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Discovery of a novel species, *Theileria haneyi* n. sp., infective to equids, highlights exceptional genomic diversity within the genus *Theileria*: implications for apicomplexan parasite surveillance [☆]

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ABSTRACT

A novel apicomplexan parasite was serendipitously discovered in horses at the United States – Mexico border. Phylogenetic analysis based on 18S rDNA showed the erythrocyte-infective parasite to be related to, but distinct from, *Theileria* spp. in Africa, the most similar taxa being *Theileria* spp. from waterbuck and mountain zebra. The degree of sequence variability observed at the 18S rDNA locus also suggests the likely existence of additional cryptic species. Among described species, the genome of this novel equid *Theileria* parasite is most similar to that of *Theileria equi*, also a pathogen of horses. The estimated divergence time between the new *Theileria* sp. and *T. equi*, based on genomic sequence data, is greater than 33 million years. Average protein sequence divergence between them, at 23%, is greater than that of *Theileria parva* and *Theileria annulata* proteins, which is 18%. The latter two represent highly virulent *Theileria* spp. of domestic cattle, as well as of African and Asian wild buffalo, respectively, which differ markedly in pathology, host cell tropism, tick vector and geographical distribution. The extent of genome-wide sequence divergence, as well as significant morphological differences, relative to *T. equi* justify the classification of *Theileria* sp. as a new taxon. Despite the overall genomic divergence, the nine member equi merozoite antigen (EMA) superfamily, previously found as a multigene family only in *T. equi*, is also present in the novel parasite. Practically, significant sequence divergence in antigenic loci resulted in this undescribed *Theileria* sp. not being detectable using currently available diagnostic tests. Discovery of this novel species infective to equids highlights exceptional diversity within the genus *Theileria*, a finding with serious implications for apicomplexan parasite surveillance.

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[☆] Note: Nucleotide sequence data reported in this paper are available in GenBank under accession numbers KU647704–KU647710.

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66 **1. Introduction**
65

67 Hemoparasites that cause life-long infection, such as those in
68 the phylum Apicomplexa, are a major challenge for public and live-
69 stock health. Notorious examples include the arthropod-borne api-
70 complexan taxa *Plasmodium* and *Babesia*, for which infection in
71 humans and cattle, respectively, result in malaria and bovine
72 babesiosis, and theileriosis, which infects ruminants and equids
73 (Kappmeyer et al., 2012), in addition to many other vertebrates.
74 Discerning how apicomplexan protozoa emerge and persist in host
75 populations is critical for controlling disease and transmission.
76 Propagation of these organisms during long-term persistent infec-
77 tion results in genomic evolution that potentially impacts viru-
78 lence, host range and reduced detectability (Hawley et al., 2013).
79 The diversity of apicomplexans, especially *Theileria*, in wildlife is
80 exceptional (Githaka et al., 2014; Mans et al., 2015). Vector-
81 mediated movement of these organisms from wildlife to livestock
82 can result in disease outbreaks that are not identifiable using cur-
83 rent diagnostic assays. Data presented here document the molecu-
84 lar biology, genomic composition and phylogenetic placement of a
85 newly discovered *Theileria* pathogen that has serious implications
86 for diagnosis of *Theileria* infections in equids.

87 Equine piroplasmosis (theileriosis), caused by *Theileria equi*, is a
88 tick-borne infection of equids for which control by vaccination is
89 not currently available. Serological and nucleic acid-based diagnos-
90 tic testing, followed by treatment of infected animals with imido-
91 carb dipropionate (Ueti et al., 2012), is the method routinely used
92 for transmission and disease control in non-endemic countries.
93 Animal reservoirs for transmission include all equid species
94 (Wise et al., 2013). Infection with *T. equi* can lead to a life-
95 threatening anemia in the acute phase, and results in persistent
96 infection in the chronic phase (Wise et al., 2013). Horses that sur-
97 vive the acute phase will be infected for life, with a parasitemia
98 between 10³ and 10⁶ merozoites per mL of blood (Ueti et al.,
99 2005), and thus serve as a reservoir for tick transmission. Since
100 *Theileria* is not transmitted transovarially by the tick, ticks are
101 not considered a generational reservoir. Although the United States
102 (U.S.) is currently considered free of equine *Theileria* infection,
103 recent detection of 20 infected horses in Florida, U.S. (Short et al.,
104 2012) and 413 infected horses elsewhere, mostly in Texas, U.S.
105 (Scoles et al., 2011), has increased awareness of the potential trans-
106 mission and disease threats posed by asymptomatic *Theileria* infec-
107 tions (Ueti et al., 2005; Wise et al., 2014).

108 A stray horse, restrained at the U.S. – Mexico border, near Eagle
109 Pass, Texas, was negative for *T. equi* by PCR, but borderline positive
110 using a competitive ELISA (cELISA) (Knowles et al., 1991b). A
111 hemoprotozoan parasite was recovered by whole blood transfer to
112 a naïve splenectomized horse, and the genome sequenced. Based
113 on parasite morphology and intra-erythrocytic replication, the par-
114 asite was identified as a species of *Theileria*. The implications of
115 these data are discussed in the context of disease control of
116 vector-borne apicomplexan parasites in general, but with specific
117 reference to equine *Theileria*.

118 **2. Materials and methods**

119 **2.1. Ethics statement**

120 All animal experiments were approved by the University of
121 Idaho, U.S., Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC),
122 protocol numbers 2016–18, 2016–28 and 2016–29. The animal
123 care and use protocol adhered to the Animal Welfare Act set forth
124 under the U.S. Regulations and Standards in the Title 9 Code of Fed-
125 eral Regulations (CFR), Chapter 1, Subchapter A – Animal Welfare.

2.2. Horses (*Equus ferus caballus*)

127 This study utilized horses of various breeds and ages. The fol-
128 lowing horses were instrumental in work presented here. Three
129 horses (H14, H16915 and H21490) were from the region of Eagle
130 Pass, Texas. Seven additional horses, namely H196(S), H208(S),
131 H270, H296, H233, H248(S) and H301(S), where (S) stands for
132 “splenectomized”, were derived from a breeding herd located at
133 the University of Idaho, under protocol number 2016–18. All whole
134 blood transfers were carried out in citrate phosphate dextrose anti-
135 coagulant (Fenwal Inc., U.S.). H14 was the original source of blood.
136 Splenectomized horse H208(S) received 120 mL of whole blood
137 from H14. Two spleen-intact horses, H270 and H296, received
138 120 mL of whole blood from H16915 and H21490, respectively.
139 Spleen-intact horse H233 received a 2 mL stabilate, with 12% par-
140 asitized erythrocytes (PPE), derived from H208(S). Stabilates were
141 prepared as follows: whole blood was collected by jugular
142 venipuncture into a vacuum flask containing 200 g of 5 mm glass
143 beads and swirled until clotting occurred and blood defibrinated.
144 Erythrocytes and plasma were transferred to conical centrifuge
145 tubes and centrifuged at 1,400g for 10 min at 4 °C and plasma
146 and buffy coat discarded. The erythrocyte pellet was washed four
147 times in Puck’s Saline G solution (Life Technologies, U.S.) using
148 1,400g for 10 min at 4 °C centrifugation. An equal volume of 20%
149 polyvinylpyrrolidone in Puck’s Saline G cryopreservative was
150 added and aliquoted into cryogenic vials. Vials were frozen to
151 –80 °C overnight and transferred to liquid nitrogen for permanent
152 storage the next day. Splenectomized horses H248(S) and H301(S)
153 received 120 mL of whole blood from H233. H196(S) was infected
154 with *T. equi*TM (the reference *T. equi* Texas isolate) via intravenous
155 inoculation with 120 mL of whole blood from horses maintained
156 at the University of Idaho. Experimental horses received regular
157 health checks from a licensed veterinarian. Prior to blood transfer,
158 complete blood counts (CBCs) and serum chemistry panels were
159 normal.

2.3. Comparative morphological analysis of asexual intra-erythrocytic forms of *T. equi*TM and parasite from H248(S)

160 A Nikon Upright Microscope Eclipse Ci, with calibrated scale, was
161 used to measure parasite dimensions. Giemsa-stained blood slides
162 were examined with a Nikon Plan Fluor at 100X/1.30 oil. The width
163 and length of 40 individual masses from 10 Maltese crosses
164 (Yokoyama et al., 2003), were measured for *T. equi*TM and the parasite
165 from H248(S). The mean and standard deviation as well as the max-
166 imum width and length of individual Maltese cross masses were
167 determined. The giemsa-stained blood slides were obtained from
168 H248(S) and H196(S) infected with the new parasite or *T. equi*TM,
169 respectively (Scoles et al., 2011; Ueti et al., 2012). *Theileria equi*TM
170 was chosen because it was obtained from the same region as the
171 parasite derived from H248(S). Whole blood was collected from
172 both H248(S) and H196(S) at 14 days p.i. Images were acquired
173 using an Axio Imager M1 microscope (Carl Zeiss Microimaging,
174 Thornwood, NY, USA) equipped with an LED bright field illuminator,
175 Plan-Apochromat 63x/1.40 Oil M27 objective, AxioCam MRC5 digi-
176 tal camera, and AxioVision software (version 4.8.2.0; Carl Zeiss
177 Microimaging, Thornwood, NY, USA). Images were exported in TIFF
178 format and prepared for presentation using Photoshop Elements
179 (version 5.0, Adobe Systems Inc., San Jose, CA, USA).
180

2.4. Genomic sequencing and preliminary genome annotation

182 Parasite genomic DNA (gDNA) was obtained from infected red
183 blood cells of H248(S) and was used to generate a 3 Kbp Illumina
184

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