

## Prevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in small rodents in France

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1 Prevalence of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in small rodents in France.

2

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18

19 Abstract

20 *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* is an emerging zoonotic tick-borne pathogen affecting a wide range of  
21 mammals. Rodents are suspected to be natural reservoirs for this bacterium, but their role in the  
22 epidemiologic cycles affecting domestic animals and wild ungulates has not been demonstrated. This  
23 study aimed to improve our knowledge on *A. phagocytophilum* prevalence in *Apodemus sylvaticus*,  
24 *A. flavicollis* and *Myodes glareolus* using data collected in 2010 in one area in eastern France and in  
25 2012-2013 in two others areas in western France. Rodents were captured in each site and infection  
26 was tested using qualitative real-time PCR assays on either blood or spleen samples. Prevalence  
27 showed high variability among sites. The highest prevalence was observed in the most eastern site  
28 (with an average infection rate of 22.8% across all species), whereas no rodent was found to be PCR  
29 positive in the south-west site and only 6.6% were positive in the north-west of France. Finally, a  
30 significant increase in prevalence was observed in autumn samples compared to spring samples in  
31 the north-west, but no change was found in the other two sites.

32

33 Keywords

34 Tick-borne disease; *Anaplasma*; rodent; prevalence; France

1

2

3 Introduction

4 *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* is an emerging tick-borne disease affecting a wide range of  
5 mammals including humans (Stuen, 2007). In Europe, *A. phagocytophilum* is one of the most  
6 important tick-borne bacteria for domestic animals in terms of economic losses (Stuen, 2007),  
7 however the factors driving the epidemiologic cycles of this pathogen are largely unknown.

8 Prevalence surveys are the initial tools required to determine which mammalian species are  
9 involved in the spread of the infectious agent. In Europe, roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*) and  
10 rodents are suspected to act as natural reservoirs for *A. phagocytophilum* (Stuen, 2007). Both  
11 groups present high tick burdens and infection prevalence in roe deer can be substantial (up to  
12 90% positive by PCR (Overzier et al., 2013)). The role of small rodents is not fully  
13 understood. Prevalence in rodent populations is sparsely documented in Europe and very  
14 variable among species and localities (<1% to 19%) (Stuen et al., 2013). In Germany and the  
15 Czech Republic, the prevalence of infection in *Myodes glareolus* was similar (around 13%),  
16 whereas, it differed strongly in *Apodemus flavicollis*, 0.5% and 15 %, respectively, in the two  
17 countries (Hulinska et al., 2004; Hartelt et al., 2008). In France, the prevalence of *A.*  
18 *phagocytophilum* in rodents is poorly documented as only one study has been conducted to  
19 date, revealing 2/18 positive *A. sylvaticus* from a single location in the north-west of France  
20 (Marumoto et al., 2007).

21 Our objective in this study was to improve our knowledge on *A. phagocytophilum* prevalence  
22 in *Apodemus sylvaticus*, *A. flavicollis* and *M. glareolus* using data collected from three  
23 distinct sites in France where the presence of the bacterium has been previously recorded in  
24 ticks or in roe deer.

25

26 Materials and methods

27 Rodents were trapped in three locations across France: one site in north-western France in the  
28 “Zone Atelier Armorique” (ZA hereafter, N 48°29’22.40”, W 1°33’41.48”), one site in south-  
29 western France in the region of “Vallons et Coteaux de Gascogne” (VG hereafter, N  
30 43°16’2.64”, E 0°51’51.00”), and two sites in eastern France in the Haute-Saône (HS  
31 hereafter, N 47°40’24.66”, E 6°42’6.00”).

32 In ZA and VG, rodents were trapped in the spring and autumn of 2012 and 2013 (4 trap  
33 sessions per site). Twenty-four 100-meter traplines of 32 traps each (INRA live traps, fitted  
34 with dormitory boxes) were used. Traps were spaced 3 m apart along the line, with bait, and  
35 were checked in the morning 24 and 48 h after setup. Captured rodents were morphologically  
36 identified before being euthanized and autopsied. The spleens were removed and stored at -20  
37 °C for detection of *A. phagocytophilum*.

1 In HS rodents were captured throughout 2010 during 4 sessions within the framework of a  
2 Capture-Mark-Recapture (CMR) survey in two sites, 65 km apart (Bellevaivre and  
3 Chérumont). For each session and site, 49 UGGLAN Special No2 live-traps (Grahnb,  
4 Gnosjö, Sweden) were set-up in a 7 x 7 grid of 1 ha (100 m x 100 m) with approximately 15  
5 m between traps. Traps were baited and checked over 4 days (3 nights). Individuals were  
6 marked by toe clipping. Blood sampling was performed on trapped animals using the retro-  
7 orbital method. Blood pellets were separated from serum by centrifugation, and stored at -20  
8 °C. Rodents were morphologically identified and identifications for *A. sylvaticus* and *A.*  
9 *flavicollis* were verified by PCR (Michaux et al., 2001).

10 DNA in spleen samples were extracted using the kit NucleoSpin Tissue (Macherey Nagel). In  
11 the absence of a pre-existing protocol to extract DNA from mammalian blood pellets, we used  
12 the "NucleoSpin blood QuickPure" kit and adapted manufacturer instructions by doubling the  
13 quantity of proteinase K and BQ1 during the cell lysis step.

14 DNA of *A. phagocytophilum* was detected by real-time PCR targeting the *msp2* gene  
15 according to the protocol of Courtney et al. (2004).

16

17 As individuals from the HS site could be recaptured, we evaluated the independence of the  
18 infectious status of recaptured individuals between two successive months using the Pearson  
19 correlation test with a confidence interval based on the Fisher z-transformation.

20 To increase the number of samples per class and test for seasonal differences in prevalence  
21 within rodent populations, we also combined some data. For ZA and VG, data from the two  
22 years were combined by month (May 2012 with May 2013 and October 2012 with October  
23 2013). For HS, data from the trap sessions in June-July and in September-October were  
24 grouped together to determine mean prevalence in summer and autumn, respectively.

25 The prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* at each site was analyzed by generalized linear models  
26 (GLM) with rodent species and season as explanatory variables. For significant explanatory  
27 variables, an odds-ratio was calculated using the exponential of the GLM coefficients and the  
28 confidence intervals. A binomial distribution was used to analyze the prevalence in ZA and a  
29 quasi-binomial distribution was used for HS to take into account the dispersion of the data.

30 All statistic analyses were performed using the R statistical software (version 2.15.1).

31

## 32 Results

33 In total, 1163 rodents were analyzed including 441 *M. glareolus*, 668 *A. sylvaticus* and 54 *A.*  
34 *flavicollis* (Table 1). In HS, 75 individuals were recaptured and tested at least twice for a  
35 positive infection. Among these, 13 individuals negative for *A. phagocytophilum* at first  
36 capture became positive the next month, 10 positive individuals recovered from infection, and  
37 only 3 remained positive between two successive months. Overall, the infectious status of

1 individuals between months was therefore statistically independent ( $p = 0.59$ ). Thus, we  
2 considered all captures to be independent for the analyses.

3 No rodents were found infected by *A. phagocytophilum* in VG. In HS, prevalence was high  
4 (22.8%) and stable: no significant difference in prevalence was detected among rodent species  
5 ( $p = 0.93$ ) or among sampling seasons ( $p = 0.84$ ). In ZA, the prevalence in *M. glareolus* was  
6 significantly higher than in *A. sylvaticus* ( $p < 0.001$ , OR = 4.11, CI 95% = [2.09-8.09]) and  
7 the prevalence in autumn was significantly higher than in spring ( $p < 0.001$ , OR = 7.35, CI  
8 95% = [2.55-21.21]).

9

## 10 Discussion

11 We studied the prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* in three rodent species in three sites of  
12 France. All species combined, we found a significant difference in prevalence among sites,  
13 with a variable pattern of prevalence among rodent species within sites and among seasons.

14 As in site ZA, higher prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* in *M. glareolus* than in *A. sylvaticus*  
15 has been previously recorded in Switzerland and United Kingdom (Liz et al., 2000; Bown et  
16 al., 2003). Although tick infestation rates are generally described to be higher in *Apodemus*  
17 spp. than in *M. glareolus* (Kurtenbach et al., 1995; Talleklint and Jaenson, 1997; Perez et al,  
18 2016), *M. glareolus* is considered to be a better reservoir for several tick-borne pathogens  
19 (Randolph, 1994; Humair et al., 1999). This interspecific difference could be explained by  
20 differences in the ability of their immune systems to eliminate the bacterium. Indeed, Bown et  
21 al. (2003) found that *M. glareolus* was more often positive for *A. phagocytophilum* over two  
22 consecutive months compared to *A. sylvaticus*. Based on this, these authors suggest that a  
23 shorter infection time for *A. sylvaticus* than for *M. glareolus* may explain lower observed  
24 prevalence in the former species. Interspecific differences in local prevalence could also be  
25 related to the range of *A. phagocytophilum* strains infecting each rodent species. For instance,  
26 *M. glareolus* could be infected by a more prevalent strain at the ZA site or be susceptible to  
27 more strains than *Apodemus* spp. Finally, another alternative hypothesis could be related to  
28 exploitation by different tick species. Two studies have shown that the endophilic tick *I.*  
29 *trianguliceps* is a more important vector of some *A. phagocytophilum* strains specific to small  
30 mammals than *I. ricinus* (Blaňarová et al., 2014; Bown et al., 2008). As *M. glareolus* is  
31 frequently more heavily parasitized by this tick species than *Apodemus* spp. (Gilot et al.,  
32 1976), rodent specific exploitation by different tick vectors could explain among-rodent  
33 variation in prevalence.

34 We found that prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* increased in autumn in the ZA site, but not  
35 in the HS site. A change across seasons could be explained three ways: i) the prevalence of *A.*  
36 *phagocytophilum* in ticks could be higher in autumn, as has been shown in other studies  
37 (Bown et al., 2003); ii) the abundance and activity of questing *I. ricinus* could be higher in  
38 late spring-early summer (Schulz et al, 2014; Perez et al, 2016), such that the quantity of ticks  
39 encountered by rodents and the probability of infection is greater after this period; and/or iii)  
40 the age structure of the rodent population changes such that there are more susceptible

1 individuals in autumn. Recruitment in *M. glareolus* populations begin in June with a peak in  
2 autumn (Crawley, 1970). More juvenile rodents are captured during the autumn, and these  
3 individuals may not yet have developed resistance to ticks and/or bacteria (Dizij and  
4 Kurtenbach, 1995). In HS, rodents were sampled later in the spring than in ZA, such that there  
5 were only two months between the two sampling sessions in HS against four months in ZA;  
6 this temporal difference could explain the variation found between the two sites. A recent  
7 study in Slovakia also found significant seasonal and year-to-year variation in *A.*  
8 *phagocytophilum* prevalence in *I. ricinus* nymphs, but again this variation was not consistent  
9 among sites and was therefore difficult to explain (Svitálková et al., 2015).

10 The difference in prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* among areas in France needs further  
11 investigation. It cannot be attributed to an artifact linked to the type of biological material  
12 tested (blood versus spleen), as earlier studies suggest that bacterial detection may be lower in  
13 blood pellets (used in HS) than in the spleen (Liz et al., 2000) . Thus, we would therefore  
14 expect an underestimation of prevalence in HS compared to the other sites. The site  
15 differences could be linked to differences in circulating *A. phagocytophilum* strains or tick  
16 species. However, we could not test this hypothesis in the present study because bacterial  
17 loads were too low to enable sequencing and we had only limited information on tick  
18 presence on the captured rodents. Nonetheless, we might expect strong differences in the  
19 presence and abundance of different tick species among the sampled sites because they lie in  
20 different climatic biotopes. Indeed, the VG site lies near the distributional limit for *I.*  
21 *trianguliceps*, potentially explaining the absence of *A. phagocytophilum* in rodents of this  
22 zone (Gilot et al, 1976; Pérez-Eid, 2007)

23 The absence of infection in VG rodents was particularly surprising because approximately  
24 75% (56/75) of roe deer and 2% (35/1837) of questing *I. ricinus* nymphs have been found  
25 positive in this area (Chastagner, 2014). Recent studies in other European countries have  
26 shown that rodents and roe deer can carry specific *A. phagocytophilum* lineages, differing  
27 from those described in other mammals (Baráková et al., 2014; Majazki et al., 2013). Thus, it  
28 could be that no rodent-specific strain of *A. phagocytophilum* circulates in VG, supporting the  
29 hypothesis that rodents do not share the same *A. phagocytophilum* genotypes carried by roe  
30 deer. Specific *A. phagocytophilum* genotypes associated with *Ixodes trianguliceps* ticks and  
31 *M. glareolus* in Europe (Blaňarová et al., 2014) and with *Myodes* spp., *I. persulcatus* and *I.*  
32 *trianguliceps* in Russia have also been recently described (Rar et al., 2014). Further research  
33 is required to investigate the overall diversity and circulation of *A. phagocytophilum* in  
34 rodents, especially in *Apodemus* spp. for which few data are currently available.

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6

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10

11

12 Table

13 Table 1. Prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum* detected by real-time PCR (number of positive  
14 samples/number of analyzed samples (prevalence %))

	Zone Atelier Armorique (ZA)			Vallons de Gascogne (VG)			Haute-Saône		
	May	October	Total	May	October	Total	June	July	Septem
<i>M. glareolus</i>	3/65 (4.6)	17/80 (21.2)	20/145 (13.8) <sup>a</sup>	0/23 (0)	0/21 (0)	0/45 (0)	13/44 (29.5)	24/80 (30)	12/75 (15.2)
<i>A. sylvaticus</i>	1/173 (0.6)	18/271 (6.6)	19/444 (4.3) <sup>a</sup>	0/80 (0)	0/138 (0)	0/218 (0)	0/2 (0)	1/1 (100)	-
<i>A. flavicollis</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	1/8 (12.5)	2/34 (5.9)	6/8 (75)
Total	4/238 (1.7) <sup>b</sup>	35/351 (10) <sup>b</sup>	39/589 (6.6)	0/103 (0)	0/159 (0)	0/263 (0)	14/54 (25.9)	27/115 (23.5)	18/87 (20.7)

15 GLM results

16 <sup>a</sup> *A. phagocytophilum* prevalence in *M. glareolus* was significantly higher than in *A. sylvaticus*  
17 (OR = 4.11, CI 95 % = [2.09-8.09]).

18 <sup>b</sup> *A. phagocytophilum* prevalence in autumn was significantly higher than in spring (OR =  
19 7.35, CI 95 % = [2.55-21.21]).

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22