

1 **Screening of bat faeces for arthropod-borne apicomplexan protozoa:**
2 ***Babesia canis* and *Besnoitia besnoiti*-like sequences from Chiroptera**

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44 **Abstract**

45 **Background:**

46 Microbats (Chiroptera: Microchiroptera) are among the most eco-epidemiologically important
47 mammals, owing to their presence in human settlements and animal keeping facilities.

48 Roosting of bats in buildings may bring pathogens of veterinary-medical importance into the
49 environment of domestic animals and humans. In this context bats have long been studied as
50 carriers of various pathogen groups. However, despite their close association with arthropods
51 (both in their food and as their ectoparasites), only a few molecular surveys have been
52 published on their role as carriers of vector-borne protozoa. The aim of the present study was
53 to compensate for this scarcity of information.

54 **Findings:**

55 Altogether 221 (mostly individual) bat faecal samples were collected in Hungary and the
56 Netherlands. The DNA was extracted, and analysed with PCR and sequencing for the
57 presence of arthropod-borne apicomplexan protozoa. *Babesia canis canis* (with 99-100%
58 homology) was identified in five samples, all from Hungary. Because it was excluded with an
59 Ixodidae-specific PCR that the relevant bats consumed ticks, these sequences derive either
60 from insect carriers of *Ba. canis*, or from the infection of bats. In one bat faecal sample from
61 the Netherlands a sequence having the highest (99%) homology to *Besnoitia besnoiti* was
62 amplified.

63 **Conclusions:**

64 These findings suggest that some aspects of the epidemiology of canine babesiosis are
65 underestimated or unknown, i.e. the potential role of insect-borne mechanical transmission
66 and/or the susceptibility of bats to *Ba. canis*. In addition, bats need to be added to future
67 studies in the quest for the final host of *Be. besnoiti*.

68

69 **Keywords:** vector-borne, Chiroptera, faecal DNA, Apicomplexa, *Dermacentor*, *Stomoxys*

70

71 **Background**

72

73 Microbats, known for their nocturnal activity and echolocation, belong to the second largest
74 order (Chiroptera) of mammals and have a world-wide geographical distribution except arctic
75 areas and deserts [1]. The great majority of their species are insectivorous, and therefore
76 ecologically and economically important regulators of natural insect populations. Microbats
77 also have a high epidemiological significance, due to their ability of "true flying" (frequently
78 connected to migratory habit) and their presence in human settlements. In particular, roosting
79 of bats in buildings (attics, cellars, stables) may bring pathogens of veterinary-medical
80 importance into the environment of domestic animals and humans, thus increasing the chance
81 of acquiring related infections. In this scenario bats have features that may further enhance
82 their eco-epidemiological role, as exemplified by ubiquitous occurrence, long life-span, social
83 behaviour (close contacts and allogrooming in colonies) and tendency for persistent infections
84 [2].

85 Accordingly, bats are increasingly recognized as reservoirs or carriers (vectors) of
86 various pathogen groups [3]. However, while numerous studies focused on emerging viruses
87 (e.g. [2]) and bacteria (e.g. [4]) associated with bats, only a few recent, molecular surveys
88 have been reported on their role as carriers of vector-borne protozoa [5] – despite the close
89 association of bats with arthropods (both in their food and as their ectoparasites). Therefore,
90 the present study was initiated to screen bat samples for arthropod-borne protozoa
91 (Apicomplexa: Piroplasmida and related groups).

92 For this molecular survey bat faeces was chosen as the sample source, in part because
93 of its non-invasive availability (that is a primary concern when handling small bodied, highly
94 protected animal species). In addition, molecular investigation of bat faeces proved to be
95 useful in taxonomical identification of macroscopic prey insects [6]. On the other hand, to the
96 best of our knowledge, this method was hitherto not used to reveal the presence of arthropod-

97 borne protozoa bats may have contact with. Demonstration of microbial/protozoan DNA from
98 bat faeces is not only informative on prey insect (or bat intestinal) pathogens. It may also have
99 relevance to the role bats may play as potential reservoirs of extraintestinal apicomplexans,
100 because invasive stages or intracellular forms of these may cross the gut barrier. In this way
101 the DNA of haemotropic protozoa may pass in detectable amounts with the faeces, as
102 exemplified by *Plasmodium* spp. in primates [7].

103

104 **Methods**

105

106 Between May and September, 2014, 196 individual and 25 pooled bat faecal samples
107 were collected (192 on 38 locations in Hungary, and 29 on 10 locations in the Netherlands:
108 Figure 1). The study involved the following 19 bat species (sample number): *Nyctalus noctula*
109 (21), *N. leisleri* (9), *Myotis alcaethoe* (23), *M. daubentonii* (49), *M. bechsteini* (21), *M.*
110 *emarginatus* (6), *M. myotis* (8), *M. dasycneme* (4), *M. brandtii* (6), *M. nattereri* (13), *M.*
111 *blythii* (5), *Rhinolophus ferrumequinum* (3), *R. hipposideros* (2), *Pipistrellus nathusii* (3), *P.*
112 *pipistrellus* (14), *P. pygmaeus* (1), *Barbastella barbastellus* (6), *Miniopterus schreibersii* (1),
113 *Plecotus auritus* (1). These bats were caught (as part of a monitoring program) at the entrance
114 of caves between sunset and dawn, using standard Ecotone mist-nets (Gdynia, Poland) with
115 12 m length, 2.5 m height and 14 × 14 mm mesh. After ringing the bats were individually
116 held in sterile paper bags (i.e. one bat per one bag) until sufficient defecation. The standard
117 sample size was three to five faecal pellets for each individual bat. The individual faecal
118 pellets were transferred into numbered, screw cap plastic tubes and stored frozen at -20 °C
119 until evaluation.

120 DNA was extracted with the QIAamp Fast DNA Stool Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden,
121 Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions and including extraction controls.

122 All samples were molecularly screened with a conventional PCR that amplifies an approx.
123 500 bp long part of the 18S rDNA gene of piroplasms [8]. This method also detects other
124 apicomplexan genera, including vector-borne haemogregarines and certain cystogenic
125 coccidia [9]. The primers BJ1 (forward: 5'-GTC TTG TAA TTG GAA TGA TGG-3') and
126 BN2 (reverse: 5'-TAG TTT ATG GTT AGG ACT ACG-3') were used. The reaction volume
127 was 25 µl, i.e. 5 µl of extracted DNA was added to 20 µl of reaction mixture containing
128 0.5 unit HotStarTaq Plus DNA polymerase (5U/ µl), 200 µM PCR nucleotid mix, 1 µM of
129 each primer and 2.5 µl of 10× Coral Load PCR buffer (15 mM MgCl₂ included). For
130 amplification an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 10 min was followed by 40 cycles of
131 denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 54 °C for 30 s and extension at 72 °C for 40 s.
132 Final extension was performed at 72 °C for 5 min.

133 Electrophoresis and visualization of the PCR product was done in a 1.5% agarose gel,
134 followed by sequencing (Biomi Inc., Gödöllő, Hungary). Representative sequences were
135 deposited in the GenBank (accession numbers are shown in Table 1). Phylogenetic analyses
136 were conducted according to the Tamura-Nei model [10] and Maximum Composite
137 Likelihood method by using MEGA version 5.2 [11].

138 In addition, the presence of hard tick (Acari: Ixodidae) DNA in the bat faeces was
139 evaluated by a conventional PCR that amplifies a 460 bp portion of the mitochondrial 16S
140 rDNA gene of Ixodidae, with the forward primer 16S+1 (5'-CTG CTC AAT GAT TTT TTA
141 AAT TGC TGT GG-3') and reverse primer 16S-1 (5'-CCG GTC TGA ACT CAG ATC AAG
142 T-3'). The original method [12] was slightly modified by using 1.0 unit of HotStartTaq Plus
143 DNA polymerase in a reaction mixture as above, and a thermal profile of initial denaturation
144 step at 95 °C for 5 min, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 40 s, annealing at
145 51 °C for 1 min, extension at 72 °C for 1 min, and final extension at 72 °C for 10 min.

146 Exact confidence interval (CI) for the prevalence rate was calculated at the 95% level.

147

148 **Ethical approval**

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150 Authorization for bat capture was provided by the National Inspectorate for Environment,
151 Nature and Water (No. 14/2138-7/2011). Bat banding licence number is TMF-14/
152 32/2010 (DK) and 59/2003 (PE).

153

154 **Results and Discussion**

155

156 ***Babesia canis* DNA in bat faeces**

157

158 *Babesia canis canis* (referred to as *Ba. canis* onwards) DNA was shown to be present in five
159 individual samples (prevalence 2.7%, CI: 0.9-6.2%), all from Hungary (Table 1). Two
160 sequences were identified (accession numbers KP835549-50) with 2 nucleotide differences
161 (inversion of GA to AG at positions 151-152 in the 18S rDNA gene). These bat-derived
162 *Babesia* isolates showed 100% identity with two *Ba. canis* isolates from dogs in Croatia
163 (FJ209024 and FJ209025: [13]), and in phylogenetical comparison they clustered together
164 with other *Ba. canis* isolates (Figure 2). On the other hand, the relevant sequences exhibited
165 only 88% similarity to *Ba. vesperuginis* (AJ871610) known to infect bats (Figure 2). All five
166 bats with *Ba. canis* PCR positive faecal samples were caught within 50 km of the two regions
167 in Hungary (Figure 1), where the highest number of *Ba. canis* seropositive dogs were found in
168 a previous countrywide survey [14].

169 Taken together, this may be the first molecular evidence that both main European
170 genotypes of *Ba. canis* (group A, B: [15]) occur in Hungary.

171 There are three possible explanations for this unexpected finding. First, relevant bats
172 may have eaten infected tick vectors of *Ba. canis*, i.e. *Dermacentor reticulatus*. To evaluate
173 this possibility, the five *Babesia*-positive faecal DNA samples were molecularly analysed for
174 the presence of tick DNA (mitochondrial 16S rDNA gene). All five samples were PCR
175 negative. If relevant bats (with *Ba. canis* PCR positive faeces) have ingested infected tick
176 vectors, the DNA of *D. reticulatus* should have been detected in their faeces, similarly to that
177 of other prey arthropods [6]. This is supported by literature data: although bats also feed on
178 arachnids, to the best of our knowledge ticks were never reported to be part of their diet (e.g.
179 [6, 16]).

180 Alternatively, blood-sucking flies (e.g. *Stomoxys* spp.) are known to be incriminated as
181 mechanical vectors in the transmission of *Babesia* spp. [17]. *Stomoxys calcitrans* (also called
182 "dog fly") was reported to frequently bite dogs [18], and to be a predominant species in the
183 diet of some bat species [19]. Therefore, *Ba. canis* DNA in bat faeces may have originated
184 from haematophagous flies which had sucked blood on parasitaemic dogs (in an opportunity
185 offered by the two regions highly endemic for *Ba. canis*), and were consequently eaten by the
186 relevant bats. Unfortunately, two factors precluded to test this hypothesis in the present study,
187 i.e. (1) the whole faecal sample of relevant bats was used for DNA extraction (thus
188 morphological analysis of fly remnants was not possible), and (2) to the best of our
189 knowledge PCR-based molecular methods specific for *S. calcitrans* are not available.

190 However, the presence of *B. canis* DNA in the faeces may also indicate the infection
191 of relevant bats (i.e. parasitaemia), in which case *Babesia* DNA could get from the circulation
192 into the gut contents (similarly to the DNA of other erythrocyte-infecting protozoa, e.g.
193 *Plasmodium* spp. in primates: [7]). In support of this possibility, among the preferred rodent
194 hosts of *D. reticulatus* larvae/nymphs [20] many *Apodemus* spp. are arboreal, i.e. known for
195 their climbing habit on trees [21]. *Dermacentor* larvae and nymphs were reported to be

196 present in such arboreal nests [22], and in this way may be shared between rodents and bats
197 [23]. All four bat species with *Ba. canis* PCR positive faeces (Table 1) are known for their
198 preference of tree holes as summer roosting places [1, 24], where they could thus have
199 become infested with *Dermacentor* larvae/nymphs (as reported for *Pipistrellus pipistrellus*
200 sampled in July: [25]). Therefore, it cannot be completely excluded that those bats, which
201 were PCR positive in their faeces, may have actually become infected with *Ba. canis* – a
202 protozoan hitherto reported from two mammalian orders (besides Carnivora also from
203 Perissodactyla: [26]), both taxonomically closely related to Chiroptera [27].

204

205 ***Besnoitia besnoiti*-like DNA in bat faeces**

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207 From one pooled faecal sample of a pond bat (*Myotis dasycneme*) colony roost in the
208 Netherlands another sequence was identified, having the highest (99%) homology with
209 *Besnoitia besnoiti* (Table 1). The sequence (accession number KP835555) had six nucleotide
210 difference from, but clustered together with *Be. besnoiti* and *Be. tarandi* (Figure 2). It showed
211 less (98%) homology with (i.e. nine nucleotide difference) and clustered separately (Figure 2)
212 from a cystogenic coccidium, *Nephroisospora eptesici* recently identified from New World
213 bats [28]. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first finding of a *Besnoitia*-like sequence
214 from a non-ungulate mammal in Europe, and from any bat species in a world-wide context.

215 The source of the *Be. besnoiti*-like sequence in the present study, the pond bat (*Myotis*
216 *dasycneme*) is known to be a long distant migratory species (up to 300 km seasonal migration:
217 [29]), and the closest endemic focus of bovine besnoitiosis in northern France is situated
218 within 300 km of the relevant sampling site [30]. In general, bats frequently use cattle stables
219 for roosting [31], where they may have access to the mechanical vectors of *Be. besnoiti*, i.e.
220 blood-sucking flies (*S. calcitrans*, *Tabanus* spp.) and mosquitoes [30]. In particular, *Tabanus*

221 spp. and mosquitoes develop in wet soil near water and in water, respectively, corresponding
222 to the main habitat of the pond bat. Blood-sucking flies (especially *S. calcitrans*) were also
223 reported to constitute a significant portion of bat prey insects [19]. Therefore, the *Be. besnoiti*-
224 like sequence in the present study may have originated from cattle via blood-sucking
225 dipterans, or represents a novel *Besnoitia* genotype/species closely related to *Be. besnoiti*.

226 On the other hand, *Besnoitia* cystozoites (carried by flies) are able to penetrate
227 mucosal surfaces [32]. Accordingly, the quest for the final host of *Be. besnoiti* should be
228 extended to include chiropterans, particularly because experimental infection with another
229 *Besnoitia* sp. was shown to establish in bats [33].

230

231 **Conclusions**

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233 These findings suggest that some aspects of the epidemiology of canine babesiosis are
234 underestimated or unknown, i.e. the potential role of insect-borne mechanical transmission
235 and/or the susceptibility of bats to *Ba. canis*. In addition, bats need to be added to future
236 studies in the quest for the final host of *Be. besnoiti*.

237 In the present study no mixed infections were detected. This can be explained by the
238 relatively low prevalence of those apicomplexans, the DNA of which could be amplified with
239 the applied method [8] from bat faeces.

240 *Toxoplasma gondii* was reported to infect at least some of the bat species evaluated in
241 the present study [34]. This apicomplexan is able to invade most nucleated cells (including
242 cells crossing the gut barrier), and it was shown to be present in bat liver as well [35],
243 therefore its DNA is likely to be shed in bat faeces. However, *T. gondii* was not detected in
244 the present study. This can be explained by the inability of the applied method [8] to amplify
245 toxoplasma DNA, because the forward primer BJ1 cannot anneal to the 18S rDNA gene of *T.*
246 *gondii* with its 3' end, unlike in the case of piroplasms, *Besnoitia* and *Sarcocystis* spp. [9].

247

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255

256 **Authors' contributions**

257 SH initiated and supervised the Hungarian part of the study, designed molecular analyses,
258 wrote the manuscript. PE and DK collected the Hungarian individual bat faecal samples. BF
259 participated in sample collection and extracted the DNA. NT performed the molecular and JK
260 the phylogenetic analyses. KSZ participated in the sample collection. MG supervised
261 additional sample analyses. AK and AJH were in charge of Dutch sample collection. AF and
262 RF were consultants on besnoitiosis and babesiosis, respectively. HS supervised the Dutch
263 part of the study.

264

265 **Competing interests**

266 No competing interests exist.

267

268 **References**

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407 **Legends to figure:**

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409 **Figure 1. Map of Hungary (A) and Neherlands (B) showing the sampling sites.**

410 Only places at least 10 km apart are shown. The red dots on the map of Hungary (A) indicate
411 places, where *Babesia canis* PCR positive bat pellets were collected. The shaded red circles
412 mark the highly endemic regions of *Babesia canis* according to [14]. The red dot on the map
413 of Netherlands (B) indicates the location, where the *Besnoitia besnoiti*-like sequence
414 originated.

415

416 **Figure 2. Phylogenetic comparison of 18S rDNA sequences of arthropod-borne
417 apicomplexan protozoa identified in the present study (inverse colour), with related**

418 **sequences from the GenBank.** Branch lengths correlate to the number of substitutions

419 inferred according to the scale shown.

420