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10.18805/IJAR.B-4325

ABSTRACT

Background: Equine piroplasmosis is a haemoprozoan disease of equids and enzootic in Rajasthan prefecture of India. In endemic areas, the subclinical condition is more common, as infected equids recover from the disease and become latently infected. This study aimed to investigate the seroepidemiology and risk factors associated with the endemicity of *Theileria equi* infection in Rajasthan state.

Methods: A cross-sectional study on the seroprevalence of *Theileria equi*, was performed. Total of 151 serum samples collected from different areas of Rajasthan. The serum samples were screened by ELISA for assessment of seroprevalence of *T. equi* infection. **Result:** Overall seroprevalence of *T. equi* was 49.66%. A total of 75 *T. equi* seropositive horses were detected and one horse was clinically positive for *T. equi* infection. The clinical signs observed were - fever, haemoglobinuria, mild colic, anaemia and icteric conjunctival mucous membrane. *Theileria equi* infection is endemic among horses in Rajasthan state and Ajmer district found the most endemic. Haematological observations in *T. equi* clinically infected and healthy horses were studies. A decreased haemoglobin concentration, packed cell volume, total erythrocytic counts were observed in *T. equi* infected horse in comparison to healthy horses. This observation showed anaemic condition in *T. equi* clinically infected equine. An increased concentration of liver enzymes - AST, ALP, GGT in *T. equi* infected equine was also recorded, which indicated the liver damage.

Key words: ELISA, Horses, Piroplasmosis, Risk factors, Seroprevalence, Theileria equi.

INTRODUCTION

Equine piroplasmosis is a tick-borne disease caused by intraerythrocytic protozoa, Theileria equi (Mehlhorn and Schein, 1998) and Babesia caballi (Nuttal and Strickland, 1910). The disease is endemic in the tropical and subtropical area of the world (Shkap et al., 1998; Uilenberg, 2006; Vial and Gorenflot, 2006). Multiple tick's species of genera are transmitting both the protozoa. Hyalomma, Dermacentor, Amblyomma and Rhipicephalus are distributed worldwide and considered as a vector for these protozoa (de Waal, 1992; Ali et al., 1996). These tick species are most prevalent in different Indian climatic zones (Geevarghese et al., 1997). In Indian regions, Hyalomma anatolicum anatolicum transmits T. equi and Theileria annulata in equines and bovine, respectively (Chaudhuri et al., 1969; Bhattacharyulu et al., 1975). Theileria equi infection is endemic in India in many agro-climatic regions (Kumar et al., 2013; Dahiya et al., 2018; Sumbria et al., 2018) and sporadic clinical cases have been reported (Gautam, 1976; Sharma et al., 1982).

Equines infected with piroplasmosis show different symptoms like high fever, haemoglobinuria, pale mucus membrane, icterus, petechial haemorrhage on the nictitating membrane, peripheral oedema and occasionally death (De Waal, 1992; Ambawat *et al.*, 1999; de Waal and van Heerden, 2004; Radostits *et al.*, 2006; Onyiche *et al.*, 2019). The disease condition observes as per-acute, acute, subacute or chronic (Uilenberg, 2006; Zobba *et al.*, 2008). In endemic areas, the subclinical condition is more common, as infected equids recover from the disease and ¹Department of Epidemiology and Preventive Veterinary Medicine, College of Veterinary and Animal Science, Rajasthan University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Bikaner-334 001, Rajasthan, India. ²Teaching Veterinary Clinical Complex, College of Veterinary and Animal Science, Banaras Hindu University, Banaras- 221 005, Uttar Pradesh. India.

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How to cite this article: Bhojani, R.J., Chahar, A., Dewal, V.S., Mandal, K.D., Chauhan, S.L., Pal, Y., Kumar, R. and Kumar, S. (2023). Seroprevalence and Risk Factor Associated with Endemicity of *Theileria equi* Infection in Horses in Rajasthan State, India. Indian Journal of Animal Research. 57(4): 480-486. doi: 10.18805/IJAR.B-4325. Submitted: 02-10-2020 Accepted: 11-01-2021 Online: 01-03-2021

become a latent carrier (de Waal and van Heerden, 2004). Transplacental transmission of *T. equi* infection from latently infected pregnant mare to naïve unborn neonate has been reported (Phipps and Otter, 2004; Allsopp *et al.*, 2007; Georges *et al.*, 2011; Chhabra *et al.*, 2012).

Direct and indirect methods are in vogue for diagnosis of equine piroplasmosis. These methods include

Seroprevalence and Risk Factor Associated with Endemicity of Theileria equi Infection in Horses in Rajasthan State, India

microscopic blood smears examination, serological assays, cell culture (microaerophilous stationary phase, MASP technique) and molecular techniques viz. PCR/qPCR assays (Kumar et al., 2009; Tirosh-Levy et al., 2020). Direct diagnosis includes the demonstration of an intraerythrocytic form of protozoa in Giemsa stained blood or organ smear in the acute stage of infection (Nagore et al., 2004). Nevertheless, it is challenging to demonstrate T. equi parasite in blood smears prepared from latently infected equines. Therefore, various serological assays developed to increase diagnostic specificity and sensitivity. These indirect serological methods prescribed for large scale epidemiological and seroprevalence studies on T. equi infection. Office International des Epizooties (OIE) prescribed competitive inhibition enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (cELISA) for international trade and transportation of equines (OIE, 2004). EMA-2 recombinant antigen of T. equi has widely used in ELISA for seroepidemiological studies (Huang et al., 2003; Kumar et al., 2013).

Theileria equi infection reported to be endemic in Rajasthan (Kumar et al., 2013), but its epidemiological information is limited. This study aimed to investigate the seroepidemiology and risk factors associated with the endemicity of *T. equi* infection in Rajasthan state in India.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and sampled area

One hundred fifty one horses were screened for equine piroplasmosis. Samples from these animals were collected from different areas of Rajasthan including Ajmer, Barmer, Bikaner, Nagaur and Pali districts (Fig 1A). The animals were sampled as per guidelines of Committee for the Purpose of Control and Supervision of Experiments on Animals (CPCSEA) after due approval from the Institute Animals Ethics Committee (IAEC).

Sample collection and serological examination

Blood was withdrawn aseptically from the jugular vein and collected in sterile clot activator vacutainers. Serum was separated after centrifugation at 4000 g for 25 min and kept immediately at -20°C till further processing. Blood smears from each horse were prepared on a glass slide at the time of blood collection and fixed with methanol. Blood smears were stained using Giemsa staining (Himedia Laboratories, India) and processed further for microscopic examination for any evidence of haemoparasites including *T. equi* (Henry, 1992).

Serum samples were screened by ELISA, developed at the equine piroplasmosis laboratory of National Research Centre on Equines (NRCE) for detection of antibodies against *T. equi* (Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Bhagwan *et al.*, 2015). Briefly, ELISA plate coated with recombinant protein (rEMA) and incubated overnight at 4°C. Next day the plate was blocked with 3% BSA-PBS for 1 h followed by washing with PBS containing 0.05% Tween-20 (PBS-T) four times. The test serum samples including control positive or negative were diluted in 1% BSA-PBS (1:200 dilution) and 50 µl added was to ELISA plate in duplicate wells. The plate was incubated at room temperature (RT) for 1 h. Thereafter it was washed with PBS-T. Rabbit anti-horse IgG HRP conjugated antibody was used as secondary antibody. It was diluted in 1% BSA-PBS and added to the wells of the ELISA plate. The plate was incubated at RT for 1 h. After that, the plate was washed again with PBS-T. The substrate solution of O-phenylenediamine dihydrochloride, OPD (Sigma Aldrich) was prepared as per manufacturer instructions and added to each well of the ELISA plate. The ELISA plate was incubated in the dark for 5 min at RT. The development of orange-brown colour was stopped by adding 50 µl of 3 M H_2SO_4 . The ELISA plate was read at an absorbance of 492 nm (OD₄₉₂) in ELISA plate reader (BioTek, USA). The ELISA OD₄₀₂ cutoff point was determined by calculating the relative per cent positivity (RPP) as per the following formula. Test serum sample showing RPP >20 was considered as positive.

$$\mathsf{RPP} = \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{OD}_{_{492}} \, \mathsf{of} \, \mathsf{tested} \, \mathsf{sample} \, - \, \mathsf{OD}_{_{492}} \, \mathsf{of} \, \mathsf{negetive} \\ \hline \\ \mathbf{OD}_{_{492}} \, \mathsf{of} \, \mathsf{positive} \, \mathsf{control} \, \mathsf{smaple} \, - \, \mathsf{OD}_{_{492}} \, \mathsf{of} \\ \\ \mathsf{negetive} \, \, \mathsf{control} \, \mathsf{smaple} \end{array} \times 100$$

Haemato-biochemical analysis

Haematological parameters on the collected whole blood were analysed manually. Haemoglobin (Hb); packed cell volume (PCV); total erythrocytes count (TEC) and total leukocytes count parameters (TLC) were estimated as per prescribed methodology. Biochemical parameters such as aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), total bilirubin and gamma-glutamyl transferase (GGT) were analysed using commercial kits (Transasia Biomedicals Ltd., India).

Risk factors analysis

A customised questionnaire was prepared and information related to sampled area, age, sex and managemental practices were collected from the equine owners at the time of sample collection. The questionnaire also included a description of 'unorganised farms' and 'organised farms'. At 'unorganised farms' equine owners practise inappropriate managemental practices *viz.* stables with kaccha (imperfect and crude) floor, neglected sanitation and unstable feeding programmes; while 'organised farms' owners pursue appropriate technical managemental schedule.

Statistical analysis

The data were statistically analysed and compared by GraphPad Prism version 5.0 software (San Diego California, USA). The association of seroprevalence of *T. equi* with respects to different sampled geographic areas of Rajasthan and epidemiological risk factors were statistically analysed by Pearson's chi-square test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Microscopic examination of blood smears

Stained blood smears were microscopically examined for the presence of *T. equi* parasites, if any. A total 151 blood smears were examined, only one blood smears was positive for *T. equi* protozoa, which was clinically infected (Fig 1B).

Clinical findings and seroprevalence

The symptoms such as fever, haemoglobinuria, mild colic, anaemia and icteric conjunctival mucous membrane were observed in horses with clinical infection by *T. equi* parasite. Out of 151 serum samples collected from the study area, 75 (49.66%) were seropositive to *T. equi* infection. In Ajmer area maximum percentage of equids were seropositive to *T. equi* infection, followed by Nagaur, Bikaner, Pali and Barmer area (Fig 1C).

Haemato-biochemical analysis

Most of the parameters of. Haemato-biochemical parameters (Hb, PCV, TEC, GGT, ALP and total bilirubin, Table 1) did not differ significantly among apparently healthy and *T. equi* sero-positive horse. Whereas, values of TLC and AST differ significantly among these two groups (Table 1). However, these haemato-biochemical parameters in *T. equi* clinically infected horse differ significantly from apparently healthy and *T. equi* seropositive equines (Table 1). These observations in *T. equi* clinically infected horse were indicative of anaemic and liver damage condition.

Risk factors analysis

Relative risk factors involved in *T. equi* infected/seropositive equines were analysed (Table 2). In Ajmer area, a more significant number of *T. equi* seropositivity was observed

Table 1: Haemato-biochemicals alteration	on in <i>Theileria</i>	equi seropositive an	d infected equids.
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Parameters	Apparently healthy animals	Seropositive animals	Clinically infected animals
Hb (g/dl)	11.69±0.27	11.59±0.30	8.2°
Packed cell volume, PCV (%)	39.54±0.74	39.03±0.89	26.2°
Total erythrocytic count, TEC (10 ⁶ /cmm)	8.67±0.29	8.33±0.34	4.4°
Total leucocytes count, TLC (10 ³ /cmm)	9.83±0.24ª	9.02±0.29 ^b	6.2°
Serum aspartate aminotransferase, AST (U/L)	333.29±9.10ª	368.69±11.58 ^b	445°
Gamma-glutamyl transferase, GGT (U/L)	24.52±1.58	26.37±1.62	57°
Alkaline phosphatase, ALP (U/L)	491.03±26.43	492.33±28.85	784°
Total bilirubin (mg/dl)	1.50±0.049	1.56±0.044	2.55°

Note: Numerals with different superscripts, differ significantly (p≤0.05).

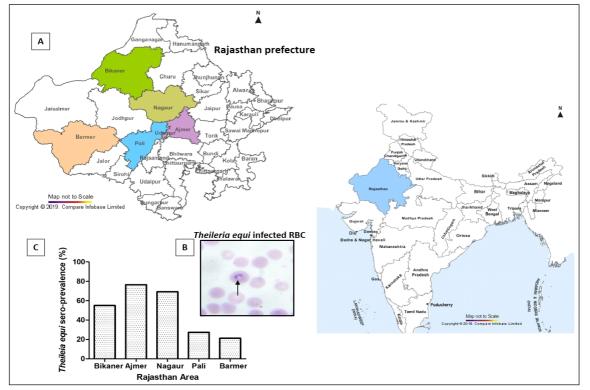


Fig 1: Geographical distribution of sampling area from Rajasthan state (A). Microphotograph depicts *T. equi* infected RBC (B). Bar diagram represents sero-positivity of *Theileria equi* infection in ELISA in different districts (C).

Ľ			Sample positive/total samples		ΡO	Odds ratio
U L	actors	variables	tested (% positive)	un square value	Relative risk	Confidence interval ^b
Areas	Zones	Ajmer	13/17 (76.47)	26.413*	σ	
		Nagaur	27/39 (69.23)		0.692	0.187-2.568
		Bikaner	22/40 (55)		0.367	0.104-1.335
		Pali	06/22 (27.27)		0.115	0.027-0.498
		Barmer	07/33 (21.21)		0.083	0.020-0.335
	Age (yrs)		10/30 (33.33)	7.155	ŋ	
		1-5	33/54 (61.11)		3.143	1.233-8.011
Animal- Age		6-10	27/53 (50.94)		2.077	0.819-5.268
		> 10	5/14 (35.71)		1.11	0.294-4.205
	Age (months)	0-2	3/13 (23.07)	6.490	ŋ	
		3-4	3/12 (25)		1.111	0.177-6.970
		5-6	2/3 (66.66)		6.667	0.437-101.732
		Up to 12	2/2 (100)		× × ×	×××
	Male		12/35 (34.28)	4.313*	0.439	0.200-0.965
Sex	Female		63/116 (54.31)		σ	
	ŋ	Organised farm	24/69 (34.78)	11.263* (Significant)	0.324	0.166-0.632
		Unorganised farm	51/82 (62.19)		ŋ	
	q	Kept with other livestock species	38/89 (42.69)	4.215* (Significant)	0.503	0.261-0.973
Management		Kept without other livestock species	37/62 (59.67)		ŋ	
practices	U	Presence of tick infestations	29/46 (63.04)	4.734* (Significant)	2.188	1.073-4.460
		Absence of tick infestations	46/105 (43.80)		ŋ	
	q	Pacca houses	30/80 (37.5)	10.078* (Significant)	0.374	0.179-0.672
		Kachha houses	45/71 (63.38)		ŋ	
	Ð	Control adopted by the owner	34/97 (35.05)	23.183* (Significant)	0.171	0.081-0.362
		Without control adapted by owner	41/54 (75.92)		σ	
*: Chi square val	*: Chi square value is Significant (p>0.05) indicating the		association of factor w.r.t. positive per cent of infectionb: 95% confidence Interval	95% confidence Interval.		

Volume 57 Issue 4 (April 2023)

as compared to the other sampling areas. The equines at Barmer area were at least relative risk (0.083 times) than at Ajmer area for *T. equi* infection.

Analysis of age-related data indicated higher seroprevalence of *T. equi* in horses of age 1-5 year. Whereas, \geq 10 years old horses were at least risk. Seroprevalence of *T. equi* was higher in foals of 4 to 12 months age (*n*=10). Whereas, neonate foals (0-2 and 3-4 months) were at least risk.

A high *T. equi* seroprevalence was observed in female horses (n=63; 54.13%) as compared to male horses (n=12; 34.28%) indicating that females are significantly more at risk than male equine population.

Equine farm management practices influence the incidence of T. equi infection remarkably. The equines reared at the organised farm were significantly at lower risk of contracting infection with T. equi as compared to equines reared at the unorganised farm. Likewise, equines were significantly at less risk (0.503 times) when kept with other animal species than reared without any other animal species. The equines infested with tick-vectors were significantly two times (2.188) more inclination of getting T. equi infection as compared to those who were not infested with ticks. Flooring in the stable is a significant risk factor towards maintaining proper drainage and sanitation. Equines reared at kaccha house were more at risk than equines kept on pacca floor. The risk of getting infected with T. equi decreased significantly in equines, where owners adopted control measures such as anti-tick spray and bathing of equines etc.

Equine piroplasmosis is the economically significant disease of horses, donkeys, mules and zebras. Tick vectors are ubiquitous and responsible for the spread of parasite in the equine population. A *T. equi* infected horse showing clinical signs of the disease condition was observed in the present study. Similar clinical observations were recorded by other researchers also (Hailat *et al.*, 1997; Radostits *et al.*, 2006; Balkaya *et al.*, 2010; Garba *et al.*, 2011; Behera *et al.*, 2012; Hussain *et al.*, 2014).

Very high seroprevalence of T. equi infection has been reported from Rajasthan state (Kumar et al., 1997; Kumar et al., 2013). In the present study also very high T. equi seropositivity was recorded in the samples collected from differrnt areas of Rajasthan state (Fig 1). Theileria equi seroprevalence was higher in the horses of Ajmer district followed by Nagaur, Bikaner, Pali and Barmerareas. Ajmer area has the highest livestock density among the sampled region (Livestock Census All India Report, 2019). High livestock density help in the propagation of the infected tick vectors, which may be responsible for the highest seroprevalence of T. equi infection. Livestock density also influences tick biology and tick's control measures. Similar observation reported by different researchers (Salim et al., 2008; Kumar et al., 2013; Hussain et al., 2014). Decreased haemoglobin concentration, packed cell volume and total erythrocytic counts indicated anaemic condition in T. equi clinically infected horse (Table 1). Theileria equi infection inflicts lipid peroxidation of infected erythrocytes membrane, making it more fragile. This process eventually leads to its lysis (Ambawat *et al.*, 1999). That may be the reason for the anaemic condition of the *T. equi* infected horse. An increased concentration of liver enzymes (AST, GGT and ALP) in *T. equi* infected horse (Table 1) is associated with hepatocytes necrosis and centrilobular degeneration. These findings are in agreement with earlier reports (Camacho *et al.*, 2005; Zobba *et al.*, 2008; Kumar *et al.*, 2008).

Seropositivity of *T. equi* infection among different regions was analysed based on age, gender and managemental practices (Table 2). The female equine population was more seropositive to *T. equi* infection as compared to the male's population. Males (stallion) are more scattered as compared to female (mare) population, as stallion usually used for the breeding purpose only. Hence, the comparatively male equine population is at lesser risk than females.

We also collected serum samples from a dam and their foals. *Theileria equi* antibodies observed in neonates (0 to 4 months of age) in the present study, indicating transcolostrum transfer of specific antibodies. Equine neonates are naïve at birth and they acquire *T. equi* immunity from colostrum of their preimmune dam (de Waal and van Heerden, 1994; Kumar *et al.*, 2008). This passive immunity is transitory and disappears after some time. Kumar *et al.* (2008) observed antibodies titre in naïve foals up to 63 to 77 days post-foaling.

A significantly higher incidence of *T. equi* infection at unorganised farms may be attributed to unhygienic management practices e. g. open grazing system, absence of grooming practices *etc.* This managemental practice increases the probability of getting infested with *T. equi* infected ticks (Kouam *et al.*, 2010; Moretti *et al.*, 2010; Abutarbush *et al.*, 2012; Steinman *et al.*, 2012; Peckle *et al.*, 2013). Nevertheless, infected ticks' infestation is responsible for making the equids *T. equi* seropositive (Bhagwan *et al.*, 2015). Kaccha housing conditions are responsible for the propagation of ticks breeding.

CONCLUSION

Theileria equi is endemic among horses of the Rajasthan region and clinical infection is common. *Theileria equi* seroprevalence was higher in the horses of Ajmer district followed by Nagaur, Bikaner, Pali and Barmer areas. Significantly, higher incidence of *T. equi* infection was observed at unorganised stud farms. This managemental practice increases the probability of getting infested with *T. equi* infected ticks. Risk factors play a vital role in maintaining the endemicity of *T. equi* infection.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This manuscript is a part of master's research work of the first author. Authors wish to acknowledge their gratitude to the Director, ICAR-National Research Centre on Equines (Indian Council of Agricultural Research), Hisar, Haryana, Seroprevalence and Risk Factor Associated with Endemicity of Theileria equi Infection in Horses in Rajasthan State, India

India for providing all the necessary facilities for conducting this study and to the Head, Department of Epidemiology and Preventive Veterinary Medicine, College of Veterinary and Animal Science, the Rajasthan University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Bikaner, Rajasthan, India for managing the administrative matters of the first author as a student of the department. This study was conducted under Consortium of Research Platform on Vaccine and Diagnostics, a ICAR funded research project.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Authors' contributions

Rakesh J. Bhojani and Vikram S. Dewal performed the experiments. Anju Chahar collected samples and Kruti D. Mandal and Sneh L. Chauhan perform risk analysis, Rajender Kumar performed ELISA. Yash Pal performed statistical calculations and prepared the graphs Sanjay Kumar conceptualised, designed and supervised the whole study. Also drafted the final version of manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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