

Prevalence, hematological findings and genetic diversity of *Bartonella* spp. in domestic cats from Valdivia, Southern Chile

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SUMMARY

The present study determined the prevalence, hematological findings and genetic diversity of *Bartonella* spp. in domestic cats from Valdivia, Southern Chile. A complete blood count and *nuoG* gene real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) for *Bartonella* spp. were performed in 370 blood samples from cats in Valdivia, Southern Chile. *nuoG* qPCR-positive samples were submitted to conventional PCR for the *gltA* gene and sequencing for species differentiation and phylogenetic analysis. Alignment of *gltA* gene was used to calculate the nucleotide diversity, polymorphic level, number of variable sites and average number of nucleotide differences. *Bartonella* DNA prevalence in cats was 18·1% (67/370). Twenty-nine samples were sequenced with 62·0% (18/29) identified as *Bartonella henselae*, 34·4% (10/29) as *Bartonella clarridgeiae*, and 3·4% (1/29) as *Bartonella koehlerae*. *Bartonella*-positive cats had low DNA bacterial loads and their hematological parameters varied minimally. Each *Bartonella* species from Chile clustered together and with other *Bartonella* spp. described in cats worldwide. *Bartonella henselae* and *B. clarridgeiae* showed a low number of variable sites, haplotypes and nucleotide diversity. *Bartonella clarridgeiae* and *B. koehlerae* are reported for the first time in cats from Chile and South America, respectively.

Key words: Bartonella henselae, Bartonella clarridgeiae, Bartonella koehlerae, cat scratch disease, qPCR, South America.

INTRODUCTION

The Bartonella genus includes fastidious haemotropic Gram-negative bacteria mainly transmitted by arthropod-vectors (Chomel et al. 2009). Over the last 20 years, the number of Bartonella species or subspecies identified from a wide range of mammals has increased considerably (Chomel et al. 2009). Among the species or subspecies known or suspected to be pathogenic for humans, three have the domestic cat as their natural reservoir, namely Bartonella henselae, Bartonella clarridgeiae (Boulouis et al. 2005) and Bartonella koehlerae (Mogollon-Pasapera et al. 2009). Bartonella henselae and B. clarridgeiae are associated with cat-scratch disease (CSD) and other syndromes in humans and are the most commonly identified Bartonella species in cats, worldwide (Boulouis et al. 2005; Breitschwerdt et al. 2010b). Bartonella koehlerae was previously reported as a cause of human endocarditis (Avidor et al. 2004; Chomel et al. 2009).

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Considering that bacteria from the Bartonella genus are fastidious to grow in vitro, serological [Indirect Fluorescent Antibody Test (IFAT) and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)] and molecular [conventional and real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (cPCR and qPCR), respectively] techniques are widely used for the diagnosis of Bartonella infection (Mogollon-Pasapera et al. 2009). Serological tests have limited specificity due to cross-reactions and inconsistent results (Maggi et al. 2011). Molecular techniques are sensitive and allow species identification (Fenollar and Raoult, 2004). cPCR assays have limited sensitivity compared with qPCR (André et al. 2016). A pre-enrichment liquid culture medium ('Bartonella Alpha Proteobacteria Growth Medium', BAPGM) prior to PCR was suggested to improve the sensitivity of molecular techniques, mainly for detecting Bartonella species in biological samples from non-reservoir hosts, including humans (Maggi et al. 2005, 2011; Breitschwerdt et al. 2010a; Pérez et al. 2011).

The prevalence rates of *Bartonella* spp. detected by PCR vary considerably among cat populations, with an increase from cold (0% in Norway) (Bergh

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et al. 2002) to warm and humid climates (61% in the Philippines) (Chomel et al. 1999). Although Bartonella spp. infection in cats can vary between areas, it is often associated with flea infestation (Boulouis et al. 2005). Bartonella spp. infection is associated with extended, often subclinical (Kordick et al. 1999), asymptomatic, with long-lasting intraerythrocytic bacteremia in domestic cats (Chomel et al. 2009). Understanding the potential associations between Bartonella spp. infection and clinical disease in cats is complicated. There is little information about haematological abnormalities in naturally infected cats (Breitschwerdt, 2008).

In Chile, few reports have assessed the prevalence of Bartonella in cats. An overall B. henselae seropositivity of 85% was found in cats sampled in three cities (Coquimbo, Santiago and Valdivia) (Ferrés et al. 2005). Another study in Valdivia, Southern Chile, described a B. henselae serosurvey of 71% (Zaror et al. 2002). Additionally, 41.7% (25/60) of blood samples from cats in Santiago, Central Chile, were culture positive for *Bartonella*, and confirmed as *B*. henselae by 16S RNA gene sequencing (Ferrés et al. 2005). Nevertheless, the molecular prevalence of Bartonella spp. in cats from Southern Chile and its strain diversity are not yet known. Bartonella detected in 10.8% was Ctenocephalides felis fleas collected from cats sampled in Chilean animal pounds (Pérez-Martínez et al. 2009). After PCR amplification and sequencing of rpoB, gltA genes and the 16–23S rRNA intergenic transcribed spacer, the species involved were identified as B. clarridgeiae and B. henselae (Pérez-Martínez et al. 2009). Increased exposure to cats, particularly kittens and cat-related trauma were associated with a higher prevalence of Bartonellaassociated disease (Boulouis etal.Breitschwerdt et al. 2010a). In Chile, the disease is not of mandatory reporting. Nevertheless, more than 200 human cases of bartonellosis were diagnosed between 1997 and 2000 (Ferrés et al. 2005). According to previous studies, cats play a major role as B. henselae reservoirs in Chile; consequently, humans who have contact with those animals are at risk (Ferrés et al. 2005). The present study aimed at determining the prevalence, haematological findings and genetic diversity of Bartonella spp. in domestic cats from Valdivia, Southern Chile.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Animals and area of study

The study was approved by the Universidad Austral de Chile (UACh) bioethics committee under the protocol number UACh 142/2013.

To accurately determine *Bartonella* spp. prevalence in Valdivia (39 48 30 S, 73 14 30 W), Southern Chile, the required sample size was

estimated considering a prevalence of 50%, which fits the criteria when prevalence is unknown (Thrusfield, 2007), and corrected according to the cat population of Valdivia (Zuñiga, 2007), providing a sample of 370 cats. A 5% precision and 95% confidence interval were used (Thrusfield, 2007). Over a 15-month period (August 2013-November 2014), 370 client-owned cats had their blood sampled by a veterinary team. The cats came from all Valdivia city locations in order to acquire balanced and representative sampling. Samples were taken from: (1) cats during home visits to pet-owning households; and (2) cats admitted to the Veterinary Hospital of UACh, Valdivia (Fig. 1). Cats were sampled regardless of age, gender, health and reproductive status. Each owner signed a consent form before samples were taken.

Haematological analysis

Blood samples were collected aseptically by cephalic or jugular venipuncture, divided into two EDTA collecting plastic tubes (Vacutainer®), and sent to the UACh Veterinary Clinical Pathology Laboratory. One EDTA anticoagulated blood sample was stored at -20 °C until DNA extraction/purification. The other EDTA anticoagulated blood was used to perform a complete blood count (CBC). The following parameters were analysed: red blood cell, white blood cell (WBC) and platelet counts; haemoglobin concentration; packed red cell volume; mean corpuscular volume (MCV); and mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration. An automated haematology analyser, KX-21N (Sysmex[©], Japan), was used. The blood smears were stained with rapid staining (Hemacolor®, Merck) for a differential WBC count.

DNA extraction/purification

Frozen EDTA blood samples were thawed at room temperature and vortexed. DNA extraction from $100\,\mu\text{L}$ of blood was performed using a DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (QIAGEN Valencia, CA, USA) and was eluted with $100\,\mu\text{L}$ of elution buffer, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Concentration and purity were determined using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific USA). The absorbance ratio 260 and 280 nm (OD₂₆₀/OD₂₈₀) provided an estimate of sample purity, accepting a ratio of 1.8 ± 0.2 as 'pure'.

Endogenous control real-time PCR

The 28S rDNA gene was used as an internal control for a PCR assay for feline genomic DNA (Helps et al. 2005) using primers feline-28S rDNAFw (5'-AGCAGGAGGTGTTGGAAGA G-3') and feline-28S rDNARv (5'-AGG GAGA GCCTAAATCAAAGG-3') to discard the presence

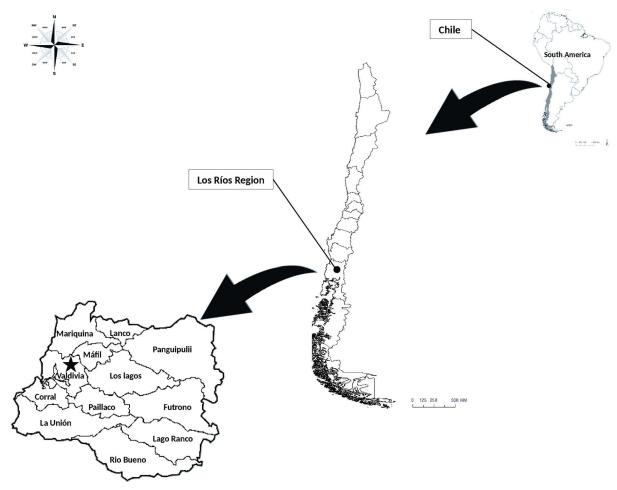


Fig. 1. Map of Chile, showing Valdivia City located in the Los Ríos Region, where samples from cats were taken (MapInfo Professional 7.5 SCP).

of PCR inhibitors. The reaction mixture was composed of 12·5 μL of Maxima[®]SYBR Green/Rox Master Mix (Thermo Scientific[®], USA), 300 nm of the forward and reverse primers and 5 μL of DNA template, brought to a total volume of 25 μL with nuclease-free water (Thermo Scientific[®], USA). The amplification conditions were 50 °C for 2 min and 95 °C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 1 min. Reactions were performed in a Stratagene Mx3000PTM (Agilent Technologies).

qPCR for Bartonella spp.

28S rDNA cPCR-positive samples were subsequently submitted to a previously described qPCR for *Bartonella* spp. targeting nuoG gene (André et~al.~2016). Amplification reactions were performed in duplicate using $10~\mu$ L of PCR mixtures containing $5~\mu$ L of Go Taq® Probe qPCR Master Mix, dTTP (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), $1,2~\mu$ M of each primer [F-Bart (5'-CAATCTTCTTTTG CTTCACC-3') and R-Bart (5'- TCAGGGCTTT ATGTGAATAC-3'), hydrolysis probe [TexasRed-

5'-TTYGTCATTTGAACACG-3'(BHQ2a-Q)3'] and $1 \mu L$ of the DNA sample. PCR amplifications were conducted in Low-Profile MultiplateTM Unskirted PCR Plates (BioRad®, Hercules, CA, USA) using a CFX96 Thermal Cycler (BioRad[©]). The amplification conditions were 95 °C for 3 min followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 10 min and 52.8 °C for 30 s. The qPCR was performed following the MIQE (Minimum Information for Publication of Quantitative Real-Time PCR Experiments) (Bustin et al. 2009). Amplification efficiency (E) was calculated from the slope of the standard curve in each run using the following formula ($E = 10^{-1/\text{slope}}$). Copy numbers were estimated using 10-fold serial dilutions of pIDTS-MART plasmids (Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA, USA) encoding the nuoGB. henselae sequence (insert containing 83 bp). The number of plasmid copies was determined according to the formula $[Xg \mu L^{-1} DNA/ (plasmid length)]$ in bp × 660)] × 6.022 × 10^{23} × plasmid copies μL^{-1} . Bartonella henselae DNA obtained from a naturally infected cat (Miceli et al. 2013) was used as a positive control. All PCR runs were performed with

nuclease-free water (Thermo Scientific[©], USA) as a negative control. Replicates showing a Cq difference higher than 0.5 were retested.

cPCR for Bartonella spp.

For further molecular characterization and species differentiation, nuoG Bartonella qPCR-positive samples were tested using a previously described (Billeter et al. 2011) cPCR targeting a 767-bp fragment of the citrate synthase gene (gltA), using primers CS443f (5'- GCTATGTCTGCATTC TATCA-3') and CS1210r (5'-GATCYT CAATC ATTTCTTTCCA-3'). Each DNA sample (5 μ L) was used as a template in $25 \mu L$ reaction mixtures containing 10× PCR buffer, 1.5 mm MgCl₂, 0.2 mm deoxynucleotide triphosphate (dNTPs) mixture, 0.625 U Platinum Taq DNA Polymerase (Invitrogen[©], Carlsbad, CA, USA), and 0.5 μM of each primer. cPCR amplification reactions were performed using a T100 BioRad termocycler (BioRad[©]) with the following cycling conditions: 94 °C for 2 min; 45 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 48 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 1 min; and one cycle of 72 °C for 5 min. PCR products were separated by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide. To prevent PCR contamination, DNA extraction, reaction setup, PCR amplification and electrophoresis were performed in separate rooms. Gels were visualized under ultraviolet light using the Image Lab Software version 4.1 (BioRad[©]). The reaction products were purified using the Silica Bead DNA gel extraction kit (Fermentas[®], São Paulo, SP, Brazil).

Sequencing and Phylogenetic analysis

Only gltA-cPCR-positive samples presenting strong band intensity were submitted for sequencing. Sanger sequencing was performed on purified amplified DNA fragments from positive samples in an automatic sequencer (ABI Prism 310 genetic analyser; Applied Biosystems[©]/Perkin-Elmer) for species identification and subsequent phylogenetic analysis. Consensus sequences were obtained through analysis of the sequenced products, from both the forward and the reverse oligonucleotides, using the CAP3 program (http://mobyle.pasteur.fr/ cgi-bin/MobylePortal/portal.py). Primer sequences were trimmed from the consensus sequences prior to Blastn analysis. Comparisons with sequences in GenBank were performed using the basic local alignment search tool (BLASTn). The sequences were aligned with sequences published in GenBank using Clustal/W and manually adjusted in Bioedit v. 7.0.5.3 (Carlsbad). Phylogenetic inference based on maximum-likelihood criterion (ML) was inferred with RAxML-HPC BlackBox 7.6.3 (Statamakis et al. 2008) through the CIPRES Science Gateway

(Miller *et al.* 2010) estimating the proportion of invariable sites by an evolutive model GAMMA GTR + I.

Nucleotide diversity

The alignment sequences of the gltA gene, amplified in the present study, were used to calculate the nucleotide diversity (π) , polymorphic level [haplotype diversity (Hd)], number of variable sites (vs) and the average number of nucleotide differences (K) using the DnaSP v5.10 (Librado and Rozas, 2009).

Statistical analysis

To determine Bartonella spp. prevalence, qPCRpositive cats were divided by the total number of cats sampled and multiplied by 100. The observed prevalence rates were expressed in percentages and the 95% IC was calculated. Descriptive statistics were obtained for haematological parameters and the cats were divided into two groups according to their Bartonella spp. status based on the qPCR results: Bartonella spp. negative or Bartonella spp. positive. The normal distribution of data was evaluated by a Shapiro-Wilk's test. The non-normally distributed data were analysed using the Kruskal-Wallis test to determine if there were any significant differences between the haematological variables of the Bartonella spp. status groups. A P-value ≤ 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Data were analysed using RStudio version 0.99.903 and were available for all 370 cats, except for platelet counts, which were available only for 171 cats.

RESULTS

Bartonella spp. qPCR results

All 370 DNA samples [median and standard deviation (s.d.) of DNA concentration = $26 \cdot 5 \pm 12 \cdot 3$ ng μL^{-1} ; mean and s.d. 260/280 ratio = $1 \cdot 79 \pm 0 \cdot 07$] were positive for the feline 28S rDNA endogenous gene. Molecular prevalence of *Bartonella* DNA in cats by qPCR (mean and s.d. efficiency of reactions: $96 \cdot 1 \pm 0 \cdot 83\%$, $r^2 = 0 \cdot 998 \pm 0 \cdot 00046$) was $18 \cdot 1\%$ (67/370) (95% CI $14 \cdot 422 \cdot 5\%$). Thirty-eight samples had a consistent Cq (mean and s.d. $30 \cdot 21 \pm 2 \cdot 93$) and quantification (mean $1 \cdot 32 \times 10^3$; minimunmaximun $2 \cdot 13 \times 10^0 - 3 \cdot 19 \times 10^4$ moG-copies μL^{-1}) (Table 1). Twenty-nine cats had inconsistent Bartonella-qPCR quantification assays, due to that, their Cq and quantification results were not registered in the present work.

cPCR results and phylogenetic analysis

Of 67 *nuoG*-qPCR-positive samples, 49 (73%) were *gltA*-cPCR-positive and 29 were sequenced.

Table 1. Bartonella spp.-positive cat blood samples with their respective Cq (cycle of quantification) and quantification (nuoG-copies μL^{-1}) mean values obtained by qPCR assays, and the Bartonella species identified by BLASTn analysis

				Closest BLAST identity (%)			
Bartonella spp. nuoG qPCR-positive samples	Cq mean values	Quantification (nuoG-copies μL^{-1})	gltA cPCR	Organism	Identity	Accession number	
A6B	NA	NA	Positive NS	_	_	_	
A1C	NA	NA	Negative	- D " 1	-	-	
A3C	28.18	6.22×10^2	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
A5C	30·85	2.22×10^2	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
A7C A1E	NA NA	NA NA	Negative Positive	– Bartonella	- (100%)	- FN645454.1	
AIL	INA	IVA	1 OSITIVE	clarridgeiae	(10070)	111073737.1	
A8E	NA	NA	Positive NS	-	_	_	
A10E	29.72	2.47×10^{3}	Positive	Bartonella	(100%)	FN645454.1	
				clarridgeiae	` ′		
A10F	NA	NA	Negative	_	_	_	
A10G	NA	NA	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
A5I	NA	NA	Negative	_	_	_	
B10A	26.70	4.08×10^3	Positive	Bartonella	(100%)	KJ170236.1	
D4C	20.24	4 24 × 10 ²	D	clarridgeiae	(1000/)	110005002.1	
B4C	30·24 27·72	$ 4.34 \times 10^2 2.24 \times 10^3 $	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
B5C	21.12	2·24 × 10	Positive	Bartonella clarridgeiae	(100%)	FN645454.1	
B6C	NA	4.42×10^2	Positive	Bartonella clarridgeiae	(100%)	FN645454.1	
B7C	NA	NA	Positive	Bartonella khoelerae	(100%)	AF176091.1	
B2D	26.66	4.85×10^{2}	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
B4D	30.24	8.0×10^{2}	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
B1E	31.25	5.46×10^{0}	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(99%)	HG965802.1	
B7E	29.47	7.35×10^{1}	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(99%)	HG965802.1	
B1F	31.20	5.78×10^{0}	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(99%)	HG965802.1	
B2F	30.10	2.11×10^{2}	Positive NS	_	_	_	
B3F	21.80	3.19×10^4	Positive NS	_	_	_	
B4F	32.12	3.15×10^{1}	Positive NS	-	-	_	
B5F	31.59	4.49×10^1	Positive	Bartonella	(100%)	FN645454.1	
B6F	27.22	8.14×10^{2}	Positive	clarridgeiae Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
B7F	32.23	2.19×10^{1}	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
B9F	NA	NA	Negative	-	(10070)	-	
B2G	34.88	2.13×10^{0}	Positive NS	_	_	_	
B3G	NA	NA	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
B4G	NA	NA	Negative	_	_	_	
B5G	NA	NA	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(99%)	HG965802.1	
B5H	27.61	1.14×10^{3}	Positive	Bartonella	(100%)	FN645454.1	
				clarridgeiae			
B8H	31.37	9.56×10^{1}	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG969191.1	
В9Н	35.85	5.05×10^{0}	Negative	_	_	_	
B10H	29.12	4.24×10^2	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG969191.1	
B2I	NA	NA	Positive NS	_	_	_	
C6A	33.16	2.93×10^{1}	Positive NS	_	_	_	
C9A	NA	NA	Positive NS	_	_	_	
C6B C7B	NA NA	NA NA	Negative Negative	_	_	_	
C8B	34·06	2.54×10^{1}	Positive NS	_	_	_	
C3B C2C	29.12	2.54×10^{2} 2.51×10^{2}	Negative NS	_	_	_	
C3C	25.65	2.57×10^{3} 2.57×10^{3}	Negative	_	_	_	
C2D	29.33	3.95×10^{1}	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(99%)	HG965802.1	
C1E	NA	NA	Positive NS	_	(<i>>></i> /0)	-	
C2E	NA	NA	Positive NS	_	_	_	
C3E	NA	NA	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(99%)	HG965802.1	
C4E	NA	NA	Positive NS	_		_	
C5E	32.28	4.52×10^{0}	Positive NS	_	_	_	
C9F	NA	NA	Positive	Bartonella henselae	(100%)	HG965802.1	
C2G	NA	NA	Negative	_	_	_	

Table 1. (Cont.)

Bartonella spp. nuoG qPCR-positive samples	Cq mean values	Quantification (nuoG-copies μL^{-1})	gltA cPCR	Closest BLAST identity (%)			
				Organism	Identity	Accession number	
C7G	NA	NA	Negative	_	_	_	
C8G	29.51	2.88×10^2	Positive	Bartonella clarridgeiae	(100%)	FN645454.1	
C5H	NA	NA	Positive NS	_	_	_	
C1J	32.04	1.61×10^1	Positive	Bartonella clarridgeiae	(100%)	FN645454.1	
C2J	26.32	8.25×10^{2}	Positive	-	_	_	
D9A	26.91	5.44×10^2	Positive	Bartonella clarridgeiae	(100%)	FN645454.1	
D6B	32.27	5.67×10^{0}	Negative	_	_	_	
D3D	33.05	3.51×10^{0}	Negative	_	_	_	
D6D	30.72	2.47×10^{2}	Positive NS	_	_	_	
D8D	35.08	1.66×10^{1}	Negative	_	_	_	
D8E	32.11	1.04×10^{2}	Positive NS	_	_	_	
D1H	NA	NA	Negative	_	_	_	
D2H	NA	NA	Positive NS	_	_	_	
D4H	NA	NA	Negative	_	_	_	
D6H	30.19	1.13×10^2	Positive NS	_	_	_	

cPCR, conventional PCR; NS, cPCR-positive sample but with a weak band intensity, which precluded sequencing; NA, data not available due to inconsistent results.

Twenty gltA-cPCR-positive samples presented weak band intensity, precluding sequencing. BLAST and phylogenetic analyses supported the identification of $62\cdot0\%$ (18/29) as B. henselae, $34\cdot4\%$ as B. clarridgeiae (10/29) and $3\cdot4\%$ (1/29) as B. koehlerae (Table 1).

Analysis of 14 sequenced products based on the gltA gene (GenBank accession numbers KX024499, KX024500, KX024503, KX024505, KX024509-KX024513, KX024515–KX024518, KX024520– KX024524) showed 99–100% identicalness with B. henselae (GenBank accession numbers HG965802; KJ170236). These fragments were positioned close to other B. henselae isolates, supported by high bootstrap values (96) in maximum-likelihood phylogeneitc analysis. Additionally, the analysis of six sequenced products based on the gltA region (GenBank accession numbers KX024501, KX024502, KX024504, KX024506, KX024507, KX024514, KX024519, KX024525-KX024527) showed 100% sequence identity with B. clarridgeiae (GenBank accession number FN645454 and KJ170236), and clustering with other B. clarridgeiae isolates. Finally, the analysis of one sequenced product based on the gltA region (GenBank accession number KX024508) showed 100% identicalness with B. koehlerae (GenBank accession number AF176091) and was positioned close to the American isolate (Fig. 2).

Nucleotide diversity

Overall, the *Bartonella* species identified in the present study had a low genetic diversity. Of the

18 *B. henselae gltA* sequences analysed, only three different haplotypes were identified. The haplotype number #Bh1 with ten sequences was the most abundant haplotype, haplotypes # Bh2 and # Bh3 contained two and six sequences, respectively. Additionally, only two haplotypes were identified in the *B. clarridgeiae* sequences. While nine sequences formed the haplotype number #Bc1, only one sequence formed the haplotype number #Bc2. Both *Bartonella* species had a low number of variable sites, haplotypes and nucleotide diversity (Table 2).

Haematological analysis

All variables were non-normally distributed. The only haematological parameter that was significantly different was the MCV (P < 0.0001), which was significantly lower in *Bartonella*-positive cats (mean = 41·5 fL) than in *Bartonella*-negative ones (mean = 44 fL). There were no other significant differences between *Bartonella*-positive and -negative cats.

DISCUSSION

Cats are the major hosts of *B. henselae*, *B. clarridgeiae* and *B. koehlerae* (Mogollon-Pasapera *et al.* 2009). Since the pathogens can be transferred to humans through scratches or bites, public monitoring of its prevalence in cats is important (Breitschwerdt, 2008). This is the first study to investigate *Bartonella* spp. molecular prevalence in

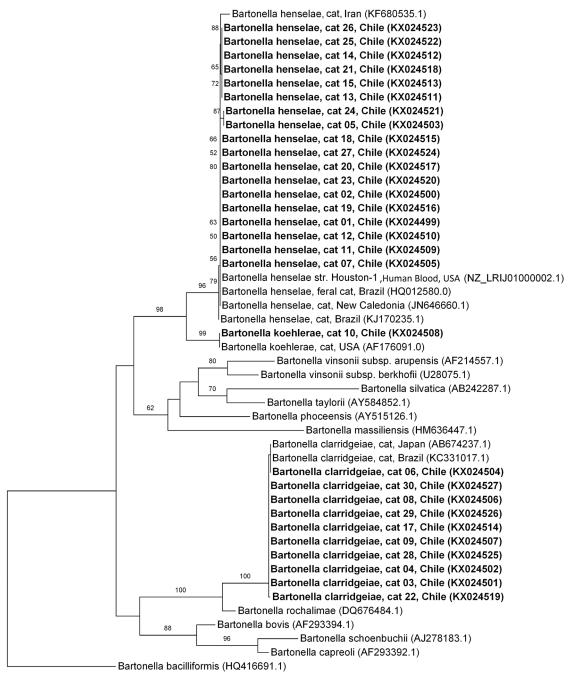


Fig. 2. Phylogenetic relationships within the *Bartonella* genus based on a 680 bp fragment of the gltA gene. The tree was inferred by using the ML method and evolutive model GAMMA GTR + I. The sequences detected in the present study are bold highlighted. The numbers at the nodes correspond to bootstrap values higher than 50% obtained with 1000 replicates. *Bartonella bacilliformis* was used as an outgroup.

Table 2. Polymorphism and genetic diversity of gltA *Bartonella* sequences detected in cats from Valdivia, Chile

Species	(bp)	N	VS	GC (%)	h	hd (mean ± s.D.)	π (mean \pm s.D.)	K
Bartonella henselae	674	18	3	37·1	3 2	0.601 ± 0.080	0.001 ± 0.0003	0·888
Bartonella clarridgeiae	674	10	1	38·2		0.200 ± 0.154	0.0003 ± 0.0002	0·200

N, number of sequences analysed; VS, number of variable sites; GC, G+C content; h, number of haplotypes; hd, haplotypes diversity; s.d., standard deviation; π , nucleotide diversity (per site=PI); K, average number of nucleotide difference.

a population of domestic cats from southern Chile. Previous reports in Chile described high seroprevalence of *B. henselae* in Valdivia (Zaror *et al.* 2002; Ferrés *et al.* 2006a), Santiago and Coquimbo cities (Ferrés *et al.* 2005). Identification of *B. henselae* in solid cultures from cat (25/60) blood samples was performed in central Chile (Santiago City) (Ferrés *et al.* 2005).

Only few studies in South America have evaluated the molecular occurrence of Bartonella spp. in cats, mostly carried in Brazil (Staggemeier et al. 2010; Crissiuma et al. 2011; Braga et al. 2012; de Bortoli et al. 2012; Miceli et al. 2013). Cats from Valdivia, Southern Chile, showed a similar prevalence (18·1%) to the one described in Buenos Aires, Argentina (17.8%) (Cicuttin et al. 2014) and Southern Brazil (17.0%) (Staggemeier et al. 2010), lower than that observed in cats from Galapagos Island, Ecuador (44.0%) (Levy et al. 2008) and higher than central-western (2.2%) (Miceli et al. 2013), northeastern (4.5%) (Braga et al. 2012) and southeastern (4·3%) (de Bortoli et al. 2012) Brazil. However, comparison is difficult, because of the low number of cats and inclusion criteria used in some studies. In general, a higher prevalence was observed in stray cats (as high as 61.1%) (Boulouis et al. 2005; Gutiérrez et al. 2013), young adult cats living in shelters (36%) (Fleischman et al. 2015) and cats from spaying/neutering program (42.5%) (Crissiuma et al. 2011). Differences in prevalence may reflect variations in the groups of studied cats, or by geographical variations, such as climate and bloodsucking arthropod distribution, where the presence of fleas (Boulouis et al. 2005) is a risk factor for Bartonella infection. Furthermore, a direct comparison between studies is difficult because of the differences in cPCR and qPCR diagnostic assays (André et al. 2016).

As described worldwide (Chomel and Kasten, 2010), *B. henselae* was the most prevalent species in Southern Chile, followed by *B. clarridgeiae*. The latter was less frequently isolated from domestic cats than *B. henselae*, as it appears to be difficult to isolate and is unevenly distributed in cat populations (Chomel *et al.* 2004). Only one sampled cat was positive for *B. koehlerae*, which has rarely been detected in domestic cats worldwide (Avidor *et al.* 2004; Chomel and Kasten, 2010; Fleischman *et al.* 2015). To the best of our knowledge, *B. koehlerae* is detected for the first time in cats from South America.

The low genetic diversity of *Bartonella* species identified in cats from Southern Chile is in accordance with the high intra species similarity between gltA gene sequences of various Bartonella spp. (99·80–100%) (Birtles and Raoult, 1996). Since <1·00% genomic variety exists between various strains of B. henselae, a low diversity is a common finding (Guy et al. 2012). Due to the low genetic

diversity, each *Bartonella* species from Chile clustered together and with other *Bartonella* spp. described in cats from Brazil, Iran and USA (Droz *et al.* 1999; André *et al.* 2014; Fard *et al.* 2016).

Bartonella henselae isolates clustered with both Houston-1 and Marseille strains, presenting a high similarity with these. Since Multi Locus Sequence Typing was not performed in the present study, it was not possible to determine which strains are circulating in Chilean cats. Most human cases of CSD are caused by B. henselae type Houston-1, suggesting that type Houston-1 strains could be more virulent to humans (Boulouis et al. 2005) than Marseille (type II), which is more frequently identified in cats (Chomel et al. 2004; Boulouis et al. 2005). Bartonella henselae-type Marseille is the dominant type in cat populations from Western Europe (France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands and UK) and Australia (Boulouis et al. 2005), whereas type Houston-1 is more frequently reported in human cases in the same regions (Arvand et al. 2007). Houston-1 is more frequent in cats from Asia (Japan and the Philippines) (Boulouis et al. 2005). In North America (USA), type II is more prevalent in cats on the West Coast (California) (Chomel et al. 1995; Chang et al. 2002; Fleischman et al. 2015) but a 50-50% (types I and II) was described on the East Coast (North Carolina and Florida) (Guptil et al. 2004). Bartonella henselae isolates obtained from cats in Guatemala (Bai et al. 2015) and Argentina (Cicuttin et al. 2014) were Houston type I group, suggesting that it could be the major genotype in Central and South America. Nevertheless, more studies on B. henselae diversity in other countries, including Chile, are needed to prove this hypothesis.

The mean number of Bartonella spp. nuoGcopies μL^{-1} in cats from southern Chile was lower than that described in naturally infected cats from Brazil, using the same qPCR protocol (André et al. 2016). Indeed, low initial DNA copies in some blood samples from Chilean cats could produce inconsistent quantification results in the Bartonella-qPCR assay, represented by the Monte Carlo effect (Bustin et al. 2009). The low number of nuoG-Bartonella copies in blood samples from cats in our study may be explained by the characteristics of Bartonella spp. infection. After infecting their hosts, Bartonella may cause a persistent bacteraemia in cats, which is undetectable (Breitschwerdt et al. 2010a). Long-term intraerythrocytic bacteraemia in reservoir mammals is frequently described and represents a common strategy of Bartonella for achieving infection without producing organ damage, generating only chronic, asymptomatic, infection (Chomel et al. 2009).

A lower MCV, within the reference values, was the only haematological finding in *Bartonella*-positive cats and was not considered clinically relevant.

As observed in Chilean cats, haematological abnormalities are rarely described in naturally infected cats that seem to be healthy carriers of the bacterium (Boulouis et al. 2005; Chomel et al. 2009). In neotropical felids haematological abnormalities were not associated with Bartonella spp. natural infection (Guimaraes et al. 2010). On the contrary, eosinophilia (Kordick et al. 1999) and neutrophilia (Guptill et al. 1997) were observed in experimentally infected cats. It is important to state that in experimentally infected cats, usually the inoculum dose was very high (Guptill et al. 1997). Furthermore, strain variability among B. henselae isolates may contribute to enhanced pathogenicity in experimentally infected cats (O'Reilly et al. 1999).

Circulation of the three Bartonella species in Valdivia cats strengthens the importance of the feline population as a source of zoonotic agents and represents a potential infection risk to humans. While most cats are asymptomatic after becoming infected with B. henselae, they serve as reservoirs of the agent and may transmit the infection to humans (Breitschwerdt et al. 2010a). Data on CSD prevalence in Chile reports a 10.3% infection rate with B. henselae in children from Central Chile (Ferrés et al. 2006b). Also, asymptomatic catowners from southern Chile showed serological exposure (18%) to B. henselae (Zaror et al. 2002) and a high seroprevalence (60%) was observed in humans with an occupational risk in the Bío Bío region, Chile (Troncoso et al. 2016). The presence of B. clarridgeiae and B. koehlerae in cats suggests the need to consider these agents when testing clinical samples from suspected human cases in Chile, along with B. henselae.

Concluding remarks

The overall prevalence of *Bartonella* spp. in domestic cats from Valdivia, Southern Chile, is in accordance with that previously described in South America. *Bartonella*-positive cats had low DNA bacterial loads and their haematological parameters varied minimally. Low genetic diversity was reported among the *B. henselae* and *B. clarridgeiae* haplotypes in the present study. Three *Bartonella* species circulate in the studied cat population of Valdivia. *Bartonella clarridgeiae* is reported for the first time in cats from Chile and *B. koehlerae* in cats from South America.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors do not have any conflicts of interest to declare.

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