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Peer reviewed version

Link to published version (if available):
10.1016/j.vetpar.2020.109143

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1 # The prevalence of *Rickettsia felis* DNA in fleas collected
2 # from cats and dogs in the UK

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11 **ABSTRACT**

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13 In a large-scale survey in the UK, recruited veterinary practices were asked to inspect client-
14 owned cats and dogs, selected at random between April and June 2018, following a
15 standardised flea inspection protocol. A total of 326 veterinary practices participated and 812
16 cats and 662 dogs were examined during the 3-month period. Fleas were collected, identified to
17 species level and fleas of the same species collected from a single animal were pooled together
18 and treated as a single sample. A total of 470 pooled flea samples were screened by PCR and
19 DNA sequence analysis for a subset of *Rickettsia* species including *R. felis* and *R. typhi*. On
20 analysis, 27 (5.7%) of the pooled flea samples were positive for *R. felis* DNA; these were
21 predominantly in the cat flea, *Ctenocephalides felis*, but one dog flea, *Ctenocephalides canis* was also
22 positive for this pathogen.

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1. Introduction

Rickettsia felis is an emerging bacterial pathogen and the aetiological agent responsible for flea-borne spotted fever (also known as cat flea typhus), which affects a range of vertebrates, including humans (Parola, 2011). It is now found worldwide in association with its primary vector and reservoir, the cat flea *Ctenocephalides felis*. Knowledge of *R. felis* remains relatively limited, particularly in relation to its epidemiology (Brown & Macaluso, 2016). Infection is transferred between flea life cycle stages transtadially and maintained within flea populations by transovarial transmission, although horizontal amplification within an infected host may be required for long-term maintenance in co-feeding flea populations. *Rickettsia felis* has been detected in a wide range of arthropods, including other flea species, ticks, mites and mosquitoes, although the role of these as vectors is unclear (Reif and Macaluso, 2009). In some regions, there is evidence of a high prevalence of *R. felis* in dogs, which might indicate a role of the canine host as a reservoir (Hii et al., 2013; Horta et al., 2014). A serological survey of 286 healthy cats in central Italy found 23 (8.04%) and 18 (6.29%) cats positive for *R. felis* and *R. conorii*, respectively (Morganti et al., 2019). Reports from Germany and Spain, where dog owners were suffering from flea-borne spotted fever, showed that their dogs tested positive for the pathogen even though the animals were broadly asymptomatic (Richter et al. 2002; Oteo et al. 2006). Further, a study on seroprevalence of *R. felis* in dogs in Spain indicated that 51.1% were seropositive for this pathogen (Nogueras et al., 2009).

Although cats are thought to be the primary reservoir for *R. felis* (Higgins et al. 1996, Gerhold et al., 2013), infection with *R. felis* causes little clinical disease (Barrs et al., 2010). A small percentage of infected cats may show clinical signs such as fever, although this is rare; immune-mediated thrombocytopenia, a disorder of red blood cells resulting in a low platelet count, may also be associated with infection (Wedincamp and Foil, 2000). Feline rickettsial infection in Europe, North and South America, Africa, Australia and Asia has been detected in serological studies (Case et al., 2006, Bayliss et al., 2009). However, no *R. felis* was found in studies conducted in the United States (Bayliss et al., 2009) and Canada (Kamrani et al., 2008) using *gltA* and/or *ompB* gene amplification in high-risk groups of cats.

Given the indiscriminate feeding habits of cat fleas (Azad et al., 1992), the zoonotic risk from *R. felis* may be high, especially where companion animals live in close contact with humans. As a result, it has been proposed that *R. felis* should be classified as an emerging global threat to human health (Yazid Abdad et al., 2011). In humans, infection results in a serious debilitating illness, with high fever, local lymphadenopathy, headaches, neurological signs, myalgia, and often

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65 a maculopapular rash (Pérez-Osorio et al., 2008; Nilsson et al., 2014). Usefully, domestic pets can

66 act as sentinels for such vector-borne zoonoses (Richter et al., 2002; Oteo et al., 2006). The

67 current study examined the prevalence of *R. felis* in fleas collected in a randomised sample from

68 cats and dogs in the UK to help quantify the risk of flea-borne *R. felis* infection in companion

69 animals and humans in shared spaces.

70

71 **2. Methods**

72 *2.1 Flea samples*

73 The flea samples used in the current study were collected from both cats and dogs by

74 veterinary surgeons throughout the UK as part of a national surveillance study; sampling details

75 have been published previously (Abdullah et al., 2019). Enrolled veterinary practitioners selected

76 5 cats and 5 dogs per week at random for four weeks and undertook a standardised flea

77 inspection using a dampened comb. At the end of the grooming process, the entire comb was

78 placed in a plastic sample bag, sealed and sent by standard post to the University of Bristol where

79 they were stored at −20 °C. Veterinarians were asked to complete a case history for each animal

80 regardless of whether or not fleas were found. Identification of fleas was performed with the use

81 of light microscopy and taxonomic keys (Whitaker, 2007).

82 After identification, fleas were transferred into individual micro-tubes and all the fleas of

83 the same species collected from a single animal were pooled. DNA was extracted from each

84 pooled flea sample using a high-throughput system, DNeasy 96 Blood & Tissue Kit

85 (QIAGEN®, Manchester, UK). The flea samples were crushed using micro-pestles in their

86 respective tubes and thoroughly mixed in 180 µl Buffer ATL and 20 µl proteinase K by

87 vortexing. The samples were briefly centrifuged (2900 xg for 120 s) and incubated overnight at

88 56 °C to ensure complete tissue lysis. After overnight incubation, the lysates were briefly

89 centrifuged (2900 xg for 120 s) and the liquid from each tube was transferred to an individual

90 well of a 96 deep-well plate, leaving behind the flea exoskeleton. Further extraction steps were

91 carried out as per the manufacturer's guidelines.

92 Flea DNA in the extracted samples was detected with conventional PCR that amplified a

93 1200 base pair (bp) region of the flea 18S rRNA gene. A master mix was made as follows: 5 µl of

94 2 x GoTaq Hot Start Mastermix (Promega, UK), 0.2 µl of 10 µM each forward (18S-F)/reverse

95 (18S-R) primes and 2.8 µl water. A high-throughput automated pipetting system (epMotion

96 P5073, Eppendorf, Stevenage, UK) was used to add 2 µl of flea DNA to 8 µl of master mix in

97 96 well PCR plates Flea DNA and water were used as positive and negative controls,

98 respectively. The thermal cycling protocol consisted of an initial denaturation at 95 °C for 2 min,

99 followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 20 s, 56 °C for 20 s and 72 °C for 90 s in a thermal cycler

100 (Biorad T100 thermal cycler, Biorad, Watford, UK). Amplified DNA was subjected to

101 electrophoresis in a 1.5% agarose gel pre-stained with 0.05 μg/ml ethidium bromide and viewed

102 under ultraviolet light. Positive samples were identified as having a defined band of ~1200 bp on

103 the gel.

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105 *2.2 Rickettsia spp. quantitative PCRs and DNA sequencing*

106 Flea DNA samples were screened for a subset of *Rickettsia* species including *R. felis* and

107 *R. typhi* as primary flea borne *Rickettsia* (Lucas et al., 2017), using real-time PCR primers designed

108 to amplify a 147 bp fragment of the citrate synthase gene (*gltA*). Resulting forward 5'-

109 AGGGTCTTCGTGCATTTCTT-3' and reverse 5'-

110 GAGAGAAAATTATATCCAAATGTTGAT-3' primers (modified from Labruna et al 2004)

111 were combined with a fluorogenic probe 5' 6-FAM-CACTGTGCCATCCAGCCTACGGT-

112 BHQ-1 3'). The PCR comprised 12.5 μL 2 x GoTaq Hot Start Mastermix (Promega, UK), 0.5 μL

113 of 10 uM each forward and reverse primers, 0.25 μL 10uM probe, 1.5 μL 50 nM $MgCl_2$, 10 μL

114 water and 5 μL DNA. Amplification was performed in a Statagene Mx3005P QPCR system for

115 2 min at 95 °C followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 30 s. Negative control

116 (molecular grade water) and positive control (*R. felis* DNA received from Australian Rickettsial

117 Reference Laboratory, Barwon Health Geelong, VIC 3220, Australia) were included. The assay

118 was optimised by using a series of dilutions of *R. felis* positive controls and estimation of reaction

119 efficiency. PCR products from positives were cleaned up directly using the Nucleopsin Gel and

120 PCR Clean-up kit (Machery-Nagel, Düren, Germany) according to manufacturer's instructions.

121 DNA sequencing was performed by DNA Sequencing and Services (MRC I PPU, School of Life

122 Sciences, University of Dundee, Scotland, www.dnaseq.co.uk) using Applied Biosystems Big-Dye

123 Ver 3.1 chemistry on an applied Biosystems model 3730 automated capillary DNA sequencer.

124 Similarity to published sequences was determined using BLAST (http//www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov)

125 hosted by the National Centre for Biotechnology Information.

126

127 **3. Results and Discussion**

128 A total of 326 veterinary practices from across the UK participated in the survey between

129 April and June 2018, and a total of 1,627 animals were examined. For 1,475 of these animals a

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130 wholly, or at least partially, completed case history was submitted and consisted of 812 cats, 662

131 dogs and one animal of unspecified species. No case history details were submitted for 152

132 samples. The flea infestation rate was high for both cats (28.1% ±3.1%) and dogs

133 (14.4%±2.7%), and the results from this survey have been described and discussed in detail by

134 Abdullah et al. (2019).

135   A total of 470 pooled flea samples collected from 94 dogs, 227 cats and 149 with no host

136 record, were analysed for the presence of two flea borne *Rickettsia* spp. Of these 470 samples,

137 429 were cat flea samples (*C. felis felis*), 9 dog flea samples (*C. canis*), 6 hedgehog flea samples

138 (*Archaeopsylla erinacei*), 19 rabbit flea samples (*Spilopsyllus cuniculi)* and 7 chicken flea samples

139 (*Ceratophyllus* spp.). On PCR analysis, a total of 38 flea samples were positive for *Rickettsia* species

140 DNA, and on sequencing 27 of these positive samples were found to be *R. felis* (19 had a full

141 case history and 8 had no case history) as presented in Table 1, giving a prevalence of 5.7% for

142 *R. felis*. Previous studies of the prevalence of *R. felis* in the UK also reported similar infection

143 rates of 6% to 12% (Kenny et al. 2003, whereas Shaw et al. 2004 reported a much higher

144 prevalence of 21%. However, both these studies were relatively localised and focussed their

145 sampling across southern parts of the UK and Northern Ireland.

146   Of the remaining 11 flea samples that were positive by PCR assay, the analysis for

147 sequence similarity using BLAST indicated 4 of the sequences match closely (98.8-100%) with *R.*

148 *asembonensis*; 3 of these samples were from hedgehog fleas (*Archaeopsylla erinacei*) and one was

149 from a cat flea. One sample was from a dog and one was from a cat, the other two had no

150 records of the host species. *R. asembonensis* belongs to a group of *R. felis*–like organisms (RFLOs),

151 which are closely related to *R. felis* (Jiang et al., 2013); to distinguish *R. asembonensis* from *R. felis*,

152 further sequence analysis of additional genes such as *ompA*, *ompB* or *sca4* would be desirable

153 (Maina et al., 2016) . This species is ubiquitous and has been reported from multiple

154 ectoparasites (Oteo et al., 2014; Maina et al., 2016), but its pathogenic significance remains

155 unknown. Among the remaining 7 PCR positive samples, two were found to carry the DNA of

156 an unknown *Rickettsia* sp. and the remaining 5 samples did not produce a sequence that could be

157 analysed.

158   In addition to cat fleas, *R. felis* DNA was also detected in one *C. canis* (dog flea),

159 indicating that other flea species may also act as vectors of this pathogen, and other animal

160 species may be potential reservoirs of infection. Similar findings were reported from Germany by

161 Gilles et al. (2008), where they found that *A. erinacei* (hedgehog flea) carried *R. felis*, suggesting the

162 hedgehog as a potential reservoir of infection. However, while the detection of pathogen DNA

163 in fleas may indicate concurrent infection of the host and the vector, since no blood samples
164 were collected from the hosts in this study, the prevalence of *R. felis* infection in the host cannot
165 be determined.

166   *Rickettsia felis* is an important emerging zoonosis worldwide (Parola et al., 2005; Pérez-
167 Osorio et al., 2008; Teoh et al., 2017). In this study, a *R. felis* infection prevalence of 5.7% was
168 detected in fleas collected from cats and dogs in the UK. Even though the prevalence of this
169 pathogen in fleas may seem relatively low in comparison to some studies in central Europe, fleas
170 are frequent feeders (Cadiergues et al., 2000) and their numbers can increase quickly under
171 favourable conditions (Silverman et al. 1981), which can rapidly increase the risk of flea bites and
172 the transmission of this pathogen. *Rickettsia felis* appears to be widely distributed within the UK,
173 infecting a geographically dispersed population of cat fleas. In humans, infection causes
174 symptoms that are similar to those of murine typhus and other febrile illnesses such as dengue,
175 with fever and myalgia (Pérez-Osorio et al., 2008). Clinicians coming across patients with fever
176 and/or rash should consider a differential diagnosis of *R. felis,* particularly if the patient is known
177 to have been exposed to flea bites. Hence, the effective year-round flea control of fleas on pets
178 and in the environment is important, both to reduce the direct effects of flea feeding and the risk
179 of pathogen transmission.

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282 Table 1. The number of *Rickettsia felis*, *R. asembonensis* and 'other' *Rickettsia* positive samples that could not
283 be identified to species level, in flea samples of different species collected from cats and dogs (94 dogs,
284 227 cats and 149 with no host record) during a national survey in the UK.

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Rickettsia species	Pet species	Number of Flea samples infected	*C. felis*	*C. canis*	Other Flea species
Rickettsia felis	Cat	14	13	1	
	Dog	5	5		
	No case history	8	8		
	Total	**27**	**26**	**1**	
Rickettsia asembonensis	Cat	4	1		3*
	Total	**4**	**1**		**3***
Unknown *Rickettsia*	Cat	1			1**
	No case history	1			
	Total	**2**			**1**

286 ** Archaeopsylla erinacei*   *** Spilopsyllus cuniculi*