

Original Research Article

ATTEMPTED DETECTION OF WEST NILE VIRUS FROM WILD AND PERIDOMESTIC BIRDS WITHIN IBADAN METROPOLIS IN NIGERIA

ABSTRACT

A team of researchers reported detection of West Nile virus (WNV) in the faeces of experimentally-infected wild birds after being experimentally infected with the virus subcutaneously. This necessitated the need to investigate the potential transmission of WNV through faeces in wild and peridomestic birds in Nigeria even though the virus is an arbovirus commonly transmitted by mosquito. To confirm the data, on hundred and ten (110) wild and peridomestic birds were screened for the presence of WNV using reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain reaction method was used for amplification of the viral RNA. The birds were drawn from six locations in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria within a period of 18 months. Detection of WNV was made with 5% agarose gel electrophoresis. However, we failed to detect WNV in these samples.

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INTRODUCTION

Wild and peridomestic birds have been implicated in the transmission of some infectious diseases, acting either as reservoirs or vectors for the causative agents in the transmission of many viruses (Jacob *et al.*, 2011). Birds can acquire or transmit viral infections via vertical or horizontal modes of transmission (Strauss and Strauss, 2008). Horizontal transmission could be venereal – from a vertically infected male directly to a female vector – or oral – feeding on an infected host/carrier of the virus or virus-contaminated foods or drinks (Strauss and Strauss, 2008; Weaver and Reisen, 2010). Arboviruses are known to employ mosquito-bird interaction in their transmission cycles (Strauss and Strauss, 2008), and West Nile virus (WNV) is one of the most known arboviruses.

West Nile virus belongs to the genus *Flavivirus* in the family *Flaviviridae*. It is classified as a mosquito-borne *Flavivirus*, and further classified within this group with the neurotropic viruses. WNV infects a wide range of vertebrates, with birds as the major hosts and vectors for trans-boundary transmission, amplification, and reservoir. According to CDC (2009), 326 birds have been associated with the virus, either by isolation or detection of its neutralising antibodies. Migratory water birds such as herons and egrets are involved in the movement of WNV into new areas, serving as reservoir and amplification hosts (Rappole *et al.*, 2000; Mackenzie *et al.*, 2004; Reisen *et al.*, 2009) while the viruses are being transmitted by multiple *Culex* species of mosquito (Reed *et al.*, 2003; CFSPH, 2009; Pfeffer and Dobler, 2010). Peridomestic birds such as House Finches (*Carpodacus mexicanus*) and House Sparrows (*Passer domesticus*) have also been heavily linked with the spread of WNV and St. Louis encephalitis virus (Gruwell *et al.*, 2000), acting as reservoirs and sometimes exhibiting pathological symptoms of the infection too. WNV has also been isolated from pigeons (Weber, 1979; CSFPH, 2009; Weaver and Barret,

36 2004; Komar and Clark, 2006), and persistent antibodies have been found in doves and pigeons in a set of
37 studies (Allison *et al.*, 2004; Gibbs *et al.*, 2005). Other implicated birds include ducks, geese and mallards
38 (Reed *et al.*, 2003; CFSPH, 2009) and, hawks and eagles (Kuno and Chang, 2005; CFSPH, 2009).

39 Arboviruses are mainly transmitted via a host-vector-host cycle, usually employing a biological mode of
40 transmission involving the virus replicating within an arthropod host before transmission (Weaver *et al.*,
41 1997). In a review carried out by Kuno and Chang (2005), it was reported that non-biologic transmission
42 mechanisms are also observed in arboviruses, of which direct transmission is one of such methods in
43 which faecal matter was included. Alexander (2000) reported that spread from bird to bird appears to
44 occur as the result of either inhalation of excreted droplet particles or the ingestion of infective material
45 such as faeces. These reports indicate that faecal droppings of infected birds, both symptomatic and
46 asymptomatic, are potential sources of infection for viruses shed in birds' faeces. A note of public health
47 concern is that most birds implicated are not only wild birds whose natural habitat are far away from
48 urban population, but also peridomestic and domesticated wild birds which lives in close proximity to
49 human population, hence increasing the chances of transmission of these viruses (Hatch, 1996;
50 Alexander, 2000). While it has been reported that arboviruses can be transmitted through ingesting of
51 substances contaminated by faeces of infected hosts (Strauss and Strauss, 2008), Kipps *et al.* (2006)
52 demonstrated this by isolating and detecting WNV in the faeces of American and fish crows which had
53 been experimentally infected with the virus through subcutaneous inoculation. The authors reported that
54 although faecal shedding of WNV by crows indicates a potential for direct transmission of WNV through
55 contact with faeces, faecal-oral transmission among crows in the wild is unknown. They also reported
56 that the role of viral shedding in WNV transmission to birds or other vertebrates requires further
57 research and that no studies have not evaluated the quantity of virus or conditions necessary to infect
58 humans or other primates through contact with WNV-infected faeces.

59 Therefore, this study aims to investigate the presence of WNV in the faeces of the wild and peridomestic
60 birds within a metropolis in Nigeria in order to ascertain the potential for transmission of the virus
61 through faecal-oral route naturally.

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64 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

65 **Study Population and Sites:** A total of 110 cloacal swabs (n = 60) and faeces (n = 50) of identified wild
 66 and peridomestic birds from the families Columbidae, Psittaculidae, Anatidae, Ardeidae, Ploceidae,
 67 Phasianidae and Accipitridae were collected as presented in Table 1. Samples were randomly collected
 68 across Ibadan city by selecting representative samples among the target population. The birds were
 69 selected according to their species or the families they belong to, and they include healthy ones (n = 87)
 70 and some exhibiting symptoms of illness (n = 23). Samples were collected from six different locations
 71 within Ibadan metropolis as presented in Figure 1. Domestic birds that were reared and sold at the
 72 population sites were excluded. Also, suspected birds that are not within Ibadan city were excluded.

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73 **Sample Collection:** Sterile swabs were used to collect swabs from the anus /cloacae of large birds. Swabs
 74 of fresh faeces were taken from birds from free ranges (egrets/herons, pigeons/doves and village
 75 weaver), from those whose anuses were not wide enough or whose owners refused cloacal swabs
 76 (lovebirds, parakeets and parrots), and from potentially dangerous birds (wild geese and hawks/eagles,
 77 buzzards). Samples collected were transported in transport medium to the laboratory, where they were
 78 stored at -20 °C until analyses.

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79 **Detection of virus:** Detection of suspected virus was done using reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain
 80 reaction methods. For RT-PCR analysis, RNA was extracted from 140 µl of PBS-diluted faecal supernatant
 81 using Jena Bioscience viral RNA extraction kit() according to the manufacturer's recommended
 82 procedure, and eluted with 60 µl sterile water. cDNA Synthesis and PCR amplification was carried out as
 83 described: Reverse transcription was carried out using 1µl RNA, 0.2 µl of each primer, 4µl RT Buffer
 84 (SCRIPT), 1 µl dNTP mix, 1 µl DTT stock solution, 1 µl RNase Inhibitor, 0.5 µl Reverse Transcriptase
 85 (SCRIPT) and RNase-free water, added up to make up a total volume of 20 µl. The Reaction Mix was
 86 incubated at 50 °C for 10 min, followed by a further incubation at 50 °C for 30-60 mins. The mixture was
 87 heated to 70°C for 10min to inactivate the reverse transcriptase. 2 units of DNase-free RNase was also
 88 added and incubated at 37 °C for 20 min to remove RNA. The cDNA synthesized was now used as
 89 template to synthesize the second-strand using polymerase chain reaction and stored at -20 °C. For
 90 amplification, each PCR reaction contained 2 µl cDNA template, 3 µl each primer, 2.5 µl Taq Mix and 2.0 µl
 91 Nuclease-free water, in a total volume of 12.5 µl. The primers used in amplifying E region (encoding the
 92 envelop protein) of the WV viral genome was reported in Johnson *et al.* (2001). First-stage primer
 93 sequences, amplifying a 445-bp region: 1401: 5'-ACCAACTACTGTGGAGTC-3', and 1845: 5'-TTC-
 94 CATCTTCACTCTACTACT-3'. Nested primers amplifying a 248-bp region were 1485: 5'-
 95 GCCTTCATACACTAAAG-3'and 1732: 5'-CCAATGCTATCACAGACT-3' Thermocycling conditions using a
 96 9700 model thermocycler (Applied Biosystems) are as follow: Taq Activation (94°C for 3mins); Template
 97 Denaturation (94 °C for 30 secs); Annealing (50 °C for 30secs); Template Elongation (68 °C for 30 secs);
 98 Final Elongation (72 °C for 7 mins). The expected amplicons sizes for first round and second round

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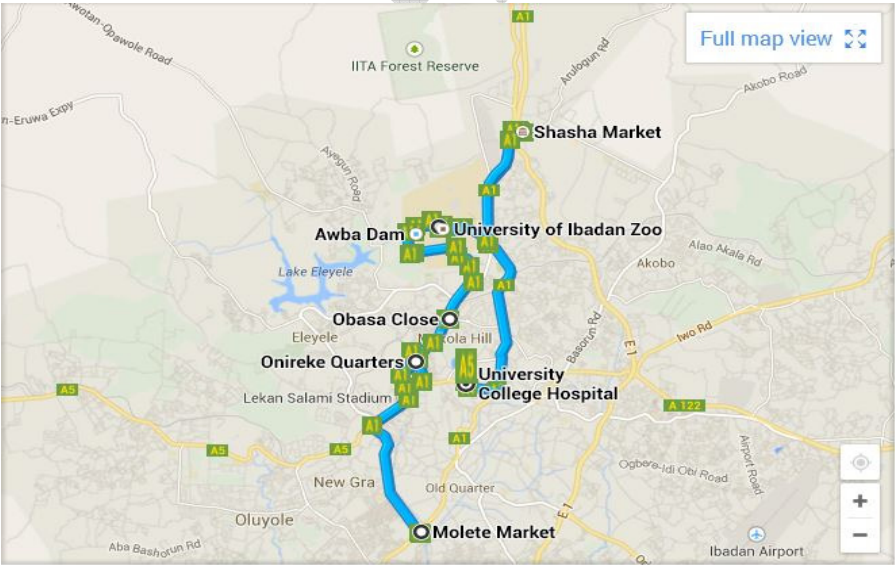
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99 (nested) PCR are 464bp and 278bp respectively. Amplicons were analyzed using 3% agarose gel
 100 electrophoresis followed by ethidium bromide staining and UV visualization

101 **Table 1:** Species/families of birds and collection sites

	Collection Sites						
	Molete's Oja Oba Market	Onireke Bird's Market	Shasha Market	UI Zoological Garden	Research Animal Unit, UI	Free Range	Total
Species/Families							
Columbidae (e.g. Pigeon and Dove)	4	5	5	-	9	5	28
Psittaculidae (e.g. Parrot, Parrakreet)	-	8	-	6	-	-	14
Anatidae (e.g. Mallards and Wild Geese)	4	4	10	10	-	-	28
Ardeidae (e.g. Egrets and Herons)	-	-	-	-	-	15	15
Ploceidae (e.g. Village Weaver)	-	-	-	-	-	7	7
Phasianidae (e.g. Guinea fowl and Francolin)	-	-	9	-	-	-	9
Accipitridae (e.g. Eagle, Hawk)	-	4		5	-	-	9

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104 **Figure 1:** Study area and collection sites within Ibadan metropolis. Source: Google Map

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106 **RESULTS**

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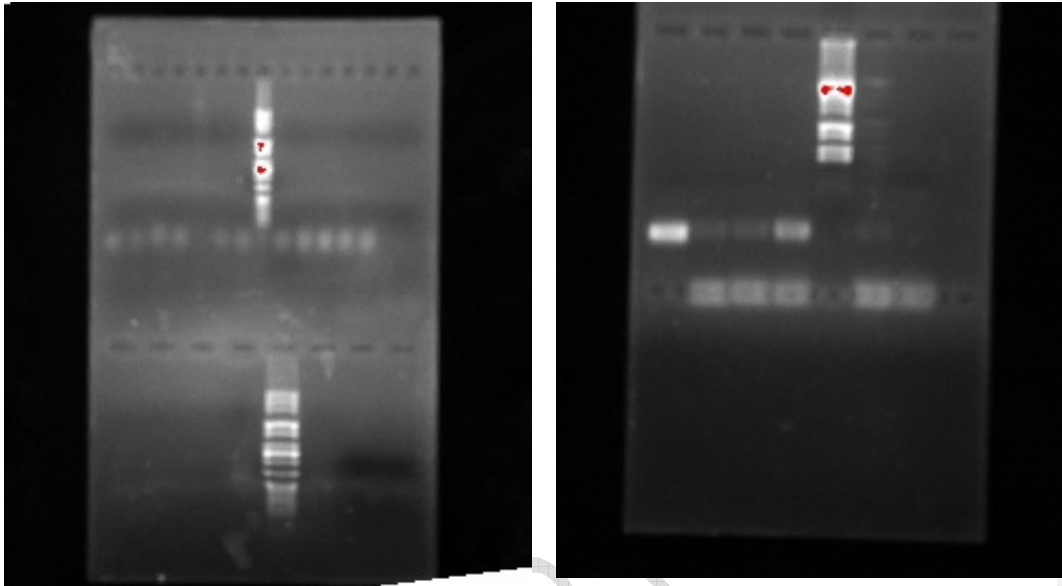
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117 **Figure 2:** Gel picture showing no positive bands for the detection of West Nile virus

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119 **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

120 Attempts to detect the targeted virus from the faecal matter of wild and peridomestic birds, by using
 121 species-specific West Nile virus primers failed. The inability to detect the West Nile virus indicates that
 122 faecal-oral route of transmission for the virus might not be possible in nature even though it has been
 123 achieved under controlled experimental conditions. Kipp *et al.* (2006) reported high titre value of viral
 124 particles in the faeces of the birds inoculated with approximately 4000 PFU. This large amount of inocula
 125 is likely not achievable in nature where the mode of transmission is usually through mosquito bites.
 126 Hence, the inability to detect the targeted virus may be attributed to absence or low level of viral particles
 127 in the samples.

128 Also, Lanciotti *et al.* (1992) identified one of the problems affecting virus isolation to the small amount of
 129 viable virus in the inocula which can make isolation take days to weeks. Reisen *et al.*, (2005) also
 130 corroborated this report that low rates of transmission or absence of the targeted viruses among the wild
 131 birds might be responsible for the inability to detect their presence during analysis. Weaver and Reisen
 132 (2010) reported that arboviruses frequently persist at low or even tenuous maintenance levels until
 133 some change in single or multiple factors facilitates rapid and widespread amplification. The implicated
 134 relevant factors that could contribute to this include circumglobal changes in climate and anthropogenic

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135 factors, epidemiology, and viral genetics (Weaver and Reisen, 2010). Consequently, there may be need for
136 improved assays which are sufficiently sensitive and specific enough for clinical and epidemiological
137 purpose.

138 Conclusively, the virus was not detected in any of the birds screened. The absence of the virus was
139 believed not to be as a result of procedural error. Birds in the locations stated above were not harbouring
140 the virus. However, while the virus may remain undetected in these birds, changes in the aforementioned
141 factors that could facilitate their widespread amplification such as circumglobal changes in climate and
142 anthropogenic factors, epidemiology, and viral genetics should be monitored. Continuous and active
143 surveillance are needed to be able to detect their incidence whenever they occur in this region of the
144 country and other regions as well.

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