

Title	Screening of tick-borne pathogens in argasid ticks in Zambia : Expansion of the geographic distribution of Rickettsia lusitaniae and Rickettsia hoogstraalii and detection of putative novel Anaplasma species
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1	Screening of tick-borne pathogens in argasid ticks in Zambia: expansion of the geographic
2	distribution of <i>Rickettsia lusitaniae</i> and <i>Rickettsia hoogstraalii</i> and detection of putative novel
3	Anaplasma species
4	
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- 31
- 32 Abbreviations: ancestral group (AG), transitional group (TRG), typhus group (TG), spotted fever group
- 33 (SFG), citrate synthase (gltA), outer membrane protein A (ompA), outer membrane protein B (ompB), 17-
- 34 kDa common antigen (htrA), surface cell antigen-4 (sca4), and 16S ribosomal RNA (16S rRNA), heat-
- 35 shock protein (groEL).

36 Abstract

37	Ticks (Ixodidae and Argasidae) are important arthropod vectors of various pathogens that
38	cause human and animal infectious diseases. Many previously published studies on tick-borne
39	pathogens focused on those transmitted by ixodid ticks. Although there are increasing reports of viral
40	pathogens associated with argasid ticks, information on bacterial pathogens they transmit is scarce.
41	The aim of this molecular study was to detect and characterize Rickettsia and Anaplasmataceae in
42	three different argasid tick species, Ornithodoros faini, Ornithodoros moubata, and Argas walkerae
43	collected in Zambia. <i>Rickettsia hoogstraalii</i> and <i>Rickettsia lusitaniae</i> were detected in 77 % (77/100)
44	of Ar. walkerae and 10 % (5/50) of O. faini, respectively. All O. moubata pool samples ($n = 124$) were
45	negative for rickettsial infections. Anaplasmataceae were detected in 63 % (63/100) of Ar. walkerae
46	and in 82.2 % (102/124) of O. moubata pools, but not in O. faini. Phylogenetic analysis based on the
47	concatenated sequences of 16S rRNA and groEL genes revealed that Anaplasma spp. detected in the
48	present study were distinct from previously validated Anaplasma species, indicating that the current
49	knowledge on the diversity and vector range of Anaplasma spp. is incomplete. Our findings highlight
50	new geographical records of R. lusitaniae and R. hoogstraalii and confirm that the wide geographic
51	distribution of these species includes the African continent. The data presented here increase our
52	knowledge on argasid tick-borne bacteria and contribute toward understanding their epidemiology.
53	Keywords: Argasid tick; Anaplasma; Rickettsia lusitaniae; Rickettsia hoogstraalii; Zambia

54 Introduction

55	Ticks are recognized as the second most important disease vectors after mosquitoes.
56	Worldwide, more than 950 species of ticks are recorded, belonging three families: Ixodidae, Argasidae,
57	and Nuttalliellidae (Guglielmone et al., 2014; Dantas-Torres 2018). Ticks harbor and transmit a wide
58	variety of viruses, bacteria, and protozoa, some of which cause diseases in humans and animals. Recent
59	studies have expanded our knowledge on the diversity of tick-associated microorganisms and a
60	number of novel microorganisms have been reported (Yu et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2018; Matsuno et al.,
61	2018; Torii et al., 2019).
62	Argasid ticks differ morphologically from <mark>ixodid</mark> ticks in that they have an oval body shape
63	and the head and mouthparts are hidden underneath the body. They are associated with all classes of
64	terrestrial volant and non-volant vertebrates (Hoogstraal, 1985). Their phylogeny and taxonomic
65	classification remain unresolved. Different systematic approaches have resulted in several species
66	being assigned to different genera (Guglielmone et al., 2010) and new species continue to be
67	discovered (Muñoz-Leal et al., 2020).
68	Rickettsiae (family Rickettsiaceae, order Rickettsiales) are obligate intracellular Gram-
69	negative bacteria that are divided into four major groups phylogenetically: ancestral group (AG),
70	transitional group (TRG), typhus group (TG), and spotted fever group (SFG). AG and SFG rickettsiae
71	are predominantly maintained and transmitted by ticks, while TRG and TG rickettsiae are mostly

72 transmitted by other arthropods such as mites, lice, and fleas. Some of the TRG and SFG rickettsiae 73 have been reported from argasid ticks (Gillespie et al., 2007). For example, Rickettsia hoogstraalii, 74 *Rickettsia* lusitaniae, and "Candidatus Rickettsia wissemanii" were reported in Ornithodoros capensis, 75 Ornithodoros erraticus, and Ornithodoros hasei, respectively (Duh et al., 2010; Milhano et al., 2014; 76 Tahir et al., 2016). However, the pathogenicity, host range, and distribution of Rickettsia spp. 77 associated with argasid ticks are not fully understood. 78 The genera Anaplasma, Aegyptianella, and Ehrlichia belong to the family 79 Anaplasmataceae, which are obligate intracellular bacteria. These bacteria include pathogenic 80 species and are transmitted to humans and animals by ticks worldwide. Many of the epidemiological 81 studies on Anaplasmataceae were carried out on vertebrate hosts and ixodid ticks in many regions 82 including Africa. For example, Anaplasma marginale was detected from cattle and buffalo in 83 Southern Africa, Tunisia, Senegal, Madagascar, Morocco, and Kenya (Ait Hamou et al., 2012; Adjou 84 Moumouni et al., 2015; Belkahia et al., 2015; Eygelaar et al., 2015; Pothmann et al., 2016; Sisson et 85 al., 2017; Dahmani, et al., 2019); Anaplasma platys and Ehrlichia canis were detected from dogs in 86 Zambia (Qiu et al., 2018; Vlahakis et al., 2018); and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia* spp. 87 were detected from ixodid ticks in Ghana and South Africa (Mtshali et al., 2017; Adenyo et al., 2020). 88 However, few studies have explored the presence of Anaplasmataceae associated with argasid ticks 89 in African continent. Aegyptianella pullorum, a small bacterium that infects and replicates only in

90	avian red blood cells and transmitted by argasid tick, was reported in Nigeria (Leeflang and
91	Ilemobade 1977). Another Aegyptianella sp. was described from wild helmeted guineafowls in South
92	Africa (Earlé et al., 1991). Recently, Anaplasma spp. were detected from Argas persicus in Algeria
93	(Lafri et al., 2017). The present study was designed to detect and characterize Rickettsia and
94	Anaplasmataceae in three species of argasid ticks collected in Zambia.
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96	Materials and Methods
97	Sample collection and DNA extraction
98	Ornithodoros faini ticks were recovered from bat guano in Leopards Hill cave (15.44 S,
99	28.51 E), Lusaka, Zambia in April 2016. DNA was extracted from 50 individual ticks using DNAzol
100	(Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and used for screening
101	of Borrelia spp. in a previous study (Qiu et al., 2019). Argas walkerae ticks were obtained from a
102	chicken coop in Isoka (10.14 S, 32.64 E), Zambia in November 2017. DNA was extracted from 100
103	individual ticks using DNAzol (Invitrogen). A total of 639 Ornithodoros moubata ticks were collected
104	from African warthog burrows in Mosi-oa-Tunya National Park (17.85 S, 25.79 E), Livingstone,
105	Zambia in April 2019. DNA was extracted from a total of 124 pools (each pool consisting of three to
106	five ticks) using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), and used for screening
107	of African swine fever virus (ASFV) in a previous study (Chambaro et al., 2020). This sampling

activity was authorized by the Department of National Parks and Wildlife, Ministry of Tourism and

- 109 Arts of the Republic of Zambia.
- 110 Conventional polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

111 The DNA samples were initially subjected to screening for Rickettsia spp. using a citrate 112 synthase gene (gltA) PCR method. PCR was conducted using the primers gltA8211Fc and gltA8211Rc 113 and Ex-Taq HS (Takara, Shiga, Japan) with the following conditions: 1 min denaturation step at 98 °C 114 followed by 40 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 1 min, and a final extension step 115 at 72 °C for 5 min (Gaowa et al., 2013). For a negative control, UltraPureTM distilled water (Invitrogen) 116 was added instead of template DNA. The resulting PCR products were electrophoresed on a 1.2 % 117 agarose gel stained with Gel-Red (Biotium, Hayward, CA, USA), and visualized with a UV trans-118 illuminator. Further characterization of *Rickettsia* spp. was conducted based on five additional genes: 119 outer membrane protein A (*ompA*), outer membrane protein B (*ompB*), 17-kDa common antigen (*htrA*), 120 surface cell antigen-4 (sca4), and 16S ribosomal RNA (16S rRNA) (Regnery et al., 1991; Roux and 121 Raoult 2000; Sekeyova et al., 2001; Labruna et al., 2004; Anstead and Chilton 2013). Table 1 shows 122 the primer sets used for each assay. PCR conditions were as described above except for the annealing 123 temperature (48 °C for ompA and ompB PCRs, 52 °C for 16S rRNA and htrA PCRs, and 50 °C for 124 sca4 PCR).

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To screen for Anaplasmataceae, a 345 bp fragment of the 16S rRNA gene of the family

126	Anaplasmataceae was PCR-amplified using the primers EHR16SD and EHR16SR (Parola et al.,
127	2000). Ten positive samples were randomly selected and used for further characterization with
128	additional PCRs: a PCR targeting the heat-shock protein (groEL) gene, a nested-PCR amplifying
129	almost the full length (approximately 1,300 bp) of the 16S rRNA gene, and a semi-nested PCR
130	targeting the <i>gltA</i> gene of <i>Anaplasma</i> spp. (Sumner et al., 1997; Liz et al., 2000; Kawahara et al., 2006;
131	Loftis et al., 2006; Gofton et al., 2016). All PCR primer sets are shown in Table 1. Tick DNA samples,
132	which were positive for <i>Rickettsia</i> and <i>Anaplama</i> in the previous studies (Thu et al., 2019; Adenyo et
133	al., 2020), were included as a positive control for each PCR assay.

134 Sequence and phylogenetic analysis

135 Sanger sequencing was performed using BigDye Terminator version 3.1 chemistry (Applied 136 Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Sequencing products were run on an ABI Prism 3130xl genetic 137 analyzer according to the manufacturer's instructions. The sequence data were assembled using ATGC 138 software version 6.0.4 (GENETYX, Tokyo, Japan). The DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank accession numbers 139 for the sequences obtained are as follows: Rickettsia gltA (LC558315 to LC558316), ompA (LC558316 140 to LC558317), ompB (LC558318), htrA (LC558319 to LC558320), and 16S rRNA gene (LC558311 141 to LC558312); Anaplasma 16S rRNA gene (LC558313 to LC558314), and groEL (LC558321 to 142 LC558323). Phylogenetic trees were constructed by using MEGA 6.6 software (Tamura et al., 2013) 143 with maximum-likelihood and/or neighbor-joining methods.

Detection and characterization of Rickettsia spp.

147 Five out of 50 O. faini samples produced positive rickettsial gltA PCR results (Table 2). 148 Subsequent analysis revealed that the sequences of all five amplicons were identical. The rickettsial 149 gltA sequence amplified from the O. faini samples showed 100 % (537/537 bp) identity with that of a 150 *Rickettsia lusitaniae* isolate Turkmenia/1948 (MK761227). Positive *gltA* PCR results with identical 151 sequences were obtained for 77 out of 100 Ar. walkerae samples. The gltA sequence amplified from 152 the Ar. walkerae samples showed 99.8 % (536/537 bp) identity with that of a R. hoogstraalii isolate, 153 TR-Rg685 (MK929389). None of the O. moubata pools was PCR-positive for the gltA gene. 154 Randomly selected positive samples (2 from O. faini and 10 from Ar. walkerae) were used for further 155 characterization by additional PCR and sequence analyses. The PCRs targeting the htrA and 16S rRNA 156 genes gave amplicons in all selected samples and the sequence of these genes were identical within 157 each tick species. The ompA and ompB PCRs yielded amplicons only from the O. faini samples and 158 only one sequence type was obtained for each gene. None of the selected samples produced positive 159 sca4 PCR amplicons. The sequence similarities with the closest Rickettsia species are listed in Table 160 3. Phylogenetic trees based on the sequences of the gltA, ompA, ompB, htrA, and 16S rRNA gene 161 fragments are shown in Figure 1.

According to the guideline for the identification of <i>Rickettsia</i> species (Fournier et al., 2003;
Fournier and Raoult, 2009), Rickettsia spp. detected from O. faini and Ar. walkerae were identified as
R. lusitaniae and R. hoogstraalii, respectively. Phylogenetic analysis also supported this classification
(Figure 1). In the phylogenetic trees based on gltA, htrA, and 16S rRNA gene fragments rickettsial
sequences from Ar. walkerae clustered together with those from R. hoogstraalii. The rickettsial
sequences from O. faini formed a cluster with those from R. lusitaniae in the phylogenetic trees based
on gltA, htrA, and ompA genes. The ompB sequence of the same region and the sequence of the 16S

- 169 rRNA gene of *R. lucitania* were not available in public database. Thus, the sequences of *ompB* and
 170 16S rRNA genes from *O. faini* were not clustered with any other validated rickettsial species in the
- 171 phylogenetic trees based on these genes.

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172 Detection and characterization of Anaplasma spp.

The screening of *Anaplasmataceae* was carried out using the PCR targeting 345 bp of 16S rRNA gene. The positive results of that PCR were obtained from 63 out of 100 *Ar. walkerae* samples (Table 2). In addition, 50 out of 100 *Ar. walkerae* ticks were infected with both *Rickettsia* sp. and *Anaplasma* sp. Subsequent sequence analyses revealed that the sequences of all 63 *Ar. walkerae* amplicons were identical. The partial sequence of 16S rRNA gene from *Ar. walkerae* amplicons showed 99.0 % (302/305 bp) identity with that of an *An. phagocytophilum* strain Hubei E4 (KF569909) detected in a goat in China. Ten randomly selected positive samples were used for further

180	characterization by amplifying the groEL, 16S rRNA, and gltA genes of Anaplasmataceae. Partial
181	sequences of the <i>groEL</i> gene from these 10 samples were identical and showed 77.8 % (941/1,209 bp)
182	identity with Anaplasma centrale (AF414866) in Rhipicephalus simus tick reported from South Africa.
183	The almost full-length 16S rRNA gene sequences obtained from 10 nested PCR amplicons were
184	identical and showed 96.7 % (1,283/1,326 bp) identity with An. marginale from cattle in Uganda
185	(KU686792). None of these 10 Ar. walkerae samples produced amplicons in the gltA semi-nested PCR.
186	The positive results of the PCR targeting 345 bp of Anaplasmataceae 16S rRNA gene were
187	obtained from 102 out of 124 O. moubata DNA pools. Subsequent sequence analyses revealed that
188	the sequences from these 102 O. moubata pools were identical. The sequence of the amplicons showed
189	99.3 % (303/305 bp) identity with that of <i>Anaplasma</i> sp. (MN317255) detected from cattle in Senegal.
190	Ten randomly selected pool samples were used for further characterization as described above. The
191	partial sequences of the groEL gene from the 10 samples revealed two variants with 10 nucleotide
192	differences within 1,281 bp. The sequences of both variants showed 79.8 % (1,024/1,283 bp) identity
193	with that of <i>Anaplasma ovis</i> strain Haibei (CP015994) from a sheep in Haibei, China. The almost full
194	length 16S rRNA gene sequences from the 10 pools were identical and showed 96.1 % (1,279/1,330
195	bp) identity with An. phagocytophilum (MK814406) from a dog in South Africa. None of these 10 O.
196	moubata pool samples produced amplicons in the gltA semi-nested PCR. All the O. faini samples
197	showed negative results in the Anaplasmataceae PCR.

198	Phylogenetic trees were constructed based on the concatenated sequences of 16S rRNA and
199	groEL genes (Figure 2). The maximum likelihood and neighbor-joining methods produced
200	phylogenetic trees with consistent topologies. The Anaplasma spp. sequences detected in O. moubata
201	clustered together, and formed a sister clade with that of "Candidatus Anaplasma sphenisci", which
202	was detected from an African penguin in South Africa (Vanstreels et al., 2018), while the Anaplasma
203	sp. sequences from Ar. walkerae formed a monophyletic clade distinct from other validated Anaplasma
204	species (Figure 2).
205	
206	Discussion
207	We investigated Rickettsia spp. and Anaplasmataceae in three different argasid ticks, O.
208	faini, O. moubata, and Ar. walkerae, collected in Zambia. We identified two rickettsial species, namely
209	R. lusitaniae and R. hoogstraalii, and two putative novel Anaplasma species that have very low
210	sequence identities with known Anaplasma spp. This study was the first investigation of Rickettsia
211	spp. and Anaplasmataceae in argasid ticks in Zambia.
212	Most of the previous epidemiological studies on tick-borne Rickettsia and Anaplasmataceae
213	examined ixodid ticks. Only a few attempts have been made to investigate these pathogens in argasid
214	ticks. For examples, a Rickettsia felis-like organism was found in O. capensis in the United States
215	(Reeves et al., 2006). Previously uncharacterized Rickettsia spp. were detected from O. erraticus,

217 agent of Japanese spotted fever, was isolated from the bat-associated tick, Argas dewae, in Australia 218 (Izzard et al., 2018). More recently, "Candidatus R. wissemanii" was detected in Ornithodoros hasei 219 from Argentina (Colombo et al., 2020) and two novel *Rickettsia* spp. were found in argasid ticks in 220 northern Africa (Buysse and Duron, 2020). These findings indicate that the diversity of 221 microorganisms in argasid ticks has not yet been fully explored. 222 This is the first report of R. lusitaniae in Africa. This species was first found in Ornithodoros 223 erraticus collected from a pigpen in Portugal (Milhano et al., 2014) and subsequently reported from 224 Ornithodoros yumatensis collected in a cave in Mexico (Sánchez-Montes et al., 2016). A recent study 225 on bat-associated ticks, including Ar. vespertilionis, confirmed a new geographical distribution of R. 226 lusitaniae in China (Hornok et al., 2019). Thus, R. lusitaniae have been detected in four different 227 continents, namely Europe, America, Asia, and Africa. O. erraticus is a common argasid tick of pigs 228 in Europe, while O. yumatensis, O. faini, and Argas vespertilionis are well known as bat-associated 229 ticks in America, Africa, and Eurasia, respectively. Although the role of vertebrate hosts (pigs and 230 bats) in the maintenance cycle of R. lusitaniae is unknown, their wide habitat range could be linked to 231 the wide geographic distribution of this rickettsial species. It is notable that a case of human borreliosis 232 transmitted by O. faini recently occurred in Zambia (Qiu, et al., 2019). Therefore, further studies are 233 needed to investigate the transmission potential of R. lusitaniae via the bite of O. faini and its

Ornithodoros rupestris, and O. capensis in Algeria (Lafri et al., 2015). Rickettsia japonica, a causative

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234 pathogenicity to humans and animals.

235	This study provides the first direct evidence of R. hoogstraalii in Ar. walkerae, which is
236	known as a poultry tick, in Zambia. Rickettsia hoogstraalii is a member of SFG rickettsiae with
237	unknown pathogenicity and is closely related to R. felis, an emerging pathogen known to be
238	transmitted by arthropods including fleas and possibly mosquitoes (Dieme et al., 2015; Moonga et al.,
239	2019). Although R. hoogstraalii was originally reported from an ixodid tick Haemaphysalis sulcata
240	in Croatia (Duh et al., 2006), its presence in argasid ticks, namely O. capensis in Croatia and Ar.
241	persicus in Ethiopia, has also been demonstrated (Duh et al., 2010; Pader et al., 2012). Moreover, R.
242	hoogstraalii has been reported from a number of geographically diverse countries including Japan, the
243	western Indian Ocean islands, the United States, Cyprus, Spain, Turkey, and Italy (Kawabata et al.,
244	2006; Mattila et al., 2007; Márquez, 2008; Chochlakis et al., 2012; Dietrich et al., 2014; Orkun et al.,
245	2014; Chisu et al., 2017). Since H. sulcata, O. capensis, and Ar. persicus are seabird-associated ticks,
246	migratory birds may have contributed to the wide distribution of <i>R. hoogstraalii</i> . Although there is no
247	record of seabirds in Zambia, which is a land locked country in Southern African region, some
248	Eurasian birds such as white storks, annually migrate to Southern Africa for overwintering (Olsen et
249	al., 2006). Tick-borne pathogens such as SFG rickettsiae and Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato are
250	dispersed among European countries by migratory birds and their carrying pathogen-infected ticks
251	(Comstedt et al., 2006; Elfving et al., 2010). Furthermore, it has been proposed that birds could serve

253	is a possibility that migratory birds or their attached ticks have introduced R. hoogstraalii to the
254	Zambian fowl or Ar. walkerae. To evaluate this hypothesis, further investigations of R. hoogstraalii in
255	migratory and domestic birds as well as their ectoparasites including ticks are required.
256	The infection rate of <i>R. hoogstraalii</i> in <i>Ar. walkerae</i> was 77 % in the present study. A high
257	infection rate of this rickettsial species was also reported in a previous study that tested O. capensis
258	collected in the western Indian Ocean islands for rickettsial infections (Dietrich et al., 2014). Some
259	Rickettsia spp. can be transmitted through transovarial and transstadial routes in ticks (Moore et al.,
260	2018) and this is the most probable explanation of the high prevalence of <i>R. hoogstraalii</i> . In general,
261	symbiotic rickettsia tend to have a high prevalence among host arthropod populations, and provide a
262	positive effect on the host fitness (Chiel et al., 2009). The benefit of symbiotic rickettsia has been
263	reported from several ixodid ticks, namely Amblyomma americanum, Dermacentor variabilis, and
264	Ixodes scapularis, where an increased larval motility was observed under laboratory conditions
265	(Kagemann and Clay, 2013). Moreover, the genome of <i>Rickettsia monacensis</i> , a symbiont of <i>Ixodes</i>
266	pacificus (Hunter et al., 2015), contains the complete folate biosynthesis pathway and the
267	dihydrofolate reductase activity of the rickettsial gene was confirmed in vitro (Bodnar et al., 2018),
268	suggesting its beneficial role for host ticks. Further studies regarding the effect of <i>R. hoogstraalii</i> on
269	the fitness of <i>Ar. walkerae</i> may also help to elucidate the role of rickettsial symbionts in argasid ticks.

as potential reservoirs of tick-borne pathogens including Rickettsia (Hornok et al., 2014). Thus, there

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270	Although members of the genus Anaplasma are very common in ixodid ticks, very few
271	research efforts have been made to test for their presence in argasid ticks. For example, Anaplasma
272	spp. have been reported in an argasid tick, Ar. persicus, in Algeria (Lafri et al., 2017). Vanstreels et al.
273	(2018) detected "Candidatus An. sphenisci" in the African penguin and suspected O. capensis as a
274	potential vector for this bacterium, since this argasid tick is a common blood sucking ectoparasite of
275	the African penguin. In this study, we detected two putative novel Anaplasma species from Ar.
276	walkerae and O. moubata. Phylogenetic analyses of the concatenated sequences of 16S rRNA and
277	groEL genes suggested that Anaplasma spp. from O. moubata were closely related to "Candidatus An.
278	sphenisci", while Anaplasma sp. from Ar. walkerae formed a separate clade. Lack of sequence data
279	from species closely related to the Anaplasma detected in this study suggests that the diversity and
280	vector range of Anaplasma spp. may have been underestimated. Further studies on the Anaplasma spp.
281	in argasid ticks will provide valuable insights into the evolution and epidemiology of this group of
282	bacteria.
283	The detection rate of Anaplasma sp. in Ar. walkerae was as high as 63 %, which is
284	comparable to a previous study where Anaplasma sp. was detected in 62 % of Ar. persicus in Algeria
285	(Lafri et al., 2017). Generally, a tick acquires Anaplasma through blood feeding on an infected host.
286	The transovarial transmission of Anaplasma in ticks has not been demonstrated but transstadial
287	transmission is known to occur (Vimonish et al., 2020). Argasid ticks have multiple nymphal stages

and each stage requires blood feeding. This could provide increased opportunity for argasid ticks to
acquire *Anaplasma* from host blood. Further investigations on *Anaplasma* in chickens are required to
understand the causes of the high infection rate of *Anaplasma* in *Ar. walkerae*.

- In our previous studies, the same (pool) samples of *O. faini* and *O. moubata* were tested for
- 292 Borrelia and ASFV infections, respectively (Qiu et al., 2019; Chambaro et al., 2020). Of note, ASFV
- was detected from 47.6% (59/124) of O. moubata pool samples (Chambaro et al., 2020). Considering
- that *Anaplasma* sp. was detected from 82.3% (102/124) of the pools, co-infection of *Anaplasma* sp.
- and ASFV in O. moubata may be occurring. Further investigation examining individual O. moubata
- 296 ticks is needed to evaluate the co-infection rate in ticks.
- 297 In conclusion, we detected *R. lusitaniae* for the first time in Africa and provide the first
- 298 evidence of *R. hoogstraalii* in *Ar. walkerae*. In addition, two putative novel *Anaplasma* species were
- 299 detected from Ar. walkerae and O. moubata. Since this study examined the argasid ticks from a limited
- 300 source, further studies employing ticks from various geographic locations and chicken coops are
- 301 necessary to give a clear picture on the distribution of these pathogens in Zambia and neighboring
- 302 countries. Nonetheless, the findings expand our knowledge on tick-borne bacteria in argasid ticks and
- 303 contribute towards understanding of their epidemiology.
- 304

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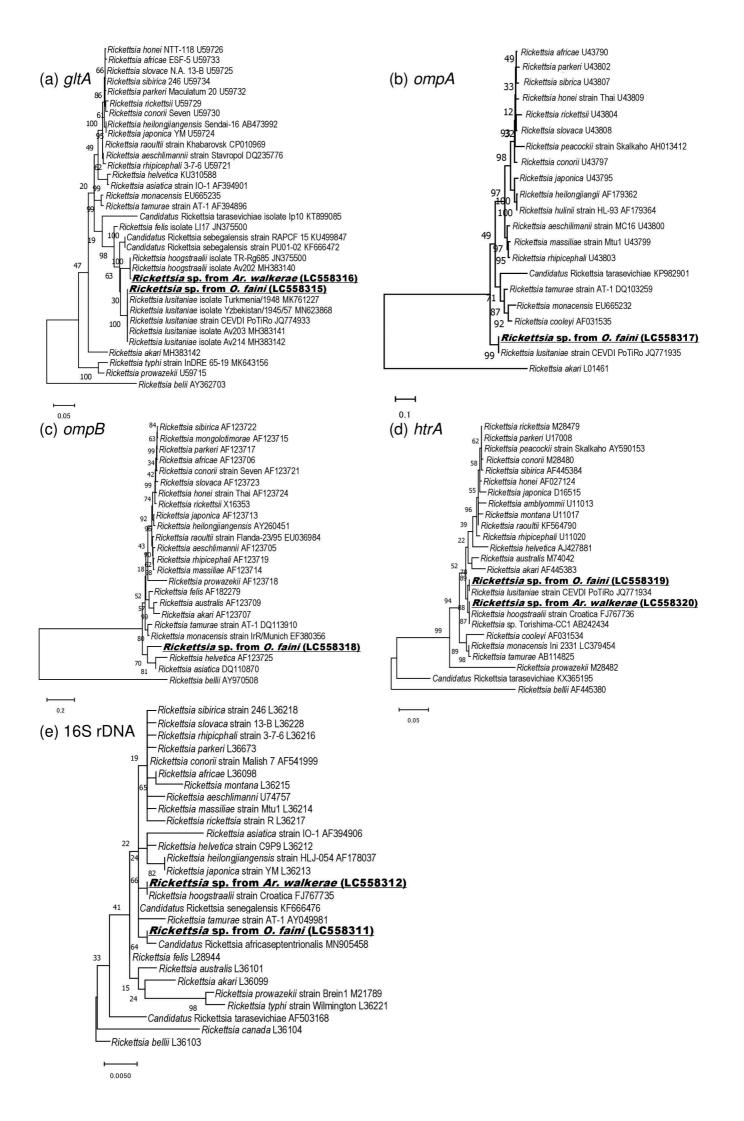
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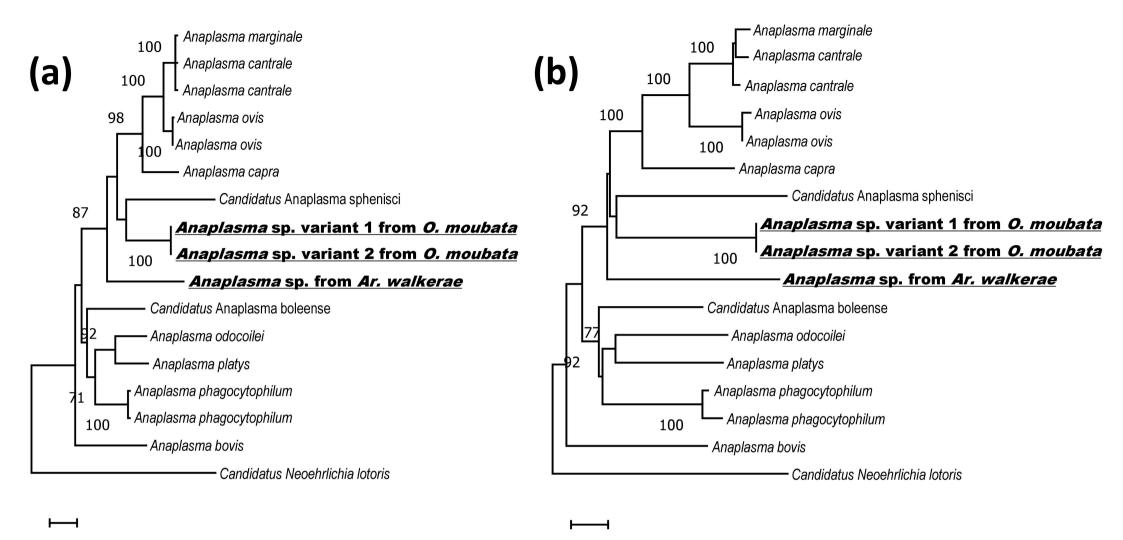
593 **Figure legends**

594	Figure 1. Phylogenetic trees of <i>Rickettsia</i> spp. based on the sequences of 5 different genes. (a) <i>gltA</i>
595	(537 bp), (b) <i>ompA</i> (493 bp), (c) <i>ompB</i> (780 bp), (d) <i>htrA</i> (465 bp), and (e) 16s rRNA (1,245 bp). The
596	trees were constructed using the maximum-likelihood method with the Kimura 2-parameter model.
597	All bootstrap support values from 1,000 replicates are shown at the interior branch nodes. The
598	sequences obtained in this study are shown in bold and underlined.
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- 600 Figure 2. Phylogenetic trees of Anaplasma spp. based on the concatenated sequences of 16S 601 rRNA and groEL genes. The phylogenetic trees were constructed using maximum-likelihood (a) and 602 neighbor-joining (b) methods. Bootstrap support values from 1,000 replicates are shown at the interior
- 603 branch nodes. The sequences obtained in this study are shown in bold and underlined.





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