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Crossref

Systematic review

Molecular prevalence and distribution of tick-borne bacterial and protozoan pathogens of sheep and goats in Africa: A systematic review and meta-analysis

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Abstract

Tick-borne pathogens (TBPs) are a major impediment to the health, welfare, and production of small ruminants across the world, including Africa. Comprehensive information about the epidemiology of TBPs infecting sheep and goats across Africa is lacking. Therefore, this study was undertaken to determine the prevalence through a meta-analysis of selected TBPs in blood DNA from domestic sheep and goats in Africa obtained using molecular-based methods. The literature review was done according to Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis (PRISMA) guidelines using five English electronic databases (PubMed, Science Direct, Springer Link, Web of Science, and African Journals Online (AJOL). The search was performed with no restriction in time through to 18th January 2023. Of the 63 full-text articles subjected to eligibility, only 30 articles met the eligibility criteria and were included in the review. The overall pooled prevalence of selected TBPs varied considerably between host species (sheep vs. goats), with Anaplasma ovis (44.50 vs. 48.40%), Ehrlichia ruminantium (5.50 vs. 2.00%), Coxiella burnetii (4.40 vs. 1.70%), Borrelia theileri in sheep (5.20%), Babesia ovis (1.70% vs. 1.90%), Theileria ovis (40.50% vs 10.00%), T. separata (1.00% vs 1.00%) and T. lestoquardi in sheep (8.40%). However, the prevalence of the selected TBPs was generally higher in sheep compared to goats. Several genetic loci were targeted in the characterization of tick-borne pathogens, such as 16S rDNA, groEL, and msp4 for Anaplasma ovis, pCS20 for Ehrlichia ruminantium, Insertion Sequence (IS1111) for Coxiella burnetii, flaB (flagellin) and 16S rRNA for Borrelia theileri, 5.8S rRNA and 18S rRNA for Babesia/Theileria, as well as the utilization of numerous PCR variants including conventional polymerase chain reaction (PCR), nested-PCR, qPCR, Loop-mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP), and reverse line blotting (RLB). In conclusion, A. ovis was the most widely distributed and prevalent TBP affecting small ruminants within the continent. Hence, this warrants adequate attention towards early diagnosis and treatment of infected animals as well as the control of the tick vectors involved in their transmission.

Keywords: Tick-borne, Babesia, Theileria, Anaplasma, Small ruminants, Genes, PCR

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Introduction

Small ruminants, especially sheep and goats, are exposed to a wide array of health problems attributed to infectious pathogens that challenge their productivity. Vector-borne pathogens transmitted by arthropod vectors epitomize a large group of these infectious diseases (Baneth, 2014; Chala and Hamde, 2021). The first arthropods to be established as vectors of pathogens were ticks (Dantas-Torres et al., 2012). Ticks and tick-borne diseases are regarded as major obstacles to livestock production in many world countries, including Africa (Ahmed et al., 2011; Onyiche et al., 2023). Next to mosquitoes, ticks are considered the most important vectors of pathogens, and more than 900 species (707 hard ticks and 210 soft ticks) have been described worldwide (Tijsse-Klasen et al., 2014).

Anaplasma and Ehrlichia belong to the family Anaplasmataceae and are transmitted by ixodid ticks. Infections with either of these bacterial infections can cause the death of their host, especially if they are co-infected with other pathogens (Dahmani et al., 2019). Anaplasma ovis, the causative agent of ovine anaplasmosis, is an intra-erythrocytic bacterial pathogen that parasitizes red blood cells. Although infection is often subclinical, it can occasionally be severe in debilitated small ruminants (Aubry and Geale 2011). Within Africa, A. ovis has been widely reported in both sheep and goats across the continent (Aouadi et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2018; Ringo et al., 2018; Dahmani et al., 2019). Ehrlichia ruminantium, an obligate intracellular bacterium transmitted by ticks in the genus Amblyomma, causes heartwater disease (Faburay et al., 2008). Small ruminants are at risk of the disease, and infections have been widely reported in Sub-Saharan Africa with varying prevalence (Djiba et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2018; Ringo et al., 2019).

Borreliosis caused by Borrelia theileri, a spirochaete, is an infectious disease of various domestic mammals, including small ruminants tropical and subtropical Africa, in and transmitted by hard ticks. Ticks of the genus Rhipicephalus (Boophilus) are recognized as vectors (Uilenberg et al., 1988). In addition, Q fever, caused by Coxiella burnetii, is an intracellular bacterium that is capable of infecting various species of domestic mammals, including small ruminants (Mares-Guia et al., 2014). Stillbirth and abortion are the two most notable clinical clinical signs of C. burnietii infection in small ruminants (Attia et al., 2024). Both Bo. theileri and C. burnetii are transmitted by hard ticks as these pathogens have been detected in some species of hard ticks (McCoy et al., 2014; Abdullah et al., 2021).

Babesia and Theileria species are responsible for babesiosis and theileriosis, respectively. They are the two most notable tick-borne for piroplasmids responsible economically important hemoparasitic diseases in ruminants (Uilenberg, 1995). Some Theileria species of importance in sheep and goats include T. ovis, T. lestoquardi, and T. separata (El Imam et al., 2016). T. lestoquardi is the causative agent of malignant ovine theileriosis, a fatal disease of

sheep that has been predominantly reported in northern Africa (Hassan et al., 2019; Taha et al., 2013; Salih et al., 2012). Other species of Theileria (T. ovis and T. separata) cause mild forms of theileriosis (El Imam et al., 2016; Hassan et al., 2019). All these species have been reported in Africa infecting sheep and goats with prevalence varying from 0 - 88.0% (El Imam et al., 2016; Gebrekidan et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2018). Babesia species infecting sheep and goats include B. ovis and B. motasi (El Imam et al., 2016; Uilenberg, 2006). Babesia requires two hosts to complete its life cycle. Thus, it is referred to as a heterogeneous pathogen, and depending on the immune status of the host, the infection can be subclinical, clinical, or fatal (Abdelbaky et al., 2021). Of these two, *B. ovis* is highly pathogenic and has been reported widely (Schnittger et al., 2003). The molecular prevalence of *B. ovis* has been observed to be very low or non-existent (Rjeibi et al., 2014; Hussein et al., 2017).

Recently, interest in tick-borne diseases of small ruminants has increased due to the socioeconomic impact in many livestock-producing countries of the world (Yin et al., 2004). Control of TBPs is dependent on the availability of accurate and timely data on the pathogen epidemiology in both the vertebrate and invertebrate hosts. Tick-borne pathogens comprising bacterial and protozoans have been recently reviewed in domestic animals, including ruminants in certain parts of Africa (Tawana et al., 2022; Defaye et al., 2022; El-Alfy et al., 2022). However, no attempt has been made to put together information on the epidemiology of some selected TBPs of small ruminants in Africa as a whole. To better understand the epidemiology of tick-borne protozoan and some bacterial pathogens of sheep and goats in Africa, a systematic review and meta-analysis was undertaken to determine the prevalence and distribution of TBPs of sheep and goats in Africa that were ascertained using molecular-based techniques.

Materials and methods

Search strategy

The protocol used for this systematic review was in line with the guidelines published by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) in carrying out this systematic review and meta-analysis (Moher et al., 2015; Page et al., 2021). Researches

published on tick-borne diseases of sheep and goats within Africa were searched on various databases such as Science Direct, AJOL, Springer Link, Web of Science, and PubMed. Additional articles were obtained through a grey literature search. Citations were searched with no restriction in time through to 31st July 2020. An additional search was conducted on 18th January 2023 to update the list of eligible studies. The search strategy involved the use of key terms "tick-borne pathogens", "ticks", "small ruminants", "sheep", goats, "Africa", "molecular", and "country name in Africa". The key terms were used either individually or in combination with the operators "and" and/or "or". Titles and their corresponding abstracts were scanned, and citations relevant in line with the aim of the study were subsequently downloaded.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

All articles included were original research papers published in the English language and meet the following criteria: (i) tick-borne pathogens belonging to the genera Anaplasma (A. ovis), Coxiella (C. burnetii), Ehrlichia (E. ruminantium), Borrelia (Bo. theileiri) Babesia (B. ovis) and Theileria (T. ovis, T. separata, and T. lestoquardi) with focus on species that are specific to sheep and/or goats (ii) moleculartechniques were utilized based in the study/investigation (iii) the targeted gene used for the amplification of the tick-borne pathogen must be stated (iv) the study must be within Africa, (v) the total number of small ruminants screened was clearly stated and the number of cases (vi) the pathogen must have been detected in the blood only and not just ticks, (vii) the sample size must be at least 50, (viii) if both sheep and goats were screened in the study, the results must be separated. Published literature involving experimental studies, case reports, book chapters, editorials, letters to the editors, and reviews were excluded. Also, studies of small ruminants with discrepancies in the results were removed, as well as those involving large ruminants such as cattle.

Data extraction

Only studies meeting the inclusion criteria were cataloged, and all relevant data was extracted to a Microsoft Excel[®] spreadsheet. Data extracted from the eligible studies includes variables such as the authors' names, country, molecular

diagnostic technique, animal species (sheep/goats), the total number of animals sampled, and the total number of positives for each tick-borne species.

Data analysis

The pooled prevalence and their corresponding 95% confidence interval (CI) were computed using Comprehensive Meta-analysis (CMA) Version 3.0 unless otherwise stated. When the pooled analysis was computed, each logit event estimate underwent a transformation in the CMA software into proportions, giving a weighted overall outcome. Cochran's heterogeneity (Q) of all the included studies, including the percentage variation (I²), was calculated using the Cochrane Q test. If I² was \leq 25%, 50%, or \geq 75%, then heterogeneity was described as low, moderate, or high (substantial), respectively (Higgins and Thompson, 2002). Secondary outcome was analyzed using the meta-regression involving Odds ratios (ORs) and 95% CI. Forest plots were generated to visualize the data for each logit event. All pooled estimates were arrived at using the random-effects model. Funnel plots and Eggers test were used for assessing the publication bias.

Results

Search results and eligible studies

In total, 831 relevant articles were retrieved following a search on all five electronic databases, including grey literature, using the PRISMA guidelines enumerated in Figure 1. Exactly 227 articles were preceded for further review after the removal of duplicates. After that, a careful review of titles and abstracts was carried out, and 164 articles were excluded as unlikely. A total of 63 full-text articles were downloaded for detailed review for potential eligibility for inclusion. A total of 33 articles were excluded for various reasons: (i) studies that failed to identify pathogen to species level (n=13), (ii) studies with sample size below 50 (n=12), and lastly (iii) studies with inconsistent data (n=8). In total, 30 studies were further subjected to quantitative synthesis and hence were included in the study.

Characteristics of eligible studies

Table 1 shows the characteristics of all the eligible studies used for the systematic review and meta-analysis. In total, 5,631 domestic small ruminants were studied across Africa, with sheep

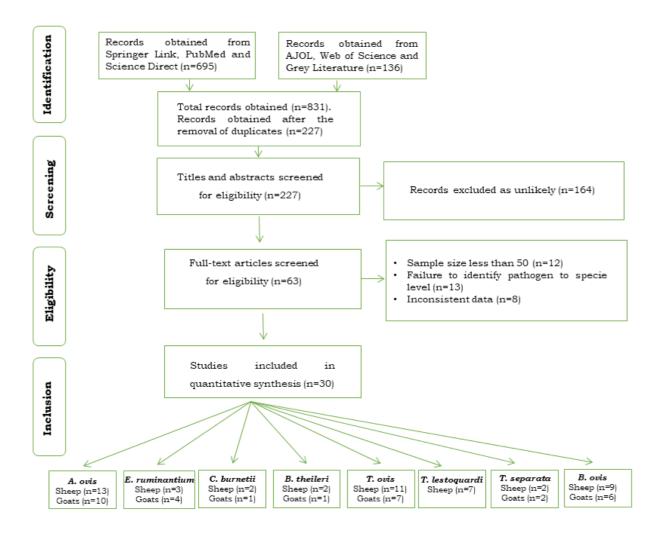


Figure 1: PRISMA flowchart used in the study for identification of eligible studies.

making the bulk of these animals, with a total of 3,634 (65.53%) live heads and goats making up the rest, with 1,997 (35.46%) live heads. The eligible studies cut across every region of the continent of Africa with northern Africa comprising of eighteen studies (Salih et al., 2012; M'ghirbi et al., 2013; Taha et al., 2013; Belkahia et al., 2014; Rjeibi et al., 2014; Ben Said et al., 2015; Rjeibi et al., 2016a; Rjeibi et al., 2016b; El Imam et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018; Aouadi et al., 2017; Hassan et al., 2019; Tumwebaze et al., 2020a; Eisawi et al., 2020; Abdullah et al., 2021; Ben Said et al., 2022; M'ghirbi et al., 2022; ElHamdi et al., 2022), followed by southern Africa with four studies (Ringo et al., 2018; Berthelsson et al., 2020; Chatanga et al., 2021; Sili et al., 2021), eastern Africa with four studies (Gebrekidan et al., 2014; Ringo et al., 2019; Tumwebaze et al., 2020b; Kasozi et al., 2021) and western Africa with four studies (Djiba et al., 2013; Dahmani et al., 2019; Onyiche et al., 2022; Adewumi et al., 2022).

Exactly eight different tick-borne pathogens were selected, comprising four bacterial and four protozoal infections, which are known to infect small ruminants from all the eligible studies. These pathogens included Anaplasma ovis, Ehrlichia ruminantium, Coxiella burnetii, and Borrelia theileri for tick-borne bacterials and Babesia ovis, Theileria ovis, T. separate and T. lestoquardi for tick-borne protozoans. Of all the eight pathogens, A. ovis and B. ovis were the most and least common pathogens, respectively, of small ruminants. Twenty-five and fifteen studies, respectively, for sheep and goats reported the detection of at least one tick-borne pathogen. Furthermore, exactly six studies for sheep and goats reported the detection of more than three tick-borne pathogens (Table 1).

Pooled prevalence estimates of tick-borne pathogens of small ruminants in Africa

The results of the pooled prevalence estimates (PPE) and their heterogeneities for the different tick-borne pathogens are presented in Table 2.

Country	Molecular Diagnostic	Animal											Sample		Tick-borne b				Tick-borne pro			Reference
of study		species	size	А.	A. E.	С.	Bo.	Т.	Т.	Т.	В.											
	Technique			ovis	ruminantium	burnetii	theileri	ovis	lestoquardi	separata	ovis											
Egypt	PCR	Sheep	58	1	-	1	2	5	-	-	-	Abdullahi										
				(1.7)		(1.7)	(3.4)	(8.6)				et al. (2021)										
Nigeria	PCR	Sheep	198	73	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Adewumi et										
				(36.9)								al. (2022)										
Algeria	PCR	Sheep	120	74	-	7	7	64	-	-	0	Aouadi et										
	DOD	a .	100	(61.6)		(5.83)	(5.8)	(53.3)			(0)	al. (2017)										
	PCR	Goats	120	65 (54 0)	-	2	13 (10.8)	25	-	-	0											
Tunisia	LAMP	Sheep	204	(54.2) 143	-	(1.67)	(10.8)	(20.3)	_	_	(0)	Belkahia et										
Tunisia	LAWII	Sheep	204	(70.1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	al. (2014)										
Tunisia	LAMP	Sheep	260	198	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Ben Said et										
				(76.2)								al. (2015)										
	LAMP	Goats	303	244	-	-	-	-	-	-	-											
				(80.5)																		
Egypt	PCR	Sheep	355	55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Ben Said et										
D (DOD	<u> </u>	100	(15.5)								al. (2022)										
Botswana	PCR	Goats	100	76 (76.0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Berthelsson										
Malawi	PCR	Goats	99	(76.0) 61	1			48		2		et al. (2020) Chatanga										
Malawi	ICK	Cloais	99	(61.6)	(1.0)	-	-	(48.5)	-	(2.0)	-	et al. (2021)										
Senegal	PCR	Sheep	136	76	-	-	-	(10.0)	-	-	-	Dahmani et										
		P		(55.8)								al. (2019)										
Senegal PCR	PCR	Sheep	120	`38 <i>´</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Djiba et al.										
				(31.7)								(2013)										
	PCR	Goats	120	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-											
a 1	DOD			6 -	(5.0)																	
Sudan	PCR	Sheep	200	65	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Eisawi et al.										
	PCR	Goats	198	(32.5) 71	_						_	(2020)										
	FCK	Goals	198	(35.9)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-											
Tunisia	PCR	Sheep	116	51	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ElHamdi et										
		P		(43.9)								al. (2022)										
Sudan	PCR	Sheep	219	-	-	-	-	74	0	0	-	El imam et										
								(33.8)	(0)	(0)		al. (2016)										
Ethiopia	PCR	Sheep	160	-	-	-	-	147	-	3	0	Gebrekidan										
	DOD	a .	0.65					(91.9)		(1.9)	(0)	et al. (2014)										
	PCR	Goats	265	-	-	-	-	4 (1 5)	-	1	0											
Sudan	RLB	Sheep	393					(1.5)	116	(0.4)	(0) 0	Hassan et										
Suuan	KLD	Sheep	595	-	-	-	-	-	(29.5)	-	(0)	al. (2019)										
	DOD			1.00																		
Uganda	PCR	Goats	666	169	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Kasozi et al.										
Sudan	PCR	Sheen	60	(25.4) 52	0			23	0 (0)		0	(2021)										
Suuan	FUR	Sheep	62	52 (83.9)	(O)	-	-	(37.1)	0 (0)	-	0 (0)	Lee et al. (2018)										
	PCR	Goats	116	52	(0)	_	_	0 (0)	0	_	0	(2010)										
	1.010	Gouto	110	(47.4)	(0.9)			0 (0)	(0)		(0)											

Table 1: List and characteristics of 30 eligible studies included in the meta-analysis.

Tunisia	PCR	Sheep	199	-	-	-	-	56 (28.1)	-	-	-	M'ghirbi et al. (2013)
	PCR	Goats	64	-	-	-	-	(4.7)	-	-	-	
Tunisia	PCR	Sheep	199	160 (80.4)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	M'ghirbi et al. (2022)
	PCR	Goats	64	45 (70.3)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	· · · ·
Nigeria	PCR	Sheep	162	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0 (0)	Onyiche et al. (2022)
	PCR	Goats	184	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0 (0)	
Tunisia	PCR	Sheep	270	-	-		-	44 (16.3)	-	-	-	Rjeibi et al. (2016a)
Tunisia	PCR	Sheep	166	-	-	-	-	-	2 (1.2)	-	-	Rjeibi et al. (2016b)
Tunisia	PCR	Sheep	172	-	-	-	-	10 (5.8)	-	-	30 (17.4)	Rjeibi et al. (2014)
	PCR	Goats	166	-	-	-	-	0 (0) 54	-	-	15 (9.0)	
South Africa	PCR	Goats	61	28 (45.9)	12 (19.6)	-	-	54 (88.5)	-	-	-	Ringo et al. (2018)
Kenya	PCR	Sheep	76	26 (34.2)	6 (7.9)	-	-	39 (51.3)	0 (0) 24	-	0 (0)	Ringo et al. (2019)
Sudan	PCR	Sheep	100	-	-	-	-	-	24 (24.0)	-	-	Salih et al. (2012)
Angola	PCR	Sheep	85	-	-	-	-	68 (80.0)	-	-	-	Sili et al. (2021)
Sudan	PCR	Sheep	51	-	-	-	-	-	15 (29.4)	-	-	Taha et al. (2013)
Egypt	PCR	Sheep	66	6 (9.1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Tumwebaze et al. (2020a)
Uganda	PCR	Goats	201	11 (5.5)	1 (0.5)	-	-	-	-	-	11 (5.5)	Tumwebaze et al. (2020b)

PCR: polymerase chain reaction; RLB: reverse line blotting; LAMP: loop-mediated isothermal amplification

Subgroup	Number of	Pooled prevalence estimates			Μ	Measure of heterogeneity			Meta-regression	
	studies	Sample size	No. of positives	Prevalence 95% CI (%)	Q	\mathbf{I}^2	Q-p	<i>p</i> -value	OR (95% CI)	
A. ovis										
Sheep	13	1972	945	44.50 (30.00 - 60.10)	414.73	97.11	<i>p</i> <0.000	0.0014	а	
Goats	10	1928	825	48.40 (31.90 - 65.30)	364.69	97.53	p<0.000		1.23 (1.08 - 1.39)	
E. ruminantium							-		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
Sheep	3	258	12	5.50 (2.70 - 10.90)	2.81	28.84	<i>p</i> <0.000	0.3098	а	
Goats	4	477	15	2.00(0.20 - 17.30)	27.66	89.15	p<0.000		1.50 (0.69 - 3.26)	
C.burnetii				,			-		(, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
Sheep	2	178	8	4.40 (1.60 -11.60)	1.36	26.54	<i>p</i> =0.243	0.3254	а	
Goats	1	120	2	1.7 (0.40 - 6.40)	0.00	0.00	p=1.000		2.78 (0.58 - 13.31	
Bo. theileri				· · · · · ·			-		,	
Sheep	2	178	9	5.2 (2.70 - 9.70)	0.45	0.00	p = 0.501	0.0724	а	
Goats	1	120	13	10.80 (6.40 – 17.80)	0.00	0.00	p = 1.000		0.44 (0.18 - 1.06)	
T. ovis				,			-		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
Sheep	11	1429	533	40.50 (24.30 - 59.10)	291.87	96.57	<i>p</i> <0.000	<i>p</i> <0.0001	а	
Goats	7	891	134	10.0 (2.40 – 33.60)	151.49	96.04	p<0.000	-	3.36 (2.72-4.16)	
T. lestoquardi				,			-		,	
Sheep	7	1067	157	8.40 (3.60 - 18.30)	52.99	88.68	<i>p</i> <0.000	-	-	
T. separata				. ,			-			
Sheep	2	379	3	1.00 (0.10 - 6.30)	1.93	48.18	p = 0.165	<i>p</i> =1.000	а	
Goats	2	364	3	1.00 (0.20 - 5.00)	1.89	47.26	p = 0.169	-	0.96 (0.19 - 4.79)	
B. ovis									· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Sheep	9	1562	103	1.70 (0.50 - 5.60)	93.49	91.44	<i>p</i> <0.000	<i>p</i> <0.0001	а	
Goats	6	1052	26	1.90 (0.60 - 5.60)	21.25	76.47	p<0.001	•	2.79 (1.79 - 4.32)	

Table 2: Meta-analysis of molecular detection of tick-borne pathogens of sheep and goats in Africa.

^a denotes reference value; I²: inverse variance; Q: measure of heterogeneity; Q-p: Cochran's; OR: Odd ratio: CI: confidence interval

Anaplasma ovis

The overall PPE due to *A. ovis* in the goats was 48.4% (95% CI: 31.9 - 65.3), while that of sheep was 44.5% (95% CI: 30 - 60.1). No statistically significant difference was observed between species (p>0.05).

Ehrlichia ruminantium

The PPE due to *E. ruminantium* was higher in the sheep (5.50%, 95% CI: 2.7 - 10.9) compared to the goats (2.0%, 95% CI: 0.2 - 17.3). The difference was not statistically significant (*p*>0.05).

Coxiella burnetii

In the goats, the PPE attributed to *C. burnetii* was 1.7% (95% CI: 0.4 – 6.4), which was lower compared to 4.4% (95% CI: 1.6 – 11.6) obtained in the sheep. The difference was not statistically significant (*p*>0.05).

Borrelia theileri

The infection of goats with *Bo. theileri* was moderate with a PPE of 10.8% (95% CI: 6.4 – 17.8) compared with sheep with a PPE of 5.30% (95% CI: 2.7 – 9.7). The difference was not statistically significant (*p*>0.05).

Theileria ovis

The PPE in the sheep was 40.5% (95% CI: 24.3 - 59.1) higher than that of the goats, 10.% (95% CI: 2.4 - 33.6). A significant difference was observed with regards to animal species (p<0.0001), and the odds of positivity was 3.36 times (OR=3.36; 95% CI: 2.72 - 4.16) more likely in the sheep compared to the goats.

Theileria lestoquardi

The PPE in the sheep was 8.4% (95% CI: 3.6 - 18.3, Q-p < 0.000).

Theileria separata

The PPE was exactly 1.0% (95% CI: 0.1 - 6.3) in sheep and 1.0% (95% CI: 0.2 - 5.0) in the goats. No significant difference was observed between animal species (*p*>0.05).

Babesia ovis

With regards to goats, the PPE was 1.9% (95% CI: 0.6 - 5.6), higher than that of the sheep, which was 1.7% (95% CI: 0.5 - 5.6). Interestingly, the likelihood of infection was 2.79 times greater (OR: 2.79, 95% CI: 1.79 - 4.32) in the goats

compared to sheep. A statistically significant difference (p<0.0001) was observed between species.

Publication bias

The funnel plots and their corresponding Egger's coefficient indicate no significant bias with regard to *A. ovis* in the sheep (b: -3.02; p = 0.28) and goats (b: 5.29; p=0.17). Similarly, for *E. ruminantium* in the sheep (b: -1.97; p=0.07) and in the goats (b: -4.13; p=0.16). Also, for *T. ovis* in sheep (b:4.82; p=0.28) while in the goats (b: -3.70; p=0.19). Significant bias was observed in *B. ovis* in the sheep (b: -3.94; p=0.00011) and goats (b:-2.91; p=0.00072) as well as in *T. lestoquardi* in sheep (b: -3.55; p=0.002).

Target genes and molecular diagnostic techniques for the detection of tick-borne bacterial pathogens

Of the seventeen eligible studies that screened for *A. ovis*, thirteen targeted the *msp*4 gene, while seven utilized the *16S rDNA* gene (Table 3). Other genes targeted include *gro*EL, with three eligible studies, and lastly, two studies used the *23S rRNA* gene as their target locus. Molecular diagnostic techniques employed for the screening of *A. ovis* include conventional PCR, nested PCR, qPCR, and LAMP (Table 3).

Three eligible studies utilized the pCS20 gene, while two studies utilized 16S rRNA and groEL as their preferred targeted genes for the amplification of *E. ruminantium* (Table 4). Both conventional and nested PCR were employed as diagnostic assays for screening *E. ruminantium* in sheep and goat blood DNA.

With regards to *C. burnetii*, the insertion sequence (*IS1111*) gene was widely utilized as the preferred target for the amplification of *C. burnetii*, while the *fla*B (flagellin) and *16S rRNA* genes were targeted for the amplification of *Bo. theileri* (Table 4).

Target genes and molecular diagnostic techniques for the detection of tick-borne protozoan pathogens

The *18S rRNA* was the most preferred target gene for detecting piroplasmids (*Theileria* and *Babesia*). Different PCR variants, including conventional PCR, reverse line blotting (RLB), nested-PCR, qPCR, and restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP)-PCR, have been registered and used for screening blood DNA (Table 5).

Table 3: Target gene(s) and molecula	r diagnostic techniques	employed from	eligible studies in the detection of
Anaplasma ovis.			

Target gene(s)	Molecular diagnostic	Reference
	technique/variant	
23S rRNA and Ana-rpoB	qPCR and conventional	Abdullah et al. (2021)
	PCR	
23S rRNA	qPCR	Aouadi et al. (2017)
msp4	LAMP	Belkahia et al. (2014)
msp4	LAMP	Ben Said et al. (2015)
msp4	Conventional PCR	Ben Said et al. (2022)
msp4	Conventional PCR	Berthelsson et al. (2020)
16S rDNA, groEL and msp4	Conventional PCR	Chatanga et al. (2021)
16S rRNA and 23S rRNA	Conventional PCR	Dahmani et al. (2019)
16S rRNA and groEL	Conventional PCR	Djiba et al. (2013)
16S rRNA and msp4	Conventional PCR	Eisawi et al. (2020)
16S rRNA and msp4	Conventional PCR	ElHamdi et al. (2022)
16S rRNA and msp4	Conventional PCR	Kasozi et al. (2021)
16S rRNA, msp4 and groEL	nPCR	Lee et al. (2018)
msp4	Conventional PCR	M'ghirbi et al. (2022)
msp4	Conventional PCR	Ringo et al. (2018)
msp4	Conventional PCR	Ringo et al. (2019)
msp4	Conventional PCR	Tumwebaze et al. (2020a)

qPCR: real-time polymerase chain reaction; LAMP: loop-mediated isothermal amplification; nPCR: nested PCR

Table 4: Target gene(s) and molecular diagnostic techniques employed from eligible studies in the detection ofEhrlichia ruminantium, Coxiella burnetii, and Borrelia theileri.

Target gene(s)	Molecular diagnostic technique/variant	Reference	
Ehrlichia ruminantium			
16S rRNA and groEL	Conventional PCR	Chatanga et al. (2021)	
16S rRNA and groEL	Conventional PCR	Djiba et al. (2013)	
<i>pCS20</i>	Semi-nested PCR	Lee et al. (2018)	
<i>pCS20</i>	Conventional PCR and nPCR	Ringo et al. (2019)	
pCS20	Conventional PCR	Tumwebaze et al. (2020b)	
Coxiella burnetii			
Insertion Sequence (IS1111) gene spacer and IS30a spacer	qPCR	Aouadi et al. (2017)	
IS1111 and intergenic spacers (Cox2, Cox5 and Cox18)	qPCR and MST	Abdullah et al. (2021)	
Borrelia theileri			
rrs, flaB (flagellin), and 16S rRNA	qPCR and conventional PCR	Aouadi et al. (2017)	
Internal transcribed spacer 16S RNA	qPCR	Abdullah et al. (2021)	

qPCR: real-time polymerase chain reaction; nPCR: Nested PCR; MST: multispacer typing

Discussion

In this systematic review and meta-analysis, we estimated the pooled prevalence of tick-borne pathogens, including *A. ovis*, *E. ruminantium*, *Bo. theileri*, *C. burnetii T. ovis*, *T. lestoquardi*, *T. separate* and *B. ovis* of sheep and goats in Africa. The results from this study indicate that the PPE of these bacterial and protozoan pathogens analyzed varied considerably.

Anaplasma ovis, the agent of small ruminant anaplasmosis has been widely reported across every region in Africa (Ben Said et al., 2015; Dahmani et al., 2019; Ringo et al., 2019; Berthelsson et al., 2020; Tumwebaze et al., 2020a; Tumwebaze et al., 2020b; Kasozi et al., 2021; Chatanga et al., 2021; Ben Said et al., 2022). Overall, the PPE was slightly higher in the goats compared to sheep. On the contrary, it has been documented that sheep appear to be more sensitive than goats to infection with *A. ovis*, as observed in comparative studies undertaken in Sudan (Lee et al., 2018) and Algeria (Aouadi et al., 2017). Individually, the prevalence in small ruminants ranges from 1.72% - 83.87% and higher prevalence above 70% has been reported in Tunisia, Algeria, Botswana, and Sudan in both sheep and goats (Aouadi et al., 2017; Belkahia et al., 2014; Ben Said et al., 2015; Berthelsson et al., 2020).

Table 5: Target gene(s) and molecular diagnostic techniques employed from eligible studies in the detection of *Babesia/Theileria*.

Target gene(s)	Molecular diagnostic technique/variant	Reference
Theileria species		
5.8S rRNA and 18S rRNA	qPCR and Conventional PCR	Abdullah et al. (2021)
18S rRNA, 28S rRNA,	qPCR and Conventional PCR	Aouadi et al. (2017)
18S rRNA	RLB and nPCR	Chatanga et al. (2021)
18S rRNA	RLB	El Imam et al. (2016)
18S rRNA	Conventional PCR	Gebrekidan et al. (2014)
18S rRNA	RLB and nPCR	Hassan et al. (2019)
Immunodominant antigen	Conventional PCR	Lee et al. (2018)
18S rRNA	Conventional PCR	M'ghirbi et al. (2013)
18S rRNA	nPCR and Conventional PCR	Ringo et al. (2018)
18S rRNA	nPCR and Conventional PCR	Ringo et al. (2019)
18S rRNA	RLB, nPCR, and RFLP	Rjeibi et al. (2014)
18S rRNA	Nested-PCR, RFLP	Rjeibi et al. (2016a), Rjeibi et al. (2016b)
18S rRNA	LAMP	Salih et al. (2012)
18S rRNA	RLB	Sili et al. (2021)
Babesia ovis		
ssu rRNA	Conventional PCR	Adewumi et al. (2022)
18S rRNA, 28S rRNA,	qPCR and Conventional PCR	Aouadi et al. (2017)
18S rRNA	RLB	El Imam et al. (2016)
18S rRNA	Conventional PCR	Gebrekidan et al. (2014)
18S rRNA	RLB and nPCR	Hassan et al. (2019)
18S rRNA	Conventional PCR	Lee et al. (2018)
18S rRNA	Conventional PCR	Onyiche et al. (2022)
18S rRNA	Conventional PCR	Ringo et al. (2019)
18S rRNA	RLB and Conventional PCR	Rjeibi et al. (2014)
ssu rRNA	Conventional PCR	Tumwebaze et al. (2020b)

qPCR: real-time polymerase chain reaction; nPCR: nested-polymerase chain reaction; RLB: reverse line blotting; LAMP: loopmediated isothermal amplification; restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP)

On the other hand, a lower prevalence below 10% has been sparingly reported, as observed in Egypt (Tumwebaze et al., 2020a; Abdullah et al., 2021). Differences in farm management and husbandry, tick control programs, wildlife reservoir hosts, and other abiotic factors may be responsible for the discrepancies in prevalence values (Belkahia et al., 2014). The most targeted genes for Anaplasma species (including A. ovis) from published literature in Africa were those of 16S rRNA, major surface protein (msp4), and heat shock protein (groEL) (Djiba et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2018; Chatanga et al., 2021; Kasozi et al., 2021; ElHamdi et al., 2022). On the whole, most of the eligible literature utilized the msp4 gene locus for the molecular screening of biological samples for A. ovis (Belkahia et al., 2014; Ben Said et al., 2015; Ringo et al., 2019; Ben Said et al., 2022; M'ghirbi et al., 2022). The multicopy msp approaches are preferred over single-copy genes for the molecular screening of biological samples, while for phylogenetic inferences and database crossmatch, the groEL gene is regarded as the best choice (Silaghi et al., 2017). This is true as we observed that 12 out of the 17 eligible studies dealing with A. ovis utilized the msp4 gene locus for the molecular detection of A. ovis from blood DNA from sheep and goats. Both msp4 and groEL gene loci were

widely used for the phylogenetic analysis of *A. ovis*. The multilocus approach was also used in several eligible studies for the confirmation of new strain/variant species, as this has been strongly encouraged (Silaghi et al., 2017). Conventional PCR was the most notable and convenient molecular assay variant for the molecular detection of *A. ovis* in small ruminants across the African continent.

Ehrlichia ruminantium is the causative agent of heartwater disease in ruminants and is transmitted by ticks belonging to the genus Amblyomma. The overall prevalence estimates were higher in sheep compared with goats. The prevalence estimate in sheep is similar to the 5.0% reported in Senegal (Djiba et al., 2013). On the other hand, the prevalence estimates for goats in three out of four eligible studies were lower or equal to 1.0% (Lee et al., 2018; Tumwebaze et al., 2020b; Chatanga et al., 2021). The reason for the difference in prevalence between sheep and goats unknown. However, we speculate that is immunity may play a role as goats are generally known to be somewhat resistant to infectious diseases compared to sheep. On the other hand, Bo. theileri is the aetiological agent of bovine and ovine borreliosis. Our systematic review documented this pathogen's existence in sheep and goats within the continent (Aouadi et al.,

2017; Abdullah et al., 2021). It is transmitted by hard ticks, mainly Rhipicephalus species, and has been detected in Rh. geigyi in Mali (McCoy et al., 2014). Bo. theileri has previously been detected in Rh. annulata ticks in Egypt (Hassan et al., 2017). Several genes or targeted regions have been utilized for the molecular detection of E. ruminantium, including pCS20 (Steyn et al., 2008; Van Heerden et al., 2004), map1 gene (Allsopp et al., 2001; Faburay et al., 2008) and the 16S ribonucleic acid (RNA) gene (Allsopp et al., 1997). From published studies, the pCS20 gene was the most utilized for the molecular detection and characterization of E. ruminantium in studies across the continent. This could be attributed to a great extent to the high degree of conservation of the pCS20 target nucleotide sequence in E. ruminantium as observed in a previous study (Faburay et al., 2007) compared with either map1 or 16S rRNA genes. Sequence polymorphisms of the map1 gene of E. ruminantium isolates have been reported (Reddy et al., 1996; Allsopp et al., 2001), leading to low PCR detection rates. Furthermore, nested-PCR conventional PCR molecular diagnostic or variants targeting the pCS20 gene locus exhibited higher sensitivity and detection rates. Thus, all the eligible studies included in this review utilized either of the two molecular diagnostic techniques for the detection of E. ruminantium in small ruminants across Africa.

Molecular evidence of C. burnetii in the blood of small ruminants, as observed in this study, was low across Africa. The low prevalence probably suggests a low load of the bacteria in animal blood. This organism is responsible for Q fever and is known to infect a wide range of animals, including small ruminants (Mares-Guia et al., 2014). This pathogen is known to be associated with abortion and has been registered from the vaginal discharge and placenta of dairy goats in Egypt (Abdel-Moein and Hamza, 2017). The transposon-like repetitive region (IS1111) is one of the most reliable targets for the molecular characterization of C. burnetii and has been proven to be highly specific and sensitive for the detection of this bacterium in clinical samples (Vaidya et al., 2008; Vaidya et al., 2010).

Piroplasmosis in small ruminants caused by *Babesia ovis* has been seldom reported in sheep and goats across Africa. The PPE was very low at about 1.90% in goats and 1.70% in sheep. Nonetheless, it is believed that the signs of

clinical infection are more frequently observed in sheep compared with goats. The majority of the studies reported the absence of infection with B. ovis in both sheep and goats (Gebrekidan et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2018; Aouadi et al., 2017; Hassan et al., 2019; Onyiche et al., 2022). So far, only three documented reports in Africa on the presence of B. ovis DNA in the blood of sheep and goats (Rjeibi et al., 2014; Tumwebaze et al., 2020b; Adewumi et al., 2022). However, the prevalence is closely associated with the distribution of the tick vector, Rhipicephalus bursa, common in the Palaearctic region, including the Mediterranean basin, with northern Africa to the south (Yeruham et al., 1998). Additionally, B. ovis piroplasmid has been amplified in Rh. bursa and Rh. turanicus ticks in Algeria (Aouadi et al., 2017). Theileriosis in small ruminants is caused by several Theileria species (Berggoetz et al., 2014). Initially, T. ovis was regarded as less virulent compared to T. lestoquardi, the causative agent of malignant ovine theileriosis. Both pathogens are present in the arid regions of Africa (Ahmed et al., 2013). In contrast to T. lestoquardi, which is more virulent, both T. ovis and T. separata are considered benign, and infections in small ruminants are subclinical (Uilenberg, 1995). We observed that infection with T. ovis was higher in sheep compared to goats. This observation is consistent with the majority of the studies in Africa (Gebrekidan et al., 2014; Aouadi et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2018). This may be unconnected with genetic variation among animals as well as the presence and abundance of tick species (Gebrekidan et al., 2014). The PPE of T. *lestoquardi* in sheep in this study is moderately low. Reports of infection with T. lestoquardi have so far been exclusively in sheep and mostly in northern Africa, precisely in Sudan and Tunisia (Salih et al., 2012; Taha et al., 2013; Rjeibi et al., 2019). 2014; Hassan et al., Previously, experimental infection of goats with T. lestoquardi was unsuccessful (El Hussein et al., 2004), but natural outbreaks in goats have been reported in Sudan (Taha et al., 2011). Reports on T. separata are limited with just two eligible studies, one each from Eastern (Gebrekidan et al., 2014) and northern Africa (El Imam et al., 2016). PCR-based studies for the molecular identification of Babesia and Theileria parasites in small ruminants across Africa have majorly targeted the 18S rRNA gene locus. Piroplasmids have been identified using

different regions of the 18S rRNA gene. The eukaryotic 18S rRNA gene has both variable and conserved regions. Consequently, its high specificity and sequence conservation make it an ideal target as a universal biomarker to screen closely related species and biodiversity studies (Kumar et al., 2022). This was not different as this gene locus was the most utilized across the eligible studies for the detection of piroplasmids in small ruminants in Africa (M'ghirbi et al., 2013; Rjeibi et al., 2014; Gebrekidan et al., 2014; Hassan et al., 2019; Onyiche et al., 2022). Interestingly, different molecular techniques and their variants, including conventional PCR, nested PCR, reverse line blot, qPCR, and LAMP, have been utilized from the eligible studies.

In the majority of the TBPs, the prevalence was comparatively higher in sheep compared with goats. Two possible reasons were cautiously hypothesized to support this observation by previous authors. Firstly, the vast quantity of hair in sheep compared with goats could prevent the easy detection of ticks, as observed in native indigenous breeds in Ethiopia (Gebrekidan et al., 2014) and Tunisia (Rjeibi et al., 2014). Secondly, the natural differences in resistance against TBPs exist between animal species (sheep vs goats) (Lee et al., 2018). For example, experimental infection of T. lestoquardi was unsuccessful in goats despite the isolate having been collected from sheep (El Hussein et al., 2004).

Conclusions

Findings from this study indicate that small ruminants in Africa are infected with a diverse range of TBPs of veterinary and economic importance. With the exception of *T. lestoquardi*, all other TBPs, including bacterial (A. ovis, E. ruminantium, C. burnetii, and Bo. theileri) and protozoal (B. ovis, T. ovis, and T. separata) have been registered in both sheep and goats. Knowledge of their prevalence and distribution across several regions of Africa will require a robust control program against the tick vectors responsible for the transmission of these pathogens within the continent. Finally, several gene targets and PCR-based diagnostic variants have been extensively investigated for the molecular characterization of TBPs of small ruminants across the African continent.

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