnosis, and treatment. Clin Infect Dis 2007;45 Suppl 1:45-51.
- 93. Fehr JS, Bloemberg GV, Ritter C, et al. Septicemia caused by tick-borne bacterial pathogen *Candidatus* Neoehrlichia mikurensis. Emerg Infect Dis 2010;16:1127-1129.
- 94. Allison RW, Little SE. Diagnosis of rickettsial diseases in dogs and cats. Vet Clin Pathol 2013;42:127-144.
- 95. Gordon WS, Brownlee A, Wilson DR, et al. Tick-borne fever: a hitherto undescribed disease of sheep. J Comp Pathol Ther 1932;45:301-307.
- 96. Foggie A. Studies on the infectious agent of tick-borne fever in sheep. J Pathol Bacteriol 1951;63:1-15.
- 97. Foggie A. Studies on tick pyaemia and tick-borne fever. London: Symposium of the Zoological Society of London; 1962.
- Philip CB. Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology, 5th ed. Baltimore, MD: Williams and Wilkins Co, 1974.
- 99. Harvey JW, Simpson CF, Gaskin JM. Cyclic thrombocytopenia induced by a *Rickettsia*-like agent in dogs. J Infect Dis 1978;137:182-188.
- 100. Inokuma H, Fujii K, Okuda M, et al. Determination of the nucleotide sequences of heat shock operon groESL and the citrate synthase gene (gltA) of *Anaplasma (Ehrlichia) platys* for phylogenetic and diagnostic studies. Clin Diagn Lab Immunol 2002;9:1132-1136.
- 101. Uilenberg G, Thiaucourt F, Jongejan F. On molecular taxonomy: What is in a name? Exp Appl Acarol 2004;32:301-312.
- 102. Barlough JE, Madigan JE, DeRock E, et al. Protection against *Ehrlichia equi* is conferred by prior infection with the human granulocytic *Ehrlichia* species (HGE agent). J Clin Microbiol 1995;33:3333-3334.
- 103. Dumler JS, Asavovich KM, Bakken JS, et al. Serologic cross-reactions among *Ehrlichia equi*, *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*, and human granulocytic *Ehrlichia*. J Clin Microbiol 1995;33:1098-1103.
- 104. Rikihisa Y, Zhi N, Wormser GP, et al. Ultrastructural and antigenic characterization of a granulocytic ehrlichiosis agent directly isolated and stably cultivated from a patient in New York State. J Infect Dis 1997;175:210-213.

- Rikihisa Y. Clinical and biological aspects of infection caused by *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*. Microbes Infect 1999;1:367-376.
- 106. Arraga-Alvarado C, Palmar M, Parra O, et al. *Ehrlichia platys (Anaplasma platys)* in dogs from Maracaibo, Venezuela: an ultrastructural study of experimental and natural infections. Vet Pathol 2003;40:149-156.
- 107. Lin M, Rikihisa Y. *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* lack genes for lipid A biosynthesis and incorporate cholesterol for their survival. Infect Immun 2003;71:5324-5331.
- 108. Mathew JS, Ewing SA, Murphy GL, et al. Characterization of a new isolate of *Ehrlichia platys* (Order Rickettsiales) using electron microscopy and polymerase chain reaction. Vet Parasitol 1997;68:1-10.
- 109. De Tommasi SA, Baneth G, Breitschwerdt EB, et al. *Anaplasma platys* in bone marrow megakaryocytes of young dogs. J Clin Microbiol 2014;52:2231-2234.
- 110. Woldehiwet Z, Scott GR. Stages in the development of *Cytoecetes phagocytophila*, the causative agent of tick-borne fever in sheep. J Comp Pathol 1982;92:469-474.
- Popov VL, Han VC, Chen SM, et al. Ultrastructural differentiation of the genogroups in the genus *Ehrlichia*. J Med Microbiol 1998;47:235-251.
- 112. Harvey JW. Anaplasma platys infection (thrombocytotropic anaplasmosis). In: Greene GE, ed. Infectious Diseases of the Dog and Cat, Chapter 26: Chapter 26: Ehrlichia and Anaplasma infections, 4th ed. St. Louis: Saunders Elsevier; 2012:256-258.
- 113. Rar V, Golovljova I. *Anaplasma*, *Ehrlichia*, and "*Candidatus Neoehrlichia*" bacteria: pathogenicity, biodiversity, and molecular genetic characteristics, a review. Infect Genet Evol 2011;11:1842-1861.
- 114. Gaunt SD, Baker DC, Babin SS. Platelet aggregation studies in dogs with acute *Ehrlichia platys* infection. Am J Vet Res 1990;51:290-293.
- 115. Egenvall A, Bjoersdorff A, Lilliehook I, et al. Early manifestations of granulocytic ehrlichiosis in dogs inoculated experimentally with a Swedish *Ehrlichia* species isolate. Vet Rec 1998;143:412-417.
- Lilliehöök I, Egenvall A, Tvedten HW. Hematopathology in dogs experimentally infected with a Swedish granulocytic *Ehrlichia* species. Vet Clin Pathol 1998;27:116-122.
- 117. Nair ADS, Cheng C, Ganta CK, et al. Comparative experimental infection study in dogs with *Ehrlichia canis*, *E. chaffeensis*, *Anaplasma platys* and *A. phagocytophilum*. PLoS One 2016;11:e0148239.
- 118. Dunning Hotopp JC, Lin M, Madupu R, et al. Comparative genomics of emerging human ehrlichiosis agents. PLoS Genet 2006;2:e21.

- 119. Dugat T, Loux V, Marthey S, et al. Comparative genomics of first available bovine *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* genome obtained with targeted sequence capture. BMC Genomics 2014;15:973.
- 120. Barbet AF, Al-Khedery B, Stuen S, et al. An emerging tick-borne disease of humans is caused by a subset of strains with conserved genome structure. Pathogens 2013;2:544-555.
- 121. Dugat T, Chastagner A, Lagrée AC, et al. A new multiple-locus variable-number tandem repeat analysis reveals different clusters for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* circulating in domestic and wild ruminants. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:439.
- 122. Barbet AF, Meeus PF, Bélanger M, Bowie MV et al. Expression of multiple outer membrane protein sequence variants from a single genomic locus of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Infect Immun 2003;71:1706-1718.
- 123. Lin Q, Rikihisa Y. Establishment of cloned *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and analysis of p44 gene conversion within an infected horse and infected SCID mice. Infect Immun 2005;73:5106-5114.
- 124. Achouak W, Heulin T, Pages JM. Multiple facets of bacterial porins. FEMS Microbiol Lett 2001;199:1-7.
- 125. Lin J, Huang S, Zhang Q. Outer membrane proteins: key players for bacterial adaptation in host niches. Microbes Infect 2002;4:325-331.
- 126. Kim HY, Rikihisa Y. Characterization of monoclonal antibodies to the 44-kilodalton major outer membrane protein of the human granulocytic ehrlichiosis agent. J Clin Microbiol 1998;36:3278-3284.
- 127. Wang X, Kikuchi T, Rikihisa Y. Two monoclonal antibodies with defined epitopes of p44 major surface proteins neutralize *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* by distinct mechanisms. Infect Immun 2006;74:1873-1882.
- 128. Rikihisa Y, Lin M. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* type IV secretion and ank proteins. Curr Opin Microbiol 2010;13:59-66.
- 129. Massung RF, Mather TN, Priestley RA, et al. Transmission efficiency of the AP-variant 1 strain of *Anaplasma phagocytophila*. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2003;990:75-79.
- 130. Massung RF, Priestley RA, Miller NJ, et al. Inability of a variant strain of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* to infect mice. J Infect Dis 2003;188:1757-1763.
- 131. Massung RF, Mauel MJ, Owens JH, et al. Genetic variants of *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*, Rhode Island and Connecticut. Emerg Infect Dis 2002;8:467-472.
- Massung RF, Courtney JW, Hiratzka SL, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in white-tailed deer. Emerg Infect Dis 2005;11:1604-1606.

- 133. Silaghi C, Kohn B, Chirek A, et al. Relationship of molecular and clinical findings on *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* involved in natural infections of dogs. J Clin Microbiol 2011;49:4413-4414.
- 134. Foley J, Nieto NC, Madigan J, et al. Possible differential host tropism in *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* strains in the western United States. Ann NY Acad Sci 2008;1149:94-97.
- 135. Massung RF, Mauel MJ, Owens JH, et al. Genetic variants of *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*, Rhode Island and Connecticut. Emerg Infect Dis 2003;8:467-472.
- 136. Poitout FM, Shinozaki JK, Stockwell PJ, et al. Genetic variants of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infecting dogs in western Washington State. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:796:801.
- 137. Stuen S, Artursson K, Olsson Engvall E. Experimental infection in lambs with an equine granulocytic *Ehrlichia* species resembling the agent of that causes human granulocytic ehrlichiosis (HGE). Acta Vet Scand 1998;39:491-497.
- 138. Pusterla N, Lutz H, Braun U. Experimental infection of four horses with *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*. Vet Rec 1998;143:303-305.
- 139. Pusterla N, Anderson RJ, House JK, et al. Susceptibility of cattle to infection with *Ehrlichia equi* and the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis. J AmVet Med Assoc 2001;218:116-1162.
- 140. Bown KJ, Lambin X, Ogden NH, et al. High-resolution genetic fingerprinting of European strains of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* by use of multilocus variable-number tandem-repeat analysis. J Clin Microbiol 2007;45:1771-1776.
- 141. Bown KJ, Lambin X, Ogden NH, et al. Delineating *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* ecotypes in coexisting discrete enzootic cycles. Emerg Infect Dis 2009;15:1948-1954.
- 142. Jahfari S, Coipan EC, Fonville M, et al. Circulation of four *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* ecotypes in Europe. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:365.
- 143. Chen SM, Dumler JS, Bakken JS, et al. Identification of a granulocytotropic *Ehrlichia* species as the etiologic agent of human disease. J Clin Microbiol 1994;32:589-595.
- 144. Massung RF, Lee K, Mauel MJ, et al. Characterization of the rRNA genes of *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* and *Anaplasma phagocytophila*. DNA Cell Biol 2002;21:587-596.
- 145. de la Fuente J, Massung RF, Wong SJ, et al. Sequence analysis of the msp4 gene of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* strains. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:1309-1317.
- 146. Courtney JW, Dryden RL, Montgomery J, et al. Molecular characterization of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Borrelia burgdorferi in Ixodes scapularis ticks from Pennsylvania. J Clin Microbiol 2003;41:1569-1573.

- 147. Stuen S, van de Pol I, Bergström K, et al. Identification of Anaplasma phagocytophila (formerly Ehrlichia phagocytophila) variants in blood from sheep in Norway. J Clin Microbiol 2002;40:3192-3197.
- 148. Stuen S, Nevland S, Moum T. Fatal cases of tick-borne fever (tbf) in sheep caused by several 16S rRNA gene variants of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2003;990:433-434.
- 149. Paulauskas A, Radzijevskaja J, Rosef O. Molecular detection and characterization of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* strains. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2012;35:187-195.
- 150. Strasek Smrdel K, von Loewenich FD, Petrovec M, et al. Diversity of ankA and msp4 genes of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Slovenia. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:164-166.
- 151. Rymaszewska A. 2011. PCR for detection of tick-borne *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* pathogens: a review. Vet Med-Czech 2011;56:529-536.
- 152. Scorpio DG, Caspersen K, Ogata H, et al. Restricted changes in major surface protein-2 (msp2) transcription after prolonged in vitro passage of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. BMC Microbiol 2004;4:1.
- 153. Casey AN, Birtles RJ, Radford AD, et al. Groupings of highly similar major surface protein (p44)-encoding paralogues: a potential index of genetic diversity amongst isolates of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Microbiology 2004;150:727-734.
- 154. Masuzawa T, Kharitonenkov IG, Okamoto Y, et al. Prevalence of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and its coinfection with Borrelia afzelii in Ixodes ricinus and Ixodes persulcatus ticks inhabiting Tver Province (Russia) — a sympatric region for both tick species. J Med Microbiol 2008;57:986-991.
- 155. de la Fuente J, Kocan KM, Blouin EF, et al. Functional genomics and evolution of tick-*Anaplasma* interactions and vaccine development. Vet Parasitol 2010;167:175-186.
- 156. Park J, Kim KJ, Choi KS, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* AnkA binds to granulocyte DNA and nuclear proteins. Cell Microbiol 2004;6:743-751.
- 157. Majazki J, Wüppenhorst N, Hartelt K, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* strains from voles and shrews exhibit specific ankA gene sequences. BMC Vet Res 2013;9:235.
- 158. Rymaszewska A. Divergence within the marker region of the groESL operon in *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2008;27:1025-1036.
- 159. Johansson KE, Pettersson B, Uhlén M, et al. Identification of the causative agent of granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Swedish dogs and horses by direct solid phase sequencing of PCR products from the 16S rRNA gene. Res Vet Sci 1995;58:1109-1112.
- 160. Morissette E, Massung RF, Foley JE, et al. Diversity of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* strains, USA. Emerg Infect Dis 2009;15:928-931.

- 161. Scorpio DG, Dumler JS, Barat NC, et al. Comparative strain analysis of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection and clinical outcomes in a canine model of granulocytic anaplasmosis. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2011;113:223-229.
- 162. Al-Khedery B, Barbet AF. Comparative genomics identifies a potential marker of human-virulent *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Pathogens 2014;3:25-35.
- 163. Foley J, Stephenson N, Pires Cubilla M, et al. A putative marker for human pathogenic strains of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* correlates with geography and host, but not human tropism. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:390-393.
- 164. Annen K, Friedman K, Eshoa C, et al. Two cases of transfusion-transmitted *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Am J Clin Pathol 2012;137:562-565.
- 165. Keirans JE, Hutcheson HJ, Durden LA, et al. *Ixodes scapularis* (Acari: Ixodidae): redescription of all active stages, distribution, hosts, geographical variation, and medical and veterinary importance. J Med Entomol 1996;33:297-318.
- 166. Richter PJ Jr, Kimsey RB, Madigan JE, et al. *Ixodes pacificus (Acari*: Ixodidae) as a vector of *Ehrlichia equi* (Rickettsiales: *Ehrlichieae*). J Med Entomol 1996;33:1-5.
- 167. Telford SR 3rd, Dawson JE, Katavolos P, et al. Perpetuation of the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in a deer tick-rodent cycle. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1996;93:6209-6214.
- 168. des Vignes F, Levin ML, Fish D. Comparative vector competence of *Dermacentor variabilis* and *Ixodes scapularis* (*Acari: Ixodidae*) for the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis. J Med Entomol 1999;36:182-185.
- 169. Krakowetz CN, Dibernardo A, Lindsay LR, et al. Two *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* strains in *Ixodes scapularis* ticks, Canada. Emerg Infect Dis. 2014;20:2064-2067.
- 170. Werden L, Lindsay LR, Barker IK, et al. Prevalence of Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Babesia microti in Ixodes scapularis from a newly established lyme disease endemic area, the Thousand Islands region of Ontario, Canada. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2015;15:627-629.
- 171. Magnarelli LA, Stafford KC 3rd, Mather TN, et al. Hemocytic rickettsia-like organisms in ticks: serologic reactivity with antisera to *Ehrlichiae* and detection of DNA of agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis by PCR. J Clin Microbiol 1995;33:2710-2714.
- 172. Barlough JE, Madigan JE, Kramer VL, et al. *Ehrlichia phagocytophila* genogroup rickettsiae in ixodid ticks from California collected in1995 and 1996. J Clin Microbiol 1997;35:2018-2021.
- 173. Lane RS, Foley JE, Eisen L, et al. Acarologic risk of exposure to emerging tick-borne bacterial pathogens in a semirural community in northern California. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2001;1:197-210.
- 174. Walk ST, Xu G, Stull JW, et al. Correlation between tick density and pathogen endemicity, New Hampshire. Emerg Infect Dis 2009;15:585-587.

- 175. Zeidner NS, Burkot TR, Massung R, et al. Transmission of the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis by *Ixodes spinipalpis* ticks: evidence of an enzootic cycle of dual infection with *Borrelia burgdorferi* in Northern Colorado. J Infect Dis 2000;182:616-619.
- 176. Burkot TR, Maupin GO, Schneider BS, et al. Use of a sentinel host system to study the questing behaviour of *Ixodes spinipalpis* and its role in the transmission of *Borrelia bissettii*, human granulocytic ehrlichiosis and *Babesia microti*. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2001;65:293-299.
- 177. DeNatale CE, Burkot TR, Schneider BS, et al. Novel potential reservoirs for *Borrelia* sp. and the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Colorado. J Wildlife Dis 2002;38:478-482.
- 178. Goethert HK, Telford SR. Enzootic transmission of the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis among cottontail rabbits. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2003;68:633-637.
- 179. Baldridge GD, Scoles GA, Burkhardt NY, et al. Transovarial transmission of *Francisella*-like endosymbionts and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* variants in *Dermacentor albipictus* (Acari: Ixodidae). J Med Entomol 2009;46:625-632.
- 180. Santos HA, Thomé SM, Baldani CD, et al. Molecular epidemiology of the emerging zoonosis agent *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* (Foggie, 1949) in dogs and Ixodid ticks in Brazil. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:348-357.
- 181. Campos-Calderón L, Ábrego-Sánchez L, Solórzano-Morales A, et al. Molecular detection and identification of Rickettsiales pathogens in dog ticks from Costa Rica. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:1198-1202.
- 182. Sosa-Gutierrez CG, Vargas-Sandoval M, Torres J, et al. Tick-borne rickettsial pathogens in questing ticks, removed from humans and animals in Mexico. J Vet Sci 2016;17:353-360.
- Michelet L, Delannoy S, Devillers E, et al. High-throughput screening of tick-borne pathogens in Europe. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 2014;4:1-13.
- 184. Santos AS, Santos-Silva MM, Sousa RD, et al. PCR-based serosurvey of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Portuguese ticks (Acari: Ixodidae). Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2009;9:33-40.
- 185. Bown KJ, Lambin X, Telford GR. Relative importance of *Ixodes ricinus* and *Ixodes trianguliceps* as vectors for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Babesia microti* in field vole (*Microtus agrestis*) populations. Appl Environ Microbiol 2008;74:7118-7125.
- 186. Silaghi C, Woll D, Hamel D, et al. *Babesia* spp. and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in questing ticks, ticks parasitizing rodents and the parasitized rodents Analyzing the host-pathogen-vector interface in a metropolitan area. Parasit Vectors 2012;5:191.
- 187. Santos AS, Santos-Silva MM, Almeida VC, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* DNA in *Ixodes* ticks (Acari: Ixodidae) from Madeira Island and Setubal district, mainland Portugal. Emerg Infect Dis 2004;10:1643-1648.

- 188. Tomanovic S, Chochlakis D, Radulovic Z, et al. Analysis of pathogen co-occurrence in hostseeking adult hard ticks from Serbia. Exp Appl Acarol 2013;59:367-376.
- 189. Leblond A, Pradier S, Pitel P, et al. Enquête épidémiologique sur l'anaplasmose équine (*Anaplasma phagocytophilum*) dans le sud de la France. Rev Sci Tech 2005;24:899-908.
- Keysary A, Massung RF, Inbar M, et al. Molecular evidence for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Israel. Emerg Infect Dis 2007;13:1411-1412.
- Psaroulaki A, Chochlakis D, Ioannou I, et al. Acute anaplasmosis in human in Cyprus. Clin Microbiol Infect 2008;15:10-11.
- 192. Chastagner A, Bailly X, Leblond A, et al. Single genotype of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* identified from ticks, Camargue, France. Emerg Infect Dis 2013;19:825-827.
- 193. Dahmani M, Davoust B, Rousseau F, et al. Natural Anaplasmataceae infection in *Rhipicephalus bursa* ticks collected from sheep in the French Basque Country. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2017;8:18-24.
- 194. Eremeeva ME, Oliveira A, Robinson JB, et al. Prevalence of bacterial agents in *Ixodes persulcatus* ticks from the Vologda Province of Russia. Ann NY Acad Sci 2006;1078:291-298.
- 195. Ybañez AP, Matsumoto K, Kishimoto T, et al. Dual presence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and its closely related *Anaplasma* sp. in ixodid ticks in Hokkaido, Japan, and their specific molecular detection. J. Vet Med Sci 2012;74:1551-1560.
- 196. Stanek G, Wormser GP, Gray J, et al. Lyme borreliosis. Lancet 2012;379:461-473.
- 197. Ohashi N, Inayoshi M, Kitamura K, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*-infected ticks, Japan. Emerg Infect Dis 2005;11:1780-1783.
- 198. Chae JS, Yudo H, Shringi S, et al. Microbial pathogens in ticks, rodents and a shrew in northern Gyeonggi-do near the DMZ, Korea. J Vet Sci 2008;9:285-293.
- 199. Cao WC, Zhan L, He J, et al. Natural *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection of ticks and rodents from a forest area of Jilin Province, China. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2006;75:664-668.
- 200. Yoshimoto K, Matsuyama Y, Matsuda H, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma bovis* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* DNA from *Haemaphysalis megaspinosa* in Hokkaido, Japan. Vet Parasitol 2010;168:170-172.
- 201. Zhang L, Liu H, Xu B, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in domestic animals in ten provinces/cities of China. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2012;87:185-189.
- 202. Wang S, KouM, Wang ZQ, et al. A survey and identification of *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Shandong. Diseases Surveillance 2012;27;8:642-643.

- 203. Jiang BG, Cao WC, Niu JJ, et al. Detection and identification of *Ehrlichia* species in *Rhipicephalus (Boophilus) microplus* ticks in cattle from Xiamen, China. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2011;11:325.
- 204. Zhang L, Cui F, Wang L, et al. Investigation of anaplasmosis in Yiyuan County, Shandong Province, China. Asian Pac J Tro Med 2011;4:568-72.
- 205. Nuttall PA, Labuda M. Dynamics of infection in tick vectors and at the tick-host interface. Adv Virus Res 2003;60:233-272.
- 206. Pichon B, Estrada-Pena A, Kahl O, et al. Detection of animal reservoirs of tick-borne zoonoses in Europe. Int J Med Microbiol 2006;296:129-130.
- 207. Kiffner C, Vor T, Hagedorn P, et al. Factors affecting patterns of tick parasitism on forest rodents in tick-borne encephalitis risk areas, Germany. Parasitol Res 2011;108:323-335.
- 208. Zeman P, Pazdiora P, Chmelik V, et al. Epidemiological survey of tick-borne encephalitis virus and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* co-infections in patients from regions of the Czech Republic endemic for tick-borne diseases. Wien Klin Wochenschr 2007;119:538-543.
- 209. Hapunik J, Vichova B, Karbowiak G, et al. Wild and farm breeding cervids infections with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Ann Agric Environ Med 2011;18:73-77.
- 210. Robinson MT, Shaw SE, Morgan ER. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in a multi-species deer community in the New Forest, England. Eur J Wildl Res 2009;55:439-442.
- 211. Ebani VV, Verin R, Fratini F, et al. Molecular survey of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia canis* in red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*) from central Italy. J Wildl Dis 2011;47:699-703.
- 212. Liz JS, Anderes L, Sumner JW, et al. PCR detection of granulocytic ehrlichiae in *Ixodes ricinus* ticks and wild small mammals in western Switzerland. J Clin Microbiol 2000;38:1002-1007.
- 213. Bown KJ, Bennett M, Begon M, et al. Seasonal dynamics of Anaplasma (formerly Ehrlichia) phagocytophila in a rodent-tick (Ixodes trianguliceps) system in the UK. Emerg Infect Dis 2003;9:63-70.
- 214. Hulínská D, Langøová K, Pejèoch M, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in animals by real-time polymerase chain reaction. APMIS 2004;112:239-247.
- 215. Silaghi C, Skuballa J, Thiel C, et al. The European hedgehog (*Erinaceus europaeus*) a suitable reservoir forvariants of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*? Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2012;3:49-54.
- 216. Michalik J, Stańczak J, Cieniuch S, et al. Wild boars as hosts of human-pathogenic *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* variants. Emerg Infect Dis 2012;18:998-1001.
- 217. Chastagner A, Dugat T, Vourc'h G, et al. Multilocus sequence analysis of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* reveals three distinct lineages with different host ranges in clinically ill French cattle. Vet Res 2014;45:114.

- 218. Huhn C, Winter C, Wolfsperger T, et al. Analysis of the population structure of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* using multilocus sequence typing. PLoS One 2014;9:e93725.
- 219. Baráková I, Derdáková M, Carpi G, et al. Genetic and ecologic variability among *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* strains, northern Italy. Emerg Infect Dis 2014;20:1082-1084.
- 220. Johnson RC, Kodner C, Jarnefeld J, et al. Agents of human anaplasmosis and Lyme disease at Camp Ripley, Minnesota. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2011;1:1529-1534.
- 221. Keesing F, McHenry DJ, Hersh M, et al. Prevalence of human-active and variant 1 strains of the tick-borne pathogen *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in hosts and forests of Eastern North America. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2014;91:302-309.
- 222. Walls JJ, Greig B, Neitzel DF, et al. Natural infection of small mammal species in Minnesota with the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis. J Clin Microbiol 1997;35:853-855.
- 223. Stafford KC, Massung RF, Magnarelli LA, et al. Infection with agents of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis, Lyme disease, and babesiosis in wild white-footed mice (*Peromyscus leucopis*) in Connecticut. J Clin Microbiol 1999;37:2887-2892.
- 224. Levin ML, Nicholson WL, Massung RF, et al. Comparison of the reservoir competence of medium-sized mammals and *Peromyscus leucopus* for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Connecticut. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2002;2:125-136.
- 225. Foley JE, Nieto NC, Adjemian J, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in small mammal hosts of *Ixodes* ticks, western United States. Emerg Infect Dis 2008;14:1147-1150.
- 226. Nieto NC, Leonhard S, Joley JE, et al. Coinfection of western gray squirrel (*Sciurus griseus*) and other *Sciurid* rodents with *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu strictu and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in California. J Wildl Dis 2010;46:291-296.
- 227. Kawahara M, Rikihisa Y, Lin Q, et al. Novel genetic variants of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Anaplasma bovis*, *Anaplasma centrale*, and a novel *Ehrlichia* sp. in wild deer and ticks on two major islands in Japan. Appl Environ Microbiol 2006;72:1102-1109.
- 228. Jilintai Seino N, Hayakawa D, Suzuki M, et al. Molecular survey for *Anaplasma bovis* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in cattle in a pastureland where sika deer appear in Hokkaido, Japan. Jpn J Infect Dis 2009;62:73-75.
- 229. Masuzawa T, Uchishima Y, Fukui T, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* from wild boars and deer in Japan. Jpn J Infect Dis 2011;64:333-336.
- 230. Kang JG, Ko S, Smith B, et al. Prevalence of *Anaplasma*, *Bartonella* and *Borrelia* species in *Haemaphysalis longicornis* collected from goats, Democratic People's Republic of Korea. J Vet Sci 2016;30;17:207-216.
- 231. Zhan L, Cao WC, de Vlas S, et al. A newly discovered *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* variant in rodents from southeastern China. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;8:369-380.

- 232. Zhan L, Cao WC, Jiang JF, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in livestockand smallrodents. Vet Microbiol 2010;144:405-408.
- 233. Kim CM, Yi YH, Yu DH, et al. Tick-borne rickettsial pathogens in ticks and small mammals in Korea. Appl Environ Microbiol 2006;72:5766-5776.
- 234. Foley JE, Foley P, Jecker M, et al. Granulocytic ehrlichiosis and tick infestation in mountain lions in California. J Wildl Dis 1999;35:703-709.
- 235. Pusterla N, Chang CC, Chomel BB, et al. Serologic and molecular evidence of *Ehrlichia* sp. in coyotes in California. J Wildl Dis 2000;36:494-499.
- 236. Nieto NC, Foley JE, Bettaso J, et al. Reptile infection with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, the causative agent of granulocytic anaplasmosis. J Parasitol 2009;95:1165-1170.
- 237. Yabsley MJ, Murphy SM, Luttrell MP, et al. Experimental and field studies on the suitability of raccoons (*Procyon lotor*) as hosts for tick-borne pathogens. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;8:491-503.
- 238. Gabriel MW, Brown RN, Foley JE, et al. Ecology of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in gray foxes (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*) in northwestern California. J Wildl Dis 2009;45:344-354.
- 239. Petrovec M, Sixl W, Schweiger R, et al. Infections of wild animals with *Anaplasma phagocytophila* in Austria and the Czech Republic. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2003;990:103-106.
- 240. Galindo RC, Ayllón N, Strašek Smrdel K, et al. Gene expression profile suggests that pigs (*Sus scrofa*) are susceptible to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* but control infection. Parasit Vectors 2012;5:181-194.
- 241. Nahayo A, Bardiau M, Volpe R, et al. Molecular evidence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) in Belgium. BMC Vet Res 2014;10:80-84.
- 242. Bjöersdorff A, Bergstrom S, Massung RF, et al. *Ehrlichia*-infected ticks on migrating birds. Emerg Infect Dis 2001;7:877-879.
- 243. Daniels TJ, Battaly GR, Liveris D, et al. Avian reservoirs of the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis? Emerg Infect Dis 2002;8:1524-1525.
- 244. de la Fuente J, Naranjo V, Ruiz-Fons F, et al. Potential vertebrate reservoir hosts and invertebrate vectors of *Anaplasma marginale* and *A. phagocytophilum* in Central Spain. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2005;5:390-401.
- 245. Hildebrandt A, Franke J, Meier F, et al. The potential role of migratory birds in transmission cycles of *Babesia* spp., *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, and *Rickettsia* spp. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2010;1:105-107.
- 246. Capligina V, Salmane I, Keiss O, et al. Prevalence of tick-borne pathogens in ticks collected from migratory birds in Latvia. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2014;5:75-81.

- 247. Lommano E, Dvorák C, Vallotton L, et al. Tick-borne pathogens in ticks collected from breeding and migratory birds in Switzerland. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2014;5:871-882.
- 248. Levin ML, Fish D. Immunity reduces reservoir host competence of *Peromyscus leucopus* for *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*. Infect Immun 2000;68:1514-1518.
- 249. Ogden NH, Casey ANJ, Woldehiwet Z, et al. Transmission of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* to *Ixodes ricinus* ticks from sheep in the acute and post-acute phases of infection. Infect Immun 2003;71:2071-2078.
- Nava S, Guglielmone AA, Mangold AJ. An overview of systematics and evolution of ticks. Front Biosci 2009;14:2857-2877.
- 251. Hodzic E, Fish D, Maretzki CM, et al Acquisition and transmission of the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis by *Ixodes scapularis* ticks. J Clin Microbiol 1998;36:3574-3578.
- 252. des Vignes F, Piesman J, Heffernan R, et al. Effect of tick removal on transmission of *Borrelia burgdorferi* and *Ehrlichia phagocytophila* by *Ixodes scapularis* nymphs. J Infect Dis 2001;183:773-778.
- 253. Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, Giannelli A, et al. Ticks infesting humans in Italy and associated pathogens. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:328.
- 254. Thomas DR, Sillis M, Coleman TJ, et al. Low rates of ehrlichiosis and Lyme borreliosis in English farmworkers. Epidemiol Infect 1998;121:609-614.
- Bakken JS, Dumler S. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis. Infect Dis Clin N Am 2008;22:433-448.
- 256. Nicholson WL, Allen KE, McQuiston JH, et al. The increasing recognition of rickettsial pathogens in dogs and people. Trends Parasitol 2010;26:205-212.
- 257. Foley JE, Nieto NC. The ecology of tick-transmitted infections in the redwood chipmunk (*Tamia sochrogenys*). Ticks Tick BorneDis. 2011;2:88-93.
- 258. Ogden NH, Bown KJ, Horrocks BK, et al. Granulocytic *Ehrlichia* infection in ixodid ticks and mammals in woodlands and uplands of the UK. Med Vet Entomol 1998;12:423-429.
- 259. Blaoarová L, Stanko M, Carpi G, et al. Distinct *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* genotypes associated with *Ixodes trianguliceps* ticks and rodents in Central Europe. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2014;5:928-938.
- 260. Foley JE, Rejmanek D, Fleer K, et al. Nidicolous ticks of small mammals in *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*-enzootic sites in northern California. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2011;2:75-80.
- 261. Bakken JS, Krueth JK, Lund T, et al. Exposure to deer blood may be a cause of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis. Clin Infect Dis 1996;23:198.

- 262. Horowitz HW, Kilchevsky E, Haber S, et al. Perinatal transmission of the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis. N Engl J Med 1998;339:375-378.
- Zhang L, Liu Y, Ni D, et al. Nosocomial transmission of human granulocytic anaplasmosis in China. J Am Med Assoc 2008;300:2263-2270.
- 264. Eastlund T, Persing D, Mathiesen D, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis after red cell transfusion. Transfusion 1999;39:117.
- 265. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* transmitted through blood transfusion: Minnesota, 2007. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2008;57:1145-1148.
- 266. Alhumaidan H, Westley B, Esteva C, et al. Transfusion-transmitted anaplasmosis from leukoreduced red blood cells. Transfusion 2013;53:181-186.
- 267. Shields K, Cumming M, Rios J, et al. Transfusion-associated *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in a pregnant patient with thalassemia trait: a case report. Transfusion 2015;55:719-725.
- 268. Fine AB, Sweeney JD, Nixon CP, et al. Transfusion-transmitted anaplasmosis from a leukoreduced platelet pool. Transfusion 2016;56:699-704.
- 269. Jereb M, Pecaver B, Tomazic J, et al. Severe human granulocytic anaplasmosis transmitted by blood transfusion. Emerg Infect Dis 2012;18:1354-1357.
- 270. Townsend RL, Moritz ED, Fialkow LB, et al. Probable transfusion-transmission of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* by leukoreduced platelets. Transfusion 2014;54:2828-2832.
- 271. Aguero-Rosenfeld ME, Donnarumma L, Zentmaier L, et al. Seroprevalence of antibodies that react with *Anaplasma phagocytophila*, the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis, in different populations in Westchester County, New York. J Clin Microbiol 2002;40:2612-2615.
- 272. Leiby DA, Chung APS, Cable RG, et al. Relationship between tick bites and the seroprevalence of *Babesia microti* and *Anaplasma phagocytophila* (previously *Ehrlichia* sp.) in blood donors. Transfusion 2002;42:1585-1591.
- 273. Chochlakis D, Papaeustathiou A, Minadakis G, et al. A serosurvey of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in blood donors in Crete, Greece. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2008;27:473-475.
- 274. Kalantarpour F, I Chowdhury I, Wormser GP, et al. Survival of the human granulocytic ehrlichiosis agent under refrigeration conditions. J Clin Microbiol 2000;38:2398-2399.
- 275. Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Diagnosis and management of tick-borne rickettsial diseases: Rocky Mountain spotted fever, ehrlichiosis, and anaplasmosis — United States. MMWR 2006;55(No.RR-4).

- 276. Grzeszczuk A, Stanczak J, Kubica-Biernat B. Serological and molecular evidence of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis focus in the Bialowieza Primeval forest (Puszcza Bialowieska), northeastern Poland. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2002;21:6-11.
- 277. Chmielewska-Badora J, Moniuszko A, Żukiewicz-Sobczak W, et al. Serological survey in persons occupationally exposed to tick-borne pathogens in cases of co-infections with *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Bartonella* spp. and *Babesia microti*. Ann Agric Environ Med 2012;19:271-274.
- Cisak E, Chmielewska-Badora J, Zwoliński J, et al. Risk of tick-borne bacterial diseases among workers of Roztocze National Park (south-eastern Poland). Ann Agric Environ Med 2005;12:127-132.
- 279. Christova IS, Dumler JS. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Bulgaria. Am J Trop Med Hyg 1999;60:58-61.
- 280. Hjetland R, Henningsson AJ, Vainio K, et al. Seroprevalence of antibodies to tick-borne encephalitis virus and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in healthy adults from western Norway. Infect Dis 2015;47:52-56.
- 281. Fingerle V, Goodman JL, Johnson RC, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Southern Germany: increased seroprevalence in high-risk groups. J Clin Microbiol 1997;35:3244-3247.
- 282. Pusterla N, Weber R, Wolfensberger C, et al. Serological evidence of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Switzerland. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1998;17:207-209.
- 283. De Keukeleire M, Vanwambeke SO, Cochez C, et al. Seroprevalence of *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, and *Francisella tularensis* infections in Belgium: results of three population-based samples. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2017;17:108-115.
- 284. Brouqui P, Dumler JS, Lienhard R, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Europe. The Lancet 1995;346:782-783.
- 285. Santos AS, Bacellar F, Dumler JS. Human exposure to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Portugal. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:100-105.
- 286. Crawford K, Walton J, Lewis D, et al. Infectious agent screening in canine blood donors in the United Kingdom. J Small Anim Pract 2013;54:414-417.
- 287. Reine NJ. Infection and blood transfusion: a guide to donor screening. Clin Tech Small Animl Pract 2004;19:68-74.
- 288. Sainz A, Roura X, Miró G, et al. Guideline for veterinary practitioners on canine ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis in Europe. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:75-94.
- 289. Wardrop KJ, Reine N, Birkenheuer A, et al. Canine and feline blood donor screening for infectious disease. J Vet Intern Med 2005;19:135-142.

- 290. Dhand A, Nadelman R, Aguero-Rosenfeld M, et al. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis during pregnancy; case series and literature review. Clin Infect Dis 2007;45:589-593.
- 291. Plier ML, Breitschwerdt EB, Hegarty BC, et al. Lack of Evidence for perinatal transmission of canine granulocytic anaplasmosis from a bitch to her offspring. J Am Anim Hospit Assoc 2009;45:232-238.
- 292. Wormser GP, Dattwyler RJ, Shapiro ED, et al. The clinical assessment, treatment, and prevention of lyme disease, human granulocytic anaplasmosis, and babesiosis: clinical practice guidelines by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. Clin Infect Dis 2006;43:1089-1134.
- 293. Dahlgren FS, Mandel EJ, Krebs JW, et al. Increasing incidence of *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in the United States, 2000–2007. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2011;85:124-131.
- 294. Burgess H, Chilton NB, Krakowetz CN, et al. Granulocytic anaplasmosis in a horse from Saskatchewan. Can Vet J 2012;53:886-888.
- 295. Tinkler SH, Firshman AM, Sharkey LC. Premature parturition, edema, and ascites in an alpaca infected with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Can Vet J 2012;53:1199-1202.
- 296. Aktas M, Sözübek S. Bovine anaplasmosis in Turkey: first laboratory confirmed clinical cases caused by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Vet Microbiol 2015;178:246-251.
- 297. Savidge C, Ewing P, Andrews J, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection of domestic cats: 16 cases from the northeastern USA. J Feline Med Surg 2016;18:85-91.
- 298. Dahlgren FS, Heitman KN, Drexler NA, et al. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis in the United States from 2008 to 2012: a summary of national surveillance data. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2015;93:66-72.
- 299. Graf PCF, Chretien JP, Ung L, et al. Prevalence of seropositivity to spotted fever group rickettsiae and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a large, demographically diverse US sample. Clin Infect Dis 2008;46:70-77.
- Bakken JS, Dumler JS. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis. Infect Dis Clin N Am 2015;29:341-355.
- 301. Li H, Zhou Y, Wang W, et al. The clinical characteristics and outcomes of patients with human granulocytic anaplasmosis in China. Int J Infect Dis 2011;15:859-866.
- 302. Żukiewicz-Sobczak W, Zwoliński J, Chmielewska-Badora J, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against selected zoonotic agents in forestry workers from eastern and southern Poland. Ann Agri Environ Med 2014;21:767-770.
- 303. Bakken JS, Goellner P, Van Etten M, et al. Seroprevalence of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis among permanent residents of northwestern Wisconsin. Clin Infect Dis 1998;27:1491-1496.

- 304. Groen J, Koraka P, Nur YA, et al. Serologic evidence of ehrlichiosis among humans and wild animals in the Netherlands. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2002;21:46-49.
- 305. Cinco M, Barbone F, Grazia Ciufolini MG, et al. Seroprevalence of tick-borne infections in forestry rangers from northeastern Italy. Clin Microbiol Infect 2004;10:1056-1061.
- 306. Liang CW, Zhang Y, Zhao JB, et al. Seroepidemiological survey of tickborne rickettsial diseases among high risk population in Tianjin. Chinese J Public Health 2011;27:719-780.
- 307. Gaito A, Gjivoje V, Lutz S, et al. Comparative analysis of the infectivity rate of both *Borrelia burgdorferi* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in humans and dogs in a New Jersey community. Infect Drug Resist 2014;7:199-201.
- 308. Adjemian J, Weber IB, McQuiston J, et al. Zoonotic infections among employees from Great Smoky Mountains and Rocky Mountain national parks, 2008–2009. Vector born Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:922-931.
- 309. Moro PL, Shah J, Li O, et al. Serologic evidence of human ehrlichiosis in Peru. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2009;80:242-244.
- Mączka I, Roguska U, Tylewska-Wierzbanowska S. Prevalence of rickettsioses in Poland in 2006-2012. Przegl Epidemiol 2013;67:633-636.
- 311. Dzięgiel B, Adaszek L, Carbonero A, et al. Detection of canine vector-borne diseases in eastern Poland by ELISA and PCR. Parasitol Res 2016;115:1039-1044.
- 312. Stanczak J, Grzeszczuk A. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* among forestry rangers in northern and northeastern Poland. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:89-91.
- Arnez M, Luznik-Bufon T, Avsic-Zupanc T, et al. Causes of febrile illnesses after a tick bite in Slovenian children. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2003;22:1078-1083.
- 314. Dumler JS, Dotevall L, Gustafson R, et al. A population-based seroepidemiologic study of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis and Lyme borreliosis on the West coast of Sweden. J Infect Dis 1996;175:720-722.
- 315. Henningsson AJ, Wilhelmsson P, Gyllemark P, et al. Low risk of seroconversion or clinical disease in humans after a bite by an *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*-infected tick. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:787-792.
- 316. Heyman P, Cochez C, Bigaignon G, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Belgium: an underestimated cause of disease. J Infect 2003;47:129-132.
- 317. Jahfari S, Hofhuis A, Fonville M, et al. Molecular detection of tick-borne pathogens in humans with tick bites and erythema migrans, in the Netherlands. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 2016;10:e0005042.
- 318. von Wissmann B, Hautmann W, Sing A, et al. Assessing the risk of human granulocytic anaplasmosis and lyme borreliosis after a tick bite in Bavaria, Germany. Int J Med Microbiol 2015;305:736-741.

- 319. Kalinová Z, Halánová M, Čisláková L, et al. Occurrence of antibodies to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in patients with suspected tick-borne encephalitis. Ann Agric Environ Med 2015;22:409-411.
- 320. Pusterla N, Weber R, Wolfensberger C, et al. Serological evidence of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Switzerland. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1998;17:207-209.
- 321. Oteo JA, Gil H, Barral M, et al. Presence of granulocytic ehrlichia in ticks and serological evidence of human infection in La Rioja, Spain. Epidemiol Infect 2001;127:353-358.
- 322. Santos AS, Bacellar F, Dumler JS. A 4-year study of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Portugal. Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2009;15:46-47.
- 323. Günes T, Poyraz O, Atas M, et al. The seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in humans from two different climatic regions of Turkey and its co-seroprevalence rate with *Borrelia burgdorferi*. Turk J Med Sci 2011;41:903-908.
- 324. Hao Q, Geng Z, Hou XX, Tian Z, et al. Seroepidemiological investigation of lyme disease and human granulocytic anaplasmosis among people living in forest areas of eight provinces in China. Biomed Environ Sci 2013;26:185-189.
- 325. Zhang S, Hai R, Li W, et al. Seroprevalence of human granulocytotropic anaplasmosis in Central and Southeastern China. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2009;81:293-295.
- 326. Hardalo CJ, Quagliarello V, Dumler JS. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Connecticut: report of a fatal case. Clin Infect Dis 1995;21:910-914.
- 327. Bakken JS, Krueth J, Wilson-Nordskog C, et al. Clinical and laboratory characteristics of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis. JAMA 1996;275:199-205.
- 328. Jahangir A, Kolbert C, Edwards W, et al. Fatal pancarditis associated with human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in a 44-year-old man. Clin Infect Dis 1998;27:1424-1427.
- 329. Garyu JW, Choi KS, Grab DJ, et al. Defective phagocytosis in *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*infected neutrophils. Infect Immun 2005;73:1187-1190.
- 330. Bakken JS, Dumler JS. Clinical diagnosis and treatment of human granulocytotropic anaplasmosis. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:236-247.
- Ramsay AH, Belongia EA, Gale CM, et al. Outcomes of treated human granulocytic ehrlichiosis cases. Emerg Infect Dis 2002;8:398-401.
- 332. Fritz CL, Bronson LR, Smith CR, et al. Clinical, epidemiologic, and environmental surveillance for ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis in an endemic area of northern California J Vector Ecol 2005;30:4-10.
- Lotric-Furlan S, Petrovec M, Avsic-Zupanc T, et al. Human ehrlichiosis in central Europe. Wien Klin Wochenschr 1998;110:894-897.

- 334. Lotric-Furlan S, Petrovec M, Avsic-Zupanc T, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Europe: clinical and laboratory findings for four patients from Slovenia. Clin Infect Dis 1998;27:424-428.
- 335. Schorn S, Pfister K, Reulen H et al. Prevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in *Ixodes ricinus* in Bavarian public parks, Germany. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2011;2:196-203.
- 336. Skerget M, Wenisch C, Daxboeck F, et al. Cat or dog ownership and seroprevalence of ehrlichiosis, Q fever, and cat-scratch disease. Emerg Infect Dis 2003;9:1337-1339.
- 337. Hornok S, Dénes B, Meli ML, et al. Non-pet dogs as sentinels and potential synanthropic reservoirs of tick-borne and zoonotic bacteria. Vet Microbiol 2013;167:700-703.
- 338. Torina A, Vicente J, Alongi A, et al. Observed prevalence of tick-borne pathogens in domestic animals in Sicily, Italy during 2003–2005. Zoonoses Public Health 2007;54:8-15.
- 339. Silaghi C, Gilles J, Hohle M, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in *Ixodes ricinus*, Bavaria, Germany. Emerg Infect Dis 2008;14:972-974.
- 340. Santos HA, Pires MS, Vilela JAR, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Brazilian dogs by real-time polymerase chain reaction. J Vet Diagn Invest 2011;23:770-774.
- Rymaszewska A, Adamska M. Molecular evidence of vector-borne pathogens coinfecting dogs from Poland. Acta Vet Hung 2011;59:215-223.
- 342. Qablan MA, Kubelová M, Siroký P, et al. Stray dogs of northern Jordan as reservoirs of ticks and tick-borne hemopathogens. Parasitol Res 2012;111:301-307.
- 343. Claerebout E, Losson B, Cochez C, et al. Ticks and associated pathogens collected from dogs and cats in Belgium. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:183-192.
- 344. Król N, Obiegala A, Pfeffer M, et al. Detection of selected pathogens in ticks collected from cats and dogs in the Wrocław Agglomeration, South-West Poland. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:351.
- 345. Little SE, Beall MJ, Bowman DD, et al. Canine infection with *Dirofilaria immitis*, Borrelia burgdorferi, Anaplasma spp., and Ehrlichia spp. In the United States, 2010–2012. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:257-265.
- 346. Bowman D, Little SE, Lorentzen L, et al. Prevalence and geographic distribution of *Dirofilaria immitis, Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis*, and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dogs in the United States: results of a national clinic-based serologic survey. Vet Parasitol 2009;160:138-148.
- 347. McMahan CS, Wang D, Beall MJ. Factors associated with *Anaplasma* spp. seroprevalence among dogs in the United States. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:169.
- 348. Simpson RM, Gaunt SD, Hair JA, et al. Evaluation of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* as a potential biologic vector of *Ehrlichia platys*. Am J Vet Res 1991;52:1537-1541.
- 349. Inokuma H, Raoult D, Brouqui P. Detection of *Ehrlichia platys* DNA in brown dog ticks (*Rhipicephalus sanguineus*) in Okinawa Island, Japan. J Clin Microbiol 2000;38:4219-4221.

- 350. Motoi Y, Satoh H, Inokuma H, et al. First detection of *Ehrlichia platys* in dogs and ticks in Okinawa, Japan. Microbiol Immunol 2001;45:89-91.
- 351. Inokuma H, Beppu T, Okuda M, et al. Epidemiological survey of *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* using ticks collected from dogs in Japan. Vet Parasitol. 2003;115:343-348.
- 352. Parola P, Cornet JP, Sanogo YO, et al. Detection of *Ehrlichia* spp., *Anaplasma* spp., *Rickettsia* spp., and other eubacteria in ticks from the Thai-Myanmar border and Vietnam. J Clin Microbiol 2003;41:1600-1608.
- 353. Sanogo Y, Davoust B, Inokuma H, et al. First evidence of *Anaplasma platys* in *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodidae) collected from dogs in Africa. Onderstepoort J Vet Res 2003;70:205-212.
- 354. Sparagano OA, de Vos AP, Paoletti B, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* in dogs using polymerase chain reaction and reverse line blot hybridization. J Vet Diagn Invest 2003;15:527-534.
- 355. Inokuma H, Oyamada M, Davoust B, et al. Epidemiological survey of *Ehrlichia canis* and related species infection in dogs in eastern Sudan. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:461-463.
- 356. Oscherov EB, Milano AMF, Lobo B, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma platys* and other pathogens in ectoparasites from urban hosts in Northeast Argentine. Rev Ibero-Latinoam Parasitol 2011;70:42-47.
- 357. Cicuttin GL, Brambati DF, Rodríguez Eugui JI, et al. Molecular characterization of *Rickettsia massiliae* and *Anaplasma platys* infecting *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* ticks and domestic dogs, Buenos Aires (Argentina). Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2014;5:484-488.
- 358. Ramos RA, Latrofa MS, Giannelli A, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma platys* in dogs and *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* group ticks by a quantitative real-time PCR. Vet Parasitol 2014;205:285-288.
- 359. Aktas M, Özübek S, Altay K, et al. Molecular detection of tick-borne rickettsial and protozoan pathogens in domestic dogs from Turkey. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:157.
- 360. Matei IA, D'Amico G, Yao PK, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* infection in freeroaming dogs and ticks from Kenya and Ivory Coast. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:157.
- 361. Silva CB, Santos HA, Navarrete MG, et al. Molecular detection and characterization of *Anaplasma platys* in dogs and ticks in Cuba. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:938-944.
- 362. Dantas-Torres F. The brown dog tick, *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Latreille, 1806) (Acari: Ixodidae): from taxonomy to control. Vet Parasitol 2008;152:173-185.
- Dantas-Torres F. Biology and ecology of the brown dog tick, *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*. Parasit Vectors 2010;3:26.

- 364. Little SE, O'Connor TP, Hempstead J, et al. *Ehrlichia ewingii* infection and exposure rates in dogs from the southcentral United States. Vet Parasitol 2010;172:355-60.
- 365. Kordick SK, Breitschwerdt EB, Hegarty BC, et al. Coinfection with multiple tick-borne pathogens in a Walker Hound kennel in North Carolina. J Clin Microbiol 1999;37:2631-2638.
- 366. Hua P, Yuhai M, Shide T, et al. Canine ehrlichiosis caused simultaneously by *Ehrlichia canis* and *Ehrlichia platys*. Microbiol Immunol 2000;44:737-739.
- 367. Suksawat J, Xuejie Y, Hancock SI, et al. Serologic and molecular evidence of coinfection with multiple vector-borne pathogens in dogs from Thailand. J Vet Intern Med 2001;15:453-462.
- 368. Suksawat J, Pitulle C, Arraga-Alvarado C, et al. Coinfection with three *Ehrlichia* species in dogs from Thailand and Venezuela with emphasis on consideration of 16S ribosomal DNA secondary structure. J Clin Microbiol 2001;39:90-93.
- 369. Macieira Dde B, Messick JB, Cerqueira Ade M, et al. Prevalence of *Ehrlichia canis* infection in thrombocytopenic dogs from Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Vet Clin Pathol 2005;34:44-48.
- 370. Brown GK, Canfield PJ, Dunstan RH, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Babesia canis vogeli* and their impact on platelet numbers in free-roaming dogs associated with remote Aboriginal communities in Australia. Aust Vet J 2006;84:321-325.
- 371. Mokhtar AS, Lim SF, Tay ST. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Babesia gibsoni* in dogs in Malaysia. Trop Biomed 2013;30:345-348.
- 372. Aktas M, Altay K, Dumanli N, et al. Molecular detection and identification of *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* species in ixodid ticks. Parasitol Res 2009;104:1243-1248.
- 373. Harrus S, Perlman-Avrahami A, Mumcuoglu KY, et al. Molecular detection of *Ehrlichia canis*, *Anaplasma bovis*, *Anaplasma platys*, *Candidatus* Midichloria mitochondrii and *Babesia canis vogeli* in ticks from Israel. Clin Microbiol Infect 2011;17:459-463.
- Berggoetz M, Schmid M, Ston D, et al. Protozoan and bacterial pathogens in tick salivary glands in wild and domestic animal environments in South Africa. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2014;5:176-185.
- 375. Cetinkaya H, Matur E, Akyazi I, et al. Serological and molecular investigation of *Ehrlichia* spp. and *Anaplasma* spp. in ticks and blood of dogs, in the Thrace Region of Turkey. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:706-714.
- 376. Brown GK, Martin AR, Roberts TK, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* in lice collected from dogs in Australia. Aust Vet J 2005;83:101-102.
- 377. Baker DC, Gaunt SD, Babin SS. Anemia of inflammation in dogs infected with *Ehrlichia platys*. Am J Vet Res 1988;49 Suppl 7:1014-1016.
- 378. Eddlestone SM, Gaunt SD, Neer TM, et al. PCR detection of *Anaplasma platys* in blood and tissue of dogs during acute phase of experimental infection. Exp Parasitol 2007;115:205-210.

- 379. Gaunt S, Beall M, Stillman B, et al. Experimental infection and co-infection of dogs with *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis*: hematologic, serologic and molecular findings. Parasit Vectors 2010;3:33.
- 380. McQuiston JH, Childs JE, Chamberland ME, et al. Transmission of tick-borne agents of disease by blood transfusion: a review of known and potential risks in the United States. Transfusion 2000;40:274-284.
- 381. Latrofa MS, Dantas-Torres F, de Caprariis D, et al. Vertical transmission of *Anaplasma platys* and *Leishmania infantum* in dogs during the first half of gestation. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:269.
- 382. Abarca K, Lopez J, Perret C, et al. *Anaplasma platys* in dogs in Chile. Emerg Infect Dis 2007;13:1392-1395.
- 383. Cardoso L, Gilad M, Cortes HC, Nachum-Biala Y, et al. First report of *Anaplasma platys* infection in red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*) and molecular detection of *Ehrlichia canis* and *Leishmania infantum* in foxes from Portugal. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:144.
- 384. Djiba ML, Mediannikov O, Mbengue M, et al. Survey of Anaplasmataceae bacteria in sheep from Senegal. Trop Anim Health Prod 2013;45:1557-1561.
- 385. Zobba R, Anfossi AG, Pinna Parpaglia ML, et al. Molecular investigation and phylogeny of *Anaplasma* spp. in Mediterranean ruminants reveal the presence of neutrophil-tropic strains closely related to *A. platys*. Appl Environ Microbiol 2014;80:271-280.
- 386. Lima MLF, Soares PT, Ramos CAN, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* in a naturally-infected cat in Brazil. Braz J Microbiol 2010;412:381-385.
- 387. Salakij C, Lertwatcharasarakul P, Salakij J, et al. Molecular characterization of *Anaplasma platys* in a domestic cat from Thailand. Comp Clin Pathol 2012;21:345-348.
- 388. Belkahia H, Ben Said M, Sayahi L, et al. Detection of novel strains genetically related to *Anaplasma platys* in Tunisian one-humped camels (*Camelus dromedarius*). J Infect Dev Ctries 2015;9:1117-1125.
- 389. Bastos ADS, Mohammed OB, Bennett NC, et al. Molecular detection of novel Anaplasmataceae closely related to *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* in the dromedary camel (*Camelus dromedarius*). Vet Microbiol 2015;179:310-314.
- 390. Lorusso V, Wijnveld M, Latrofa MS, et al. Canine and ovine tick-borne pathogens in camels, Nigeria. Vet Parasitol 2016;228:90-92.
- 391. Santarém VA, Laposy CB, Farias MR. *Ehrlichia platys*-like inclusions and morulae in platelets of a cat. Brazil J Vet Sci 2000;7:130.
- 392. du Plessis L, Reyers F, Stevens K. Morphological evidence for infection of impala, Aepyceros melampus, platelets by a Rickettsia-like organism. Onderstepoort J Vet Res 1997;64:317-318.

- 393. Allsopp M, Visser ES, du Plessis JL, et al. Different organisms associated with heartwater as shown by analysis of 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequences. Vet Parasitol 1997;71:283-300.
- 394. Chochlakis D, Ioannou I, Sharif L, et al. Prevalence of *Anaplasma* sp. in goats and sheep in Cyprus. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;9:457-463.
- 395. Arraga-Alvarado C, Palmar M, Parra O, et al. Fine structure characterization of a *Rickettsia*-like organism in human platelets from patients with symptoms of ehrlichiosis. J Med Microbiol 1999;48:991-997.
- 396. Tamí CD, Tamí IC. Morphological identification of *Ehrlichia* sp. in platelets from patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus in Venezuela. Rev Panam Salud Publica 2004;16:345-349.
- 397. Aguirre E, Tesouro MA, Ruiz L, et al. Genetic characterization of *Anaplasma (Ehrlichia) platys* in dogs in Spain. J Vet Med A Physiol Pathol Clin Med 2006;53:197-200.
- 398. de la Fuente J, Torina A, Naranjo V, et al. Molecular characterization of *Anaplasma platys* strains from dogs in Sicily, Italy. BMC Vet Res 2006;2:24.
- 399. Cardozo GP, Oliveira LP, Mansur MA, et al. Molecular characterisation of two strains of *Anaplasma platys* in Brazil. Vet Rec 2009;164:338-340.
- 400. Bradfield JF, Vore SJ, Pryor WH Jr. *Ehrlichia platys* infection in dogs. Lab Anim Sci 1996;46:565-568.
- 401. Bouzouraa T, René-Martellet M, Chêne J, et al. Clinical and laboratory features of canine Anaplasma platys infection in 32 naturally infected dogs in the Mediterranean basin. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:1256-1264.
- 402. Glaze MB, Gaunt SD. Uveitis associated with *Ehrlichia platys* infection in a dog. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1986;18:916-917.
- 403. Neer TM, Breitschwerdt EB, Greene RT, et al. Consensus statement on ehrlichial disease of small animals from the infectious disease study group of the ACVIM. J Vet Intern Med 2002;16:309-315.
- 404. Kontos VI, Papadopoulos O, French TW. Natural and experimental canine infections with a Greek strain of *Ehrlichia platys*. Vet Clin Pathol 1991;20:101-105.
- 405. Harrus S, Aroch I, Lavy E, et al. Clinical manifestations of infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia. Vet Rec 1997;141:247-250.
- 406. Sainz A, Amusategui I, Tesouro MA. *Ehrlichia platys* infection and disease in dogs in Spain. J Vet Diagn Invest 1999;11:382-384.
- 407. Dyachenko V, Pantchev N, Balzer HJ, et al. First case of *Anaplasma platys* infection in a dog from Croatia. Parasit Vectors 2012;5:49.

- 408. Antognoni MT, Veronesi F, Morganti G, et al. Natural infection of *Anaplasma platys* in dogs from Umbria region (Central Italy). Vet Ital 2014;50:49-56.
- 409. Pinyoowong D, Jittapalapong S, Suksawat F, et al. Molecular characterization of Thai *Ehrlichia canis* and *Anaplasma platys* strains detected in dogs. Infect Genet Evol 2008;8:433-438.
- 410. Greig B, Asanovich KM, Armstrong PJ, et al. Geographic, clinical, serologic, and molecular evidence of granulocytic ehrlichiosis, a likely zoonotic disease, in Minnesota and Wisconsin dogs. J Clin Microbiol 1996;34:44-48.
- 411. Beall MJ, Chandrashekar R, Eberts MD, et al. Serological and molecular prevalence of Borrelia burgdorferi, Anaplasma phagocytophilum, and Ehrlichia species in dogs from Minnesota. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;8:455-464.
- 412. Hoskins JD, Breitschwerdt EB, Gaunt SD, French TW, Burgdorfer W. Antibodies to *Ehrlichia canis, Ehrlichia platys*, and spotted fever group rickettsiae in Louisiana dogs. J Vet Intern Med 1988;2:55-59.
- 413. Alberti A, Sparagano OAE. Molecular diagnosis of granulocytic anaplasmosis and infectious cyclic thrombocytopenia by PCR-RFLP. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1081: 371-378.
- 414. Georges K, Ezeokoli CD, Newaj-Fyzul A, et al. The application of PCR and reverse line blot hybridization to detect arthropod-borne hemopathogens of dogs and cats in Trinidad. Ann NY Acad Sci 2008;1149:196-199.
- 415. Cardoso L, Tuna J, Vieira L, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* in dogs from the North of Portugal. Vet J 2010;183:232-233.
- 416. Cicuttin GL, Navarro O'Connor M, Lobo B, et al. Molecular evidence of *Anaplasma platys* in domestic dogs of the autonomous city of Buenos Aires. Rev FAVE 2011;10:19-24.
- 417. Dahmani M, Marié JL, Mediannikov O, Raoult D, Davoust B. First identification of *Anaplasma platys* in the blood of dogs from French Guiana. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2015;15:170-172.
- 418. Dahmani M, Loudahi A, Mediannikov O, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* in dogs from Kabylie, Algeria. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:198-203.
- 419. Chang AC, Chang WL, Lin CT, et al. Canine infectious cyclic thrombocytopenia found in Taiwan. J Vet Med Sci 1996;58:473-476.
- 420. Inokuma H, Ohno K, Onishi T, Raoult D, Brouqui P. Detection of ehrlichial infection by PCR in dogs from Yamaguchi and Okinawa Prefectures, Japan. J Vet Med Sci 2001;63:815-817.
- 421. Inokuma H, Fujii K, Matsumoto K, et al. Demonstration of *Anaplasma (Ehrlichia) platys* inclusions in peripheral blood platelets of a dog in Japan. Vet Parasitol 2002;110:145-152.

- 422. Gal A, Loeb E, Yisaschar-Mekuzas Y, et al. Detection of *Ehrlichia canis* by PCR in different tissues obtained during necropsy from dogs surveyed from naturally occurring canine monocytic ehrlichiosis. Vet J 2008;175:212-221.
- 423. Brown GK, Martin AR, Roberts TK, et al. Detection of *Ehrlichia platys* in dogs in Australia. Aust Vet J 2001;79:554-558.
- 424. Rodgers SJ, Morton RJ, Baldwin CA. A serological survey of *Ehrlichia canis*, *Ehrlichia equi*, *Rickettsia rickettsii*, and *Borrelia burgdorferi* in dogs in Oklahoma. J Vet Diagn Invest 1989;1:154-159.
- 425. Magnarelli L, Ijdo J, Anderson K, et al. Antibodies to *Ehrlichia equi* in dogs from the northeastern United States. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1997;211:1134-1137.
- 426. Suksawat J, Hegarty BC, Breitschwerdt EB. Seroprevalence of *Ehrlichia canis*, *Ehrlichia equi*, and *Ehrlichia risticii* in sick dogs from North Carolina and Virginia. J Vet Intern Med 2000;14:50-55.
- 427. Foley J, Drazenovich N, Leutenegger CM, et al. Association between polyarthritis and thrombocytopenia and increased prevalence of vector-borne pathogens in Californian dogs. Vet Rec 2007;160:159-162.
- 428. Diniz PP, Beall MJ, Omark K, et al. High prevalence of tick-borne pathogens in dogs from an Indian reservation in northeastern Arizona. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2010;10:117-123.
- 429. Carrade DD, Foley J, Sullivan M, et al. Spatial distribution of seroprevalence for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis*, and *Dirofilaria immitis* in dogs in Washington, Oregon, and California. Vet Clin Pathol 2011;40:293-302.
- 430. Rand PW, Lacombe EH, Elias SP, et al. Multitarget test for emerging Lyme disease and anaplasmosis in a serosurvey of dogs, Maine, USA. Emerg Infect Dis 2011;17:899-902.
- 431. Balakrishnan N, Musulin S, Varanat M, et al. Serological and molecular prevalence of selected canine vector borne pathogens in blood donor candidates, clinically healthy volunteers, and stray dogs in North Carolina. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:116.
- 432. Yancey CB, Hegarty BC, Qurollo BA, et al. Regional seroreactivity and vector-borne disease coexposures in dogs in the United States from 2004–2010: utility of canine surveillance. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2014;14:724-732.
- 433. Arsenault WG, Messick JB. Acute granulocytic ehrlichiosis in a Rottweiler. J Am Anim Hosp Assoc 2005;41:323-326.
- 434. Granick JL, Armstrong PJ, Bender JB. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in dogs: 34 cases (2000–2007). J Am Vet Med Assoc 2009;234:1559-1565.
- 435. Eberts MD, Diniz PP, Beall MJ, et al. Typical and atypical manifestations of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in dogs. J Am Anim Hosp Assoc 2011;47:88-94.

- 436. Kane A, Block G, Heeb LA. An unusual presentation of granulocytic anaplasmosis in a young dog. J Am Anim Hosp Assoc 2011;47:276-279.
- 437. Gary AT, Webb JA, Hegarty BC, et al. The low seroprevalence of tick-transmitted agents of disease in dogs from southern Ontario and Quebec. Can Vet J 2006;47:1194-1200.
- 438. Lester SJ, Breitschwerdt EB, Collis CD, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection (granulocytic anaplasmosis) in a dog from Vancouver Island. Can Vet J 2005;46:825-827.
- 439. Cockwill KR, Taylor SM, Snead ECR, et al. Granulocytic anaplasmosis in three dogs from Saskatoon, Saskatchewan. Can Vet J 2009;50:835-840.
- 440. Al Izzi S, Martin DS, Chan RYY, et al. *Babesia canis vogeli*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Anaplasma platys* infection in a dog. Vet Clin Pathol 2013;42:471-475
- 441. McCown ME, Opel T, Grzeszak B. Vector-borne disease surveillance in Puerto Rico: pathogen prevalence rates in canines? Implications for public health and the US Military? Applying the one health concept. J Spec Oper Med 2013;13:59-63.
- 442. McCown ME, Alleman A, Sayler KA, Chandrashekar R, et al. Point prevalence survey for tickborne pathogens in military working dogs, shelter animals, and pet populations in northern Colombia. J Spec Oper Med 2014;14:81-85.
- 443. Ramos R, Ramos C, Araújo F, et al. Molecular survey and genetic characterization of tick-borne pathogens in dogs in metropolitan Recife (north-eastern Brazil). Parasitol Res 2010;107:1115-1120.
- 444. Silveira JA, Valente PC, Paes PR, et al. The first clinical and laboratory evidence of co-infection by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia canis* in a Brazilian dog. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:242-245.
- 445. Vargas-Hernandez G, André MR, Cendales DM, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma* species in dogs in Colombia. Rev Bras Parasitol Vet 2016;25:459-464.
- 446. Melo AL, Witter R, Martins TF, et al. A survey of tick-borne pathogens in dogs and their ticks in the Pantanal biome, Brazil. Med Vet Entomol 2016;30:112-116.
- 447. de Sousa KC, André MR, Herrera HM, et al. Molecular and serological detection of tick-borne pathogens in dogs from an area endemic for *Leishmania infantum* in Mato Grosso do Sul, Brazil. Rev Bras Parasitol Vet 2013;22:525-531.
- 448. da Silva GC, Benitez Ado N, Girotto A, et al. Occurrence of *Ehrlichia canis* and *Anaplasma platys* in household dogs from northern Parana. Rev Bras Parasitol Vet 2012;21:379-385.
- 449. Costa-Júnior LM, Rembeck K, Passos LM, et al. Factors associated with epidemiology of *Anaplasma platys* in dogs in rural and urban areas of Minas Gerais State, Brazil. Prev Vet Med 2013;109:321-326.

- 450. Santos F, Coppede JS, Pereira AL, et al. Molecular evaluation of the incidence of *Ehrlichia canis, Anaplasma platys* and *Babesia* spp. in dogs from Ribeirao Preto, Brazil Vet J 2009;179:145-148.
- 451. Diniz PP, Schwartz DS, de Morais HS, et al. Surveillance for zoonotic vector-borne infections using sick dogs from southeastern Brazil. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2007;7:689-697.
- 452. Lasta CS, dos Santos AP, Messick JB, et al. Molecular detection of *Ehrlichia canis* and *Anaplasma platys* in dogs in Southern Brazil. Rev Bras Parasitol Vet 2013;2:360-366.
- 453. Vieira TSWJ, da Costa Vieira RF, Gomes do Nascimento AA, et al. Serosurvey of tick-borne pathogens in dogs from urban and rural areas from Parana State, Brazil. Rev Bras Parasitol Vet 2013;22:104-109.
- 454. McCown ME, Monterroso VH, Cardona W. Surveillance for *Ehrlichia canis*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Borrelia burgdorferi*, and *Dirofilaria immitis* in dogs from three cities in Colombia. J Spec Oper Med 2014;14:86-90.
- 455. Carvalho L, Armua-Fernandez MT, Sosa N, et al. *Anaplasma platys* in dogs from Uruguay. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2017;8:241-245.
- 456. Wei L, Kelly P, Ackerson K, et al. First report of *Babesia gibsoni* in Central America and survey for vector-borne infections in dogs from Nicaragua. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:126.
- 457. Eiras DF, Craviotto MB, Vezzani D, et al. First description of natural *Ehrlichia canis* and *Anaplasma platys* infections in dogs from Argentina. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2013;36:169-173.
- 458. Movilla R, García C, Siebert S, et al. Countrywide serological evaluation of canine prevalence for Anaplasma spp., Borrelia burgdorferi (sensu lato), Dirofilaria immitis and Ehrlichia canis in Mexico. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:421.
- 459. Almazán C, González-Álvarez VH, Fernández de Mera IG, et al. Molecular identification and characterization of *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* in dogs in Mexico. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:276-283.
- 460. Santamaria A, Calzada JE, Saldaña A, et al. Molecular diagnosis and species identification of *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* infections in dogs from Panama, Central America. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2014;14:368-370.
- 461. Huang H, Unver A, Perez MJ, et al. Prevalence and molecular analysis of *Anaplasma platys* in dogs in Lara, Venezuela. Braz J Microbiol 2005;36:211-216.
- 462. Starkey LA, Newton K, Brunker J, et al. Prevalence of vector-borne pathogens in dogs from Haiti. Vet Parasitol 2016;224:7-12.
- 463. Kelly PJ, Xu C, Lucas H, et al. Ehrlichiosis, babesiosis, anaplasmosis and hepatozoonosis in dogs from St. Kitts, West Indies. PLoS One 2013;8:e53450.

- 464. Loftis AD, Kelly PJ, Freeman MD, et al. Tick-borne pathogens and disease in dogs on St. Kitts, West Indies. Vet Parasitol 2013;196:44-49.
- 465. Abrego L, Dolz G, Romero J, et al. Detección molecular de Anaplasma platys en Costa Rica. Cienc Vet 2009;27:71-80.
- 466. Rojas A, Rojas D, Montenegro V, et al. Vector-borne pathogens in dogs from Costa Rica: first molecular description of *Babesia vogeli* and *Hepatozoon canis* infections with a high prevalence of monocytic ehrlichiosis and the manifestations of coinfection. Vet Parasitol 2014 199:121-128.
- 467. Barutzki D, De Nicola A, Zeziola M, et al. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in dogs in Germany. Berl Münch Tierärztl Wochenschr 2006;119:342-347.
- 468. Santos AS, Alexandre N, Sousa R, et al. Serological and molecular survey of *Anaplasma* species infection in dogs with suspected tick-borne disease in Portugal. Vet Rec 2009;164:168-171.
- 469. Volgina NS, Romashov BV, Romashova NB, et al. Prevalence of borreliosis, anaplasmosis, ehrlichiosis and *Dirofilaria immitis* in dogs and vectors in Voronezh Reserve (Russia). Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2013;36:567-574.
- 470. Preyβ-Jägeler C, Müller E, Straubinger RK, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, and *Leptospira interrogans* serovars in Bernese Mountain Dogs. Tierarztl Prax Ausg K Kleintiere Heimtiere 2016;44:77-85.
- 471. Bexfield NH, Villiers EJ, Herrtage ME. Immune-mediated haemolytic anaemia and thrombocytopenia associated with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a dog. J Small Anim Pract 2005;46:543-548.
- 472. Melter O, Stehlik I, Kinska H, et al. Infection with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a young dog: a case report. Vet Med-Czech 2007;52:207-212.
- 473. Ravnik U, Tozon N, Strasek Smrdel K, et al. Anaplasmosis in dogs: the relation of haematological, biochemical and clinical alterations to antibody titre and PCR confirmed infection. Vet Microbiol 2011;149:172-176.
- 474. Ravnik U, Bajuk BP, Lusa L, et al. Serum protein profiles, circulating immune complexes and proteinuria in dogs naturally infected with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Vet Microbiol 2014;173:160-165.
- 475. Chomel B. Tick-borne infections in dogs-an emerging infectious threat. Vet Parasitol 2011;179:294-301.
- 476. Maia C, Almeida B, Coimbra M, Fernandes MC, et al. Bacterial and protozoal agents of canine vector-borne diseases in the blood of domesticand stray dogs from southern Portugal. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:138.

- 477. Solano-Gallego L, Caprì A, Pennisi MG, et al. Acute febrile illness is associated with *Rickettsia spp* infection in dogs. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:216.
- 478. Andersson M, Turcitu MA, Stefanache M, et al. First evidence of *Anaplasma platys* and *Hepatozoon canis* co-infection in a dog from Romania a case report. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2013;4:317-319.
- 479. Heyman P, Duh D, Van Der Kuylen B, et al. Molecular and serological evidence for *Anaplasma platys* and *Babesia* sp. infection in a dog, imported in Belgium, from Southern Spain. J Vet Med A Physiol Pathol Clin Med 2007;54:276-279.
- 480. Krupka I, Pantchev N, Lorentzen L, et al. Tick-transmitted, bacterial infections in dogs: seroprevalences of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato and *Ehrlichia canis* in Germany. Prakt Tierarzt 2007;88:776-788.
- 481. Kohn B, Silaghi C, Galke D, et al. Infections with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dogs in Germany. Res Vet Sci 2011;91:71-76.
- 482. Menn B, Lorentz S, Naucke TJ. Imported and travelling dogs as carriers of canine vector-borne pathogens in Germany. Parasit Vectors 2010;3:34-40.
- 483. Barth C, Straubinger RK, Sauter-Louis C, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and their clinical relevance in dogs in Munich, Germany. Berl Münch Tierärztl Wochenschr 2012;125:337-344.
- 484. Liesner JM, Krücken J, Schaper R, et al. Vector-borne pathogens in dogs and red foxes from the federal state of Brandenburg, Germany. Vet Parasitol 2016;224:44-51.
- 485. Farkas R, Gyurkovszky M, Lukàcs Z, et al. Seroprevalence of some vector-borne infections of dogs in Hungary. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2014;14:256-260.
- 486. Hamel D, Silaghi C, Lescai D, et al. Epidemiological aspects on vector-borne infections in stray and pet dogs from Romania and Hungary with focus on *Babesia* spp. Parasitol Res 2012;110:1537-1545.
- 487. Majlathova V, Majlath I, Vichova B, et al. Polymerase chain reaction confirmation of Babesia canis canis and Anaplasma phagocytophilum in dogs suspected of babesiosis in Slovakia. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2011;11:1447-1451.
- 488. Čabanová V, Pantchev N, Hurníková Z, et al. Recent study on canine vector-borne zoonoses in southern Slovakia serologic survey. Acta Parasitol 2015;60:749-758.
- 489. Pantchev N, Schnyder M, Globokar Vrhovec M, et al. Current surveys of the seroprevalence of Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis, Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Leishmania infantum, Babesia canis, Angiostrongylus vasorum and Dirofilaria immitis in dogs in Bulgaria. Parasitol Res 2015;114 Suppl 1:11-131.

- 490. Kirtz B, Czettel B, Thum D, et al. *Anaplasma phagozytophilum* in einer österreichischen Hundepopulation: eine Prävalenz-Studie (2001–2006). Kleintierpraxis 2007;52:562-568.
- 491. Shaw SE, Binns SH, Birtles RJ, et al. Molecular evidence of tick-transmitted infections in dogs and cats in the United Kingdom. Vet Rec 2005;157:645-648.
- 492. Egenvall A, Bonnett BN, Gunnarsson A, et al. Seroprevalence of granulocytic *Ehrlichia* spp. and *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato in Swedish dogs 1991–1994. Scand J Infect Dis 2000;32:19-25.
- 493. Elfving K, Malmsten J, Dalin AM, et al. Serologic and molecular prevalence of *Rickettsia helvetica* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in wild cervids and domestic mammals in the central parts of Sweden. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2015;15:529-534.
- 494. Pérez Vera C, Kapiainen S, Junnikkala S, et al. Survey of selected tick-borne diseases in dogs in Finland. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:285-292.
- 495. Hamel D, Silaghi C, Knaus M, et al. Detection of *Babesia canis* subspecies and other arthropodborne diseases in dogs from Tirana, Albania. Wien Klin Wochenschr 2009;121:42-45.
- 496. Hamel D, Shukullari E, Rapti D. Parasites and vector-borne pathogens in client-owned dogs in Albania. Blood pathogens and seroprevalences of parasitic and other infectious agents. Parasitol Res 2016;115:489-499.
- 497. Berzina I, Capligina V, Bormane A, et al. Association between *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* seroprevalence in dogs and distribution of *Ixodes ricinus* and *Ixodes persulcatus* ticks in Latvia. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2013;4:83-88.
- 498. Mircean V, Dumitrache MO, Gyöke A, et al. Seroprevalence and geographic distribution of Dirofilaria immitis and tick-borne infections (Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato, and Ehrlichia canis) in dogs from Romania. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:595-604.
- 499. Matei IA, Ionică AM, D'Amico G, et al. Altitude-dependent prevalence of canine granulocytic anaplasmosis in Romania. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2017;17:147-151.
- 500. Enache D, Imre M, Ilie MS, et al. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dogs from Constanta County. J Biotechnol 2015; 208:S95.
- 501. Potkonjak A, Gutiérrez R, Savic S, et al. Molecular detection of emerging tick-borne pathogens in Vojvodina, Serbia. Ticks Tick-borne Dis 2016;7:199-203.
- 502. Krämer K, Schaper R, Schunack B, et al. Serological detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato and *Ehrlichia canis* antibodies and *Dirofilaria immitis* antigen in a countrywide survey in dogs in Poland. Parasitol Res 2014;113:3229-3239.
- 503. Skotarczak B, Rymaszewska A, Wodecka B, et al. Molecular evidence of coinfection of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, human granulocytic ehrlichiosis agent, and *Babesia microti* in ticks from northwestern Poland. J Parasitol 2004;89:194-196.

- 504. Welc-Falęciak R, Rodo A, Siński E, et al. *Babesia canis* and other tick-borne infections in dogs in Central Poland. Vet Parasitol 2009;166:191-198.
- 505. Kybicová K, Schánilec P, Hulínská D, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato in dogs in the Czech Republic. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2009;9:655-662.
- 506. Pennisi MG, Caprì A, Solano-Gallego L, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against *Rickettsia conorii*, Babesia canis, Ehrlichia canis, and Anaplasma phagocytophilum antigens in dogs from the Stretto di Messina area (Italy). Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2012;3:314-317.
- 507. Torina A, Caracappa S. Dog tick-borne diseases in Sicily. Parasitologia 2006;48:145-147.
- 508. Hofmann-Lehmann R, Wagmann N, Meli ML, et al. Detection of '*Candidatus* Neoehrlichia mikurensis' and other Anaplasmataceae and Rickettsiaceae in Canidae in Switzerland and Mediterranean countries. Schweiz Arch Tierheilkd 2016;158:691-700.
- 509. Ebani VV, Bertelloni F, Torracca B, et al. Serological survey of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, and *Ehrlichia canis* infections in rural and urban dogs in Central Italy. Ann Agric Environ Med 2014;21:671-675.
- 510. Ebani VV, Cerri D, Fratini F, et al. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in domestic and wild animals from central Italy. New Microbiol 2008;31:371-375.
- 511. Ebani VV, Bertelloni F, Turchi B, et al. Serological and molecular survey of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Italian hunting dogs. Ann Agric Environ Med 2013;20:289-292.
- 512. Torina A, Alongi A, Naranjo V, et al. Characterization of anaplasma infections in Sicily, Italy. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2008;1149:90-93.
- 513. Torina A, Alongi A, Scimeca S, et al. Prevalence of tick-borne pathogens in ticks in Sicily. Transbound Emerg Dis 2010;57:46-48.
- 514. Otranto D, Testini G, Dantas-Torres F, et al. Diagnosis of canine vector-borne diseases in young dogs: a longitudinal study. J Clin Microbiol 2010;48:3316-3324.
- 515. Vascellari M, Ravagnan S, Carminato A, et al. Exposure to vector-borne pathogens in candidate blood donor and free-roaming dogs of northeast Italy. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:369.
- 516. Cardoso L, Mendão C, Madeira de Carvalho L. Prevalence of *Dirofilaria immitis*, *Ehrlichia canis*, *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, *Anaplasma* spp. and *Leishmania infantum* in apparently healthy and CVBD-suspect dogs in Portugal — a national serological study. Parasit Vectors 2012;5:62.
- 517. Alho AM, Pita J, Amaro A, et al. Seroprevalence of vector-borne pathogens and molecular detection of *Borrelia afzelii* in military dogs from Portugal. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:225.

- 518. Pantchev N, Schaper R, Limousin S, et al. Occurrence of *Dirofilaria immitis* and tick-borne infections caused by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato and *Ehrlichia canis* in domestic dogs in France: results of a countrywide serologic survey. Parasitol Res 2009;105 Supp 1:101-113.
- 519. Miró G, Montoya A, Roura X, et al. Seropositivity rates for agents of canine vector-borne diseases in Spain: a multicentre study. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:117.
- 520. Amusategui I, Tesouro MA, Kakoma I, et al. Serological reactivity to *Ehrlichia canis*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Neorickettsia risticii*, *Borrelia burgdorferi* and *Rickettsia conorii* in dogs from northwestern Spain. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;8:797-803.
- 521. Yabsley MJ, McKibben J, Macpherson CN, et al. Prevalence of *Ehrlichia canis*, *Anaplasma platys*, *Babesia canis vogeli*, *Hepatozoon canis*, *Bartonella vinsonii berkhoffii*, and *Rickettsia* spp. in dogs from Grenada. Vet Parasitol 2008;151:279-285.
- 522. Bell DR, Berghaus RD, Patel S, et al. Seroprevalence of tick-borne infections in military working dogs in the Republic of Korea. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:1023-1030.
- 523. Jung BY, Gebeyehu EB, Seo MG, et al. Prevalence of vector-borne diseases in shelter dogs in Korea. Vet Rec 2012;171:249.
- 524. Unver A, Rikihisa Y, Kawahara M, et al. Analysis of 16S rRNA gene sequences of *Ehrlichia canis, Anaplasma platys*, and *Wolbachia* species from canine blood in Japan. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2003;990:692-698.
- 525. Cui Y, Yan Y, Wang X, et al. First molecular evidence of mixed infections of *Anaplasma* species in dogs in Henan, China. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2017;8:283-289.
- 526. Zheng W, Liu M, Moumouni PF, et al. First molecular detection of tick-borne pathogens in dogs from Jiangxi, China. J Vet Med Sci 2017;9:248-254.
- 527. Wang S, He J, Zhang L. Serological investigation of vector-borne disease in dogs from rural areas of China. Asian Pac J Trop Biomed 2012;2:102-103.
- 528. Lee S, Lee SH, VanBik D, et al. First molecular detection and phylogenetic analysis of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in shelter dogs in Seoul, Korea. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:945-950.
- 529. Lim S, Irwin PJ, Lee S, et al. Comparison of selected canine vector-borne diseases between urban animal shelter and rural hunting dogs in Korea. Parasit Vectors 2010;3:32.
- 530. Koh FX, Panchadcharam C, Tay ST. Vector-borne diseases in stray dogs in Peninsular Malaysia and molecular detection of *Anaplasma* and *Ehrlichia* spp. from *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodidae) ticks. J Med Entomol 2016;53:183-187.
- 531. Inpankaew T, Hii SF, Chimnoi W, et al. Canine vector-borne pathogens in semi-domesticated dogs residing in northern Cambodia. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:253.

- 532. Liu M, Ruttayaporn N, Saechan V, et al. Molecular survey of canine vector-borne diseases in stray dogs in Thailand. Parasitol Int 2016;65:357-361.
- 533. Corales JM, Viloria VV, Venturina VM, et al. The prevalence of *Ehrlichia canis*, *Anaplasma platys* and *Babesia* spp. in dogs in Nueva Ecija, Philippines based on multiplex polymerase chain reaction (mPCR) assay. Ann Parasitol 2014;60:267-272.
- 534. Yuasa Y, Hsu TH, Chou CC, et al. The comparison of spatial variation and risk factors between mosquito-borne and tick-borne diseases: seroepidemiology of *Ehrlichia canis*, *Anaplasma* species, and *Dirofilaria immitis* in dogs. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2012;35:599-606.
- 535. Borthakur SK, Deka DK, Bhattacharjee K, et al. Seroprevalence of canine dirofilariosis, granulocytic anaplasmosis and lyme borreliosis of public health importance in dogs from India's North East. Vet World 2014;7:665-667.
- 536. Abd Rani PA, Irwin PJ, Coleman GT, et al. A survey of canine tick-borne diseases in India. Parasit Vectors 2011;4:141.
- 537. Levi O, Waner T, Baneth G, et al. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* among healthy dogs and horses in Israel. J Vet Med B Infect diseases Vet Public Health 2006;53:78-80.
- 538. Clarke LL, Ballweber LR, Allen K, et al. Prevalence of select vector-borne disease agents in owned dogs of Ghana. J S Afr Vet Assoc 2014;85:1-2.
- 539. Marié JL, Shaw SE, Langton DA, et al. Subclinical infection of dogs from the Ivory Coast and Gabon with *Ehrlichia*, *Anaplasma*, *Mycoplasma* and *Rickettsia* species. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15 Suppl 2:284-285.
- 540. Cardoso L, Oliveira AC, Granada S, et al. Molecular investigation of tick-borne pathogens in dogs from Luanda, Angola. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:252.
- 541. Kirchner M, Brunner A, Edelhofer R, et al. Vector-borne parasites of dogs on the Islands of Cabo Verde. Wien Klin Wochenschr 2008;120:49-53.
- 542. Aquino LC, Kamani J, Haruna JM, et al. Analysis of risk factors and prevalence of haemoplasma infection in dogs. Vet Parasitol 2016;221:111-117.
- 543. Kolo AO, Sibeko-Matjila KP, Maina AN, et al. Molecular detection of zoonotic Rickettsiae and *Anaplasma* spp. in domestic dogs and their ectoparasites in Bushbuckridge, South Africa. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2016;16:245-252.
- 544. Inokuma H, Oyamada M, Kelly PJ, et al. Molecular detection of a new *Anaplasma* species closely related to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in canine blood from South Africa. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:2934-2937.

- 545. Lauzi S, Maia JP, Epis S, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys*, *Ehrlichia canis*, *Hepatozoon canis* and *Rickettsia monacensis* in dogs from Maio Island of Cape Verde archipelago. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:964-969.
- 546. Hii SF, Traub RJ, Thompson MF, et al. Canine tick-borne pathogens and associated risk factors in dogs presenting with and without clinical signs consistent with tick-borne diseases in northern Australia. Aust Vet J 2015;93:58-66.
- 547. Barker EN, Langton DA, Helps CR, et al. Haemoparasites of free-roaming dogs associated with several remote Aboriginal communities in Australia. BMC Vet Res 2012;8:55.
- 548. Hii SF, Kopp SR, Thompson MF, et al. Canine vector-borne disease pathogens in dogs from southeast Queensland and north-east Northern Territory. Aust Vet J 2012;90:130-135.
- 549. Kamani J, Baneth G, Mumcuoglu KY, et al. Molecular detection and characterization of tickborne pathogens in dogs and ticks from Nigeria. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 2013;7:e2108.
- 550. Davoust B, Mediannikov O, Chene J, et al. Study of ehrlichiosis in kennel dogs under treatment and prevention during seven months in Dakar (Senegal). Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2013;36:613-617.
- 551. Götsch S, Leschnik M, Duscher G, et al. Ticks and haemoparasites of dogs from Praia, Cape Verde. Vet Parasitol 2009;166:171-174.
- 552. Chandrashekar R, Mainville CA, Beall MJ, et al. Performance of a commercially available inclinic ELISA for the detection of antibodies against *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Borrelia burgdorferi* and *Dirofilaria immitis* antigen in dogs. Am J Vet Res 2010;71:1443-1450.
- 553. Breitschwerdt EB, Hegarty BC, Hancock SI. Sequential evaluation of dogs naturally infected with *Ehrlichia canis*, *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*, *Ehrlichia equi*, *Ehrlichia ewingii*, or *Bartonella vinsonii*. J Clin Microbiol 1998;36:2645-2651.
- 554. Waner T, Harrus S, Jongejan F, et al. Significance of serological testing for ehrlichial diseases in dogs with special emphasis on the diagnosis of canine monocytic ehrlichiosis caused by *Ehrlichia canis*. Vet Parasitol 2001;95:1-15.

CHAPTER II

SCIENTIFIC AIMS

The Anaplasmataceae family includes some of the most important pathogens to both dogs and humans and some of them have been identified from ticks and dogs in North Africa. Moreover, both *I. ricinus* and *R. sanguineus* that transmit *A. phagocytophilum* and probably *A. platys*, respectively are present in Morocco. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* has an extended distribution through the Northern Hemispher. The disease caused by this bacterium, i.e., granulocytic anaplasmosis, is zoonotic and both the prevalence and incidence have dramatically increased in dogs and humans in the USA the past decades. Human cases have also been described in Europe and China, with high mortality rates in the latest country. In addition, life-threatening complications associated with high hospitalization rates and laboratory modifications are unspecific resembling other tick-borne diseases and diagnosis can be very challenging for both canine and human patients. *Anaplasma platys* is another widespread tick-borne pathogen, causing infectious cyclic thrombocytopenia in dogs, with non-specific clinical signs resembling those induced by *A. phagocytophilum* infection. Although considered as a pathogen specific of canine species for decades, this bacterium has been shown to infect other animal species and human, highlighting its zoonotic potential.

In Morocco, canine ownership has increased in the past years. In addition, stray dogs are still a major problem in the transmission of some zoonotic diseases such as rabies and leishmaniasis. Despite heavy tick infestation is very frequent even in Moroccan pet dogs and especially in rural areas, ectoparasites prevention is not regularly administered with only a few molecules commercialized, and very limited diagnostic tools of vector-borne diseases (VBDs) available. Although ticks are abundant in Morocco, no data are currently published on tick-borne infections in dogs such as *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys*. Therefore, epidemiological studies are crucial to determine if both bacteria are present in both canine and human populations Morocco.

The scientific aims of this study are:

- 1. To assess canine exposure to selected vector-borne pathogens in Morocco and to determine whether dogs are exposed more specifically to *Anaplama* spp.
- 2. To evaluate the occurrence of A. phagocytophilum and A. platys in dogs in Morocco.
- 3. To evaluate human exposure to A. phagocytophilum in Morocco.

CHAPTER III

EXPOSURE TO SELECTED VECTOR-BORNE PATHOGENS IN DOGS IN MOROCCO

DETECTION OF ANAPLASMA SPP. AND EHRLICHIA SPP. ANTIBODIES, AND DIROFILA IMMITIS ANTIGENS IN DOGS FROM SEVEN LOCATIONS OF MOROCCO

Sarah Elhamiani Khatat^{1,2}, Khalid Khallaayoune¹, Nabil Errafyk¹, Frans Van Gool³, Luc Duchateau⁴, Sylvie Daminet², Malika Kachani⁵, Hamid El Amri⁶, Rahma Azrib⁷, Hamid Sahibi¹

¹ Department of Pathology and Veterinary Public Health, Unit of Parasitology, Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II, Rabat, Morocco.

² Department of Small Animal Medicine, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ghent University, Merelbeke, Belgium.

³EXCELVET-Consultants, Rabat, Morocco.

⁴ Department of Comparative Physiology and Biometrics, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ghent University, Merelbeke, Belgium.

⁵ College of Veterinary Medicine, Western University of Health Sciences, Pomona, California, United States of America.

⁶ Laboratory of the Royal Gendarmery, Rabat, Morocco.

⁷ Department of Medecine, Surgery and Reproduction, Unit of Medecine and Surgery, Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II, Rabat, Morocco.

Adapted from: Elhamiani Khatat S, Khallaayoune K, Errafyk N, Van Gool F, Duchateau L, Daminet S, Kachani M, El Amri H, Azrib R, Sahibi H. Detection of *Anaplasma* spp. and *Ehrlichia* spp. antibodies, and *Dirofilaria immitis* antigens in dogs from seven locations of Morocco. Vet Parasitol 2017;239:86-89.

Summary

In Morocco no data has been published on canine exposure to *Anaplasma* spp., *Borrrelia burgdorferi*, and *Ehrlichia* spp., and only one report is available on the occurrence of *Dirofilaria immitis* in dogs. Therefore, the aim of this study was to collect current data on the canine exposure to these vector-borne pathogens (VBPs) in Morocco.

A total of 217 urban (n = 57), rural (n = 110) and military (n = 50) dogs from seven Moroccan locations were screened for *Anaplasma* spp., *B. burgdorferi* and *Ehrlichia* spp. antibodies and for *D. immitis* antigens using a commercial in-clinic ELISA test. Of these dogs, 182 (83.9%) tested positive for at least one pathogen and positivity to two or three pathogens was found in 14.3% and 2.3% of the dogs, respectively.

Ehrlichia spp. antibodies (34.6%) were the most frequently detected followed by *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies (16.6%) and D. immitis antigens (16.1%). None of the dogs was tested seropositive to *B. burgdorferi*. Statistically significant differences in seropositivity rates were found for *Ehrlichia* spp. and *D. immitis* in rural dogs especially those from the north central region (p < 0.001) but not for *Anaplasma* spp. No significant difference was found according to the health status of the dog.

This study demonstrates that Moroccan dogs are at high risk of acquiring a vectorborne infection.

Introduction

Canine vector-borne pathogens (VBPs) have been of increasing interest during the past decades because of their increased frequency and their threat to both canine and human health. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis* and *Dirofilaria immitis* are among the most important canine VBPs.¹ Anaplasma phagocytophilum, B. burgdorferi and D. immitis are recognized as zoonotic pathogens¹ while *E. canis* could have a zoonotic potential as human infection has been reported.² Dogs can play an important epidemiological role in some zoonotic VBPs as competent reservoir hosts, carriers of infected vectors in close contact to humans or effective sentinels to assess the risk for human infection.¹ Therefore, prevalence data in canine species can provide important information concerning the incidence, risk factors, source of exposure, and real-time risk of exposure for human infection. This information, gathered from a particular region is crucial for clinical diagnosis and for effective animal and public health interventions.³ Due to the complexity of vector-borne diseases (VBDs) diagnosis and control, as well as the possibility of subclinical infection in dogs that increases the risk of disease transmission,¹ epidemiological data aimed to improve knowledge within a region is fundamental.

In North Africa, only a few studies on *A. phagocytophilum*, *B. burgdorferi*, *E. canis* and *D. immitis* exposure and/or infection in dogs have been published⁴ and data on these infections is lacking in Morocco. Therefore, the aim of this study was to collect current data on the occurrence of *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp., *B. burgdorferi* and *D. immitis* exposure in dogs in Morocco using a commercial in-clinic ELISA test.

Materials and methods

Study population

From January 2014 to May 2015, urban and rural client-owned dogs and military dogs were sampled from seven locations of Morocco (Figure 1). Dogs sampled in Benslimane, Tangier, Oujda and Sahara were military dogs; those sampled in Sidi Kacem and Marrakech lived in rural areas and dogs from Rabat were urban client-owned dogs. Military and rural dogs were considered at high risk for acquiring VBPs because of their regular outdoor activities or permanent outdoor living, respectively, and their close contact with other domestic or feral animals. Clinical signs compatible with a tick-borne disease (TBD) (i.e., fever, inappetence or anorexia, lethargy or lameness without orthopedic origin) or heartworm disease (i.e., chronic exercise intolerance, weight loss and coughing) were recorded.

The study protocol was approved by the Ethical Committee for Biomedical Research of the Mohammed V University of Rabat (n°698; July 10, 2014) and the Ministry of Health of Morocco (n°965; June 12, 2014).

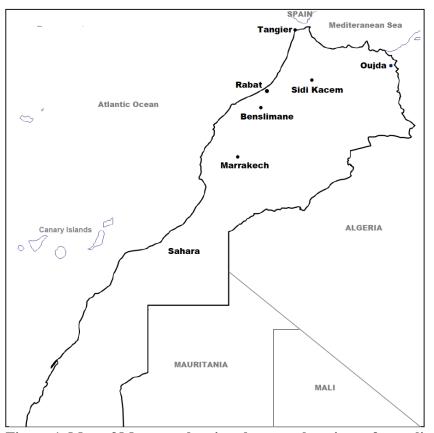


Figure 1. Map of Morocco showing the seven locations of sampling

Blood testing

For each dog, 8 ml of anticoagulated blood was collected and all samples were tested using an in-clinic enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) SNAP 4Dx Plus (IDEXX Laboratories, Inc., Westbrook, ME), according to the manufacturer's directions. The test is registered for the detection of *D. immitis* antigens, and specific antibodies against *Anaplasma phagocytophilum/A. platys*, *Ehrlichia canis*, *Ehrlichia ewingii* and *B. burgdorferi* in canine serum, plasma or anticoagulated whole blood. The sensitivity and specificity of the performed test were, respectively, 93.2% and 99.2% for *A. phagocytophilum*, 89.2% and 99.2% for *A. platys*, 96.7% and 98.8% for *B. burgdorferi* sensu lato, 97.8% and 92.3% for *E. canis*, and 98.9% and 99.3% for *D. immitis*, respectively.⁵

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was performed using SAS version 6.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Car, NC, USA). The exact logistic regression model was fitted to compare seroreactivity rates between regions, between rural, military and urban dogs and between sick and healthy dogs. The tests were performed at the 5% significance level.

Results and discussion

The dogs sampled included 57 urban, 110 rural and 50 military dogs. Age was available for 137 dogs and ranged from 3 months to 13 years old (mean age = 4.4 years old). Sex and breed were available only for 54 dogs from the western region and included German Shepherds (n = 27), Belgian Shepherds (n = 6), Retrievers (n = 6), Pointers (n = 4), Mixte breed dogs (n = 5) and one dog each of Damatian, Rottweiler, Akita Inu, English Setter and Poodle. In the same group, males were more frequently sampled (n = 42) than females (n = 12). The majority of the dogs sampled were apparently healthy (n = 163) and 54 displayed clinical signs compatible with a TBD or heartworm disease.

A total of 182 (83.9%) were positive for at least one pathogen. Table 1 summarizes the results of Anaplasma spp. and Ehlichia spp. exposure and D. immitis infection in dogs for the seven locations. These results are the first describing Anaplasma spp. and Ehrlichia spp. exposure in dogs in Morocco. The overall positivity rate to D. immitis antigens found in our study (16.1%) is quite similar to the prevalence found in a previous study in Rabat (12.3%).⁶ However, our positivity rate in Rabat is lower probably because our dogs from this city were client-owned urban dogs rather than stray or rural dogs as in the previous study, or to differences in D. immitis detection methods. Prevalence rates of canine D. immitis infection up to 17.6% have been recorded in other African and Mediterranean countries.⁷⁻⁹ None of the dogs tested seropositive to B. burgdorferi. Our results contrast with those published in Algeria where antibodies against A. phagocytophilum were the most prevalent (47.7%), followed by B. burgdorferi (37.6%) and E. canis (30.0%).⁴ These discrepancies could be due to differences in inclusion criteria and in ticks populations and density between countries or between regions within the same country. Indeed, B. burgdorferi is transmitted by Ixodes spp. ticks and the main vector in Europe is I. ricinus.⁴ This tick species has been identified in eastern Morocco and more specifically in the region of Taza, close to the Algerian boundaries,¹⁰⁻¹² but none of the dogs included in our study was sampled in this region. Therefore, the negative result for B. burgdorferi antibodies could be due to a selection bias. Table 2 summarizes the simultaneous exposure to two and three VBPs. Co-exposure was found in 14.3% of dogs and was more frequent in rural dogs (26.4%) (Table 3) especially those from the north central region (34.6%) (Table 2).

| Region/city | Anaplasma spp. (%) | | Ehrlichia spp. (%) | | D. immitis (%) | | Co-infections (%) | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|---------------|------------------------|------------|------------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|
| | Positive | Negative | Positive | Negative | Positive | Negative | Positive | Negative |
| Northern region (n=9) | 1 (11.1) | 8 (88.9) | 1 (11.1) | 8 (88.9) | 1 (11.1) | 8 (88.9) | 1 (11.1) | 8 (88.9) |
| Tangier (n=4) | 1 (25.0) | 3 (75.0) | 1 (25.0) | 3 (75.0) | 0 (0.0) | 4 (100.0) | 1 (25.0) | 3 (75.0) |
| Oujda (n=5) | 0 (0.0) | 5 (100.0) | 0 (0.0) | 5 (100.0) | 1 (20.0) | 4 (80.0) | 0 (0.0) | 5 (100.0) |
| Central northern region (n=78) | 16 (20.5) ^a | 62 (79.5) | 47 (60.3) ^a | 31 (39.7) | 28 (35.9) ^a | 50 (64.1) | 27 (34.6) | 51 (65.4) |
| Sidi Kacem (n=78) | 16 (20.5) | 62 (79.5) | 47 (60.3) | 31 (39.7) | 28 (35.9) | 50 (64.1) | 27 (34.6) | 51 (65.4) |
| Northwestern region (n=82) | 16 (19.5) ^a | 66 (80.5) | 19 (23.2) ^a | 63 (76.8) | 6 (7.3) ^a | 76 (92.7) | 8 (9.8) | 74 (90.2) |
| Rabat (n=57) | 10 (17.5) | 47 (82.5) | 10 (17.5) | 47 (82.5) | 1 (1.7) | 56 (98.2) | 4 (7.0) | 53 (93.0) |
| Benslimane (n=25) | 6 (24.0) | 19 (76.0) | 9 (36.0) | 16 (64.0) | 5 (20.0) | 20 (80.0) | 4 (16.0) | 21 (84.0) |
| Southern region (n=48) | 3 (6.2) ^b | 45 (93.8) | 8 (16.7) ^b | 40 (83.3) | 0 (0.0) ^b | 48 (100.0) | 0 (0.0) | 48 (100.0) |
| Marrakech (n=32) | 1 (3.1) | 31 (96.9) | 8 (25.0) | 24 (75.0) | 0 (0.0) | 32 (100.0) | 0 (0.0) | 32 (100.0) |
| Sahara (n=16) | 2 (12.5) | 14 (87.5) | 0 (0.0) | 16 (100.0) | 0 (0.0) | 16 (100.0) | 0 (0.0) | 16 (100.0) |
| Total (n=217) | 36 (16.6) | 181 (83.4) | 75 (34.6) | 142 (65.4) | 35 (16.1) | 182 (83.9) | 36 (16.6) | 181 (83.4) |
| Pvalue | 0.062 | | < 0.001 | | < 0.001 | | - | |

Table 1. Distribution of dogs positive to *Anaplasma* spp. and *Ehrlichia* spp. antibodies, *D. immitis* antigens and co-infections according to cities and regions.

The Pvalue refers to the difference between regions (excluding Northern regions as only few observatins were available). Regions means with different letters differ significantly at the 5% significance level. The bold values represent the regions.

| Table 2. Distribution of dogs positive to two or three pathogens (i.e., Anaplasma s | spp., | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Ehrlichia spp. and D. immitis) according to cities and regions. | | | | | | | | |

| Co-infections | Anaplasma- Ehrlichia (%) | Anaplasma- D. immitis (%) | Ehrlichia- D. immitis (%) | Anaplasma- Ehrlichia- D. immitis (%) |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| Northern region (n=9) | 1 (11.1) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) |
| Tangier (n=4) | 1 (25.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) |
| Oujda (n=5) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) |
| Central northern region (n=78) | 6 (7.7) | 0 (0.0) | 16 (20.5) | 5 (6.4) |
| Sidi Kacem (n=78) | 6 (7.7) | 0 (0.0) | 16 (20.5) | 5 (6.4) |
| Northwestern region (n=82) | 6 (7.3) | 1 (1.2) | 1 (1.2) | 0 (0.0) |
| Rabat (n=57) | 4 (7.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) |
| Benslimane (n=25) | 2 (8.0) | 1 (4.0) | 1 (4.0) | 0 (0.0) |
| Southern region (n=48) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) | 0 (0.0) |
| Total (n=217) | 13 (6.0) | 1 (0.5) | 17 (7.8) | 5 (2.3) |

The bold values represent the regions.

Table 3. Distribution of dogs positive to *Anaplasma* spp. and *Ehrlichia* spp. antibodies, *D. immitis* antigens and co-infections according to the health status and living conditions (i.e., rural, urban or military dogs).

| Groups | Anaplasma spp. (%) | Ehrlichia spp. (%) | D. immitis (%) | Co-infections (%) |
|----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|-------------------|
| Healthy dogs (n=163) | 25 (15.3) | 57 (35.0) | 30 (18.4) | 29 (17.8) |
| Rural dogs (n=106) | 17 (16.0) | 54 (50.9) | 28 (26.4) | 28 (26.4) |
| Urban dogs (n=32) | 5 (15.6) | 2 (6.2) | 1 (3.1) | 0 (0.0) |
| Military dogs (n=25) | 3 (12.0) | 1 (4.0) | 1 (4.0) | 1 (4.0) |
| Pvalue | 0.93 | <0.0001 | 0.02 | - |
| Sick dogs (n=54) | 11 (20.4) | 18 (33.3) | 5 (9.3) | 8 (14.8) |

The Pvalue refers to differences between dog origin within the healthy dogs group. The bold characters are for healthy and sick groups.

No significant differences in the positivity rates to Anaplasma spp. (p = 0.5484), Ehrlichia spp. (p = 0.3119) and D. *immitis* (p = 0.2891) was detected according to the age of dogs. The seropositivity rates were significantly higher in the north central region for both Ehrlichia spp. and D. immitis in comparison to the other regions, but not for Anaplasma spp. (Table 1). Similarly, seropositivity rates in rural dogs were significantly higher when compared to military and urban dogs for *Ehrlichia* spp. and D. immitis but not for Anaplasma spp. (Table 3). This difference could be explained by the statistically significant difference found between regions with the highest prevalence rates recorded in the central northern region where all dogs sampled were rural dogs. Other studies showed higher positivity rates for VBPs in stray and rural dogs,^{4,8,9} probably because outdoor living increases the risk of contact with infected vectors. No statistically significant differences were found in the seropositivity rates between dogs displaying clinical signs compatible with a TBD or heartworm and those apparently healthy for Anaplasma spp. (p = 0.4025), Ehrlichia spp. (p = 0.8702) and D. immitis (p = 0.1372). Some reports described significant differences in seropositivity to E. can is according to the health status of the dog and found positive correlation between seropositivity to this bacterium and the presence of clinical signs^{4,8} while no correlation with the seropositivity to A. phagocytophilum or D. *immitis* was detected.⁸

Serological-based surveys on Anaplasma spp. and Ehrlichia spp. have two main limitations. The first is that a positive result can be indicative of either an ongoing infection or a previous exposure to the pathogen.¹³ The second limitation is the existence of cross-reaction between *Ehrlichia* species (i.e., E. canis, E. ewingii and E. chaffeensis) and between Anaplasma species (i.e., A. phagocytophilum and A. platys).⁵ Ehrlichia chaffeensis and E. ewingii and their respective diseases have been described almost exclusively in some regions of the United States where Amblyomma americanum is the only proven competent vector.¹⁴ Consequently, the positivity rates to *Ehrlichia* spp. obtained in our study are likely due to the presence of E. canis antibodies. Its main vector, Rhipicephalus sanguineus,¹⁵ is present in Morocco¹² and canine exposure to this bacterium has been reported in North African and Mediterranean countries with seroprevalence rates up to 46%.^{4,8,16,17} Similarly, the seropositivity to Anaplasma spp. in this study is likely to reflect exposure to A. platys. Indeed, this bacterium is also most likely transmitted by Rhipicephalus sanguineus and has been described in African countries with prevalence rates up to 80.8%.^{15,18,19} Additionnaly, *B. burgdorferi* and *A. phagocytophilum* seem to be transmitted by the same *Ixodes* spp. ticks,⁸ hence the lack of detection of *B. burgdorferi* antibodies could indicate that Anaplasma spp-seropositive dogs in this study might have been exposed to A. platys. Finally, only a few prevalence surveys on A. phagocytophilum are available from African countries with prevalence rates up to 4% in Africa and the Mediterranean area.^{4,9,16,20-25}

Conclusions

This study demonstrates the canine exposure to *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp. and *D. immitis* in military, rural and urban dogs in seven Moroccan locations with high prevalence rates. Rural dogs, especially from the north central region, were significantly more exposed to *Ehrlichia* spp. and *D. immitis*. This study also described the occurrence of simultaneous exposure to two and three VBPs with *Ehlichia* spp. and *D. immitis* co-exposure the mot frequently detected. These findings highlight the importance of regular preventive measures against arthropod vectors especially in dogs with free access to the outdoors. Veterinarians need to include these diseases in their differential diagnosis and to recommend the use of regular and adapted prophylactic measures to prevent disease transmission. Finally, this study highights the need for large scale prevalence studies to determine the occurrence of these VBPs in all Moroccan regions and associated risk factors. Molecular-based surveys are also mandatory to identify the *Anaplasma* and *Ehrlichia* species circulating in the canine population in Morocco.

Acknowledgements

We express our gratitude to Dr. Nourredine Tazi and Dr. Ikhlass El Berbri for their contribution to the dog's sampling. We are also grateful to Mrs. Rabia El Guennouni and Mr. Intissar Boukhari for their help in blood testing.

References

- 1. Day MJ. One health: the importance of companion animal. Parasit Vectors 2011;4:49.
- 2. Perez M, Bodor M, Zhang M, et al. Human infection with *Ehrlichia canis* accompanied by clinical signs in Venezuela. Ann NY Acad Sci 2006;1078:110-117.
- Qurollo AB, Chandrashekar R, Hegarty BC, et al. A serological survey of tick-borne pathogens in dogs in North America and the Caribbean as assessed by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *A. platys, Ehrlichia canis, E. chaffeensis, E. ewingii*, and *Borrelia burgdorferi* species-specific peptides. Infect Ecol Epidemiol 2014;4.
- 4. Azzag N, Petit E, Gandoin C, et al. Prevalence of select vector-borne pathogens in stray and client-owned dogs from Algiers. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2015;38:1-7.
- Stillman BA, Monn M, Liu J, et al. Performance of a commercially available in-clinic ELISA for detection of antibodies against *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Anaplasma platys*, *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Ehrlichia ewingii* and *Dirofilaria immitis* antigen in dogs. J Am Vet Med Assoc 2014;245:80-86.
- Pandey VS, Dakkak A, Elmamoune M. Parasites of stray dogs in the Rabat region, Morocco. Ann Trop Med Parasitol 1987;81:53-55.
- 7. Davoust B, Normand T, Bourry O, et al. Epidemiological survey on gastro-intestinal and bloodborne helminths of dogs in northeast Gabon. Onderstepoort J Vet Res 2008;75:359-364.
- 8. Miró G, Montoya A, Roura X, et al. Seropositivity rates for agents of canine vector-borne diseases in Spain: a multicentre study. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:117.
- 9. Vascellari M, Ravagnan S, Carminato A, et al. Exposure to vector-borne pathogens in candidate blood donor and free-roaming dogs of northeast Italy. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:369.
- Sarih M, Jouda F, Gern L, Postic D. First isolation of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato from *Ixodes ricinus* Ticks in Morocco. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2003;3:133-139.
- 11. Sarih M, M'Ghirbi Y, Bouattour A, et al. Detection and identification of *Ehrlichia* spp. in ticks collected in Tunisia and Morocco. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:1127-1132.
- Seng P, Sarih M, Socolovschi C, et al. Detection of Anaplasmataceae in ticks collected in Morocco. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15 Suppl 2:86-87.
- Allison RW, Little SE. Diagnosis of rickettsial diseases in dogs and cats. Vet Clin Pathol 2013;42:127-144.
- Ndip LM, Ndip RN, Esemu SN, et al. Predominance of *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* in *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* ticks from a kennel-confined dogs in Limbe, Cameroon. Exp Appl Acarol 2010; 50:163-168.

- 15. Dahmani M, Loudahi A, Mediannikov O, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* in dogs from Kabylie, Algeria. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:198-203.
- 16. M'ghirbi Y, Ghorbel A, Amouri M, et al. Clinical, serological, and molecular evidence of ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis in dogs in Tunisia. Parasitol Res 2009;104:767-774.
- 17. Pennisi MG, Caprì A, Solano-Gallego L, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against *Rickettsia conorii, Babesia canis, Ehrlichia canis,* and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* antigens in dogs from the Stretto di Messina area (Italy). Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2012;3:314-317.
- Davoust B, Mediannikov O, Chene J, et al. Study of ehrlichiosis in kennel dogs under treatment and prevention during seven months in Dakar (Senegal). Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2013;36:613-617.
- 19. Matei IA, D'Amico G, Yao PK, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* infection in freeroaming dogs and ticks from Kenya and Ivory Coast. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:157.
- 20. Santos AS, Alexandre N, Sousa R, et al. Serological and molecular survey of *Anaplasma* species infection in dogs with suspected tickborne disease in Portugal. Vet Rec 2009;164:168-171.
- 21. Ebani VV, Bertelloni F, Turchi B, Cerri D. Serological and molecular survey of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Italian hunting dogs. Ann Agric Environ Med 2013;20:289-92.
- 22. Clarke LL, Ballweber LR, Allen K, et al. Prevalence of select vector-borne disease agents in owned dogs of Ghana. J S Afr Vet Assoc 2014;85:1-2.
- 23. Aquino LC, Kamani J, Haruna JM, et al. Analysis of risk factors and prevalence of haemoplasma infection in dogs. Vet Parasitol 2016;22:111-117.
- 24. Cetinkaya H, Matur E, Akyazi I, et al. Serological and molecular investigation of *Ehrlichia* spp. and *Anaplasma* spp. in ticks and blood of dogs, in the Thrace Region of Turkey. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:706-714.
- Kolo AO, Sibeko-Matjila KP, Maina AN, et al. Molecular detection of zoonotic Rickettsiae and *Anaplasma* spp. in domestic dogs and their ectoparasites in Bushbuckridge, South Africa. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2016;16:245-252.

CHAPTER IV

EVALUATION OF *ANAPLASMA* **SPP. EXPOSURE AND INFECTION IN DOGS AND HUMANS IN MOROCCO**

ANAPLASMA SPP. IN DOGS AND OWNERS IN NORTHWESTERN MOROCCO

Sarah Elhamiani Khatat^{1,2}, Sylvie Daminet², Christian Leutenegger³, Malika Kachani⁴, Luc Duchateau⁵, Hamid El Amri⁶, Mony Hing⁷, Rahma Azrib⁸, Hamid Sahib¹

¹ Department of Pathology and Veterinary Public Health, Unit of Parasitology, Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II, Rabat, Morocco.

² Department of Small Animal Medicine, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ghent University, Merelbeke, Belgium.

³ Molecular Diagnostics IDEXX Laboratories, Inc. West Sacramento, California, United States of America.

⁴ College of Veterinary Medicine, Western University of Health Sciences, Pomona, California, United States of America.

⁵ Department of Comparative Physiology and Biometrics, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ghent University, Merelbeke, Belgium.

⁶ Laboratoire de la Gendarmerie Royale, Rabat, Morocco.

⁷ National Reference Laboratory for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, Laboratory of Clinical Biology, Queen Astrid Military Hospital, Brussels, Belgium.

⁸ Department of Medecine, Surgery and Reproduction, Unit of Medecine and Surgery, Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II, Rabat, Morocco.

Adapted from: Elhamiani Khatat S, Daminet S, Leutenegger C, Kachani M, Duchateau L, El Amri H, Hing M, Azrib R, Sahib H. *Anaplasma* spp. in dogs in northwestern Morocco. Parasit Vectors 2017;10:202.

Summary

Anaplasma phagocytophilum is an emerging tick-borne zoonotic pathogen of increased interest worldwide which has been detected in northern Africa. Anaplasma platys is also present in this region and could possibly have a zoonotic potential. However, only one recent article reports on the human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* in Morocco and no data are available on canine exposure to both bacteria. Therefore, we conducted a cross-sectional epidemiological study aiming to assess both canine and human exposure to *Anaplasma* spp. in Morocco. A total of 425 dogs (95 urban, 160 rural and 175 working dogs) and 11 dog owners were sampled from four cities of Morocco. Canine blood samples were screened for *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies by an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and for *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* DNA by a real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) targeting the *msp2* and *groEL* genes, respectively. Human sera were tested for specific *A. phagocytophilum* immunoglobulin G (IgG) using a commercial immunofluorescence assay (IFA) kit.

Anaplasma spp. antibodies and *A. platys* DNA were detected in 21.9 and 7.5% of the dogs, respectively. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* DNA was not amplified. *Anaplasma platys* DNA was significantly more frequently amplified for working dogs. No statistically significant differences in the prevalence of *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies or *A. platys* DNA detection were observed between sexes, age classes or in relation to exposure to ticks. A total of 348 *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (sensu lato) ticks were removed from 35 urban and working dogs. The majority of dog owners (7/10) were seroreactive to *A. phagoyctophilum* IgG (one sample was excluded because of hemolysis).

This study demonstrates the occurrence of *Anaplasma* spp. exposure and *A. platys* infection in dogs, and *A. phagocytophilum* exposure in humans in Morocco.

Introduction

Ticks are considered to transmit the widest number of pathogens when compared to other arthropod vectors, and several of these pathogens are of veterinary and medical importance.¹ Some tick-borne pathogens (TBPs) are considered to be emerging because of several factors that play a crucial role in ticks multiplication and expansion, increasing the likelihood of ticks feeding on humans and animal and transmitting pathogens.² Among these emerging TBPs of zoonotic relevance, Anaplasma phagocytophilum (formerly Ehrlichia equi, Ehrlichia phagocytophila, and the human granulocytic ehrlichiosis agent) is an obligate intracellular gram negative bacterium belonging to the family of Anaplasmataceae.³ This bacterium causes a widespread disease called granulocytic anaplasmosis and is commonly transmitted by *Ixodes* tick species.⁴ In the past decades, both human and animal exposure to A. phagocytophilum has continuously increased in the USA, Europe and some Asian countries.⁴⁻⁸ The clinical presentation of human granulocytic anaplasmosis is a non-specific flulike disease potentially fatal with severe complications, high hospitalization rates and difficult diagnosis.⁷⁻⁹ Dogs are mostly recognized as incidental hosts and their role as potential reservoir hosts for A. phagocytophilum infection is still controversial.¹⁰ However, some authors suggested that dogs may be considered as potential reservoir hosts for A. phagocytophilum in some regions, especially in urban environments,¹¹⁻¹⁴ or at least as effective sentinels to assess the risk for human infection.¹⁵

Anaplasma platys is another species of *Anaplasma* known to infect dogs, which are considered the main reservoir hosts. This bacterium is most likely transmitted by *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (s.l.) ticks and is responsible for infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia.¹⁶ *Anaplasma platys* is not considered as zoonotic although infection of other domestic animals¹⁷⁻²² and humans²³⁻²⁷ have been reported. Both *A. platys* and *A. phagocytophilum* infections remain usually asymptomatic or subclinical in dogs. When present, clinical signs are unspecific and include fever, lethargy, anorexia, lymphadenopathy, lameness, thrombocytopenia and anemia.^{15,16}

In Morocco, both *Ixodes ricinus* and *R. sanguineus* (s.l.) ticks are present.²⁸⁻³⁰ In addition, *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* were reported in domestic animals and ticks in North Africa.³¹⁻³⁶ However, only one recent report described human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* in Morroco³⁷ and no data are available on the canine exposure to both *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys*. Therefore, the aim of this study was to assess the occurrence of *Anaplasma* spp. infection and/or exposure in different groups of dogs and dog owners in Morocco.

Material and methods

Dogs

Between December 2013 and May 2015, 425 dogs were sampled from four Moroccan cities (Figure 1) and divided in 3 groups. The first group (Group I) included 95 clientowned dogs sampled in the Veterinary Teaching Hospital (VTH) of the Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II, Rabat (34°01'31"N, 06°50'10"W). These dogs were clustered in two subgroups: Group Ia included 63 dogs without clinical signs compatible with tick-borne diseases (TBDs) and brought to the VTH for vaccination, surgery or post-surgical follow up, dermatology, cardiology or orthopedic consultations, and Group Ib included 32 dogs with clinical signs compatible with TBDs (fever, inappetence or anorexia, lethargy and lameness without orthopedic origin). For each dog of the first group, an epidemiological questionnaire was completed describing the date of sample collection, age, sex, breed, outdoor activities, ectoparasite prophylaxis, exposure to ticks, travel history outside Morocco during the previous year, vaccination status, presenting complains and physical examination. The second group (Group II) was composed of 160 client-owned dogs from the rural region of Sidi Kacem (34°13'00"N, 5°42'00"W). These dogs behave like stray or roaming dogs because of their outdoor living, close contact with other domestic of feral animals, and low health and or wellness care (absence or irregular vaccination and/or, parasite prevention). Information available on this group included age, sex and breed. The third group (Group III) contained 170 military and gendarmerie working dogs sampled in the first kennel of the Royal Army Forces of Benslimane (33°36'44"N, 7°07'16"W) and the kennel of the Royal Gendarmerie of Temara (33°55'36"N, 6°54'44"W), respectively. Data available on these dogs were age, sex and breed. Groups II and III included apparently healthy dogs considered at high risk for acquiring TBPs because of their regular outdoor activities or permanent outdoor living conditions and irregular ectoparasites prevention. All owners gave their consent for enrollment of their dogs.

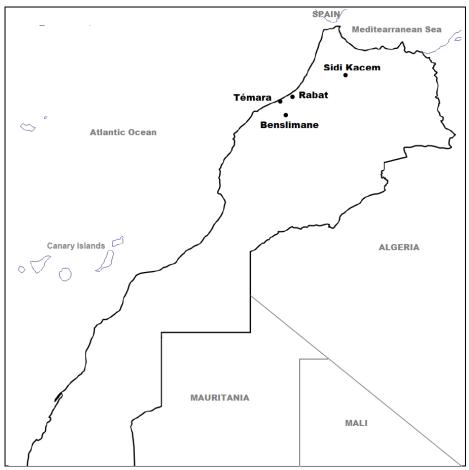


Figure 1. Map of Morocco showing the geographic location of the four cities of sampling

For each dog, 8 ml of non-anticoagulated blood were collected from the cephalic vein. Blood was centrifuged at 3,500 rpm for 10 min and serum was separated, aliquoted and frozen at -32°C. In addition, 2 ml of whole blood collected on ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid (EDTA) anticoagulant tubes were sampled and frozen at -32°C. The frozen sera and whole blood samples were sent to the IDEXX Laboratories (Sacramento, California, USA) to be tested for for anti-*Anaplasma* spp. antibodies and for *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* using PCR.

Ticks

A total of 348 ticks were removed manually from the dogs included in this study, identified (species, stage, sex)³⁸ and conserved in 70% ethanol at 4 °C until shipment to the IDEXX Laboratories (Sacramento, California, USA).

Owners

All dog owners of the dogs included in Group I were contacted by phone to be sampled for *A. phagocytophilum* antibodies testing. Only eleven accepted to be enrolled in this study and signed an informed consent forms. An epidemiological report was completed for each owner. Age, city of residence, occupational activity, travels outside Morocco during the previous year, outdoor activities, tick exposure and potential contact with dogs and other domestic animals (cats, horses and ruminants) were recorded.

For each patient, 5 ml of non-anticoagulated blood were collected from the elbow groove vein. Blood samples were centrifuged at 3,500 rpm for 10 min and serum was separated, aliquoted and stored at -32 °C until shipment to the National Reference Laboratory for *A. phagocytophilum* in Queen Astrid Hospital (Brussels, Belgium).

Laboratory procedures

Serological analysis of canine sera (ELISA)

The *Anaplasma* spp. antibody ELISA utilizes orthogonal assay protocols to screen and subsequently confirm the presence of *Anaplasma* antibodies in a serum or plasma sample. The protocols employ microwells coated with *Anaplasma* p44 peptide and *Anaplasma* peptide conjugated to Horseradish peroxydase (HRPO).³⁹ Briefly, 50 μ l of sample was added to a microtiter plate well, followed by 50 μ l of conjugate. The plate was incubated for 30 min at room temperature. Wells were washed 5 times with a PBS Tween wash solution, followed by adding 100 μ l of TMB substrate and a 15-min incubation step at room temperature. The assay is stopped by adding a stop solution and read at 650 nm using a plate reader spectrophotometer. Positive and negative controls were run in parallel on each plate.

DNA extraction and real-time PCR assays on dogs

EDTA blood samples were used to extract total nucleic acid following a protocol adapted from Boom et al.⁴⁰ Briefly, 180 µl whole blood were resuspended in a lysis solution and incubated for 10 min. Lysates were extracted using Whatman binding plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Whatham, Massachusetts, USA) on a Corbett X-Tractor platform (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA). Nucleic acids were eluted into 150 µl of PCR-grade nuclease-free water (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Whatham, Massachusetts, USA) and 5 μ l amplified in subsequent real-time PCR reactions. Analysis was performed on a Roche LightCycler 480 (Roche Applied Science, Indianapolis, USA) and raw data analyzed using the second derivative maximum method with the 'high sensitivity' setting to generate crossing points (CP values).

Whole blood samples for PCR testing were available only for 362 dogs including 59 from Group Ia, 32 from Group Ib, 104 from Group II and 167 from Group III. *Anaplasma* spp. real-time PCR assays were used from a commercial source (IDEXX Laboratories, Inc., Westbrook, Maine, USA; test code 2824 RealPCRTM test). Real-time PCR tests were designed using a commercially available software (PrimerExpress 3.0) according to the published guidelines.⁴¹ The test was adapted from previous publications^{42,43} and consisted of a mixture of two strain specific tests including *A. phagocytophilum (msp2 gene, GenBank accession no. DQ519570) and A. platys (groEL gene, AY848753).* PCR tests positive for *Anaplasma* spp. were then screened at the species level using the individual strain specific real-time PCR tests. The internal sample control real-time PCR test was designed using *18S rRNA* (DQ287955). All assays were designed and validated according to industry standards (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Whatham, Massachusetts, USA; User Bulletin #3).

Real-time PCR was run with 6 quality controls including (1) PCR positive controls (quantitatively); (2) PCR negative controls; (3) negative extraction controls; (4) DNA pre-analytical quality control targeting canine *18S rRNA* gene complex; (5) environmental contamination monitoring control; and (6) spike-in internal positive control. These controls assessed the functionality of the PCR test protocols for the (1), absence of contamination in the reagents (2) and laboratory (5), absence of crosscontamination during the extraction process (3), quality and integrity of the DNA as a measure of sample quality (4), reverse transcription protocol (5 and 6) and absence of PCR inhibitory substances as a carryover from the sample matrix (6).

Real-time PCR tests were validated analytically and clinically. For the analytical validation, each assay had to pass 6 validation criteria including amplification efficiency, linearity, reproducibility intra-run, reproducibility inter-run, r-square value and signal to noise ratio of the fluorescent signal. Clinical samples were used to repeat standard curves and to confirm PCR positive results by sequencing with outside flanking primers. A total of 4,125 clinical samples were used during the clinical validation of this panel and test results were compared to either alternative PCR test systems or immunofluorescence assay (IFA) methods.

Serological analysis of human sera (IFA)

Human sera were screened for A. phagocytophilum immunoglobulin G (IgG) antibodies by a semi-quantitative indirect IFA using a commercial kit (Focus Diagnostics, Cypress, California, USA) containing HL60 cells infected with a human isolate of A. phagocytophilum HGE-1 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 5 µl of serum were diluted in 315 µl of phosphate-buffer saline (PBS) (0.01 M, pH = 7.2 ± 0.1). The positive IgG control was also diluted in PBS to obtain five dilutions 1:2, 1:4, 1:8, 1:16 and 1:32. Then, 25 µl of diluted sera were added in the slides wells (one well per sample). The first line of the first slide contained the négative IgG control and the five dilutions of the positive IgG control. The slides were incubated in humid chambers between 35.0 and 36.5 °C for 30 min. After the incubation period, the slides were washed with PBS solution followed by distilled water to eliminated non-conjugated serum antibodies. In the second step, 25 μ l of conjugate containing human IgG combined with fluorescein were added in each well. The slides were incubated again then washed in the same formerly described conditions. Finally, the slides were dried, coverslipped using mounting medium and observed with ultraviolet light microscopy (×400). The titer was defined as the reciprocal of the highest dilutions of serum with the homogeneously stained cytoplasmic morulae. A serum titer of \geq 1:64 was considered as positive for A. phagocytophilum IgG according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples that were positive at the first dilution of 1:64 under ultraviolet light microscopy ($\times 400$) were then further diluted to 1:128 and those remaining positive at the second dilution were then tittered at 1:256 and 1:512.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SAS version 6.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Car, NC, USA). The exact logistic regression model was fitted to compare seroreactivity and PCR positive rates between the different groups, age classes, sex and in relation to the presence of ticks. First, global hypothesis tests were performed, comparing all dog groups, based on the likelihood ratio test (LRT). With an overall significant test, groups were compared pairwise using Bonferroni's multiple comparisons technique at a global significance level of 5%. Significant pairwise comparisons were summarized in terms of the odds ratio (OR) with a 95% confidence interval (95% CI). Other risk factors (sex, tick exposure, age groups) were analysed in the same way.

Results

Serological and molecular screening of dogs

Off the 425 dogs, breed, sex and age were available for 299 (70.3%), 398 (93.6%) and 402 (94.6%) dogs, respectively. Dogs belonged to 23 different breeds with German and Belgian Shepherds (n = 122), Retrievers (n = 58), Saluki (n = 36), Cocker and English Spaniel (n = 27), mixed breeds (n = 19) and Pointers dogs (n = 10) the most frequently found during sampling. Other breds included Poodles (n = 4), Rottweilers (n = 3), Pekingese (n = 3), Aidi (n = 2), Border Collie (n = 2), Pitbull (n = 2), Setters dogs (n = 2) and one dog for Drahthar, Saint Hubert, German Mastiff, Argentin dogo, Dalmatian, Akita Inu, Husky, Havanese and Chihuahua. The age of dogs ranged from 3 months to 14 years-old (mean age 3.2 years-old) and males (n = 257) were more frequently sampled than females (n = 141). Previous ticks bites were available for 226 dogs (53.2%) from Group I (n = 40) and Group III (n = 18).

Table 1 summarises the results of *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies and *A. platys* DNA detection in the three groups of dogs. There were significant differences between dog groups ($\chi 2 = 10.28$, df = 3, P = 0.016). Group Ia differed significantly from Group II (OR = 0.32, 95% CI: 0.14-0.75, P = 0.009). None of the 362 dogs screened for *A. phagocytophilum* DNA by PCR was found positive whereas 7.5% (95% CI: 0.05-0.11) of them were positive to *A. platys* (Table 1). There were globally significant differences between dog groups ($\chi 2 = 9.44$, df = 3, P = 0.024). The highest prevalence of *A. platys* DNA detection was found in Group III but none of the pairwise comparisons was significant (Table 1). Table 2 summarizes the prevalence of positivity rates to *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies and *A. platys* DNA detection according to sex, age and exposure to ticks. No statistically significant differences were found in seropositivity rates for the sex ($\chi 2 = 2.161$, df= 1, P= 0.142), the age groups ($\chi 2 = 1.75$, df= 2, P = 0.416) and exposure to ticks ($\chi 2 = 0.83$, df = 1, P = 0.363). Similarly, no statistically significant differences were found in positivity rates to *A. platys* DNA detection for sex ($\chi 2 = 2.88$, df = 1, P=0.090), the exposure to ticks and age groups ($\chi 2 = 5.05$, df = 2, P = 0.080).

| Groups | Anaplasma spp. antibodies (%) (n=425) | | A. platys (%) (n=362) | | | Anaplasma spp. and A. platys (%) (n=362) |
|-------------------|--|------------|--------------------------|------------|---------------|--|
| | Positive | Negative | Positive | Negative | Not available | |
| Group I (n=95) | 11 (2.6) | 84 (19.8) | 3 (0.8) | 88 (24.3) | 4 | 1 (0.3) |
| Group Ia (n=63) | 7 (1.6) | 56 (13.2) | 2 (0.5) | 57 (15.7) | 4 | 0 (0.0) |
| Group Ib (n=32) | 4 (0.9) | 28 (6.6) | 1 (0.3) | 31 (8.6) | 0 | 1 (0.3) |
| Group II (n=160) | 45 (10.6) | 115 (27.1) | 4 (1.1) | 100 (27.6) | 56 | 1 (0.3) |
| Group III (n=170) | 37 (8.7) | 133 (31.3) | 20 (5.5) | 147 (40.7) | 3 | 9 (2.3) |
| Total (n=425) | 93 (21.9) | 332 (78.1) | 27 (7.5) | 335 (92.5) | 63 | 11 (3.0) |

| Table 1. Number and prevalence (%) of positive and negative dogs to Anaplasma spp. antibodies (by |
|--|
| ELISA) and A. platys DNA detection (by PCR), and positive to both methods in the different groups. |

Group I: urban client-owned dogs sample in the VTH; group Ia: urban client-owned dogs sample in the VTH without clinical signs compatible with a TBD; group Ib : urban client-owned dogs sample in the VTH with clinical signs compatible with a TBD; group II: rural client-owned dogs; group III: military and Gendarmerie working dogs.

Table 2. Number and prevalence (%) of positive and negative dogs to *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies (by ELISA) and *A. platys* DNA detection (by PCR) according to the sex, the age and the exposure to ticks.

| Variables | | Anaplasma spp. antibodies (%) (n=425) | | | A. platys DNA (%) (n=362) | | |
|----------------|--------|--|------------|---------------|------------------------------|------------|---------------|
| | | Positive | Negative | Not available | Positive | Negative | Not available |
| Sex | Male | 59 (13.9) | 198 (46.6) | - | 20 (5.5) | 187 (51.7) | 50 |
| | Female | 23 (5.4) | 118 (27.8) | - | 5 (1.4) | 123 (34.0) | 13 |
| Age | <1 | 9 (2.1) | 52 (12.2) | - | 3 (0.8) | 52 (14.4) | 6 |
| (years-old) | 1-5 | 56 (13.2) | 194 (45.6) | - | 21 (5.8) | 183 (50.6) | 46 |
| | ≥6 | 13 (3.0) | 61 (14.3) | - | 2 (0.5) | 62 (17.1) | 10 |
| Ticks exposure | | 40 (9.4) | 46 (10.8) | 9 | 40 (11.0) | 46 (12.7) | 9 |

Identification of ticks

A total of 348 ticks were removed from 35 dogs and all belonged to *R. sanguineus* (s.l.). Two ticks were nymphs, 284 adult females and 63 adult males. The number of ticks removed from one dog ranged from 1 to 54 (mean number 9.9) (Figure 2). Among the 35 infested dogs, 15 belonged to Group I, 2 to Group II and 18 to Group III. The number of dogs infested by ticks and positive to *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies only, to *A. platys* DNA only or to both tests were eight, three and one, respectively. The only dog infested by ticks and positive for both tests was from Group II.



Figure 2. Rhipicephalus sanguineus (s.l.) engorged ticks attached to the ear of a dog from group I.

Serological screening of owners

Among the eleven dog owners sampled, three were women and eight were men. Ages ranged from 23 to 66 years, with an average of 51 years. Most lived in Rabat (9/11) and two in surrounding cities (Salé and Arjat). Seven mentioned having leisure outdoor activities in forest or rural areas and one farmer lived in a rural area (Arjat). Five owners reported to have contact with other domestic animals including cats, horses and ruminants. Five owners had additional dogs. Only one owner reported previous exposure to ticks and two traveled to foreign countries during the year.

One sample was excluded due to hemolysis that could interfere with the results according to the manufacturer's instructions. Seven out of the ten remaining sera were positive to *A. phagocytophilum* IgG at the first dilution (1:64) (Figure 3). Among the seropositive owners, three were women and four were men. Four reported regular outdoor activities in the forests of Rabat or the vicinity (Maamora forest, Khémisset, Bouznika and Benslimane). Four owners mentioned to have contact with domestic animals other than dogs. None of the seropositive owners had a travel history outside Morocco during the previous year and two mentioned to be regular blood donors. When further diluted, six, two and one samples remained positive at 1:128, 1:256 and 1:512, respectively (Figure 3). The only sample that remained positive at 1:512 was from a farmer.

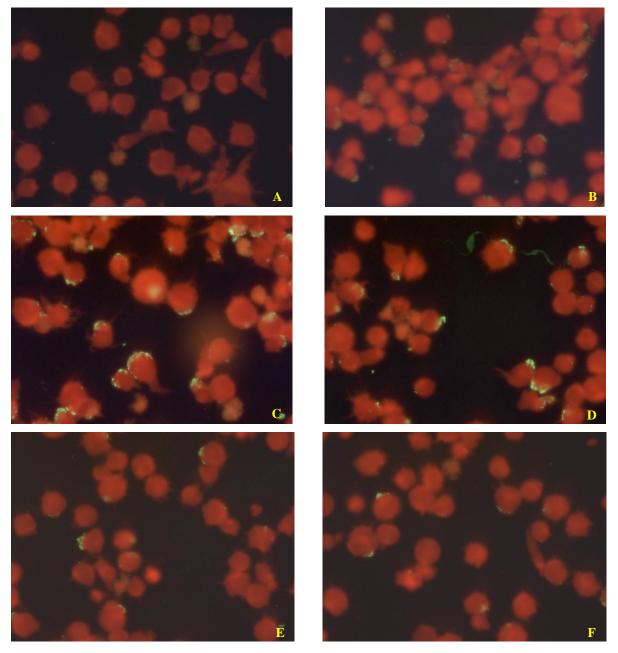


Figure 3. Photographs of ultraviolet light microscopy (×400) of *A. phagocytophilum* IgG semiquantitative IFA measurement using a commercial kit (Focus Diagnostics, Cypress, California, USA) showing a negative control (A), a positive control (B) and four positive dilutions i.e., 1:64 (C), 1:128 (D); 1:256 (E) and 1:516 (F). The positivity is set on the observation of green morulae surrounding the cell's cytoplasmic membrane.

DISCUSSION

To our knowledge, the results of this cross-sectional study demonstrated for the first time in Morocco a prevalence of 21.9 and 7.5% of Anaplasma spp. antibodies and A. platys DNA detection in dogs, respectively. It also showed that 7 among 10 dog owners were seroreactive to A. phagocytophilum IgG. Currently the two most important Anaplasma species known to infect dogs and humans are A. platys and A. phagocytophilum.²⁷ Infection by both species have already been detected in dogs and ticks in North Africa.^{28,31,33-36} Our study detected A. platys infection in dogs with a prevalence similar to what has been published in Algeria (5.4%).³⁶ Although not statistically significant, working dogs tested more frequently positive to A. platys DNA than rural dogs. Therefore, although considered as a major risk factor for acquiring tick-borne infections,⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ outdoor access alone cannot explain the high prevalence in working dogs. Similarly, a study on Senegalese gendarmerie and private kennel living dogs showed a high prevalence of E. canis infection,⁴⁷ another R. sanguineus (s.l.)-transmitted pathogen, probably because this tick species can complete its entire life-cycle either indoor (in houses, kennels and veterinary hospitals where it readily colonizes the infrastructure) or in outdoor environments (peri-urban and rural).^{25,47,48} Other factors explaining the higher prevalence in working dogs in our study can be the absence of efficient ectoparasite control programs in this group or the access to areas with higher burdens of A. platys.

Our study detected both Anaplasma spp. antibodies and A. platys DNA in dogs but failed to identify A. phagocytophilum DNA. This discrepancy has also been reported in other African, European and American studies.^{31,49-51} Cross-reactivity between Anaplasma spp. pathogens, especially between A. phagocytophilum and A. platys, has been reported to occur. Therefore, in regions where both pathogens could co-exist, seropositivity may not enable the distinction at the species level.¹⁶ In areas where *Ixodes* spp. ticks are less prevalent or absent, a positive *Anaplasma* spp. serology could be the result of A. platys exposure.⁵² Consequently, the fact that we detected exclusively R. sanguineus (s.l.) ticks infesting dogs can be supportive of the potential predominance of A. platys in Morocco. However, *Ixodes ricinus* ticks are also present in this country²⁸⁻³⁰ and could have infected these dogs previously. On the other hand, infection with A. phagocytophilum in Rhipicephalus spp. has also been reported especially in the Mediterranean countries, and these ticks have been suggested as potential competent vectors of this bacterium in this part of the world.^{33,53-56} In a study from Jordan, a high prevalence of A. phagocytophilum infection (39.5%) was found in dogs and the most abundant tick species removed was R. sanguineus (s.l.) (95.1%) followed by two Haemaphysalis species, whereas no I. ricinus was collected from these dogs. The authors suggested that the ticks found in their study could be a possible competent vector of the pathogens detected including A. phagocytophilum.⁵⁷

Further studies are necessary to evaluate the ability of *Rhipicephalus* ticks in transmitting *A. phagocytophilum*.

In regions where both A. platys and A. phagocytophilum are present, a PCR-based assay is required to determine which of the two agents is responsible for positive serological test.¹⁶ Nevertheless, false-negative results are reported to occur with PCR, mainly due to low template concentrations,^{27,58} the short duration of *A. phagocytophilum* bacteremia in dogs and the variations in the levels of circulating bacteria.^{15,58} In addition, selective amplification of the predominant organism can occur in patients coinfected with genetically similar organisms^{27,59} such as A. phagocytophilum and A. platys, which could be the case in our study. As DNA-based diagnostic tool enables the early detection of the infection by A. phagocytophilum, the bacteriemia is of short duration and is usually present transiently during the acute phase of the infection,^{15,60,61} negative PCR results might be more difficult to interpret in healthy dogs. Therefore, negative PCR results only indicate that the respective nucleic acid sequence was not detected in the sample evaluated under the assay conditions used and should not be interpreted as evidence of absence of infection.⁵⁸ In addition, other factors could explain the negative results in our study mainly the likely degradation of the DNA due to the transport conditions from Morocco to the USA and the selected region of sampling. Indeed, our dogs were sampled exclusively from the western part of Morocco but previous studies detected I. ricinus ticks in the eastern regions.^{28,29} In addition, *Borrelia burgdorferi* (s.l.), that is transmitted by *Ixodes* spp. ticks, was reported in dogs in Algeria,³¹ a neighbour country of Morocco, and ticks in north-eastern Morocco,³⁰ suggesting that these ticks could be more prevalent in eastern regions.

Consistently with our previous report that detected high prevalence rates of *A. phagocytophilum* exposure in humans in northwestern regions of Morocco,³⁷ the majority of dog owners sampled were found positive to *A. phagocytophilum* IgG. In our previous study, the contact with dogs or other domestic animals was not a risk factor for the seropositivity,³⁷ suggesting that other factors such as outdoor activities might be incriminated. Indeed, outdoor activities especially related to forests, meadow habitats and grasslands are considered as a major risk factor for acquiring a tick-borne infection due to the increase risk of contact with infected ticks.⁶² Another study has found no significant difference in the seroprevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* among owners of seropositive pets and owners without pets, suggesting that dog ownership may not be a risk factor.⁶³

Anaplasma platys was known to infect dogs exclusively, and they are are recognized as the main reservoir hosts. However, recent reports described the infection in domestic ruminants, cats and even in humans.¹⁷⁻²⁷ In addition, human infestation with *R. sanguineus* (s.l.) has also been reported,^{47,57,59} suggesting that A. platys could be transmitted to humans through the bite of this tick species. Moreover, all human cases infected with A. platys had regular contact with dogs and/or reported infestation of their dogs with R. sanguineus (s.1.).²⁵⁻²⁷ In addition, in two human cases, the A. platys sequence was identical to the sequence found in their dog.²⁷ This is in contrast to our current and previous study that both failed to detect a relationship between contact with dogs and human seropositivity to A. phagocytophilum possibly suggesting that humans in Morocco could be more likely to exposed to this bacterium than to A. platys. All previously reported cases of human A. platys infection were diagnosed by DNA detection or microscopic identification of morulae within platelets²⁵⁻²⁷ and hence, the occurrence of immunological response to this bacterium is unknown. Moreover, to the authors' knowledge, the possible occurrence of crossreaction between A. platys and A. phagocytophilum antibodies has not been evaluated in humans. The IFA based on HL60-cells infected with a human isolate of A. phagocytophilum, such as the one used in our study, are considered to be both sensitive⁶⁴ and highly specific for the investigation of seroreactivity to this bacterium⁹ with a specificity of 100%, according to the manufacturer.

Rhipicephalus sanguineus (s.l.) is the most common tick in the Mediterranean region.⁵⁷ It is known to transmit several pathogens including *Rickettsia conorii*, *Babesia canis*, *Hepatozoon canis* and *E. canis* and probably *Bartonella* spp., *Mycoplasma haemocanis* and *A. platys*.⁴⁶ This tick has the particularity to be active during almost all the year and to achieve two or more generations per year. Warmer temperature may contribute to increased tick abundance by a more rapid development. Although *R. sanguineus* (s.l.) ticks usually feed on dogs, they can feed on a wide variety of animal species including humans.^{48,65} Therefore, due to its high degree of adaptability, *R. sanguineus* (s.l.) represents a major threat not only to dogs, but also to humans. Furthermore, the report of *E. canis* and *A. platys* human infections^{23-27,66,67} emphasizes the importance of *R. sanguineus* (s.l.) and the zoonotic potential of these two infections, and further investigation should be carried out to assess the public health implication.⁴⁸

The major limitations of this study are the restricted area of sampling, the absence of PCR performed on the ticks sampled from dogs, and the small number of owners and dogs with clinical signs compatible with a TBD. Unfortunately, DNA from the ticks collected was too degraded to perform PCR analysis, most probably due to the shipping conditions from Morocco to the USA.

Conclusion

This study demonstrates the *Anaplasma* spp. exposure in humans and dogs in Morocco. To our knowledge, it is also the first report on the occurrence of *A. platys* infection in dogs. Our results showed that working dogs living in kennels are at an increased risk for acquiring this infection. These findings highlight the importance of regular preventive measures against arthropod vectors especially in dogs living in kennels and dogs that have access to outdoor environments. This study also suggets that human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* is likely to be frequent and emphazises the need for large-scale serological and clinical surveys to better estimate the prevalence of this bacterium and to determine its ability in causing disease in Morocco. Since the human infection by *A. platys* has been reported, Moroccan dogs are frequently infected with this bacterium and dogs are the main reservoir hosts, it is important to evaluate if this bacterium can cause human disease in Morocco and if the infection is associated with an immunological response. This study should serve as an indicator to Moroccan physicians and veterinarians that *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* exposure and infection are not rare, and it will help raise awareness on the potential occurrence of TBDs more generally in this country. Since we reported results in a limited area of the country and on a very limited number of humans, larger and more represeantative surveys are recommended

Acknowledgements

We would like to address our gratitude to the General Hosni Benslimane for the authorization to sample military and Gendarmerie dogs. We are also grateful to Dr Noureddine Tazi, Dr Hassan Fassil, Pr Ikhlass El Berbri and Mr Mohamed El Mjiyad for their contribution to dogs sampling and to Dr Iraqui for owners sampling. We would like to thank Dr Walter Heuninckx and Mrs Pierrette Parmentier for their help in IFA dosage. We also would like to thank Dr Souad Boutayeb and her team from the Laboratory of the Royal Gendarmerie of Rabat, Pr Mohamed Amar and his team and Mrs Rabiaa El Guennouni for their support in samples processing.

Refecences

- 1. Anderson JF, Magnarelli LA. Biology of ticks. Infect Dis Clin North Am 2008;22:195-215.
- 2. Baneth G. Tick-born infections of animals and humans: a common ground. Int J Parasitol 2014;44:591-596.
- 3. Dumler JS, Barbet AF, Bekker CPJ, et al. Reorganization of genera in the families Rickettsiaceae and Anaplasmataceae in the order Rickettsiales: unification of some species of *Ehrlichia* with *Anaplasma*, *Cowdria* with *Ehrlichia* and *Ehrlichia* with *Neorickettsia*, descriptions of six new species combinations and designation of *Ehrlichia equi* and 'HGE agent' as subjective synonyms of *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 2001;51:2145-2165.
- Stuen S. Anaplasma phagocytophilum the most widespread tick-borne infection in animals in Europe. Vet Res Commun 2007;1:79-84.
- Qurollo AB, Chandrashekar R, Hegarty BC, et al. A serological survey of tick-borne pathogens in dogs in North America and the Caribbean as assessed by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *A. platys, Ehrlichia canis, E. chaffeensis, E. ewingii*, and *Borrelia burgdorferi* species-specific peptides. Infect Ecol Epidemiol 2014;4.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Summary of notifiable diseases United States. MMWR 2011;60:1-117 (cited January 2015), available from: http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/mmwr nd/.
- 7. Cochez C, Ducoffre G, Vandenvelde C, et al. Human anaplasmosis in Belgium: a 10-year seroepidemiological study. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2011;2:156-159.
- 8. Zhang L, Liu H, Xu B, et al. Rural residents in China are at increased risk of exposure to tickborne pathogens *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*. Biomed Res Int 2014;2014:313-867.
- 9. Heyman P, Cochez C, Bigaignon G, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Belgium: an underestimated cause of disease. J Infect 2003;47:129-132.
- 10. Schorn S, Pfister K, Reulen H, et al. Prevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in *Ixodes ricinus* in Bavarian public parks, Germany. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2011;2:196-203.
- Silaghi C, Gilles J, Hohle M, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in *Ixodes ricinus*, Bavaria, Germany. Emerg Infect Dis 2008;14:972-974.
- 12. Hornok S, Dénes B, Meli ML, et al. Non-pet dogs as sentinels and potential synanthropic reservoirs of tick-borne and zoonotic bacteria. Vet Microbiol 2013;167:700-703.
- Torina A, Vicente J, Alongi A, et al. Observed prevalence of tick-borne pathogens in domestic animals in Sicily, Italy during 2003–2005. Zoonoses Public Health 2007;54:8-15.

- 14. Santos HA, Pires MS, Vilela JAR, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Brazilian dogs by real-time polymerase chain reaction. J Vet Diagn Invest 2011;23:770-774.
- Carrade DD, Foley JE, Borjesson DL, Sykes JE. Canine granulocytic anaplasmosis: a review. J Vet Intern Med 2009;23:1129-1141.
- Harvey JW. *Anaplasma platys* infection (thrombocytotropic anaplasmosis). In: Greene GE, ed. Infectious Diseases of the Dog and Cat, Chapter 26: *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* infections, 4th ed. St. Louis: Saunders Elsevier; 2012:241-244.
- 17. Santarem VA, Laposy CB, Farias MR. *Anaplasma platys (Ehrlichia platys)*-like inclusion bodies in platelets of a cat. Colloquium Agrariae 2005;1:60-66.
- Chochlakis D, Ioannou I, Sharif L, et al. Prevalence of *Anaplasma* sp. in goats and sheep in Cyprus. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;9:457-463.
- 19. Djiba ML, Mediannikov O, Mbengue M, et al. Survey of Anaplasmataceae bacteria in sheep from Senegal. Trop Anim Health Prod 2013;45:1557-1561.
- 20. Zobba R, Anfossi AG, Pinna Parpaglia ML, et al. Molecular investigation and phylogeny of *Anaplasma* spp. in Mediterranean ruminants reveal the presence of neutrophil-tropic strains closely related to *A. platys*. Appl Environ Microbiol 2014;80:271-280.
- 21. Lima MLF, Soares PT, Ramos CAN, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* in a naturally-infected cat in Brazil. Braz J Microbiol 2010;412:381-385.
- 22. Salakij C, Lertwatcharasarakul P, Salakij J, et al. Molecular characterization of *Anaplasma platys* in a domestic cat from Thailand. Comp Clin Pathol 2012;21:345-348.
- Arraga-Alvarado C, Montero-Ojeda M, Bernardoni A, et al. Human ehrlichiosis: report of the 1st case in Venezuela. Invest Clin 1996;37:35-49. [Abstract].
- 24. Arraga-Alvarado C, Palmar M, Parra O, Salas P. Fine structural characterization of a *Rickettsia*like organism in human platelets from patients with symptoms of ehrlichiosis. J Med Microbiol 1999;48:991-997.
- 25. Maggi RG, Mascarelli PE, Havenga LN, et al. Coinfection with *Anaplasma platys*, *Bartonella henselae* and *Candidatus Mycoplasma haematoparvum* in a veterinarian. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:103.
- 26. Arraga-Alvarado CM, Qurollo BA, Parra OC, et al. Molecular evidence of *Anaplasma platys* infection in two women from Venezuela. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2014;91:1161-1165.
- 27. Breitschwerdt EB, Hegarty BC, Qurollo BA, et al. Intravascular persistence of *Anaplasma platys*, *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*, and *Ehrlichia ewingii* DNA in the blood of a dog and two family members. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:298.
- Sarih M, M'Ghirbi Y, Bouattour A, et al. Detection and identification of *Ehrlichia* spp. in ticks collected in Tunisia and Morocco. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:1127-1132.

- 29. Seng P, Sarih M, Socolovschi C, et al. Detection of Anaplasmataceae in ticks collected in Morocco. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15 Suppl 2:86-87.
- Sarih M, Jouda F, Gern L, Postic D. First isolation of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato from *Ixodes ricinus* ticks in Morocco. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2003;3:133-139.
- 31. Azzag N, Petit E, Gandoin C, Bouillin C, et al. Prevalence of select vector-borne pathogens in stray and client-owned dogs from Algiers. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2015;38:1-7.
- 32. Ben Said M, Belkahia H, Sayahi L, et al. First serological study of the prevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dromedary (*Camelus dromedarius*) in Tunisia. Bull Soc Pathol Exot 2014;107:1-6.
- 33. Ghafar MW, Amer SA. Prevalence and first molecular characterization of Anaplasma phagocytophilum, the agent of human granulocytic anaplasmosis, in Rhipicephalus sanguineus ticks attached to dogs from Egypt. J Adv Res 2012;3:189-194.
- 34. M'ghirbi Y, Ghorbel A, Amouri M, et al. Clinical, serological, and molecular evidence of ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis in dogs in Tunisia. Parasitol Res 2009;104:767-74.
- 35. M'ghirbi Y, Yaïch H, Ghorbel A, Bouattour A. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in horses and ticks in Tunisia. Parasit Vectors 2012;5:180-186.
- Dahmani M, Loudahi A, Mediannikov O, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* in dogs from Kabylie, Algeria. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:198-203.
- 37. Elhamiani Khatat S, Sahibi H, Hing M, et al. Human exposure to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in two cities of northwestern Morocco. PLoS One. 2016;11:e0160880.
- 38. Walker AR, Bouattour A, Camicas J, et al. Ticks of domestic animals in Africa: a guide to identification of species. Bioscience reports Edinburgh 2003, UK.
- 39. Stillman BA, Monn M, Liu J, et al. Performance of a commercially available in-clinic ELISA for detection of antibodies against *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Anaplasma platys*, *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Ehrlichia ewingii* and *Dirofilaria immitis* antigen in dogs. J Am Vet Med Assoc 2014;245:80-86.
- 40. Boom R, Sol CJ, Salimans MM, Jansen CL, et al. Rapid and simple method for purification of nucleic acids. J Clin Microbiol 1990;28:495-503.
- 41. Livak K, Marmar J, Flood S. Guidelines for designing TaqMan fluorogenic probes for 5' nuclease assays. PE Applied Biosystems, Research News 1995.
- 42. Pusterla N, Leutenegger CM, Chae JS, et al. Quantitative evaluation of ehrlichial burden in horses after experimental transmission of human granulocytic *Ehrlichia* agent by intravenous inoculation with infected leukocytes and by infected ticks. J Clin Microbiol 1999;37:4042-4044.

- 43. Foley JE, Leutenegger CM, Dumler JS, et al. Evidence for modulated immune response to *Anaplasma phagocytophila* sensu lato in cats with FIV-induced immunosuppression. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2003;26:103-113.
- 44. Lim S, Irwin PJ, Lee SR, et al. Comparison of selected canine vector-borne diseases between urban animal shelter and rural hunting dogs in Korea. Parasit Vectors 2010;3:32.
- 45. Alho AM, Pita J, Amaro A, et al. Seroprevalence of vector-borne pathogens and molecular detection of *Borrelia afzelii* in military dogs from Portugal. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:225.
- 46. Pennisi MG, Caprì A, Solano-Gallego L, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against *Rickettsia conorii*, *Babesia canis*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* antigens in dogs from the Stretto di Messina area (Italy). Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2012;3:314-317.
- 47. Davoust B, Mediannikov O, Chene J, et al. Study of ehrlichiosis in kennel dogs under treatment and prevention during seven months in Dakar (Senegal). Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2013;36:613-617.
- 48. Ebani VV, Bertelloni F, Torracca B, Cerri D. Serological survey of *Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, and *Ehrlichia canis* infections in rural and urban dogs in Central Italy. Ann Agric Environ Med 2014;21:671-675.
- 49. Clarke LL, Ballweber LR, Allen K, et al. Prevalence of select vector-borne disease agents in owned dogs of Ghana. J S Afr Vet Assoc 2014;85:1-2.
- 50. Diniz P, Beall MJ, Omark K, et al. High prevalence of tick-borne pathogens in dogs from an Indian Reservation in northeastern Arizona. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2010;10:117-123.
- 51. Santos AS, Alexandre N, Sousa R, et al. Serological and molecular survey of *Anaplasma* species infection in dogs with suspected tick-borne disease in Portugal. Vet Rec 2009;164:168-171.
- 52. Mircean V, Dumitrache MO, Gyöke A, et al. Seroprevalence and geographic distribution of Dirofilaria immitis and tick-borne infections (Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato, and Ehrlichia canis) in dogs from Romania. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:595-604.
- 53. Keysary A, Massung RF, Inbar M, et al. Molecular evidence for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Israel. Emerg Infect Dis 2007;13:1411-1412.
- 54. Psaroulaki A, Chochlakis D, Ioannou I, et al. Acute anaplasmosis in human in Cyprus. Clin Microbiol Infect 2008;15:10-11.
- 55. Chastagner A, Bailly X, Leblond A, et al. Single Genotype of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* identified from ticks, Camargue, France. Emerg Infect Dis 2013;19:825-826.
- 56. Dugat T, Chastagner A, Lagrée AC, et al. A new multiple-locus variable-number tandem repeat analysis reveals different clusters for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* circulating in domestic and wild ruminants. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:439.

- 57. Qablan MA, Kubelová M, Siroký P, et al. Stray dogs of northern Jordan as reservoirs of ticks and tick-borne hemopathogens. Parasitol Res 2012;111:301-307.
- 58. Allison RW, Little SE. Diagnosis of rickettsial diseases in dogs and cats. Vet Clin Pathol 2013;42:127-144.
- Dong J, Olano JP, McBride JW, Walker DH. Emerging pathogens: challenges and successes of molecular diagnostics. J Mol Diagn 2008;10:185-197.
- 60. Lilliehöök I, Egenvall A, Tvedten HW. Hematopathology in dogs experimentally infected with a Swedish granulocytic *Ehrlichia* species. Vet Clin Pathol 1998;27:116-122.
- 61. Egenvall A, Bjoersdorff A, Lilliehook I, et al. Early manifestations of granulocytic ehrlichiosis in dogs inoculated experimentally with a Swedish *Ehrlichia* species isolate. Vet Rec 1998;143:412-417.
- 62. Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, Giannelli A, et al. Ticks infesting humans in Italy and associated pathogens. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:328.
- 63. Skerget M, Wenisch C, Daxboeck F, et al. Cat or dog ownership and seroprevalence of ehrlichiosis, Q fever, and cat-scratch disease. Emerg Infect Dis 2003;9:1337-1339.
- 64. Walder G, Tiwald G, Dierich MP, Würzner R. Serological evidence for human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Western Austria. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2003;22:543-547.
- 65. Dantas-Torres F. Biology and ecology of the brown dog tick, *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*. Parasit Vectors 2010;3:26.
- 66. Perez M, Bodor M, Zhang M, et al. Human infection with *Ehrlichia canis* accompanied by clinical signs in Venezuela. Ann NY Acad Sci 2006;1078:110-117.
- 67. Bouza-Mora L, Dolz G, Solórzano-Morales A, et al. Novel genotype of *Ehrlichia canis* detected in samples of human blood bank donors in Costa Rica. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;8:36-40.

CHAPTER V

EVALUATION OF HUMAN EXPOSURE TO ANAPLASMA PHAGOCYTOPHILUM IN NORTHWESTERN MOROCCO

HUMAN EXPOSURE TO ANAPLASMA PHAGOCYTOPHILUM IN TWO CITIES OF NOTHWESTERN MOROCCO

Sarah Elhamiani Khatat^{1,2}, Hamid Sahibi¹, Mony Hing³, Ismail Alaoui Moustain⁴, Hamid El Amri⁵, Mohammed Benajiba⁶, Malika Kachani⁷, Luc Duchateau⁸, Sylvie Daminet²

¹ Department of Pathology and Veterinary Public Health, Unit of Parasitology, Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II, Rabat, Morocco.

² Department of Small Animal Medicine, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ghent University, Merelbeke, Belgium.

³ National Reference Laboratory for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, Laboratory of Clinical Biology, Queen Astrid Military Hospital, Brussels, Belgium.

⁴ Central Health Services of the Royal Gendarmerie, Rabat, Morocco.

⁵ Laboratory of the Royal Gendarmerie, Rabat, Morocco.

⁶ Regional Transfusion Center, Rabat, Morocco

⁷ College of Veterinary Medicine, Western University of Health Sciences, Pomona, California, United States of America.

⁸ Department of Comparative Physiology and Biometrics, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ghent University, Merelbeke, Belgium

Adapted from: Elhamiani Khatat S, Sahibi H, Hing M, Alaoui Moustain I, El Amri H, Benajiba M, Kachani M, Duchateau L, Daminet S. Human exposure to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in two cities of northwestern Morocco. PLoS One 2016;11(8):e0160880. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0160880.

Summary

Anaplasma phagocytophilum is an emerging tick-borne zoonotic bacterium with extensive increased interest. Epidemiological data are available in several regions of the USA, Europe and Asia in contrast to other parts of the world such as North Africa.

Blood samples of 261 healthy individuals divided in two groups i.e., dog handlers and blood donors were analyzed. Indirect immunofluorescent assay using a commercial kit was performed to detect specific *A. phagocytophilum* IgG. Two dilutions were used to assess the prevalence of seroreactive samples. Demographic variables were assessed as potential risk factors using exact logistic regression.

Seropositivity rates reached 37% and 27% in dog handlers and 36% and 22% in blood donors. No statistically significant differences were found in the prevalence rates between the two groups. Analysis of risk factors such as gender, age groups, outdoor activities, self-reported previous exposure to ticks, or contact with domestic animals (dogs, cats, ruminants and horses) did not shown any significant difference.

Anaplasma phagocytophilum exposure was common in both high-risk population and blood donors in Morocco.

Introduction

Anaplasma phagocytophilum is an obligate intracellular gram-negative bacterium that infects neutrophils. The bacterium causes an emerging zoonotic tick-borne disease (TBD) called granulocytic anaplasmosis,¹ and is mostly transmitted to humans through the bites of ticks of the *Ixodes* genus. However, other modes of transmission have been described including transplacental transmission, percutaneous exposure or inhalation of the contaminated blood of deer, nosocomial infection following direct contact with blood and respiratory secretions and through blood transfusions.^{2,3}

Human granulocytic anaplasmosis (HGA) is an unspecific flu-like illness that is typically characterized by the acute onset of fever, headache, chills, myalgia, malaise, nausea, and cough. Depending on several risk factors, which include advanced age, immunosuppression, co-morbidities and delays in the onset of treatment, HGA can be mild or fatal.^{4,5} Life-threatening complications occur in 3% of cases. Consequently, half of the HGA cases are hospitalized and up to 17% of patients require admission to intensive care units, especially when the diagnosis and treatment are delayed.^{1,4} Therefore, the Infectious Diseases Society of America recommends that antimicrobial therapy be given to every person suspected of having HGA on the basis of their clinical presentation, so as not to delay the treatment.⁶ Due to the potentially serious outcome and the difficulty of the diagnosis, epidemiological data on the prevalence and distribution of human cases within a country are important to increase awareness of physicians and to develop adapted public health strategies to prevent and control this disease.⁷

HGA commonly occurs in the USA and Europe, and it is increasingly diagnosed in some Asian countries.^{6,8} In the USA, at least 15,952 HGA cases were reported since 1995 and a 12-fold increased incidence has been observed between 2001 and 2011.⁴ In China, the exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* has continuously increased from 8.8% to 59.2% in high-risk populations between 2006 and 2009.³ Despite a moderate to high seroprevalence in several countries, HGA is still unrecognized and rarely diagnosed due to several factors including limited epidemiological information, difficult diagnosis, asymptomatic or subclinical infections and the lack of awareness among physicians and the public.^{2,3,6} Moreover, the occurrence of HGA is unknown in many regions of the world such as Oceania, South America, Africa, and in large regions of Asia. To the author's knowledge, no data are available in North Africa on either the occurrence of HGA or the prevalence of human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum*. However, ticks are abundant in this region and might represent a hazard for both animal and human public health.⁹ Therefore, we carried out a cross-sectional epidemiological serologic survey to investigate the potential human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* in Morocco.

Materials and Methods

Study population

Between June and September 2015, 261 healthy individuals from two groups were sampled from three cities of Morocco (Figure 1). The first group included 144 military and police dog handlers from the first kennel of the Royal Forces Army of Benslimane and the kennel of the Royal Gendarmerie of Temara. This group was considered to be at a high risk for TBDs because of their regular contact with dogs and outdoor occupational activities. The data collected on this group included age and exposure to ticks. The second group included 117 blood donors from the Regional Transfusion Centre of Rabat. All of the blood donors were informed on the purpose of the survey and signed informed consent forms before enrollment. An epidemiological report was completed for each blood donor containing data on the age, city of residence (Figure 1), occupation, travels outside Morocco during the previous year, outdoor activities, tick exposure and potential contact with dogs and other domestic animals (i.e., cats, horses and ruminants).



Figure 1. Map of Morocco showing the cities of sampling (in **bold**) and the cities of residence and of outdoor activities of the blood donors.

The study protocol was approved by the Ethical Committee for Biomedical Research of the Mohammed V University of Rabat (n°698; July 10, 2014) and the Ministry of Health of Morocco (n°965; June 12, 2014).

Blood sampling

For each person included in the study, 5 ml of non-anticoagulated blood was collected from the elbow groove veins. Blood samples were centrifuged at 3500 rpm during 10 min at 15°C and sera were aliquoted and stored at -32°C until shipment to the National Reference Laboratory for *A. phagocytophilum* in Belgium.

Serological tests

Immunoglobulin G (IgG) antibodies were detected against A. phagocytophilum by a semiquantitative indirect immunofluorescent assay (IFA) using a commercial kit (Focus Diagnostics, Cypress, California, USA) containing HL60 cells infected with a human isolate of A. phagocytophilum HGE-1 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 5 μ L of serum were diluted in 315 μ L of phosphate-buffer saline (PBS) (0.01 M, $pH = 7.2\pm0.1$). The positive IgG control was also diluted into the following five dilutions: 1:2, 1:4, 1:8, 1:16 and 1:32. Then, 25 µL of diluted sera were added in the wells of each slide. The first line of the first slide contained the negative IgG control and the five dilutions of the positive IgG control. The slides were incubated in humid chambers between 35 and 36.5°C for 30 min, then they were washed with the PBS solution followed by distilled water to eliminated non-conjugated serum antibodies. Next, 25 µL of the conjugate containing human IgG and fluorescein were added to each well. The slides were incubated again and washed as described above. Finally, the slides were dried and coverslipped using a mounting medium and were examined under ultraviolet light microscopy (×400). The titer was defined as the reciprocal of the highest dilutions of serum with the homogeneously stained cytoplasmic morulae (Figure 2). A serum titer of \geq 1:64 was considered as positive for A. phagocytophilum IgG, according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer. Samples that were positive at the first dilution of 1:64 were then further diluted to 1:128 and those remaining positive at the second dilution were then tittered at 1:256 and 1:512. Ten samples were reassessed by a blinded technician from the laboratory at a dilution of 1:64 and the results were confirmed in all cases.

Statistical analysis

A statistical analysis was performed using SAS version 6.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Car, NC, USA). The exact logistic regression model was fitted to compare seroreactivity rates between both dog handler and blood donor groups and between gender, the presence or absence of outdoor activities, exposure to ticks, dogs or other domestic animals inside the blood donor group. The statistical significance was set at 5%. The results were summarized in terms of the odds ratio with a 95% confidence interval.

Results

Eight samples were excluded due to hemolysis that could interfere with the results according to the manufacturer instructions. A total of 138 dog handlers (54.5%) and 115 blood donors (45.4%) were included in the study. The majority of blood donors (105/115) lived in Rabat or the surrounding cities whereas nine blood donors were from other cities (Table 1).

The city of origin was unavailable for one blood donor. All dog handlers were men between 21 and 51 years of age (average age: 33 years). The blood donors group included 63 men (54.8%) and 52 women (42.2%), and their ages ranged from 18 to 61 years (average age: 39 years). The distribution according to the epidemiological variables in the two groups is summarized in Table 2.

Outdoor activities in the forest or rural areas were either occupational or for leisure (picnic, hiking, jogging, walking or hunting). More than half of the blood donors (47/86) reported their outdoor activities in the region of Rabat-Salé-Kenitra region and 20.9% (18/86) reported their activities in other Moroccan regions including Moulay Bousselham, Gharb region, Tangier, Ouazzane, Rif mountain, Ifrane, Azrou, Khouribga, Oued Zem, Nador, Taza, Oujda, El Jadida, Safi, Essaouira, Agadir, Tiznit, Dakkhla, Beni Mellal, Azilal, Marrakech, Ait Baha, Zagora, Taroudant and the High Atlas mountains (Figure 1). The remaining 21 blood donors (24.4%) reported their outdoor activities in both Rabat-Salé-Kenitra and other regions. Previous exposure to ticks was recorded in 1.4 (2/138) and 6.1% (7/117) of dog handlers and blood donors, respectively. Travel outside of Morocco was recorded in 15.6% (18/115) of blood donors and ten traveled to two or more countries.

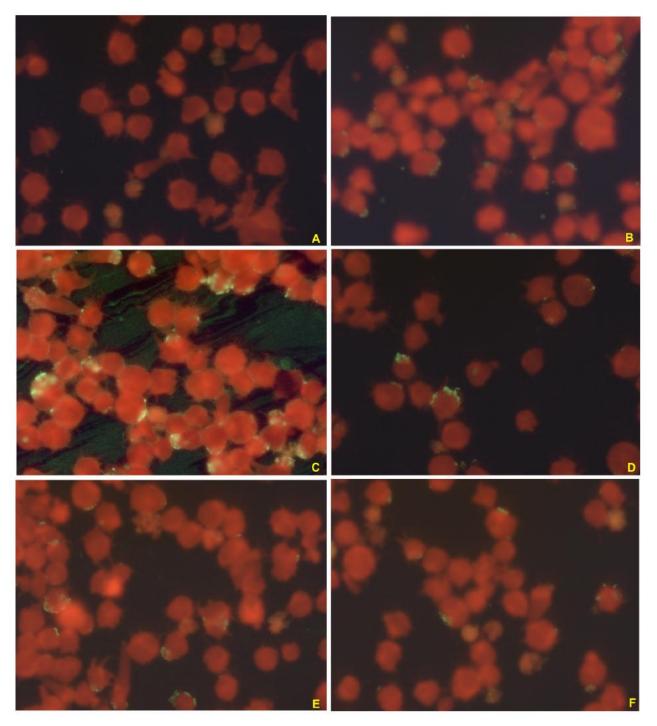


Figure 2. Photographs of ultraviolet light microscopy (×400) of *A. phagocytophilum* IgG semiquantitative IFA measurement using a commercial kit (Focus Diagnostics, Cypress, California, USA) showing a negative control (A), a positive control (B) and four positive dilutions i.e., 1:64 (C), 1:128 (D), 1:256 (E) and 1:516 (F) from the same patient. The positivity is set on the observation of green morulae surrounding the cell's cytoplasmic membrane.

| Administrative | City | Distance to | Number of | Number of | Number of |
|--------------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| region | · | Rabat (km) | blood donors | positive IgG 1:64 | positive IgG 1:128 |
| | Rabat | | 55 | 19 | 10 |
| | Salé | 5.2 | 32 | 11 | 6 |
| | Temara | 8.0 | 13 | 5 | 2 |
| Rabat-Salé-Kénitra | Ain El Aouda | 30.0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | Sidi Allal El | 37.7 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| | Bahraoui | | | | |
| | Kenitra | 55.0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| | Bouznika | 39.6 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Casablanca-Settat | Benslimane | 60.0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | | | |
| | Khenifra | 237.4 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Béni Mellal- | Beni Mellal | 233.1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Khénifra | | | | | |
| Tanger-Tétouan-Al | Tangier | 250.0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Hoceima | | | | | |
| | Tinghir | 477.0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Souss-Massa-Drâa | Agadir | 547.0 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| | Tizi n'Tichka | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Guelmim-Oued | Sidi Ifni | 686.0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Noun | | | | | |

Table 1. Distribution of the number of blood donors and of positive samples for both dilutions according to city.

Abbreviations: IgG, immunoglobulin G.

The seropositivity rates for *A. phagocytophilum* IgG at the first dilution reached 37.0% (51/138) and 35.7% (41/115) in dog handlers and blood donors, respectively (Table 3 and Figure 3). At the second dilution, 27.5% (38/138) and 21.7% (25/115) of sera were still reactive in the dog handlers and the blood donors groups, respectively (Table 3 and Figure 3). Most seropositive blood donors for both dilutions (i.e., 1:64 and 1:128) were from the region of Rabat-Salé-Kénitra (Figure 4).

Table 2. Distribution of age, sex, exposure to ticks, contact with dogs or other domestic animals and travel history outside Morocco in both dog handlers (n = 138) and blood donors (n = 115) groups.

| Variables | | Dog handlers (%) | Blood donors (%) | |
|--------------------|------------|------------------|------------------|--|
| | Men | 138 (100) | 63 (54.8) | |
| Sex | Women | 0 (0.0) | 52 (45.2) | |
| | ≤20 | 1 (0.7) | 7 (6.1) | |
| Age | 21-30 | 78 (56.5) | 26 (22.6) | |
| (years- | 31-40 | 47 (34.1) | 27 (23.5) | |
| old) | 41-50 | 10 (7.2) | 36 (31.3) | |
| | >50 | 1 (0.7) | 19 (16.5) | |
| Exposur | e to ticks | 2 (1.4) | 7 (6.1) | |
| Outdoor activities | | 138 (100) | 86 (74.8) | |
| Contact with dogs | | 138 (100) | 11 (9.6) | |
| Contact with other | | - | 17 (14.8) | |
| domestic | e animals | | | |
| Travel | | 0 (0.0) | 18 (15.7) | |
| | | | | |

| Table 3. Number of seropositive samples in both dog handlers (n=138) and blood donors (n=115) Image: seropositive samples in both dog handlers (n=138) Image: seropositive samples in bot |
|--|
| groups at the four different dilutions. |

| Variables | Dog handlers (%) | Blood donors (%) | OR | 95%CI | P value |
|-----------|------------------|------------------|------|-----------|---------|
| IgG 1:64 | 51 (37.0) | 41 (35.7) | 1.05 | 0.61-1.83 | 0.90 |
| IgG 1:128 | 38 (27.5) | 25 (21.7) | 1.37 | 0.74-2.56 | 0.31 |
| IgG 1:256 | 11 (8.0) | 2(1.7) | - | - | - |
| IgG 1:512 | 7 (5.1) | 2 (1.7) | - | - | - |

Abbreviations: IgG, immunoglobulin G; OR, odd ratio; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval.

No statistically significant differences were found between the two groups considering the seroreactivity rates at both dilutions (Table 3). Similarly, no statistically significant differences were found in the blood donor group when comparing between gender, age groups, the presence of outdoor activities, exposure to ticks, and contact with dogs or other domestic animals at both dilutions (Table 2). In the dog handlers group, 11 (8.0%) and 7 (5.1%) of the sera were still positive when further diluted to 1:256 and 1:512, respectively (Table 3 and Figure 3). Only two of the samples remained positive at both 1:256 and 1:512 in the blood donors group (Table 3 and Figure 3).

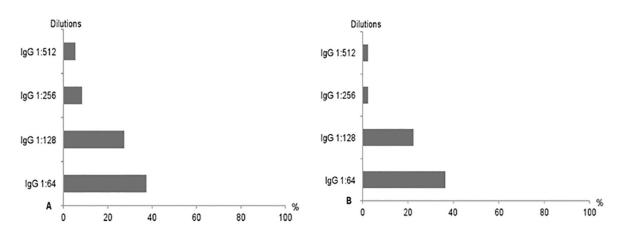


Figure 3. Distribution of positivity rates for the four *A. phagocytophilum* IgG dilutions (i.e, 1:64, 1:128, 1:256 and 1:516) in both dog handlers (A) and blood donors (B) groups.

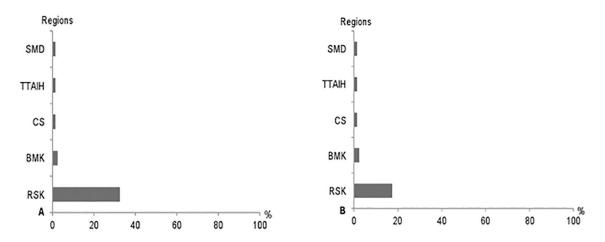


Figure 4. Distribution of *A. phagocytophilum* IgG positivity rates in blood donors according to the region of living in Rabat-Salé-Kénitra (RSK), Casablanca-Settat (CS), Tangier-Tétouane-Al Hoceima (TTAIH) and Souss-Massa-Drâa (SMD) regions and for both 1:64 (A) and 1:128 (B) dilutions.

Discussion

To the author's knowledge, this is the first report investigating human exposure to A. phagocytophilum in Africa. In Europe, the USA and Asia, several reports have investigated the prevalence of human exposure in blood donors¹⁰⁻¹⁹ and in high-risk populations including people living in forest areas and forestry workers,^{10,12,16,20-25} people living in rural areas and farmers,^{3,8,19,26-28} hunters,^{8,11} national parks rangers,²⁹⁻³⁰ military personnel,³¹ people in close contact with domestic animals,^{7,21} and people at high risk of exposure or previously exposed to ticks.^{7,32,33} The prevalences recorded in high-risk populations or in endemic areas were up to 32%, 35.6%, and 33.7% in Europe,²³ the USA,³⁴ and China,³⁵ respectively. However, several serological methods and cutoffs were used, which made the comparison between these studies difficult.³¹ When comparing the results of military dog handlers obtained in this study at the threshold of 1:64, i.e., 37%, with other Chinese^{24,35} and European^{12,21,23,25,28,32,36} reports using the same method and the same cutoff, it appears that the prevalence in Morocco is higher. The highest prevalences recorded in both China and Europe were $20\%^7$ and 9.6%,²⁵ respectively. One study from Cyprus reported a prevalence of 32% with a cutoff of 1:128,²³ which is slightly higher than the results found in Morocco at the same cut off (27.5%). When comparing the results of this study with high-risk populations from other European Mediterranean countries such as Italy (8.8%),²² Portugal (5.4%),¹⁷ and Spain (1.4%),²¹ the prevalence found in Moroccan dog handlers is higher at both the first and second dilutions.

Moreover, the prevalence in Moroccan dog handlers is even higher than the prevalence found in patients with clinical signs and history of tick bites in Belgium.⁵ Because high-risk populations were shown to have a significantly higher prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* exposure,^{3,16,31} they may not reflect the true exposure of the general population of the same country.⁷ Therefore, a more representative sample including blood donors with more diverse social and intellectual levels, occupational and leisure activities would be a better sample to estimate the prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* exposure in Morocco. In addition, the high seroprevalence rates in blood donors of some geographic locations, the potential asymptomatic or subclinical evolution of the disease, the survival of *A. phagocytophilum* in refrigerated blood products and documented transfusion-transmitted HGA cases, provide further reasons to screen blood donors in Morocco. Although only a few cases of transfusion-transmitted anaplasmosis have been reported, *A. phagocytophilum* infection is among the TBDs that are considered to represent a potential risk for transmission by blood transfusion. In addition, because sharing blood products between different areas is growing, such an acute illness after blood transfusion should be included in the differential diagnosis even in nonendemic areas.^{2,37} Our results showed that even in the blood donor group, high prevalences of 35.7% and 21.7% at both the 1:64 and

1:128 dilutions, respectively, were recorded. When compared to European prevalences in blood donors using the same method and the same cutoffs, these results are higher than those published in Poland (2%),¹² and Austria (9%),¹⁵ but they are similar to those from Greece (21.4%).¹⁸ Without taking into account the method and the cutoffs, the results from Moroccan blood donors are even higher than those from several US^{13,14} and European reports.^{10,11,16,17,19,33,38} In several reports that compared the seroreactivity rates of blood donors to those of high-risk populations, significant differences were found;^{10,16,17} these findings are in contrast to our report. These differences could be due to the relatively high proportion of the blood donors that report outdoor activities, which could then increase the possible exposure to ticks and thus predispose them to *A. phagocytophilum* infection.

No risk factors were identified in this survey in either group. Similarly, some reports failed to identify specific demographic variables as potential risk factors.^{12,17,23,25,28} In contrast, other reports demonstrated that seropositivity rates were significantly higher in men,^{3,23,30} in age groups from 20 to ^{403,23} and 40 to 65 years of age³² and the rates increased with age.²⁹ Seropositivity rates among Moroccan blood donors were higher in men especially for the dilution of 1:128 and lower in the age group ≤ 20 year-old, although this was not statistically significant. No statistically significant associations between seroreactivity rates and the contact with animals or outdoor activities were found in this study. However, the chance of coming into contact with infected ticks depends on several epidemiological and ecological factors, such as the environment, the presence of appropriate hosts and reservoirs. Consequently, outdoor activities that are especially related to wooded areas, meadow habitats and grasslands are considered to be some of the major risk factors for acquiring TBDs.³⁹ Moreover, a large number of participants to a study from Germany mentioned contracting their most recent tick bite in their gardens and half of the participants with past exposure to A. phagocytophilum listed gardening as a regular leisure activity; despite a comparatively low risk of exposure associated with this activity. Therefore, public health measures to increase awareness for TBDs should also target the large portion of the population who are involved in comparatively low risk outdoor activities such as gardening, cycling or walking.³² Although not statistically significant, a high proportion (74.8%) of the blood donors mentioned participating in outdoor activities. Consequently, the obvious popularity of outdoor activities may predispose a large number of people to the risk of infection by A. phagocytophilum. Only a small portion (3.6%) of the tested population had a history of tick exposure without any significant difference between both groups. Similarly, several surveys did not find any association between selfreported exposure to ticks and the seroreactivity rates of A. phagocytophilum.^{3,10,12,25,28,40} Moreover, a range of studies demonstrated seropositivity among the blood donors and the control populations without a specific history of a tick bite.³² Another report described the highest seropositivity among persons who denied having tick bites.²⁵ A study investigating the risk of acquiring a tick-borne pathogen after a tick

bite failed to identify a significant difference between the group of persons bitten by ticks infected with *A. phagocytophilum* and the group bitten by uninfected ticks.⁴⁰ The possible explanations for this oversight could be that the stage of feeding ticks as nymphs and larvae may not be detectable because of their small size or that the capacity of ticks to modulate host immune and inflammatory responses may also decrease the chance of detection.^{12,28} Further, several persons from the blood donor group that were questioned about previous contact with ticks were not familiar with these parasites. Therefore, *A. phagocytophilum* infection should not be ruled out in the absence of self-reported previous tick exposure.⁴

Most of the epidemiological surveys about A. phagocytophilum have used only the indirect IFA or the enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). Either technique used alone with the standard cutoffs may overestimate the prevalence of antibodies.^{28,40} The World Health Organization guidelines set the cutoff at the 98th percentile i.e., at 1:128, to fulfil the requirements for seroepidemiological studies. This cutoff should reduce the overestimation of the seroprevalence and therefore provide reliable information with regard to previous infections.^{15,18} The overestimation of the seroreactivity with IFA testing might be due to false-positive results secondary to potential cross-reactions.⁴⁰ These results can be observed with several other vector-borne pathogens including tick-borne encephalitis virus (6.7%), Rickettsia conorii (8%), Coxiella burnetii (10%), Borrelia burgdorferi (16.7%) and Bartonella quintana (70%).⁵ The Epstein-Barr virus infection, autoimmune disorders and *Ehrlichia* species may also induce cross-reactivity.^{3,15,33,40} However, two studies have failed to demonstrate an increased reactivity to A. phagocytophilum in samples that were seropositive to Epstein-Barr virus, cytomegalovirus, parvovirus B19, Toxoplasma gondii, Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato, Coxiella burnettii, Rickettsia conorii and E. chaffeensis.^{15,21} Moreover, IFA based on HL60-cells infected with a human isolate of A. phagocytophilum are considered to be both sensitive¹⁵ and highly specific for the investigation of seroreactivity.⁵ According to the manufacturer, the specificity of this test reaches 100%, and the sensitivity depends on the period between the moment of sampling and the beginning of the clinical signs, which ranges from 66.7% to 100%.

Clinical data were not recorded in our study; thus it is unknown whether the subjects who were seropositive to *A. phagocytophilum* experienced any clinical signs before the date of sampling. Although one previous report has found a positive association between fever in the last two years and a high seroprevalence of *A. phagocytophilum*,³ all or almost all seropositive persons denied any clinical symptoms of HGA in several epidemiological surveys especially in Europe,^{18,25} suggesting that a high proportion of the infections could be subclinical.³¹ Other possible reasons for the discrepancy between a high seroprevalence and a low incidence of the disease include underdiagnosis or misdiagnosis due to

the unawareness of physicians, the circulation of variants that are non-pathogenic for humans, which may cause only transient infections without the relevant clinical signs and the potential serologic crossreactivity with other bacteria.^{32,40} Despite a low incidence rate and because the severity of the disease is closely linked to delayed diagnosis and treatment, some authors have emphasized the importance of clinicians awareness to promptly diagnose this infection especially in high-risk areas and even in persons without a self-reported history of a tick bite.²⁸ At least, A. phagocytophilum should be considered in the differential diagnosis of flu-like syndromes, febrile patients especially from high-risk areas, febrile illness of unknown etiology or in those who are not responding to beta-lactam antibiotics or macrolides.^{16,20,21} Only one serum sample was performed for each participant; samples were not paired and IgM were not measured. Therefore, it was not possible to estimate the incidence of seroconversion and evaluate a potential acute exposure.²⁸ IgM antibodies are detectable during the first 40 days after infection and IgG seroconversion occurs approximately 20-40 days after the onset of symptoms and persists for several months to years post infection. Therefore, with a single positive IgG titer, it is not possible to distinguish between current and past exposure to A. phagocytophilum.³⁵ In addition, serological testing close to the onset of symptoms is usually negative.^{4,6,32} However, IgM testing is reported to be less sensitive than IgG detection, even during early stages of infection.⁴ Sampling took place only in two cities of Morocco and subjects' deployment histories were unavailable in the dog handler group. Therefore, no valuable data were available on human exposure in other regions of the country or the distribution or the presence of specific foci within some regions. A more comprehensive and representative study should be conducted to better estimate the prevalence of this bacterium in Morocco.

Conclusion

To the author's knowledge, this study is the first evidence of human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* or to an antigenically similar bacterium in Morocco. The very high prevalence rate found in both high-risk populations and blood donors indicated the necessity for large-scale serologic surveys to better estimate the prevalence of this bacterium in Morocco. We hope that this study can serve as an indicator to Moroccan physicians that *A. phagocytophilum* infection is present and that this will help raise awareness of the potential occurrence of TBDs. Further studies especially those based on the isolation of the causative agent from patients with clinical signs compatible with HGA are warranted to clearly confirm the presence of the bacterium and to assess its role in causing disease in Morocco. Investigations of the epidemiology and the ecology of the bacterium in Morocco are also needed.

Acknowledgments

We would like to address our gratitude to the General Hosni Benslimane for the authorization to sample military and police dog handlers. We would like to thank Dr. Walter Heuninckx and Mrs. Pierrette Parmentier for their help in IFAT dosage. We also would like to thank Dr. Souad Boutayeb and Dr. Khadija Hajjout for their help in blood donors sampling and samples processing. We are grateful to Pr. Aicha Hafidi for her help in obtaining all the authorizations requested. We also thank the Emergency Medical Help Services of the Royal Gendarmery, the first kennel of the Royal Forces Army (Benslimane, Morocco) and the kennel of the Royal Gendarmerie (Témara, Morocco).

References

- 1. Dumler JS, Choi KS, Garcia-Garcia JC, et al. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Emerg Infect Dis 2005;11:1828-1834.
- 2. Annen K, Friedman K, Eshoa C, et al. Two cases of transfusion-transmitted *Anaplasma phagocytophilum.* Am J Clin Pathol 2012;137:562-565.
- 3. Zhang L, Liu H, Xu B, et al. Rural residents in China are at increased risk of exposure to tickborne pathogens *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*. Biomed Res Int 2014;2014:313867.
- Bakken JS, Dumler JS. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis. Infect Dis Clin N Am 2015;29:341-355.
- 5. Heyman P, Cochez C, Bigaignon G, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Belgium: an underestimated cause of disease. J Infect 2003;47:129-132.
- Heyman P, Cochez C, Hofhuis A, et al. A clear and present danger: tick-borne diseases in Europe. Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 2010;8:33-50.
- Zhang S, Hai R, Li W, Li G, et al. Seroprevalence of human granulocytotropic anaplasmosis in Central and Southeastern China. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2009;81:293-295.
- Zhang L, Cui F, Wang L, et al. Investigation of anaplasmosis in Yiyuan County, Shandong Province, China. Asian Pac J Trop Med 2011;4:568-572.
- Seng P, Sarih M, Socolovschi C, et al. Detection of Anaplasmataceae in ticks collected in Morocco. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15 Suppl 2:86-87.
- 10. Fingerle V, Goodman JL, Johnson RC, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Southern Germany: increased seroprevalence in high-risk groups. J Clin Microbiol 1997;35:3244-347.
- 11. Pusterla N, Weber R, Wolfensberger C, et al. Serological evidence of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Switzerland. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1998;17:207-209.
- Grzeszczuk A, Stanczak J, Kubica-Biernat B. Serological and molecular evidence of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis focus in the Bialowieza Primeval forest (Puszcza Bialowieska), Northeastern Poland. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2002;21:6-11.
- 13. Aguero-Rosenfeld ME, Donnarumma L, Zentmaier L, et al. Seroprevalence of antibodies that react with *Anaplasma phagocytophila*, the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis, in different populations in Westchester County, New York. J Clin Microbiol 2002;40:2612-2615.
- Leiby DA, Chung AP, Cable RG, et al. Relationship between tick bites and the seroprevalence of Babesia microti and Anaplasma phagocytophila (previously Ehrlichia spp) in blood donors. Transfusion 2002;42:1585-1591.

- 15. Walder G, Tiwald G, Dierich MP, Würzner R. Serological evidence for human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Western Austria. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2003;22:543-547.
- Cisak E, Chmielewska-Badora J, Zwoliński J, et al. Risk of tick-borne bacterial diseases among workers of Roztocze National Park (south-eastern Poland). Ann Agric Environ Med 2005;12:127-132.
- Santos AS, Bacellar F, Dumler JS. Human exposure to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Portugal. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:100-105.
- Chochlakis D, Papaeustathiou A, Minadakis G, et al. A serosurvey of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in blood donors in Crete, Greece. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2008;27:473-475.
- 19. Chmielewska-Badora J, Moniuszko A, Żukiewicz-Sobczak W, et al. Serological survey in persons occupationally exposed to tick-borne pathogens in cases of co-infections with *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Bartonella* spp and *Babesia microti*. Ann Agric Environ Med 2012;19:271-274.
- 20. Groen J, Koraka P, Nur YA, Avsic-Zupanc T, et al. Serologic evidence of ehrlichiosis among humans and wild animals in the Netherlands. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2002;21:46-49.
- 21. Oteo JA, Gil H, Barral M, et al. Presence of granulocytic ehrlichia in ticks and serological evidence of human infection in La Rioja, Spain. Epidemiol Infect 2001;127:353-358.
- 22. Cinco M, Barbone F, Grazia Ciufolini MG, et al. Seroprevalence of tick-borne infections in forestry rangers from northeastern Italy. Clin Microbiol Infect 2004;10:1056-1061.
- 23. Chochlakis D, Ioannou I, Kokkini I, et al. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a high-risk human population. J Infect 2009;58:87-88.
- Hao Q, Geng Z, Hou XX, et al. Seroepidemiological investigation of Lyme disease and human granulocytic anaplasmosis among people living in forest areas of eight provincesin China. Biomed Environ Sci 2013;26:185-189.
- 25. Stanczak J, Grzeszczuk A. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* among forestry rangers in northern and northeastern Poland. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:89-91.
- Zhang L, Shan A, Mathew B, et al. 2008. Rickettsial seroepidemiology among farm workers, Tianjin, People's Republic of China. Emerg Infect Dis 2008;14:938-940.
- Zhang XC, Zhang LX, Li WH, et al. Ehrlichiosis and zoonotic anaplasmosis in suburban areas of Beijing, China. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:932-937.
- 28. Thomas DR, Sillis M, Coleman TJ, et al. Low rates of ehrlichiosis and Lyme borreliosis in English farmworkers. Epidemiol Infect.1998;121:609-614.

- Adjemian J, Weber IB, McQuiston J, et al. Zoonotic infections among employees from Great Smoky Mountains and Rocky Mountain national parks, 2008–2009. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:922-931.
- Żukiewicz-Sobczak W, Zwoliński J, Chmielewska-Badora J, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against selected zoonotic agents in forestry workers from eastern and southern Poland. Ann Agric Environ Med 2014;21:767-770.
- 31. Graf PCF, Chretien JP, Ung L, et al. Prevalence of seropositivity to spotted fever group rickettsiae and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a large, demographically diverse US sample. Clin Infect Dis 2008;46:70-77.
- 32. Von Wissmann B, Hautmann W, Sing A, Hizo-Teufel C, Fingerle V. Assessing the risk of human granulocytic anaplasmosis and lyme borreliosis after a tick bite in Bavaria, Germany. Int J Med Microbiol 2015;305:736-741.
- Brouqui P, Dumler JS, Lienhard R, Brossard M, Raoult D. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Europe. Lancet 1995;346:782-783.
- 34. Bakken JS, Dumler JS. Clinical diagnosis and treatment of human granulocytotropic anaplasmosis. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:236247.
- Zhang Y, Wang S, Shi Y, et al. Anaplasmosis in farmers and domestic animals in Anhui province, China. Asian Pac J Trop Dis 2012;2:27-30.
- Mączka I, Roguska U, Tylewska-Wierzbanowska S. Prevalence of rickettsioses in Poland in 2006–2012. Przegl Epidemiol 2013;67:633-636.
- 37. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* transmitted through blood transfusion: Minnesota, 2007. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2008;57:1145-1148.
- Hjetland R, Henningsson AJ, Vainio K, et al. Seroprevalence of antibodies to tick-borne encephalitis virus and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in healthy adults from western Norway. Infect Dis 2015;47:52-56.
- 39. Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, Giannelli A, et al. Ticks infesting humans in Italy and associated pathogens. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:328.
- 40. Henningsson AJ, Wilhelmsson P, Gyllemark P, et al. Low risk of seroconversion or clinical disease in humans after a bite by an *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*-infected tick. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:787-792.

CHAPTER VI

GENERAL DISCUSSION

1. Prevalence of vector-borne pathogens exposure in dogs in Morocco

Our study demonstrates that dogs in Morocco are frequently exposed to *Anaplasma* spp. (21.9%), *Ehrlichia* spp. (34.6%) and *D. immitis* (16.1%). In addition, this study reported *A. platys* infection in dogs for the first time in Morocco with a prevalence of 7.5%. Before this survey, only a few and sparse data were available on VBPs in dogs in Morocco, other than *Leishmania* spp., and none on TBPs. Only one previous report described canine infection with D. immitis in a small number of stray and rural dogs from the region of Rabat¹ and all previous studies on Anaplasmataceae tick-borne pathogens were conducted mainly on ticks.²⁻⁴ Although a few studies demonstrated the occurrence of A. phagocytophilum, A. platys, B. burgdorferi, and E. canis in African countries close to Morocco,⁵⁻⁸ VBPs often have geographical variations in their ecology and prevalence due to differences in host and vector distribution, and to biotic and abiotic influences on the ecology.⁹ Although differences in diagnostic methods and studied populations might have an impact on differences found between our study and the results in Algerian dogs,⁷ geographical variation in ecological factors are also important to consider. These variations can also influence the spatial distribution and prevalence between regions within a given country.^{9,10} Indeed, we demonstrated that rural dogs, especially from the central northern region of Morocco are exposed more frequently to Ehrlichia spp. and D. immitis while working dogs living in kennels from Benslimane and Témara were infected more frequently with A. platys. In addition to these geographic variations other important factors such as living conditions of dogs influence the prevalence of canine VBPs. Outdoor living has been considered the major risk factor for acquiring a vector-borne infection in dogs¹¹⁻¹³ and several studies showed that rural, stray, hunting, shelter and working dogs are more exposed to these infections.^{7,10-12,14-23} In addition, kennel dogs can be more frequently exposed to some TBPs such as E. canis and B. canis,^{6,12} probably due to the particular life cycle of its tick vector tick *R. sanguineus*, also strongly suspected to transmit *A. platys.*²⁴ Finally, when dogs live in close contact to humans, there is an increased risk of transmission of some zoonotic pathogens. The occurrence of occult infections and coinfections with zoonotic organisms in clinically healthy dogs and humans might result in a complex disease expression in sick dogs and humans.²⁵⁻²⁷

In addition to the occurrence of single exposure to several VBPs, our study demonstrates the existence of frequent co-exposure (16.6%) among the canine populations studied. Dogs can be simultaneously or sequentially infected with a large number of VBPs depending on the presence and abundance of arthropod vectors.²⁸ Co-infection by multiple VBPs appears to be more frequent in dogs living in endemic areas and particularly in environments in which the vector population density is high.²⁸⁻³⁰ Exposure to multiple VBPs has been detected in several serological surveys worldwide with prevalence rates of co-exposure up to 61%.^{5,7,12,31-35} In the Mediterranean region including North Africa,

other VBPs than those detected in our study have been reported to infect dogs including Leishmania spp., Bartonella spp., Rickettsia spp., Babesia spp. and Hepatozoon canis. Co-infection with these VBPs and Anaplasma spp., Ehrichia spp. or D. immitis have also been described.^{14,15,32,33,36-40} Considering that co-infections complicate the pathophysiology, clinical manifestations, outcome, diagnosis and management of VBDs,^{41,42} the identification of the pathogens circulating in a canine population within a specific area is necessary. In addition, specific diagnostic tools are necessary to help veterinarians in the achievement of an accurate diagnosis and to adapt the management of these diseases. Furthermore, long-term antibody persistence of some select VBPs detected in our study (Anaplasama spp., Ehrlichia spp.) contributes to the challenges of co-exposure interpretation.^{33,35} Moreover, the complex interactions occurring between the host immune system and single pathogens can be modified by simultaneous or sequential infections with multiple pathogens, which may influence the serological and parasitological diagnosis. Indeed, experimental infection with A. platys and E. canis can alter the anticipated serological response in dogs that were co-infected or sequentially infected compared to that of those infected with a single organism.⁴³ In light of the detrimental clinical impact associated with VBD co-infections, further characterization of co-exposure epidemiology would benefit both animals and humans.³⁵

The frequency of exposure to single and multiple VBPs in Moroccan dogs highlight the importance of adapted diagnostic tools to identify the organism(s) involved in these infections. In Morocco, no laboratory is currently interested in the preparation of diagnostic tests for these pathogens and serological and molecular diagnostic tools for Anaplasma spp., Ehrlichia spp. and D. immitis are lacking. The only available diagnostic tools in some veterinary practices are the cytological diagnosis based on blood smear evaluation and in-clinic serological tests. Consequently, empirical treatments are frequently given to dogs clinically suspected to have Anaplasma spp. or Ehrlichia spp. infections in Morocco, without considering the possibility of co-infections with other VBPs such as D. immitis. Noteworthy, the most frequent co-exposure detected in our study is between Ehrlichia spp. and D. immtis (7.8%). It has been suggested that the high tick infestation and the subsequent high prevalence of E. canis,⁴⁴ prompt local veterinary practitioners the indiscriminate use of tetracycline to treat the suspected *Ehrlichia* infection. However, tetracycline therapy may contribute to the reduction of adult worms and its reproduction capability by destroying a filarial endosymbiont Wolbachia spp., which could lead to false negative serological results using the SNAP 4DX Plus.^{45,46} The diagnosis of canine VBDs is challenging for veterinarians because clinical signs induced by various VBPs may be similar, asymptomatic or subclinical infections are frequent and because co-infections may lead to overlapping or atypical clinical signs.^{25-27,47,48} Moreover, direct visualization of A. platys, A. phagocytophilum, and E. canis on blood smears examination of acutely infected dogs might be time-consuming, technically

challenging, and diagnostically insensitive due to the low-level and transient parasitemia²⁷ and its sensitivity is lower than molecular-based diagnostic tools.^{33,49} Serological tests can be very easy to perform due to the development of in-clinic devices. However, they have two main limitations, i.e, the cross-reactions between closely related bacteria such as Anaplasma species and Ehrlichia species, and the inability to discriminate active infection from prior exposure especially in endemic areas.^{27,33,50,51} For D. immitis, blood sample examination for the presence of microfilariae and identification based on morphology is considered definitive proof of infection. However, this method is based on the training of the persons examining the blood smear to differentiate D. immitis microfilariae from other species (Dirofilaria repens, Acanthocheilonema spp.). Also, up to 30% of infected dogs do not have circulating microfilariae even though they harbor adult worm. Therefore, the sensitivity of testing for microfilariae is not sufficient to rule out infection in the case of a negative result.⁵² The in-clinic tests designed to detect adult heartworm antigens based on ELISA and immunochromatography/lateral flow staining techniques are considered highly specific, but since these tests allow for detection of antigens produced only by female worms, false negative results may occur in infections of less than 5 months duration or very light infections or when only male worms are present.⁵² Consequently, the diagnostic confirmation of canine VBDs should take into consideration the historical exposure to arthropod vectors, compatible clinical signs and physical examination findings, biochemistry and hematological abnormalities, and the combination of multiple diagnostic modalities including cytological, serological, and molecular tests.^{27,33,41,52} Considering the very limited diagnostic tools available in Morocco, the risk of misdiagnosis might be increased and probably leads to an overuse of tetracycline in dogs clinically suspected to have a VBD, which can impact the serological diagnosis of *D. immitis* infection in dogs. Therefore, negative serological results to D. *immitis* should be interpreted with caution and possible underestimation of the true prevalence of *D. immitis* can occur.

2. Prevalence of Anaplasma spp. in dogs in Morocco

Although seroprevalence of Anaplasma spp. antibodies in dogs was high (21.9%), only 7.5% of dogs tested positive to A. platys by PCR and none tested positive to A. phagocytophilum. The discrepancy between the high seroprevalence and the moderate A. platys DNA detection could be due to several factors including the cyclic bacteremia associated with this bacterium or DNA degradation in some samples due to transport conditions. Indeed, in experimental A. platys infections, morulae appear 8-17 days after inoculation with maximal parasitemia occurring during the initial parasitemic episode about 4 days after the first appearance of morulae and then becoming cyclic at approximately 10-14 day intervals.⁵³⁻⁵⁶ The percentage of platelets containing morulae decreases to as low as 1% or less with subsequent parasitemic episodes, making detection of morulae more difficult.^{53,57} Finally, the cyclic nature of the parasitemias diminishes with time, resulting in mild, slowly resolving thrombocytopenia in association with sporadically occurring organisms in blood platelets. Therefore, although appropriately performed PCR-based assays are the most sensitive assays available to diagnose A. platys infection, false-negative test results can occur even in acute infections due to the evolution of A. platys bacteremia.^{24,58} It is hence possible that some dogs sampled in our study had A. *platys* infection below the detection limits of the method used or were in a phase without bacteremia. Another explanation is a resolved infection with only persisting antibodies as a result of previous exposures.

The discrepancy between the high seroprevalence and the moderate A. platys infection could also be explained by the circulation of other Anaplasma spp. such as A. phagocytophilum in the sampled dogs which has not been detected by PCR but could be responsible of an immunological response. This hypothesis could be supported by the fact that other studies form the Mediterranean area found very high prevalence rates up to 57.7% of A. platys DNA in dogs.³⁹ Anaplasma platys was thought to be the main Anaplasma species in some regions such as South America and Africa. However, studies detected A. phagocytophilum DNA in Mediterranean, African and South American countries.^{5,17,59-67} Moreover, the geographic distributions of both bacteria can overlap in some regions of the world since a few reports evaluated the occurrence of both bacteria in the same country and detected their DNA.^{5,59,63-65} The PCR method used in our study based on the detection of A. phagocytophilum msp2 gene using a real-time quantitative PCR (TaqMan-PCR) is reported to be highly specific and sensitive⁶⁸ and succeeded in detecting A. phagocytophilum DNA in regions where other protocols (mainly based on conventional PCR targeting the 16S rRNA gene) failed to detect it.^{61,62,69-70} The use of the msp2 gene target improves the specificity because it is not present in some more distantly related bacteria such as *Ehrlichia* spp. or *Bartonella spp.*, and due to a lower risk of contamination.^{69,71,72} The greater analytical sensitivity of the *msp2* assay occurred because of TaqMan's more efficient amplification chemistry.

In addition, this method was designed to amplify the msp2 gene over a wide variety of A. *phagocytophilum* strains from varying locations.⁶⁸ However, although the PCR protocol used in our study is reported to be highly sensitive, false-negative results are reported to occur with molecular-based diagnosis of A. phagocytophilum due to the low template concentrations, ^{50,73} the short duration of bacteremia in dogs and the variation in levels of circulating bacteria.^{50,74} Therefore, even when using assays with well-documented sensitivity, clinical specimens from known positive dogs may test negative, particularly when collected at a single time point.⁵⁰ Moreover, several studies demonstrated a higher prevalence of A. phagocytophilum DNA in clinically ill dogs than in apparently healthy ones,^{30,59,75-77} suggesting an association between positive PCR results and clinical illness.⁷⁴ Since DNAbased diagnostic tool enables the early detection of the infection by A. phagocytophilum, the bacteremia is of short duration and is usually present transiently during the acute phase of the infection.^{74,78,79} negative PCR results might be more difficult to interpret in healthy dogs which is probably the case in our study. On the other hand, selective amplification of the predominant organism can occur in patients co-infected with genetically similar organisms^{73,80} such as A. phagocytophilum and A. platys, which could be the case in our study. A recent study on Anaplasmataceae experimental infection in dogs demonstrated that under the same experimental conditions and using the same PCR protocol, A. platys was more frequently detected on blood by PCR (92%) than was A. phagocytophilum (50%).⁵⁶ Therefore, negative PCR results only indicate that the respective nucleic acid sequence was not detected in the sample evaluated under the assay conditions used and should not be interpreted as evidence of absence of infection.⁵⁰ Other factors could also explain the negative A. *phagocytophilum*-PCR result mainly the likely degradation of the DNA due to the transport conditions from Morocco to the USA, the circulation of A. phagocytophilum strains not detected by the protocol used and the selected region of sampling. The dogs included in our study were sampled exclusively from the western part of Morocco but previous studies detected *I. ricinu* ticks, the main vector of both *A. phagocytophilum* and *B. burdgorferi* in Europe,⁸¹ in the eastern regions of Morocco.²⁻⁴ In addition, *Borrelia burgdorferi*, that is transmitted by *Ixodes* spp. ticks, was reported in dogs in Algeria⁷ and ticks in Northeastern Morocco,² suggesting that these ticks could be more prevalent in eastern regions of the country.

Although a higher prevalence of *A. platys* infection was recorded in working dogs living in kennels, no risk factor associated with this infection in dogs was identified. Other studies on *A. platys* infection in dogs demonstrated an association with ticks infestation, especially with *R. sanguineus*.^{36,48,82} It has been suggested that the prevalence of *A. platys* could be influenced by the structure of the tick community and especially by the abundance of *R. sanguineus* probably because of the short duration of the bacteremia.⁴³ In a recent study, low prevalence of *R. sanguineus* was associated with the detection of *A. platys* in other *Rhipicephalus* spp. in Kenyan islands.⁸² We also did not found any significant

difference between dogs with clinical signs compatible with TBDs and those apparently healthy. In another study, A. platys-positive dogs were mostly apparently healthy and displayed only occasional laboratory abnormalities.⁸³ It has been suggested that more pathogenic strains than those found in the USA are circulating in the Mediterranean region, responsible of more severe clinical signs including lethargy, fever, anorexia, lymphadenomegaly, splenomegaly, abdominal pain, bleeding disorders, purulent nasal discharges more frequent mortality and possible decreased response to doxycycline therapy. Co-infections with other VBPs or intrinsic factors specific to each dogs (age, physical condition, immune status, or stress) may contribute to a more severe expression of the disease.^{40,84-93} However, a recent study on naturally infected dogs in the Mediterranean region did not find any significant differences regarding the clinical expression of A. platys between mono- and co-infected dogs suggesting that strains virulence and/or other factors (concurrent diseases, genetic factors, immune status, physical condition, stress) could be involved in the more sever clinical expression. Putative immune-mediated processes such as immune-mediated hemolytic anemia or thrombocytopenia might explain the severity of some cases, especially the dogs that died or did not improve despite appropriate medication.⁴⁰ Therefore, ICCT should be considered in the differential diagnosis of dogs displaying clinical signs compatible with those aforementioned in Morocco, and co-infections as well as immunemediated processes should be suspected in treatment cases.

3. Rhipicephalus sanguineus ticks and their epidemiological significance

Rhipicephalus sanguineus, commonly called the brown dog tick or kennel tick, is probably the most widely distributed tick species. It is also the most common tick found in the Mediterranean region.^{94,95} This tick has been introduced from the Afrotropical Region to many countries in the world, probably by the importation of infested domestic dogs, its preferred host.^{96,97} For dogs, the brown dog tick can produce debilitating effects due to both blood loss and the transmission of infectious agents.⁹⁶ More recently, a report described suspected paralysis associated with these tick bites in dogs.⁹⁸ *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* is known as a competent vector of several pathogens including *Rickettsia* spp., *Babesia canis, Hepatozoon canis* and *E. canis*, is suspected to transmit *Bartonella* spp., *Mycoplasma haemocanis* and *A. platys*^{42,98} and could be implicated in the epidemiology of canine visceral leishmaniasis.⁹⁹⁻¹⁰² In addition, several other TBPs known to be transmitted by *Ixodes* spp. ticks where detected in *R. sanguineus* including *A. phagocytophilum* and *Borrelia* spp.^{62,95,103-105} Several *Rhipicephalus* species including *R. sanguineus* were infected by *A. phagocytophilum* and were suggested as potential competent vectors of this bacterium in the Mediterranean area.¹⁰⁶⁻¹¹¹ A report from Jordan detected high prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* infection in stray dogs and *R. sanguineus* was the most abundant species parasitizing these dogs (95.1%) whereas no *Ixodes* spp. were detected.¹⁷

Although *A. phagocytophilum* DNA is increasingly reported from *R. sanguineus* ticks, it remains to establish if they play a role in the transmission of this pathogen to humans and other animals.¹⁰⁴ Morphological and molecular data indicated that *R. sanguineus* represents a complex of species and at least four different taxa have been identified under the name *R. sanguineus*.¹¹²⁻¹¹⁷ Therefore, the potential genetic diversity among *R. sanguineus* species could also influence its vectorial competence in some geographic regions, but more studies are needed to elucidate this issue.¹¹⁶

In tropical and subtropical regions, R. sanguineus ticks have the particularity to be active throughout the year and to achieve two or more generations per year. Warm temperature may contribute to increased tick abundance by a more rapid development.^{118,119} R. sanguineus is a nidiculous tick that can complete its entire life cycle either indoor (in houses, kennels and veterinary hospitals where it readily colonizes the infrastructure) or in outdoor environments (peri-urban and rural).^{6,96,120,121} *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* populations can reach very high numbers in sheltered environments, because the blood supply necessary for their development is guaranteed by the presence of hosts in close proximity. In dogs without appropriate protection, parasitic loads can reach hundreds of ticks per animal, with ticks in all developmental stages.¹²² Although R. sanguineus ticks usually feed on dogs, they can also feed in a wide variety of animals including humans.^{94-96,121} Due to the close relationship between dogs and humans, some ectoparasites of domestic dogs may parasitize people. This parasitism, though unusual, might be responsible for a simple skin lesion or for the transmission of infectious agents.^{96,123} However, several reports described human parasitism with *R. sanguineus* ticks, suggesting that it is more unfrequently reported than unusual and human infestation might be associated with a high level of environmental infestation.^{95,96,123-135} Surveys investigating tick infestation in human from southern Europe and southern America found that R. sanguineus was amongst the most frequently retrieved tick species,^{95,123,133,134} especially in urban areas.¹³⁴ One report describing four cases of human parasitism with *R. sanguineus* found several ticks in the house of the patients mainly on the sofa and the wall.⁹⁶ Therefore, people living or in daily contact with highly parasitized dogs might be included in the group at risk for parasitism by R. sanguineus. Veterinarians and veterinary employee are also included in this group, because of close contact with infested dogs.^{96,118} TBDs are recognized as an emerging public health problem in many countries and R. sanguineus has been linked to some of these diseases, such as boutonneuse fever caused by *Rickettsia conorii*.^{94,96,136} In Europe and the USA, most cases of boutonneuse fever are registered during summer, when R. sanguineus ticks are highly active.¹³⁶ Similarly, human parasitism by R. sanguineus ticks in the USA has been reported to occur predominantly during the summer and fall^{126,127} In Morocco, cases of *R. conorii* infection have been reported.¹³⁷⁻¹³⁹ It has been found that the human affinity of *R. sanguineus* was increased in warmer temperatures, and that there is a warming-mediated increase in the aggressiveness of *R. sanguineus*,

leading to increased human attacks, and more pathogens transmitted by the brown dog tick may emerge in the future as a result of globalization and global warming.¹⁴⁰ This could explain the report of *E. canis* and *A. platys* human infections,^{73,120,141-145} and emphasizes the importance of *R. sanguineus*. Therefore, due to its high degree of adaptability, *R. sanguineus* represents a major threat not only to dogs, but also to humans. Consequently, as *R. sanguineus* infestation in dogs was frequent in our study, further investigation should be carried out to better understand the ecology and biology of *R. sanguineus* in Morocco and to assess its public health importance and its ability in transmitting TBPs.

4. Prevalence of Anaplasma phagocytophilum exposure in healthy humans in Morocco

This survey is the first to report human exposure to A. phagocytophilum in Morocco and in Africa more generally. Our study detected relatively high prevalence rates in both the high risk population composed by military and gendarmerie dog handlers and in blood donors with 27.5% and 21.7% of seropositivity, respectively at the dilution recommended by the WHO (1:128).¹⁴⁶ Our results are quite similar to those found in endemic areas of the USA and Europe.¹⁴⁷⁻¹⁴⁹ In addition, 6 out of 10 dog owners were also seropositive to A. phagocytophilum IgG at the same dilution. In Morocco, sparse published surveys are available on TBPs mainly on ticks and domestic animals.^{2-4,150-157} Although the tick population is abundant in Morocco and several TBPs of medical importance have been detected, only very few studies on human cases or human exposure are currently available. Meskini et al., reported in 1995 the prevalence of *Rickettsi conorii*, *R. typhy* and *Coxiella burnetti* in two cities of Morocco with rates of 5.6% to 7%, 1.7% to 4% and 1% to 18.3%, respectively; but they failed to detect Ehrlichia chaffeensis.¹⁵⁸ Another survey found that 20.5% of patient displaying fever of unknown etiology in northwestern Morocco had tick-borne relapsing fever caused by Borrelia hispanica confirmed by PCR.¹⁵⁹ Cases of human rickettsiosis caused by *R. conorii* or *R. aeschlimannii* have also been reported from Moroccan people living in Morocco or in Europe after a stay in Morocco.^{137-139,160} The incidence of zoonotic TBDs (anaplasmosis, borreliosis, babesiosis, rickettsiosis) is increasing worldwide. These infections may be associated with both domestic and wild animals with a high risk of acquiring infections for humans frequenting tick-infested areas such as forests, meadow habitats and grassland.^{95,161-163} Indeed, the distributions of ticks and thus the risk of pathogen transmission to humans is closely related to the type of environment, often depending on local tick feeding habits and the distribution and density of small-mammal species that act as competent pathogen reservoirs.^{28,94,95} Some TBPs such as A. phagocytophilum, are more likely related to wild animals as this bacterium is mostly maintained in enzootic cycles involving ticks and wildlife fauna.¹⁶⁴ Dogs and humans are mostly considered as incidental hosts and become infected with A. phagocytophilum when they come in contact with the vector in host reservoir habitat.¹⁶⁵ Ixodes ricinus the main competent vector of this bacterium in

Europe is an hygrophilous tick species adapted to cool weather that has a high affiliation with wooded areas and pastures.^{81,94,133,166} In our study, no *Ixodes* spp. ticks were found infesting dogs in contact with seropositive humans and dogs were exclusively parasitized by *R. sanguineus*. Discrepancies between distributions of *Ixodes* tick species and the pathogens they transmit are reported to occur and are not well understood but may be related to habitat needs, feeding behavior and host-reservoir dynamics.²⁸ Although dogs were mostly infested by *R. sanguineus* ticks, patients included in this survey could have been previously in contact with other tick species during their outdoor occupational or leisure activities since a high proportion of the blood donors (74.8%) and dog owners (7/10) mentioned having outdoor activities, and dogs handlers are regularly involved in outdoor working. Therefore, the obvious popularity of outdoor activities in the sampled population may have increased the risk of exposure to A. phagocytophilum. It has been reported that the kind of activity especially related to outdoor is a conditioning factor for human parasitism by ticks.¹²³ Indeed, people working or living in rural environments and in forest areas, hunters, national parks rangers and military personnel¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁴ are considered high-risk populations for acquiring A. phagocytophilum infection. However, staying indoor is not a warranty of absence of risk for tick infestation.^{96,123} A large number of participants to a study from Germany mentioned contracting their most recent tick bite in their gardens and half of the participants with past exposure to A. phagocytophilum listed gardening as a regular leisure activity; despite a comparatively low risk of exposure associated with this activity. Additionnally, only a small portion (3.6%) of the tested population had a history of tick exposure. Similarly, several surveys did not find any association between self-reported exposure to ticks and the seroreactivity rates of phagocytophilum¹⁷⁵⁻¹⁸⁰ phagocytophilum and others Α. demonstrated seropositivity to A. phagocytophilum without a history of tick bite.¹⁷⁴ Another report described the highest seropositivity rate to A. phagocytophilum among persons who denied having tick bites while the lowest rate was observed in persons who were frequently bitten, probably because the latter are used to checking their body for attached ticks, which may reduce the risk of A. phagocytophilum transmission.¹⁷⁸ Several factors can explain this oversight including the stage of feeding ticks and the capacity of ticks to modulate host immune and inflammatory responses, thats may also decrease the chance of detection. Indeed, nymphs and larvae may not be detectable because of their small size.^{130,176,177,181} In some studies, nymphal stages of ticks were the predominant stage parasitizing humans, complicating their detection and increasing the risk of pathogens transmission.^{95,130,182} The site of attachment on the body can also make the tick detection difficult.^{96,181} Furthermore, several persons from the blood donor group that were questioned about previous contact with ticks were not familiar with these parasites and were not able to identify a tick. Ticks can also be confounded with other arthropod parasites such as lice.¹²³

Our results showed that even in the blood donor group, high prevalences of 35.7% and 21.7% at the 1:64 and 1:128 dilutions were recorded, respectively. When compared to European prevalences in blood donors using the same method and the same cutoffs, these results are higher than those published in Poland (2%),¹⁷⁷ and Austria (9%),¹⁴⁶ but they are similar to those from Greece (21.4%).¹⁸³ Without taking into account the method and the cutoffs, the results from Moroccan blood donors are even higher than those from US and European reports.^{167,168,175,184-189} In several reports that compared the seroreactivity rates of blood donors to those of high-risk populations, significant differences were found;^{175,186,187} these findings are in contrast to our report. Therefore, our report highlights the potential importance of A. phagocytophilum infection in blood donors in Morocco. This infection can be subclinical or asymptomatic especially in endemic areas,^{190,191} increasing the risk of sampling infected blood donors. Indeed, it has been suggested that people at high risk for a tick bite have a higher proportion of asymptomatic anaplasmosis.¹⁹² In addition, A. phagocytophilum is able to survive in refrigerated blood products up to 18 days.¹⁹³ Since this bacterium infects neutrophils, leukoreduction was thought to be able to avoid the risk of transmission through blood transfusion.¹⁹⁴ However, this method did not successfully prevent the transmission of this bacterium in several cases suggesting that it is not efficient in eliminating the risk.^{191,195-198} Although transfusion-transmitted A. phagocytophilum infection seems to be rare, it is likely to be more severe than the infection acquired after a tick bite¹⁹⁶ probably due to the immune status of these patients and to the administration of immunosuppressive therapy.^{190,191} Considering the discrepancy between the seroprevalence and the reported cases in endemic areas, it has been hypothesized that transfusion-transmitted A. phagocytophilum infection might be unrecognized in the majority of cases owing to the low bacterial virulence that can be enhanced by immunosuppressive therapy.^{190,191,195} Because of the rarity of transfusion-associated cases reported even in endemic areas of the USA, concerns regarding the specificity of available tests, and the economic costs associated with implementation, the blood supply in the USA is not routinely screened for tick-borne disease using laboratory methods.¹⁹⁰ Indeed, in endemic areas of the USA where seroprevalence is high, the chance of accepting a donor with subclinical infection is a less hazardous alternative than using serologic screening with a resultant dramatic reduction in blood supply. In addition, PCR testing of donors would be cost prohibitive and likely low yield. Deferring potential donors in disease-endemic areas during peak tick activity (April-September) would severely limit the blood supply with little potential gain.¹⁹⁵ Furthermore, tick bite–specific screening questions have not proved useful, as donors usually do not remember a tick bite. Donors who do find a tick typically do so within the first 24 to 48 hours, before infective transmission is likely to have taken place; excluding these donors may limit donation by up to 9% in the USA endemic regions.^{190,199,200} Similarly, the report of outdoor activities in wooded habitat in an anaplasmosis endemic area is poorly predictive for possible infection.¹⁹⁰ Therefore, in the absence of effective screening tools to identify infected donors or products

and since the incidence of anaplasmosis increases, physicians should suspect *A. phagocytophilum* infection when febrile illness associated with leukopenia or thrombocytopenia develops in a patient after transfusion. Such signs should lead to rapid assessment for rickettsial agents especially *A. phagocytophilum* and empiric treatment with doxycycline.^{196,199}

5. Future perspectives

This study demonstrates that Moroccan dogs are frequently exposed to Anaplasma spp., *Ehrlichia* spp. and *D. immtis* and detected co-exposures. It has also shown that rural dogs with outdoor living and working dogs living in kennels are more exposed to Ehrlichia spp. and D. immitis, and infected by A. platys, respectively. In addition to the importance of adapted diagnostic tools lacking in Morocco, our study highlights the need for adapted ectoparasites and heartworm preventive programs in all dogs and especially in those with frequent access to outdoor or living in kennels. Several reports demonstrated that ectoparasites prevention is a protective factor against tick-borne infections such as *E. canis* and *A. phagocytophilum*^{6,12,14,37,201} or that tick infestation is a risk factor associated with higher prevalence rates.^{10,49,62,82,202} Therefore, veterinarians should pay attention to the living conditions of dogs to prescribe the more adapted preventive treatment. Such as the lack of some important diagnostic modalities in Morocco, only a very few ectoparasites preventive treatments are available. Finally, because VBPs can have serious outcome for both canine and human health, dogs can serve as effective sentinels and fluctuations in geographic distribution of vectors and reservoir hosts occur frequently, annual testing of dogs for VBPs exposure and identifying risk factors associated with these infection are crucial.²⁰³ Improved understanding of the geographic distribution, prevalence and risk factors of VBPs and co-exposure in Morocco can facilitate prompt disease diagnosis and effective animal and public health interventions.^{34,35,204}

Our study has shown that dogs are infected by *A. platys* but failed to detect *A. phagocytophilum*. The discrepancy between the high seroprevalence to *Anaplasma* spp. and the *A. platys*-positive results by PCR and the lack of specificity of serological tests at the species level could suggest that some of the dogs sampled in this study were exposed to other *Anaplasma* spp. such as *A. phagocytophilum*. Further studies are therefore necessary to evaluate the presence of the later in Morocco. As *I. ricinus*, the most common vector of *A. phagocytophilum* in Europe has been detected in the northeastern of Morocco,²⁻⁴ future surveys must include dogs from this part of the country. Our study was limited to four cities of northwestern Morocco. However, ecological variations between regions of a country can impact the tick populations and thus the associated pathogens that can be transmitted.^{9,10} Therefore, large-scale epidemiological surveys are needed to assess the risk for dogs of acquiring *A. phagocytophilum* and

160

A. platys in each region of the country. Since serological tests cannot discriminate between past exposure and present infection, are unable to identify the *Anaplasma* pathogen at the species level and false negative results can occur with PCR,^{50,74,78,79} the combination of both methods is necessary.

The dogs sampled were exclusively parasitized by *R. sanguineus*. This tick species is also known as competent vector of E. canis another Anaplasmataceae pathogen widely distributed and responsible for canine monocytic ehrlichiosis. The disease is unspecific and associated with life threatening complications such as glomerulonephritis, meningitis and potential cardiac injury.²⁰⁴⁻²⁰⁸ The SNAP 4DX Plus used to detect anti-Ehrlichia antibodies does not discriminate between E. canis, E. ewingii and *E. chaffeensis.*⁵¹ *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* and *E. ewingii* are the causative agents of two tick-borne zoonosis called human monocytis and granulocytic ehrlichiosis, respectively.^{209,210} In Africa, these two bacteria are poorly investigated but their DNA has been detected in some tick species including R. sanguineus and canine exposure has been reported.^{3,211-213} However, these two pathogens and their respective diseases have been described almost exclusively in some regions of the USA where Amblyomma americanum is the only proven competent vector.^{209,210,212} Therefore, the positivity rates obtained in our study are likely due to the presence of E. canis antibodies in the samples tested, especially because this bacterium is prevalent in Africa and the Mediterranean area^{5-7,12,19} and that R. sanguineus is its main vector. However, since both E. chaffeensis and E. ewingii are zoonotic and their DNA has been detected in R. sanguineus and dogs in Africa, molecular-based epidemiological surveys are needed to clarify which species are circulating in the canine population in Morocco. *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* ticks are competent vectors of other pathogens that can cause serious illness in dogs such as Babesia canis and Hepatozoon canis and others zoonotic ones such as R. conorii and Bartonella spp.^{33,42,94,98,124,214} In addition, one tick can be infected by and is able to transmit more than one pathogen to a host ^{28,215} and co-infections are reported to complicate both the diagnosis and the management of the disease.^{41,42} Therefore, prevalence data on these infections and co-infections are diagnostically and epidemiologically important for veterinarians and to evaluate the risk of exposure of humans in Morocco, respectively. Future studies should evaluate the occurrence and prevalence of all R. sanguineus-transmitted pathogens in dogs in Morocco.

This study is the first to report human exposure to A. phagocytophilum in Africa with a high prevalence in dog handlers, owners and blood donors. Although we did not find any risk factor for the seropositivity, blood donors and dog owners frequently reported having outdoor activities. In addition, the occupational activity of dog handlers is frequently associated with outdoor working in divers environments. Anaplasma phagocytophilum infection has been frequently associated with outdoor activities especially related to wooded areas.^{94,124,162,163} Therefore, studies investigating the occurrence and the prevalence of this bacterium DNA in ticks in parks and forests of Morocco are important to evaluate the risk of exposure and to evaluate the potential vector range. Since our survey detected a high seroprevalence rate in blood donors without difference with the high risk population and higher than the seroprevalence recorded in blood donor in endemic areas of the USA,¹⁹⁵ a large scale study of the prevalence of both exposure and infection with A. phagocytophilum in blood donors should be carried in Morocco to better assess the risk of transmission through blood transfusion. In the USA, human granulocytic anaplasmosis in known since several years and is a nationally notifiable disease suggesting that physician are more concerned about this disease.^{216,217} In contrast, Moroccan physicians are probably not familiar with this infection and its potential transmission through blood transfusion and hence, adapted screening tools to evaluate the contamination of blood supply are likely to be necessary. In addition, increasing physician awareness to promptly diagnose and treat cases of transfusiontransmitted A. phagocytophilum is crucial. This study has been designed to evaluate the occurrence of human exposure in two cities of Morocco and a large-scale survey is needed to evaluate the occurrence and the prevalence of exposure at the national level. In addition, this study was based on the serological screening and thus is only indicative of previous exposure to A. phagocytophilum. Future surveys should associate the documentation of seroconversion or a four-fold increase in antibody titer and PCR screening to diagnose an active infection.^{149,176} Molecular-based analysis is also important to determine the strain (s) circulating in Morocco since not all are pathogenic for humans.^{164,218-221}

The dogs sampled in our study lived in close contact with dog handlers and owners also enrolled. Therefore, due to the close contact and the frequent infestation of these dogs by *R. sanguineus*, dog handlers and owners were at high risk of being infested by this tick species and thus of acquiring a *R. sanguineus*-transmitted pathogen such as *R. conorii*.^{96,118,140} Cases of *R. conorii* infection have already been reported in Morocco¹³⁷⁻¹³⁹ and might be underestimated. In addition although not considered zoonotic, *E. canis* and *A. platys* can also infect human.^{73,120,141,144,145} Hence, it is important to determine which pathogens infect *R. sanguineus* ticks in Morocco with a special emphasis on those that are zoonotic or able to infect both dogs and humans. Both the occurrence of *R. sanguineus* infested dogs and *A. phagocytophilum* exposure in humans suggests that people in this study have been exposed to at least two tick species, since *A. phagocytophilum* is mostly transmitted by *Ixodes* spp. ticks.^{28,81,205}

Several studies on human parasitism by ticks have shown that the actual diversity of ticks potentially infesting humans is greater than previously believed and any case of human infestation by ticks should be regarded as of clinical significance.¹²⁴ Therefore, surveys evaluating human parasitism by ticks and identifying the species and the associated pathogens are warranted. It could also be that *R. sanguineus* plays a role in the transmission of this bacterium in Morocco since the DNA of *A. phagocytophilum* has been detected in this tick species and that some authors suggested that this tick could be a competent vector in the Mediterranean area.¹⁰⁶⁻¹¹¹ However, the contact with dogs was not a risk factor *A. phagocytophilum* seropositivity, which is not in favor of this hypothesis. Studies investigating the prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* DNA using molecular tools in questing ticks and ticks feeding on dogs and humans are mandatory.

Anaplasma platys was known to infect dogs exclusively, but recent reports described human infection.^{73,120,144} Since *R. sanguineus* is the most probable competent vector and our dogs were frequently infested by these ticks, we can therefore wonder if the persons included in our study can be infected by this bacterium? Indeed, all human cases of A. platys infection reported regular contact with dogs and/or infestation of their dogs with R. sanguineus.^{73,120,144} In addition, A. platys DNA sequencing in two human cases was identical to the sequence found in their dog.⁷³ All published cases of A. platys infection in humans were diagnosed by DNA detection or microscopic identification of morulae within platelets.^{73,120,144} In addition, a previous report describing intra-platelet inclusions in humans failed to detect anti-A. platys antibodies.¹⁴³ Therefore, the occurrence of an immunological response to this bacterium in humans is unknown. Moreover, to our knowledge, the possible occurrence of crossreactions between A. platys and A. phagocytophilum antibodies has not been evaluated in humans. The IFA based on HL60-cells infected with a human isolate of A. phagocytophilum, such as the one used in our study, are considered to be both sensitive¹⁴⁶ and highly specific for the investigation of seroreactivity to this bacterium²²² with a specificity of 100%, according to the manufacturer. In addition, the absence of relationship between the seropositivity to A. phagocytophilum and dogs in our study might be less in favor of an A. platys infection. A cross-reaction between antibodies against these two bacteria seems unlikely but we cannot exclude that some of the persons enrolled in our study have had an A. platys infection. Consequently, future studies should also investigate the occurrence of A. platys infection in humans in Morocco using molecular-based assays.

Our research work implicated the close collaboration between veterinarians, physicians, public health institutions and both humans and veterinary laboratories. Therefore, it is an application of the "One Health" approach. The "One Health" approach as been defined by the American Veterinary Medicine Association as "the collaborative effort of multiple disciplines working locally, nationally and globally to attain the optimal health for people, animals and environment".²²³ The "One Health" movement has emerged in the mid of the 20th century due to the increased awareness of zoonotic diseases and embraces a cross-disciplinary, collaborative approach between veterinary and human medicine with clinicians, researchers, agencies and governments working together for the benefit of domestic and wild animal and human health and the global environment to address diseases of importance to both scientific communities. Such interactions may take place at many levels - from management of zoonotic infectious disease outbreaks in the field, to joint research programmes to integrated policy making and funding decisions.^{224,225,226,227} It was however, not until the past five years, that the One Health concept has truly gathered international momentum. More recently, the role of companion animals and the VBDs they share with humans have been conceptualized with a One Health approach.^{124,224,228}

6. Conclusion of the thesis

In this thesis, we investigated for the first time the exposure of dogs to selected vector-borne pathogens of veterinary and medical significance in Morocco. This first investigation enables us to demonstrate that dogs were frequently exposed to *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp. and infected by *D. immitis*, with rural dogs at higher risk for *Ehrlichia* spp. and *D. immitis* exposure. This first investigation detected antibodies against *Anaplasma* and *Ehrlichia* genera without discrimination at the species level. Since *A. phagocytophilum* is an emerging zoonotic tick-borne pathogen increasingly recognized worldwide, with potential severe complications, transmitted through blood transfusion and detected in the Mediterranean area and some African countries, we focused on the genus *Anaplasma*.

In the second part of this thesis, we investigated both the exposure to *Anaplasma* spp. and the infections with *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* in a higher number of dogs sampled from three cities of northwestern Morocco. We confirmed that dogs are frequently seropositive to *Anaplasma* spp. without difference according to the living conditions. This study also demonstrates that dogs are infected by *A. platys* but failed to detect *A. phagocytophilum* DNA by PCR. In addition, the only tick species detected on these dogs was *R. sanguineus*, which is considered the most probable vector of *A. platys*. Although *A. phagocytophilum* DNA was not detected, this study cannot exclude the circulation of this bacterium in canine population and further investigations are warranted. In addition, dogs were sampled exclusively in the northwestern part of Morocco but *I. ricinus* ticks have been reported to occur in the northeastern regions. Future surveys should include dogs from the eastern part of the country.

Considering the zoonotic aspect of *A. phagocytophilum* we also evaluated the human exposure to this bacterium in Morocco in the final part of this study. This investigation demonstrated a high seroprevalence in both the high-risk group of dog handlers and the blood donor group without significant difference between both groups. In addition, dog owners were also frequently exposed to this bacterium. Although this study failed to identify risk factors for human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* in Morocco, a high proportion of the persons sampled reported regular outdoor occupational or leisure activities, which could have increased the risk of exposure to ticks. The seroprevalence rates obtained were similar than those from endemic areas of the USA and Europe. This study is the first to demonstrate human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* in Africa and highlight its importance in Morocco due to its high seroprevalence.

This thesis investigated canine and human exposure to vector-borne pathogens focusing on *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys*. Although it has failed to detect the DNA of *A. phagocytophilum* in dogs, the discrepancy between the high seroprevalence to *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies and the moderate prevalence of *A. platys* DNA in those dogs suggests the possible exposure to other *Anaplasma* species. In addition, the high seroprevalence in humans supports the likely circulation of this bacterium in Morocco and should encourage investigation to better understand the epidemiology of this bacterium and its medical significance.

Above all, this thesis highlights the importance of tick-borne infections in Morocco and the need for further surveys to identify the pathogens circulating in this country, and their veterinary and public health significance.

References

- Pandey VS, Dakkak A, Elmamoune M. Parasites of stray dogs in the Rabat region, Morocco. Ann Trop Med Parasitol 1987;81:53-55.
- Sarih M, Jouda F, Gern L, Postic D. First isolation of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato from *Ixodes* ricinus Ticks in Morocco. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2003;3:133-139.
- 3. Sarih M, M'Ghirbi Y, Bouattour A, et al. Detection and identification of *Ehrlichia* spp. in ticks collected in Tunisia and Morocco. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:1127-1132.
- Seng P, Sarih M, Socolovschi C, et al. Detection of Anaplasmataceae in ticks collected in Morocco. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15 Suppl 2:86-87.
- 5. M'ghirbi Y, Ghorbel A, Amouri M, et al. Clinical, serological, and molecular evidence of ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis in dogs in Tunisia. Parasitol Res 2009;104:767-774.
- Davoust B, Mediannikov O, Chene J, et al. Study of ehrlichiosis in kennel dogs under treatment and prevention during seven months in Dakar (Senegal). Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2013;36:613-617.
- Azzag N, Petit E, Gandoin C, et al. Prevalence of select vector-borne pathogens in stray and client-owned dogs from Algiers. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2015;38:1-7.
- 8. Dahmani M, Loudahi A, Mediannikov O, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* in dogs from Kabylie, Algeria. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:198-203.
- 9. Foley JE, Foley P, Brown RN, et al. Ecology of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Borrelia burgdorferi* in the western United States. J Vector Ecol 2004;29:41-50.
- 10. Yuasa Y, Hsu TH, Chou CC, et al. The comparison of spatial variation and risk factors between mosquito-borne and tick-borne diseases: Seroepidemiology of *Ehrlichia canis*, *Anaplasma* species, and *Dirofilaria immitis* in dogs. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2012;35:599-606.
- 11. Lim S, Irwin PJ, Lee SR et al. Comparison of selected canine vector-borne diseases between urban animal shelter and rural hunting dogs in Korea. Parasit Vectors 2010;3:32.
- Pennisi MG, Caprì A, Solano-Gallego L, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against *Rickettsia conorii*, *Babesia canis*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* antigens in dogs from the Stretto di Messina area (Italy). Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2012;3:314-317.
- 13. Alho AM, Pita J, Amaro A, et al. Seroprevalence of vector-borne pathogens and molecular detection of *Borrelia afzelii* in military dogs from Portugal. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:225.
- Solano-Gallego L, Llull J, Osso M, et al. A serological study of exposure to arthropod-borne pathogens in dogs from northeastern Spain. Vet Res 2006;37:231-244.

- 15. Amusategui I, Tesouro MA, Kakoma I, et al. Serological reactivity to *Ehrlichia canis*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Neorickettsia risticii*, *Borrelia burgdorferi* and *Rickettsia conorii* in dogs from northwestern Spain. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;8:797-803.
- Mircean V, Dumitrache MO, Gyöke A, et al. Seroprevalence and geographic distribution of Dirofilaria immitis and tick-borne Infections (Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato, and Ehrlichia canis) in dogs from Romania. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:595-604.
- Qablan MA, Kubelová M, Siroký P, et al. Stray dogs of northern Jordan as reservoirs of ticks and tick-borne hemopathogens. Parasitol Res 2012;111:301-307.
- 18. Hornok S, Dénes B, Meli ML, et al. Non-pet dogs as sentinels and potential synanthropic reservoirs of tick-borne and zoonotic bacteria. Vet Microbiol 2013;167:700-703.
- 19. Miró G, Montoya A, Roura X, et al. Seropositivity rates for agents of canine vector-borne diseases in Spain: a multicentre study. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:117-125.
- Borthakur SK, Deka DK, Bhattacharjee K, et al. Seroprevalence of canine dirofilariosis, granulocytic anaplasmosis and lyme borreliosis of public health importance in dogs from India's North East. Veterinary World 2014;7:665-667.
- 21. Aktas M, Özübek S, Altay K, et al. Molecular detection of tick-borne rickettsial and protozoan pathogens in domestic dogs from Turkey. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:157.
- 22. Cui Y, Yan Y, Wang X, et al. First molecular evidence of mixed infections of *Anaplasma* species in dogs in Henan, China. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016; 8:283-289.
- 23. Vascellari M, Ravagnan S, Carminato A, et al. Exposure to vector-borne pathogens in candidate blood donor and free-roaming dogs of northeast Italy. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:369.
- Harvey JW. Anaplasma platys infection (thrombocytotropic anaplasmosis). In: Greene GE, ed. Infectious Diseases of the Dog and Cat, Chapter 26: *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* infections, 4th ed. Saunders Elsevier, St. Louis, MO; 2012:256-258.
- 25. Brown GK, Canfield PJ, Dunstan RH, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Babesia canis vogeli* and their impact on platelet numbers in free-roaming dogs associated with remote Aboriginal communities in Australia. Aust Vet J 2006;84:321-325.
- 26. Yabsley MJ, McKibben J, Macpherson CN, et al. Prevalence of *Ehrlichia canis*, Anaplasma platys, Babesia canis vogeli, Hepatozoon canis, Bartonella vinsonii berkhoffii, and Rickettsia spp. in dogs from Grenada. Vet Parasitol. 2008;151:279-285.
- 27. Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, Breitschwerdt EB. Managing canine vector-borne diseases of zoonotic concern: part two. Trends Parasitol 2009;25:228-235.
- Swanson SJ, Neitzel D, Reed KD, et al. Coinfections acquired from *Ixodes* ticks. Clin Microbiol Rev 2006;19:708-727.

- 29. Henn JB, Gabriel MW, Kasten RW, et al. Gray foxes (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*) as a potential reservoir of a *Bartonella clarridgeiae*-like bacterium and domestic dogs as sentinels for zoonotic arthropod-borne pathogens in northern California. J Clin Microbiol 2007;45:2411-2418.
- Beall MJ, Chandrashekar R, Eberts MD, et al. Serological and molecular prevalence of Borrelia burgdorferi, Anaplasma phagocytophilum, and Ehrlichia species in dogs from Minnesota. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;8:455-464.
- Kordick SK, Breitschwerdt EB, Hegarty BC, et al. Coinfection with multiple tick-borne pathogens in a Walker Hound kennel in North Carolina. J Clin Microbiol 1999;37:2631-2638.
- 32. Trotz-Williams LA, Trees AJ. Systematic review of the distribution of the major vector-borne parasitic infections in dogs and cats in Europe. Vet Rec 2003;152:97-105.
- Otranto D, Testini G, Dantas-Torres F, et al. Diagnosis of canine vector-borne diseases in young dogs: a longitudinal study. J Clin Microbiol 2010;48:3316-3324.
- 34. Qurollo AB, Chandrashekar R, Hegarty BC, et al. A serological survey of tick-borne pathogens in dogs in North America and the Caribbean as assessed by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *A. platys*, *Ehrlichia canis*, *E. chaffeensis*, *E. ewingii*, and *Borrelia burgdorferi* species-specific peptides. Infect Ecol Epidemiol 2014;4.
- Yancey CB, Hegarty BC, Qurollo BA, et al. Regional seroreactivity and vector-borne disease eo-Exposures in dogs in the United States from 2004–2010: utility of canine surveillance. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2014;14:724-732.
- 36. de Caprariis D, Dantas-Torres F, Capelli G, et al. Evolution of clinical, haematological and biochemical findings in young dogs naturally infected by vector-borne pathogens. Veterinary Microbiology 2011;149:206-212.
- Cardoso L, Mendão C, Madeira de Carvalho L. Prevalence of *Dirofilaria immitis*, *Ehrlichia canis*, *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, *Anaplasma* spp. and *Leishmania infantum* in apparently healthy and CVBD-suspect dogs in Portugal — a national serological study. Parasit Vectors 2012;5:62.
- Maia C, Almeida B, Coimbra M, Fernandes MC, et al. Bacterial and protozoal agents of canine vector-borne diseases in the blood of domesticand stray dogs from southern Portugal. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:138.
- 39. Solano-Gallego L, Caprì A, Pennisi MG, et al. Acute febrile illness is associated with *Rickettsia* spp infection in dogs. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:216.
- Bouzouraa T, René-Martellet M, Chêne J, et al. Clinical and laboratory features of canine *Anaplasma platys* infection in 32 naturally infected dogs in the Mediterranean basin. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:1256-1264.
- 41. Suksawat J, Xuejie Y, Hancock SI, et al. Serologic and molecular evidence of coinfection with multiple vector-borne pathogens in dogs from Thailand. J Vet Intern Med 2001;15:453-462.

- 42. Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, Breitschwerdt EB. Managing canine vector-borne diseases of zoonotic concern: part one. Trends Parasitol 2009;25:157-63.
- 43. Gaunt S, Beall M, Stillman B, et al. Experimental infection and co-infection of dogs with *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis*: hematologic, serologic and molecular findings. Parasit Vectors 2010;3:33.
- 44. Labarthe N, Pereira MDC, Barbarini O, McKee W, Coimbra CA, Hoskins J. Serologic prevalence of *Dirofilaria immitis*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Borrelia burgdorferi* infections in Brazil. Vet Ther 2003;4:67-75.
- 45. Labarthe N, Guerrero J. Epidemiology of heartworm: what is happening in South America and Mexico? Vet Parasitol 2005;133:149-56.
- 46. McCall JW, Kramer L, Genchi C, et al. Effects of doxycycline on heartworm embryogenesis, transmission, circulating microfilaria, and adult worms in microfilaremic dogs. Vet Parasitol 2014;206:5-13.
- 47. Breitschwerdt EB. Canine and feline ehrlichiosis: new developments [abstract]. In Proceedings of the 19th Annual ECVD Congress.Tenerife, Spain;2003:66-71.
- 48. Rojas A, Rojas D, Montenegro V, et al. Vector-borne pathogens in dogs from Costa Rica: first molecular description of *Babesia vogeli* and *Hepatozoon canis* infections with a high prevalence of monocytic ehrlichiosis and the manifestations of coinfection. Vet Parasitol 2014;199:121-128.
- 49. Abd Rani PA, Irwin PJ, Coleman GT, et al. A survey of canine tick-borne diseases in India. Parasit Vectors 2011;4:141.
- 50. Allison RW, Little SE. Diagnosis of rickettsial diseases in dogs and cats. Vet Clin Pathol 2013;42:127-144.
- 51. Stillman BA, Monn M, Liu J, et al. Performance of a commercially available in-clinic ELISA for detection of antibodies against *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Anaplasma platys*, *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Ehrlichia ewingii* and *Dirofilaria immitis* antigen in dogs. J Am Vet Med Assoc 2014;245:80-86.
- 52. McCall JW, Genchi C, Kramer LH, et al. Heartworm disease in animals and humans. Adv Parasitol 2008;66:193-285.
- 53. Harvey JW, Simpson CF, Gaskin JM. Cyclic thrombocytopenia induced by a *Rickettsia*-like agent in dogs. J Infect Dis 1978;137:182-188.
- 54. Hoskins JD, Breitschwerdt EB, Gaunt SD, et al. Antibodies to *Ehrlichia canis, Ehrlichia platys*, and spotted fever group rickettsiae in Louisiana dogs. J Vet Intern Med 1988;2:55-59.
- 55. Gaunt SD, Baker DC, Babin SS. Platelet aggregation studies in dogs with acute *Ehrlichia platys* infection. Am J Vet Res 1990;51:290-293.

- 56. Nair ADS, Cheng C, Ganta CK, et al. Comparative experimental infection study in dogs with *Ehrlichia canis, E. chaffeensis, Anaplasma platys* and *A. phagocytophilum*. PLoS One 2016;11:e0148239.
- French TW, Harvey JW. Canine infectious cyclic thrombocytopenia (*Ehrlichia platys* infection in dogs. In: Woldehiwet Z, Ristic M, eds. Rickettsial and chlamydial diseases of domestic animals. New York: Pergamon Press; 1993:195-208.
- 58. Eddlestone SM, Gaunt SD, Neer TM, et al. PCR detection of *Anaplasma platys* in blood and tissue of dogs during acute phase of experimental infection. Exp Parasitol 2007;115:205-10.
- 59. Alberti A, Sparagano OAE. Molecular diagnosis of granulocytic anaplasmosis and infectious cyclic thrombocytopenia by PCR-RFLP. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1081:371-378.
- Torina A, Alongi A, Naranjo V, et al. Characterization of anaplasma infections in Sicily, Italy. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2008;1149:90-93.
- 61. Santos HA, Pires MS, Vilela JAR, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Brazilian dogs by real-time polymerase chain reaction. J Vet Diagn Invest 2011;23:770-774.
- 62. Santos HA, Thomé SM, Baldani CD, et al. Molecular epidemiology of the emerging zoonosis agent *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* (Foggie, 1949) in dogs and Ixodid ticks in Brazil. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:348-357.
- 63. Ebani VV, Bertelloni F, Turchi B, et al. Serological and molecular survey of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in italian hunting dogs. Ann Agric Environ Med 2013;20:289-292.
- 64. Cetinkaya H, Matur E, Akyazi I, et al. Serological and molecular investigation of *Ehrlichia* spp. and *Anaplasma* spp. in ticks and blood of dogs, in the Thrace Region of Turkey. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:706-714.
- 65. Hamel D, Shukullari E, Rapti D. Parasites and vector-borne pathogens in client-owned dogs in Albania. Blood pathogens and seroprevalences of parasitic and other infectious agents. Parasitol Res 2016;115:489-499.
- 66. Hofmann-Lehmann R, Wagmann N, Meli ML, et al. Detection of '*Candidatus* Neoehrlichia mikurensis' and other Anaplasmataceae and Rickettsiaceae in Canidae in Switzerland and Mediterranean countries. Schweiz Arch Tierheilkd 2016;158:691-700.
- 67. Lauzi S, Maia JP, Epis S, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys*, *Ehrlichia canis*, *Hepatozoon canis* and *Rickettsia monacensis* in dogs from Maio Island of Cape Verde archipelago. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:964-969.
- 68. Drazenovich N, Foley J, Brown RN. Use of Real-Time Quantitative PCR targeting the msp2 protein gene to identify cryptic *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infections in wildlife and domestic animals Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2006;6:83-90.

- 69. Pusterla N, Huder JB, Leutenegger CM, Braun U, Madigan JE, Lutz H. Quantitative real-time PCR for detection of members of the *Ehrlichia phagocytophila* genogroup in host animals and *Ixodes ricinus* ticks. J Clin Microbiol 1999;37:1329-1331.
- 70. Diniz PP, Schwartz DS, de Morais HS, et al. Surveillance for zoonotic vector-borne infections using sick dogs from southeastern Brazil. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2007;7:689-697.
- Egenvall A, Bonnett BN, Gunnarsson A, et al. Seroprevalence of granulocytic *Ehrlichia* spp. and *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato in Swedish dogs 1991–1994. Scand J Infect Dis 2000;32:19-25.
- 72. Massung RF, Slater KG. Comparison of PCR assays for detection of the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. J Clin Microbiol 2003; 41:717-722.
- 73. Breitschwerdt EB, Hegarty BC, Qurollo BA, et al. Intravascular persistence of *Anaplasma platys*, *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*, and *Ehrlichia ewingii* DNA in the blood of a dog and two family members. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:298.
- 74. Carrade DD, Foley JE, Borjesson DL, et al. Canine granulocytic anaplasmosis: a review. J Vet Intern Med 2009;23:1129-1141.
- 75. Kybicová K, Schánilec P, Hulínská D, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato in dogs in the Czech Republic. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2009;9:655-662.
- 76. Kohn B, Silaghi C, Galke D, et al. Infections with *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dogs in Germany. Res Vet Sci 2011;91:71-76.
- 77. Rymaszewska A. Divergence within the marker region of the groESL operon in *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2008;27:1025-1036.
- Egenvall A, Bjoersdorff A, Lilliehook I, et al. Early manifestations of granulocytic ehrlichiosis in dogs inoculated experimentally with a Swedish *Ehrlichia* species isolate. Vet Rec 1998;143:412-417.
- Lilliehöök I, Egenvall A, Tvedten HW. Hematopathology in dogs experimentally infected with a Swedish granulocytic *Ehrlichia* species. Vet Clin Pathol 1998;27:116-122.
- Dong J, Olano JP, McBride JW, et al. Emerging pathogens: challenges and successes of molecular diagnostics. J Mol Diagn 2008;10:185-197.
- 81. Woldehiwet Z. The natural history of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Vet Parasitol 2010;167:108-122.
- 82. Matei IA, D'Amico G, Yao PK, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* infection in freeroaming dogs and ticks from Kenya and Ivory Coast. Parasit Vectors 2016;9:157.
- Kelly PJ, Xu C, Lucas H, et al. Ehrlichiosis, babesiosis, anaplasmosis and hepatozoonosis in dogs from St. Kitts, West Indies. PLoS One 2013;8:e53450.

- 84. Kontos VI, Papadopoulos O, French TW. Natural and experimental canine infections with a Greek strain of *Ehrlichia platys*. Vet Clin Pathol 1991;20:101-105.
- Sainz A, Amusategui I, Tesouro MA. *Ehrlichia platys* infection and disease in dogs in Spain. J Vet Diagn Invest 1999;11:382-384.
- Sparagano OA, de Vos AP, Paoletti B, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* in dogs using polymerase chain reaction and reverse line blot hybridization. J Vet Diagn Invest 2003;15:527-534.
- Aguirre E, Tesouro MA, Ruiz L, et al. Genetic characterization of *Anaplasma (Ehrlichia) platys* in dogs in Spain. J Vet Med A Physiol Pathol Clin Med 2006;53:197-200.
- 88. de la Fuente J, Torina A, Naranjo V et al. Molecular characterization of *Anaplasma platys* strains from dogs in Sicily, Italy. BMC Vet Res 2006;2:24.
- Yabsley MJ, Murphy SM, Luttrell MP, et al. Experimental and field studies on the suitability of raccoons (*Procyon lotor*) as hosts for tick-borne pathogens. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2008;8:491-503.
- Cardoso L, Tuna J, Vieira L, et al. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Ehrlichia canis* in dogs from the North of Portugal. Vet J 2010;183:232-233.
- 91. Dyachenko V, Pantchev N, Balzer HJ, et al. First case of *Anaplasma platys* infection in a dog from Croatia. Parasit Vectors 2012;5:49.
- 92. Mokhtar AS, Lim SF, Tay ST. Molecular detection of *Anaplasma platys* and *Babesia gibsoni* in dogs in Malaysia. Trop Biomed 2013;30:345-348.
- 93. Antognoni MT, Veronesi F, Morganti G, et al. Natural infection of *Anaplasma platys* in dogs from Umbria region (Central Italy). Vet Ital 2014;50:49-56.
- 94. Estrada-Peña A, Jongejan F. Ticks feeding on humans: a review of records on human-biting Ixodoidea with special reference to pathogen transmission. Exp Appl Acarol 1999;23:685-715.
- 95. Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, Giannelli A, et al. Ticks infesting humans in Italy and associated pathogens. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:328.
- 96. Dantas-Torres F, Aguiar Figueredo L, Brandão-Filho SP. *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodidae), the brown dog tick, parasitizing humans in Brazil. Revista da Sociedade Brasileira de Medicina Tropical 2006;39:64-67.
- 97. Beugnet F, Marie JL. Emerging arthropod-borne diseases of companion animals in Europe. Vet Parasitol 2009;163:298-305.
- 98. Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, Tarallo VD, et al. Apparent tick paralysis by *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodidae) in dogs. Vet Parasitol 2012;188:325-329.
- 99. Coutinho MTZ, Bueno LL, Sterzik A, et al. Participation of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodidae) in the epidemiology of canine visceral leishmaniasis. Vet Parasitol 2005;128:149-155.

- 100. Dantas-Torres F, Latrofa MS, Otranto D. Quantification of *Leishmania infantum* DNA in females, eggs and larvae of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*. Parasit Vectors 2011;4:56.
- 101. Dabaghmanesh T, Asgari Q, Moemenbellah-Fard MD, et al. Natural transovarial and transstadial transmission of *Leishmania infantum* by naïve *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* ticks blood feeding on an endemically infected dog in Shiraz, south of Iran. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 2016;110:408-413.
- 102. Viol MA, Guerrero FD, de Oliveira BC, et al. Identification of *Leishmania* spp. promastigotes in the intestines, ovaries, and salivary glands of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* actively infesting dogs. Parasitol Res 2016;115:3479-3484.
- 103. Oscherov EB, Milano AMF, Lobo B, et al. Detection of *Anaplasma platys* and other pathogens in ectoparasites from urban hosts in Northeast Argentine. Rev Ibero-Latinoam Parasitol 2011;70:42-47.
- 104. Campos-Calderón L, Ábrego-Sánchez L, Solórzano-Morales A, et al. Molecular detection and identification of Rickettsiales pathogens in dog ticks from Costa Rica. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:1198-1202.
- 105. Sosa-Gutierrez CG, Vargas-Sandoval M, Torres J, et al. Tick-borne rickettsial pathogens in questing ticks, removed from humans and animals in Mexico. J Vet Sci 2016;17:353-360.
- 106. Leblond A, Pradier S, Pitel P, et al. Enquête épidémiologique sur l'anaplasmose équine (*Anaplasma phagocytophilum*) dans le sud de la France. Rev Sci Tech 2005;24:899-908.
- Keysary A, Massung RF, Inbar M, et al. Molecular evidence for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Israel. Emerg Infect Dis 2007;13:1411-1412.
- 108. Psaroulaki A, Chochlakis D, Ioannou I, et al. Acute anaplasmosis in human in Cyprus. Clin Microbiol Infect 2008;15:10-11.
- 109. Ghafar MW. Amer Prevalence first molecular characterization SA. and of Anaplasma phagocytophilum, the agent of human granulocytic anaplasmosis, in Rhipicephalus sanguineus ticks attached to dogs from Egypt. J Adv Res 2012;3:189-194
- 110. Chastagner A, Bailly X, Leblond A, et al. Single Genotype of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* identified from ticks, Camargue, France. Emerg Infect Dis 2013;19:825-827.
- 111. Dugat T, Chastagner A, Lagrée AC, et al. A new multiple-locus variable-number tandem repeat analysis reveals different clusters for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* circulating in domestic and wild ruminants. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:439
- 112. Szabo M, Mangold A, Joo C, et al. Biological and DNA evidence of two dissimilar populations of the *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* tick group (Acari: Ixodidae) in South America. Vet Parasitol 2005;130:131-140.

- 113. Burlini L, Teixeira KR, Szabó MP, et al. Molecular dissimilarities of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodidae) in Brazil and its relation with samples throughout the world: is there a geographical pattern? Exp Appl Acarol 2010;50:361-374.
- 114. Eremeeva ME, Zambrano ML, Anaya L, et al. *Rickettsia rickettsii* in *Rhipicephalus* ticks, Mexicali, Mexico. J Med Entomol 2011;48:418-421.
- 115. Moraes-Filho J, Marcili A, Nieri-Bastos F, et al. Genetic analysis of ticks belonging to the *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* group in Latin America. Acta Trop 2011;117:51-55.
- 116. Nava S, Mastropaolo M, Venzal JM, et al. Mitochondrial DNA analysis of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* sensu lato (Acari: Ixodidae) in the Southern Cone of South America. Vet Parasitol 2012;190:547-555.
- 117. Dantas-Torres F, Latrofa MS, Annoscia G, et al. Morphological and genetic diversity of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* sensu lato from the New and Old Worlds. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:213.
- 118. Louly CCB, Fonseca IN, Oliveira VF, et al. Ocorrência de *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* em trabalhadores de clínicas veterinárias e canis, no município de Goiânia, GO. Cienc Anim Bras 2006;7:103-106.
- Gray J, Dantas-Torres F, Estrada-Peña A, et al. Systematics and ecology of the brown dog tick, *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2013;4:171-180.
- 120. Maggi RG, Mascarelli PE, Havenga LN, et al. Coinfection with Anaplasma platys, Bartonella henselae and Candidatus Mycoplasma haematoparvum in a veterinarian. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:103.
- 121. Ebani VV, Bertelloni F, Torracca B, et al. Serological survey of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, and *Ehrlichia canis* infections in rural and urban dogs in Central Italy. Ann Agric Environ Med 2014;21:671-675.
- 122. Sainz A, Roura X, Miró G, et al. Guideline for veterinary practitioners on canine ehrlichiosis and anaplasmosis in Europe. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:75-94.
- 123. Serra-Freira NM. Occurrence of ticks (Acari: Ixodidae) on human hosts, in three municipalities in the State of Pará, Brazil. Rev Bras Parasitol Vet 2010;19:141-147.
- 124. Dantas-Torres F, Chomel BB, Otranto D. Ticks and tick-borne diseases: a One Health perspective. Trends Parasitol 2012;28:437-446.
- 125. Dipeolu OO, Akinboade OA, Ogunji FO. Observations on the epidemiology of house infesting *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* in a household in Lagos, Nigeria. Bull Anim Health Prod Afr 1982;30:29-30.
- Goddard J. Focus of human parasitism by the brown dog tick, *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodidae). J Med Entomol 1989;26:628-629.

- 127. Carpenter TL, McMeans MC, McHugh CP. Additional instances of human parasitism by the brown dog tick (Acari: Ixodidae). J Med Entomol 1990;27:1065-1066.
- 128. Manfredi MT, Dini V, Piacenza S, et al. Tick species parasitizing people in an area endemic for tick-borne diseases in north-western Italy. Parassitologia 1990;41:555-560.
- 129. Guglielmone AA, Mangold AJ, Vinabal AE. Ticks (Ixodidae) parasitizing humans in four provinces of north-western Argentina. Ann Trop Med Parasitol 1991;85:539-542.
- 130. Harrison BA, Engber BR, Apperson CS. Ticks (Acari: Ixodida) uncommonly found biting humans in North Carolina. J Vector Ecol 1997;22:6-12.
- 131. Venzal JM, Guglielmone AA, Estrada-Peña A, et al. Ticks (Ixodida: Ixodidae) parasitising humans in Uruguay. Ann Trop Med Parasitol 2003;97:769-772.
- 132. Mentz MB, Trombka M, da Silva GL, et al. *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodideae) biting a human being in Porto Alegre city, Rio Grande Do Sul, Brazil. Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo 2016;58:35.
- 133. Papa A, Chaligiannis I, Xanthopoulou K, et al. Ticks parasitizing humans in Greece. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2011;11:539-542.
- Bermudez SE, Castro A, Esser H, et al. Ticks (Ixodida) on humans from central Panama, Panama (2010–2011). Exp Appl Acarol 2012 ;58:81-88.
- 135. Mitchell EA, Williamson PC, Billingsley PM, et al. Frequency and Distribution of *Rickettsiae*, *Borreliae*, and *Ehrlichiae* detected in human-parasitizing ticks, Texas, USA. Emerg Infect Dis 2016;22:312-315.
- Parola P. Tick-borne rickettsial diseases: emerging risks in Europe. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2004;27:297-304.
- Boudebouch N, Sarih M, Socolovschi C, et al. Spotted fever group rickettsioses documented in Morocco. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15 Suppl 2:257-258.
- Demeester R, Claus M, Hildebrand M, et al. Diversity of life-threatening complications due to Mediterranean spotted fever in returning travelers. J Travel Med 2010;17:100-104.
- 139. Rafik R, Hachimi M, Ouarssani A, et al. Acute polyradiculoneuropathy and *Rickettsia conorii* infection. Med Mal Infect 2011;41553-5535.
- Parola P, Socolovschi C, Jeanjean L, et al. Warmer weather linked to tick attack and emergence of severe rickettsioses. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 2008;2:e338.
- 141. Perez M, Bodor M, Zhang M, et al. Human infection with *Ehrlichia canis* accompanied by clinical signs in Venezuela. Ann NY Acad Sci 2006;1078:110-117.
- Arraga-Alvarado C, Montero-Ojeda M, Bernardoni A, et al. Human ehrlichiosis: report of the 1st case in Venezuela. Invest Clin 1996;37:35-49.

- 143. Arraga-Alvarado C, Palmar M, Parra O, et al. Fine structure characterization of a *Rickettsia*-like organism in human platelets from patients with symptoms of ehrlichiosis. J Med Microbiol 1999;48:991-997.
- 144. Arraga-Alvarado CM, Qurollo BA, Parra OC, et al. Molecular evidence of *Anaplasma platys* infection in two women from Venezuela. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2014;91:1161-1165.
- 145. Bouza-Mora L, Dolz G, Solórzano-Morales A, et al. Novel genotype of *Ehrlichia canis* detected in samples of human blood bank donors in Costa Rica. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2017;8:36-40.
- 146. Walder G, Tiwald G, Dierich MP, et al. Serological evidence for human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Western Austria. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2003;22:543-547.
- 147. Bakken JS, Dumler JS. Clinical diagnosis and treatment of human granulocytotropic anaplasmosis. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:236-247.
- 148. Chochlakis D, Ioannou I, Kokkini I, et al. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a high-risk human population. J Infecti 2009;58:87-88.
- 149. Zhang L, Liu H, Xu B, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in domestic animals in ten provinces/cities of China. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2012;87:185-189.
- 150. Sahibi H, Rhalem A, Berrag B, et al. Bovine babesiosis. Seroprevalence and ticks associated with cattle from two different regions of Morocco. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1998;849:213-218.
- 151. Rhalem A, Sahibi H, Lasri S, et al. Validation of a competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for diagnosing *Babesia equi* infections of Moroccan origin and its use in determining the seroprevalence of *B. equi* in Morocco. J Vet Diagn Invest 2001;13:249-251.
- 152. Bouattour A, Ghorbel A, Chabchoub A, Postic D. Lyme borreliosis situation in North Africa. Arch Inst Pasteur Tunis 2004;81:13-20.
- 153. Henn JB, Vanhorn BA, Kasten RW, et al. Antibodies to *Bartonella vinsonii subsp. berkhofii* in Moroccan dogs. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2006;74:222-223.,
- 154. Boudebouch N, Sarih M, Socolovschi C, et al. Molecular survey for spotted fever group rickettsiae in ticks from Morocco. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009;15 Suppl 2:259-60.
- 155. Sentausa E, El Karkouri K, Michelle C, et al. Draft genome sequence of *Rickettsia aeschlimannii*, associated with *Hyalomma marginatum* Ticks. Genome Announc 2014;2:pii: e00666-14.
- Ait Lbacha H, Alali S, Zouagui Z, et al. High Prevalence of *Anaplasma* spp. in small ruminants in Morocco. Transbound Emerg Dis 2015;64:250-263.
- 157. Palomar AM, Portillo A, Mazuelas D, et al. Molecular analysis of Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus and Rickettsia in *Hyalomma marginatum* ticks removed from patients (Spain) and birds (Spain and Morocco), 2009–2015. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2016;7:983-987.
- Meskini M, Beati L, Benslimane A, et al. Seroepidemiology of rickettsial infections in Morocco. Eur J Epidemiol 1995;11:655-660.

- 159. Sarih M, Garnier M, Boudebouch N, et al. Borrelia hispanica relapsing fever, Morocco. Emerg Infect Dis 2009;15:1626-1629.
- 160. Raoult D, Fournier PE, Abboud P, et al. First documented human *Rickettsia aeschlimannii* infection. Emerg Infect Dis 2002;8:748-749.
- 161. Lane RS, Foley JE, Eisen L, et al. Acarologic risk of exposure to emerging tick-borne bacterial pathogens in a semirural community in northern California. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 2001;1:197-210.
- 162. Milutinovic M, Masuzawa T, Tomanović S, et al. *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Francisella tularensis* and their coinfections in host-seeking *Ixodes ricinus* ticks collected in Serbia. Exp Appl Acarol 2008;45:171-183
- 163. Nicholson WL, Allen KE, McQuiston JH, et al. The increasing recognition of rickettsial pathogens in dogs and people. Trends Parasitol 2010;26:205-212.
- 164. Dugat T, Lagrée AC, Maillard R, et al. Opening the black box of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* diversity: current situation and future perspectives. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 2015;5:61.
- 165. Poitout FM, Shinozaki JK, Stockwell PJ, et al. Genetic variants of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infecting dogs in western Washington State. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:796:801.
- 166. Tagliapietra V, Rosà R, Arnoldi D, et al. Saturation deficit and deer density affect questing activity and local abundance of *Ixodes ricinus* (Acari, Ixodidae) in Italy. Vet Parasitol 2011;183:114-124.
- 167. Brouqui P, Dumler JS, Lienhard R, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Europe. The Lancet 1995;346:782-783.
- 168. Pusterla N, Weber R, Wolfensberger C, et al. Serological evidence of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Switzerland. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1998;17:207-209.
- 169. Graf PCF, Chretien JP, Ung L, et al. Prevalence of seropositivity to spotted fever group rickettsiae and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in a large, demographically diverse US sample. Clin Infect Dis 2008;46:70-77.
- 170. Zhang S, Hai R, Li W, et al. Seroprevalence of human granulocytotropic anaplasmosis in Central and Southeastern China. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2009;81:293-295.
- 171. Zhang L, Cui F, Wang L, et al. Investigation of anaplasmosis in Yiyuan County, Shandong Province, China. Asian Pac J Tro Med 2011;4:568-72.
- 172. Adjemian J, Weber IB, McQuiston J, et al. Zoonotic infections among employees from Great Smoky Mountains and Rocky Mountain national parks, 2008–2009. Vector born Zoonotic Dis 2012;12:922-931.

- 173. Żukiewicz-Sobczak W, Zwoliński J, Chmielewska-Badora J, et al. Prevalence of antibodies against selected zoonotic agents in forestry workers from eastern and southern Poland. Ann Agri Environ Med 2014;21:767-770.
- 174. von Wissmann B, Hautmann W, Sing A, et al. Assessing the risk of human granulocytic anaplasmosis and lyme borreliosis after a tick bite in Bavaria, Germany. Int J Med Microbiol 2015;305:736-741.
- 175. Fingerle V, Goodman JL, Johnson RC, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Southern Germany: increased seroprevalence in high-risk groups. J Clin Microbiol 1997;35:3244-3247.
- 176. Thomas DR, Sillis M, Coleman TJ, et al. Low rates of ehrlichiosis and Lyme borreliosis in English farmworkers. Epidemiol Infect 1998;121:609-614.
- 177. Grzeszczuk A, Stanczak J, Kubica-Biernat B. Serological and molecular evidence of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis focus in the Bialowieza Primeval forest (Puszcza Bialowieska), northeastern Poland. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2002;21:6-11.
- 178. Stanczak J, Grzeszczuk A. Seroprevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* among forestry rangers in northern and northeastern Poland. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:89-91.
- 179. Zhang L, Liu H, Xu B, et al. Rural residents in China are at increased risk of exposure to tickborne pathogens *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*. Biomed Res Int 2014;2014:313867.
- 180. Henningsson AJ, Wilhelmsson P, Gyllemark P, et al. Low risk of seroconversion or clinical disease in humans after a bite by an *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*-infected tick. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 2015;6:787-792.
- 181. Wilhelmsson P, Lindblom P, Fryland L, et al. *Ixodes ricinus* ticks removed from humans in Northern Europe: seasonal pattern of infestation, attachment sites and duration of feeding. Parasit Vectors 2013;6:362.
- 182. Gilot B, Laforge ML, Pichot J, et al. Relationships between the *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* complex ecology and Mediterranean spotted fever epidemiology in France. Eur J Epidemiol 1990;6:357-362.
- 183. Chochlakis D, Papaeustathiou A, Minadakis G, et al. A serosurvey of Anaplasma phagocytophilum in blood donors in Crete, Greece. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2008;27:473-475.
- 184. Aguero-Rosenfeld ME, Donnarumma L, Zentmaier L, et al. Seroprevalence of antibodies that react with *Anaplasma phagocytophila*, the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis, in different populations in Westchester County, New York. J Clin Microbiol 2002;40:2612-2615.

- 185. Leiby DA, Chung APS, Cable RG, et al. Relationship between tick bites and the seroprevalence of *Babesia microti* and *Anaplasma phagocytophila* (previously *Ehrlichia* sp.) in blood donors. Transfusion 2002;42:1585-1591.
- 186. Cisak E, Chmielewska-Badora J, Zwoliński J, et al. Risk of tick-borne bacterial diseases among workers of Roztocze National Park (south-eastern Poland). Ann Agric Environ Med 2005;12:127-132.
- 187. Santos AS, Bacellar F, Dumler JS. Human exposure to Anaplasma phagocytophilum in Portugal. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2006;1078:100-105.
- 188. Chmielewska-Badora J, Moniuszko A, Żukiewicz-Sobczak W, et al. Serological survey in persons occupationally exposed to tick-borne pathogens in cases of co-infections with *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Bartonella* spp. and *Babesia microti*. Ann Agric Environ Med 2012;19:271-274.
- 189. Hjetland R, Henningsson AJ, Vainio K, et al. Seroprevalence of antibodies to tick-borne encephalitis virus and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in healthy adults from western Norway. Infect Dis 2015;47:52-56.
- 190. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Anaplasma phagocytophilum transmitted through blood transfusion: Minnesota, 2007. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2008;57:1145-1148.
- 191. Alhumaidan H, Westley B, Esteva C, et al. Transfusion-transmitted anaplasmosis from leukoreduced red blood cells. Transfusion 2013;53:181-186.
- 192. Doudier B, Olano J, Parola P, et al. Factors contributing to emergence of *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* spp. as human pathogens. Vet Parasitol 2010;167:149-154.
- 193. Kalantarpour F, I Chowdhury I, Wormser GP, et al. Survival of the human granulocytic ehrlichiosis agent under refrigeration conditions. J Clin Microbiol 2000;38:2398-2399.
- 194. Mettille FC, Salata KF, Belanger KJ, et al. Reducing the risk of transfusion-transmitted rickettsial disease by WBC filtration, using *Orientia tsutsugamushi* in a model system. Transfusion 2000;40:290-296.
- 195. Annen K, Friedman K, Eshoa C, et al. Two cases of transfusion-transmitted *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*. Am J Clin Pathol 2012;137:562-565.
- 196. Jereb M, Pecaver B, Tomazic J, et al. Severe human granulocytic anaplasmosis transmitted by blood transfusion. Emerg Infect Dis 2012;18:1354-1357.
- 197. Fine AB, Sweeney JD, Nixon CP, et al. Transfusion-transmitted anaplasmosis from a leukoreduced platelet pool. Transfusion 2016;56:699-704.
- 198. Shields K, Cumming M, Rios J, et al. Transfusion-associated *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in a pregnant patient with thalassemia trait: a case report. Transfusion 2015;55:719-725.

- 199. Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Diagnosis and management of tick-borne rickettsial diseases: Rocky Mountain spotted fever, ehrlichiosis, and anaplasmosis — United States. MMWR 2006;55(No.RR-4).
- 200. McQuiston JH, Childs JE, Chamberland ME, et al. Transmission of tick-borne agents of disease by blood transfusion: a review of known and potential risks in the United States. Transfusion 2000;40:274-84.
- Dzięgiel B, Adaszek L, Carbonero A, et al. Detection of canine vector-borne diseases in eastern Poland by ELISA and PCR. Parasitol Res 2016;115:1039-1044.
- 202. McCown ME, Alleman A, Sayler KA, Chandrashekar R, et al. Point prevalence survey for tickborne pathogens in military working dogs, shelter animals, and pet populations in northern Colombia. J Spec Oper Med 2014;14:81-85.
- 203. Little SE, Beall MJ, Bowman DD, et al. Canine infection with *Dirofilaria immitis*, *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma* spp., and *Ehrlichia* spp. in the United States, 2010–2012. Parasit Vectors 2014;7:257-265.
- 204. Carrade DD, Foley J, Sullivan M, et al. Spatial distribution of seroprevalence for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis*, and *Dirofilaria immitis* in dogs in Washington, Oregon, and California. Vet Clin Pathol 2011;40:293-302.
- 205. Dumler JS, Barbet AF, Bekker CPJ, et al. Reorganization of genera in the families Rickettsiaceae and Anaplasmataceae in the order Rickettsiales: unification of some species of *Ehrlichia* with *Anaplasma*, *Cowdria* with *Ehrlichia* and *Ehrlichia* with *Neorickettsia*, descriptions of six new species combinations and designation of *Ehrlichia equi* and 'HGE agent' as subjective synonyms of *Ehrlichia phagocytophila*. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 2001;51:2145-2165.
- 206. Harrus S, Waner T, Neer TM. *Ehrlichia canis* infection. In: Greene GE, ed. Infectious Diseases of the Dog and Cat, Chapter 26: *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* infections, 4th ed. St. Louis: Saunders Elsevier; 2012:227-238.
- 207. Diniz PP, de Morais HS, Breitschwerdt EB, et al. Serum cardiac troponin I concentration in dogs with ehrlichiosis. J Vet Intern Med 2008;22:1136-1143.
- 208. Koutinas CK, Mylonakis ME, O'Brien PJ, et al. Serum cardiac troponin I concentrations in naturally occurring myelosuppressive and non-myelosuppressive canine monocytic ehrlichiosis. Vet J 2012;194:259-261.
- 209. Harrus S, Waner T, Neer TM. *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* infection (human monocytotropic ehrlichiosis). In: Greene GE, ed. Infectious Diseases of the Dog and Cat, Chapter 26: *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* infections, 4th ed. St. Louis: Saunders Elsevier; 2012:238.

- 210. Cocayne CG, Cohn LA. *Ehrlichia ewingii* infection (canine granulocytotropic ehrlichiosis). In: Greene GE, ed. Infectious Diseases of the Dog and Cat, Chapter 26: *Ehrlichia* and *Anaplasma* infections, 4th ed. St. Louis: Saunders Elsevier; 2012:241-244.
- Pretorius AM, Kelly PJ. Serological survey for antibodies reactive with *Ehrlichia canis* and *E. chaffeensis* in dogs from the Bloemfontein area, South Africa. J S Afr Vet Assoc 1998;69:126-128.
- 212. Ndip LM, Ndip RN, Esemu SN, et al. Predominance of *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* in *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* ticks from a kennel-confined dogs in Limbe, Cameroon. Exp Appl Acarol 2010; 50:163-168.
- 213. Proboste T, Kalema-Zikusoka G, Altet L, et al. Infection and exposure to vector-borne pathogens in rural dogs and their ticks, Uganda. Parasit Vectors 2015;8:306.
- 214. Ramos R, Ramos C, Araújo F, et al. Molecular survey and genetic characterization of tick-borne pathogens in dogs in metropolitan Recife (north-eastern Brazil). Parasitol Res 2010;107:1115-1120.
- 215. Baneth G. Tick-born infections of animals and humans: a common ground. Int J Parasitol 2014; 44:591-596.
- 216. Chen SM, Dumler JS, Bakken JS, et al. Identification of a granulocytotropic *Ehrlichia* species as the etiologic agent of human disease. J Clin Microbiol 1994;32:589-595.
- 217. Dahlgren FS, Heitman KN, Drexler NA, et al. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis in the United States from 2008 to 2012: a summary of national surveillance data. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2015;93:66-72.
- 218. de la Fuente J, Massung RF, Wong SJ, et al. Sequence analysis of the msp4 gene of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* strains. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:1309-1317.
- 219. Massung RF, Courtney JW, Hiratzka SL, et al. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in white-tailed deer. Emerg Infect Dis 2005;11:1604-1606.
- 220. Dunning Hotopp JC, Lin M, Madupu R, et al. Comparative genomics of emerging human ehrlichiosis agents. PLoS Genet 2006;2:e21.
- 221. Bown KJ, Lambin X, Ogden NH, et al. Delineating *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* ecotypes in coexisting discrete enzootic cycles. Emerg Infect Dis 2009;15:1948-1954.
- 222. Heyman P, Cochez C, Bigaignon G, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Belgium: an underestimated cause of disease. J Infect 2003;47:129-132.
- 223. King L. One Health: a new professional imperative. One Health initiative task force: final report. Am Vet Med Assoc 2008.
- 224. Day MJ. One health: the importance of companion animal vector-borne diseases. Parasit Vectors 2011;4:49.

- 225. Zinsstag J, Schelling E, Waltner-Toews D, et al. From "one medicine" to "one health" and systemic approaches to health and well-being. Prev Vet Med 2011;101:148-156
- 226. Gibbs P. Origins of One Health and One Medicine. Vet Rec 2014;174:152.
- 227. Christopher MM. One health, one literature: weaving together veterinary and medical research. Sci Transl Med 2015;7:303fs336.
- 228. Colwell DD, Dantas-Torres F, Otranto D. Vector-borne parasitic zoonoses: emerging scenarios and new perspectives. Vet Parasitol 2011;182:14-2

SUMMARY

Summary

Zoonotic vector-borne diseases (VBDs) are of increasing interest because they constitute an important emerging threat to both canine and human health. Dogs can play an important epidemiological role in some zoonotic vector-borne pathogens (VBPs) as competent reservoir hosts, carriers of infected vectors in close contact to humans or effective sentinels to assess the risk for human infection. Due to the complexity of VBDs diagnosis and control, as well as the possibility of subclinical infection in dogs that increases the risk of disease transmission, epidemiological data aiming at improving knowledge within a region is fundamental. Anaplasma phagocytophilum, A. platys, Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis and Dirofilaria immitis are important canine VBPs; some of them are recognized as zoonotic while others are able to infect humans. Among all vectors, ticks are considered to transmit the widest number of pathogens when compared to other arthropod vectors. Some tick-borne pathogens (TBPs) are considered to be emerging because of several factors that play a crucial role in ticks multiplication and expansion, increasing the likelihood of humans and animal tick biting **TBPs** of relevance, and pathogens transmission. Among these emerging zoonotic Anaplasma phagocytophilum is responsible of a widespread disease called granulocytic anaplasmosis. In the past decades, both human and animal exposure has continuously increased in the USA, Europe and some Asian countries. The disease in humans is potentially fatal with severe complications, high hospitalization rates and difficult diagnosis. Anaplasma phagocytophilum has been detected in Africa and the Mediterranean region. In these regions, A. platys is another Anaplasma species causing disease in dogs and able to infect humans. In Africa, only a few studies on A. phagocytophilum, A. platys, B. burgdorferi, E. canis and D. immitis exposure and/or infection in dogs are available and data on these infections is lacking in Morocco. Similarly, only very few studies on tick-borne diseases (TBDs) in humans in Morocco have been published and no data are currently available on human exposure to A. phagocytophilum.

Chapter I explains the importance of VBDs worldwide and emphasizes on the factors that contribute to their expansion and increasing interest. This chapter focusses on TBDs and especially on *A. phagocytophilum*. This section also summarizes the most important epidemiological features of *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* including transmission modes, host reservoir range, life cycle, genetic diversity, zoonotic potential, worldwide distribution and discusses the epidemiological roles of dogs. We conclude that due to the worldwide distribution of *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys*, these two bacteria might be present in the canine population in Morocco and humans could be exposed to *A. phagocytophilum*. This led us to the objective of this thesis stated in **Chapter II**: the evaluation of the occurrence of *A. phagocytophilum* in both dogs and humans and *A. platys* in dogs in Morocco.

At the start of this thesis, no data on canine exposure to *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp. and *Borrrelia burgdorferi* in Morocco were available and only one published study reported *Dirofilaria immitis* infection in a small number of dogs. In **Chapter III**, we investigated the exposure to the four aforementioned VBPs in 217 dogs from seven Moroccan locations using a commercial in-clinic ELISA test. Of these dogs, 83.9% were positive for at least one pathogen and co-exposures were detected in up to 14.3% of the dogs. None of the dog tested seropositive to *B. burgdorferi*. In contrast, antibodies against *Anaplasma spp.* and *Ehrlichia* spp. and *D. immitis* antigens were frequently detected. Statistically significant differences in seropositivity rates were found for *Ehrlichia* spp. and *D. immitis* in rural dogs but not for *Anaplasma* spp. This first part of the thesis demonstrated that Moroccan dogs are at high risk of acquiring a vector-borne infection and detected *Anaplasma* spp. antibodies in the dogs sampled. Since the ELISA test used is not able to discriminate between *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys*, we decided to assess the canine infection with these two bacteria.

In Chapter IV, we investigated the exposure to Anaplasma spp. and infection with A. phagocytophilum and A. platys in a higher number of dogs (n = 425) from three cities of northwestern Morocco. Canine blood samples were screened for Anaplasma spp. antibodies by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and for A. phagocytophilum and A. platys DNA by a quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) targeting the msp2 gene. The results confirmed that Anaplasma spp. antibodies were frequently detected in dogs. The DNA of A. platys was also amplified while no dog tested positive to A. phagocytophilum by PCR. Although the PCR protocol used is highly sensitive, false-negative results are reported to occur with A. phagocytophilum PCR mainly due to the short duration of bacteremia and the variation in levels of circulating bacteria. Therefore, the negative A. phagocytophilum-PCR results only indicate that the respective nucleic acid sequence was not detected in the sample evaluated under the assay conditions used in our study and should not be interpreted as evidence of absence of infection in dogs in Morocco. Moreover, the discrepancy between the high seroprevalence to Anaplasma spp. antibodies and the moderate prevalence of A. platys DNA could suggest that the dogs sampled were potentially exposed to other Anaplasma species. Noteworthy, we collected ticks from some of the dogs included in this study. All ticks were identified as *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*, the most probable vector of A. platys. Unfortunately, screening of these ticks for A. phagocytophilum and A. platys DNA was not possible due to the degradation of the DNA.

Summary

Currently, no data are available on the occurrence of human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* in Africa. In **Chapter V**, we evaluated the seropositivity to this bacterium in 271 healthy dog handlers, owners and blood donors from two cities of northwestern Morocco. Indirect immunofluorescent assay using a commercial kit was performed to detect specific *A. phagocytophilum* immunoglobulin G. Two dilutions were used to assess the prevalence of seroreactive samples. Seropositivity rates reached 37% and 27% in dog handlers and 36% and 22% in blood donors, without significant difference between both groups. In addition, 7 and 6 out of 10 owners were also seropositive at the first and second dilutions, respectively. No risk factor was identified but a high proportion of blood donors and dog owners reported regular outdoor activities and dog handlers were frequently involved in outdoor occupational activities. This investigation demonstrates that *A. phagocytophilum* exposure is common in both the high-risk group of dog handlers and blood donors in Morocco, and therefore emphasizes its public health importance.

This study provides important knowledge on canine exposure to *Anaplasma* spp. and *Ehrlichia* spp., and on infection with *A. platys* and *D. immitis* in Morocco. In addition, it provides the first demonstration of human exposure to *A. phagocytophilum* in Morocco and Africa more generally. Our results showed that both dogs and humans in Morocco are frequently exposed to TBPs and emphasize the public health importance of these agents. Our study was designed to evaluate the occurrence of *A. phagocytophilum* and *A. platys* in both dogs and humans in limited regions of the country. Large scale surveys are mandatory to evaluate the risk of exposure in all Moroccan regions. Future studies should evaluate the epidemiological aspects of *A. phagocytophilum* infection (i.e., vectors, reservoir hosts, genetic variability), the risk factors associated with this infection, the public health importance of transfusion-transmitted anaplasmosis and the ability of this bacterium in causing diseases in both dogs and humans in Morocco.

SAMENVATTING

Samenvatting

Er bestaat een toenemende belangstelling voor zoönotische vector overdraagbare ziekten omdat ze een belangrijke opkomende bedreiging vormen voor de gezondheid van zowel honden als mensen. Honden kunnen een belangrijke epidemiologische rol spelen bij sommige zoönotische vector overdraagbare ziekten als competente reservoir gastheren, dragers van geïnfecteerde vectoren dichtbij mensen of als effectieve schildwachten om het risico voor humane infecties in te schatten. Omwille van de complexiteit van de diagnose en controle van vector overdraagbare ziekten, en mede door de mogelijkheid dat subklinische infecties bij honden het risico op overdracht van deze ziekten kan doen verhogen, is het bekomen van epidemiologische data om de kennis binnen een streek te verhogen van fundamenteel belang. Anaplasma phagocytophilum, A. platys, Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis en Dirofilaria immitis zijn belangrijke vector overdraagbare pathogenen bij de hond; sommige van deze pathogenen zijn erkend als zoönosen, terwijl andere de mogelijkheid hebben om mensen te infecteren. Vergeleken met andere geleedpotige vectoren, kunnen teken de meeste pathogenen overdragen. Sommige teken overdraagbare pathogenen worden als opkomend beschouwd omwille van verschillende factoren die een cruciale rol spelen bij de vermenigvuldiging en uitbreiding van de tekenpopulatie, leidend tot een toename van de kans op overdracht van pathogenen naar mensen en dieren na een tekenbeet. Bij deze opkomende teken overdraagbare pathogenen van zoönotisch belang, is Anaplasma phagocytophilum verantwoordelijk voor een wijd verspreide ziekte genaamd granulocytaire anaplasmose. In de laatste decennia is de blootstelling aan deze infectieziekte bij mens en dier toegenomen in de Verenigde Staten van Amerika, Europa en sommige Aziatische landen. De ziekte is bij mensen mogelijk fataal met ernstige complicaties, een hoge graad van hospitalisatie en een moeilijke diagnose. Anaplasma phagocytophilum werd reeds gedetecteerd in Afrika en in het Middellandse Zeegebied. In deze regio's vormt A. platys een andere Anaplasma species die ziekte veroorzaakt bij honden en ook mensen kan infecteren. In Afrika zijn slechts enkele studies beschikbaar die de blootstelling aan en/of de infectie van honden met A. phagocytophilum, A. platys, B. burgdorferi, E. canis en D. immitis beschrijven. Informatie over deze infecties zijn afwezig in Marokko. Evenzeer zijn er slechts enkele studies over teken overdraagbare ziekten bij mensen in Marokko gepubliceerd, en is er momenteel geen informatie beschikbaar over humane blootstelling aan A. phagocytophilum.

Hoofdstuk I handelt over het wereldwijde belang van vector overdraagbare ziekten en legt de nadruk op factoren die bijdragen aan hun uitbreiding en toenemend belang. Dit hoofdstuk spitst zich toe op teken overdraagbare ziekten en meer specifiek vooral op *A. phagocytophilum*. In dit hoofdstuk wordt ook een samenvatting gemaakt van de meest belangrijke epidemiologische kenmerken van *A. phagocytophilum* en *A. platys*, onder andere de wijzen van overdracht, de mogelijke reservoir gastheren, de levenscyclus, de genetische diversiteit, het zoönotische potentieel, de wereldwijde distributie en wordt de epidemiologische rol van honden hierbij besproken. We concluderen dat, door de

189

wereldwijde distributie van *A. phagocytophilum* en *A. platys*, deze twee bacteriën mogelijk aanwezig zijn in de hondenpopulatie van Marokko, en dat mensen mogelijk blootgesteld worden aan *A. phagocytophilum*. Dit leidde ons tot de doelstelling van deze thesis in **Hoofdstuk II**: de evaluatie van het voorkomen van *A. phagocytophilum* bij honden en mensen en van *A. platys* bij honden in Marokko.

Bij de start van deze thesis was er geen informatie gekend over de blootstelling aan *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp. en *Borrrelia burgdorferi* bij honden in Marokko, en slechts één gepubliceerde studie beschreef een infectie met *Dirofilaria immitis* bij een kleine groep van honden. In **Hoofdstuk III** onderzoeken we de blootstelling aan de vier hierboven genoemde vector overdraagbare pathogenen bij 217 honden op zeven verschillende locaties in Marokko met behulp van een commercieel beschikbare in-huis ELISA test. Van deze honden waren 83.9% positief voor minstens één pathogenen en werden meerdere blootstellingen tegelijk vastgesteld bij 14.3% van de honden. Geen enkele hond testte seropositief voor *B. burgdorferi*. Antistoffen tegenover *Anaplasma* spp. En *Ehrlichia* spp. en *D. immitis* antigenen werden daarentegen frequent gedetecteerd. Voor *Ehrlichia* spp. en *D. immitis* naie niet voor *Anaplasma* spp., werden statistisch significante verschillen gevonden wat betreft de mate van seropositiviteit bij honden op het platteland. Dit eerste deel van de thesis toont aan dat Marokkaanse honden een hoog risico hebben om een vector overdraagbare infectie op te lopen, en ook werden antistoffen tegenover *Anaplasma* spp. gedetecteerd bij honden. Aangezien de gebruikte ELISA test geen onderscheid kan maken tussen *A. phagocytophilum* en *A. platys*, besloten we om de infectie met deze twee bacteriën bij honden verder te onderzoeken.

In **Hoofdstuk IV** onderzoeken we de blootstelling aan *Anaplasma* spp. en de infectie met *A. phagocytophilum* en *A. platys* bij een groter aantal honden (n = 425) afkomstig uit drie steden in noordwestelijk Marokko. Bloedstalen van honden werden gescreend voor *Anaplasma* spp. antistoffen door middel van een enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), en voor *A. phagocytophilum* en *A. platys* DNA door middel van een real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) van het *msp2* gen. De resultaten bevestigen dat *Anaplasma* spp. antistoffen frequent gevonden worden bij honden. Het DNA van *A. platys* werd ook geamplificeerd, terwijl geen enkele hond positief testte voor *A. phagocytophilum* door middel van PCR. Hoewel het gebruikte PCR protocol zeer sensitief is, wordt beschreven dat vals negatieve resultaten bij *A. phagocytophilum* PCR kunnen optreden voornamelijk ten gevolge van de korte duur van de bacteriëmie en door de variatie in aantal circulerende bacteriën. Daarom tonen de negatieve *A. phagocytophilum*-PCR resultaten enkel aan dat de respectievelijke nucleïnezuursequentie niet gedetecteerd werd in de geëvalueerde stalen onder de omstandigheden van de assay in onze studie, en bijgevolg dat deze resultaten niet geïnterpreteerd mogen worden als bewijs van afwezigheid van infectie bij honden in Marokko. De discrepantie tussen de hoge seroprevalentie van *Anaplasma* spp.

Samenvatting

antistoffen en de matige prevalentie van *A. platys* DNA zou kunnen suggereren dat deze honden mogelijk blootgesteld werden aan andere *Anaplasma* species. We verzamelden ook teken van sommige honden die geïncludeerd werden in deze studie. Alle teken werden geïdentificeerd als *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*, de meest waarschijnlijke vector van *A. platys*. Het was helaas niet mogelijk om deze teken te screenen voor *A. phagocytophilum* en *A. platys* DNA omwille van degradatie van het DNA.

Momenteel zijn er geen data beschikbaar over het voorkomen van humane blootstelling aan *A. phagocytophilum* in Afrika. In **Hoofdstuk V** evalueren we de seropositiviteit tegenover deze bacterie bij 271 gezonde hondenverzorgers, hondeneigenaars en bloeddonoren afkomstig uit twee steden in noordwestelijk Marokko. Een indirecte immunofluorescentietest van een commercieel beschikbare kit werd gebruikt om specifiek immunoglobuline G van *A. phagocytophilum* te detecteren. Twee verdunningen werden gebruikt om de prevalentie van seroreactieve stalen te evalueren. Seropositiviteit bereikte 37% en 27% bij hondenverzorgers en 36% en 22% bij bloeddonoren, zonder een significant verschil tussen beide groepen. Daarnaast waren 7 en 6 van de 10 hondeneigenaars ook seropositief bij respectievelijk de eerste en tweede verdunning. Risicofactoren werden niet geïdentificeerd, maar een hoge proportie van de bloeddonoren en hondeneigenaars vermeldden wel regelmatige activiteiten buitenshuis en de hondenverzorgers waren frequent betrokken bij beroepsmatige activiteiten buitenshuis. Dit onderzoek toont aan dat blootstelling aan *A. phagocytophilum* vaak voorkomt in Marokko, zowel bij de hoog risicogroep van de hondenverzorgers als bij de bloeddonoren. Deze resultaten benadrukken bijgevolg het belang van *A. phagocytophilum* voor de volksgezondheid.

Deze studie levert ons belangrijke kennis over de blootstelling aan *Anaplasma* spp. en *Ehrlichia* spp., en over infecties met *A. platys* en *D. immitis* bij honden in Marokko. Daarnaast heeft deze studie voor het eerst de blootstelling aan *A. phagocytophilum* aangetoond bij mensen in Marokko en meer algemeen in Afrika. Onze resultaten toonden aan dat zowel honden als mensen in Marokko frequent worden blootgesteld aan teken overdraagbare pathogenen en benadrukken onze resultaten het belang van deze ziekten voor de volksgezondheid. Onze studie werd opgesteld om het voorkomen van *A. phagocytophilum* en *A. platys* bij honden en mensen in beperkte regio's van het land te evalueren. Grootschalige onderzoeken zijn noodzakelijk om het risico op blootstelling in alle Marokkaanse regio's te evalueren. Toekomstige studies zouden de epidemiologische aspecten van *A. phagocytophilum* infecties (i.e., vectoren, reservoir gastheren, genetische variabiliteit), de risicofactoren geassocieerd met deze infectie, het belang voor de volksgezondheid van anaplasmosis overgedragen door transfusie en de mogelijkheid van deze bacterie om ziekte te veroorzaken bij zowel honden als mensen in Marokko, kunnen onderzoeken.

RESUME

Résumé

Les zoonoses vectorielles présentent un intérêt croissant car elles constituent une menace émergente pour la santé publique et animale. Les chiens peuvent jouer un rôle épidémiologique dans de nombreuses zoonoses vectorielles en tant que réservoirs d'agents pathogènes, transporteurs de vecteurs infectés au contact de l'Homme ou sentinelle dans l'évaluation du risque d'infection pour l'Homme. Etant donné la complexité du diagnostic et du contrôle des maladies vectorielles ainsi que l'existence d'infection asymptomatiques chez le chien augmentant le risque de transmission des pathogènes aux vecteurs, les données épidémiologiques au sein d'une région sont fondamentales. Anaplasma phagocytophilum, A. platys, Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis et Dirofilaria immitis sont d'importants agents pathogènes à transmission vectorielle reconnus comme zoonotiques pour certains ou ayant la capacité d'infecter l'Homme pour d'autres. Les tiques sont considérées comme les vecteurs transmettant le plus grand nombre d'agents pathogènes en comparaison avec les autres arthropodes vecteurs. Certaines maladies transmises par les tiques sont considérées comme émergentes du fait de la contribution de différents facteurs jouant un rôle crucial dans la multiplication et l'expansion territoriale des tiques et par conséquent, augmentant le risque d'infestation par les tiques et de transmission d'agents pathogènes à l'Homme et à l'animal. Parmi les agents pathogènes transmis par les tiques émergents et zoonotiques, A. phagocytophilum est responsable d'une maladie de distribution mondiale nommée « anaplasmose granulocytaire ». Durant les dernières décennies, le nombre d'exposition humaine et animale à A. phagocytophilum a continuellement augmenté aux Etats Unis d'Amérique, en Europe et dans certains pays d'Asie. L'infection chez l'Homme est potentiellement mortelle, de diagnostic difficile et peut entraîner de sévères complications associées à des taux d'hospitalisation élevés. A. phagocytophilum a été détectée dans des pays d'Afrique du nord et du bassin méditerranéen. Dans ces régions, une autres espèce d'Anaplasma, A. platys, pathogène pour le chien et capable d'infecter l'Homme est également présente. En Afrique, très peu d'études on été menées sur l'exposition et/ou l'infection canine par A. phagocytophilum, A. platys, B. burgdorferi, E. canis and D. immitis et ces données sont manquantes au Maroc. De même, très peu d'études sur les maladies transmises par les tiques chez l'Homme sont disponibles au Maroc et aucune donnée concernant l'exposition humaine à A. phagocytophilum n'est actuellement publiée.

Le **Chapitre I** explique l'importance des maladies vectorielles dans le monde et met en relief les facteurs contribuant à leur expansion et l'intérêt croissant suscité par ces maladies, en insistant sur celles transmises par les tiques et plus particulièrement sur *A. phagocytophilum*. Ce chapitre résume également les plus importantes caractéristiques épidémiologiques d'A. *phagocytophilum* et d'A. *platys* comprenant les modalités de transmission, les hôtes réservoirs, les cycles de transmissions, la diversité génétique, le potentiel zoonotique, la distribution mondiale et discute le rôle épidémiologique du chien dans ces deux infections. Du fait de la distribution mondiale d'A. *phagocytophilum* et d'A. *platys*, ces deux bactéries

devraient être présentes et circuler au sein de la population canine au Maroc et l'Homme pourrait être exposé à *A. phagocytophilum* étant donné son caractère zoonotique. Par conséquent, l'objectif de ce travail de thèse exposé dans le **Chapitre II** est l'évaluation de la possible circulation d'*A. phagocytophilum* chez le chien et l'Homme, et d'*A. platys* chez le chien au Maroc.

Au commencement de ce travail de thèse, aucune donnée concernant l'exposition canine à *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp. et *Borrrelia burgdorferi* au Maroc n'était publiée et seul un précédent article a décrit l'infection par *D. immitis* chez un petit nombre de chiens. Dans le **Chapitre III**, l'exposition à ces quatre agents vectoriels a été étudiée chez 217 chiens prélevés dans sept villes marocaines en utilisant un kit ELISA rapide. Parmi les chiens prélevés, 83.9% ont présenté des résultats positifs pour au moins un agent pathogène. L'exposition simultanée à au moins deux agents pathogènes a été observée chez 14 .3% des chiens. Aucun chien séropositif pour *B. burgdorferi* n'a été détecté. A l'inverse, les anticorps anti-*Anplasma* spp. et *Ehrlichia* spp. ainsi que les antigènes de *D. immitis* ont été fréquemment détectés. Une différence significative dans la prévalence à *Ehrlichia* spp. et *D. immitis* a été notée pour le groupe de chiens ruraux mais pas pour *Anaplasma* spp. Cette première partie de notre étude a démontré que les chiens au Maroc présentent un risque important d'infection par des agents vectoriels et a détecté les anticorps anti-*Anaplasma* spp. dans la population de chien prélevés. Etant donné que le test ELISA utilisé ne permet pas de différencier entre une exposition à *A. phagocytophilum* ou à *A. platys*, nous avons décidé d'évaluer la présence de l'infection par ces deux bactéries chez le chien.

Dans le **Chapitre IV**, nous avons étudié simultanément l'exposition à *Anaplasma* spp. et l'infection par *A. phagocytophilum* et *A. platys* dans un effectif canin plus important (n = 425) prélevés dans trois villes du nord-ouest du Maroc. Les anticorps anti-*Anaplasma* spp. ont été recherchés par une méthode immuno-enzymatique ELISA et l'ADN d'*A. phagocytophilum* et d'*A. platys* par une technique de réaction de polymérase en chaine quantitative en temps réel (RT-PCR) ciblant le gène *msp2*. Les résultats obtenus confirment ceux de la précédente étude démontrant encore une fois que les anticorps anti-*Anaplasma* spp. sont fréquemment détectés chez les chiens prélevés. L'ADN d'*A. platys* a également été amplifiée tandis qu'aucun chien n'a été positif à l'ADN d'*A. phagocytophilum*. Malgré la sensibilité du protocole de PCR utilisé, des résultats faussement négatifs peuvent exister principalement dus à la courte durée de la bactériémie et aux variations du nombre de bactéries circulantes. Par conséquent, un résultat négatif lors de la recherche de l'ADN d'*A. phagocytophilum* par PCR signifie uniquement que la l'acide nucléique recherché n'a pas été détecté dans l'échantillon examiné sous les conditions du protocole utilisé et ne devrait en aucun cas être interprété comme une absence de cette bactérie chez le chien au Maroc. De plus, la disproportion entre une forte séroprévalence

Résumé

Anaplasma spp. et une prévalence modérée de détection *d'A. platys* pourrait suggérer que les chiens prélevés ont potentiellement été exposés à d'autres espèces du genre *Anaplasma*. Il est par ailleurs important de noter que les tiques prélevées sur ces chiens ont été exclusivement identifiées comme appartenant à l'espèce *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*, le vecteur présumé d'*A. platys*. Malheureusement, la recherche de l'ADN d'*A. phagocytophilum* et d'*A. platys* dans les tiques prélevées n'a pas pu être réalisée à cause de la dégradation de l'ADN.

Actuellement aucune donnée sur la présence de l'exposition humaine à *A. phagocytophilum* en Afrique n'est disponible. Dans les **Chapitres IV et V**, nous avons évalué la séropositivité à cette bactérie chez 271 patients cliniquement sains et subdivisés en trois groupes: les maîtres-chiens, les propriétaires de chiens et les donneurs de sang prélevés dans deux villes du nord-ouest du Maroc. Un kit commercial d'immunofluorescence a été utilisé pour détecter les immunoglobulines G spécifiques à *A. phagocytophilum*. Deux dilutions ont été réalisées pour évaluer la réactivité des échantillons. La proportion de patients séropositifs a été de 37% et 27% chez les maîtres-chiens è de 36% et 22% chez les donneurs de sang, sans différence significative entre les deux groupes. De plus, les anticorps dirigés contre *A. phagocytophilum* ont été détectés chez 7 et 6 parmi 10 propriétaires de chiens à la première et deuxième dilution, respectivement. Aucun facteur de risque associé à la séropositivité n'a été identifié. Cependant, un nombre important de donneurs de sang et de propriétaires ont reporté avoir fréquemment des activités en plein air. Cette étude a démontré que l'exposition à *A. phagocytophilum* est fréquente à la fois dans la population à risque et chez les donneurs de sang au Maroc et souligne son importance en terme de santé publique.

Cette étude fournit des données de base sur l'exposition à *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp. et l'infection par *A. platys* et *D. immitis* au Maroc. Elle fournit également la première démonstration de l'exposition humaine à *A. phagocytophilum* au Maroc et en Afrique plus généralement. Les résultats obtenus ont montré que les chiens et l'Homme sont fréquemment exposés aux agents pathogènes transmis par les tiques et soulignent leur importance en termes de santé publique. Cette étude a été conçue afin d'évaluer la présence d'*A. phagocytophilum* et d'*A. platys* chez le chien et l'Homme dans un nombre limité de villes marocaines. Des études à l'échelle nationale sont nécessaires afin d'évaluer le risque d'exposition à ces bactéries dans toutes les régions du Maroc. Les prochains travaux devraient également étudier les différents aspects épidémiologiques de l'infection à *A. phagocytophilum* (les différentes espèces de tiques potentiellement vectrices, les hôtes réservoirs, la diversité génétique), évaluer les facteurs de risque associés à cette infection, l'importance en terme de santé publique de la transmission de cette infection par transfusion sanguine et la pathogénicité de cette bactérie chez le chien et l'Homme au Maroc.

منخص

تعرف الأمراض الحيوانية المنشأ اهتماما متزايدا لما تشكله من خطر كبير على صحة الحيوانات والعموم، فالكلاب قادرة على لعب دور ويائي في العديد من الأمراض الحيوانية المنشأ كما أنها قادرة أيضا على لعب دور مخزن العوامل المسببة للمرض والناقل للعوامل المصابة والتي بإمكانها إصابة الإنسان سواء بالاتصال المباشر أو بتقديم عدوى للبشر. خطر انتقال مسببات الأمراض لدى الناقلات يزيد نظرا لصعوبة تشخيص وتتبع الأمراض المنقولة عبر الحشرات، فضلا عن وجود عدوى عديمة الأعراض لدى الكلاب، كما أن المعطيات

هي A. phagocytophilum, A. platys, Borrelia burgdorferi, Ehrlichia canis et Dirofilaria immitis أهم العوامل المسببة للمرض التي تنتقل عبر ناقلات معلومة كالحيوانية المنشأ لدى البعض أو التي لها القدرة على إصابة الإنسان لدى البعض الأخر. مقارنة بالناقلات المفصلية الأخرى يعد القراد الناقل الحامل لأكبر عدد من مسببات المرض. بعض الأمراض المنتقلة عبر القراد تعتبر ناشئة أو فجائية نتيجة مساهمة العوامل المختلفة من مسببات المرض. يعض الأمراض المنتقلة عبر القراد تعتبر ناشئة أو فجائية نتيجة مساهمة العوامل المختلفة والتي تلعب دورا حاسما في نمو وتكاثر القراد وبالتالي زيادة خطر الإصابة عبر القراد وانتقال العوامل المسببة والتي تلعب دورا حاسما في نمو وتكاثر القراد وبالتالي زيادة خطر الإصابة عبر القراد وانتقال العوامل المسببة للمرض للإنسان والحيوان. ومن بين العوامل المسببة للمرض المتناقلة عبر القراد المتناقلة عبر القراد الناشئ والحيواني ومن بين العوامل المسببة للمرض المتناقلة عبر القراد وبالتالي يرادة خطر الإصابة عبر القراد وانتقال العوامل المسببة المرض للإنسان والحيوان. ومن بين العوامل المسببة للمرض المتناقلة عبر القراد وبالتالي يرادة خطر الإصابة عبر القراد وانتقال العوامل المسببة المرض للإنسان والحيوان. ومن بين العوامل المسببة للمرض المتناقلة عبر القراد الناشئ والحيواني ومن بين العوامل المسببة للمرض المتناقلة عبر القراد الناشئ والحيوان. ومن بين العوامل المسببة للمرض المتناقلة عبر القراد الناشئ والحيواني من التوزيع العالمي للمرض المسمي «

خلال العقود الأخيرة ازداد عدد الإصابات لدى الإنسان والحيوان نتيجة A. phagocytophilum بشكل مستمر غير منقطع في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية وأوروبا وبعض الدول الأسيوية.

إن الإصابة لدى الإنسان غالبا ما تكون قاتلة وصعبة التشخيص كما أنها تسبب مضاعفات خطيرة ذات معدلات استشفائية عالية. وقد تم الكشف عن A. phagocytophilum في بلدان شمال أفريقيا والبحر الأبيض المتوسط. حيث أن في هذه المناطق نوع أخر من d'Anaplasma, A. platys و التي تشكل مسببا للمرض بالنسبة للكلاب و قادرة أيضا على إصابة الإنسان.

في إفريقيا، دراسات قليلة هي التي أجريت عن تعرض أو عدوى الكلاب ب: A. phagocytophilum, A. platys, B. burgdorferi, E. canis, D. immitis علما أن هذه المعطيات مفقودة و منعدمة في المغرب. كما أن الدراسات التي أجريت حول الإمراض المتناقلة عبر القراد لدى الإنسان قليلة جدا بالمغرب فيما المعطيات حول تعرض الإنسان للمرض عبر A.phagocytophilum

يؤكد الفصل الأول من هذا البحث، أهمية الأمراض المنقولة عبر الحشرات في العالم، كما يسلط الضوء على العوامل المساهمة في انتشارها والاهتمام المتزايد بها، مؤكدا على تلك التي تتناقل عبر القراد خاصة A. phagocytophilum ويلخص هذا الفصل كذلك، الخصائص الوبائية ل A. phagocytophilum و A. platys إضافة إلى طرق الانتقال، الخزانات المضيفة، دورات الانتقال، التنوع الوراثي، إمكانية الظهور الحيواني، التوزيع العالمي، كما أنه يناقش الدور الوبائي للكلب في كلا الإصابتين، ونتيجة التوزيع العالمي ل A. phagocytophilum و A. platys فإن هذه البكتيريا من المؤكد أن تكون حاضرة ومتداولة لدى الكلاب في المغرب، حيث يمكن للإنسان التعرض ل A. phagocytophilum ولخصائصه الحيوانية. ولذلك فإن الهدف من هذه الأطروحة المقدم في الفصل الثاني من البحث، هو تقييم إمكانية تدفق محتمل ل A. phagocytophilum لدى الإنسان و الحيوان و A. platys لدى الكلاب في المغرب.

والجدير بالذكر أنه لم يكن هناك أي بحث في الموضوع في المغرب قبل بداية هذه الأطروحة، كما لم يتم نشر أي معطيات في بلادنا حول تعرض الكلاب ل Borrrelia burgdorferi ، Anaplasma spp, Ehrlichia spp فاقد كُتب مقال واحد فقط ، تناول تعرض عدد قليل من الكلاب للإصابة عن طريق D. immitis.

في الفصل الثالث من هذا البحث تمت دراسة التعرض نتيجة هذه العوامل الأربع لدى 217 كلبا من سبع مدن مغربية باستعمال عدة ELISA السريعة. 83.9% من عينات الكلاب المدروسة قدمت نتائج إيجابية حول مسبب واحد للمرض على الأقل. كما أن 14.3% من الكلاب تعرضت في نفس الوقت لمسببين للمرض على الأقل. في حين لم يتم رصد أي كلب يعاني من فيروس نقص المناعة ل B. burgdorferi على غرار مضادات الأقل. في حين لم يتم رصد أي كلب يعاني من فيروس نقص المناعة ل D. immitis التي تم رصدها كثيرا. وكار الأجسام ولذ قدم من على أن قد الأقل. في أن الأقل. كما أن 14.3% من الكلاب تعرضت في نفس الوقت لمسببين المرض على الأقل. في حين لم يتم رصد أي كلب يعاني من فيروس نقص المناعة ل D. immitis على غرار مضادات الأجسام ولذ قدم في قدم معن الكلاب التي تم معن الكلاب المدوسة على أن قد الكرب الأجسام ولذات مضادات D. immitis من الكلاب التي تم معر معان الكلاب الأجسام ولم على الأذ قدم في الأخلي من المناعة المناعة المناعة التي تم معلي على ألأجسام ولم على الأجسام وكلب يعاني من فيروس نقص المناعة المناعة التي من معلي على غرار مضادات الأجليم معلي الأخلي المن من الكلاب المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة التي معلي من من الأخلي المناعة الأجليم معلي المن معلي معن المناعة الأول. في كلب يعاني من فيروس نقص المناعة المناعة التي تم معلي الأجليا. الأجليم معلي الأجليم معلي المن المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة التي معلي معلي الأجليم الأجليم معلي الأجليم معلي المن المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة الأجليم معلي الأجليم معلي الأجليم معلي الأجليم معلي الأجليم معلي المن المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة الأجليم معلي الأجليم معلي المن المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة الأجليم معلي معلي معلي معلي معلي معلي المن المن المناعة المناعة المناعة المناعة المنام المناعة ل

لقد أظهر الجزء الأول من دراستنا أن الكلاب في المغرب تشكل خطرا بالنسبة للإصابة عبر هذه العوامل الناقلة كما أنها رصدت مضادات الأجسام وanti-Anaplasma spp لدى عينات الكلاب المدروسة. و كون اختبار ELISA لم يمكننا من التمييز بين التعرض ل A. phagocytophilum أو ل A. platys ، قررنا تقييم وجود العدوى عن طريق هذه البكتيريا لدى الكلب.

أما في الفصل الرابع، فلقد قمنا في نفس الوقت، بدراسة التعرض لAnaplasma spp والإصابة ب A. phagocytophilum و A. platys و A. platys فردا، مأخوذة من ثلاث مدن شمال غرب المغرب. كما تم البحث عن مضادات الأجسام anti-Anaplasma spp بواسطة طريقة منعاتية-أنزيمية، والحديث هنا عن ELISA والحمض النووي ل Magocytophilum بوي و RT-PCR) مستهدفة الجينات msp2، حيث تؤكد هذه النتائج نتائج الدراسة السابقة، مبرهنة من جديد على أن مضادات الأجسام تؤكد هذه النتائج نتائج الدراسة السابقة، مبرهنة من جديد على أن مضادات الأجسام A. platys عالم النووي في حين لم يكان المدروسة. كما تم تضخيم حمض A. platys من جين المواي في حين الم يكن أي كلب إيجابيا بخصوص حمض A. platys النووي في حين لم يكن أي كلب إيجابيا بخصوص حمض A. platys النووي. ملخص

وعلى الرغم من حساسية بروتوكول PCR، فقد تحدث نتائج سلبية كاذبة، ويرجع ذلك أساسا إلى قصر مدة تجرثم الدم والتغيرات في عدد من البكتيريا المنتشرة. لذلك فإن نتيجة سلبية واحدة عند البحث عن حمض مجرثم الدم والتغيرات في عدد من البكتيريا المنتشرة. لذلك فإن نتيجة سلبية واحدة عند البحث عن حمض السوري الم والتغيرات في عدد من البكتيريا المنتشرة. لذلك فإن نتيجة سلبية واحدة عند البحث عن حمض العينة المفحوصة وفقا لأحكام البروتوكول المعمول به، و لا ينبغي في أي حال من الأحوال، أن تفسر بعدم وجود العينة المفحوصة وفقا لأحكام البروتوكول المعمول به، و لا ينبغي في أي حال من الأحوال، أن تفسر بعدم وجود هذه البكتيريا لدى الكلاب بالمغرب. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، فإن عدم التناسب بين ارتفاع الانتشار المصلي هذه البكتيريا لدى الكلاب بالمغرب. ومن معمول به، و لا ينبغي في أي حال من الأحوال، أن تفسر بعدم وجود من هذه البكتيريا لدى الكلاب بالمغرب. ومن معمول به، و لا ينبغي في أي حال من الأحوال، أن تفسر بعدم وجود معنه العينة المفحوصة وفقا لأحكام البروتوكول المعمول به، و لا ينبغي في أي حال من الأحوال، أن تفسر بعدم وجود العينة المفحوصة وفقا لأحكام البروتوكول المعمول به، و لا ينبغي في أي حال من الأحوال، أن تفسر بعدم وجود من هذه البكتيريا لدى الكلاب بالمغرب. والإضافة إلى ذلك، فإن عدم التناسب بين ارتفاع الانتشار المصلي من موجود من هموا الن عدم التناسب بين المغوذ من عينات الكلاب للمن من موجود من المواد المنار ومن المهم أيضا أن يشير إلى تعرض الكلاب إلى أنواع أخرى من ورسة تم تحديده على انه ينتمي للنوع A. platys معول المنهور ل A. platys الكلاب المدروسة تم تحديده على انه ينتمي للنوع من المهم أيضا أن نلاحظ أن القراد المأحوذ من عينات الكلاب المدروسة تم تحديده على انه ينتمي للنوع من المهم أيضا أن نلاحظ مان القراد المأحوذ من عينات الكلاب المدروسة تم تحدين الله المشهور ل A. platys من عنه ما مروسة م تم تحديده على انه ينتمي للنوع A. platy ما م من المروي الدي هذا النوع من القراد نظرا لندهور المدروسة تم تحديده على الموري.

تجدر الإشارة إلى أن المعطيات حول تعرض الإنسان ل A. phagocytophilum غير متوفرة في إفريقيا حاليا.

وفي الفصلين الرابع والخامس قمنا بتقييم حالة هذه البكتيريا لدى 217 من المرضى السريريين وتم تقسيمهم إلى ثلاث مجموعات: مدربي الكلاب، أصحاب الكلاب والمتبرعون بالدم في مدينتين شمال غرب المغرب. وقد تم استخدام عدة منعاتية تجارية للكشف عن G mmunoglobulines الخاصة ب *magocytophilum. ك*ما أجريت اثنين من التخفيفات لتقييم تفاعل العينات و بلغت نسبة المرضى المصابين عمر و 27 % بالنسبة لمدربي الكلاب، و 36 % و 22% بالنسبة للمتبرعين بالدم دون أي فرق مهم بين المجموعتين. إضافة إلى انه تم كشف الأجسام المضادة main دون أي فرق مهم بين لدى 7 و 6 من عشرة مربيي الكلاب عند التخفيف الأول و الثاني على التوالي. ولم تحدد أي عوامل الخطر المرتبطة بفيروس نقص المناعة البشرية. ومع ذلك، فقد أفاد عدد كبير من المتبرعين بالدم وأصحاب الكلاب أن أنشطتهم غالبا ما تكون في الهواء الطلق. وأظهرت هذه الدراسة أن التعرض لسكاره والماليد أن لدى كل من السكان المعرضين للخطر والمتبرعين بالدم في مجال الصحة العرب،

تقدم هذه الدراسة معطيات مهمة وأساسية حول التعرض ل Anaplasma spp, Ehrlichia spp وكذا الإصابة ب A. platys و I. immitis بالمغرب. كما توفر أيضا أول تعليل ودليل حول تعرض الإنسان ل A. phagocytophilum في المغرب وإفريقيا عموما.

وقد أظهرت نتائج هذا البحث، أن الكلاب والإنسان غالبا ما يتعرض لمسببات الأمراض التي تنتقل عن طريق القراد، مؤكدة على أهميتها في مجال الصحة العمومية. كما قد صممت هذه الدراسة لتقييم حضور A. phagocytophilum والإنسان في عدد محدود من المدن المغربية. إضافة إلى الحاجة الماسة لدراسات على الصعيد الوطني لتقييم مخاطر التعرض لهذه البكتيريا في جميع مناطق المغرب. ويجب العمل في المستقبل على دراسة مختلف الجوانب الوبائية لعدوى

ال A. phagocytophilum. (أنواع القراد خاصة الناقلة منها، الخزان المضيف، والتنوع الجيني) وتقييم عوامل الخطر المرتبطة بهذا المرض، بالإضافة إلى تقييم أهمية انتقال المرض عبر نقل الدم ومرضية هذه البكتيريا لدى الإنسان والكلاب في المغرب، وفق سياق سياسة الصحة العمومية.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Sarah El Hamiani Khatat was born on February 15, 1985 in Rabat, Morocco. In 2003, she graduated from secondary education in the direction of Science at the Lycée Descartes in Rabat, Morocco. Immediately afterwards she started her Veterinary Medicine curriculum at l'Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II, Rabat, Morocco. In 2009, she graduated with honors from the Veterinary Medicine degree. After her graduation, she spent two years between 2010 and 2012 at the National Veterinary School of Maisons-Alfort, France where she did an internship in companion animals followed by a specialized internship in internal medicine of companion animals.

The two years spent in the National Veterinary School of Maisons-Alfort gave her the desire to follow an academic carrier. She started a PhD on the field of zoonotic vector-borne diseases and more specifically on *Anaplasma* species. This study was jointly supervised by the Veterinary Faculty of Ghent University and l'Institut Agronomique et Vétérinaire Hassan II of Rabat, Morocco. This work had also the support of the National Reference Laboratory for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Brussels, IDEXX Laboratories in Sacramento, California, USA and the Gendarmerie Services of Rabat, Morocco.

Sarah El Hamiani Khatat has authored or co-authored several scientific publications and presentations.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

PUBLICATIONS AND COMMUNICATIONS

Elhamiani Khatat S, Khallaayoune K, Errafyk N, Van Gool F, Duchateau L, Daminet S, Kachani M, El Amri H, Azrib R, Sahibi H. Detection of *Anaplasma* spp. and *Ehrlichia* spp. antibodies, and *Dirofilaria immitis* antigens in dogs from seven locations of Morocco. Veterinary Parasitology 2017;239:86-89.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Daminet S, Leutenegger CM, Kachani M, Duchateau L, El Amri H, Hing M, Azrib R, Sahib H. *Anaplasma* spp. in dogs in northwestern Morocco. Parasites & Vectors 2017;10:202.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Sahibi H, Hing M, Alaoui Moustain I, El Amri H, Benajiba M, Kachani M, Duchateau M, Daminet S. Human exposure to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in Morocco. PLoS One 2016;11:e0160880.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Rosenberg D, Benchekroun G, Polack B. Lungworm *Eucoleus aerophilus* (*Capillaria aerophila*) infection in a feline immunodeficiency virus positive cat in France. Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery 2016; doi:10.1177/2055116916651649.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Defauw P, Marynissen S, Van de Maele I, van Dongen A, Daminet S. Exposure to *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dogs in Belgium: two case reports. Vlaams Diergeneeskundig Tijdschrift 2015;84:39-46.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Sahibi H. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum:* An emerging but unrecognized tickborne pathogen. Revue Marocaine des Sciences Agronomiques et Vétérinaires 2015;3:43-52.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Daminet S, Kachani M, Leutenegger CM, Duchateau L, El Amri H, Azrib R, Sahibi H. *Anaplasma* spp. chez le chien au Maroc. Poster presented at the 2^{nd} Congress of the Moroccan Assiocation of Veterinarian for Companion Animals (AMVAC), April $29^{th} - 30^{th}$ 2017, Marrakech, Morocco.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Defauw P, Daminet S. Infection à *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* chez un chien présentant une glomérulonéphrite. Poster presentated at the 1^{er} Congress of the Morocccan Association of Veterinarians for Companion Animals (AMVAC), May $8^{th} - 9^{th}$ 2015, Marrakech, Morocco.

Bibliography

Elhamiani Khatat S, Khallaayoune K, Sahibi H, Van Gool F. Evaluation de l'exposition à *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp., *Borrelia burgdorferi* et *Dirofilaria immitis* chez le chien au Maroc. Poster presentated at the 1^{er} Congress of the Morocccan Association of Veterinarians for Companion Animals (AMVAC), May 8th – 9th 2015, Marrakech, Morocco.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Daminet S. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and granulocytic anaplasmosis. Oral presentation at the Veterinary Faculty of Ghent University, November 10th 2013, Merelbeke, Belgium.

Elhamiani Khatat S, Daminet S. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dogs in Morocco: prevalence and effect on renal function. Oral presentation at the Veterinary Faculty of Ghent University, November 8th 2013, Merelbeke, Belgium.

Laguna Sanz F, **El Hamiani** S, Donzel E, Payen G, Chahory S. Un caso de agenesia palpebral: corrección mediante la transposición de la comisura labial. Oral presentation at the Congress of the AMVAC, January 2012, Madrid, Spain.

Derqaoui L, **El Hamiani Khatat S**. Développement testiculaire chez la caille des blés (*Coturnix coturnix*) à l'avènement de la saison sexuelle au Maroc (cas du Gharb et de Doukkala). Oral presentation at the 16th Congress of the World Veterinary Poultry Association (WVPA), November 12th 2009, Marrakech, Morocco.

Derqaoui L, **El Hamiani Khatat S**, El Gandazi I, El Hamidi M, El Kettani F, Dakki M. Reprise de l'activité sexuelle chez la caille des blés *Coturnix coturnix coturnix* pendant sa phase de migration prénuptiale au Maroc. Poster presentated at the 27^{th} Noth African Veterinary Congress, April $10^{\text{th}} - 11^{\text{th}}$ 2010, Hammameth, Tunisia.