Original Article

Metagenomics Characterization of *Ixodes ricinus* Intestinal Microbiota as Major Vector of Tick-Borne Diseases in Domestic Animals

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Abstract

Background: Understanding the microbiota of disease vectors can help for developing new strategies to prevent the transmission of vector pathogens. *Ixodes ricinus* is one of the most notorious tick vectors with increasing importance in Iran and other parts of the world while there is limited data on its microbiota. This study aimed to use metagenomics for identifying the *I. ricinus* tick's microbiota of Iran.

Methods: A total of 39 adult ticks were collected from Mazandaran (21 females), Gilan (17 females), and Golestan (1 male). Five tick pools prepared from 39 adults of *I. ricinus* were subjected to metagenomics analysis. The data were analyzed by targeting the V6 region of the 16S rRNA gene by Illumina 4000 Hiseq sequencing.

Results: Among hundreds of intestinal microbiota identified by metagenomics, various pathogenic microorganisms distributed in 30 genera and species including those responsible for tick-borne diseases resided in the genera *Coxiella*, *Rickettsia*, and *Burkholderia* were found.

Conclusion: Our results indicated that metagenomics identifies bacteria genera and species which cannot be easily recognized by routine methods. The presence of such pathogenic bacteria indicates the importance of possible zoonotic diseases in this region which could affect public health. These results further substantiate the importance of advanced metagenomics analyses to identify neglected tick-borne pathogens which enable researchers to provide efficient mapping roads for the management of emerging and re-emerging infectious diseases.

Keywords: Tick-borne disease; Microbiota; Ixodes ricinus; Next-generation sequencing; Emerging pathogens

Introduction

Ticks are worldwide ectoparasites belonging to the Arachnida class, superorder parasitiformes

with over 900 species categorized into two families Ixodidae (hard ticks) and Argasidae (soft

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ticks) (1). Among over 700 hard ticks, Ixodes ricinus is one of the most abundant species infesting various hosts, including birds, mammals, and occasionally reptiles which derived from Acarus species (2, 3). They meet their nutritional requirements by feeding on the vertebrate's blood hosts and ecological and anthropogenic factors affect I. ricinus ticks' population and activity (4). Since I. ricinus ticks prefer a warm and humid environment, the temperature and the moisture amount in the air and soil are determinants (5); however, these ticks also occur in areas such as Iceland (6), which has a sub-polar oceanic climate with poor vegetation (7). The availability and the abundance of suitable hosts are other fundamental components. Nevertheless, geographical regions with lowlands, forests, and green pastures are excellent habitats for I. ricinus ticks geographical regions with lowlands, forests, and green pastures are excellent habitats for I. ricinus ticks (8). Moreover, agriculture-associated activities, biotope alteration, insecticides, and anti-tick vaccination for tick management are considered human-induced elements that impact the frequency of ticks (9). The microbiome (microbiota) is a group of diverse microorganisms present inside and outside another organism (10, 11). They can be symbiotic, commensal, or even pathogenic for the host. The tick microbiome includes different species of bacteria, viruses, and protozoa, some of which are called tick-borne pathogens (12, 13). Ticks carry a variety of microbiota inside their salivary glands, midgut, and ovary, and they can transmit them to their hosts (human or animal) during blood-feeding (14). Ixodes ricinus ticks are widely known as vectors of Tick-borne disease (TBDs) pathogens causing medical and veterinary conditions (15). Lyme disease and tick-borne encephalitis (TBE) are caused by Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato and the tick-borne encephalitis virus (TBEV), both harbored by I. ricinus (16). Some of the pathogens previously identified to be carried by I. ricinus are Babesia divergens (17), Babesia microti, Babesia venatorum (18), Anaplasma phagocytophilum (17), Rickettsia Helvetica (19), Rickettsia slovaca, Rickettsia monacensis (20), Borrelia miyamotoi (21), Ehrlichia phagocytophila (17), Louping ill virus (22), Bartonella henselae (23), Coxiella burnetii (24), and Francisella tularensis (25). Non-pathogenic microorganisms are also present in the tick's microbiome, including those involved in amino acid and lipid metabolism pathways (26). Metagenomics is the science of studying the genetic content of environmental samples. The next-generation sequencing method plays a vital role in analyzing DNA and RNA materials. This highthroughput technology provides a reliable and accurate way of identifying the microorganisms in almost any microbial community (11, 27). The V6 region of the 16S rRNA gene is highly conserved among different bacterial species and can provide reliable high resolution taxonomic classification of bacteria and archaea. This region is also relatively short and easy to amplify and to sequence using PCR-based methods, making it easier and more cost-effective compared to longer regions for large-scale metagenomic studies (27). The present study investigated the bacteria in the midgut of I. ricinus ticks collected from the Golestan, Mazandaran, and Gilan provinces in the northern part of Iran. This littoral region of the Caspian Sea is covered by the Hyrcanian forests creating a suitable environment for ticks' activity and reproduction regarding the humidity, temperature, and a vast range of suitable hosts. It is consequential to improve our knowledge about the pathogens in ticks to organize the best and most effective tick management strategies protecting both humans and animals (whether domestic or wild) against TBDs.

Materials and Methods

Study area and population

The study area in the Caspian Sea littoral of Iran included the southern border of the Caspian Sea and the northern heights of Alborz mountains, covering an area of 58,167 Km2 in three provinces of Gilan (37°04′27″N 50°12′ 35″E) Mazandaran (36.2262° N, 52.5319° E), and Golestan (37.2898° N, 55.1376° E). The Hyrcanian forest in northern Iran covers 3,400,000 hectares on the Alborz Mountains' northern slopes stretching down to the Caspian Sea coastal areas (Fig. 1). General characteristics of the climate are too much rain in all seasons, especially in autumn and winter, relatively high humidity in all seasons, and low-temperature difference during the day due to moisture.

Sampling

Ticks were collected from domestic animals, i.e., cattle and sheep, in autumn from 6 to 11 Nov. 2021 during the period of tick multiplication. The *I. ricinus* ticks were transferred to the laboratory immediately under ambient, live conditions and identified under stereomicroscope using available taxonomic key for ticks (28). A total number of 39 I. ricinus ticks isolated from cattle and sheep were collected in 5 localities (Table 1) (Fig. 1). The collected ticks were from different locations in the coastal area in the north of Iran. Only one male tick was among 39 collected ticks, considered a separate pool. Furthermore, this was from Golestan-Barfatan where no female tick was found. More data, such as location, number of ticks, and hosts, are available in Table 1.

Separation of midgut from *Ixodes ricinus*

To make sure no microorganism contamination from the ticks' surface or the environment enters our study, before doing any operation, the ticks were washed carefully in 70% alcohol for 3 minutes and then rinsed with sterile water alternatively three times. First, the ticks identified in the laboratory were placed individually on a slide, a few drops of molten paraffin were poured on them to keep the ticks fixed on the slide, and the paraffin was allowed to harden. The ticks were dissected under an entomological loop using a small pair of ophthalmic scissors. The ticks were dissected under an entomological loop using a small pair of ophthalmic scissors. The dorsal scutum and the white grape clusters-like salivary glands were

completely removed, then the whole intestinal section was separated and transferred to a sterile opener with some distilled water inside and then stored in a -20 °C freezer for DNA extraction steps.

DNA Extraction

DNA of isolated intestines was extracted using a genomic DNA extraction kit (Bio Basic, Canada according to the manufacturer's instructions. Isolates were disrupted by adding 200 mg of glass beads (0.2 mm diameter) Plus 400 μ L of lysis buffer (containing 200 M Tris-HCL, pH= 8, 25 mM EDTA, SDS 0.5% W/V, NaCl 250 mM) and vortexed using a Micro smash MS-100R (Tomy Seiko, Japan) at 4000 rpm for the 60 s. Then added 200 μ L buffer PP was to microtubes containing the above mixture and incubated at -20 °C for 5 minutes. Finally, DNA was extracted using the chloroform and isopropanol methods (29).

Metagenomics analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted from five pools prepared based on five locations (each pool contained the collected ticks of that location). The final product, a mix of microorganisms' DNA content, was sent to Macrogen Company (S. Korea) for sequencing. The DNA was amplified for V6 region of the 16S rRNA gene by Herculase II Fusion DNA Polymerase kit using 341F forward primer and 850-R reverse primer (primer sequence (CCTACGGGNGG CWGCAG) and (GACTACHVGGGTATCT AATCC), respectively. The library preparation was done by DNA Polymerase Nextera XT kit, which is suitable for working with small genomes. The product was sequenced with a Miseq device, and it was set to sequence the PCR product 300 base pairs from both ends. The MiSeq benchtop sequencer output is over 100,000 reads with a length of 300 and a total of more than 30 million bases. Then analysis was performed on the output Fastq file after checking the quality.

NGS data analysis

The first step in NGS data analysis is checking the quality of the raw fastq files by Fastqc and MultiQC (30, 31). It is notable that for 16 S amplicon sequencing, having many repeats in the samples is very common. DADA2 software was used to de-noise and join the forward and reverse reads (32). Trimming lengths for forward and reverse reads are very important in this step. Since the primers used were 341F and 850R, the expected length of amplicons is 850-341=509, so with paired-end read length equal to 300, we have 2*300-509=91 bases overlap without trimming. It is recommended to leave 20 + natural amplicon variance bases for overlap and trim the rest for best results. In checking with Fastqc results, the trim length for forward reads was set at 300 (no trimming) and for reverse reads at 250 (trimming 50 bases from the end). Since the length of the target region (509) is much higher than the read length (300), the risk of having an adapter sequence at the end of forward reads is negligible. Then the resulting OTUs were annotated with the SILVA (33) database assigning each sequence to the nearest species that share at least 90 percent of the sequence. QIIME 2 (34) platform has been utilized for visualization of data.

There are different methods for constructing a phylogenetic tree. The Maximum Likelihood (ML), which is the method we have used in this study infers a phylogenetic tree by calculating the likelihood of observing the given DNA or protein sequences under different evolutionary models and tree topologies. The tree with the highest likelihood is considered the most likely. ML is a powerful method that can incorporate complex models of sequence evolution, but it can be computationally intensive and may require substantial computational resources (35).

Results

Thirty-nine ticks were collected from three neighboring provinces of Gilan, Mazandaran, and Golestan in the north of Iran, creating five

pools based on the localities (Fig. 1). Following DNA extraction of each pool and amplification of V6 region of the 16S rRNA gene, sequence reads of 98042 (MOT11311), 114951 (MOT15054), 103101 (MOT15055), 68754 (MOT15056), and 112262 (MOT15061) were obtained from sequencing by Miseq Illumina. A large number of bacteria and the archaea phylum Woesearchaeota were observed in the tick microbiome community data. Because the total read count of Woesearchaeota was only 14, so we considered it low confidence and removed it from our data focusing only on bacteria. Also, there were 275 unassigned reads. The dominant taxonomy levels of phylum, class, order, family, genus, and species belonged to Proteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria, Rickettsiales. Rickettsiales Incertae sedis. Candidatus midichloria, and Burkholderia sp. A3 (2016), while the minimum belonged to Fusobacteria, Holophagae, Holophagae. Subgroup 7, Nocardiaceae, Curtobacterium, and Curtobacterium sp. SW30, respectively.

Fourteen phyla were found in the five pools together (Figs. 2 and 3). Phylogenetic relationship of microbiota from *I. ricinus* intestine prepared by metagenomics analyses is shown in Fig.

Following Proteobacteria with over 93% frequency, Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria, and Firmicutes were the most frequent phyla consisting of over 1% of the reads, and they exist in all pools despite low abundance in some. The rest (6% of the reads) were the reads with no related bacteria identified or bacteria with low read counts that were removed.

The analysis showed a difference in the relative abundance of the pool appointed to the male tick with the female's pool. The Armatimonadetes, Ignavibacteriae, Fusobacteria, and Saccharibacteria phyla were seen in the male tick microbiota but not in females. In contrast, Deinococcus-Thermus and Spirochaetae were only observed in females. Furthermore, the dominant phyla were different in the male sample. For example, the Actinobacteria phylum is far more frequent in the only male tick analyzed. Fig. 3 shows the relative abundance of each sample in 4-6 of taxonomy levels (level 4: order, level 5: family, level 6: genus). The abundance of the top 30 detected bacteria with the most frequencies can be found in Table 2. Our results showed that pathogenic bacteria in the Rickettsia genera are the predominant pathogenic organisms in our collected ticks which could be representative of the higher presence of rickettsiosis in the region of study. Indeed, the presence of *Burkholderia*, *Corynebacterium*, *Coxiella* and *Pseudomonas* in our samples showed the probable importance of neglected diseases but no significant difference was observed between sampling locations.

Sample ID	Province (Village)	Location	Number of tick(s)	Gender	Host
MOT1131	Golestan-Barfatan	36°53′05″N 54°47′54″E	1	Male	Sheep
MOT15054	Mazandaran (Klardasht-Banafsheh Deh)	36°30′00″N 51°15′00″E	11	Female	Cattle
MOT15061	Mazandaran (Chamestan-Joorband)	36°26′26″N 52°07′16″E	8	Female	Sheep
MOT15055	Mazandaran (Salman Shahr-Sisara)	36°42′12″N 51°13′50″E	2	Female	Cattle
MOT15056	Gilan (Narenjbon)	37°04′27″N 50°12′35″E	17	Female	Cattle

Table 1. Detailed information of tick sampling in the north of Iran	Table 1. Detailed	information	of tick sample	ing in the	e north of Iran
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Table 2. Metagenomics data of relative abundance of top 30 identified bacteria at genus and species level in five pooled samples of *Ixodes ricinus* based on genus and species

Bacteria	RA *	Bacteria	RA*	
Candidatus midichloria	0.69380803	Burkholderia sp. A3(2016)	0.058673062	
Rickettsia	0.093340712	Ralstonia sp. 14I	0.012101088	
Ralstonia	0.058673062	alpha proteobacterium Gsoil 1161	0.005054418	
Sediminibacterium	0.012101088	Bradyrhizobium elkanii	0.003320421	
Bradyrhizobium	0.008091988	Bradyrhizobium sp. CCBAU 51357	0.001586423	
Nitrobacter	0.006222714	Staphylococcus chromogenes	0.001463445	
Aquabacterium	0.006161225	Pseudomonas putida	0.001180594	
uncultured	0.00538646	Wautersiella sp. MBG55	0.001119105	
uncultured	0.004968333	Pseudomonas putida W15Oct28	0.000836254	
Mesorhizobium	0.004722376	uncultured Deinococci bacterium	0.000823956	
Burkholderia-Paraburkholderia	0.004710078	Lactobacillus delbrueckii subsp. delbrueckii	0.000737871	
Reyranella	0.004316547	Zea luxurians	0.000737871	
Acinetobacter	0.002803911	uncultured Streptococcus sp.	0.000725573	
Shewanella	0.002607145	Lactococcus lactis	0.000700978	
Pseudomonas	0.00252106	wastewater metagenome	0.000676382	
Corynebacterium1	0.002299699	Pseudomonas sp. HOT12	0.000676382	
Staphylococcus	0.002152124	bacterium#1 from Psoroptes ovis	0.000627191	
Sulfuritalea	0.002102933	Paracoccus sp. B-1012	0.000565701	
Sphingobacterium	0.001807785	uncultured Methylocella sp.	0.000553403	
uncultured	0.001733997	Shewanella sp. AK55	0.000541106	
Citrobacter	0.001623317	Staphylococcus sp. NR 4-12	0.00051651	
Coxiella	0.001611019	Sphingobacterium multivorum	0.00051651	
Enhydrobacter	0.001537232	Stenotrophomonas maltophilia	0.000430425	
Rhizomicrobium	0.001475742	Sediminibacterium sp. OTC15	0.000405829	
Streptococcus	0.001426551	Nevskia terrae	0.000405829	
Nevskia	0.001401955	Staphylococcus sp. J33	0.000393531	
Bacillus	0.001266679	Caulobacter sp. UR 6-06	0.000356638	

Table 2. Continued				
Delftia	0.001266679	Comamonas aquatica	0.00034434	
Empedobacter	0.001168296	Bacterium R78	0.00034434	
Sorangium	0.001155998	Microbacterium laevaniformans	0.000319744	

*Relative Abundance

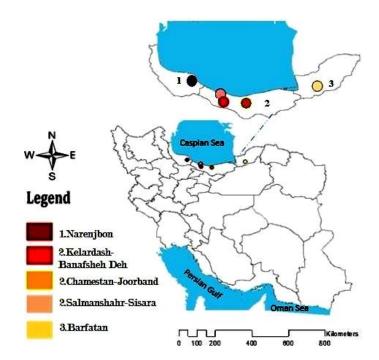
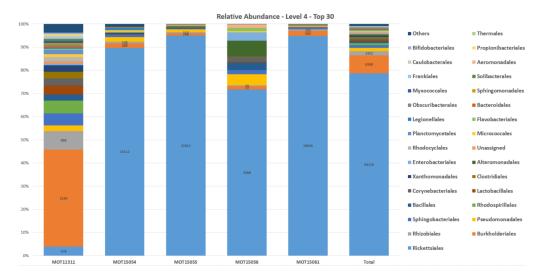


Fig. 1. Geographic distribution of *Ixodes ricinus* sampels in Gilan (No. 1), Mazandaran (No. 2) and Golestan (No. 3) provinces in the north of Iran using ArcGIS software. Esri

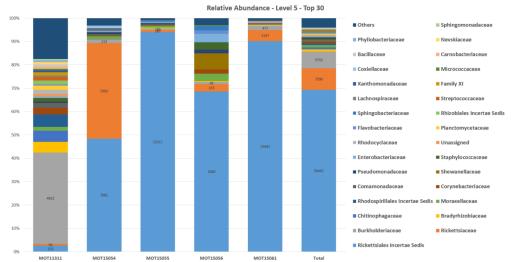
			Rickettsiales
			Rhizobiales
		Alphapretesbacteria	Rhodospirillales
			Sphingomonadales
		·	Caulobacterales
		Betaproteobacteria	Burkholderiales
		becapioteobacteria	Rhodocyclales
	Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	Myxococcales
		Denaproteobacteria	Oligoflexales
			Pseudomonadales
			Xanthomonadales
		Gammaproteobacteria	Alteromonadales
		Gammaproteobacteria	Enterobacteriales
			Legionellales
			Aeromonadales
			Corynebacteriales
			Micrococcales
	Actinobacteria	Actinobacteria	Frankiales
Bacteria		the second s	Propionibacteriales
			Bifidobacteriales
		Bacilli	Bacillales
	Firmicutes	Bacilli	Lactobacillales
	1 mineuces	Clostridia	Clostridiales
		Sphingobacteriia	Sphingobacteriales
	Basteroidetes	Flavobacteriia	
		Bacteroidia	Bacteroidales
	Cyanobactoria	Melainabasteria	Obscuribacterales
	Deinececcus Thermus	Deinesesi	Thermales
	Planetomycetes	Planetomyeetacia	Planctomycetales
	Acidobacteria	Solibastores	Betaproteobacteria

Fig. 2. Phylogenetic relationship of microbiota from *I. ricinus* intestine prepared by metagenomics analyses in 4 taxonomy levels of domain, phylum, class, and order using Biopython 1.81, Phylo library

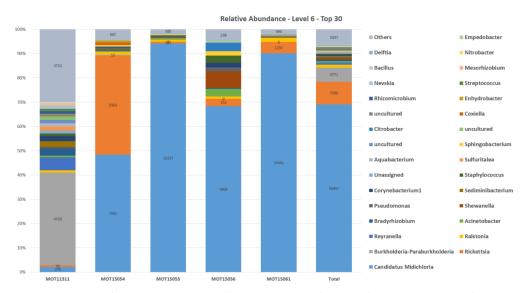


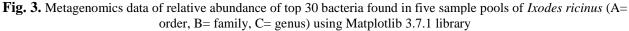






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Discussion

This study was conducted to reveal and identification of midgut microbiota of *I. ricinus* ticks and their impact on disease distribution in 3 Northern provinces of Iran. Our data exhibited 14 phyla, of which Bacteria, Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Firmicutes were the most abundant. In our study, Proteobacteria were the most abundant, which was consistent with a study in Italy and Spain (36, 37). In a study conducted in Iran on *Hyalomma anatolicum* tick, Proteobacteria was also the most abundant (38).

The present study also investigated the relative abundance of bacterial species in the I. ricinus tick. Among the different bacteria examined, 30 were more abundant in 5 pools of ticks. Similar to the present results, Bacteria, Actinobacteria, and Firmicutes were the most abundant after Proteobacteria, which accounted for more than 0.01% of the readings (39). Interestingly, in the study in Italy and Slovakia (36, 40), Actinobacteria were collected as one of the dominant groups in I. ricinus ticks and were much more abundant than the results of our research. According to the findings of previous studies, genus of Candidatus midichloria (0.69), Rickettsia (0.09), Ralstonia (0.05), and species of Burkholderia sp. (0.05), Ralstonia sp. 14I (0.01), alpha-proteobacterium Gsoil 1161 (0.00) was found with the highest frequency.

The results of our study were consistent with those of Spain (37) that Candidatus midichloria the most abundant bacteria in I. ricinus ticks. The high abundance of this bacterium may indicate the endosymbiosis of Candidatus midichloria mitochondrii (CMM)(41), whose high abundance in I. ricinus material is associated with its unique ability to localize inside mitochondria in the tick ovary. Because this endosymbiont is consistently detected in oocytes, CMM is thought to be maternally inherited (42). The results of the present study were consistent with the previous studies, so that in Italy and Slovakia, the Rickettsia genus was associated with large amounts in the collected I. ricinus ticks (36, 40). Also, another study identified a

close relationship between some tick symbionts and the potential presence of pathogenic Rickettsia or a parasitoid in ticks (43). In a study in Iran, Rickettsia was observed in the intestine of Hyalomma anatolicum tick (38). Another pathogen observed in the results of our study was Coxiella, which was not found in previous studies (39). This pathogen is the cause of Q fever, which is one of the common diseases between humans and animals. This disease affects many populations including human and animals every year and carries a high disease burden (44). Coxiella (45), Rickettsia (46), flavivirus (47), Crimean-Congo heamorraghic fever (48), and Burkholderia (49) are among major health challenges impacting human and animals in Iran. As these diseases are zoonoses, they cause a significant disease burden for health systems every year (50).

Also, our data showed sex-dependent differences in microbiota in ticks. Unfortunately, due to financial constraints, we could not collect more ticks and only one male tick was observed in our study. The only male tick analyzed showed significantly higher bacterial richness and greater overall diversity than its females. A less diverse microbiota in female ticks has also been previously reported for some other tick species and in previous studies, the sample size of ticks was similar to our study (51, 52). However, in a study in America in 2021, female microbiota showed a significantly higher bacterial richness in one of the areas. Still, in general, it had less diversity than its male counterparts (53). The current study can provide preliminary data for further investigations. We also used the new metagenomics method to study and identify the tick's midgut, which showed a significant difference in the different types of pathogenic bacteria. Finally, this study observed zoonotic pathogens in the tick's intestine, indicating the importance of zoonotic diseases in the region.

Conclusion

In this study, the frequency of pathogenic bacteria in ticks was higher in males than that of females. Metagenomics enabled us to identify bacteria such as *Coxiella*, *Rickettsia* and *Burkholderia* which cannot be easily recognized by routine methods. The presence of such pathogenic bacteria indicates the importance of possible zoonotic diseases in this region which could affect the public health meaningfully. Overall, these results further substantiate the importance of advanced metagenomics analyses to identify neglected tick-borne diseases which provide mapping roads for management of emerging and re-emerging infectious diseases.

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Ethical considerations

There was no human and animal study that needed ethical concerns.

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare there is no conflict of interests.

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