A three-years assessment of *Ixodes ricinus*-borne pathogens in a French peri-urban forest

Emilie Lejal[1], Maud Marsot[2], Karine Chalvet-Monfray[3], Jean-François Cosson[1], Sara Moutailler[1], Muriel

Vayssier-Taussat[4] and Thomas Pollet[1]

[1]UMR BIPAR, Animal Health Laboratory, INRA, ANSES, Ecole Nationale Vétérinaire d'Alfort, Université

Paris-Est, Maisons-Alfort, France

[2]ANSES, University Paris Est, Laboratory for Animal Health, Epidemiology Unit, Maisons-Alfort, France

[3]Université Clermont Auvergne, Université de Lyon, INRA, VetAgro Sup, UMR EPIA, 63122 Saint Genès

Champanelle, France.

[4]INRA, Animal health department, Nouzilly, France.

Contacts :

emilie.lejal@vet-alfort.fr

thomas.pollet@vet-alfort.fr; thomas.pollet@inra.fr

muriel.vayssier@inra.fr

SUMMARY

Ixodes ricinus is the predominant tick species in Europe and the primary pathogen vector for both humans and animals. These ticks are frequently involved in the transmission of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, the causative agents of Lyme borreliosis. While much more is known about *Ixodes ricinus* tick-borne pathogen (TBP) composition, information about temporal TBP patterns remain scarce. These data are crucial for predicting seasonal/annual patterns which could improve understanding and prevent tick-borne diseases (TBD). We examined TBP dynamics in *Ixodes ricinus* collected monthly in a peri-urban forest over three consecutive years. In total, 998 nymphs were screened for 31 pathogenic species using high-throughput microfluidic real-time PCR. We detected *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* (5.3%), *Rickettsia helvetica* (4.5%), *Borrelia burgdorferi* s.l. (3.7%), *Borrelia miyamotoi* (1.2%), *Babesia venatorum* (1.5%), *Babesia divergens* (0.1%), and the agent of the cat-flea typhus, *Rickettsia felis* (0.1%). Among all analysed ticks, 15.9% were infected by at least one of these microorganisms, and 1.3% were co-infected. Co-infections with *B. afzeli/B. garinii* and *B. afzelii/B. spielmanii* were significantly over-represented. Moreover, significant variations in seasonal and/or inter-annual prevalence were observed for several pathogens (*R. helvetica, B. burgdorferi* s.l.*, B. miyamotoi*, and *A. phagocytophilum*), emphasising that regularly monitoring ticks and TBP is essential to appropriately assess acarological risk.

KEY WORDS

Tick-borne pathogens, dynamics, temporal patterns, pathogen co-occurrence

INTRODUCTION

Ticks are obligatory hematophagous arthropods and consequently, are one of the most important pathogen vectors (Jongejan and Uilenberg, 2004; de la Fuente *et al.*, 2008; Dantas-Torres *et al.*, 2012). Lyme borreliosis (LB) is the most commonly reported tick-borne disease (TBD) in the northern hemisphere and is caused by bacteria belonging to the *Borrelia burgdorferi* s.l. complex. In Western Europe, *Ixodes ricinus* is known to be involved in the transmission of these bacteria to both humans and animals. This tick species has also been reported to be a vector for many other tick-borne pathogens (TBP) with potentially significant consequences for human and animal health (*Anaplasma*, *Rickettsia*, *Bartonella*, *Babesia*...) (Strle, 2004; Bonnet *et al.*, 2007a; Bonnet *et al.*, 2007b; Cotté *et al.*, 2008; Bonnet *et al.*, 2009; Sprong *et al.*, 2009).

While multiple different pathogens have been identified and confirmed in *I. ricinus* ticks, very little is known about their seasonal and inter-annual variations. Time-series studies are thus crucial to understanding natural variability in microbial communities over time. Over the last decade, only a handful of surveys have assessed seasonal and monthly TBP variation patterns (Gassner *et al.*, 2010; Reye *et al.*, 2010; Coipan *et al.*, 2013; Takken *et al.*, 2016; Chvostáč *et al.*, 2018). Although these results have heightened our general understanding of TBP dynamics, several of these studies were performed over short periods of less than two years, rendering it impossible to infer inter-annual discrepancies or to detect bias due to a particularly exceptional year. Only Coipan *et al*. (2013) analysed several pathogenic genera in ticks sampled over more than two years. This study did demonstrate relationships between seasons and TBP prevalence (*Borrelia*, *Rickettsia*, *Anaplasma*, *Neoehrlichia*, and *Babesia*) in questing tick populations. These variations were mainly attributed to the varying availability of reservoir hosts.

Tick density is also heavily influenced by the presence of suitable hosts, most notably wild ungulates that sustain adults, thus enabling tick population renewal (Gilbert *et al.*, 2012; van Wieren and Hofmeester, 2016). However, it's important to emphasise that immediate tick survival and questing activities are highly dependent on suitable and specific environmental conditions (temperatures

comprised between 8 to 24°C; and up to 80% humidity). Simultaneously, several studies have

investigated whether pathogen presence influences tick behaviour. Herrman and Gern (2010, 2012)

suggested that *I. ricinus* infected with *B. burgdorferi* s.l. can tolerate increased levels of desiccation,

and Neelakanta *et al*. (2010) demonstrated that *I. scapularis* infected with

Anaplasma phagocytophilum are more resistant to cold. The presence of these TBP could therefore

enhance survival or questing activities of the infected ticks under challenging abiotic conditions,

suggesting the existence of a potential link between pathogen prevalence in questing ticks and seasons.

Tick density and TBP prevalence can thus be influenced by several variables, and can therefore

potentially fluctuate both seasonally and annually. Studying these dynamics is essential to better

understanding and anticipating TBP risk.

Peri-urban forests containing both TBP-reservoir hosts and ticks, and which are highly

frequented by people and their pets, represent a particularly interesting area to study tick and TBP

dynamics. The Sénart forest, located to the south of Paris, harbours many large ungulates and abundant

and diverse populations of other TBP reservoir hosts (bank voles, wood mice, Siberian chipmunks, roe

deer, hedgehogs,…), and accommodates more than three million visitors every year. This forest is

therefore particularly adapted to studying ticks and tick-borne pathogen dynamics.

In this study, we assessed the seasonal and inter-annual variability of *I. ricinus*-borne pathogens

in the Sénart forest over three consecutive years (from April 2014 to May 2017), and determined

whether any significant associations existed between these pathogens. We investigated a total of 31

pathogenic species (bacteria and parasites), belonging to 11 genera: *Borrelia*, *Anaplasma*, *Ehrlichia*,

Neoehrlichia (only Candidatus *Neoehrlichia mikurensis*), *Rickettsia*, *Bartonella*, *Francisella*, *Coxiella*,

Theileria, *Babesia*, and *Hepatozoon*.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Tick collection

I. ricinus, nymphs and adults, were monthly collected during three years, from April 2014 to May 2017, in the Sénart forest in the south of Paris. Samplings were performed by dragging (Vassallo *et al.*, 2000) on 10 transects of 10 square meters, localized on the parcel 96 (48°39'34.6"N 2°29'13.0"E, Figure 1). Flagging was always performed 3 consecutive times on each transect. After morphological identification, ticks were stored at -80°C. In total 1167 *I. ricinus* (nymphs and adults) were collected.

Tick washing, crushing and DNA extraction

Ticks were first washed once in ethanol 70% for 5 minutes and rinsed twice in sterile MilliQ water for 5 minutes each time, before performing mechanical crushing. Ticks were individually crushed in 375µL of DMEM with decomplemented Foetal Calf Serum (10%) and six steel beads using the homogenizer Precellys®24 Dual (Bertin, France) at 5500 rpm for 20 seconds.

DNA extraction was then performed on 100µL of tick crushing, using the DNA extraction kit NucleoSpin® Tissue (Macherey-Nagel, Germany), and following the standard protocol for human or animal tissue and cultured cells, from the step 2. DNA extracts were eluted in 50µL of elution buffer and then stored at -20°C until further use.

Two controls were performed: (1) the crushing control, corresponding to a DMEM tube in which crushing and DNA extraction were performed in the same conditions than on samples; and (2) the extraction control, corresponding the DNA extraction step performed on water.

Tick-borne pathogens detection

A high-throughput screening of the most common bacterial and parasitic species of tick-borne pathogens, known to circulate in Europe was performed, allowing us to detect simultaneously the presence of 31 pathogenic species, 7 genera and 1 phylum: the Borrelia genus and eight Borrelia species (*B. burgdorferi* s.s., *B. afzelii*, *B. garinii*, *B. valaisiana*, *B. spielmanii*, *B. lusitaniae*, *B. bissettii* and

B. miyamotoi); the Anaplasma genus and five Anaplasma species (*A. marginale, A. phagocytophilum,*

A. platys, A. centrale, A. bovis); the Ehrlichia genus and *E. canis*; *Candidatus* Neoehrlichia mikurensis;

the Rickettsia genus and six Rickettsia species (*R. conorii, R. slovaca, R. massiliae, R. helvetica,*

R. aeshlimanii and *R. felis*); the Bartonella genus and *B. henselae*; *Francisella tularensis*;

Coxiella burnettii; the apicomplexa phylum and seven Babesia species (*B. divergens, B. microti,*

B. caballi, B. canis, B. venatorum, B. bovis, B. ovis), but also the two parasitic genus Theileria and

Hepatozoon.

TBP DNA was detected using the BioMark™ real-time PCR system (Fluidigm, USA), that is a

microfluidic system allowing to perform 48 or 96 real-time PCR reactions on 48 or 96 different samples

as described in (Michelet *et al*., 2014; Moutailler *et al*., 2016). Briefly, each samples and primers/probe

set are deposited in individual wells. A pressure system allowed to load them on the chip, via

microchannels, in individual reaction chambers of 10nL, where each sample will meet individually each

primers/probe set.

Primers and probes

Primers and probes used for this analysis are coming from Michelet *et al*. (2014) and Gondard *et*

al. (2019). They have been designed to specifically amplified pathogens (bacteria and parasites) which

are usually found in ticks in Europe. Their sequences, amplicon size, as well as targeted genes and

pathogens are registered in Table S1. It is important to note that, because of cross-reaction of

primers/probe combination (i.e. design) targeting *B. burgdorferi* s.s. and *B. spielmanii* with respectively

B. garinii/*B. valaisiana* and *B. afzelii* DNA, positive samples for the two formers were considered as

negative when associated to the latter. Therefore, potential associations between

B. burgdorferi s.s./*B. garinii*, *B. burgdorferi* s.s./*B. valaisiana* and *B. spielmanii*/*B. afzelii* cannot be

detected and the co-infection percentage may be under-estimated.

DNA pre-amplification

Before high throughput real time PCR step, each sample was first pre-amplified using the TaqMan

PreAmp Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, France). Basically, the different primer pairs, used for the real

time PCR, were pooled combining equal volume of primers with a final concentration of 0.2µM. Due

to the high concentration of *Escherichia coli* (positive control) or tick DNA, the pre-amplification step

was not needed and the corresponding targeting primers were thus not added into the pool. The only

one exception was the primer pair named "Tick_spp_16S", targeting mitochondrial DNA, which was

added to the 0.2x pool.

For each sample, 1.25µL of DNA extract was pre-amplified using the Perfecta PreAmp SuperMix

reagent (1x) and the 0.2x pool (0.05µM), in a final reactive volume of 5µL. PCR cycle comprised a first

cycle at 98°C for 2 minutes, followed by 14 cycles with 2 steps, the first one at 95°C for 10 seconds and

the second one at 60°C for 3 minutes. Pre-amplified DNA were then diluted (1:10) by addition of 45µL

of sterile deionised water before use.

High throughput real time PCR

For each pre-amplified sample, the BioMark™ real-time PCR system (Fluidigm, USA) was used for

high-throughput microfluidic real-time PCR amplification using the 48.48 microfluidic dynamic array

(Fluidigm Corporation, USA). Amplifications were performed using FAM- and black hole quencher

(BHQ1)-labeled TaqMan probes with TaqMan Gene Expression Master Mix in accordance with

manufacturer's instructions (Applied Biosystems, France). Thermal cycling conditions were as follows:

95°C for 5 min, 45 cycles at 95°C for 10 s, 60°C for 15 s, and 40°C for 10s. Data were acquired on the

BioMark Real-Time PCR system and analysed using the Fluidigm Real-Time PCR Analysis software to

obtain crossing point (CP) values. Three tick species control (*I. ricinus*, *Dermacentor reticulatus*,

Dermacentor marginatus), one negative water control and one positive *E. coli* control were included

per chip.

Nested PCR and sequencing

Samples that were positive only for species-specific design but not for the genus design or only

genus design and not for species designs were all re-analysed by nested PCR using primer pairs allowing

to target another gene that the one tested into the fluidigm experiment and that is specific to the TBP

genus. Their sequences, amplicon size, as well as targeted genes and pathogen genus are registered in

Table S2. Amplicons were then sequenced by Eurofins company. Sequences obtained were assembled

using the Bioedit software and compared to the database NCBI (National Center for Biotechnology

Information) by sequence alignment using nucleotide BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool).

Statistical analysis

TBP prevalences at the seasonal and multi-annual scale

We tested if the prevalence of TBP was different within and between years of sampling by using a

multivariable logistic regression model. We considered the calendar season level for the within-year

variability. Seasons were considered as following: Winter = January to February; Spring = March to May;

Summer = June to August and Autumn = September to November. A logistic regression model was

developed using the TBP status of each nymph as the outcome measure and season, year and the

interaction between season and year as explanatory variables. We performed four specific model for

the following group/species of TBP: (1) *B. burgdorferi* s.l. (considering *B. burgdorferi* s.s., *B. garinii*,

B. afzelii, *B. valaisiana* and *B. spielmanii*), (2) *B. miyamotoi*, (3) *A. phagocytophilum*, and (4)

R. helvetica. The models were constructed with a generalized linear model (GLM, McCullagh and

Nelder, 1989) using a binomial distribution (logit link). Model assessment was based on Akaike

information criterion (AIC). Results were expressed as odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals.

Statistical computations were performed in R 3.5.1. (R Core Team, 2018).

Statistical modelling of tick-borne pathogens associations

We tested the associations between the TBP species that belonged to the co-infection profiles of

nymphs found in this study. To do this, we used the association screening approach (Vaumourin *et al*.,

2014), which is based on the statistic distribution of the occurrence count of each possible combination

of pathogens under the null hypothesis H0 that pathogens associations are random. For a given number

of pathogen species tested (NP), the number of possible combination (NC) was calculated as $NC = 2^{NP}$.

Assuming similar pathogen prevalence as those observed, a simulated dataset was built as an

absence/presence matrix with hosts in lines and pathogen combinations in columns. With 5 000

simulations, we obtained the NC statistic distributions. We estimated a 95% confidence envelope to

obtain a profile that includes simultaneously all the combinations. From this profile, we inferred for

each combination two quantiles, *Qinf* and *Qsup*. A global test was based on the 95% confidence

envelope. When H0 was rejected, the local tests were based on the NC confidence intervals: [*Qinf* ;

Qsup] (Vaumourin *et al*., 2014).

RESULTS

Tick temporal dynamics

From April 2014 to May 2017, a total of 1167 *Ixodes ricinus* ticks were collected in the Sénart forest in the south of Paris (Figure 1). Collected ticks were composed of 1098 nymphs, 35 females and 34 males. We focused our temporal analysis on nymphs due to the low number of adults collected over the three years. The temporal dynamics of nymph densities over the three years is shown in Figure 2A. Nymph densities follow similar patterns from one year to another, with a main peak of activity observed every year during spring months, a strong decrease in tick densities during summer and a second peak, smaller, observed in October (Figure 2A). These patterns are more intensively highlighted in the figure 2B which presents the average density of nymphs per month. In January and February, the average density is less than 10 questing nymphs, a clear rise is observed from March to May reaching a peak of 95.3 nymphs/100m^2 in May [84.6, 107.0]. Densities then decrease to a minimum of 5.3 nymphs/100m^2 in September [3.0, 8.7], rise slightly in October (13 nymphs/100m^2 [9.2, 17.8]) before decreasing again in November (2 nymphs/100m^2 [0.2, 7.2]).

Figure 1. Senart forest, location and parcel map. Sampling was made on the blue framed parcel.

Figure 2. Ixodes ricinus nymph density. A: *Ixodes ricinus* nymphs monthly density (/100m²) in 2014, 2015, 2016 and 2017. Ticks were sampled from April 2014 to May 2017. Please note that May and June 2016 were unfortunately not sampled. B: Average of nymph density per month (/100m²). The calculation of the average nymph monthly density was made between samples corresponding to the same months through the three years of sampling. Error bars represent the Confidential Interval of the mean, calculated using the Poisson distribution.

Detected pathogens and their prevalence in tick population

Due to technical problems, DNA was extracted and analysed only from 1044 nymphs among the 1098 previously mentioned. 46 of them were negative for at least one positive control and thus have been removed from the analysis. From the 998 remaining nymphal DNA samples, 15.9% [13.7%, 18.3%] were positive for at least one tested pathogen, which belong to three bacterial and one parasite genera: *Anaplasma*, *Borrelia*, *Rickettsia* and *Babesia* (Table 1).

Pathogens DNA belonging to the *Anaplasma* genus were detected in 5.4% [4.1%, 7.0%] of collected ticks. Most of them were positive for *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* (5.3% of all the samples) and one DNA sample was only positive for the primers/probe combination specific to *Anaplasma* spp.. This sample was retested by nested PCR and the amplicon was then sequenced. The BLAST analysis on NCBI showed that this sequence matched at 99% of identity with four different *Anaplasma* species (*A. phagocytophilum*, *A. marginale*, *A. ovis* and *A. centrale*). Therefore, this sample was only considered as positive for *Anaplasma* spp..

Two species of *Rickettsia* were detected in questing *I. ricinus* nymphs. *Rickettsia helvetica* was the most prevalent and was detected in 4.5% [3.3%, 6.0%] of nymphs. *Rickettsia felis* was detected in only one nymph (0.1% [.003%, 0.6%]). The presence of *R. felis* DNA was confirmed by nested PCR and

sequencing as the obtained sequence of 248bp matched with the *R. felis* genome with 100% of identity

and 98% of query cover.

The genus *Borrelia* was represented by six different species detected in 4.9% [3.7%, 6.4%] of the

surveyed nymphs. Five of them belonged to the LB group (3.7% [3.7%, 6.4%]), including

B. burgdorferi s.s. (1.5% [0.8%, 2.5%]), *B. garinii* (1.1% [0.6%, 2.0%]), *B. afzelii* (1.1% [0.6%, 2.0%]),

B. valaisiana (0.6% [0.2%, 1.3%]) and *B. spielmanii* (0.4% [0.1%, 1.0%]). DNA of *Borrelia miyamotoi*,

belonging to the relapsing fever group, was detected in 1.2% [0.6%, 2.1%] of the surveyed nymphs.

DNA from two species of protozoans belonging to the *Babesia* genus were detected in questing

nymph: *Babesia venatorum* (1.5% [0.8%, 2.5%] of ticks) and *Babesia divergens* (0.1% [.003%, 0.6%]),

detected in one tick).

Table 1. Summary table of the TBP detection study results.

Year	Months	Analysed nymph number	*B. burgdorferi* ss	*B. garinii*	*B. afzelii*	*B. valaisiana*	*B. spielmanii*	*B. burgdorferi* sl	*B. miyamotoi*	*Borrelia* spp	*A. phagocytophilum*	*Anaplasma* spp	*R. helvetica*	*R. felis*	*Rickettsia* spp	*B. venatorum*	*B. divergens*	*Babesia* spp	Co-infections (2 TBP)	Co-infections (3 TBP)	Total
2014	Apr-14	89	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	10	7	0	7	0	1	1	0	0	18
	May-14	127	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	12	12	2	0	2	4	0	4	2	0	18
	Jun-14	54	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	4	4	9	0	10	2	0	2	1	1	16
	Jul-14	38	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	6	6	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	8
	Aug-14	9	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Sep-14	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2
	Oct-14	13	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
2015	Jan-15	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Feb-15	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Mar-15	43	3	3	1	1	1	3	3	6	1	1	5	0	5	0	0	0	1	1	12
	Apr-15	69	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	3	4	4	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	10
	May-15	88	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	3	0	3	2	0	2	0	0	7
	Jun-15	78	0	0	2	0	1	2	2	4	2	2	1	0	1	2	0	2	1	0	8
	Jul-15	21	1	2	0	0	0	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	4
	Aug-15	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Sep-15	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Oct-15	17	4	0	0	0	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
	Nov-15	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2016	Jan-16	9	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Feb-16	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Mar-16	26	0	1	2	0	0	4	0	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5
	Apr-16	33	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3
	Jul-16	78	2	2	2	0	0	5	0	5	2	2	4	0	4	1	0	1	1	1	11
	Aug-16	11	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	3
	Sep-16	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Oct-16	6	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2017	Feb-17	6	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Mar-17	53	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	3	3	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	0	7
	Apr-17	50	0	0	1	1	0	2	0	2	3	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	6
	May-17	41	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	4	4	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	6
	Apr-14 to May-17	**998**	**15**	**11**	**11**	**6**	**4**	**37**	**12**	**49**	**53**	**54**	**45**	**1**	**46**	**15**	**1**	**16**	**10**	**3**	**159**
	Number of positive months	**30**	**8**	**7**	**8**	**6**	**4**	**18**	**9**	**23**	**14**	**14**	**16**	**1**	**16**	**8**	**1**	**9**	**9**	**3**	**27**

***Temporal patterns of TBP in nymphal* I. ricinus**

TBP prevalence at the monthly scale

Global infection rates fluctuated over the three years from a minimum of 8% [3.3%, 15.7%] in May

2015 to a maximum of 29.6% [18.0%, 43.6%] in June 2014, yet monthly variation was not significant

probably due the low sample sizes ($p > 0.05$ according to Chi^2 test; Figure 3).

At the genus level, variations in TBP prevalences and the number of months for which at least one

tick was positive for each tested TBP are presented in Figure 4 and Table 1.

DNA from pathogens belonging to both genera *Rickettsia* and *Anaplasma* were detected

respectively in 16 and 14 of the 30 sampled months respectively. When detected, prevalence fluctuated

from 1.3% [0.03%, 6.9%] (June 2015) to 18.5% [9.3%, 31.4%] (June 2014) for *Rickettsia* and from

1.1% [0.03%, 6.2%] (May 2015) to 15.8% [6.0%, 31.3%] (July 2014) for *Anaplasma*. Both genera are

mainly represented by one species: *R. helvetica* and *A. phagocytophilum* that are the most frequently

detected species (16 and 14 /30 months respectively). These two species were found each sampled

year.

DNA from members of the *Borrelia* genus was detected in 23 of the 30 sampled months. This

bacterial genus displayed the highest variability with monthly prevalences fluctuating from

1.1% [0.03%, 6.2%] (May 2015) to 23.5% [6.8%, 49.9%] (October 2015). DNA from members of the LB

group was detected in 18 of the 30 sampled months with prevalences ranging from 0.8% [0.03%, 6.2%]

in May 2014 to 23.5% [6.8%, 49.9%] in October 2015. The most frequently identified species were

B. burgdorferi s.s. (8 / 30 sampled months), *B. afzelii* (8 / 30) and *B. garinii* (7 / 30). DNA from these

species was regularly detected over the three studied years. Conversely, *B. valaisiana* (6 / 30) and

B. spielmanii (4 / 30) DNA were not detected during 11 (from April 2015 to March 2016) and 9 (from

July 2015 to April 2016) consecutive sampled months respectively. *Borrelia miyamotoi* (relapsing fever

group) DNA was detected 9 times over the 30 sampled months with prevalences ranging between

0.8% [0.02%, 4.3%] in May 2014 and 7% [1.5%, 19.1%] in March 2015. Despite a prevalence and a

frequency of detection that is comparable to *B. burgdorferi* s.s., *B. afzelii* and *B. garinii*, this species

DNA was not detected during two main periods: from June 2014 to March 2015 (7 samplings) and from

January to September 2016 (7 samplings, but two sampling months were missing in this period). It was

detected 5 times over 9 samplings from March to November 2015 and detected 3 times over 5

samplings from October 2016 to May 2017.

For parasites, DNA from the genus *Babesia* was detected in 9 months out of 30 sampled months.

Prevalences presented the lowest variability ranging from 1.1% [0.03%, 6.1%] in April 2014 to

3.8% [0.5%, 13.0%] in March 2017 (Figure 4). The main detected species DNA was those of

B. venatorum that was detected 9 times over 30 samplings and not detected during 9 consecutive

sampled months, from June 2015 to April 2016.

341 **Figure 3. Nymph infection rate per month for at least one tested pathogen.** Months with less than 9 nymphs
342 sampled have not been considered for percentage calculation. Error bars represent confidence intervals of the
343 percentage.

Figure 4. Nymph infection rate and confidence intervals per month for the different TBP. Months with less than 9 nymphs sampled have not been considered. Error bars represent confidence intervals of the percentage.

TBP prevalence at the seasonal and multi-annual scale

In order to determine if the prevalence of TBP was different within and between years of sampling,

a multivariable logistic regression model was performed. Because some samplings were missing and

because of the low number of nymphs collected in some months, the statistical analysis was performed

according to calendar seasons. Spring season and year 2014 have been considered as references for

the seasonal and yearly effect respectively. Because some TBP had too low prevalence in the nymph

population producing unreliable statistics, analyses were only performed on the most prevalent TBP:

A. phagocytophilum, *R. helvetica*, *B. burgdorferi* s.l., *B. miyamotoi* and *B. venatorum*.

Significant differences were observed at the seasonal scale (Table 2, Figure 5) for *R. helvetica*

(higher in summer compared to spring), *B. burgdorferi* s.l. (higher in autumn compared to spring) and

B. miyamotoi (higher in winter than in spring). It must be noticed that winter is the season with the

smallest number of sampled ticks (30 in total), and that the difference observed for *B. miyamotoi* in

winter correspond to only one tick infected sampled in February 2017.

Significant differences were also observed between years for bacteria belonging to the complex

B. burgdorferi s.l. with higher infection rates in 2015 and 2016 compared to 2014; for

A. phagocytophilum, which was lower in 2015 and in 2016 compared to 2014 and for *R. helvetica*,

which was lower in 2017 than in 2014. However, please note that samplings were only performed from

January to May in 2017. No significant differences were observed according to season or year for

B. venatorum.

Model	TBP	Variable	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval		
				Low	High	
(1)	*B. burgdorferi sl*	Spring		REF		
		Autumn	**4.53**	**1.50**	**12.49**	**
		Summer	1.69	0.75	3.89	
		Winter	1.73	0.25	7.01	
		2014		REF		
		2015	**2.93**	**1.12**	**9.14**	**
		2016	**4.48**	**1.60**	**14.53**	**
		2017	2.45	0.57	9.95	
(2)	*B. miyamotoi*	Spring		REF		
		Autumn	0.00	NA	8.3275E+218	
		Summer	0.00	NA	2.26397E+88	
		Winter	**28.60**	**1.03**	**800.00**	**
(3)	*A. phagocytophilum*	2014		REF		
		2015	**0.20**	**0.08**	**0.42**	**
		2016	**0.16**	**0.04**	**0.45**	**
		2017	0.65	0.30	1.32	
(4)	*R. helvetica*	Spring		REF		
		Autumn	0.00	0.00	6.7759E+11	
		Summer	**3.10**	**1.27**	**7.85**	**
		Winter	0.00	NA	1.1447E+145	
		2014		REF		
		2015	1.34	0.54	3.39	
		2016	0.81	0.12	3.24	
		2017	**0.16**	**0.01**	**0.87**	**

Table 2. Multivariable logistic regression models assessing the seasonal and yearly TBP prevalence variations in nymphs. Odds ratios and their associated 95% confidence intervals obtained from the best model of TBP seasonal and yearly prevalence in questing nymphs.

Figure 5. Percentage of positive nymphs per season for the most prevalent TBPs. Winter (white background)= January to February – Spring (orange background)= March to May – Summer (yellow background)= June to August – Autumn (grey background)= September to November.

Pathogen associations

Among all the sampled ticks, 1% [0.5%, 1.8%] were co-infected with two pathogens and 0.3% [0.006%, 0.8%] were co-infected with three pathogens. Eight different co-infection profiles were found (Table 3). In most of cases (7/13), these co-infections concerned species belonging to the *Borrelia* genus: *B. garinii/B. afzelii*; *B. garinii/B. spielmanii*; *B. garinii/B. afzelii/B. valaisiana* and *B. garinii/B. valaisiana/B. spielmanii*. Co-infections profiles with species belonging to different genus were also observed: *A. phagocytophilum/B. venatorum*; *A. phagocytophilum/R. helvetica*; *B. burgdorferi* s.s./*R. helvetica* and *B. garinii/B. afzelii/R. helvetica*. All these associations between pathogens were tested using the association screening approach (Vaumourin *et al.*, 2014). Compared to a random analysis, no associations were found to be under represented while two were over represented: the first one between *B. garinii* and *B. afzelii* (observation = 3; min expected = 0; max expected = 2), and the second one between *B. garinii* and *B. spielmanii* (observation = 2; min expected = 0; max expected = 1).

B. burgdorferi ss	B. garinii	B. afzelii	B. valaisiana	B. spielmanii	A. phagocytophilum	R. helvetica	B. venatorum	Co-occurrences number
	X	X						3
	X			X				2
	X	X	X					1
	X		X	X				1
					X		X	3
					X	X		1
X						X		1
	X	X				X		1

Table 3. Summary table of the reported co-infection profiles.

DISCUSSION

Ixodes ricinus density and seasonal dynamics

This three-year survey demonstrated a clear seasonal pattern in *I. ricinus* density, with a marked peak of questing nymphs in spring and a smaller peak in autumn. Low, but present activity was detected in winter, as has been observed in Germany (Dautel *et al.*, 2008). In addition to these general patterns, some unexpected data were observed, the most striking being no peak activity in spring 2017 (April and May) with tick densities very similar to those recorded in March. Abiotic factors such as temperature, relative humidity, and rainfall, or fluctuating host numbers in the sampling area are known to influence questing tick abundance and activity patterns (Perret *et al.*, 2000; Gilbert, 2010; Tagliapietra *et al.*, 2011; Schulz *et al.*, 2014; Vourc'h *et al.*, 2016; Marchant *et al.*, 2017) and could explain these unusual observations. It's important to note that 2017 was distinguished by an abnormally wet March, with total rainfall much higher than that recorded in previous years in the same area (71.3, compared to 11.2, 33.6, and 61.7 mm rain/month in 2014, 2015, and 2016, respectively. Interestingly, the increased March rainfall was followed by an April drought (7.9 mm of rain/month in 2017, compared to 48.4, 27.2, and 66.2 mm rain/month in 2014, 2015, and 2016, respectively) (rainfall data estimated from the Orly station, Metéo-France data; https://donneespubliques.meteofrance.fr/?fond=produit&id_produit=90&id_rubrique=32). These unusual meteorological characteristics could explain the stable tick density from March to May 2017. Thereby, this finding clearly shows that the bimodal tick activity pattern usually observed during this study can punctually change with exceptional environmental conditions, reinforcing the importance of regular monitoring.

Ixodes ricinus-borne pathogen composition and prevalence over the three years

Most of the detected pathogen species corresponded to micro-organisms known to circulate in the Western Palearctic (Capelli *et al.*, 2012; Overzier *et al.*, 2013; Pangrácová *et al.*, 2013; Reye *et al.*, 2013; Hansford *et al.*, 2015; Paul *et al.*, 2016; Sormunen *et al.*, 2016; Raileanu *et al.*, 2017). However, several species belonging to the *Bartonella* and *Francisella* genera, previously reported in the studied area

(Reis *et al.*, 2010; Paul *et al.*, 2016), were not detected. The most prevalent pathogen species were

A. phagocytophilum (5.4% of the examined nymphs), *R. helvetica* (4.5%), and *B. burgdorferi* s.l. (3.7%).

Both high- and low-prevalence TBP were consistently detected in the sampling area for the duration of

the study. Although prevalence varied between different TBP, and some were not detected for long

periods, they were all detected recurrently. Continued detection is consistent with the year-round

presence of reservoir hosts in the sampling area (wood mice, bank voles, Siberian chipmunks, roe deer,

common blackbird, European robin, song thrush…) (Marsot *et al.*, 2012, 2013; Marchant *et al.*, 2017).

The continued presence of reservoir hosts could facilitate the circulation of dominant species, and

maintain, even at low rates, less prevalent pathogen species. These findings lend further support to

regularly studying TBP temporal dynamics to assess and monitor changing infection risks.

We also highlighted the infrequent presence of some TBP, such as *B. divergens*, which was only

detected in a single tick, as also reported by Paul *et al.* (2016). *I. ricinus* can host and transmit both

B. divergens and *B. venatorum* (Bonnet *et al.*, 2007a; Bonnet *et al.*, 2007b; Bonnet *et al.*, 2009), the

etiological agents of human babesiosis (Centeno-Lima *et al.*, 2003; Herwaldt *et al.*, 2003). Human

babesiosis is known to be a rare disease, but is classified as a potential emerging disease in Europe

(Hildebrandt *et al.*, 2013; Rizzoli *et al.*, 2014; Oechslin *et al.*, 2017). While *Babesia venatorum* is known

to circulate in roe deer (Bonnet *et al.*, 2007a) of which there are many in the Sénart forest, *Babesia*

divergens circulates in bovine species absent from the Sénart forest, which may explain its low

prevalence among tick populations. Similarly, we detected *R. felis* DNA in only one nymph. This bacteria

is also considered to be an emergent human pathogen, and has been associated with clinical

manifestations in patients from America, Asia, Africa, and Europe (see in Angelakis *et al.*, 2016). Its

detection is particularly interesting as this bacteria is known to be mainly transmitted from cat to cat

via fleas, with human contamination arising from cat or flea bites. Nevertheless, several studies have

detected the presence of *R. felis* or *R. felis*-like organisms in hematophagous arthropods (see in Reif

and Macaluso, 2009; Brown and Macaluso, 2016), including ticks collected from the natural

environment (Oliveira *et al.*, 2008), and notably in *Ixodes* species (Ishikura *et al.*, 2013). *R. felis* has been

reported in *I. ricinus* in two previous studies on questing ticks (Vayssier-Taussat *et al.*, 2013; Lejal *et al.*,

2018). The Vayssier-Taussat's one was based on RNA detection, demonstrating viability and active

replication of this bacteria in *I. ricinus*. Rarely investigated in studies dealing with TBP, the repeated

detection of *R. felis* should encourage increased surveillance for this spotted fever-causing pathogen in

humans. Let's finally note that all these findings suggest that a punctual sampling would certainly not

facilitate the detection of these pathogens, again highlighting the importance of collecting and

analysing ticks at a large temporal scale.

Seasonal and inter-annual dynamics of I. ricinus-borne pathogens

Improving the prevention of TBD requires a better understanding of their temporal—and in

particular—their seasonal dynamics. However, only a few studies have addressed these issues during

a minimum three-year period (Coipan *et al.*, 2013; Takken *et al.*, 2016). As ticks were collected monthly

for over three years in this study, we detected significant seasonal or annual infection rate fluctuations

for four TBP: *R. helvetica*, *B. burgdorferi* s.l., *B. miyamotoi*, and *A. phagocytophilum*. Note that the

statistically significant highest prevalence of *B. miyamotoi* in winter is only due to the detection of one

positive tick sampled during winter in 2017. In our opinion, this result alone is insufficient to presume

that *B. miyamotoi* have an increased winter prevalence. However, we can observe that even if very few

ticks are questing during these periods, they may carry TBP.

While significant seasonal and annual differences were observed for *B. miyamotoi* and

A. phagocytophilum, respectively, the presence of *R. helvetica* and *B. burgdorferi* s.l. varied

significantly according to both seasons and years. None of these micro-organisms presented a similar

pattern to any others. Comparing our results to the pluri-annual studies previously mentioned, we

observe that only *R. helvetica* presented similar seasonal patterns (Coipan *et al.*, 2013). This finding

again emphasises how the season, the year or the sampling area can influence TBP presence and

prevalence in questing tick populations.

The most common explanation for temporal variations in TBP prevalence is the variable availability

of reservoir hosts during tick previous stage feeding. Because the tick lifecycle is fundamentally linked

to its host, any changes to the available host spectrum will undoubtedly influence TBP prevalence in

the tick community (see in Pfäffle *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, contact rates between ticks and their

reservoir hosts have been suggested as a major factor driving seasonal TBP prevalence (Estrada-Peña

and de la Fuente, 2016). Furthermore, Coipan *et al* (2013) observed that several micro-organisms

presumed to share the same reservoir host, also presented similar seasonal detection patterns, thereby

supporting the previous hypothesis. However, an alternate hypothesis could also explain these

patterns, as carrying certain TBP was shown to improve tick resistance to challenging abiotic conditions.

Herrmann and Gern (2010, 2012) demonstrated that ticks carrying *Borrelia* species exhibited higher

survival rates in desiccating conditions and a lower affinity for humid conditions than non-infected

ticks, suggesting a potentially higher prevalence of *Borrelia*-infected questing ticks during or after

summer. Similarly, Neelakanta (2010) demonstrated a higher expression of *iafgp* gene, coding for an

antifreeze glycoprotein, in *A. phagocytophilum*-infected ticks. This thus conferred to ticks a stronger

resistance to cold that could lead to higher prevalence of *A. phagocytophilum*-infected questing ticks

during or just after winter. In this context, TBP prevalence in questing tick populations could be also

influenced by abiotic meteorological conditions. Additionally, this hypothesis coincides with

observations from Coipan, Takken, and the current study concerning *B. burgdorferi* s.l. infected

questing ticks. Indeed, a higher prevalence was always observed during and/or after summer,

potentially implying an improved survival rate of infected ticks during hot and dry summer conditions.

In contrast, *A. phagocytophilum* was not observed in greater prevalence during the cold season.

Our results, in combination with those from the literature, support the hypothesis that TBP

prevalence is influenced by both biotic and abiotic factors, and suggest one more time that undertaking

regular TBP analysis is an optimal method by which to improve knowledge on TBP dynamics and to

better understand TBD epidemiology.

Pathogen co-occurrence

Tick co-infections are being identified more and more frequently (Halos *et al.*, 2005; Schicht *et al.*, 2011; Andersson *et al.*, 2013; Cosson *et al.*, 2014; Castro *et al.*, 2015; Moutailler *et al.*, 2016; Raileanu *et al.*, 2017; Lejal *et al.*, 2018). Clinical co-infections with several TBP are commonly reported (Tijsse-Klasen *et al.*, 2013; Moniuszko *et al.*, 2014; Hoversten and Bartlett, 2018) and are known to affect both disease symptoms and severity (Krause *et al.*, 1996; Diuk-Wasser *et al.*, 2016). It is thus essential to investigate TBP associations in ticks, to better identify potential clinical co-infections and to improve epidemiological knowledge of TBD.

In this longitudinal three-year study, two TBP associations were significantly over-represented compared to a random distribution: the first was between *B. garinii* and *B. afzelii*, as has been previously observed in studies using similar detection tools (Moutailler *et al.*, 2016; Raileanu *et al.*, 2017), or different methods (16s rRNA gene sequencing, Aivelo *et al.*, 2019); the second was between *B. garinii* and *B. spielmanii*. Interestingly, these findings contrast with published results on *Ixodes ricinus* TBP. While performing a meta-analysis on data published from 2010 to 2016, Strnad *et al* (2017) observed a negative correlation between *B. garinii* and *B. afzelii*. Similarly, Herrmann *et al.* (2013) also detected a negative co-occurrence between these two species following the analysis of 7400 nymphs collected over three years. These results are coherent considering the host specificity of these Borrelia species. Indeed, *B. garinii* doesn't share the same reservoir host (birds) than *B. afzelii* or *B. spielmanii* (wood mice and bank voles, or hazel and garden dormice) (Humair *et al.*, 1998; Kurtenbach *et al.*, 1998; Huegli *et al.*, 2002; Richter *et al.*, 2004, 2011; Taragel'ova *et al.*, 2008), and none of these species are known to be transmitted transovarially.

Even though the associations we identified were statistically "over-represented", in actual fact we only observed one more association than the fixed over-representation threshold (i.e. observed associations = 3 and 2; minimum expected = 0 and 0; maximum expected = 2 and 1; for *B. garinii*/*B. afzelii* and *B. garinii*/*B. spielmanii* associations, respectively). This indicates that caution should be applied when drawing conclusions about permanent associations between these different

bacteria in ticks. Several different hypotheses could potentially explain these associations in the same nymph. Firstly, hosts are likely to carry several adjacent feeding ticks. This phenomenon, known as co-feeding, could promote pathogen exchange between ticks even in the absence of systemic host infection (Randolph *et al.*, 1996). Secondly, as discussed by van Duijvendijk *et al.* (2016), when bloodmeals are disrupted due to host grooming, immune response or death, ticks may feed on more than one host to completely engorge, and consequently be exposed to several pathogens. Thirdly, despite these TBP species segregating between bird and rodent hosts, all of them have been detected in hedgehogs (Skuballa *et al.*, 2007, 2012), and *B. afzelii* and *B. garinii* have been simultaneously detected in one Siberian chipmunk (Marsot *et al.*, 2013). Both of these mammals were found to host a large number of tick larvae (Gern *et al.*, 1997; Marsot *et al.*, 2013), and Siberian chipmunks have been reported to induce higher *B. burgdorferi* s.l. infection rates in nymphs, compared to bank voles and wood mice (Marsot *et al.*, 2013) in the Sénart forest. A last hypothesis might be that our analyses methods are unable to distinguish the rodent-circulating *B. garinii* OspA serotype 4 (corresponding to *B. bavariensis*) (Margos *et al.*, 2009) from other *B. garinii* serotypes.

Associations between *B. garinii* and *B. valaisiana* are frequently reported, which isn't surprising as these species share the same reservoir host (Hanincova *et al.*, 2003). This association was the most common TBP association in a meta-analysis of literature published between 1984 and 2003 (Rauter and Hartung, 2005), and has been reported several times since in later studies (Reye *et al.*, 2010; Lommano *et al.*, 2012; Herrmann *et al.*, 2013). While we observed this association twice, both times in association with a third *Borrelia* species, either *B. afzelii* or *B. spielmanii*, it was not significantly over-represented compared to a random distribution. Among the three previously mentioned studies, only Herrmann *et al.* (2013) demonstrated that this association was over-represented when compared to a randomly sampled analysis. However our study was performed on a much smaller dataset (998 versus 7400 analysed nymphs), with a halved co-infection percentage (1.3% versus 3%), indicating that our statistical analysis may be less powerful, which could explain why this association wasn't detected.

These contrasting tick pathogen association results highlight the complexity in clearly identifying

pathogen associations in field-collected ticks. Several other parameters can also potentially influence

pathogen association (host spectrum within the studied area, sample size influencing analytical

statistical power, identification bias…). In this context, performing investigations under controlled

conditions (suitable TBP growing and tick breeding systems…) will be a crucial future step to

experimentally test these different associations and improve our knowledge on TBP co-occurrence.

CONCLUSIONS

This three-year study of *I. ricinus*-borne pathogens; (1) identified several TBP previously reported

in the area, consistent with reservoir host availability; (2) highlighted the surprising presence of micro-

organisms not normally reported in questing ticks such as *R. felis*; (3) highlighted significant variations

in seasonal and inter-annual pathogen prevalence; and finally (4) identified several unexpected co-

occurrences between pathogens belonging to the *B. burgdorferi* s.l. complex. All these data underline

the importance of regularly performing tick collections and TBP analysis to improve our knowledge on

TBP presence and dynamics, and to better understand the ecology and epidemiology of TBD.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thanks the financers of this project, that are the French National Institute of Agronomic Research (INRA): the métaprogramme "Metaomics and microbial ecosystems" (MEM) and the Métaprogramme "Adaptation of Agriculture and Forests to Climate Change" (ACCAF) that funded the tick collection from the CC-EID project. We also would like to thank the Ile-de-France region that funded the salary of Emilie Lejal, the PhD student working on this project.

We are very grateful to all the persons that brought their help to the support of the technical part of this project: Julie Cat, Valérie Poux and members of the VECTOTIQ team for their involvement in tick samplings and identification; Elodie Devillers, for her precious help to learn the Microfluidic PCR approach and also Sabine Delannoy and the IdentyPath genomic platform that allowed us to perform the tick-borne pathogens screening. Thank you as well to Ladislav Simo for his precious help in figure improvement. No conflicts of interest are declared.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceived and designed the experiments: TP, MVT, JFC, KCM, EL. Performed the experiments: EL. Analysed the data: EL, TP, SM, MM, KCM. Wrote the paper: EL, MM, KCM, JFC, SM, MVT, TP

REFERENCES

Aivelo, T., Norberg, A., and Tschirren, B. (2019) Human pathogen co-occurrence in Ixodes ricinus ticks: effects of landscape topography, climatic factors and microbiota interactions. *bioRxiv* 559245.

Andersson, M., Bartkova, S., Lindestad, O., and Råberg, L. (2013) Co-Infection with 'Candidatus Neoehrlichia mikurensis' and Borrelia afzelii in Ixodes ricinus Ticks in Southern Sweden. *Vector-Borne Zoonotic Dis.* **13**: 438–442.

Angelakis, E., Mediannikov, O., Parola, P., and Raoult, D. (2016) Rickettsia felis: The Complex Journey of an Emergent Human Pathogen. *Trends Parasitol.* **32**: 554–564.

Bonnet, S., Brisseau, N., Hermouet, A., Jouglin, M., and Chauvin, A. (2009) Experimental in vitro transmission of Babesia sp. (EU1) by Ixodes ricinus. *Vet. Res.* **40**: 1–8.

Bonnet, S., Jouglin, M., L'Hostis, M., and Chauvin, A. (2007a) Babesia sp. EU1 from Roe Deer and Transmission within Ixodes ricinus. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **13**: 1208–1210.

Bonnet, S., Jouglin, M., Malandrin, L., Becker, C., Agoulon, A., L'hostis, M., and Chauvin, A. (2007b) Transstadial and transovarial persistence of Babesia divergens DNA in Ixodes ricinus ticks fed on infected blood in a new skin-feeding technique. *Parasitology* **134**: 197–207.

Brown, L.D. and Macaluso, K.R. (2016) Rickettsia felis, an Emerging Flea-Borne Rickettsiosis. *Curr. Trop. Med. Rep.* **3**: 27–39.

Capelli, G., Ravagnan, S., Montarsi, F., Ciocchetta, S., Cazzin, S., Porcellato, E., et al. (2012) Occurrence and identification of risk areas of Ixodes ricinus-borne pathogens: a cost-effectiveness analysis in north-eastern Italy. *Parasit. Vectors* **5**: 61.

Castro, L.R., Gabrielli, S., Iori, A., and Cancrini, G. (2015) Molecular detection of Rickettsia, Borrelia, and Babesia species in Ixodes ricinus sampled in northeastern, central, and insular areas of Italy. *Exp. Appl. Acarol.* **66**: 443–452.

Centeno-Lima, S., Do Rosário, V., Parreira, R., Maia, A.J., Freudenthal, A.M., Nijhof, A.M., and Jongejan, F. (2003) A fatal case of human babesiosis in Portugal: molecular and phylogenetic analysis. *Trop. Med. Int. Health* **8**: 760–764.

Choi, Y.-J., Lee, S.-H., Park, K.-H., Koh, Y.-S., Lee, K.-H., Baik, H.-S., et al. (2005) Evaluation of PCR-Based Assay for Diagnosis of Spotted Fever Group Rickettsiosis in Human Serum Samples. *Clin Diagn Lab Immunol* **12**: 759–763.

Chvostáč, M., Špitalská, E., Václav, R., Vaculová, T., Minichová, L., and Derdáková, M. (2018) Seasonal Patterns in the Prevalence and Diversity of Tick-Borne Borrelia burgdorferi Sensu Lato, Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Rickettsia spp. in an Urban Temperate Forest in South Western Slovakia. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public. Health* **15**: 994.

Coipan, E.C., Jahfari, S., Fonville, M., Maassen, C., van der Giessen, J., Takken, W., et al. (2013) Spatiotemporal dynamics of emerging pathogens in questing Ixodes ricinus. *Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol.* **3**:.

Cosson, J.-F., Michelet, L., Chotte, J., Le Naour, E., Cote, M., Devillers, E., et al. (2014) Genetic characterization of the human relapsing fever spirochete Borrelia miyamotoi in vectors and animal reservoirs of Lyme disease spirochetes in France. *Parasit. Vectors* **7**: 233.

Cotté, V., Bonnet, S., Le Rhun, D., Le Naour, E., Chauvin, A., Boulouis, H.-J., et al. (2008) Transmission of Bartonella henselae by Ixodes ricinus. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **14**: 1074–1080.

Dantas-Torres, F., Chomel, B.B., and Otranto, D. (2012) Ticks and tick-borne diseases: a One Health perspective. *Trends Parasitol.* **28**: 437–446.

Dautel, H., Dippel, C., Kämmer, D., Werkhausen, A., and Kahl, O. (2008) Winter activity of Ixodes ricinus in a Berlin forest. *Int. J. Med. Microbiol.* **298**: 50–54.

Diuk-Wasser, M.A., Vannier, E., and Krause, P.J. (2016) Coinfection by Ixodes Tick-Borne Pathogens: Ecological, Epidemiological, and Clinical Consequences. *Trends Parasitol.* **32**: 30–42.

van Duijvendijk, G., Coipan, C., Wagemakers, A., Fonville, M., Ersöz, J., Oei, A., et al. (2016) Larvae of Ixodes ricinus transmit Borrelia afzelii and B. miyamotoi to vertebrate hosts. *Parasit. Vectors* **9**:.

Estrada-Peña, A. and de la Fuente, J. (2016) Species interactions in occurrence data for a community of
tick-transmitted pathogens. *Sci. Data* **3**: 160056.
de la Fuente, J., Estrada-Pena, A., Venzal, J.M., Kocan, K.M., and Sonenshine, D.E. (2008) Overview: ticks
as vectors of pathogens that cause disease in humans and animals. *Front Biosci* **13**: 6938–6946.
Gassner, F., van Vliet, A.J.H., Burgers, S.L.G.E., Jacobs, F., Verbaarschot, P., Hovius, E.K.E., et al. (2010)
Geographic and Temporal Variations in Population Dynamics of Ixodes ricinus and Associated
Borrelia Infections in The Netherlands. *Vector-Borne Zoonotic Dis.* **11**: 523–532.
Gern, L., Rouvinez, E., Toutoungi, L.N., and Godfroid, E. (1997) Transmission cycles of Borrelia
burgdorferi sensu lato involving Ixodes ricinus and/or I. hexagonus ticks and the European
hedgehog, Erinaceus europaeus, in suburban and urban areas in Switzerland. *Folia Parasitol.*
(Praha) **44**: 309–314.
Gilbert, L. (2010) Altitudinal patterns of tick and host abundance: a potential role for climate change in
regulating tick-borne diseases? *Oecologia* **162**: 217–225.
Gilbert, L., Maffey, G.L., Ramsay, S.L., and Hester, A.J. (2012) The effect of deer management on the
abundance of Ixodes ricinus in Scotland. *Ecol. Appl.* **22**: 658–667.
Gondard, M., Delannoy, S., Pinarello, V., Aprelon, R., Devillers, E., Galon, C., et al. (2019) Upscaling
surveillance of tick-borne pathogens in the French Caribbean islands. *bioRxiv*.
Halos, L., Jamal, T., Maillard, R., Beugnet, F., Menach, A.L., Boulouis, H.-J., and Vayssier-Taussat, M.
(2005) Evidence of Bartonella sp. in questing adult and nymphal Ixodes ricinus ticks from
France and co-infection with Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato and Babesia sp. *Vet. Res.* **36**: 79–
87.
Hanincova, K., Taragelova, V., Koci, J., Schafer, S.M., Hails, R., Ullmann, A.J., et al. (2003) Association of
Borrelia garinii and B. valaisiana with Songbirds in Slovakia. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **69**: 2825–
2830.
Hansford, K.M., Fonville, M., Jahfari, S., Sprong, H., and Medlock, J.M. (2015) Borrelia miyamotoi in
host-seeking Ixodes ricinus ticks in England. *Epidemiol. Infect.* **143**: 1079–1087.
Herrmann, C. and Gern, L. (2012) Do the level of energy reserves, hydration status and Borrelia
infection influence walking by Ixodes ricinus (Acari: Ixodidae) ticks? *Parasitology* **139**: 330–337.
Herrmann, C. and Gern, L. (2010) Survival of Ixodes ricinus (Acari: Ixodidae) Under Challenging
Conditions of Temperature and Humidity is Influenced by Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato
Infection. *J. Med. Entomol.* **47**: 1196–1204.
Herrmann, C., Gern, L., and Voordouw, M.J. (2013) Species co-occurrence patterns among Lyme
borreliosis pathogens in the tick vector Ixodes ricinus. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* AEM.02158-13.
Herwaldt, B.L., Cacciò, S., Gherlinzoni, F., Aspöck, H., Slemenda, S.B., Piccaluga, P., et al. (2003)
Molecular Characterization of a Non–Babesia divergens Organism Causing Zoonotic Babesiosis
in Europe. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **9**: 943–948.
Hildebrandt, A., Gray, J.S., and Hunfeld, K.-P. (2013) Human Babesiosis in Europe: what clinicians need
to know. *Infection* **41**: 1057–1072.
Hoversten, K. and Bartlett, M.A. (2018) Diagnosis of a tick-borne coinfection in a patient with persistent
symptoms following treatment for Lyme disease. *Case Rep.* **2018**: bcr-2018-225342.
Huegli, D., Hu, C.M., Humair, P.-F., Wilske, B., and Gern, L. (2002) Apodemus Species Mice Are Reservoir
Hosts of Borrelia garinii OspA Serotype 4 in Switzerland. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **40**: 4735–4737.
Humair, P.-F., Postic, D., Wallich, R., and Gern, L. (1998) An Avian Reservoir (Turdus merula) of the Lyme
Borreliosis Spirochetes. *Zentralblatt Für Bakteriol.* **287**: 521–538.
Ishikura, M., Ando Shuji, Shinagawa Yasuhiro, Matsuura Kumiko, Hasegawa Sumiyo, Nakayama Takashi,
et al. (2013) Phylogenetic Analysis of Spotted Fever Group Rickettsiae Based on gltA, 17-kDa,
and rOmpA Genes Amplified by Nested PCR from Ticks in Japan. *Microbiol. Immunol.* **47**: 823–
832.
Jongejan, F. and Uilenberg, G. (2004) The global importance of ticks. *Parasitology* **129**: S3–S14.
Krause, P.J., Telford, S.R., Spielman, A., Sikand, V., Ryan, R., Christianson, D., et al. (1996) Concurrent
Lyme Disease and Babesiosis: Evidence for Increased Severity and Duration of Illness. *JAMA*
275: 1657–1660.

Kurtenbach, K., Carey, D., Hoodless, A.N., Nuttall, P.A., and Randolph, S.E. (1998) Competence of
Pheasants as Reservoirs for Lyme Disease Spirochetes. *J. Med. Entomol.* **35**: 77–81.
Lejal, E., Moutailler, S., Simo, L., Vayssier-Taussat, M., and Pollet, T. (2018) Tick-borne pathogen
detection in midgut and salivary glands of adult Ixodes ricinus. *bioRxiv* 489328.
Loh, S.-M., Gofton, A.W., Lo, N., Gillett, A., Ryan, U.M., Irwin, P.J., and Oskam, C.L. (2016) Novel Borrelia
species detected in echidna ticks, Bothriocroton concolor, in Australia. *Parasit. Vectors* **9**:.
Lommano, E., Bertaiola, L., Dupasquier, C., and Gern, L. (2012) Infections and co-infections of questing
Ixodes ricinus ticks by emerging zoonotic pathogens in Western Switzerland. *Appl. Environ.*
Microbiol. AEM.07961-11.
Marchant, A., Coupanec, A.L., Joly, C., Perthame, E., Sertour, N., Garnier, M., et al. (2017) Infection of
Ixodes ricinus by Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato in peri-urban forests of France. *PLOS ONE* **12**:
e0183543.
Margos, G., Vollmer, S.A., Cornet, M., Garnier, M., Fingerle, V., Wilske, B., et al. (2009) A New Borrelia
Species Defined by Multilocus Sequence Analysis of Housekeeping Genes. *Appl. Environ.*
Microbiol. **75**: 5410–5416.
Marsot, M., Chapuis, J.-L., Gasqui, P., Dozières, A., Masséglia, S., Pisanu, B., et al. (2013) Introduced
Siberian Chipmunks (Tamias sibiricus barberi) Contribute More to Lyme Borreliosis Risk than
Native Reservoir Rodents. *PLOS ONE* **8**: e55377.
Marsot, M., Henry, P.-Y., Vourc'h, G., Gasqui, P., Ferquel, E., Laignel, J., et al. (2012) Which forest bird
species are the main hosts of the tick, Ixodes ricinus, the vector of Borrelia burgdorferi sensu
lato, during the breeding season? *Int. J. Parasitol.* **42**: 781–788.
Masatani, T., Hayashi, K., Andoh, M., Tateno, M., Endo, Y., Asada, M., et al. (2017) Detection and
molecular characterization of Babesia, Theileria, and Hepatozoon species in hard ticks collected
from Kagoshima, the southern region in Japan. *Ticks Tick-Borne Dis.* **8**: 581–587.
McCullagh, P. and Nelder, J.A. (1989) Generalized Linear Models. 2nd Edition. Chapman et Hall, London.
Michelet, L., Delannoy, S., Devillers, E., Umhang, G., Aspan, A., Juremalm, M., et al. (2014) High-
throughput screening of tick-borne pathogens in Europe. *Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol.* **4**:.
Moniuszko, A., Dunaj, J., Święcicka, I., Zambrowski, G., Chmielewska-Badora, J., Żukiewicz-Sobczak, W.,
et al. (2014) Co-infections with Borrelia species, Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Babesia spp.
in patients with tick-borne encephalitis. *Eur. J. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Dis.* **33**: 1835–1841.
Moutailler, S., Moro, C.V., Vaumourin, E., Michelet, L., Tran, F.H., Devillers, E., et al. (2016) Co-infection
of Ticks: The Rule Rather Than the Exception. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.* **10**: e0004539.
Neelakanta, G., Sultana, H., Fish, D., Anderson, J.F., and Fikrig, E. (2010) *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*
induces *Ixodes scapularis* ticks to express an antifreeze glycoprotein gene that enhances their
survival in the cold. *J. Clin. Invest.* **120**: 3179–3190.
Oechslin, C.P., Heutschi, D., Lenz, N., Tischhauser, W., Péter, O., Rais, O., et al. (2017) Prevalence of tick-
borne pathogens in questing Ixodes ricinus ticks in urban and suburban areas of Switzerland.
Parasit. Vectors **10**: 558.
Oliveira, K., S Oliveira, L., C A Dias, C., Silva, A., R Almeida, M., Almada, G., et al. (2008) Molecular
identification of Rickettsia felis in ticks and fleas from an endemic area for Brazilian Spotted
Fever.
Overzier, E., Pfister, K., Herb, I., Mahling, M., Böck, G., and Silaghi, C. (2013) Detection of tick-borne
pathogens in roe deer (Capreolus capreolus), in questing ticks (Ixodes ricinus), and in ticks
infesting roe deer in southern Germany. *Ticks Tick-Borne Dis.* **4**: 320–328.
Pangrácová, L., Derdáková, M., Pekárik, L., Hviščová, I., Víchová, B., Stanko, M., et al. (2013) Ixodes
ricinus abundance and its infection with the tick-borne pathogens in urban and suburban areas
of Eastern Slovakia. *Parasit. Vectors* **6**: 238.
Paul, R.E.L., Cote, M., Le Naour, E., and Bonnet, S.I. (2016) Environmental factors influencing tick
densities over seven years in a French suburban forest. *Parasit. Vectors* **9**: 309.
Perret, J.-L., Guigoz, E., Rais, O., and Gern, L. (2000) Influence of saturation deficit and temperature on
Ixodes ricinus tick questing activity in a Lyme borreliosis-endemic area (Switzerland). *Parasitol.*
Res. **86**: 554–557.

Pfäffle, M., Littwin, N., Muders, S.V., and Petney, T.N. (2013) The ecology of tick-borne diseases. *Int. J.*
Parasitol. **43**: 1059–1077.

R Core Team (2018) R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing R Foundation for
Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

Raileanu, C., Moutailler, S., Pavel, I., Porea, D., Mihalca, A.D., Savuta, G., and Vayssier-Taussat, M. (2017)
Borrelia Diversity and Co-infection with Other Tick Borne Pathogens in Ticks. *Front. Cell. Infect.*
Microbiol. **7**:.

Randolph, S.E., Gern, L., and Nuttall, P.A. (1996) Co-feeding ticks: Epidemiological significance for tick-
borne pathogen transmission. *Parasitol. Today* **12**: 472–479.

Rar, V.A., Fomenko, N.V., Dobrotvorsky, A.K., Livanova, N.N., Rudakova, S.A., Fedorov, E.G., et al. (2005)
Tickborne Pathogen Detection, Western Siberia, Russia. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **11**: 1708–1715.

Rauter, C. and Hartung, T. (2005) Prevalence of Borrelia burgdorferi Sensu Lato Genospecies in Ixodes
ricinus Ticks in Europe: a Metaanalysis. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **71**: 7203–7216.

Reif, K.E. and Macaluso, K.R. (2009) Ecology of Rickettsia felis: A Review. *J. Med. Entomol.* **46**: 723–736.

Reis, C., Cote, M., Paul, R.E.L., and Bonnet, S. (2010) Questing Ticks in Suburban Forest Are Infected by
at Least Six Tick-Borne Pathogens. *Vector-Borne Zoonotic Dis.* **11**: 907–916.

Reye, A.L., Hübschen, J.M., Sausy, A., and Muller, C.P. (2010) Prevalence and Seasonality of Tick-Borne
Pathogens in Questing Ixodes ricinus Ticks from Luxembourg. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **76**:
2923–2931.

Reye, A.L., Stegniy, V., Mishaeva, N.P., Velhin, S., Hübschen, J.M., Ignatyev, G., and Muller, C.P. (2013)
Prevalence of Tick-Borne Pathogens in Ixodes ricinus and Dermacentor reticulatus Ticks from
Different Geographical Locations in Belarus. *PLOS ONE* **8**: e54476.

Richter, D., Schlee, D.B., Allgower, R., and Matuschka, F.-R. (2004) Relationships of a Novel Lyme Disease
Spirochete, Borrelia spielmani sp. nov., with Its Hosts in Central Europe. *Appl. Environ.*
Microbiol. **70**: 6414–6419.

Richter, D., Schlee, D.B., and Matuschka, F.-R. (2011) Reservoir Competence of Various Rodents for the
Lyme Disease Spirochete Borrelia spielmanii. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **77**: 3565–3570.

Rizzoli, A., Silaghi, C., Obiegala, A., Rudolf, I., Hubálek, Z., Földvári, G., et al. (2014) Ixodes ricinus and
Its Transmitted Pathogens in Urban and Peri-Urban Areas in Europe: New Hazards and
Relevance for Public Health. *Front. Public Health* **2**:.

Schicht, S., Junge, S., Schnieder, T., and Strube, C. (2011) Prevalence of Anaplasma phagocytophilum
and Coinfection with Borrelia burgdorferi Sensu Lato in the Hard Tick Ixodes ricinus in the City
of Hanover (Germany). *Vector-Borne Zoonotic Dis.* **11**: 1595–1597.

Schulz, M., Mahling Monia, and Pfister Kurt (2014) Abundance and seasonal activity of questing Ixodes
ricinus ticks in their natural habitats in southern Germany in 2011. *J. Vector Ecol.* **39**: 56–65.

Skuballa, J., Oehme, R., Hartelt, K., Petney, T., Bücher, T., Kimmig, P., and Taraschewski, H. (2007)
European Hedgehogs as Hosts for Borrelia spp., Germany. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **13**: 952–953.

Skuballa, J., Petney, T., Pfäffle, M., Oehme, R., Hartelt, K., Fingerle, V., et al. (2012) Occurrence of
different Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato genospecies including B. afzelii, B. bavariensis, and B.
spielmanii in hedgehogs (Erinaceus spp.) in Europe. *Ticks Tick-Borne Dis.* **3**: 8–13.

Sormunen, J.J., Penttinen, R., Klemola, T., Hänninen, J., Vuorinen, I., Laaksonen, M., et al. (2016) Tick-
borne bacterial pathogens in southwestern Finland. *Parasit. Vectors* **9**: 168.

Sprong, H., Wielinga, P.R., Fonville, M., Reusken, C., Brandenburg, A.H., Borgsteede, F., et al. (2009)
Ixodes ricinus ticks are reservoir hosts for Rickettsia helvetica and potentially carry flea-borne
Rickettsia species. *Parasit. Vectors* **2**: 41.

Strle, F. (2004) Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Europe. *Int. J. Med. Microbiol. Suppl.* **293**: 27–35.

Strnad, M., Hönig, V., Růžek, D., Grubhoffer, L., and Rego, R.O.M. (2017) Europe-Wide Meta-Analysis of
Borrelia burgdorferi Sensu Lato Prevalence in Questing Ixodes ricinus Ticks. *Appl. Environ.*
Microbiol. **83**:.

Tagliapietra, V., Rosà, R., Arnoldi, D., Cagnacci, F., Capelli, G., Montarsi, F., et al. (2011) Saturation deficit
and deer density affect questing activity and local abundance of Ixodes ricinus (Acari, Ixodidae)
in Italy. *Vet. Parasitol.* **183**: 114–124.

Takken, W., van Vliet, A.J.H., Verhulst, N.O., Jacobs, F.H.H., Gassner, F., Hartemink, N., et al. (2016)
842   Acarological Risk of Borrelia burgdorferi Sensu Lato Infections Across Space and Time in The
843   Netherlands. *Vector-Borne Zoonotic Dis.* **17**: 99–107.
844   Taragel'ova, V., Koci, J., Hanincova, K., Kurtenbach, K., Derdakova, M., Ogden, N.H., et al. (2008)
845   Blackbirds and Song Thrushes Constitute a Key Reservoir of Borrelia garinii, the Causative Agent
846   of Borreliosis in Central Europe. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **74**: 1289–1293.
847   Tijsse-Klasen, E., Sprong, H., and Pandak, N. (2013) Co-infection of Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato and
848   Rickettsia species in ticks and in an erythema migrans patient. *Parasit. Vectors* **6**: 347.
849   Vayssier-Taussat, M., Moutailler, S., Michelet, L., Devillers, E., Bonnet, S., Cheval, J., et al. (2013) Next
850   Generation Sequencing Uncovers Unexpected Bacterial Pathogens in Ticks in Western Europe.
851   *PLOS ONE* **8**: e81439.
852   Vourc'h, G., Abrial, D., Bord, S., Jacquot, M., Masséglia, S., Poux, V., et al. (2016) Mapping human risk
853   of infection with Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato, the agent of Lyme borreliosis, in a periurban
854   forest in France. *Ticks Tick-Borne Dis.* **7**: 644–652.
855   van Wieren, S.E. and Hofmeester, T.R. (2016) 6. The role of large herbivores in Ixodes ricinus and
856   Borrelia burgdorferi s.l. dynamics. In, *Ecology and prevention of Lyme borreliosis*, Ecology and
857   Control of Vector-borne diseases. Wageningen Academic Publishers, pp. 75–89.
858

 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Targeted TBP	Targeted gene	Identity	Sequence	Amplicon size (bp)	Reference
Borrelia burgdorferi	rpoB	Forward Reverse Probe	GCTTACTCACAAAAGGCGTCTT GCACATCTCTTACTTCAAATCCT AATGCTCTTGGACCAGGAGGACTTTCA	83	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Borrelia garinii	rpoB	Forward Reverse Probe	TGGCCGAACTTACCCACAAAA ACATCTCTTACTTCAAATCCTGC TCTATCTCTTGAAAGTCCCCCTGGTCC	88	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Borrelia afzelii	fla	Forward Reverse Probe	GGAGCAAATCAAGATGAAGCAAT TGAGCACCCTCTTGAACAGG TGCAGCCTGAGCAGCTTGAGCTCC	116	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Borrelia valaisiana	ospA	Forward Reverse Probe	ACTCACAAATGACAGATGCTGAA GCTTGCTTAAAGTAACAGTACCT TCCGCCTACAAGATTTCCTGGAAGCTT	135	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Borrelia lusitaniae	rpoB	Forward Reverse Probe	CGAACTTACTCATAAAAGGCGTC TGGACGTCTCTTACTTCAAATCC TTAATGCTCTCGGGCCTGGGGGACT	87	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Borrelia spielmanii	fla	Forward Reverse Probe	ATCTATTTTCTGGTGAGGGAGC TCCTTCTTGTTGAGCACCTTC TTGAACAGGCGCAGTCTGAGCAGCTT	71	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Borrelia bissettii	rpoB	Forward Reverse Probe	GCAACCAGTCAGCTTTCACAG CAAATCCTGCCCTATCCCTTG AAAGTCCTCCCGGCCCAAGAGCATTAA	87	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Borrelia miyamotoi	glpQ	Forward Reverse Probe	CACGACCCAGAAATTGACACA GTGTGAAGTCAGTGGCGTAAT TCGTCCGTTTTCTCTAGCTCGATTGGG	94	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Borrelia spp.	23S	Forward Reverse Probe	GAGTCTTAAAAGGGCGATTTAGT CTTCAGCCTGGCCATAAATAG AGATGTGGTAGACCCGAAGCCGAGT	73	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Anaplasma marginale	msp1	Forward Reverse Probe	CAGGCTTCAAGCGTACAGTG GATATCTGTGCCTGGCCTTC ATGAAAGCCTGGAGATGTTAGACCGAG	85	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Anaplasma platys	groEL	Forward Reverse Probe	TTCTGCCGATCCTTGAAAACG CTTCTCCTTCTACATCCTCAG TTGCTAGATCCGGCAGGCCTCTGC	75	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Anaphasma phagocytophilum	msp2	Forward Reverse Probe	GCTATGGAAGGCAGTGTTGG GTCTTGAAGCGCTCGTAACC AATCTCAAGCTCAACCCTGGCACCAC	77	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Anaplasma centrale	groEL	Forward Reverse Probe	AGCTGCCCTGCTATACACG GATGTTGATGCCCAATTGCTC CTTGCATCTCTAGACGAGGTAAAGGGG	79	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Anaplasma bovis	groEL	Forward Reverse Probe	GGGAGATAGTACACATCCTTG CTGATAGCTACAGTTAAGCCC AGGTGCTGTTGGATGTACTGCTGGACC	73	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Anaplasma spp.	16S	Forward Reverse Probe	CTTAGGGTTGTAAAACTCTTTCAG CTTTAACTTACCAAACCGCCTAC ATGCCCTTTACGCCCAATAATTCCGAACA	160	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Ehrlichia spp.	16S	Forward Reverse Probe	GCAACGCGAAAAACCTTACCA AGCCATGCAGCACCTGTGT AAGGTCCAGCCAAACTGACTCTTCCG	98	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Ehrlichia canis	gltA	Forward Reverse Probe	GACCAAGCAGTTGATAAAGATGG CACTATAAGACAATCCATGATTAGG ATTAAAACATCCTAAGATAGCAGTGGCTAAGG	136	Gondard *et al.*, 2019

(Continued)

Targeted TBP	Targeted gene	Identity	Sequence	Amplicon size (bp)	Reference
Candidatus Neoehrlichia mikurensis	groEL	Forward Reverse Probe	AGAGACATCATTCGCATTTTGGA TTCCGGTGTACCATAAGGCTT AGATGCTGTTGGATGTACTGCTGGACC	96	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Rickettsia conorii	23S-5S ITS	Forward Reverse Probe	CTCACAAAGTTATCAGGTTAAATAG CGATACTCAGCAAAATAATTCTCG CTGGATATCGTGGCAGGGCTACAGTAT	118	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Rickettsia slovaca	23S-5S ITS	Forward Reverse Probe	GTATCTACTCACAAAGTTATCAGG CTTAACTTTTACTACAATACTCAGC TAATTTTCGCTGGATATCGTGGCAGGG	138	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Rickettsia massiliae	23S-5S ITS	Forward Reverse Probe	GTTATTGCATCACTAATGTTATACTG GTTAATGTTGTTGCACGACTCAA TAGCCCCGCCACGATATCTAGCAAAAA	128	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Rickettsia helvetica	23S-5S ITS	Forward Reverse Probe	AGAACCGTAGCGTACACTTAG GAAAACCCTACTTCTAGGGGT TACGTGAGGATTTGAGTACCGGATCGA	79	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Rickettsia aeschlimannii	ITS	Forward Reverse Probe	CTCACAAAGTTATCAGGTTAAATAG CTTAACTTTTACTACGATACTTAGCA TAATTTTTGCTGGATATCGTGGCGGGG	134	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Rickettsia felis	orfB	Forward Reverse Probe	ACCCTTTTCGTAACGCTTTGC TATACTTAATGCTGGGCTAAACC AGGGAAACCTGGACTCCATATTCAAAAGAG	163	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Rickettsia spp.	gltA	Forward Reverse Probe	GTCGCAAATGTTCACGGTACTT TCTTCGTGCATTTCTTTCCATTG TGCAATAGCAAGAACCGTAGGCTGGATG	78	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Bartonella henselae	pap31	Forward Reverse Probe	CCGCTGATCGCATTATGCCT AGCGATTTCTGCATCATCTGCT ATGTTGCTGGTGGTGTTTCCTATGCAC	107	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Bartonella spp.	ssrA	Forward Reverse Probe	CGTTATCGGGCTAAATGAGTAG ACCCCGCTTAAACCTGCGA TTGCAAATGACAACTATGCGGAAGCACGTC	118	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Francisella tularensis	tul4	Forward Reverse Probe	ACCCACAAGGAAGTGTAAGATTA GTAATTGGGAAGCTTGTATCATG AATGGCAGGCTCCAGAAGGTTCTAAGT	76	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
	fopA	Forward Reverse Probe	GGCAAATCTAGCAGGTCAAGC CAACACTTGCTTGAACATTTCTAG AACAGGTGCTTGGGATGTGGGTGGTG	91	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Coxiella burnetii	IS1111	Forward Reverse Probe	TGGAGGAGCGAACCATTGGT CATACGGTTTGACGTGCTGC ATCGGACGTTTATGGGGATGGGTATCC	86	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
	icd	Forward Reverse Probe	AGGCCCGTCCGTTATTTTACG CGGAAAATCACCATATTCACCTT TTCAGGCGTTTTGACCGGGCTTGGC	74	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Apycomplexa	18S	Forward Reverse Probe	TGAACGAGGAATGCCTAGTATG CACCGGATCACTCGATCGG TAGGAGCGACGGGCGGTGTGTAC	104	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Babesia microti	CCTeta	Forward Reverse Probe	ACAATGGATTTTCCCCAGCAAAA GCGACATTTCGGCAACTTATATA TACTCTGGTGCAATGAGCGTATGGGTA	145	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Babesia canis	hsp70	Forward Reverse Probe	TCACTGTGCCTGCGTACTTC TGATACGCATGACGTTGAGAC AACGACTCCCAGCGCCAGGCCAC	87	Michelet *et al.*, 2014

(Continued)

Targeted TBP	Targeted gene	Identity	Sequence	Amplicon size (bp)	Reference
Babesia ovis	18S	Forward Reverse Probe	TCTGTGATGCCCTTAGATGTC GCTGGTTACCCGCGCCTT TCGGAGCGGGGTCAACTCGATGCAT	92	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Babesia bovis	CCTeta	Forward Reverse Probe	GCCAAGTAGTGGTAGACTGTA GCTCCGTCATTGGTTATGGTA TAAAGACAACACTGGGTCCGCGTGG	100	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Babesia caballi	rap1	Forward Reverse Probe	GTTGTTCGGCTGGGGCATC CAGGCGACTGACGCTGTGT TCTGTCCCGATGTCAAGGGGCAGGT	94	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Babesia venatorum (sp. EU1)	18S	Forward Reverse Probe	GCGCGCTACACTGATGCATT CAAAAATCAATCCCCGTCACG CATCGAGTTTAATCCTGTCCCGAAAGG	91	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Babesia divergens	hsp70	Forward Reverse Probe	GCGCGCTACACTGATGCATT CAAAAATCAATCCCCGTCACG CATCGAGTTTAATCCTGTCCCGAAAGG	91	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Theileria spp.	18S	Forward Reverse Probe	GTCAGTTTTTACGACTCCTTCAG CCAAAGAATCAAGAAAGAGCTATC AATCTGTCAATCCTTCCTTTGTCTGGACC	213	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Hepatozoon spp.	18S	Forward Reverse Probe	ATTGGCTTACCGTGGCAGTG AAAGCATTTTAACTGCCTTGTATTG ACGGTTAACGGGGGATTAGGGTTCGAT	175	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Ixodes ricinus	ITS2	Forward Reverse Probe	CGAAACTCGATGGAGACCTG ATCTCCAACGCACCGACGT TTGTGGAAATCCCGTCGCACGTTGAAC	77	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Tick spp	16S	Forward Reverse Probe	AAATACTCTAGGGATAACAGCGT TCTTCATCAAACAAGTATCCTAATC CAACATCGAGGTCGCAAACCATTTTGTCTA	99	Gondard *et al.*, 2019
Dermacentor reticulatus	ITS2	Forward Reverse Probe	AACCCTTTTCCGCTCCGTG TTTTGCTAGAGCTCGACGTAC TACGAAGGCAAACAACGCAAACTGCGA	83	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Dermacentor marginatus	ITS2	Forward Reverse Probe	GCACGTTGCGTTGTTTGCC CCGCTCCGCGCAAGAATCT TTCGGAGTACGTCGAGCTCTAGCAGA	139	Michelet *et al.*, 2014
Escherichia coli	eae	Forward Reverse Probe	CATTGATCAGGATTTTTCTGGTGATA CTCATGCGGAAATAGCCGTTA ATAGTCTCGCCAGTATTCGCCACCAATACC	102	Michelet *et al.*, 2014

Table S1. Targeted gene, amplicon size, primers and probe sequences used for TBP and Tick species detection.

Targeted genus	Targeted gene	Name	Sequence	Reference
Babesia; Theileria; Hepatozoon	18s rRNA gene	BTH 18S 1st F	GTGAAACTGCGAATGGCTCATTAC	Masatani *et al*., 2017
		BTH 18S 1st R	AAGTGATAAGGTTCACAAAACTTCCC	
		BTH 18S 2nd F	GGCTCATTACAACAGTTATAGTTTATTTG	
		BTH 18S 2nd R	CGGTCCGAATAATTCACCGGAT	
Anaplasma; Ehrlichia	16s rRNA gene	EHR1	GAACGAACGCTGGCGGCAAGC	Rar *et al*., 2005
		EHR2	AGTA(T/C)CG(A/G)ACCAGATAGCCGC	
		EHR3	TGCATAGGAATCTACCTAGTAG	
		EHR2	AGTA(T/C)CG(A/G)ACCAGATAGCCGC	
Borrelia	flaB	FlaB280F	GCAGTTCARTCAGGTAACGG	Loh *et al*., 2016
		FlaRL	GCAATCATAGCCATTGCAGATTGT	
		flaB_737F	GCATCAACTGTRGTTGTAACATTAACAGG	
		FlaLL	ACATATTCAGATGCAGACAGAGGT	
Rickettsia	rompB	Rc.rompB.4362p	GTCAGCGTTACTTCTTCGATGC	Choi *et al*., 2005.
		Rc.rompB.4,836n	CCGTACTCCATCTTAGCATCAG	
		Rc.rompB.4,496p	CCAATGGCAGGACTTAGCTACT	
		Rc.rompB.4,762n	AGGCTGGCTGATACACGGAGTAA	

867 **Table S2. Targeted gene, amplicon size and primers sequences used for results confirmation.**