Metagenomic profiling of ticks: identification of novel rickettsial genomes and detection of tick-borne canine parvovirus

Anuradha Ravi[1¶], Suheir Ereqat *[2,3¶], Amer Al-Jawabreh[4], Ziad Abdeen[3], Omar Abu Shamma[3], Holly Hall[5], Mark J. Pallen[1&], Abedelmajeed Nasereddin[3&]

[1]Quadram Institute, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, Norfolk, NR4 7UA, UK

[2]Biochemistry and Molecular Biology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Al-Quds University, Abu Deis, East Jerusalem, Palestine

[3]Al-Quds Nutrition and Health Research Institute, Faculty of Medicine, Al-Quds University Abu Deis, East Jerusalem, Palestine and Al-Quds Public Health Society, Abu Deis, East Jerusalem, Palestine.

[4]Arab American University-Palestine

[5]Warwick Medical School, University of Warwick, Coventry, UK.

* Corresponding author

E-mail: sereqat@staff.alquds.edu

[¶]These authors contributed equally to this work.

[&]These authors also contributed equally to this work.

Abstract

Background: Across the world, ticks act as vectors of human and animal pathogens.

Ticks rely on bacterial endosymbionts, which often share close and complex

evolutionary links with tick-borne pathogens. As the prevalence, diversity and

virulence potential of tick-borne agents remain poorly understood, there is a pressing

need for microbial surveillance of ticks as potential disease vectors.

Methodology/Principal Findings: We developed a two-stage protocol that includes

16S-amplicon screening of pooled samples of hard ticks collected from dogs, sheep

and camels in Palestine, followed by shotgun metagenomics on individual ticks to

detect and characterise tick-borne pathogens and endosymbionts. Two ticks isolated

from sheep yielded an abundance of reads from the genus *Rickettsia*, which were

assembled into draft genomes. One of the resulting genomes was highly similar to

Rickettsia massiliae strain MTU5. Analysis of signature genes showed that the other

represents the first genome sequence of the potential pathogen *Candidatus*

Rickettsia barbariae. Ticks from a dog and a sheep yielded draft genome sequences

of strains of the Coxiella-like endosymbiont *Candidatus* Coxeilla mudrowiae. A sheep

tick yielded sequences from the sheep pathogen *Anaplasma ovis*, while *Hyalomma*

ticks from camels yielded sequences belonging to *Francisella*-like endosymbionts.

From the metagenome of a dog tick from Jericho, we generated a genome sequence

of a canine parvovirus.

Significance: Here, we have shown how a cost-effective two-stage protocol can be

used to detect and characterise tick-borne pathogens and endosymbionts. In

recovering genome sequences from an unexpected pathogen (canine parvovirus)

and a previously unsequenced pathogen (*Candidatus* Rickettsia barbariae), we

demonstrate the open-ended nature of metagenomics. We also provide evidence

that ticks can carry canine parvovirus, raising the possibility that ticks might

contribute to the spread of this troublesome virus.

Author Summary

We have shown how DNA sequencing can be used to detect and characterise

potentially pathogenic microorganisms carried by ticks. We surveyed hard ticks

collected from domesticated animals across the West Bank territory of Palestine. All

the ticks came from species that are also capable of feeding on humans. We

detected several important pathogens, including two species of *Rickettsia*, the sheep

pathogen *Anaplasma ovis* and canine parvovirus. These findings highlight the

importance of hard ticks and the hazards they present for human and animal health

in Palestine and the opportunities presented by high-throughput sequencing and

bioinformatics analyses of DNA sequences in this setting.

Keywords

Ticks, metagenomics, tick-borne pathogens, tick endosymbionts, Palestine.

Introduction

Ticks are ectoparasitic arthropods that feed exclusively on the blood of their vertebrate hosts. Across the world, ticks act as vectors of human and animal pathogens (including viruses, bacteria and protozoa), often mediating transfer of infection from one host species to another, including zoonotic infections of humans [1–3]. Aside from negative effects on human and animal morbidity and mortality, ticks and tick-borne diseases are responsible for huge global production losses, amounting to US$ 14-19 billion per annum [4].

Many tick-borne infections remain undiagnosed and the prevalence, diversity and virulence potential of tick-borne agents remain poorly understood. Furthermore, as most tick-borne pathogens are hard to grow in the laboratory and the ticks themselves may be hard to identify on morphological grounds, our understanding of pathogen and tick population structure and the fine-grained genomic epidemiology of tick-borne infections remains patchy. These gaps in our knowledge highlight the need for microbial surveillance in tick vectors to assess the risk of infection in humans and animals.

Ticks rely on bacterial endosymbionts to provide nutrients lacking from their highly restricted blood-centred diet, as evidenced by the observation that ticks treated with antibiotics show decreased fitness at all life stages [5–7]. Interestingly, some intracellular endosymbionts of ticks share close and complex evolutionary links with tick-borne pathogens of humans, such as *Coxiella burnetii* and *Francisella tularensis,* with *Coxiella*-like and *Francisella*-like endosymbionts (CLEs and FLEs, respectively) occurring in a wide range of ticks worldwide [8–20].

Transitions between pathogenic and symbiotic lifestyles occur in both directions—

thus, *Coxiella burnetii* is thought to have evolved from a vertically transmitted tick

endosymbiont, whereas most FLEs probably evolved from pathogenic strains of

Francisella [11,13,21]. Interactions with symbionts influence the abundance of

pathogens within ticks. For example, *Francisella*-like endosymbionts inhibit

colonisation with the spotted fever group rickettsias and with *Francisella novicida*,

while the endosymbiont *Rickettsia bellii* is inversely associated in abundance with

Anaplasma marginale [22]. Similarly, in North American ticks, the obligate

intracellular endosymbiont *Rickettsia peacockii*, inhibits its pathogenic relative *R.*

rickettsia, the causative agent of Rocky Mountain Spotted Fever [23].

Surveillance of ticks using taxon-specific PCR assays has shed light on the

distribution of tick-borne pathogens and endosymbionts in Palestine and in the

neighbouring state of Israel. We detected *Bartonella* in nearly 4% of hard ticks and

spotted-fever-group *Rickettsia* in 17% of hard ticks collected from domesticated

animals in Palestine [24,25]. Similarly, we have found apicomplexan parasites

including *Theileria, Babesia*, and *Hepatozoon* in ixodid ticks from Palestine [26].

Various pathogens have been detected in ticks collected in Israel, including *Ehrlichia*

canis, Anaplasma spp., Babesia canis vogeli, Rickettsia massiliae, R. sibirica

mongolitimonae, R. africae, R. aeschlimannii, [27–31]. *Rickettsia massiliae* is widely

disseminated throughout Israel in questing ticks, unattached to animals [32].

Endosymbionts have also been described in ticks from Israel, including the

mitochondrial endosymbiont *Midichloria mitochondrii* [30]. *Francisella*-like

endosymbionts have been reported in over 90% of *Hyalomma* ticks obtained from

domesticated animals and migratory birds in Israel [12], while *Coxiella*-like

endosymbionts have been identified and characterised in local *Rhipicephalus* ticks

[33,34].

Although amplification and sequencing of taxon-specific PCR products has proven

useful in microbial surveillance of ticks, this approach provides limited information on

the target microorganisms, plus it only finds what has been targeted in the assay.

Use of molecular barcodes such as 16S ribosomal gene sequences allows a more

open-ended approach, capable of detecting numerous species in the same sample

[24]. However, this approach provides limited insights into the biology, evolution and

spread of the species and lineages under examination. The advent of high-

throughput sequencing offers the potential for a powerful new open-ended

metagenomics approach to the identification and characterisation of pathogens and

endosymbionts [35]. This approach has already been used to identify novel viruses

and to detect bacterial pathogens and symbionts in ticks [34,36]. It also brings the

promise of sequence-based identification of ticks and hosts. However, widespread

application of this approach is still limited by cost.

Here, we present a two-stage tick surveillance strategy that combines an initial round

of 16S-amplicon screening of pooled tick samples, followed by focused shotgun

metagenomics investigations, which confirmed the identities of the ticks as well as

providing phylogenomic information on tick pathogens and endosymbionts, including

the first genome sequence of the potential pathogen *Candidatus* Rickettsia

barbariae.

Materials and Methods

Study design and sample collection

We employed a two-stage protocol that includes 16S-amplicon screening of pooled

tick samples followed by focused shotgun metagenomics investigations on individual

ticks (Fig. 1).

Fig. 1 Study workflow

Hard ticks were collected in 2015 from domesticated animals from seven

governorates of the West Bank, Palestine, including: two camels from Jericho; four

sheep from Nablus; three sheep from Tubas; and 23 dogs from all seven study sites

(Fig. 2). Ticks were gently removed from host animals by forceps or hand and

individually placed into small, labeled plastic tubes containing 70% ethanol for

morphological identification. Ticks were identified using standard taxonomic keys and

stored at −20°C until DNA extraction [24]. The animal owners were verbally informed

about the study objectives and sampling procedure. All owners gave their verbal

informed consent to collect ticks from their animals. The ethics committee at Al-Quds

University approved the study (EC number: ZA/196/013).

Figure 2 Collection sites of pooled tick specimens from the West Bank,

Palestine. Species identities according to morphological criteria. *Hyalomma*

dromedarii according to sequence identity; ∞unidentified *Haemaphysalis* sp*.*

according to sequence identity; # Nablus sheep tick 2 is *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*

according to sequence identity.

DNA Extraction

Individual ticks were washed with phosphate-buffered saline, air dried for 10 min on

tissue paper and separately sliced into small pieces by a sterile scalpel blade. They

were then manually homogenized with a sterile micro-pestle, re-suspended in 200 µl

of lysis buffer and 20 µl of proteinase K (20 µg/ml stock solution). After overnight

incubation at 56°C with continuous gentle shaking, DNA was extracted using the

QIAamp DNA tissue extraction kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), following the

manufacturer's protocol. Eluted DNA (100 µl) was stored at -20°C until further use.

175 **16S amplicon analyses**

Forty tick-DNA pools were created, each containing equal concentrations of DNA

from five ticks isolated from the same region, host and tick species. Tick pools were

named after region and host and then given numerical identities (e.g. Nablus Dog

Tick Pool 1, Nablus Dog Tick Pool 2). Tick pools were subjected to 16S rRNA

sequence analyses on the Illumina platform, according to the manufacturer's

instructions [37]. In brief, V3–V4 hyper-variable regions were amplified using primers

tagged with Illumina-specific primers. Amplification was performed using X2 KAPA

HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (Kappa Biosystems). PCR conditions were as follows: 95°C

for 3 minutes, followed by 25 cycles of: 95°C for 30 seconds, 55°C for 30 seconds,

72°C for 30 seconds, then 72°C for 5 minutes and final hold at 4°C. Negative controls

containing nuclease-free water were used in each PCR run. PCR products were

purified using AMPure XP beads (X0.8) followed by the second round of amplification

that introduces the index sequences using the Nextera XT Index Kit (Illumina).

Amplicons were sequenced according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The

PhiX control (15%) was added to the denatured library. Paired-end sequencing was

carried out on the Illumina MiSeq platform.

16S rRNA amplicon sequences were analysed via the QIIME1 pipeline [38].

Amplicon sequences were demultiplexed into samples by barcode, then pre-

processed and quality-filtered, using QIIME's multiple_join_paired_ends.py and

split_libraries_fastq.py scripts, accepting only those with a quality score below 19

and a minimum sequence length of 350 bp. Sequences passing the quality filter were

clustered at 97% homology using QIIME's pick_open_reference_otus.py and

pick_otus.py scripts with the option "enable_rev_strand_match True". Operational

taxonomic units (OTUs) were defined at 97% identity and then taxonomically

assigned using the Greengenes 13_8 database [39]. To remove spurious

sequences, OTUs that occurred only once in the data were removed. We then

calculated relative abundances for each OTU across the taxonomic levels from

phylum to family, focusing on taxonomic sequence identifications relevant to tick-

borne potential pathogens and endosymbionts (S1 Table).

Shotgun metagenomic sequencing

Fourteen individual tick DNA samples were selected for follow-up by shotgun

metagenomics, named after the pool they belonged to with a final numerical identifier

for each tick, e.g. Nablus sheep tick 4.1, Nablus sheep tick 4.2. DNA sequencing

libraries were prepared using the Nextera XT kit (Illumina), with DNA fragmented,

tagged, cleaned and normalized according to the manufacturer's recommendations.

The quality of DNA in each library was evaluated using the Agilent 2200 TapeStation

(Agilent) and the quantity was measured using the Qubit (Invitrogen). Libraries were

sequenced on a NextSeq 500 with the mid-output setting and single-end reads. We

analysed shotgun metagenome sequences using the Cloud Infrastructure for

Microbial Bioinformatics [40]. Sequences were assessed for quality using FastQC

version 0.11.5 [41] and quality-filtered using Trimmomatic version 0.35 with default

parameters [42]. Trimmomatic's Illuminaclip function was used to clip off Illumina

adapters. Metagenome sequences were deposited in the Sequence Read Archive

under Bioproject XYZ.

Sequence-based identification of tick and host

224 Reads from each metagenome were assembled into contigs and then subjected to

225 BLAST searches with mitochondrial signature genes from the potential tick and host

226   species (S2 Table). Coding sequences from the metagenomic assemblies that had

227   been identified from BLAST hits were then subjected to a second round of BLAST

228   searches to determine the percentage identity to signature genes from relevant taxa.

Taxonomic profiling of tick metagenomes

We performed a taxonomic assignment of reads in each sample using the Centrifuge

metagenome classifier Version 1.0.3 together with its associated p+h+v database

[43]. Centrifuge reports were converted to Kraken-style reports using Centrifuge's

kreport parameter and Pavian was used to visualize the reports [44]. Taxa with a

relative abundance of <5% were discarded as potential kit contaminants and we then

evaluated the reports for the presence of potential pathogens and endosymbionts.

Assembly of microbial genomes

We constructed a set of completed reference genomes for each genus of potential

pathogen or endosymbionts identified in at least one of our samples using Centrifuge

(S3 Table). Reference sequences were downloaded using the ncbi-genome-

download script [45]. We then mapped the metagenome from each sample against

all the reference genomes using BowTie2 version 2.3.4.1 [46]. We converted SAM

files to sorted BAM files using SAMtools and visualized stats using Qualimap 2

[47,48]. To allow us to bin species-specific reads for each microorganism of interest

from the metagenomic sequences, the set of metagenomic reads from each sample

that mapped to a taxon of interest were assembled into contigs using SPAdes

(version 3.11.1) [49] and annotated using Prokka (version 1.12). We then used

taxonomic profiles from Centrifuge for each contig to confirm the specificity of our

binning approach. The coverage of the resulting draft genome sequences was

calculated after mapping reads back to the assemblies using BowTie2. We

compared the gene content between our metagenome-derived draft bacterial

genomes and related reference genomes using Roary [50]. To confirm species

identity, average nucleotide identity was calculated from BLAST searches [51] or by

using the online ANI/AAI matrix tool [52].

Phylogenomic analyses

We aligned signature genes from selected microbial taxa (*Supplementary files*) with

homologues in metagenome-derived genome sequences using MAFFT (version

7.305b) [53] and performed maximum likelihood phylogenetic reconstructions using

RAxML (version 8.2.12) with 1000 bootstraps [54]. MEGA7 was used to visualize the

trees [55]. FastTree2.1 was used to construct phylogenetic trees using Generalized

time reversible (GTR) and the CAT approximation (estimated rate of evolution for

each site) model [56]. Bootstrapping with 1000 iterations was used to evaluate the

significance of branches within phylogenetic trees. SNP distance matrices between

assemblies and reference genomes were calculated using Snippy version 3.1

incorporating Freebayes version 1.1.0 for SNP detection [57,58].

Results

Taxonomic profiling of pooled tick samples

Two hundred hard ticks were collected from diverse animal hosts (23 dogs, 7 sheep,

and 2 camels) and were identified morphologically to the species level (Fig. 2). PCR-

amplification of 16S rRNA sequences was attempted on 40 pools of tick DNA. No

products were obtained from eight of the pools. Sequencing of amplification products

from the remaining 32 pools identified the major residents of the tick microbiome at

the level of bacterial family (S1 Table). Four families harbouring potential pathogens

or endosymbionts accounted for around 45% of all such sequences: the

Coxiellaceae, the Francisellaceae, the Rickettsiaceae and the *Anaplasmataceae*

(Fig. 3).

Fig. 3 Relative abundances of potential pathogens and endosymbionts in

pooled tick samples.

As expected from previous reports [33,34], the *Coxiellaceae* were detectable in all

dog and sheep ticks, although their relative abundance varied from <10% to >80%.

The *Rickettsiaceae* were detected as major residents (12–83% of reads) in all the

sheep tick pools and in one tick pool derived from dogs. One sheep-derived tick pool

also contained reads from the Anaplasmataceae. The two pools derived from ticks

isolated from camels were, in line with previous work [12], dominated by the

Francisellaceae, but lacked sequences from the *Coxiellaceae*.

Metagenomic profiling of individual ticks

Fourteen ticks were selected for follow-up studies on the basis of the 16S results:

two camel ticks, five sheep ticks, six dog ticks from the genus *Rhipicephalus* and two

dog ticks from the genus *Haemaphysalis*. Shotgun metagenome sequencing of DNA

from the fourteen ticks generated 15.8 million single-end reads, with >98% of reads

from each sample surviving trimming (S5 Table).

Sequence-based identification of the ticks based on mitochondrial signature gene

sequences generally confirmed the morphological identifications, with closest BLAST

hits typically showing sequence identities of >99% to sequences assigned to the

relevant tick species (Table 1). However, there were three discrepancies: Jericho

Camel Tick 2.1 identified on morphological grounds as *Hyalomma impeltatum* was

re-assigned on grounds of sequence identity to *Hyalomma dromedarii*; Nablus Sheep

Tick 2.1 was identified morphologically as *Rhipicephalus turanicus,* but showed

greatest sequence similarity to *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* dog ticks from Egypt and

Iran; and Ramallah Dog Ticks 1.1 and 1.2, assigned to the species *Haemaphysalis*

parva by morphology, both delivered a highest-scoring BLAST hit to a sequence from

the species *Haemaphysalis concinna*, but the low level of sequence identity (88%)

suggests that these ticks belong to a previously uncharacterised species within the

genus *Haemaphysalis*. Identification of the tick host via mitochondrial signature gene

sequences proved successful in six of the fourteen individual ticks (Table 1). This

varied success presumably reflects the variation in the state of engorgement of the

tick with the host's blood.

Tick	Tick ID by morphology	Tick ID by sequence (% identity to closest hit)	Host ID by sequence	Key microbes in taxonomic profile	Microbe ID from metagenome
Jericho Camel Tick 2.1	*Hyalomma impeltatum*	*Hyalomma dromedarii* (100)	undetermined	*Francisella*	*Francisella persica*
Nablus Sheep Tick 1.1	*R. turanicus*	*R. turanicus* (99.2)	undetermined	*Coxiella, Rickettsia*	*Rickettsia barbariae* strain Rb Nablus
Nablus Sheep Tick 2.1	*R. turanicus*	*R. sanguineus* (99.1)	*Ovis aries*	*Coxiella*	undetermined
Nablus Sheep Tick 3.1	*R. turanicus*	*R. turanicus* (99.2)	undetermined	*Coxiella, Rickettsia*	*Coxeilla mudrowiae* strain CRt Nablus *Rickettsia massiliae* strain Rm Nablus
Tubas Sheep Tick 3.1	*R. turanicus*	*R. turanicus* (99.3)	undetermined	*Coxiella, Anaplasma*	*Anaplasma ovis*
Tubas Sheep Tick 3.2	*R. turanicus*	*R. turanicus* (99.2)	undetermined	*Coxiella, Anaplasma*	*Anaplasma ovis*
Hebron Dog Tick 8.1	*R. sanguineus*	*R. sanguineus* (99.4)	*Canis lupus familiaris*	*Coxiella*	undetermined
Ramallah Dog Tick 1.1	*Haemaphysalis parva*	*Haemaphysalis concinna* (87.7)	undetermined	*Coxiella*	undetermined
Ramallah Dog Tick 1.2	*Haemaphysalis parva*	*Haemaphysalis concinna* (87.8)	*Canis lupus familiaris*	*Coxiella*	undetermined
Nablus Dog Tick 1.1	*R. sanguineus*	*R. sanguineus* (99.4)	undetermined	*Coxiella*	undetermined
Nablus Dog Tick 1.2	*R. sanguineus*	*R. sanguineus* (99.2)	*Canis lupus familiaris*	*Coxiella*	undetermined
Tubas Dog Tick 2.1	*R. sanguineus*	*R. sanguineus* (99.2)	*Canis lupus familiaris*	*Coxiella, canine parvovirus*	Canine parvovirus
Tubas Dog Tick 3.1	*R. sanguineus*	*R. sanguineus* (99.3)	undetermined	*Coxiella*	*Coxeilla mudrowiae* strain CRs Tubas
Tubas Dog Tick 3.2	*R. sanguineus*	*R. sanguineus* (99.9)	*Canis lupus familiaris*	*Coxiella*	undetermined

315
316 **Table 1. Metagenomic analyses of individual tick samples from Palestine**
317
318

When subjected to taxonomic profiling, 12.6 % of the metagenomic reads were

classified as bacterial and 0.015 % of reads as viral (S7 Table). The taxonomic

profiles confirmed the presence of the bacterial genera *Coxiella*, *Francisella*,

Rickettsia and *Anaplasma* in the relevant ticks (Fig. 4). In addition, reads from canine

parvovirus were identified in Tubas Dog Tick 2.1.

Fig. 4. Relative abundance of potential pathogens and endosymbionts in

individual tick samples

Phylogenomic characterisation of tick-borne potential

pathogens

Taxonomic profiling showed a high abundance of reads assigned to the genus

Rickettsia in Nablus Sheep Tick 1.1 and Nablus Sheep Tick 3.1, which are both *R.*

turanicus. In Nablus Sheep Tick 3.1, the *Rickettsia* reads (~8%) were outnumbered

by those from *Coxiella* (~30%). However in Nablus Sheep Tick 1.1, the relative

abundance of *Rickettsia* reads (~25%) was much higher than for *Coxiella* (~2%).

Metagenomic reads from these two ticks were mapped against a collection of all

complete rickettsial genome sequences (S3 Table). Reads mapping to any of the

rickettsial genomes were extracted from each sample and were assembled into a

draft genome sequence.

Rickettsial reads from Nablus Sheep Tick 3.1 assembled into 380 contigs, with an

average depth of coverage of 13X, a genome size of 1,342,424 base pairs and a GC

content of 32.73%. Comparisons to the *Rickettsia* reference genomes showed that

this metagenome-derived genome (which we term "Rm Nablus") was highly similar to

the genome of *R. massiliae* strain MTU5 from Marseille, France [59], showing

extensive synteny and just 127 SNPs spanning the whole genome (Fig. 5, S8 Table).

The two strains also share a plasmid, *pRMA*. This high degree of genome

conservation between *R. massiliae* strains from opposite ends of the Mediterranean

region seems remarkable. However, both MTU5 and Rm Nablus strain are far less

closely related (SNP distance >16000) to the only other genome-sequenced strain

assigned to the species *R. massiliae*—the AZT80 strain from Arizona [60]. Instead,

our comparisons show that this US isolate is much more closely related (just 4 SNPs

different) to the strain ECT, which has been assigned to the species *R. rhipicephali*.

Fig. 5. Genome comparisons for *Rickettsia massiliae* strain Rm Nablus

From centre outwards: Rickettsia massiliae strain MTU5 (black circle:

GCF_000016625); GC content; GC skew; *Rickettsia rhipicephali* strain ECT

(GCF_000964905), *Rickettsia massiliae* strain AZT80; *Rickettsia massiliae* strain Rm

Nablus (this study).

Rickettsial reads from Nablus Sheep Tick 1.1 assembled into 47 contigs with an

average depth of coverage of 14X, a genome size of 1,246,042 base pairs and GC

content of 32.4%. Comparison with other rickettsial genome sequences showed that

the closest genome-sequenced relatives of the *Rickettsia* from Tick 9 are *R. africae*

str. ESF-5 and *R. parkeri* str. AT24. However, each are separated from this genome

by >10,000 SNPs (S2 Figure), suggesting that it represents a distinct species for

which no genome sequence yet exists. With that in mind, we performed comparisons

to sequences from the unidentified genome to a database of rickettsial signature

gene sequences that have been widely used to identify isolates to species level.

Here, we found 100% identity with the 16S, *gltA* and *recA* genes from *Candidatus* R.

barbariae and 582/584 residues identical in *ompB*. This leads us to conclude that our

metagenome-derived assembly (which we term "Rb Nablus") represents the first

draft genome sequence from this species. Comparisons with the *R. africae* and *R.*

parkeri genomes suggest extensive synteny between all three genomes. The only

major exception appears to be the variable *tra* region, first identified in *R. massiliae*

[59], where *Candidatus* R. barbariae lacks the *tra* genes found in the other two

species (Fig. 6).

Fig. 6: Genome comparisons for *Candidatus* Rickettsia barbariae strain Rb

Nablus

From centre outwards: Rickettsia parkeri strain Tates Hell (black circle: NCBI ID

GCF_000965145); GC content; GC skew; *Rickettsia africae* strain ESF-3

(GCF_000023005); *Candidatus* Rickettsia barbariae strain Rb Nablus (this study).

Taxonomic profiling indicated a high abundance of reads assigned to the genus

Anaplasma in Tubas Sheep Ticks 1.1 and 1.2. Metagenomics reads from these two

ticks were mapped to a set of 44 completed *Anaplasma* genomes (S3 table). Reads

mapping to any *Anaplasma* genome were extracted and assembled into contigs. The

Anaplasma assembly from Tubas Sheep Tick 1.1 contained 155 contigs with a total

length of 312,716 bp, while that from Tubas Sheep Tick 1.2 contained 323 contigs

with a total length of 497,831 bp.   BLAST comparisons to the *Anaplasma* reference

genomes showed that contigs from both ticks were highly similar (>99% sequence

identity) to the genome of *Anaplasma ovis*.

As some reads from Tubas Dog Tick 2.1 were taxonomically assigned to canine

parvovirus, we mapped this metagenome against the reference sequence for this

virus (NCBI Reference Sequence: NC_001539.1) and obtained 11X coverage of

canine parvovirus strain Tubas. BLAST comparisons with other canine parvovirus

gene sequences showed that the Tubas Dog Tick 2.1 virus was most closely related

to the lineage 2b strain CPV-LZ2 from Lanzhou in North-West China.

Phylogenomic characterisation of tick endosymbionts

Taxonomic profiling showed a high abundance (>30%) of reads assigned to the

genus *Coxiella* in Nablus Sheep Tick 3.1 and Tubas Dog Tick 3.1, so we mapped

metagenomic reads from these ticks against a set of all completed *Coxiella* genomes

(S3 Table). We retrieved all threads that mapped to any *Coxiella* genome from these

samples and, as before, performed genome assemblies.

De novo assembly of *Coxiella* reads from Nablus Sheep Tick 3.1—a specimen of *R.*

turanicus—resulted in 35 contigs with a combined size of 1,581,648 base pairs and a

GC content of 38.2% and a depth of coverage of 37X. Phylogenetic analyses

showed that the resulting draft genome (which we term "strain CRt Nablus") was

almost identical (with only 294 SNPs spanning the whole genome) to the Coxiella-

like endosymbiont *Candidatus* Coxiella mudrowiae, strain CRt (ASM107771v1),

derived from a *R. turanicus* sample collected at Kibbutz Hulda, Israel, 56 km from

Nablus.

Fig. 8 Genome comparisons for *Candidatus* Coxiella mudrowiae **strains CRt**

Nablus and CRs Tubas. Fig. 8 Legend.

De novo assembly of Coxiella reads from Tubas Dog Tick 3.1 resulted in 177 contigs

with a combined size of 1,529,439 base pairs and a GC content of 38.1%. The

resulting draft genome (which we term "strain CRs Tubas"; Fig. 8) is relatively

distantly related (>20,000 SNPs or an average nucleotide identity of only 98%) to the

only other known genome of a *Coxiella*-like endosymbiont from *Rhipicephalus*

sanginueus—strain CRs (NZ_CP024961.1)—which was derived from a sample

collected in Caesarea, Israel, 48 km from Tubas. However, signature genes from our

strain CRs Tubas all showed >99.5% nucleotide identity to those from other *Coxiella-*

like endosymbionts from *Rhipicephalus turanicus*, while they showed only ≤96%

identity to the same genes from similar endosymbionts derived from *Rhipicephalus*

sanguineus (S. 10 Table)—suggesting that endosymbionts from the these tick

species are vertically inherited and co-evolving with their hosts.

Taxonomic profiling of metagenomic reads from Jericho Camel Tick 2.1, a specimen

of the species *Hyalomma dromedarii,* confirmed the presence of *Francisella*-like

endosymbionts. However, when these reads were mapped against relevant

Francisella genomes the depth of coverage was insufficient for further phylogenetic

analysis.

Discussion

Here, we have shown how a cost-effective combination of 16S rRNA sequence

analysis and shotgun metagenomics can be used to detect and characterise tick-

borne pathogens and endosymbionts. According to morphological criteria, we

surveyed ticks from four different taxa [61]: the brown dog tick *Rhipicephalus*

sanguineus, which has a global distribution [62]; its close relative *Rhipicephalus*

turanicus, which we collected from sheep*;* a tick from the genus *Haemaphysalis,*

collected from a dog; and *Hyalomma* samples from camels. All these taxa have been

reported to feed on humans [61]. Interestingly, metagenomic sequencing allowed us

to confirm or refine the species identities assigned to the ticks on morphological

grounds, as well as in some cases confirming the identity of the host.

Mindful of the potential for reagent-based contamination of low-biomass samples

[63], here we have focused on taxa already known to contain tick-borne pathogens

and endosymbionts, rather than attempting to provide a definitive survey of tick

microbiomes. Our metagenomics strategy has delivered three important benefits.

First, in using sequence-based methods to confirm the identities of ticks (and their

hosts), we avoid the problems of using morphological criteria alone, which can be

problematic in tick identification and classification [61]. Second, in addition to simply

detecting or identifying tick-borne pathogens and endosymbionts, we, like others

[34,36], have used shotgun metagenomic sequencing to obtain in-depth genome-

resolved characterisation of key bacteria from this setting. Third, in recovering

genome sequences from an unexpected pathogens (canine parvovirus) and a

previously unsequenced pathogen (*R. barbariae*), we have demonstrated the open-

ended nature of diagnostic metagenomics [35].

Rickettsia massiliae has caused tick-borne spotted fever in humans in the Europe

and South America [64–66]. Although no cases of human infection have been

described in the Levant, this pathogen has been detected in ticks collected in

Palestine and in Israel [24,28,29,31,32]. *Candidatus* R. barbariae belongs to the

spotted-fever group of rickettsiae [67], but has yet to be associated with human

infection. However, it has been found in human-parasitising ticks [68] and may well

be pathogenic for humans. This candidate species has been detected previously in

ticks from Palestine, from Israel and from Lebanon [24,29,32,69].

Here, we provide a third draft genome from *Rickettsia massiliae* and the first draft

genome from *Candidatus* R. barbariae, which confirms its close similarity to the

established human pathogens, *R. africae* and *R. parkeri* and provides a starting point

for future population genomics studies of this potential pathogen. Comparison with

pre-existing examples reveal that our *Rickettsia massiliae* Rm Nablus strain shows

far greater sequence similarity to the MTU5 strain from Marseille than to the AZT50

strain from Arizona, hinting at an Old World/New World phylogeographic population

structure for this pathogen, which awaits clarification from additional genome

sequences.

Coxiella-like endosymbionts of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* and *R. turanicus* have

been recently assigned to a new candidate species *Candidatus* C. mudrowiae, on

the basis of genome sequences derived from pools of ticks isolated in Israel [33,34].

We present genome sequences of *Candidatus* C. mudrowiae derived from individual

Rhipicephalus sanguineus and *R. turanicus* ticks, which were harvested in Palestine.

Unsurprisingly, *Candidatus* C. mudrowiae genomes from Palestine and Israel are

very similar. Interestingly, our two genome assemblies are each clearly more closely

related to one of the variants in each of the tick pools from Israel, pointing the way

towards a more sophisticated genome-informed documentation of phylogeographic

variation in this species, which will be relevant to the analysis of host and

endosymbiont co-evolution.

We detected two microorganisms by metagenomics that were somewhat

unexpected: *Anaplasma ovis* and canine parvovirus. *Anaplasma ovis* infects sheep

and goats in many regions of the world, but its precise prevalence and clinical

importance remains uncertain in most settings, including here in Palestine [70].

Enteritis caused by canine parvovirus has been a leading cause of morbidity and

mortality in dogs globally since it emerged as a new pathogen in the mid-1970s [71].

The usual route of transmission is thought to be faecal-oral. However, the infection is

characterised by a marked viraemia and canine parvovirus has been shown to

persist within hard ticks under laboratory conditions [72]. Our metagenomics survey

has provided the first evidence that ticks can carry the virus in the natural setting and

raises the possibility that ticks might contribute to the spread of canine parvovirus

among dogs in Palestine and more widely. However, it remains possible that the tick

is merely a dead-end host for this virus.

In closing, the results presented here hint at exciting opportunities for more ambitious

metagenomic surveys in the future, as sequencing technologies become more user-

friendly and cost-effective. Such ventures are likely to shed new light on the

transmission, evolution, and phylogeography of tick-borne pathogens and

endosymbionts.

Supporting information

S1 Table: 16S OTU table for tick pools

S2 Table: Tick and host mitochondrial sequences

S3 Table: Reference genomes for tick-borne pathogens and endosymbionts

S4 Table: Results of targeted PCRs on individual ticks

S5 Table: Shotgun Sequencing Statistics

S6 Table: Mapping to tick and host mitochondrial sequences

S7 Table: Taxonomic profiles of metagenomic sequences

S8 Table Mapping data for tick-borne pathogens and endosymbionts

S9 Table: SNP Tables for tick-borne pathogens and endosymbionts

S1 Figure. Multiple alignment of signature sequences confirming identity of

Candidatus R. barbariae Rb Nablus

Acknowledgments

We thank Yuval Gottlieb for reading and commenting on the manuscript.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SE, AN, and MP. Identified the ticks and extracted DNA: AA-J and OA-S. Performed 16S PCR amplification: SE and AN. Performed 16S amplicon sequencing: OA-S and HH. Performed metagenomic sequencing: SE and AN. Bioinformatics analysis: AR and MP. Wrote the manuscript SE, MP, AR and AN. All authors approved the manuscript.

References

1. Pfäffle M, Littwin N, Muders SV, Petney TN (2013) The ecology of tick-borne diseases. Int J Parasitol 43: 1059-1077.

2. de la Fuente J, Antunes S, Bonnet S, Cabezas-Cruz A, Domingos AG, Estrada-Peña A et al. (2017) Tick-Pathogen Interactions and Vector Competence: Identification of Molecular Drivers for Tick-Borne Diseases. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 7: 114.

3. Jongejan F, Uilenberg G (2004) The global importance of ticks. Parasitology 129 Suppl: S3-14.

4. Ghosh S, Azhahianambi P, Yadav MP (2007) Upcoming and future strategies of tick control: a review. J Vector Borne Dis 44: 79-89.

5. Zhong J, Jasinskas A, Barbour AG (2007) Antibiotic treatment of the tick vector Amblyomma americanum reduced reproductive fitness. PLoS One 2: e405.

6. Guizzo MG, Parizi LF, Nunes RD, Schama R, Albano RM, Tirloni L et al. (2017) A Coxiella mutualist symbiont is essential to the development of Rhipicephalus

microplus. Sci Rep 7: 17554.

7.   Li LH, Zhang Y, Zhu D (2018) Effects of antibiotic treatment on the fecundity of

Rhipicephalus haemaphysaloides ticks. Parasit Vectors 11: 242.

8.   Niebylski ML, Peacock MG, Fischer ER, Porcella SF, Schwan TG (1997)

Characterization of an endosymbiont infecting wood ticks, Dermacentor

andersoni, as a member of the genus Francisella. Appl Environ Microbiol 63:

3933-3940.

9.   Kreizinger Z, Hornok S, Dán A, Hresko S, Makrai L, Magyar T et al. (2013)

Prevalence of Francisella tularensis and Francisella-like endosymbionts in the

tick population of Hungary and the genetic variability of Francisella-like agents.

Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 13: 160-163.

10.   Szigeti A, Kreizinger Z, Hornok S, Abichu G, Gyuranecz M (2014) Detection of

Francisella-like endosymbiont in Hyalomma rufipes from Ethiopia. Ticks Tick

Borne Dis 5: 818-820.

11.   Gerhart JG, Moses AS, Raghavan R (2016) A Francisella-like endosymbiont in

the Gulf Coast tick evolved from a mammalian pathogen. Sci Rep 6: 33670.

12.   Azagi T, Klement E, Perlman G, Lustig Y, Mumcuoglu KY, Apanaskevich DA et

al. (2017) Francisella-Like Endosymbionts and Rickettsia Species in Local and

Imported Hyalomma Ticks. Appl Environ Microbiol 83:

13.   Gerhart JG, Auguste Dutcher H, Brenner AE, Moses AS, Grubhoffer L,

Raghavan R (2018) Multiple Acquisitions of Pathogen-Derived Francisella

Endosymbionts in Soft Ticks. Genome Biol Evol 10: 607-615.

14.   Smith TA, Driscoll T, Gillespie JJ, Raghavan R (2015) A Coxiella-like

endosymbiont is a potential vitamin source for the Lone Star tick. Genome Biol

Evol 7: 831-838.

15.   Raele DA, Galante D, Pugliese N, De Simone E, Cafiero MA (2015) Coxiella-

like endosymbiont associated to the "Anatolian brown tick" Rhipicephalus bursa

in Southern Italy. Microbes Infect 17: 799-805.

16. Arthan W, Sumrandee C, Hirunkanokpun S, Kitthawee S, Baimai V,

Trinachartvanit W et al. (2015) Detection of Coxiella-like endosymbiont in

Haemaphysalis tick in Thailand. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 6: 63-68.

17. Al-Deeb MA, Frangoulidis D, Walter MC, Kömpf D, Fischer SF, Petney T et al.

(2016) Coxiella-like endosymbiont in argasid ticks (Ornithodoros muesebecki)

from a Socotra Cormorant colony in Umm Al Quwain, United Arab Emirates.

Ticks Tick Borne Dis 7: 166-171.

18. Michelet L, Joncour G, Devillers E, Torina A, Vayssier-Taussat M, Bonnet SI et

al. (2016) Tick species, tick-borne pathogens and symbionts in an insular

environment off the coast of Western France. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 7: 1109-

1115.

19. Papa A, Tsioka K, Kontana A, Papadopoulos C, Giadinis N (2017) Bacterial

pathogens and endosymbionts in ticks. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 8: 31-35.

20. Duron O, Binetruy F, Noël V, Cremaschi J, McCoy KD, Arnathau C et al. (2017)

Evolutionary changes in symbiont community structure in ticks. Mol Ecol 26:

2905-2921.

21. Duron O, Noël V, McCoy KD, Bonazzi M, Sidi-Boumedine K, Morel O et al.

(2015) The Recent Evolution of a Maternally-Inherited Endosymbiont of Ticks

Led to the Emergence of the Q Fever Pathogen, Coxiella burnetii. PLoS Pathog

11: e1004892.

22. Gall CA, Reif KE, Scoles GA, Mason KL, Mousel M, Noh SM et al. (2016) The

bacterial microbiome of Dermacentor andersoni ticks influences pathogen

susceptibility. ISME J 10: 1846-1855.

23. Felsheim RF, Kurtti TJ, Munderloh UG (2009) Genome sequence of the

endosymbiont Rickettsia peacockii and comparison with virulent Rickettsia

rickettsii: identification of virulence factors. PLoS One 4: e8361.

24. Ereqat S, Nasereddin A, Al-Jawabreh A, Azmi K, Harrus S, Mumcuoglu K et al.

(2016) Molecular Detection and Identification of Spotted Fever Group

Rickettsiae in Ticks Collected from the West Bank, Palestinian Territories.

PLoS Negl Trop Dis 10: e0004348.

25.   Ereqat S, Nasereddin A, Vayssier-Taussat M, Abdelkader A, Al-Jawabreh A,

Zaid T et al. (2016) Molecular Evidence of Bartonella Species in Ixodid Ticks

and Domestic Animals in Palestine. Front Microbiol 7: 1217.

26.   Azmi K, Ereqat S, Nasereddin A, Al-Jawabreh A, Baneth G, Abdeen Z (2016)

Molecular detection of Theileria, Babesia, and Hepatozoon spp. in ixodid ticks

from Palestine. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 7: 734-741.

27.   Kleinerman G, Baneth G, Mumcuoglu KY, van Straten M, Berlin D,

Apanaskevich DA et al. (2013) Molecular detection of Rickettsia africae,

Rickettsia aeschlimannii, and Rickettsia sibirica mongolitimonae in camels and

Hyalomma spp. ticks from Israel. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis 13: 851-856.

28.   Keysary A, Eremeeva ME, Leitner M, Din AB, Wikswo ME, Mumcuoglu KY et al.

(2011) Spotted fever group rickettsiae in ticks collected from wild animals in

Israel. Am J Trop Med Hyg 85: 919-923.

29.   Waner T, Keysary A, Eremeeva ME, Din AB, Mumcuoglu KY, King R et al.

(2014) Rickettsia africae and Candidatus Rickettsia barbariae in ticks in Israel.

Am J Trop Med Hyg 90: 920-922.

30.   Harrus S, Perlman-Avrahami A, Mumcuoglu KY, Morick D, Eyal O, Baneth G

(2011) Molecular detection of Ehrlichia canis, Anaplasma bovis, Anaplasma

platys, Candidatus Midichloria mitochondrii and Babesia canis vogeli in ticks

from Israel. Clin Microbiol Infect 17: 459-463.

31.   Harrus S, Perlman-Avrahami A, Mumcuoglu KY, Morick D, Baneth G (2011)

Molecular detection of Rickettsia massiliae, Rickettsia sibirica mongolitimonae

and Rickettsia conorii israelensis in ticks from Israel. Clin Microbiol Infect 17:

176-180.

32.   Rose J, Nachum-Biala Y, Mumcuoglu KY, Alkhamis MA, Ben-Nun A, Lensky I

et al. (2017) Genetic characterization of spotted fever group rickettsiae in

640   questing ixodid ticks collected in Israel and environmental risk factors for their

641   infection. Parasitology 144: 1088-1101.

642 33. Gottlieb Y, Lalzar I, Klasson L (2015) Distinctive Genome Reduction Rates

643   Revealed by Genomic Analyses of Two Coxiella-Like Endosymbionts in Ticks.

644   Genome Biol Evol 7: 1779-1796.

645 34. Tsementzi D, Castro Gordillo J, Mahagna M, Gottlieb Y, Konstantinidis KT

646   (2018) Comparison of closely related, uncultivated Coxiella tick endosymbiont

647   population genomes reveals clues about the mechanisms of symbiosis. Environ

648   Microbiol

649 35. Pallen MJ (2014) Diagnostic metagenomics: potential applications to bacterial,

650   viral and parasitic infections. Parasitology 141: 1856-1862.

651 36. Bouquet J, Melgar M, Swei A, Delwart E, Lane RS, Chiu CY (2017)

652   Metagenomic-based Surveillance of Pacific Coast tick Dermacentor

653   occidentalis Identifies Two Novel Bunyaviruses and an Emerging Human

654   Ricksettsial Pathogen. Sci Rep 7: 12234.

655 37. Anonymous (2003) 16S Metagenomic Sequencing Library Preparation.

656   Available: https://www.illumina.com/content/dam/illumina-

657   support/documents/documentation/chemistry_documentation/16s/16s-

658   metagenomic-library-prep-guide-15044223-b.pdf via the Internet. Accessed x.

659 38. Caporaso JG, Kuczynski J, Stombaugh J, Bittinger K, Bushman FD, Costello

660   EK et al. (2010) QIIME allows analysis of high-throughput community

661   sequencing data. Nat Methods 7: 335-336.

662 39. DeSantis TZ, Hugenholtz P, Larsen N, Rojas M, Brodie EL, Keller K et al.

663   (2006) Greengenes, a chimera-checked 16S rRNA gene database and

664   workbench compatible with ARB. Appl Environ Microbiol 72: 5069-5072.

665 40. Connor TR, Loman NJ, Thompson S, Smith A, Southgate J, Poplawski R et al.

666   (2016) CLIMB (the Cloud Infrastructure for Microbial Bioinformatics): an online

667   resource for the medical microbiology community. Microb Genom 2: e000086.

668   41.   Andrews S FastQC: a quality control tool for high throughput sequence data.

669   Available: http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc via the

670   Internet. Accessed x.

671   42.   Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B (2014) Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for

672   Illumina sequence data. Bioinformatics 30: 2114-2120.

673   43.   Kim D, Song L, Breitwieser FP, Salzberg SL (2016) Centrifuge: rapid and

674   sensitive classification of metagenomic sequences. Genome Res 26: 1721-

675   1729.

676   44.   Breitwieser FP, Salzberg SL (2016) Pavian: Interactive analysis of

677   metagenomics data for microbiomics and pathogen identification. BioRxiv

678   https://doiorg/101101/084715

679   45.   Blin K (2018) ncbi-genome-download. Available: https://github.com/kblin/ncbi-

680   genome-download via the Internet. Accessed x.

681   46.   Langmead B, Salzberg SL (2012) Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2.

682   Nat Methods 9: 357-359.

683   47.   Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N et al. (2009) The

684   Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics 25: 2078-2079.

685   48.   Okonechnikov K, Conesa A, García-Alcalde F (2016) Qualimap 2: advanced

686   multi-sample quality control for high-throughput sequencing data.

687   Bioinformatics 32: 292-294.

688   49.   Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS et al.

689   (2012) SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its applications to

690   single-cell sequencing. J Comput Biol 19: 455-477.

691   50.   Page AJ, Cummins CA, Hunt M, Wong VK, Reuter S, Holden MT et al. (2015)

692   Roary: rapid large-scale prokaryote pan genome analysis. Bioinformatics 31:

693   3691-3693.

694   51.   Altschul SF, Gish W, Miller W, Myers EW, Lipman DJ (1990) Basic local

695   alignment search tool. J Mol Biol 215: 403-410.

52. Rodriguez-R LM, Konstantinidis KT (2016) The enveomics collection: a toolbox

for specialized analyses of microbial genomes and metagenomes. PeerJ

Preprints 4: e1900v1.

53. Katoh K, Misawa K, Kuma K, Miyata T (2002) MAFFT: a novel method for rapid

multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. Nucleic Acids

Res 30: 3059-3066.

54. Stamatakis A (2014) RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and

post-analysis of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics 30: 1312-1313.

55. Kumar S, Stecher G, Tamura K (2016) MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary

Genetics Analysis Version 7.0 for Bigger Datasets. Mol Biol Evol 33: 1870-1874.

56. Price MN, Dehal PS, Arkin AP (2010) FastTree 2--approximately maximum-

likelihood trees for large alignments. PLoS One 5: e9490.

57. Seemann T (2015) Snippy: rapid haploid variant calling and core SNP

phylogeny. Available: https://github.com/tseemann/snippy via the Internet.

Accessed x.

58. Garrison E, Marth G (2012) Haplotype-based variant detection from short-read

sequencing. arXiv preprint arXiv:12073907 [q-bioGN]

59. Blanc G, Ogata H, Robert C, Audic S, Claverie JM, Raoult D (2007) Lateral

gene transfer between obligate intracellular bacteria: evidence from the

Rickettsia massiliae genome. Genome Res 17: 1657-1664.

60. Eremeeva ME, Bosserman EA, Demma LJ, Zambrano ML, Blau DM, Dasch GA

(2006) Isolation and identification of Rickettsia massiliae from Rhipicephalus

sanguineus ticks collected in Arizona. Appl Environ Microbiol 72: 5569-5577.

61. (2018) Ticks of Europe and North Africa: A Guide to Species Identification.

Springer.

62. Gray J, Dantas-Torres F, Estrada-Peña A, Levin M (2013) Systematics and

ecology of the brown dog tick, Rhipicephalus sanguineus. Ticks Tick Borne Dis

4: 171-180.

63.   Salter SJ, Cox MJ, Turek EM, Calus ST, Cookson WO, Moffatt MF et al. (2014)

725   Reagent and laboratory contamination can critically impact sequence-based

726   microbiome analyses. BMC Biol 12: 87.

727   64.   Dobler G, Wölfel R (2009) Typhus and other rickettsioses: emerging infections

728   in Germany. Dtsch Arztebl Int 106: 348-354.

729   65.   García-García JC, Portillo A, Núñez MJ, Santibáñez S, Castro B, Oteo JA

730   (2010) A patient from Argentina infected with Rickettsia massiliae. Am J Trop

731   Med Hyg 82: 691-692.

732   66.   Parola P, Socolovschi C, Jeanjean L, Bitam I, Fournier PE, Sotto A et al. (2008)

733   Warmer weather linked to tick attack and emergence of severe rickettsioses.

734   PLoS Negl Trop Dis 2: e338.

735   67.   Mura A, Masala G, Tola S, Satta G, Fois F, Piras P et al. (2008) First direct

736   detection of rickettsial pathogens and a new rickettsia, 'Candidatus Rickettsia

737   barbariae', in ticks from Sardinia, Italy. Clin Microbiol Infect 14: 1028-1033.

738   68.   Papa A, Xanthopoulou K, Kotriotsiou T, Papaioakim M, Sotiraki S, Chaligiannis

739   I et al. (2016) Rickettsia species in human-parasitizing ticks in Greece. Trans R

740   Soc Trop Med Hyg 110: 299-304.

741   69.   Fernández de Mera IG, Blanda V, Torina A, Dabaja MF, El Romeh A, Cabezas-

742   Cruz A et al. (2018) Identification and molecular characterization of spotted

743   fever group rickettsiae in ticks collected from farm ruminants in Lebanon. Ticks

744   Tick Borne Dis 9: 104-108.

745   70.   Renneker S, Abdo J, Salih DE, Karagenç T, Bilgiç H, Torina A et al. (2013) Can

746   Anaplasma ovis in small ruminants be neglected any longer. Transbound

747   Emerg Dis 60 Suppl 2: 105-112.

748   71.   Mylonakis ME, Kalli I, Rallis TS (2016) Canine parvoviral enteritis: an update on

749   the clinical diagnosis, treatment, and prevention. Vet Med (Auckl) 7: 91-100.

750   72.   Mori H, Tanaka T, Mochizuki M (2015) The widely distributed hard tick,

751   Haemaphysalis longicornis, can retain canine parvovirus, but not be infected in

752   laboratory condition. J Vet Med Sci 77: 405-411.

Tulkarem dog tick pool 1
Rhipicephalus sanguineus

Jenin dog tick pools 1-3
Rhipicephalus sanguineus

Tubas dog tick pools 1-5
Rhipicephalus sanguineus
Tubas sheep tick pools 1-3
Rhipicephalus turanicus

Nablus dog tick pools 1-4
Rhipicephalus sanguineus
Nablus sheep tick pools 1-4
Rhipicephalus turanicus#

Ramallah dog tick pools 1-4
Rhipicephalus sanguineus
Ramallah dog tick pool 5
Haemaphysalis parva∞

Jericho dog tick pools 1, 2
Rhipicephalus sanguineus
Jericho camel tick pool 1
Hyalomma dromedarii
Jericho camel tick pool 2
Hyalomma impeltatum*

Hebron dog tick pools 1-3
Rhipicephalus sanguineus

Stage 1 16S rRNA amplicon profiling

Stage 2 Metagenomic profiling

Tra region

GC content

GC skew

Rickettsia africae str. ESF
- GC skew(+)
- GC skew(-)
- 100% identity
- 70% identity
- 50% identity

Candidatus R. barbariae strain Rb Nablus
- 100% identity
- 70% identity
- 50% identity

Rickettsia parkeri str. Tate's Hell
- Reference

100 kbp
200 kbp
300 kbp
400 kbp
500 kbp
600 kbp
700 kbp
800 kbp
900 kbp
1000 kbp
1100 kbp
1200 kbp
1300 kbp

GC content

GC skew
- GC skew(+)
- GC skew(-)

strain CRt Nablus
- 100% identity
- 70% identity
- 50% identity

CRs str. Caesarea
- 100% identity
- 70% identity
- 50% identity

strain CRs Tubas
- 100% identity
- 70% identity
- 50% identity

CRt str. Hulda
- Reference