

# Characterization and diversity of Babesia sp. YLG, a new member of the Peircei group infecting Mediterranean yellow-legged gulls (Larus michahellis)

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### 22 Abstract

paucity of information has blurred our phylogenetic and biological comprehension of this important group as a whole. In the present study, we detected and characterized Babesia from vellow-legged gull (Larus michahellis) chicks from a colony in southern France. Based on morphological and molecular characterizations, a new Babesia species belonging to the Peircei group, a clade of avian-specific piroplasms, was identified. Due to the complexity of species delineations and the low number of parasites characterized in this clade to date, a species name was not yet attributed; we refer to it for now as *Babesia* sp. YLG (Yellow-Legged Gull). High prevalence (85% and 58% in 2019 and 2020, respectively) and high parasitemia (up to 20% of parasitized erythrocytes) were recorded in chicks, without any obvious clinical signs of infection. Although the 16 isolates had identical 18S rRNA gene sequences, 6 genetic variants were described based on partial cox1 sequencing, with evidence of chicks co-infected by two variants. Transmission of Babesia sp. YLG via the soft tick Ornithodoros maritimus is discussed.

Avian infecting piroplasms are largely under-studied compared to other hemoparasites, and this

39 Keywords

Babesia, Larus michahellis, Peircei group, molecular characterization, 18S rRNA gene, cox1

# 42 Introduction

Hemoparasite infections have been found to occur in almost one third (27%) of all seabird species (Quillfeldt et al., 2011) and in over 40% of species examined in rehabilitation centers (Parsons et al., 2017). Although some infections are considered to impact individual bird health (Parsons et al., 2017; 2018), little is known about how these parasites may affect seabird population dynamics and conservation. Hemoparasites use different vectors to achieve transmission (ticks, fleas, biting midges, flies, mosquitoes) and their contact with birds will depend on avian habitat use and lifestyle. Colonial seabirds may be particularly exposed to these vectors during reproduction when they come to land to breed. Indeed, because of their tendency to breed in high densities and reuse the same colony locations, vectors may become very abundant locally. For example, large populations of nest-dwelling ticks are known to build-up in seabird breeding colonies reused over long periods of time (Danchin, 1992; McCoy et al., 2016). Among hemoparasites, tick-transmitted piroplasms are extremely common in mammals and known to cause severe disease of great medical and veterinary importance (Homer et al., 2000; Schnittger et al., 2012). In birds, piroplasms are poorly described, especially compared to other hemoparasites such as *Plasmodium*, *Haemaproteus*, *Hepatozoon* and Leucocytozoon (Peirce, 2005). Interestingly, most cases of infection to date have been reported in seabirds.

Piroplasm infections in birds are due to *Babesia* species, but most of the 16 described species
to date have been defined based solely on morphological descriptions and/or the observed hosts
(Peirce, 2000; 2005; Yabsley et al., 2017). Initial molecular characterizations and phylogenetic
analyses have demonstrated that avian *Babesia* spp. do not form a monophyletic group but

rather cluster into three distinct groups (Yabsley et al., 2017), belonging to two of the ten major clades described for piroplasms (Clades V and X, Jalovecka et al., 2019). Clade X corresponds to Babesia sensu stricto infecting a wide range of hosts, including birds. The two avian groups described by Yabsley et al.,(2017), Kiwiensis and Bennetti, belong to this clade. In contrast, the entire clade V seems to be largely restricted to seabird-infecting piroplasms, the Percei group. Given the paucity of studies on seabird piroplasms, it is likely that diversity of these groups are largely underestimated. The overall phylogeny of the Babesiidae, and our understanding of its evolution, should therefore gain in accuracy, or even change, as new avian *Babesia* sequences from additional hosts and locations are discovered.

Babesia-infected birds have been reported from different parts of the world (Europe, New Zealand, Australia, South Africa, Brazil, USA, Pacific Islands, Singapore), infecting different avian orders (Apterygiformes, Charadriiformes, Passeriformes, Pelicaniformes, Sphenisciformes, Suliformes). The only *Babesia* reported from seabirds in Europe to date is *B*. bennetti described in the yellow-legged gull (Larus michahellis) on Benidorm island, Spain (Mediterranean Sea) (Merino, 1998). In a recent study, Ornithodoros maritimus ticks (Argasidae) collected in a Yellow-legged gull Larus michahellis colony in the south of France were found to carry a *Babesia* sp. In this study, detection was performed using a real-time PCR micro-array assay designed for mammalian Babesia and species identifications could not be made (Dupraz et al., 2017). The present study aimed to verify *Babesia* species infection in the birds from this colony, characterize the Babesia species implicated and better evaluate its prevalence and diversity within this seabird population.

### Material and methods

### **Study location**

Carteau island is a flat islet in the Gulf of Fos in the Camargue area of southern France (43°22'39"N 4°51'28"E). A population of about 300 breeding pairs of yellow-legged gull (Larus michahellis, Laridae, Charadriiformes) occupy the 1.36 km<sup>2</sup> islet during the reproductive season (March to June).

### Blood samples from yellow-legged gull chicks

Blood collection was performed in May and June 2019 from 20 yellow-legged gull chicks (3 to 4 weeks old), all from different nests. In spring 2020, 38 additional blood samples were collected from 36 chicks coming from 21 nests and sampled at three different time points (18/05, 26/05 and 02/06). Two chicks were sampled twice at a 2-week interval (18/05 and 02/06). The capture and manipulation of chicks was approved by the local animal ethical committee (Apafis request 25183) and permission to access the Carteau colony was provided by Grand Port Maritime de Marseille and the DDTM 13/Service Mer Eau Environnement/Pôle Nature et Territoires (nº13-2018-02-2-003). All handled chicks were ringed under the CRBPO Personal ringing program n°990 (Museum National de l'Histoire Naturelle, Paris).

Between 0.2 and 1ml of blood was obtained from the brachial vein of chicks using a 26G 0.45x12mm needle rinsed with heparin. In 2019 and 2020, blood smears were freshly prepared, air-dried, fixed with methanol, and Giemsa stained. They were examined under light microscopy using a  $100 \times \text{oil}$  immersion lens to estimate parasitemia levels and describe

morphological features. In 2019, 20 µl of the blood samples were centrifuged and red blood cells were kept frozen at -20°C until DNA extraction.

### Genomic DNA extraction from yellow-legged gull blood

Samples of 10 µL of frozen pelleted RBC (Red Blodd Cells) from 20 Larus michahellis chicks collected in 2019 were washed twice with 500 µL of PBS1X. Genomic DNA was then extracted using the Wizard® Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions for  $\leq 300 \ \mu L$  samples. DNA was eluted with 100  $\mu L$  of elution buffer and was stored at -20°C until use.

### Molecular detection of blood piroplasms

An initial PCR was performed to amplify the entire 18S rRNA gene of the putative piroplasms using CRYPTOF and CRYPTOR primers (Table 1), from two blood samples found highly infected on the blood smears. Reactions were carried out in 30 µL reaction mixtures containing 1 X buffer, 4 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM each dNTP (Eurobio), 1 unit GoTaq G2 Flexi DNA Polymerase (Promega), 0.5 µM of each primer and 10 µL of DNA template. PCR cycling comprised 5 min at 95°C, 40 cycles at 95°C for 30s, 30s at 63°C, 1 min at 72°C, and a final extension at 72°C for 5 min. A nested PCR using BAB-GF2 and BAB-GR2 primers was conducted with 10 µL of 1/40 diluted amplicons in a 30 µL reaction mixture containing the same components as the first PCR (Table 1). Cycling conditions were the same as the primary reaction except the annealing temperature was 61°C. Amplified fragments were purified with ExoSAP-IT reagent following manufacturer's recommendations (Affymetrix) and were sequenced bi-directionally using the same primers (Eurofins Genomics, Germany). Sequences were then assembled using the Geneious R6 software (https://www.geneious.com) and an online BLAST (National Center for Biotechnology Information) was performed.

### Molecular characterization of blood piroplasms

18S *rRNA* gene

As cross-amplification with Larus michahellis DNA was observed, new primers were designed to improve the specificity of our amplification of the Percei group Babesia (BLAST result), (Table 1). For this purpose, the 18S rRNA gene sequences of Larus michahellis (this study), and of Babesia spp. from the Peircei group, the Bennetti group and the Kiwiensis group (Table (Yabsley retrieved GenBank 2) al., 2017) from the database et (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank) were aligned with ClustalW (Thompson et al., 1997) (Supplementary data 1). The newly designed primers (18SBp fw and 18SBp rev) were used in a nested PCR (see reaction and cycling conditions above, with an annealing temperature at 60°C) to amplify an expected 1529 bp fragment after a primary amplification with CRYPTOF and CRYPTOR primers (Table 1).

Cox1 gene

Cox1 (cytochrome oxidase subunit 1) sequences of piroplasms from different phylogenetic groups were aligned in order to design primers that would specifically amplify the cox1 sequence of the yellow-legged gull parasites (Table 1, Supplementary data 2). These primers (COX1 fw and COX1 rev) enabled the amplification of a 1220 bp cox1 fragment (see reaction and cycling conditions above, with an annealing temperature at 54°C).

Amplified fragments of 18S rRNA and cox1 genes were purified, sequenced and analyzed as described above.

### **Phylogenetic analysis**

Alignments of sequences obtained from the Babesia isolates from Larus michahellis with other avian and mammalian piroplasms' sequences retrieved from GenBank were generated. For the 18S rRNA gene, the multiple sequence alignment ClustalW program was used and sequences were trimmed with the Gblocks method (Castresana, 2000), allowing small final blocks. For the cox1 gene, sequences were aligned with the multiple sequence alignment MUSCLE program (Edgar, 2004). Phylogenetic analyses used trimmed sequences of 1291 bp for the 18S rRNA and 951 bp for *cox1* genes. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees were produced using MEGA version X (Kumar et al., 2018) with 1000 bootstrap replications, based on the Tamura-Nei + I +  $\Gamma_{(Tamura and Nei, 1993)}$  for the 18S rRNA gene and based on the GTR + G +  $\Gamma$  (Tavaré, 1986) model for the *cox1* gene. The appropriate model of nucleotide substitution for ML analysis was selected based on the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) computed by MEGA-X.

### 6 GenBank deposition

Nucleotidic sequences obtained in this study were submitted to Genbank with accession numbers MZ541058 and MZ558162-MZ558167 for 18S rRNA gene and *cox1* variants sequences of *Babesia* sp. YLG isolates respectively.

### **Results**

### **Prevalence and parasitemia of intraerythrocytic piroplasms**

In 16 of 20 blood smears of tested chicks (80%) analyzed in 2019, intraerythrocytic pale, rounded or ameboid parasitic forms were detected, with parasitemia ranging from 0.1% (estimation made on 20 fields of about 180 erythrocytes) to 15% of erythrocytes (295 infected Red Blood Cells iRBC/1994 RBC). Parasite DNA was successfully amplified from blood of all positive smear samples using the *Babesia/Theileria* broad range primers. Blood from one blood smear negative sample of a single chick was also found positive by PCR (prevalence of infection increased to 85%) (Table 3). Further molecular characterization was performed using these 17 blood samples (see below).

To examine the local maintenance of these parasites on Carteau, 38 additional blood smears were prepared from blood of the 36 chicks sampled in May and June 2020. Their observation revealed that 58% of chicks carried parasites morphologically identical to those described in 2019, with the same range of parasitemia (infection in 0.1% to 15% of erythrocytes).

Most chicks had parasitemia above 1% both years: 59% of the infected chicks in 2019 (10/17) and 75% of the infected chicks in 2020 (15/20). Highly parasitized chicks with parasitemia above 10% also occurred (7 chicks in 2019 and 5 chicks in 2020). Of the two chicks sampled twice, one was found negative on the first smear and the other weakly infected (<0.1% parasitemia). Two weeks later, they were both highly parasitized (>10% parasitemia).

### 3 Morphological description of the avian piroplasm (Figure 1)

The most striking feature of the blood smears was the presence of large, pale, rounded, amoeboid, pleomorphic forms within the erythrocytes. On all observed smears, they represented 80-90 % of the intraerythrocytic forms (n = 441/527 iRBC, of 4026 RBC analyzed)

(Figure 1). Amoeboid forms the length of the host cell nucleus could be observed alongside the nucleus or folded at one cell pole (Figure 1 A, B, C, E). Within RBCs, parasites could be found either at a polar position (43%, n = 190/441 iRBC) or alongside the host nuclei (57%, n = 251/441 iRBC). Despite occupying up to one fourth of the cytoplasm, host cell nuclei were never displaced by the parasite (Figure 1 B).

In the case of heavy infection (parasitemia above 10%), two parasites per host cell were frequent (6%, n = 33/527 iRBC), sometimes three (2%, n = 10/527 iRBC), of similar or different sizes and stages (Figure 1 D).

The different forms occurring in iRBCs could represent different life stages of the parasites -trophozoites and schizonts. In the smallest trophozoites, chromatin occupied a large proportion of the cell (Figure 1 G). With increasing trophozoite size, the cytoplasm of the parasite occupied almost the whole cell, with the chromatin displaced to the periphery, with a dotted or uneven local distribution (Figure 1 A, C and E). Chromatin then condensed into two to four dots budding from the remaining rounded or amoeboid cytoplasm, developing into extremely various schizont forms: fan-shaped, cruciform, "cow's udder" shapes with chromatin dots at each extremities (Figure 1 A,C, G, H) (4% of the observed intra-erythrocytic parasites, n = 22/527 iRBC). Nuclei of the future merozoites were mostly seen in the mean body or at the distal pole of the schizont, opposite of the amoeboid chromatin-free cytoplasm remaining at the basal region of the four developing merozoites (Figure 1 C and G). Very few erythrocytic cells with 4 identically-elongated merozoites with central nuclei (4%, n = 21/527 iRBC) were found (Figure 1 C, D and F).

### 230 Molecular characterization of the yellow-legged gull piroplasm

# 231 Analysis of the 18S rRNA gene

The first amplification of partial 18S rRNA genes on two positive samples using the *Babesia/Theileria* broad range primers CRYPTOR/CRYPTOF and GF2/GR2 resulted in sequences of 552 bp. Blastn analysis of the longest amplicon revealed an identity above 96,13% with different avian piroplasm species, all belonging to the Peircei *Babesia* group. Amplification was then obtained for 15 more blood samples, and all sequences were identical. The specific nested PCR using the internal primers designed to amplify the different species of the Percei *Babesia* group enabled us to obtain a longer fragment of the 18S rDNA gene for 16 individuals (1529 bp), which was then sequenced bidirectionally. Identical partial 18S rRNA gene sequences (1461-1485 bp) were again found.

Blastn analysis of this sequence revealed high identities with several Peircei *Babesia* sequences from infected marine birds. The highest identities were obtained with a *B. poelea* sequence from brown boobies (*Sula leucogaster*) in the central Pacific (DQ2000887, 99.52%) and a *Babesia* sp. from masked and brown bobbies (*Sula dactylatra and S. leucogaster*) from Brazilian offshore islands (KC754965, 99.44%). The other sequences with identities over 99% belonged to *B. peircei* (99.32%), *B. uriae* (99.25%) and *B. ugwidiensis* (99.18%) (refer to Table 2 for a detailed description of hosts and their geographic origin).

The unique sequence from this study was aligned using ClustalW with the longest available sequences of representative *Babesia* belonging to the Peircei group. Single nucleotide polymorphisms among these sequences are highlighted in Figure 2. The sequence from the yellow-legged gull *Babesia* differs by 7 nucleotide exchanges from *B. poelea* (DQ2000887, *Sula leucogaster*, Central Pacific) and 8 nucleotide exchanges from *Babesia* sp. 1 JM-2013 (KC754965, *Sula leucogaster* and *S. dactylatra*, Brazil), while the two latter sequences differ at only 3 positions (on a gene length of 1426 bp). Four nucleotide exchanges are unique to the

sequence identified in the present study (highlighted in red in Figure 2). The number of polymorphic sites increased to 10 when compared to B. peircei (MF288025, Spheniscus demersus, South Africa), 12 with B. ugwidiensis (MF288027, Phalocrocorax capensis and P. neglectus, South Africa) and 13 with B. uriae (FJ717705, Uria aalge, USA California). While 6 positions differ between B. peircei and B. ugwidiensis, they both show12 nucleotide exchanges with the *B. uriae* sequence. With 18 and 20 nucleotide exchanges, the *Babesia* from France differs markedly from *Babesia* sequences characterized in seabirds of the eastern south pacific, from Eudyptula minor in Australia (KP144322) and the two B. poelea-like identified from different seabirds in New Zealand (represented by MF162302 and MF162305) (refer to Table 2 for detailed descriptions of the aforementioned isolates).

## 266 Analysis of the cox1 gene

Partial *cox1* sequences (1172 bp) were obtained from 9 blood samples. Blastn analysis revealed the highest identity (84.69%) with the single *cox1* sequence available for the Peircei group, from *B. ardeae* detected in a grey heron (*Ardea cinerea*) in Singapore (MH457241.1). The nine *cox1* sequences were not identical, and polymorphism was detected at 5 positions in the partial gene sequences (Table 4). Four genetic variants differed by a combination of one or two SNPs at 4 positions (89, 107, 860 and 917). The most abundant variant, named *cox1a*, was detected in 3 blood samples, the three others (variants *cox1b*, *c* and *d*) were unique (Table 4). In three chicks, chromatograms with double peaks of identical intensities were detected. In two of them (EA773745 and EA773911), the positions of the double peaks corresponded to variable positions already identified in variants *cox1a* and *cox1b* (107 and 917) with the same nucleotides (A or G at position 107 and C or T at position 917). In chick EA677439, one double peak occurred at a position not yet described as polymorphic in the former sequences (possibility of a G at position 1123). The presence of two variants within the same chick would

explain these double peaks, resulting from the co-infections with already detected variants (a and b in chicks EA773911) or new variants (variants e in chick EA773745 and f in chick EA677439). At least six genetic variants could therefore be present in the yellow-legged gull chicks present on the islet of Carteau, the variant *cox1a* being the most abundant (Table 4). These nucleotide exchanges are synonymous, except at position 1123 resulting in an amino acid modification from phenylalanine to cysteine.

### Phylogenetic analyses

The 18S rRNA (Figure 3) and *cox1* (Figure 4) phylogenetic analyses confirmed the position of the *Babesia* sp. YLG into the Peircei clade, with strong bootstrap values of 100 and 99, respectively. According to the 18S rRNA phylogenetic analysis, *B. ardeae* detected in the grey heron represents a sister taxon to a clade comprised of remaining *Babesia* spp. On one hand, this clade of remaining *Babesia* spp. splits into a subclade of *Babesia* spp. isolated from sea birds in South Africa, America and Europe supported with a moderate bootstrap of 68, and, on the other hand, into a strongly supported subclade (bootstrap 99) of *Babesia* spp. isolated from sea birds from the Eastern south pacific region.

### 297 Discussion

In the present study, we characterized a piroplasm in the blood of yellow-legged gulls from southern France. Morphological descriptions based on 37 blood smears, molecular characterization (partial 18S rRNA gene sequences from 17 different isolates and partial *cox1* sequences from 9 isolates) and a phylogenetic analysis places this *Babesia* into the Peircei clade. This group is mainly composed of seabird-infecting piroplasms, *B. ardeae* from the grey heron being the only current exception (Chavatte et al., 2017). *B. ardeae* differs from the other members of the Peircei group by 32 unique polymorphic sites (i.e., not shared by any other member of the Peircei group) on the 18S rRNA gene (nt 171-1630), while *B. poelea*, *B. peircei/B. ugwidiensis*, *B. uriae* and the austral members of the group (South Australia and New Zealand) have only 1, 2, 5 and 11 unique polymorphic sites, respectively. *B. ardeae* places as sister to other *Babesia* species of the Percei group on phylogenetic trees (Yabsley et al., 2017; this study), demonstrating it is more distantly related to other members of the Percei clade.

Morphologically, the yellow-legged gull parasite resembles *B. poelea* described in brown boobies (*Sula leucogaster*) from the Johnston Atoll, Central Pacific (Work and Rameyer, 1997): high proportion of large amoeboid forms (80%), no displacement of the host nucleus, pleomorphic dividing forms with chromatin granules either in the mid-body or near the blunt end of the developing merozoites. The chromatin position in the elongated merozoites is a feature used to differentiate *B. peircei* (middle or distal part) from *B. ugwidiensis* (proximal part) (Yabsley et al., 2017). In *B. peircei*, the position of the trophozoites was mostly polar in red blood cells (Earlé et al., 1993), while no preferential position could be observed for *B. poelea* or for the gull parasite. Morphology as a single criterion should be considered with extreme caution, as the same parasite species may show different morphologies according to the host it's infecting, a phenomenon known as pleomorphism (Schnittger et al., 2012). This
was well-described for *B. divergens* developing in ox, gerbil and human (Gorenflot et al., 1991).

In the case of the gull parasite, molecular analyses corroborate the morphological resemblance to B. poelea, as they share the highest identity for the 18S rRNA gene fragment (99.52%), differing by only 7 nucleotide exchanges. The initial morphological description of B. poelea (Work and Rameyer, 1997) was completed by the molecular characterization of the described parasite from frozen blood of three highly infected birds (Yabsley et al., 2006). Another molecularly-related Babesia (99.44% identity) was characterized from masked and brown boobies (Sula dactylatra and S. leucogaster) sampled on Brazilian offshore islands, but their morphology was not described (Quillfeldt et al., 2014). In South Africa, Babesia parasites from Cape gannets (Morus capensis) were assumed to belong to B. poelea based on the host family (Sulidae, Suliformes) with no complementary molecular or morphological characterizations (Parsons et al., 2017). Two closely related parasites (2 nucleotide exchanges on the 18S rRNA gene sequences) were characterized in New Zealand from Australasian gannets (Morus serrator, Sulidae), red-billed gulls (Chroicocephalus scopulinus, Laridae, Charadriiformes) and white-fronted terns (Sterna striata, Laridae) and named B. poelea-like I and II (Paparini et al., 2014). However, these isolates are quite distant from *B. poelea* (98.96% identity) and form a separate cluster on phylogenetic trees (Yabsley et al., 2017; this study). Their morphological features were not described.

Confronted with the still uncertain species delineation within this group, we decided not to name the *Babesia* described here from the yellow-legged gull, awaiting a more comprehensive analysis based on molecular characterizations of other newly described seabird *Babesia*. The parasite we describe here will therefore be referred to as *Babesia* sp. YLG (Yellow-Legged

Gull). Babesia sp. YLG is indeed more genetically distant from B. poelea (8 nucleotide exchanges) than *B. peircei* is from *B. ugwidiensis* (6 nucleotide exchanges on the same 1426 bp fragment of the 18S rRNA gene) (Figure 3). The two latter species were described and named based on morphology and host species (Earlé et al., 1997; Peirce and Parsons, 2012). As with morphology, species delineations based solely on host specificity should be taken with caution. For example, B. poelea-like I and II have been characterized in birds from different avian orders (Charadriiformes and Suliformes) that share the same environment. They are more than 99% identical at the 18S rRNA gene to an isolate from little penguins (Sphenisciformes) (Paparini et al., 2014; Vanstreels et al., 2015) coming from a nearby region (southeastern Australia/Tasmania versus New Zealand). However, neither of these two studies provided morphological descriptions of the parasites in question. B. bennetti is the only previously described Babesia infecting yellow-legged gulls in the Mediterranean Sea (Benidorm Island, Spain: Merino 1998, Esparza et al, 2004). Despite morphological similarity with Babesia sp. YLG, molecular analyses of B. bennetti (Criado et al., 2006) place the two parasites in separate and very distant phylogenetic clades (Figure 3).

Based on previously published data, *Babesia* from the Peircei clade can probably be separated into four phylogenetic groups: the *B. ardeae* group (Pelecaniformes), the *B. uriae* group (Charadriiformes), the *B. poelea/B. peircei/B. ugwidiensis* group (Suliformes, Charadriiformes, Sphenisciformes) and the austral group (Suliformes, Charadriiformes, Sphenisciformes). On the basis of Schnittger's rules, all the parasites described in the Peircei group would be considered a unique species as all sequences have a 18S rRNA gene identity of >98.5% (threshold defined by Schnittger is 97.9%) (Schnittger et al., 2003). Only *B. ardeae* could be considered as a separate species. However, the tempo of evolutionary change in the Peircei group might derived from that of *Babesia/Theileria* sensu stricto groups from which these rules

were defined. For now, it is difficult to assess this possibility due to the paucity of publications and genetic data (intraspecific and interspecific) available for this group.

Intraspecific diversity has seldomly been addressed in studies on seabird Babesia. When 18S rRNA gene sequences were obtained from several individuals within a study area, they were usually conserved (Quillfeldt et al., 2014; Vanstreels et al., 2015; Yabsley et al., 2017). This was also the case for the 17 different chick isolates characterized in the present study. However, slight variations (2 nucleotide exchanges) were found between the *B. poelea*-like I and II from New Zealand. Intraspecific variability was analyzed for B. poelea, B. peircei and B. ugwidiensis using ribosomal intergenic regions ITS1 and ITS2. No variability was observed for B. poelea from two samples collected within the same colony (Yabsley et al., 2006). On the contrary, intraspecific diversity was noted in both intergenic regions for *B. peircei* from penguins and *B.* ugwidiensis from Cape and Bank Cormorants, with no precision from where birds originated (Yabsley et al., 2017). In the phylogenetic analyses, B. ugwidiensis ITS sequences clustered together regardless of the host species of origin, and were well-separated from B. peircei sequences from penguins. In our study, a low level of sequence variability of Babesia sp. YLG was observed at the *cox1* gene sequenced from nine chicks sampled from the same colony and year. Based on 5 SNPs, six genetic variants were identified, differing from one another by one or two SNPs. Three out of the nine birds tested seemed to be infected by two different variants, indicating either multiple transmissions or transmission by co-infected vectors. The next step will now be to sequence all currently described avian Babesia species using the same genes and near complete sequences to evaluate general levels of intraspecific diversity in these parasites.

Ticks are vectors of piroplasmids, with transmission modalities varying according the piroplasm group (Jalovecka et al., 2018). Several tick species, belonging to both the Ixodidae

(hard ticks) and the Argasidae (soft ticks) families, have been proposed to transmit *Babesia* to different seabird species. *Ixodes uriae* and *Ornithodoros capensis* or *O. maritimus* are often cited as putative vectors (Yabsley et al., 2009; 2017; Quillfeldt et al., 2014; Paparini et al., 2014; Vanstreels et al., 2015; Chavatte et al., 2017). Ticks as a group encompass a wide range of lifestyle strategies that ensure their ability to find a host and survive off-host periods. For example, hard ticks frequently quest for hosts or use ambush strategies, waiting on vegetation for appropriate hosts to pass by. In contrast, some species or immature stages are endophilic or nidicolous, remaining close to areas that hosts regularly use, such as nests or resting sites. It is this latter strategy that has been adopted by most soft tick species. For ticks exploiting seabirds, almost all are nidicolous (Dietrich et al., 2011). Therefore, the transmission of parasites to seabirds will be largely restricted to the breeding period when these birds spend a sufficiently long period on land to favor exposure.

Several lines of evidence point towards a preferential role of argasid ticks in the transmission of Babesia from the Peircei group to seabirds. 1- Ornithodoros capensis ticks (females and nymphs) were found on a red-billed gull and Babesia-positive ticks were reported (Paparini et al., 2014). 2- O. capensis larvae were also found on a Phalacrocorax capensis Babesia-free chick which was a week later found to be infected with *B. ugwidiensis* (parasitemia 4%) (Peirce and Parsons, 2012). 3- Babesia infections were found to be restricted to ground-nesting species (masked and brown boobies) compared to tree or bush-nesting species (red-footed boobies and black noddies) from the same sites which may be less favorable substrates for nidicolous ticks (Quillfeldt et al., 2014). In the context of Carteau island, Ornithodoros maritimus (Argasidae) is the only tick species recorded in yellow-legged gull nests (Dupraz et al., 2017; Rataud et al., 2020). In a previous study, an undetermined Babesia species, probably Babesia sp. YLG, was detected in 3% of O. maritimus adult ticks (6/201) collected from different nests in the colony

and screened using targeted PCR procedures developed for mammalian parasite species (Dupraz et al., 2017). Experimental work and detailed analyses of infection in Ornithodoros ticks will now be needed to conclude on the role of these ticks in the transmission of *Babesia* parasites from the Percei group to seabirds.

In the present study, prevalence of infection by *Babesia* sp. YLG in yellow-legged gull chicks was high (85% in 2019 and 58% in 2020), and parasitemia above 10% was frequently observed (41% and 27% of the infected chicks in 2019 and 2020 respectively). Such results (high prevalence and high parasitemia) are consistent with a nest-based exposure to infection. For two chicks, Babesia sp. YLG multiplication was fulminant: initially found negative or with almost undetectable parasite levels (< 0.1%), parasitemia of 15-20% was recorded two weeks later. These data suggest that chicks are infected in the nest and that high infection levels develops as the chicks' immune system is maturing (Apanius, 1998). In many Percei infected seabird species, prevalence was significantly higher in chicks and juveniles compared to adults (Work and Rameyer, 1997; Quillfelt et al., 2013; Parsons et al., 2017). Furthermore, in adult birds, poor correspondence was also noted between blood smear detection and molecular detection, most probably due to decreasing parasitemia concomitant with the acquisition of a specific immunity post-exposure (Paparini et al., 2017). Even if adults are exposed to infected ticks during the breeding period to the same extent as chicks, their immune status may enable them to maintain parasitemia at a low and undetectable level, as is often the case for babesial infections (Chauvin et al., 2009).

Despite parasitemia above 10% detected in about 1/3 of the sampled chicks, no clinical signs of illness were noted in the field and chicks appeared in good health. However, juvenile Cape cormorants admitted to a rehabilitation center in the Western Cape, South Africa, showed

significantly higher mortality compared to adults (Parsons et al., 2017). An effect of Babesia infection was also reported in juvenile masked boobies, with infected individuals showing lower body weights (Quillfeldt et al., 2014). Mortality in adult birds due to Babesia-infection has been suggested to occur in King penguins (Parsons et al., 2018), indicating there may be some interspecific differences in Babesia pathogenicity. In line with this hypothesis, the yellow-legged gull chicks were reported to be significantly less immunocompetent compared to storm petrel chicks, and therefore potentially more prone to *Babesia* infections (Esperza et al., 2004). For now, it seems that Babesia infections in birds tend to be most commonly reported from undernourished young individuals, when concomitant infections are present or when individuals are otherwise compromised (Merino, 1998; Peirce, 2000). Under these conditions, the relative impact of tick bites, Babesia infection and the potential presence of some other pathogen on avian health cannot be independently evaluated and more direct observations of infected birds are required to understand the degree of physiological stress imposed by Babesia alone.

As highlighted by our current understanding of Peircei group of *Babesia*, there is a great knowledge gap related to the identification, taxonomy, phylogeny, host specificity and transmission ecology of avian *Babesia*. This gap is likely linked to both the logistical difficulty in conducting research on these hosts (financial issues, accessibility, experimental host infections and parasite transmission studies) and the fact that chronic infections of wildlife are often overlooked when considering population dynamics and conservation issues. Furthermore, the possible transmission of avian *Babesia* to humans or their domestic animals is likely limited or absent reducing the possibilities to receive funding. We hope that future collaborative studies will fill this knowledge gap, allowing us to better understand the full diversity of extant *Babesia* species and the factors operating on the evolution of this group of important parasites.

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### 665 List and legends of tables and figures

Figure 1: Morphology of *Babesia* sp. YLG on whole blood MGG stained smears. Different trophozoite sizes and locations within the red blood cells are shown in frames A, B and G. Presence of two trophozoites in one RBC is visible in frames B and D. Localization of chromatin as single or multiple dots is shown in frames A, C, E, G. Schizonts with different shapes are shown in frames A, C, E and H (udder shape). Dividing parasites with central remainings of cytoplasm and distal chromatin dots are depicted in frames C and G. Merozoites after division are shown in frames C, D and F. Bar: 10 μm.

Figure 2. Polymorphism of Babesia 18S rRNA gene sequences from the Percei group. (A) GenBank accession numbers correspond to Babesia sp. YLG (MZ541058), B. poelea (DQ200887), Babesia sp. 211 (KC754965), B. peircei (MF288025), B. ugwidiensis (MF288027), B. uriae (FJ717705), B. poelea-like I (MF162302), B. poelea-like II (MF162305) and Babesia sp. RETV-2015 (KP144322). Sequences were compared to the 18S rRNA gene sequence of Babesia sp. YLG. Positions correspond to the longest 18S rRNA gene sequence, DQ200887. Nucleotides and insertions/deletions (-) are mentioned when a difference was observed. Polymorphisms specific to Babesia sp. YLG 18S rRNA gene are colored in red. An absence of symbols indicates identity with Babesia sp. YLG from the present study. (B) Schematic localization of polymorphisms along the 9 aligned sequences. Each vertical bar corresponds to a polymorphism, and those specific to *Babesia* sp. YLG 18S rRNA gene are colored in red and indicated with a red arrow.

**Figure 3:** Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of *Piroplasmida* species based on partial 18S rRNA gene sequences (1291 bp). Branch support/bootstrap values above 60% are indicated at each corresponding node. Yellow-legged gull derived sequence obtained in the present study is highlighted in red, and the avian *Babesia* species are colored in blue. Branch lengths are drawn proportionally to evolutionary distance.

Figure 4: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of *Piroplasmida* species based on partial *cox1* gene sequences (951 bp). Branch support/bootstrap values (above 60% only shown) are indicated by each node. Yellow-legged gull sequences obtained in this present study are emphasized in red, and the other avian *Babesia* species, *Babesia* ardeae is colored in blue. Branch lengths are drawn proportionally to evolutionary distance.

### 695 Supplementary data

Supplementary data 1. Location of primers used to amplify the 18S rRNA gene. 18S Bp primers (colored green) were designed to specifically amplify the 18S rRNA gene of Peircei group *Babesia* infecting marine birds.

9 Supplementary data 2. Location of primers used to amplify the *cox1* gene of *Babesia* sp. YLG.

Table 1: Primers used to amplify the 18S rRNA and *cox1* genes of *Babesia* sp. GF2/GR2 amplify
the *Babesia / Theileria* sl. 18S rRNA gene. Primers 18SBp have been designed to specifically
amplify the 18S rRNA gene of Peircei group *Babesia* and primers COX1Bp have been designed
to specifically amplify the *cox1* gene of these same *Babesia* (refer to supplementary data for
the alignments used to select primers).

Gene	Organism	Primer name	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Tm (°C)	Amplicon length (bp)	Reference
18S	Apicomplexan	CRYPTOF	AACCTGGTTGATCCTGCCAGTAGTCAT	63	1728	[1]
rRNA		CRYPTOR	TGATCCTTCTGCAGGTTCACCTA			
	Babesia / Theileria	BAB-GF2	GTCTTGTAATTGGAATGATGG	61	560	[2]
	sensu lato (sl)	BAB-GR2	CCAAAGACTTTGATTTCTCT			
	Babesia of	18SBp_fw	CTTGAACTTCGGTTCATGGTG	60	1529	this study
	Peircei group	18SBp_rev	CTAGACGTTTCTAACGAATCAG			
cox1	Babesia of	COX1Bp_fw	GTGGWTTAAAAATAATMACWATGG	54	1220	this study
	Peircei group	COX1Bp_rev	CCCATAAATCATCTGGATAATC			

5 [1] Malandrin *et al.*,2010 [2] Herwaldt *et al.*,2003.

Rahasia	GenBank	Length				Reference						
group	accession number	(bp)	Babesia species	Host	Location	of original Babesia description	of cited sequences					
Peircei	MZ541058	1485	Babesia sp. YLG	Larus michahellis	South of France	This study	This study					
(n=24)	DQ200887	1764	Babesia poelea	Sula leucogaster	Central Pacific	Work and Rameyer, 1997	Yabsley et al., 2006					
	MF288025	1642	Babesia peircei	Spheniscus demersus	South Africa	Earlé et al., 1993	Yabsley et al., 2017					
	MF288026	1642		(n=2)	(n=2)		(n=2)					
	FJ717705	1706	Babesia uriae	Uria aalge	California	Yabsley et al., 2009	Yabsley et al., 2009					
	MF288027	1644	Babesia ugwidiensis	Phalacrocorax capensis	South Africa	Peirce and Parsons, 2012	Yabsley et al., 2017					
	MF288028	1644		(n=2)	(n=5)		(n=5)					
	MF288029	1644		Phalacrocorax neglectus								
	MF288030	781		Phalacrocorax capensis								
	MF288031	781		(n=2)								
	KC754965	1450	Babesia sp. 211	Sula leucogaster	Brazil	Quillfeldt et al., 2014	Quillfeldt et al., 201					
				Sula dactylatra								
	MF162301	1441	<i>B. poelea</i> -like I	Chroicocephalus scopulinus	New Zealand		Paparini et al., 2014					
	MF162302	1451		Morus serrator	(n=9)		(n=9)					
	MF162303	1462		Chroicocephalus scopulinus								
	MF162304	1461		Chroicocephalus scopulinus								
	MF162308	836		Chroicocephalus scopulinus								
	MF162309	830		Sterna striata								
	MF162305	1458	B. poelea-like II	Morus serrator								
	MF162306	1430		Morus serrator								
	MF162307	809		Morus serrator								
	KP144322	1538	Babesia sp. RETV-2015	Eudyptula minor	Australia	Vanstreels et al., 2015	Vanstreels et al., 20					
	KP144323	1529		(n=2)	(n=2)							
	KY436057	1786	Babesia ardeae	Ardea cinerea	Singapore	Toumanoff, 1940	Chavatte et al., 2017					
	KT800053	274	Babesia sp. EM-2016	Pygoscelis antartica	Antartica	Montero et al., 2016	Montero et al., 2016					
Bennetti	DQ402155	1648	Babesia bennetti	Larus cachinnans	Spain	Merino et al., 1998	Criado et al., 2006					
Kiwiensis	EF551335	1509	Babesia kiwiensis	Apteryx mantelli	New Zealand	Peirce et al., 2003	Jefferies et al., 2008					
(n=6)	MF162310	1246	B. kiwiensis-like	Sterna striata	New Zealand		Paparini et al., 2014					
	MF162311	1386		Morus serrator	(n=4)							
	MF162312	1373		Chroicocephalus scopulinus								
	MF162313	611		Morus serrator								
	JX984667	1350	Babesia sp. JFB1	Turdus falklandii	Chile		Martinez et al., 2015					

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**Table 3.** Parasitemia and piroplasm characterization in yellow legged gull chicks in 2019. Primers' specificity: GF2/GR2 for *Babesia / Theileria sl* 18S rRNA gene, 18SBp for 18S rRNA gene of *Babesia* of Peircei group, and COX1Bp for *cox1* gene of *Babesia* of Peircei group. Amplified *cox1* gene sequences lengths are all 1172 bp.

.3			Amplification	of 18S rRNA gene	Am	plification	of <i>cox1</i> gene
5 Gull 6 number 7	Nest number	Estimated parasitemia	GF2/GR2 primers	Amplification (length)	COX1Bp primers	<i>cox1</i> variant	GenBank accession number
9 EA673739	200	> 10 %	+	-	nd		
<sup>0</sup> EA673744	220	> 0,1 %	+	+ (1468 bp)	nd		
2 EA673745	163:C	0,5 – 1 %	+	+ (1472 bp)	+	b / e	MZ558163 / MZ558166
4 EA673746	311:C	1 %	+	+ (1473 bp)	+	d	MZ558165
<sup>5</sup> EA673747	205bis	0	-	-	nd		
EA673828	166:C	> 10 %	+	+ (1466 bp)	nd		
8 EA673852	147:C	5-10 %	+	+ (1485 bp)	+	а	MZ558162
<sup>9</sup> EA673853	16	0	+	+ (1477 bp)	nd		
EA673854	29	2-5 %	+	+ (1485 bp)	nd		
<sup>2</sup> EA673863	259:C	> 10 %	+	+ (1485 bp)	+	а	MZ558162
EA673873	270:C	> 10 %	+	+ (1485 bp)	+	а	MZ558162
5 EA673901	237	1 %	+	+ (1461 bp)	nd		
6 7 EA673911	179:C	10-20 %	+	+ (1485 bp)	+	a / b	MZ558162 / MZ558163
<sup>8</sup> EA673919	161:C	10 %	+	+ (1485 bp)	+	с	MZ558164
0 EA673935	493:C	0	-	-	nd		
<sup>1</sup> EA677402	316:C	10 %	+	+ (1474 bp)	nd		
2 EA677418	327:C	15 - 20 %	+	+ (1464 bp)	nd		
4 EA677438	394C	1 %	+	+ (1485 bp)	+	b	MZ558163
5 6 EA677439	372:C	10 %	+	+ (1485 bp)	+	a / f	MZ558162 / MZ558167
<sup>7</sup> EA677440	386:C	0	-	-	nd		

<sup>2</sup>**Table 4:** SNPs descriptions for the six *cox1* variants detected in *Babesia* sp. YLG, and the frequency of each  $\frac{4}{3}$  spariant from the nine blood sampled chicks.

cox1	20	107	860	917	1173	Variant
variant	05	107	000	517	1125	frequency
а	Т	G	G	С	Т	5/12
b	Т	G	G	Т	Т	3/12
С	Т	Α	G	С	Т	1/12
d	С	G	Α	С	Т	1/12
е	Т	Α	G	Т	Т	1/12
f	Т	G	G	С	G	1/12







**Figure 3**: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of *Piroplasmida* species based on partial 18S rRNA gene sequences (1291 bp). Branch support/bootstrap values above 60% are indicated at each corresponding node. Yellow-legged gull derived sequence obtained in the present study is highlighted in red, and the avian *Babesia* species are colored in blue. Scale bar indicates nucleotide substitution rate per site.



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- AY283019 Plasmodium falciparum

0,10

**Figure 4:** Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of *Piroplasmida* species based on partial *cox1* gene sequences (951 bp). Branch support/bootstrap values (above 60% only shown) are indicated by each node. Yellow-legged gull sequences obtained in this present study are emphasized in red, and the other avian *Babesia* species, *Babesia* ardeae is colored in blue. Scale bar indicates nucleotide substitution rate per site.

А	_																																	
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accession number	187	190	252	253	323	431	443	621	628	634	643	647	648	659	663	680	681	682	701	702	703	739	742	756	1161	1297	1316	1319	1328	1330	1341	1462	1523	1581
MZ541058	Α	Α	С	Т	Α	G	G	Т	Т	С	Α	Т	G	Т	Т	С	Т	Т	-	G	Т	G	Т	Α	G	Α	G	Α	Т	-	Α	С	Т	С
DQ200887			Т							Т				С													А			Т	G		С	
KC754965			Т							Т				С				С									А				G		С	Т
MF288025		G	Т							Т				С	-			С									А	G			G		С	
MF288027			Т							Т				С				С	Т			А	С			G	А	G			G		С	
FJ717705						Т	А			Т						Т			G	Т	G	А			А		А	G			G		С	
MF162302	G		Α		G			С	С	Т	G	С	Т	С			С				G			С			А		G		G	Т	С	
MF162305	G		Α	Α	G			С	С	Т	G	С	Т	С	-		С				G			С			А		G		G	Т	С	
KP144322	G		A		G			С	С	Т	G	С	Т	С			С				G			С			A		G		G	Т	С	
В																																		
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										Π																								
187	1		1		50	0		1		1					1		100	0		1		l.		1			1		150	0	15	97		

**Figure 2.** Polymorphism of *Babesia* 18S rRNA gene sequences from the Percei group. (A) GenBank accession numbers correspond to *Babesia* sp. YLG (MZ541058), *B. poelea* (DQ200887), *Babesia* sp. 211 (KC754965), *B. peircei* (MF288025), *B. ugwidiensis* (MF288027), *B. uriae* (FJ717705), *B. poelea*-like I (MF162302), *B. poelea*-like II (MF162305) and *Babesia* sp. RETV-2015 (KP144322). Sequences were compared to the 18S rRNA gene sequence of *Babesia* sp. YLG. Positions correspond to the longest 18S rRNA gene sequence, DQ200887. Nucleotides and insertions/deletions (-) are mentioned when a difference was observed. Polymorphisms specific to *Babesia* sp. YLG 18S rRNA gene are colored in red. An absence of symbols indicates identity with *Babesia* sp. YLG from the present study. (B) Schematic localization of polymorphisms along the 9 aligned sequences. Each vertical bar corresponds to a polymorphism, and those specific to *Babesia* sp. YLG 18S rRNA gene are colored in red and indicated with a red arrow.

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Louisiane Burkart Resources. Karen McCoy: Resources, Conceptualization, Funding
acquisition, Reviewing and Editing. Laurence Malandrin: Funding acquisition,
Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing-Original draft preparation.

Supplementary Material

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