

1 **The Foster method: Rapid and non-invasive detection of clinically relevant**  
2 **American Foulbrood disease levels using eDNA sampling and a dual-target**  
3 **qPCR assay, with its potential for other hive pathogens.**

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5 John F. Mackay<sup>1\*</sup>, Rebecca E. Hewett<sup>1</sup>, Noa T. Smith<sup>1</sup> Tammy L. Waters<sup>1,3</sup>, John S.  
6 Scandrett<sup>2</sup>

7 <sup>1</sup> dnature diagnostics & research Ltd, 60 Carnarvon St., Gisborne, New Zealand

8 <sup>2</sup> Scandrett Rural Ltd, Invercargill, New Zealand

9 <sup>3</sup> current address: Environmental Science & Research, Porirua, New Zealand

10

11 \*Email: [john@dnature.co.nz](mailto:john@dnature.co.nz) Tel: +64 6 8633303

12

## 13 **Abstract**

14 Clinical signs of American Foulbrood can be difficult to diagnose and thus disease is  
15 missed and leads to further spread. Diagnosis is centred on the beekeeper's skill in  
16 recognising clinical symptoms – a highly subjective and time-consuming activity.  
17 Previous testing methods have relied on sampling that necessitates dismantling the  
18 hive and/or requires multiple visits to retrieve passive samples. The Foster method is  
19 a new environmental DNA sampling method using entrance swabs together with a  
20 dual-target qPCR for AFB. The quantification data generated can be used to detect  
21 hives with clinically relevant infections, even when no visual symptoms are apparent.  
22 Such a method will be applicable to other bee pathogens and incursion pests.

23

24 **Keywords:** honey bee, American foulbrood, entrance, qPCR, diagnosis, swab,  
25 quantification, non-invasive.

## 26 **Importance**

27 Discovery of the disease American foulbrood typically means the destruction of the  
28 bees and hive by burning. This discovery is typically by visual examination of capped  
29 brood by the beekeeper - a subjective skill that means the disease is being missed  
30 or not recognised. It is a time-consuming and exacting process to inspect hives for  
31 AFB. Here we present a rapid sampling method that does not require  
32 opening/dismantling the hive in conjunction with a dual target quantitative PCR  
33 assay for the bacteria responsible, *Paenibacillus larvae*. Using the resulting  
34 quantitative data, hives presenting clinical symptoms or likely to become clinical  
35 visually can be determined and the hives dealt with appropriately before further  
36 spread occurs.

## 37 **Introduction**

38 American Foulbrood (AFB) is one of the most destructive diseases in honeybees  
39 (*Apis mellifera*) and is caused by spores of the Gram positive bacteria *Paenibacillus*  
40 *larvae* infecting bees during their larval stage. These spores are extremely hardy;  
41 being resistant to heat, caustic, and other chemical treatments with the ability to  
42 remain infectious for over 30 years (Genersch, 2010). Only a few spores are  
43 required to cause an infection in a new larva and yet a single infected larvae can  
44 generate many millions of spores - leading to rapid spread and decline in a bee  
45 colony. Once the colony has weakened or died then it may be 'robbed' by bees from  
46 neighbouring hives where contaminated honey is brought back to a neighbouring  
47 hive, which leads to further infections. Infection is also spread unknowingly by the  
48 beekeeper (Fries and Camazine, 2001), through the introduction of hive frames  
49 carrying an undetected infection into a new colony of bees or the feeding of  
50 contaminated honey to colonies.

51 In New Zealand, hive numbers have more than doubled since 2013  
52 ([www.afb.org.nz](http://www.afb.org.nz)). Similarly the number of beekeepers has also increased – primarily  
53 due to hobby and conservation efforts (several hives per beekeeper) but also in the  
54 commercial sector (hundreds or thousands of hives per operation). Much of the  
55 growth in hive and commercial beekeeping has been due to the increased demand  
56 for high-value New Zealand manuka honey. The increase in hive numbers (and  
57 densities) combined with newer beekeepers, who are less likely to be skilled in  
58 identifying the clinical signs of AFB, has led to an increase in the percentage of hives  
59 reported as infected from 0.21% in 2015 to 0.32% in 2017. Since this time, the  
60 reported percentage has remained static, while hive numbers have continued to  
61 increase. ([www.afb.org.nz](http://www.afb.org.nz)).

62 The diagnosis of AFB is based primarily on visual symptoms – typically unusual,  
63 capped brood cells on a beehive frame that warrant investigation through a ‘roping’  
64 field test. In a hive with three to seven frames of brood or more, this means typically  
65 thousands of brood cells to examine visually per hive. Other diseases can affect  
66 brood cells meaning that examining suspicious cells for clinical AFB signs is  
67 laborious and prone to disease being missed. Clinical signs can vary based on the  
68 AFB genotype present, with ERIC II strains exhibiting reduced clinical symptoms  
69 (Genersch, 2010). In addition, hives must be dismantled, and the colony disrupted in  
70 order to inspect for AFB.

71 Confirmation for AFB in beehive materials has been traditionally performed by  
72 culture, using selective media, and induced germination of spores. However this is a  
73 variable process (Forsgren, 2008) and may take up to a week for results. PCR and  
74 qPCR (quantitative PCR) have been demonstrated as effective tools for the  
75 detection of AFB, with qPCR being the preferred diagnostic tool in recent years due  
76 its faster time to results and lower chance for amplicon contamination. However most  
77 applications have not used the quantitative data generated; rather using the tool for  
78 rapid confirmation of culture isolates (Kňazovická et al, 2011). The quantification  
79 aspect is important as low levels of AFB are often not clinically relevant (Bassi et al.,  
80 2018 , Pernal and Melathopoulos, 2006) and such hives may never develop clinical  
81 symptoms. Much of this low level may be due to the hygienic behaviour of bees to  
82 reduce overt infections (Spivak and Reuter, 2001).

83 The vast majority of molecular publications relating to AFB to date have relied on  
84 either conventional PCR or SYBR Green-based qPCR and the sole use of the 16S  
85 gene due to its high sensitivity as a multicopy target (Dobbelaere *et al.*, 2001; Piccini  
86 *et al.*, 2002; ). However this sensitivity can be at the expense of specificity, as

87 evidenced by the initial design (Martinez, 2010) and subsequent re-evaluation/re-  
88 design of qPCR primers to improve specificity (Rossi *et al.*, 2018). Sensitivity for  
89 bacterial targets can also be compromised by deletions of target sequences or  
90 sequence polymorphisms which affect primer or probe binding (Dahlberg *et al.*,  
91 2018; Johansen *et al.*, 2019; Xiu *et al.*, 2021) and many microbiological qPCR tests  
92 now utilise two independent targets to enhance both sensitivity and specificity, such  
93 as many of the commercial qPCR tests for chlamydia. Hydrolysis probe (“TaqMan”)  
94 qPCR assays permit quantification of each target by selected fluorescent  
95 wavelengths while also allowing the use of an internal control in an additional  
96 detection channel for confirmation of suitable quality DNA present in the reaction.  
97 These internal controls may improve the sensitivity of previous studies whereby the  
98 presence of inhibitors possibly prevented the amplification of AFB targets. (Forsgren  
99 and Laugen, 2013)

100 We sought to use a multiplex qPCR assay for AFB and evaluate a new and rapid  
101 environmental DNA (eDNA) sampling method for the detection of hives having - or at  
102 risk of developing - clinical AFB infections. Previously AFB has been detected in  
103 debris from a hive baseboard (Bassi *et al.*, 2018) but this study required installing  
104 collection sheets, necessitating dismantling the hive twice and repeat visits. The  
105 ability to detect relevant levels of AFB from a single sample taken from the entrance  
106 of a hive would permit far more rapid sampling of hives and allow infected hives to  
107 be dealt with more quickly (Lyll *et al.*, 2019). In this study, we evaluated and  
108 compared the AFB levels among bees, the entire baseboard, and the entrance  
109 region of the baseboard.

## 111 **Methods**

112 Quarantining hives in an apiary upon discovery of a clinical AFB hive is a common  
113 practice, in order to minimise spread of the disease. From five quarantine apiaries  
114 around New Zealand (East Coast, Wellington, Wairarapa and South Canterbury  
115 regions) multiple hives were sampled two-monthly from late 2018 to early 2020. In  
116 addition, samples from visually clinical hives and neighbouring hives were collected  
117 by local apiary inspectors for testing during this time. Samples included nurse bees,  
118 swabs from the hive entrance and swabs from over the entire baseboard.

119 Subsequent samples comprised of comparisons between bees and solely the hive  
120 entrance. Bees were collected from the brood frames using 50 mL sterile containers  
121 and frozen to euthanise the bees. Sterile foam-tipped swabs (Puritan) were  
122 moistened in sterile water before swabbing either the whole baseboard or just  
123 through and across the hive entrance for three to five seconds. Instructions were  
124 provided to participating beekeepers to rotate the swabs during collection to ensure  
125 all swab surfaces could collect hive material. Swab heads were then snapped off into  
126 a 2 mL microcentrifuge tube, capped and sent to the laboratory with the bee  
127 samples, at ambient temperature by overnight courier. Once in the laboratory, bee  
128 samples were frozen at -20°C and swabs were stored at ambient temperature until  
129 DNA extraction was performed.

130 Genomic DNA extraction from bees and associated bacteria was performed from  
131 each sample containing 10 bees, using the Bee Pathogen DNA/RNA Extraction Kit  
132 (dnature, Gisborne, New Zealand) in conjunction with beadbeating. In short, 3 mL  
133 DXL lysis buffer supplied in the kit was added to 10 bees in a 5 mL tube, containing  
134 a mixture of 0.5 mm (~2.4 g) and 2.3 mm zirconia silica (~1 g) beadbeating beads  
135 (BioSpec Products, Bartlesville, USA). The bees were homogenised in a Mini

136 Beadbeater 16 instrument (BioSpec Products, Bartlesville, USA) for 3 minutes.  
137 Tubes were then incubated at 65°C for 10 minutes with manual inversion every 3  
138 minutes. 1 mL of the homogenate was transferred to a 2 mL microcentrifuge tube  
139 and centrifuged at 15,000 x g for 5 minutes. 500 µL of supernatant was transferred to  
140 a new microcentrifuge tube containing 450 µL AD buffer and mixed well. The solution  
141 was then applied to a nucleic acid binding column from the kit (in two passes) and  
142 centrifuged through before successive washing steps and elution of nucleic acids  
143 from the column in 50 µL elution buffer.

144 A similar process was used for swabs: they were placed in a screwcap 2 mL tubes  
145 with 0.5mm zirconia silica beads (~0.8g) and 2.3 mm zirconia silica beads (0.3g).  
146 800 µL DXL buffer was added to each tube and the swab material homogenised in  
147 the Mini Beadbeater 16 for 3 minutes. The tubes were then incubated at 65°C with  
148 shaking for 10 minutes, before centrifuging and processing 500 µL of the resulting  
149 supernatant as for the bees. For pooled applications, swabs were added to 500 µL  
150 DXL buffer in a 2 mL microcentrifuge tube and vortexed for 10 seconds to dislodge  
151 cells and bacteria off the swab. 60 µL of each eluate (up to twelve swabs) was added  
152 to a 2 mL beadbeating tube as for single swabs and processed as for single swabs  
153 from the beadbeating step.

154 Assessment of DNA quality and presence of potential inhibitors was performed by  
155 measurement (spectroscopy) on a DS-11 FX (DeNovix, Wilmington, USA) and  
156 OD260/280 measurements recorded. Dilutions of extracted DNA were also tested by  
157 qPCR to assess expected C<sub>q</sub> increases with increasing dilution and monitor qPCR  
158 inhibition.

159 The AFBduo qPCR test uses two targets – a single copy gene for quantification  
160 purposes (ftsZ, a prokaryotic homologue to tubulin) and the multicopy 16S gene. The  
161 ftsZ probe is detected in the FAM channel and the 16S target in the HEX channel.  
162 The test also includes a simultaneous internal control (ROX channel) for an animal  
163 mitochondrial marker, to confirm validity of results (in the cases where AFB was not  
164 detected) by way of successful internal control amplification.

165 Each AFBduo qPCR reaction was performed in a 10 µL volume and consisted of 5.5  
166 µL PCR grade water, 0.5 µL of the 20X Oligo Mix and 2 µL of the 5X Mastermix (all  
167 reagents supplied in the AFBduo real-time PCR kit, dnature). 2 µL genomic DNA,  
168 positive control DNA or sterile water (for no template controls) was added per  
169 reaction. The amplifications were performed on the Mic qPCR Cyclers (BioMolecular  
170 Systems, Australia) or the Eco qPCR instrument (Illumina, San Diego, USA) and the  
171 cycling conditions comprised: denaturation at 95°C for 2 minutes followed by 40  
172 cycles of 95°C for 5 seconds and 60°C for 15 seconds. Data was acquired on the  
173 Green (ftsZ), Yellow (16S) and Orange (Internal control) channels of the Mic cyclers  
174 or FAM, HEX and ROX channels on the Eco instrument. Cq's (Cycle quantities) were  
175 automatically generated by the Mic software, using dynamic analysis.

176 A synthetic DNA standard (gBlock, IDT, Singapore) was utilised that incorporated  
177 both amplicon sequences. The synthesised standard was resuspended in TE buffer,  
178 pH8, quantified on a DS-11 FX spectrophotometer (DeNovix, Wilmington, USA) and  
179 its copy number calculated using standard methods. Quantification standards were  
180 generated from 10<sup>6</sup> copies per µL down to 2 copies per µL. For all dilutions, the  
181 diluent was a pooled DNA sample extracted from AFB-free bees. Dilutions of  
182 extracted DNA from AFB-positive samples were diluted in AFB-free bee DNA. These  
183 dilutions were used to compare the sensitivity among existing World Organisation for



184 Animal Health (OIE) conventional PCR protocols (Dobelaere, 1999; Govan, 2003)  
185 and the AFBduo qPCR assay. Conventional PCRs used the same 2 µL each DNA  
186 dilution in a 20 µL PCR using HOT FIREPol polymerase, ready to load (Solis  
187 BioDyne, Tartu, Estonia) and 0.3 µM each primer. Following the recommended  
188 thermalcycling conditions (Dobelaere, 1999; Govan, 2003), the conventional PCR  
189 reactions were analysed by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel.

190 The standards and their resulting Cq's were also used to convert the Cq's resulting  
191 from bee and swab samples to spore levels using the amplification efficiency of the  
192 single copy *ftsZ* gene, the y-intercept, and the formula:

193 
$$\text{Spores per swab} / 10 \text{ bees} = 10^{(\text{Cq}_{\text{ftsZ}} - 39) / -3.48} \times 25$$

194

195 **Results**

196 Testing of the AFBduo assay on synthetic DNA standards showed high analytical  
197 sensitivity, with both target reactions in the assay able to reliably detect down to 4  
198 copies per 10  $\mu$ L reaction. The reactions amplified with high efficiency (Efficiency for  
199  $ftsZ = 94\%$  and efficiency for  $16S = 106\%$ ) as well as excellent linearity over the 7  
200 orders of magnitude ( $r = 0.998$ ). On testing AFB-positive bee, honey, and hive  
201 material, the  $16S$  target typically amplified 3-5 cycles earlier (i.e. lower  $Cq$ 's) than the  
202  $ftsZ$  target as expected, due to the multiple copies of the  $16S$  sequence per AFB  
203 bacterium compared to the single copy  $ftsZ$  gene.

204 The DNA extraction method from bees generated high purity DNA as shown by  
205 measurements on the microvolume spectrophotometer with  $OD_{260/280}$   
206 measurements of between 1.8 and 1.9. Extracted DNA samples serially diluted in  
207 elution buffer showed the expected increase in  $Cq$ 's with decreasing concentration,  
208 indicating no inhibitors were present in the samples following DNA extraction. DNA  
209 yields from swabs were too low to be measured, however internal control  $Cq$ 's for  
210 serial dilutions as for the bees, indicated the DNA was of good quality.

211 Upon extracting DNA from AFB positive material, it was serially diluted it in  
212 honeybee DNA and these dilutions used to compare the AFBduo assays with the  
213 conventional PCR tests described in the OIE protocols (Dobbelare, 1999; Govan,  
214 1999). The AFBduo qPCR assay demonstrated two log greater sensitivity than the  
215 conventional PCR assays (Jaramillo et al., manuscript in preparation).

216 In this study, we evaluated and compared the AFB levels among bees, the entire  
217 baseboard, and the entrance region of the baseboard. In the first cohort of  
218 quarantine beehives from multiple regions in NZ (beehives from quarantine apiaries

219 i.e. an apiary that had contained a hive exhibiting clinical signs), 45 hives were  
220 sampled up to 6 times during the 2018-2019 seasons. The samples taken were  
221 nurse bees, swabs from the entire baseboard and entrance swabs. Among these  
222 hives, 8 were found to have clinical signs of AFB ('roping' larval remains) during  
223 sampling while another 6 were presumed to have AFB due to their condition and the  
224 high prevalence in the apiary. Examples of the progression of AFB levels in three of  
225 the colonies is shown in Tables 1-3, where the resulting Cq data has been converted  
226 to spores per 10 bee or swab sample processed.

227 In a second cohort of hives from one beekeeper, 23 hives were tested in a  
228 quarantine apiary using bee and hive entrance swab samples. Four of these hives  
229 showed clinical signs of AFB. Levels of AFB in nurse bee samples were compared  
230 to the levels indicated by the entrance swabs. Once again, most hives showed no or  
231 low levels of AFB, those with clinical AFB demonstrated much higher spores levels  
232 of AFB in both the bee and entrance swab samples as shown in Table 4.

233 A third cohort of hives came from a beekeeper with a high incidence of AFB that was  
234 introduced through the purchase of contaminated equipment into his operation. Here  
235 we performed initial trials on pooling swab eluates into single extractions to reduce  
236 time and costs. Swab eluates were pooled into groups of eight and later twelve, the  
237 DNA extracted from the pooled sample and was tested for the presence of AFB. The  
238 remnant samples from pools that tested positive for both markers, were then tested  
239 individually as described. The results (Table 5) show that that even in the pools of  
240 twelve hive samples, single hives with higher levels of AFB could be clearly detected  
241 within the pool, prompting testing of those hives contributing to the positive pool to  
242 identify potentially clinically-affected hive(s).

## 243 **Discussion**

244 The AFBduo assay provided high confidence in the results due to the integrated  
245 internal control and detection of two markers for AFB. As expected, the 16S marker  
246 had approximately 10 to 20-fold higher analytical sensitivity due to the multi-copy  
247 nature of this marker. However the variability in Cq difference between the two  
248 markers among samples indicated the 16S copy number likely varied among AFB  
249 isolates and thus could not be relied on for quantification. This variability in copy  
250 number for diagnostic targets has been noted in other diagnostic qPCR assays for  
251 AFB (Rossi et al., 2018; Dainat et al., 2018). Therefore the use of the single copy  
252 *ftsZ* gene was used for quantification purposes using a standard curve prepared with  
253 a quantified synthetic template diluted in AFB-negative bee DNA.

254 Three sample types were compared in the first cohort – bees from the brood nest  
255 (nurse bees), swabs from the whole baseboard surface and swabs through the  
256 entrance of the hive only. The ability to sample the hive through the entrance would  
257 prevent the need to dismantle and disrupt the hive as with the first two sample types  
258 (bees and whole baseboard swabbing). The levels of both AFB and internal control  
259 DNA seen on the whole baseboard and just the entrance area of the baseboard  
260 were similar (Table 6). This showed dismantling the hive to swab the whole  
261 baseboard was not required, in order to detect the higher levels of AFB in clinically-  
262 infected colonies. While the spore levels varied among clinical hives, they were still  
263 easily differentiated from the very low or undetectable spore levels in non-infected  
264 hives. While spore levels never increased during the monitoring time for many of the  
265 hives or became undetectable in some low spore cases, some of the hives showed  
266 increasing levels at each testing point before clinical signs were observed in the  
267 respective hive and the hive destroyed.

268 Spore levels were the highest in the bees from the brood nest area of the hive.  
269 However the levels from the entrance swabs were still high enough to be  
270 differentiated from levels seen in hives not exhibiting any signs of AFB (Table 4).  
271 While most hives without clinical signs of AFB had low or undetectable levels of DNA  
272 detected, one hive (Hive 11) showed levels similar to two other hives with clinical  
273 AFB signs. Indeed, at the next inspection by the beekeeper (approximately two  
274 weeks after sampling), hive 11 showed clinical signs of AFB and was destroyed thus  
275 demonstrating the ability of qPCR to find infected hives that may have pre-clinical  
276 infections or have symptoms missed by visual inspection.

277 However these results also demonstrated the importance of knowing the history of  
278 the hives sampled. In two cases (hives 11 and 12 in Table 4), the bees showed high  
279 levels of AFB spores while the hiveware showed low or undetectable levels.  
280 Subsequent investigation showed that the hiveware was new (< 2 weeks old at time  
281 of sampling) for both these hives and that the colonies were newly-established from  
282 an unknowingly infected parent colony. Therefore, while the bees carried high levels  
283 of AFB there had not been enough time for spores to be deposited around the hive  
284 entrance surfaces. Further research will be required to assess this accumulation rate  
285 of spores on the hive.

286 Given the ability to detect clinically relevant levels of AFB through this simple hive  
287 entrance swabbing method, it is highly likely that the same DNA sample can be used  
288 to test for other bee pathogens. *Nosema ceranae* has been detected through the use  
289 hive debris and qPCR (Copley *et al.*, 2012) and showed good correlation of levels  
290 between bees and debris. Since the development of this current work, a report has  
291 used hive debris collected over the period of a week to estimate loading of European  
292 foulbrood (a disease not present in New Zealand currently). As with the results

293 described here, the bees offered a higher sensitivity of pathogen detection, yet the  
294 hive debris results still provided predictive information as compared to non-infected  
295 hives (Biová *et al.*, 2021). Another application could be for biosecurity surveillance for  
296 unwanted hive pests such as tracheal mites (*Acarapis woodi*) or small hive beetle  
297 (*Aethina tumida*). The use of the sampling technique here combined with a qPCR  
298 assay (e.g. Li *et al.*, 2018; Ward *et al.*, 2007) could provide rapid detection of any  
299 incursion to countries such as New Zealand where small hive beetle is not found, by  
300 providing faster sampling of hives than dismantling hives to extract hive debris for  
301 testing (Ward *et al.*, 2007). AFB has also been detected from winter debris using  
302 conventional PCR and thus quantification was not possible (Ryba *et al.*, 2009). The  
303 quantification provides an important risk element of the hive - as to whether visual  
304 signs are likely present at the time of sampling or likely to demonstrate these clinical  
305 signs in the near future. In this work, levels of AFB spores of approximately 20,000  
306 spores/swab or greater, were associated with either clinical or pre-clinical levels of  
307 the disease.

308 All the methods to date have required either dismantling the hive to sample from the  
309 baseboard or repeated visits to the hive to insert and remove sampling sheets. In  
310 contrast, the rapid sampling method described here that we have named the Foster  
311 method is a fast, one-time sampling, and quantification method that provides  
312 clinically relevant information as to the AFB status of the hive.

313

314

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- 385

386 Hive FL5

Date	14 Sept 2018	4 Dec 2018	16 Jan 2019	Clinical status
Bees (spores/10 bees)	-	24,448	779,266	Clinical signs seen 16 Jan after sampling and hive destroyed
Entrance (spores/swab)	ND	10,870	678,363	

387

388 Hive STF4

Date	22 Sept 2018	Clinical status
Bees (spores/10 bees)	2,591,937	Clinical signs seen early October 2018 and hive destroyed
Entrance (spores/swab)	4,281,312	

389

390 Hive RL02

Date	31 Oct 2018	27 Dec 2018	11 Mar 2019	23 Aug 2019	Clinical status
Bees (spores/10 bees)	ND	ND	ND	ND	No AFB seen
Entrance (spores/swab)	ND	ND	ND	ND	

391

392 ND Not Detected

393 - Test not performed

394

395 **Tables 1-3:** AFB spore levels seen in bee samples and entrance swabs from

396 examples of three quarantine hives followed over time. Total number of hives

397 followed over time was thirty.

	Clinical signs of AFB?	Bees	Entrance Swab
		Spores/10 bees	Spores/swab
<b>MLHive 1</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>37,097,589</b>	<b>3,138,994</b>
<b>MLHive 2</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>514,061</b>	<b>24,008</b>
MLHive 3	No	ND	ND
MLHive 4	No	387	1,107
MLHive 5	No	539	377
MLHive 6	No	ND	ND
MLHive 7	No	80	ND
MLHive 8	No	210	ND
MLHive 9	No	205	ND
<b>MLHive 10</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>55,866,177</b>	<b>962,621</b>
MLHive 11	No**	9,518,751	ND*
<b>MLHive 12</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>12,561,091</b>	<b>890*</b>
MLHive 13	No	<10	<10
MLHive 14	No	ND	<10
MLHive 15	No	2049	1,318
MLHive 16	No	ND	861
MLHive 17	No	ND	326
MLHive 18	No	ND	1,092
MLHive 19	No	97	207
MLHive 20	No	ND	11,235
MLHive 21	No	ND	326
MLHive 22	No	ND	201
MLHive 23	No	943,739	2,365

398

399 **Table 4:** Testing an apiary comparing bee and entrance swab samples. The spore  
400 levels marked with \* indicate low level hive entrance spore on colonies recently  
401 placed into new hives (hives 11 and 12 were started from hive 10 splits). While at  
402 the time of sampling hive 11 showed no AFB symptoms (\*\*), it developed clinical

403 symptoms 2 weeks later and was destroyed.

404 ND Not detected

405

	Pooled result (12 ftsZ spore levels)	Individual Swab Result ftsZ spore levels (per swab)	Clinical Signs of AFB (following testing)
Hive SB216	<b>15,630</b>	Not detected	No
Hive SB217		Not detected	No
Hive SB218		Not detected	No
Hive SB219		<b>165,103</b>	<b>Yes</b>
Hive SB220		Not detected	No
Hive SB221		Not detected	No
Hive SB222		Not detected	No
Hive SB250		Not detected	No
Hive SB251		Not detected	No
Hive SB252		Not detected	No
Hive SB253		Not detected	No
Hive SB254		Not detected	No
Hive SB255		<b>Not Detected</b>	-
Hive SB256	-		No
Hive SB257	-		No
Hive SB258	-		No
Hive SB259	-		No
Hive SB260	-		No
Hive SB261	-		No
Hive SB262	-		No
Hive SB263	-		No
Hive SB264	-		No
Hive SB265	-		No

406

407 **Table 5:** composite pooling of swabs to rapidly find clinically relevant levels in hives.

408 In this instance the first pool showed raised levels and the remnant swab eluates

409 were tested individually, whereupon elevated levels were found in hive SB219.

410 Subsequent hive inspections showed this hive to have clinical symptoms and it was  
411 destroyed.

412 – test not performed

413

Hive	Location	Estimated Spore level (ftsZ target)	Hive status
ML Shearer	Baseboard	52 million	Clinical signs of AFB
	Entrance	25 million	
ML Ellis	Baseboard	3.6 million	Clinical signs of AFB
	Entrance	3.4 million	
FL 10	Baseboard	61	No AFB seen
	Entrance	335	

414

415 **Table 6:** Comparison of baseboard and entrance swabs showing the differentiation

416 of spore levels among two clinical hives and a hive without clinical symptoms.

417

418 **Conflict of interest statement**

419 JFM, REH and NTS are employees of dnature diagnostics & research Ltd., who  
420 developed the commercial AFBduo qPCR kit as well as the commercial bee DNA  
421 extraction kit method used in this study.

422

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434 away suddenly in February 2021.