

The natural reservoir of *Neorickettsia* spp*.*

Investigating the presence of *Neorickettsia* in different potential reservoir hosts

Florance van Dam Master thesis Veterinary Medicine May 2023 – August 2023

Canada, Guelph **University of Guelph Ontario Veterinary College** Department of Pathobiology Supervisor: Brandon Lillie, DVM, PhD, Diplomate ACVP Student number: 21188007926858

The Netherlands, Utrecht **Utrecht University Faculty of Veterinary Medicine** Department Clinical Sciences Supervisor: Dr. Cornélie M. Westermann Student number: 5596157

Funded by Boehringer Ingelheim Veterinary Scholars Program

Preface & acknowledgments

This research focuses on the analysis of DNA from various potential natural reservoirs in the life cycle of *Neorickettsia risticii* and *Neorickettsia findlayensis*, the causative agents of Potomac Horse Fever (PHF). The study is performed at the Department of Pathobiology, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Canada. Thanks to the funding from Boehringer Ingelheim, I have been given the opportunity to conduct this research in Guelph instead of pursuing another project at the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, University of Utrecht, the Netherlands. This project contributes towards earning credits for the master's program in "Farm Animal Health" of the University Utrecht through the completion of a Master Thesis.

Research on Potomac Horse Fever at the Ontario Veterinary College has been ongoing for several years. This summer, the focus has been specifically on investigating the natural reservoir of the bacterium. The findings from this research contribute to a better understanding of the complete lifecycle of *Neorickettsia risticii* and *Neorickettsia findlayensis*, which is valuable information for epidemiologists, clinicians, and horse owners.

In this study, I have analyzed liver samples from various vertebrates, while another student has investigated samples from water sources where horses with PHF were found. By combining our results, we aim to enhance understanding of the complete life cycle of *N. risticii.*

I would like to express my gratitude to Boehringer Ingelheim for making this adventure abroad possible. Additionally, I want to extend my thanks to Brandon Lillie and Luis Arroyo Castro for their guidance throughout the research process, reviewing my assignments, and providing valuable feedback. I am also thankful to Jutta Hammermueller for her excellent explanations and assistance in the laboratory. I want to sincerely thank Brian Stevens and Claire Jardine for providing the valuable samples for this research. I wish Olivia Anderson success in completing the rest of the research, and I also want to thank her for her contributions. Furthermore, I would like to acknowledge Cornélie Westermann for facilitating the trip to Guelph and supporting the research from Utrecht.

Florance van Dam Guelph, August 2, 2023

Abstract

Potomac horse fever (PHF), caused by *Neorickettsia risticii* and the more recently discovered *N. findlayensis,* can induce primarily colitis and other clinical signs in horses. The bacteria live in a commensal or mutualistic relationship within various species of trematodes. These trematodes utilize snails as their first intermediate host and aquatic insects as the second intermediate host. Horses act as dead-end-host by ingesting the aquatic insects. The full extent of potential definitive and reservoir hosts remains poorly understood.

In this study, a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed on liver samples obtained from different wildlife species including bats, muskrats, raccoons, opossums, and skunks as well as several invertebrates to investigate the presence of *Neorickettsia* spp.

Neorickettsia spp. DNA was identified in 4/133 (3 %) vertebrates sampled (two bats, one skunk, and one muskrat). Additional research is currently underway to investigate *Neorickettsia* spp. DNA in invertebrates.

The findings of this study suggest that *Neorickettsia* spp. circulate among different wildlife species, indicating a broader natural reservoir for these bacteria than previously recognized. These results contribute to the understanding of the life cycle, epidemiology, and potential transmission options for these bacteria. Further research is warranted to clarify the role of wildlife species in the maintenance and spread of *Neorickettsia* spp.

Table of contents

1. **Introduction**

Potomac horse fever (PHF), also referred to as equine neorickettsiosis and equine monocytic ehrlichiosis, can be a cause of equine colitis in areas where it is endemic. The disease was initially identified near Maryland's Potomac River in 1979, and since then, cases have been reported across North and South America.1,2,3,4,5 The causative agent for PHF is *Neorickettsia risticii* (formerly *Ehrlichia risticii*), but recently another species called *Neorickettsia findlayensis* which also causes PHF was found.6,7 These *Neorickettsia* species are intracellular, gram-negative bacteria of trematodes that parasitize snails and aquatic insects. $8,9$ The snails and aquatic insects behave as intermediate hosts, whereas at least horses are a dead end host. While some studies suggest that animals like bats, birds, and muskrats may act as definitive hosts for *Neorickettsia* spp., the full range of potential definitive and reservoir hosts remains poorly understood.^{10,11,12}

Considering the complexity of PHF transmission and the potential involvement of various mammalian species, this study aims to elucidate the prevalence and distribution of *Neorickettsia* spp. in liver samples obtained from different mammals. By exploring the prevalence of *Neorickettsia* spp. in various wildlife species, including bats, muskrats, raccoons, opossums, and skunks, using nested PCR, this research seeks to contribute to a better understanding of the disease dynamics and its potential reservoir hosts.

Before delving into the specifics of the research methodology and findings, it is essential to provide background information on the epidemiology of PHF, its clinical manifestations, prevalence in horses, and the life cycle of *Neorickettsia* spp. In addition, there is some background information on different diagnostic methods to determine the best method to study the available samples. This context will help readers grasp the significance of the study and its potential implications for equine health.

1.1. Pathogenesis and clinical presentation

Horses get the infection by ingesting *Neorickettsia*-infected trematodes present in aquatic insects or free-living trematodes. $13,14$ Once inside the horse's gastrointestinal tract, the bacteria are released from the trematodes and invade the cells lining the colon and cecum, as well as tissue macrophages. The bacteria then spread into the bloodstream, infecting monocytes.^{15,16,17} The most reported clinical signs in horses with PHF include diarrhea, fever, anorexia, lethargy, and colic.^{7,15}

1.2. Prevalence in horses

As mentioned before, PHF was discovered along the Potomac River in Montgomery County, Maryland, USA.^{5,22} The disease was found in 43 states across the United States, as well as in three Canadian provinces (Nova Scotia, Ontario, Alberta), South America (Uruguay, Brazil), Europe (The Netherlands, France), and India. ^{7,23,24} However, sources were not mentioned and how this data was collected is therefore unknown. The authors also specified that reports documenting the isolation or detection of the causative agent using conventional cell culture or molecular detection techniques such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR) were limited to 13 states within the United States. (California, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Virginia), along with Nova Scotia, Uruguay, and Brazil.²³

In regions where PHF was endemic, clinical cases showed a significant correlation with the proximity to rivers, lakes, or other aquatic environments. The risk of PHF increases notably for horses that graze in pastures along waterways such as freshwater rivers, streams, ponds, and irrigation ditches. Additionally, horses originating from areas with high PHF prevalence or farms with a history of the disease, as well as those traveling to regions with a high incidence of PHF, are at an elevated risk.^{25,26,27}

Since *Neorickettsia* species rely on intermediate hosts such as aquatic insects, the disease is primarily observed during the summer and autumn months. 7.28 Specifically, in the USA and Canada, the peak of clinical PHF cases was observed between late June and early September, but the disease has been reported from May to November.^{7,23,25,26}

Figure 1. Map of southern Ontario showing the geographic origins of Potomac Horse Fever cases. The colored dots depict the sample tested and the method of diagnosis. 7

Figure 2. Map of southern Ontario showing the geographic origins of Potomac Horse Fever cases. The colored dots depict the sample tested and the method of diagnosis. 7

1.3. Life cycle of *N. risticii*

The disease's seasonal occurrence and its geographical spread, suggest the potential involvement of a vector in PHF transmission.²³ Pretzman et al. (1995) made a significant discovery, revealing the involvement of digeneans, a class of trematodes/flukes, in the life cycle of *N. helminthoeca*. This finding prompted the notion that parasites might also play a role in the life cycle of *N. risticii*. 31

N. risticii and *N. findlayensis* are known to live in a commensal or parasitic relationship within various species of flukes. These flukes utilize freshwater snails as their first intermediate host, while different types of aquatic insects, like caddisflies (order *Trichoptera*), mayflies (*Ephemeroptera*), damselflies (*Odonata, Zygoptera*), dragonflies (*Odonata, Anisoptera*), and stoneflies (*Plecoptera*), serve as the second intermediate host for both the flukes and the bacteria. Insectivorous birds (e.g. swallows) and/or bats are now seen as the definitive hosts (Fig 3).8,9,10,17,23,25,26,30

The transmission to horses is believed to happen when they inadvertently ingest insects containing metacercariae. This can occur through various pathways, including ingesting insects while grazing, consuming hay contaminated with insects, or drinking water containing insects attracted to lights at night, which may have fallen into the water. Consequently, it appears that digenean metacercariae do not require reaching the adult stage of development to pass the infection to horses.30,32

Other potential definitive or reservoir host

Several years in the past, dogs, cats, and cattle were subjected to inoculation with *Ehrlichia risticii* (former *N. risticii*). The seroepidemiological studies yielded seropositive outcomes across all these animal groups, without any clinical symptoms. However, when a horse was inoculated with *E. risticii* isolated from the previously inoculated animals, clinical signs of Potomac horse fever (PHF) manifested in the horse.^{36,37,38} In a separate study, seropositivity was similarly discovered in 8 out of 48 cats (across 2 farms), as well as in 3 out of 14 pigs (from a single farm). These farms were situated approximately 3 km away from the location where a seropositive goat was identified.³⁹ This could indicate that species other than bats, birds and muskrats may also play a role in the life cycle of *N. risticii*. Notably, among the tested animals, which included 79 dogs, 75 cattle, and seven sheep, none displayed antibodies against *E. risticii*. 39

1.4. Diagnostic Tests

Bacterial culture of *N. risticii* or *N. findlayensis* remains the gold standard for diagnosis, but Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) on whole blood combined with fecal testing gives a relatively high sensitivity and specificity.^{15,19} PCR testing on whole blood is more likely to detect the presence of *N. risticii* than fecal samples and can do so for a longer period of time compared with feces. In experimental infections, positive PCR results from whole blood were observed approximately 7 to 21 days after infection, while fecal PCR positivity was detected from around 11 to 16 days postinfection.8,18

A recent advancement includes the development of a real-time PCR test specifically designed to identify *N. findlayensis*. This test utilizes two real-time PCR assays targeting the *Neorickettsia* ssa2 gene, along with sequencing of the *Neorickettsia* 16S rRNA gene, which detects both *Neorickettsia* species in horse samples. Through this approach, *N. findlayensis* can be distinguished from *N. risticii*. 6,7 Additionally, besides the 16S rRNA gene and the ssa2 genes, other genetic markers such as P51, ssa1, and ssa3 can also be used to detecting *Neorickettsia* species like *N. risticii* and *N. findlayensis.*6,11,12,21

Detection of *Neorickettsia* spp. in different organs (e.g. liver and blood) of bats is performed by a study which used nested PCR with the 16S rRNA and p51 genes. ¹¹ Therefore the expectation is that using the same method (PCR utilizing the 16S gene) would be a good fit for this study.

1.5. Aims and hypothesis

After discussing the causative agents and epidemiology of Potomac horse fever, it becomes evident that further investigation into the presence of *Neorickettsia* spp. in various mammalian species is warranted. Therefore, this study aims to explore the prevalence of *Neorickettsia* spp. in liver samples from different mammals, including bats, muskrats, raccoons, opossums, and skunks by using PCR testing. It is expected that *N. risticii* DNA will be detected in at least some of the samples provided.

2. **Methods**

To explore the presence of *Neorickettsia* spp. DNA in potential definitive or reservoir hosts, liver samples were collected and subjected to PCR analysis. The 16S rRNA gene was chosen as the target due to its wide applicability in bacterial identification and phylogenetic analysis.¹¹

The frozen liver samples, collected over several years by the Department of Pathobiology at the Ontario Veterinary College, University of Guelph, Ontario, Canada, were accompanied by location data from Ontario, with most samples also including collection dates. A total of 133 livers from various mammals, including 25 bats, 9 skunks, 4 opossums, 15 raccoons, and 80 muskrats, were analyzed. Detailed sample information is provided in appendix [7.1.](#page-24-1)

Liver tissue was selected for DNA extraction because it serves as a filter organ, potentially capturing a higher concentration of *Neorickettsia* DNA. Additionally, liver tissue typically contains abundant DNA, facilitating the extraction process. The E.Z.N.A. $@$ Tissue DNA Kit^a was used to isolate the DNA from the frozen liver tissue. In appendix [7.2](#page-26-0) a summary made by the lab assistant of the Department of Pathobiology (Ontario Veterinary College) is shown.

After DNA extraction from frozen liver samples, each sample was assessed for DNA quantity and quality using the Thermo Scientific Nanodrop 2000^b. The spectrophotometer determined the DNA concentration in each sample after a 1µL drop of the DNA extraction mixture was applied. These concentrations are detailed in appendix [7.1.](#page-24-1) Most samples yielded sufficient DNA ($>10-100$ ng/ μ L), with only 5 out of 141 samples falling below this threshold. Despite this, PCR analysis was conducted on all samples, with attention paid to the lower DNA concentrations.

The next step involved preparing a mastermix, which included a forward and reverse primer. The composition of the TopTaq[™] master mix^c is provided in *Table 1*. The information about the *Neorickettsia* 16S rRNA primers is provided in *Table 2*. Thereafter, 2 microliters of DNA sample and 23 microliters of the TopTaq™ master mix were combined and loaded into the T professional TRIO Thermocycler^d for amplification. The PCR product is run through a 1 % agarose gel in a 1x agarose electrophoresis buffer in the Horizon 11.14^d . The full protocol utilized for this process can be found in appendix [7.3.](#page-27-0)

Negative controls were prepared using pure mastermix, while the first batch of positive controls comprised PHF positive samples from The Animal Health Laboratory, 419 Gordon St, Guelph, ON N1G 2W1, Canada. Subsequently, samples that had previously tested positive multiple times been used as positive controls, labeled as 'PCR product'. Gel imaging was performed using the BioRad Chemidoc $XRS +^e$, using the Image lab Faint bands protocol and filter 1 from the settings.

If a sample tested positive, it underwent multiple rounds of PCR analysis for increased certainty. Furthermore, an additional DNA extraction was performed using the original liver sample to reduce the risk of cross-contamination. The positive DNA samples also underwent additional analysis using The LightCycler 480^f by the lab assistant to confirm the results. The full protocol conducted by the lab assistant can be found in appendix [7.4.](#page-28-0) Furthermore, the positive DNA samples were sent in for additional sequencing to the lab of Ohio State University^g for further validation.

^b Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, Massachusetts, United States

- *^f Roche Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland*
- *^g Molecular, Cellular, and Environmental Rickettsiology Laboratory, Department of Veterinary Biosciences,*

College of Veterinary Medicine, The Ohio State University.

^a Omega Bio-Tek, Norcross, Georgia, United States

^c Qiagen, Hilden, Germany

^d Biometra GmbH, Gottingen, Germany

^e Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc, Hercules, California, United States

Table 1. Mastermix.

Table 2. Neorickettsia primers.

2.1. Explanation of the terms

Single PCR amplification (single amp)

A polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was conducted using a DNA template (sample) along with specific primers (16S) targeting the desired genetic region. The reaction mixture underwent a series of thermal cycles, including denaturation, annealing, and extension, in a thermal cycler. As a result of the amplification process, the target DNA region underwent exponential replication, producing a detectable amount of the desired DNA product. The amplified DNA fragments were then immediately analyzed through gel electrophoresis to confirm the success of the PCR reaction and the presence of the amplified genetic material. Utilizing 2 microliters of the initial DNA sample is called a single PCR amplification (single amp in the tables in chapter [3\)](#page-11-0).

Double PCR amplification (double amp)

To enhance the positive outcome in the gel electrophoresis, the PCR reaction was amplified using 2 microliters of the product derived from the initial amplification (single amp) round as a template. This is known as 'double PCR amplification' (double amp). The goal is to intensify the positive lines in the imaging.

PCR product

Frequently, a single PCR amplification sample that showed positive results in the earlier PCR round and then stored, was utilized in a following gel electrophoresis round to guarantee the presence of a strong positive control. This is indicated using the term 'PCR product'. The PCR product is a simple amplification product, stored in the freezer and thawed before use.

Gel electrophoresis

Gel electrophoresis was used to separate and analyze the DNA based on their size and charge. After a single or double PCR amplification, the PCR product is loaded onto a gel matrix made of agarose. An electrical field is then applied across the gel, causing the charged molecules to migrate through the gel matrix at different rates.

Due to the porous nature of the gel, smaller molecules move more quickly through the pores, while larger molecules move more slowly. As a result, the molecules become separated into distinct bands or zones along the length of the gel. The log ladder is used in gel electrophoresis as a reference standard for estimating the size of DNA fragments being analyzed.

Imaging system

The separated molecules can be visualized using the BioRad Chemidoc XRS+, and the resulting pattern of bands provides valuable information about the molecular size and abundance of the analyzed molecules. In this paper, the result of this image is referred to as the image of the gel electrophoresis.

Positive samples

All images with a positive sample are displayed in chapter [3,](#page-11-0) accompanied by relevant information. The table indicates the lane of the gel electrophoresis (Gel#), the corresponding original sample number (Sample#), the associated sample information (species & info), the DNA concentration of the product ([DNA]), and whether it involves a single or double amplification (single/double amp) of the utilized product. Most of the time, a previous strong positive PCR product is used as a positive control. Samples that were previously identified as positive underwent repeated testing more frequently. Additionally, a negative control was employed. See [7.1](#page-24-1) for the full information of the samples.

The LightCycler 480 / Real-time PCR

When samples tested positive, the LightCycler 480 was used to confirm the results. The LightCycler is a type of real-time polymerase chain reaction (real-time PCR) instrument utilized for rapidly and efficiently amplifying and quantifying DNA. It employs fluorescence-based detection to monitor DNA amplification during each cycle of the PCR reaction in real-time, enabling continuous measurement of DNA accumulation. This allows researchers to analyze the reaction's progress and determine the amount of DNA present in the sample.

3. **Results**

Out of the 133 distinct liver samples obtained from various mammals, four animals tested positive for *Neorickettsia* DNA: one vesper bat, one muskrat, one striped skunk, and one big brown bat. These positive results are highlighted in bold in chapter [3.1,](#page-11-1) where the meaningful results from these samples are presented.

Further PCR runs were conducted in addition to these positive identifications. However, they are not included in this chapter as they involved samples that were deemed non-meaningful, as they showed no positive results except for the positive control or encountered issues with the negative/positive controls. To complement the findings, results from an external laboratory at Ohio State University are also included in chapter [3.2.](#page-15-0) This collaboration provides valuable insights and strengthens the overall interpretation of the results.

Chapter [3.3](#page-15-1) provides comprehensive information on each of the positive samples, including their origin and the number of PCR cycles performed on The LightCycler 480. This detailed analysis sheds light on the diversity and distribution of *Neorickettsia* infections across different mammalian species.

3.1. Information tables and images of the gel electrophoresis

Figure 4. Image of the gel electrophoresis of PCR products on 6 July 2023 at 15:00.

Table 4. Information about the samples in the Gel electrophoresis run of 7 July 2023 15:00 (Figure 5)

Gel#	Sample#	Species	[DNA] in µg Info	Product	Positive/ Negative	
$\mathbf{1}$	Log					
$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	45	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-013	197,4	Single amp	Negative
3	9	Big brown bat	W0140-20	631,3	Single amp	Negative
4	16	Striped skunk	W0235-20	8,9	Single amp	Positive
5	46	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-014	149,8	Single amp	Negative
6	47	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-015	277,1	Single amp	Negative
\overline{z}	48	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-016	486,9	Single amp	Negative
8	49	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-017	586,3	Single amp	Negative
9	60	Muskrat	MKRT 22-001	264,6	Single amp	Negative
10	61	Muskrat	MKRT 22-004	897,3	Single amp	?
11	62	Muskrat	MKRT 22-005	401,7	Single amp	Negative
12	63	Muskrat	MKRT-22-007	660,1	Single amp	Negative
13	64	Muskrat	MKRT-22-008	526,7	Single amp	Negative
14	65	Muskrat	MKRT-22-009	600,3	Single amp	Negative
15	66	Muskrat	MKRT-22-017	248,9	Single amp	Negative
16	67	Muskrat	MKRT-22-040	497,4	Single amp	Negative
17	68	Muskrat	MKRT-22-041	1324,9	Single amp	Negative
18	Negative control					Negative
19	Positive control	Pondsnail	Olivia's sample #10		Single amp	Positive
20	Positive control; 42	Muskrat	Positive before; MSKRT 23-010	148,9	PCR product	Positive
	र 5. \mathbf{A}	9.10 $7 \overline{8}$ 6.	11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20			

Figure 5. Image of the gel electrophoresis of PCR products on 7 July 2023 at 15:00.

Gel#	Sample#	Species	Info	[DNA] in µg	Product	Positive/ Negative
$\mathbf{1}$	Log					
$\overline{2}$	136	Big brown bat	WO0037-21	1025,1	Single amp	Negative
3	137	Big brown bat	W0340-20	493,5	Single amp	Positive
4	138	Silver haired bat	W0418-21	690	Single amp	Negative
5	147	Striped skunk	WO321-21 A2	30,8	Single amp	Negative
6	42 + positive control	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-010		Single amp	Positive
$\overline{\mathbf{z}}$	Negative control					Negative
8	150	Striped skunk	W0235-20	79,6	Single amp	Positive
9	151	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-010	18,3	Single amp	Positive
10	152	Big brown bat	W0013-21	1690,3	Single amp	Negative
11	153	Muskrat	MKRT-22-029	514,6	Single amp	Negative
12	32 + positive control	Vesper bat	$2 - 175 - 03$	647,5	Single amp	Positive
13	Negative control					Negative
14	Empty					

Table 5. Information about the samples in the Gel electrophoresis run of 12 July 2023 16:04 (Figure 6)

Figure 6. Image of the gel electrophoresis of PCR products on 12 July 2023 at 16:04.

Table 6. Information about the samples in the Gel electrophoresis run of 17 July 2023 18:06 (Figure 7), using half amount of the mastermix with primers.

Gel#	Sample#	Species	Info	[DNA] in µg	Product	Positive/ Negative
1	Log					
$\overline{2}$	16	Striped skunk	W0235-20	8,9	Single amp	Negative
3	16	Striped skunk	W0235-20	8,9	Double amp	Positive
4	16	Striped skunk	W0235-20	8,9	Double amp	Positive
5	150	Striped skunk	W0235-20	79,6	Single amp	Positive
6	150	Striped skunk	W0235-20	79,6	Double amp	Positive
\overline{z}	32	Vesper bat	$2 - 175 - 03$	647,5	Single amp	Negative
8	32	Vesper bat	$2 - 175 - 03$	647,5	Single amp	Negative
9	32	Vesper bat	$2 - 175 - 03$	647,5	Double amp	Positive
10	32	Vesper bat	$2 - 175 - 03$	647,5	Double amp	Positive
11	42	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-010	148,9	Single amp	Negative
12	42	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-010	148,9	Double amp	Positive
13	42	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-010	148,9	Double amp	Positive
14	151	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-010	18,3	Single amp	Negative
15	151	Muskrat	MSKRT 23-010	18,3	Double amp	Positive
16	137	Big brown bat	W0340-20	493,5	Single amp	Negative
17	137	Big brown bat	W0340-20	493,5	Single amp	Negative
18	137	Big brown bat	W0340-20	493,5	Double amp	Positive
19	137	Big brown bat	W0340-20	493,5	Double amp	Positive
20	Negative control					Negative

Figure 7. Image of the gel electrophoresis of PCR products on 17 July 2023 at 18:06.

3.2. Results from the laboratory of Ohio State University

To verify the accuracy of the positive results, some samples were sent to the laboratory at Ohio State University for confirmation. At this facility, differentiation between *N. findlayensis* and *N. risticii* was achieved using the ssa2 gene. All samples were identified as *N. risticii*. Notably, Sample 5, inadvertently included in the batch, also tested positive.

No	Names on tube	DNA Concentration	Neorickettsia 16S rRNA gene	N. findlayensis ssa ₂	N. risticii ssa2
	16 SSK Liver	14.6 ng/ul	Positive	Negative	Positive
2	42 MSKR Liver 10	116.3 ng/ul	Positive	Negative	Positive
3	32 V.Bat Liver	525 $nq/$ ul (1/5 diluted as template)	Positive	Negative	Positive
4	150 SSK Liver	81.4 ng/ul	Positive	Negative	Positive
5	60 MSKT Liver 22-001	250 ng/ul	Positive	Negative	Positive
6	151 MSKT Liver	21 ng/ul	Positive	Negative	Positive

Table 7. Results of the laboratory of Ohio State University.

3.3. Positive results

In this section, all the information on the samples that were at least one time positive are outlined below. This information can also be found in appendix [7.1.](#page-24-1) All of the samples had undergone different runs, and when there was enough liver left to make a second sample, those samples were tested with PCR again. When the origin and sample date were available, they are listed below. Besides that, the number of cycles in The Lightcycle 480 is showed. The lower the number, the more *Neorickettsia* DNA is available in the sample.

- *3.3.1.Vesper bat: 2-175-03*
	- Sample number: 32
		- o Run 36: Positive
		- o Run 84: Positive
		- o Run 121: Positive
		- o Run 165: Positive
		- o Run 179: Negative
		- o Run 180: Negative
		- \circ Run 181 (= Double #36): Positive
		- \circ Run 182 (= Double #84): Positive
	- Second sample number: not enough liver left
	- Origin & sample date: Unknown
	- Number of cycles in LightCycler: 35
	- Positive on *Neorickettsia* 16S rRNA gene by the lab of Ohio State University
	- Negative on *N. findlayensis* ssa2 gene by the lab of Ohio State University
	- Positive on *Neorickettsia risticii* ssa2 gene by the lab of Ohio State University

3.3.2. Muskrat: MSKRT 23-010

- Sample number: 42
	- o Run 46: Positive
	- o Run 86: Negative
	- o Run 102: Positive
	- o Run 139: Positive
	- o Run 159: Positive
	- o Run 183: Negative
	- \circ Run 184 (= Double #102): Positive
	- \circ Run 185 (= Double #159): Positive
	- Second sample number: 151
	- o Run 161: Positive
		- o Run 177: Negative
		- \circ Run 178 (= Double #161): Positive
- Origin: Ball road, Lot 17 Concession 1, Hinchinbrooke Twp, Central Frontenac
- Sample date: 2023
- Number of cycles in LightCycler: 31
- 2 samples positive on *Neorickettsia* 16S rRNA gene by the lab of Ohio State University
- 2 samples negative on *N. findlayensis* ssa2 gene by the lab of Ohio State University
- 2 samples positive on *Neorickettsia risticii* ssa2 gene by the lab of Ohio State University

3.3.3.Striped skunk: W0235-20

- Sample number: 16
	- o Run 16: Positive
	- o Run 53: Positive
	- o Run 174: Negative
	- \circ Run 175 (= Double #16): Positive
	- \circ Run 176 (= Double #53): Positive
- Second sample number: 150
	- o Run 161: Positive
	- o Run 177: Positive
	- \circ Run 178 (= Double #161): Positive
- Origin: Port McNicoll, Ontario
	- o Coordinates: 44.75 -79.81
- Sample date: September 1-2020
- Number of cycles in LightCycler: 28
- 2 samples positive on *Neorickettsia* 16S rRNA gene by the lab of Ohio State University
- 2 samples negative on *N. findlayensis* ssa2 gene by the lab of Ohio State University
- 2 samples positive on *Neorickettsia risticii* ssa2 gene by the lab of Ohio State University

3.3.4.Big brown bat: W0340-20

- Sample number: 137
	- o Run 146: Positive
	- o Run 188: Negative
	- o Run 189: Negative
	- \circ Run 190 (= Double #146): Positive
	- \circ Run 191 (= Double #146): Positive
- Second sample number: not enough liver left
- Origin: Peterborough, Ontario
	- o Coordinates: 44.31 -78.34
- Sample date: November 10-2020
- Number of cycles in LightCycler: 40

3.4. Map

Combining the results of this study with the map of southern Ontario showing the geographic origins of Potomac Horse Fever (positive PCR and/or culture) cases in horses from Arroyo LG, et al. (2021), the following map is created. Unfortunately, one of the positive samples (vesper bat) had no information on the origin.

Figure 8. Map of southern Ontario showing the geographic origins of Potomac Horse Fever (positive PCR and/or culture) cases in horses⁷ , supplemented with the results from this research (PCR on Neorickettsia) in pink.

4. **Discussion**

The present study aimed to investigate the prevalence of *Neorickettsia* spp*.* DNA in potential reservoir hosts in Ontario, Canada. The findings of this research contribute significantly to the understanding of the bacteria's life cycle, epidemiology, and potential transmission routes. This discussion section will delve into the implications of the results, their alignment with existing knowledge, potential limitations, and future directions.

The identification of positive samples in two bats, one skunk, and one muskrat underscores the wider range of wildlife species that harbor *Neorickettsia risticii.* This wider range of hosts suggests a more extensive ecological interaction involving these bacteria than previously recognized. The detection of *Neorickettsia risticii* in wildlife species raises questions about the role of these species in the maintenance and dissemination of these bacteria, particularly given their interaction with invertebrate vectors.

While the identified wildlife hosts indicate a more expansive reservoir for *Neorickettsia risticii*, there are certain limitations to be considered. The specific mechanisms of interaction between the bacteria and wildlife hosts remain unclear, as this study primarily focused on detection. Further research involving experimental infections, studies into the potential excretion of the bacterium and studies into the potential impact of *Neorickettsia* spp*.* on these wildlife hosts could provide a more comprehensive understanding. By only detecting the bacteria in the liver of these host, the role as a dead-end-host, definitive host or reservoir host is unclear.

The confirmed positivity of the samples using both conventional and real-time PCR (LightCycler) methods ensures the robustness of the results. False positives may arise due to contamination of samples with DNA from other sources, cross-contamination between samples during handling or processing, or non-specific amplification of unintended DNA sequences. Measures were employed to minimize the risk of false positives, including the use of stringent laboratory protocols, proper handling techniques, and inclusion of negative controls to monitor for contamination. This is why the possibility of a false positive is minor and especially using different kind of PCRs and labs further reinforces the validity of the findings.

There is a potential for false negative samples, as the approach involved retesting only those samples identified as positive through conventional PCR in the subsequent real-time PCR analysis. This was due to a lack of time. False negatives can occur in PCR due to various factors such as low DNA concentration, PCR inhibitors, primer mismatches, or technical errors during sample preparation or amplification. There are probably several false negatives present, due to contamination, technical errors, and degradation. This may be what happened with the samples that were labeled positive but were occasionally negative (see chapter [3.3\)](#page-15-1). Sample processing, methodological variations and reagents used in different labs influenced the rate of detection for PHF.⁷ That is why another lab with probably another method of handling was involved to confirm some of the results.

The implications of this study extend to veterinary health perspectives. The broader range of wildlife hosts could potentially lead to a reevaluation of strategies for managing and controlling the spread of *Neorickettsia* spp*.* and therefore controlling Potomac Horse Fever, especially in areas where wildlife-horse interactions are common.

The ongoing research on invertebrates is expected to provide additional insights into the dynamics of *Neorickettsia* spp*.*, aiding in the assessment of bacterial distribution and potentially shedding light on the endemic status.

In conclusion, this study significantly contributes to the existing knowledge of *Neorickettsia* spp. infections in potential definitive or reservoir hosts. The identification of positive samples in various wildlife species implies a more complex ecological scenario involving these bacteria. As future research unfolds, a more comprehensive picture of the role of these wildlife species in the transmission and maintenance of *Neorickettsia* spp*.* is expected to emerge, guiding future preventive and control measures.

5. **Conclusion**

The findings of this study suggest that *Neorickettsia* spp. circulates among different wildlife species in Ontario, Canada, indicating a broader natural reservoir for these bacteria than previously recognized. Out of 133 samples tested, 2 bats, 1 muskrats, and 1 skunk were found positive for *Neorickettsia* spp. DNA. However, it is important to acknowledge the potential for false negatives, so there could be more positive samples.

Further research is warranted to clarify the role (definitive/reservoir host or dead-end-host) of wildlife species in the maintenance and spread of *Neorickettsia* spp., including investigations into ecological interactions between wildlife hosts and the bacteria. Future studies should consider experimental infections, ecological studies, and investigations into the impact of *Neorickettsia* spp. on wildlife hosts to gain a more comprehensive understanding of their role in the epidemiology of these bacteria.

6. **References**

- 1. Dutra F, Schuch LF, Delucchi E, et al. "Equine Monocytic Ehrlichiosis (Potomac Horse Fever) in Horses in Uruguay and Southern Brazil." *Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation* 2001; 13:433–7.
- 2. Paulino PG, Almosny N, Oliveira R, et al. "Detection of Neorickettsia risticii, the Agent of Potomac Horse Fever, in Horses from Rio de Janeiro, Brazil." *Scientific Reports* 2020; 10:7208.
- 3. Shapiro J, Thomson G. "Potomac Horse Fever in Eastern Ontario." *Canadian Veterinary Journal* 1995; 36:448.
- 4. Ehrich M, Perry BD, Troutt HF, et al. "Acute Diarrhea in Horses of the Potomac River Area: Examination for Clostridial Toxins." *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association* 1984; 185:433–5.
- 5. Knowles RC, Anderson CW, Shipley WD, Whitlock RH, Perry BD, Davidson JP. "Acute Equine Diarrhea Syndrome (AEDS): A Preliminary Report." In *Proceedings of the Annual Convention-American Association of Equine Practitioners (USA)* 1983.
- 6. Teymournejad O, Lin M, Bekebrede H, Kamr A, Toribio RE, Arroyo LG, Baird JD, Rikihisa Y. "Isolation and Molecular Analysis of a Novel Neorickettsia Species That Causes Potomac Horse Fever." *mBio* 2020; 11(1).<https://doi.org/10.1128/mbio.03429-19>
- 7. Arroyo LG, Moore A, Bedford S, et al. "Potomac Horse Fever in Ontario: Clinical, Geographic, and Diagnostic Aspects." *Canadian Veterinary Journal* 2021; 62:622–8.
- 8. Pusterla N, Madigan JE, Chae JS, et al. "Helminthic Transmission and Isolation of Ehrlichia risticii, the Causative Agent of Potomac Horse Fever, by Using Trematode Stages from Freshwater Stream Snails." *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 2000; 38:1293–7.
- 9. Chae J, Pusterla N, Johnson E, DeRock E, Lawler SP, Madigan JE. "Infection of Aquatic Insects with Trematode Metacercariae Carrying Ehrlichia risticii, the Cause of Potomac Horse Fever." *Journal of Medical Entomology* 2000; 37(4):619–625. <https://doi.org/10.1603/0022-2585-37.4.619>
- 10. Greiman SE, Tkach VV, Vaughan JA. "Transmission Rates of the Bacterial Endosymbiont, Neorickettsia risticii, During the Asexual Reproduction Phase of Its Digenean Host, Plagiorchis elegans, Within Naturally Infected Lymnaeid Snails." *Parasites & Vectors* 2013; 6(1).<https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-6-303>
- 11. Gibson KE, Rikihisa Y, Zhang C, Martin C. "Neorickettsia risticii is Vertically Transmitted in the Trematode Acanthatrium oregonense and Horizontally Transmitted to Bats." *Environmental Microbiology* 2005; 7(2):203–212. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2004.00683.x) [2920.2004.00683.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2004.00683.x)
- 12. De Mello VVC, Placa AJV, Lee DAB, Franco EO, Lima L, Teixeira MM, Hemsley C, Titball RW, Machado RZ, André MR. "Molecular Detection of Blood-Borne Agents in Vampire Bats from Brazil, with the First Molecular Evidence of Neorickettsia sp. in Desmodus rotundus and Diphylla ecaudata." *Acta Tropica* 2023; 244:106945. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actatropica.2023.106945>
- 13. Park BK, Kim MJ, Kim EH, et al. "Identification of Trematode Cercariae Carrying Neorickettsia risticii in Freshwater Stream Snails." *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 2003; 990:239–47.
- 14. Madigan JE, Pusterla N, Johnson E, et al. "Transmission of Ehrlichia risticii, the Agent of Potomac Horse Fever, Using Naturally Infected Aquatic Insects and Helminth Vectors: Preliminary Report." *Equine Veterinary Journal* 2000; 32:275–9.
- 15. Bertin FR, Reising A, Slovis NM, et al. "Clinical and Clinicopathological Factors Associated with Survival in 44 Horses with Equine Neorickettsiosis (Potomac Horse Fever)." *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 2013; 27:1528–34.
- 16. Uzal FA, Arroyo LG, Navarro MA, et al. "Bacterial and Viral Enterocolitis in Horses: A Review." *Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation* 2022; 34:354–75.
- 17. Vaughan JA, Tkach VV, Greiman SE. "Neorickettsial Endosymbionts of the Digenea." In *Advances in Parasitology*, 2012.<https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-398457-9.00003-2>
- 18. Biswas B, Vemulapalli R, Dutta SK. "Detection of Ehrlichia risticii from Feces of Infected Horses by Immunomagnetic Separation and PCR." *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 1994; 32:2147–51.
- 19. Mott J, Rikihisa Y, Zhang Y, et al. "Comparison of PCR and Culture to the Indirect Fluorescent-Antibody Test for Diagnosis of Potomac Horse Fever." *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 1997; 35:2215–9.
- 20. Budachetri K, Lin M, Yan Q, Chien RC, Hostnik LD, Haanen G, Leclere M, Waybright W, Baird JD, Arroyo LG, Rikihisa Y. "Real-Time PCR Differential Detection of Neorickettsia findlayensis and N. risticii in Cases of Potomac Horse Fever." *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 2022; 60(7).<https://doi.org/10.1128/jcm.00250-22>
- 21. Barlough JE, Reubel GH, Madigan JE, Vredevoe LK, Miller PD, Rikihisa Y. "Detection of Ehrlichia risticii, the Agent of Potomac Horse Fever, in Freshwater Stream Snails (Pleuroceridae: Juga spp.) from Northern California." *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 1998; 64(8):2888–2893.<https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.64.8.2888-2893.1998>
- 22. Reed SK. "Mechanisms of Infectious Disease." In *Elsevier eBooks*, 2004. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b0-72-169777-1/50004-4>
- 23. Pusterla N, Madigan JE. "Neorickettsia risticii." In *Equine Infectious Diseases*, 2007. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-1-4160-2406-4.50048-x>
- 24. Palmer JE, Whitlock RP, Ce B. "Equine Ehrlichial Colitis (Potomac Horse Fever): Recognition of the Disease in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Idaho, and Connecticut." *PubMed* 1986; 189(2):197–199.<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/3744978>
- 25. "Potomac Horse Fever (PHF) | AAEP (Reviewed and Updated by Drs. Luis G. Arroyo and John Baird in 2020)." Retrieved 2023, June 12, from <https://aaep.org/horsehealth/potomac-horse-fever-phf>
- 26. Baird JD, Arroyo LG. "Historical Aspects of Potomac Horse Fever in Ontario (1924-2010)." *PubMed* 2013.<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24155447>
- 27. "Potomac Horse Fever." In *Elsevier eBooks*, 2012. [https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-1-4160-](https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-1-4160-9979-6.00572-9) [9979-6.00572-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-1-4160-9979-6.00572-9)
- 28. Perry BD, Palmer JD, Troutt H, Birch J, Morris DL, Ehrich M, Rikihisa Y. "A Case-Control Study of Potomac Horse Fever." *Preventive Veterinary Medicine* 1986; 4(1):69–82. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-5877\(86\)90008-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-5877(86)90008-5)
- 29. Schofield FW. "An Investigation into an Endemic Disease of Horses (Occurring Chiefly in Kent and Essex Counties of the Province of Ontario)." *Report of the Ontario Veterinary College* 1924; 49:41–49. As cited in Baird JD, Arroyo LG. "Historical Aspects of Potomac Horse Fever in Ontario (1924-2010)." *PubMed* 2013. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24155447>
- 30. Tkach VV, Greiman SE. "Transmission Biology, Host Associations, Distribution and Molecular Diagnostics of Neorickettsia." In *Rickettsiales*, 2016. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-46859-4_15
- 31. Pretzman CI, Ralph D, Stothard DR, Fuerst PA, Rikihisa Y. "16S rRNA Gene Sequence of Neorickettsia helminthoeca and Its Phylogenetic Alignment with Members of the Genus Ehrlichia." *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 1995; 45(2):207–211. <https://doi.org/10.1099/00207713-45-2-207>
- 32. Farren, L. "Potomac horse fever: the final piece of the puzzle." *Equus, 357 (2007)*, 49-58. *As cited in Vaughan, J. A., Tkach, V. V., & Greiman, S. E. (2012b).* "Neorickettsial endosymbionts of the Digenea." *In Advances in Parasitology (pp. 253–297).* Elsevier BV. [https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-398457-9.00003-2 \(17\)](https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-398457-9.00003-2)
- 33. Xiong, Q., Bekebrede, H., Sharma, P., Arroyo, L., Baird, J. D., & Rikihisa, Y. (2016). "An ecotype of Neorickettsia risticii causing Potomac horse fever in Canada." *Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 82(19)*, 6030–6036.<https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.01366-16>
- 34. Pusterla, N., Johnson, E., Chae, J., & Madigan, J. E. (2003). "Digenetic trematodes, Acanthatriumsp. and Lecithodendriumsp., as vectors of Neorickettsia risticii, the agent of

Potomac horse fever." *Journal of Helminthology, 77(4)*, 335–339. <https://doi.org/10.1079/joh2003181>

- 35. Hornok, S., Szőke, K., Estók, P., Krawczyk, A. I., Haarsma, A., Kováts, D., Boldogh, S., Morandini, P., Szekeres, S., Takács, N., Kontschán, J., Meli, M. L., De Mera, I. G. F., De La Fuente, J., Gyuranecz, M., Sulyok, K. M., Weibel, B., Gönczi, E., De Bruin, A., ... Hofmann-Lehmann, R. (2018). "Assessing bat droppings and predatory bird pellets for vector-borne bacteria: Molecular evidence of bat-associated Neorickettsia Sp. in Europe." *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek International Journal of General and Molecular Microbiology, 111(9)*, 1707– 1717.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10482-018-1043-7>
- 36. Dawson J.E., Abeygunawardena I., Holland C.J., Buese M.M. & Ristic M. (1988). "Susceptibility of cats to infection with Ehrlichia risticii, causative agent of equine monocytic ehrlichiosis." *PubMed, 49(12)*, 2096–2100.<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/3071194>
- 37. Ristic, M., Dawson, J. E., Cj, H., & Jenny, A. (1988). "Susceptibility of dogs to infection with Ehrlichia risticii, causative agent of equine monocytic ehrlichiosis (Potomac horse fever)." *PubMed, 49(9)*, 1497–1500.<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/3223656>
- 38. Pusterla, N., Pusterla, J. B., DeRock, E., & Madigan, J. E. (2001). "Susceptibility of cattle to Ehrlichia risticii, the causative agent of Potomac horse fever." *Veterinary Record, 148(3)*, 86–87.<https://doi.org/10.1136/vr.148.3.86>
- 39. Perry, B. D., Schmidtmann, E. T., Rice, R. M., Hansen, J. W., Fletcher, M., Turner, E. C., ... & Hahn, N. E. (1989). "Epidemiology of Potomac horse fever: an investigation into the possible role of non-equine mammals." *The Veterinary Record, 125(4)*, 83-86.

7. **Appendices**

7.1. Sample information sheet

7.2. Summary of DNA extraction protocol

Before Starting:

- Turn on 55° C and 70° C heating blocks
- Add elution buffer to 70°C heating block
- Prepare DNA and HBC Wash Buffer according to the directions on the bottles

Omega Tissue ../DNA Extraction Protocol

- 1. Add metal bead and 200μL of TL Buffer to 2 mL flatbottommicrocentrifuge tube.
- 2. Mince up 30 mg of tissue and transfer to tube.
- 3. Add 25µL OB Protease Solution. Vortex to mix thoroughly.
- 4. Set tissuelyser to 30 Hz and run for 4 minutes. If not using 48 samples, use counter balances.
- 5. Incubate at 55°C on ThermoMixer (min. 30 min 1 hour). Lysis can proceed overnight. If ThermoMixer is not available, vortex sample every 20-30 minutes or place in heating block on orbit shaker.
- 6. Add 220µL BL Buffer and vortex immediately.
- 7. Incubate at 70°C for 10 minutes.
- 8. Add 220µL 100% ethanol and vortex immediately.
- 9. Transfer entire sample (~700µL) from step 8 to DNA Spin Column.
- 10. Centrifuge at maximum speed for 1.5 minutes and discard flow through.
- 11. Add 500µL HBC Buffer (make sure isopropanol has been added to bottle).
	- a. Centrifuge at 10,000 rpm for 1 minute and discard flow through.

12. Add 700µL DNA Wash Buffer (make sure alcohol has been added to the bottle).

- a. Centrifuge at 10,000 rpm for 1 minute and discard flow through.
- 13. Repeat step 12.
- 14. Move DNA Spin Column to new2 mL Collection Tube. Centrifuge at 10,000 rpm for 2.5 minutes to dry the column.
- 15. Transfer DNA Spin Column to sterile 1.5mL pointed bottom microcentrifuge tube.
- 16. Add 100-200 µL Elution Buffer heated to 70°C. Let sit at room temperature for 2 minutes.
- 17. Centrifuge at 10,000 rpm for 1.5 minutes.
- 18. Store flow through in new 1.5 mL pointed bottom microcentrifuge tube and store at -20 $^{\circ}$ C. a. Best to nanodrop samples immediately following this step.

May 23 2023

7.3. PCR protocol

TopTaq DNA Polymerase from Qiagen Potomic Horse Fever Primers

Kit is stored in freezer. Remove items needed for thawing but leave enzymes in freezer or on ice until required

1. In a thin walled PCR tube set up a Master Mix to contain all items that are the same for all samples (ie. typically the DNA is the only item being varied)

Add the following to a 0.2 ml or 0.5 ml thin walled PCR tube:

* Primers come from Sigma lyophilized at approximately 30-100 nmol

 T_{S} *****• Centrifuge the tubes before opening to prevent loss of pelleted oligos

- Reconstitute the primers in DEPC water using the volume indicated for 100 uM (10 ul / nmole)
- ϵ_{eff} and the tubes before opening the total materials of performance of performa \Box Prepare a Stock dilution of primers at 10 uM for use in setting up PCR Master Mix

 \sim Prepared a Stock distribution of primers at \sim 10 units per \sim \Rightarrow 1:10 dilution in 10 mM Tris pH 8

 \Rightarrow typical PCR reaction mix contains primers at a final concentration of 0.2uM which is a 1:50 dilution of Stock primers

- in. This can be used as your negative control. If doing more than 10 samples set the Master Mix for n+1 tubes rather in. This can be used as your negative control. If doing more than 10 samples set the Master Mix for **n+1** tubes rather than multiplying the reagent volumes by **n.n**. than multiplying the reagent volumes by **n.n**. 2. Add 2*3* ul to each sample PCR thin walled reaction tube. Some will be left in the tube that you made the Master Mix
- 3. Add 2 ul of DNA to each sample PCR reaction tube 3. Add 2 ul of DNA to each sample PCR reaction tube
- 4. Mix
- 5. Incubate at 94 °C for 3 minutes then do 30-40 cycles of PCR Sample Point Point Property
Sample Point Property Sample PCR cycle: 94°C for 30 seconds \overline{a} seconds \overline{a} 50° C for 30 seconds (annealing temp. ~ 5 degrees below primer Tm) 72° C for 1 min/kb product Follow 30-40 cycles with a final extension at 72° C for 5-7 minutes
- 6. Analyze 8 ul of PCR product on a 1% agarose gel in TBE buffer

7.4. LightCycler protocol + results

PHF PCR using Neorickettsia 16s r RNA primers on light cycler in 3852 (previously in Sharif's lab)

Samples previously run on regular thermocyclers – strong, medium and variable results

Thermocycler: 480 light cycler 3852
Computer Login: operatorPassw Login: operatorPassword: LC480 LightCycler software Login: adminPassword: Roche1 96 well block, white plate, 10 ulrx, Detection format SYBR Green 1

Samples 2 % Agarose in L.A.B. buffer 100V 45 min

