

1 ***Chlamydia psittaci* in a chicken and turkey hatchery**
2 **results in zoonotic transmission**

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5 **Running title: Zoonotic transmission of *C. psittaci* in hatchery.**

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23 **Abstract**

24 *Chlamydia psittaci* (*C. psittaci*) is an obligate intracellular Gram-negative bacterium causing
25 respiratory disease (chlamydiosis) or asymptomatic carriage in birds. *C. psittaci* is a zoonotic
26 agent causing psittacosis or parrot fever in humans. Vertical and/or horizontal transmission via
27 eggs might have serious repercussions on the *C. psittaci* infection status of poultry flocks and
28 thus on zoonotic risk for all workers along the poultry supply chain. We therefore studied the
29 presence of *C. psittaci* in a hatchery. In addition, we examined all (N = 4) employees of the
30 hatchery to evaluate the zoonotic risk. We could not detect *C. psittaci* on either eggs shells or
31 eggshell membranes. However, different *C. psittaci* outer membrane protein (*ompA*) genotypes
32 were cultured from the air of both turkey (genotypes A and C) and chicken (genotype D)
33 hatching chambers. Zoonotic transmission occurred in all employees and mixed infection with up
34 to 3 different genotypes (A, D and C), also found in air samples, were discovered. Diagnostic
35 monitoring and reporting of *C. psittaci* infections in poultry workers should be promoted.
36 Additionally, an efficient veterinary vaccine and information campaigns on zoonotic risk and
37 preventive measures against *C. psittaci* transmission would be beneficial to public health.

38 **Introduction.**

39 *Chlamydia psittaci* (*C. psittaci*) is an obligate intracellular Gram-negative bacterium, causing
40 respiratory disease (chlamydiosis) or asymptomatic carriage in birds (Vanrompay *et al.*, 1995a).
41 It is a zoonotic agent causing psittacosis in humans. Zoonotic transfer occurs through inhalation
42 of contaminated dust particles or contaminated aerosols created from nasal and/or eye secretions
43 or from dried faeces (Beeckman & Vanrompay, 2009). In humans symptoms may include high
44 fever accompanied by a relatively low pulse, chills, headache, myalgia, non-productive coughing

45 and difficult breathing. The incubation period is 5 to 14 days. The disease is rarely fatal in
46 properly treated patients.

47 *C. psittaci* infections are nearly endemic in poultry (Laroucau *et al.*, 2009;Sting *et al.*, 2006;Van
48 Looock *et al.*, 2005a;Verminnen *et al.*, 2006) and zoonotic transfer of *C. psittaci* is a threat to
49 poultry workers all over the world (Chahota *et al.*, 2000;Dickx *et al.*, 2010;Gaede *et al.*,
50 2008;Laroucau *et al.*, 2008;Verminnen *et al.*, 2008).

51 Vertical or transovarial transmission of *C. psittaci* during formation of the egg in the
52 ovary/oviduct of the breeder has been described for chicken (Wittenbrink *et al.*, 1993) and
53 turkey eggs (Lublin *et al.*, 1996). It leads to infection of one-day-old birds. Nevertheless, vertical
54 transmission of *C. psittaci* is thought to be rare (Harkinezhad *et al.*, 2008b). Thus, it might not be
55 the main origin of infection for one-day-old birds. As far as we know, horizontal infection of
56 embryo's or other egg contents by eggshell penetrating of *C. psittaci* has not been examined.
57 Fecal contamination of eggshells by infected hens or during egg passage in the cloaca might
58 occur, as *C. psittaci* resides in the gut and is excreted through the feces (Harkinezhad *et al.*,
59 2008a). *C. psittaci* (\varnothing 0.2 μ m) is very small compared to the well-known fecal egg contaminant
60 *Salmonella* (\varnothing 0.7-1.5 μ m, length 2-5 μ m). Thus, *C. psittaci* could even be more easily
61 internalized in eggs.

62 Vertical and/or horizontal transfer might have repercussions on the *C. psittaci* infection status of
63 poultry flocks and thus on zoonotic risk for all workers along the poultry supply chain. We
64 therefore studied the presence of *C. psittaci* in a hatchery. Additionally, we examined all
65 employees of the hatchery to evaluate the zoonotic risk.

66 **Material and methods**

67 **Background**

68 The study was conducted in a Belgian hatchery located in West-Flanders. The hatchery had two
69 hatching facilities in separate corridors; one used for both turkey and guinea fowl eggs and the
70 other used solely for hatching chicken eggs. The hatchery was selected based on the willingness
71 to participate in this study.

72 In June and September 2010, we performed a *C. psittaci* study in the turkey/guinea fowl and
73 chicken hatching facilities, respectively. Eggshells and eggshell membranes were sampled.
74 Additionally, *C. psittaci* bioaerosol monitoring was performed, sampling air from the
75 turkey/guinea fowl or chickens hatching chambers. The employees, being 2 men (M1 and M2)
76 and 2 women (F1 and F2), having daily contact with eggs and hatchlings, voluntarily participated
77 (informed consent) in this study and provided us a self-taken pharyngeal swab for chlamydial
78 diagnosis.

79 **Sampling details and processing of samples prior to analyses.**

80 During the study in the turkey/guinea fowl and chicken facilities, at the beginning (T0), two
81 subsequent air samples were taken from a cleaned, disinfected (formaldehyde fumigation)
82 hatching chamber (17.12 m³; P13 Petersime, Zulte, Belgium), subsequently to be used for turkey
83 or chicken eggs. Next, 26-days-old or 19-days-old embryonated turkey or chicken eggs,
84 respectively, were brought in the hatching room, fumigated with formaldehyde and incubated at
85 hatching conditions (turkey eggs, 37.4°C and 90% relative humidity (RH); chicken eggs, 37°C
86 and 90% RH). Two days later the hatching process started. Two subsequent air samples were
87 taken at several time points during this hatching process: i) in the morning when only a few
88 animals (10%) had hatched (T1), ii) at noon (T2) and ii) in the evening when most animals (90%)

89 had hatched (T3). Bioaerosol monitoring was performed using the MAS-100 Eco Sampler
90 (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) together with the in-house made air collection medium
91 (ChlamyTrap) at an air flow rate of 100 L/min during 10 min (Van Droogenbroeck *et al.*, 2008).
92 At each time point, two samples were taken. After air sampling, petri dishes with 20 ml
93 ChlamyTrap were transported on ice and stored at -80°C until tested. Samples taken on the same
94 time were pooled for further processing. Next, 40 ml of the pooled air collection medium was
95 divided in two equal parts. All samples were ultracentrifuged (45,000 x g, 45 min, 4 °C). Pellets
96 for culture were suspended in 500 µL chlamydia transport medium (Vanrompay *et al.*, 1992)
97 while the ones for *C. psittaci* genotyping were suspended in 198 µL DNA extraction buffer (Van
98 Loock *et al.*, 2005b). Samples were stored at -80 °C until tested.

99 Rayon-tipped aluminum shafted swabs (Copan, Fiers, Kuurne, Belgium) were used to sample in
100 twofold the employees, the eggshell of 20 randomly selected turkey (0.15%) or chicken (0.10%)
101 eggs before hatching as well as the eggshell membranes of 20 additional, randomly selected
102 turkey (0.15%) or chicken (0.10%) eggs after hatching. Eggs in a hatching room came from the
103 same batch and one single parental flock. Swabs for chlamydial culture contained chlamydia
104 transport medium, while dry swabs were used for *C. psittaci* genotyping. Swabs were transported
105 on ice and stored at -80°C until processed.

106 ***C. psittaci* culture.**

107 The presence of viable *C. psittaci* in air samples or swabs was examined by bacterial culture in
108 Buffalo Green Monkey (BGM) cells identifying *C. psittaci* by use of a direct
109 immunofluorescence staining at day 6 post inoculation (IMAGENTM, Oxoid, Drogen, Belgium)
110 (Vanrompay *et al.*, 1994). The number of *C. psittaci* positive cells was counted in five randomly
111 selected microscopic fields (600x; Nikon Eclipse TE2000-E, Japan). A score from 0 to 4 was

112 given. Score 0 indicated the absence of *C. psittaci*. Score 1 was given when a mean of 1–5 non-
113 replicating elementary bodies were present. Scores 2, 3 and 4 were given when a mean of 1–5, 6–
114 10 and >10 inclusion positive cells could be observed (Vanrompay *et al.*, 1994). Subsequently,
115 *C. psittaci* in positive samples were titrated according to the method of Spearman and Kaerber
116 determining the \log_{10} 50% Tissue Culture Infective Dose (TCID₅₀) per ml chlamydia transport
117 medium or per ml ChlamyTrap air collection medium (Mayr *et al.*, 1974).

118 ***C. psittaci* genotyping.**

119 For all samples, DNA extraction was performed as previously described. Outer membrane
120 protein A (*ompA*) genotyping was performed by a *C. psittaci* genotype-specific real-time PCR
121 (Geens *et al.*, 2005). The test is based on using genotype-specific primers and genotype-specific
122 TaqMan probes. Real-time PCR allowed molecular characterization of the *C. psittaci* strains
123 involved, as well as quantification of chlamydial DNA using the human beta-actin housekeeping
124 gene for normalization (Van Droogenbroeck *et al.*, 2009).

125 **Results and discussion**

126 The results on bioaerosol monitoring and on the examination of human swabs are presented in
127 Tables 1 and 2, respectively. *C. psittaci* was cultured from the air of both the turkey/guinea fowl
128 and chicken hatching chambers and in both cases high titers of live organisms (up to $10^{10.75}$ per
129 ml ChlamyTrap for the turkey hatching chamber; up to $10^{6.25}$ per ml ChlamyTrap for the chicken
130 hatching chamber) were present in the air. Viable *C. psittaci* was present in hatching chambers
131 from start to finish of the hatching process (Table 1). Moreover, the microorganism was even
132 there before the hatching process started, in cleaned, disinfected hatching rooms. *C. psittaci* titers

133 in air increased 100 to 10000 times during the hatching process of chickens or turkeys,
134 respectively.

135 The hatching chamber for chickens contained *C. psittaci ompA* genotype D on all examined time
136 points. Recently, Dickx *et al.*, (2010), also found genotype D in chickens being processed in the
137 abattoir as well as in the air of the abattoir. Genotype D is considered highly virulent and is
138 excreted extensively (Vanrompay *et al.*, 1995b). The empty hatching chamber for turkey/guinea
139 fowl eggs contained genotype C and during hatching of turkeys genotype A was found (Table 1).
140 Thus, cleaning and disinfection (formaldehyde fumigation) of both hatching chambers after the
141 previous egg incubation period was not sufficient to remove *C. psittaci*, as viable *C. psittaci* was
142 still present in air samples taken at T0. Interestingly, guinea-fowl eggs from France were
143 incubated during the previous incubation period. *C. psittaci* has recently been detected by PCR in
144 commercially raised guinea fowl in France. However, *ompA* genotyping failed (Laroucau *et al.*,
145 2009). Genotype C is mostly found in ducks and geese and has been isolated from poultry
146 workers in relation with respiratory disease (Harkinezhad *et al.*, 2009).

147 Fumigation of eggs upon arrival in the hatching chamber seemed to have an effect on the amount
148 of live organisms in the air, as genotype C was no longer detected at T1. Instead, genotype A was
149 present, originating from turkey eggs. Genotype A was isolated before from turkeys (Van Looek
150 *et al.*, 2005a; Verminnen *et al.*, 2008) and is highly virulent.

151 Eggshells were negative by both PCR and culture. Thus, contamination of eggs by
152 secretions/excretions of the breeders was undetectable. Perhaps, since only a small percentage of
153 eggs was sampled. However, it could also be due to the egg washing procedure performed in a
154 hatchery upon arrival of the eggs and/or to fumigation of the eggs after being placed in the
155 hatching chamber. On the other hand, *C. psittaci*, which is an extremely small bacterium, might
156 rapidly penetrate the eggshell during cooling of fresh laid eggs in the breeder farm. Thus, in the

157 future, eggshell contamination should be examined in the breeding facility instead of in a
158 hatchery, using fresh laid eggs.

159 *C. psittaci* was not detected by either PCR or culture on eggshell membranes. Again, this could
160 be due to: i) examining only a small percentage of the eggs or ii) because the organism is present
161 in the animal itself, in the amnion or allantois fluid and/or in the yolk, the yolk-sac membrane
162 and/or the egg white. Maybe, egg white, yolk sac and/or yolk sac membrane, become infected
163 during artificial insemination with *C. psittaci* contaminated sperm or during formation of the egg
164 in the ovarium/oviduct. This could lead to the transfer of *C. psittaci* from the egg white and/or
165 yolk to the embryo where the organisms might stay as aberrant temporary non-reproductive
166 bodies, otherwise the embryo would die, in cells of the intestine and/or liver. Moreover,
167 transovarian transmission through hematogenous spread of *C. psittaci* might also occur
168 (Vanrompay *et al.*, 1995b). Sampling egg contents and internal organs of embryos to monitor
169 *C. psittaci* dissemination during the embryonic period could provide answers.

170 Nevertheless, vertical or horizontal egg contamination might be reduced by vaccinating hens and
171 roosters on the breeder farms. However, *C. psittaci* vaccines are not available. Thus, prophylactic
172 measures like monitoring *C. psittaci* infections in breeders, optimal hygiene and disinfection of
173 eggs soon after laying (Cox *et al.*, 2000) are currently the main weapons against egg
174 contamination.

175 All employees (N = 4) were *C. psittaci* positive by culture and mixed infections with up to three
176 different *ompA* genotypes (A, C and D) were discovered. Previously, Van Droogenbroeck *et al.*,
177 (2009), described a mixed *C. psittaci* genotype D, F and E/B asymptomatic infection in a
178 veterinarian. The infection originated from diseased industrial turkeys. Interestingly, the currently
179 examined employees were also healthy. All employees were working in the hatching facility for
180 more than 20 years. In the past, they all had to seek medical attention because of respiratory

181 disease and were treated with tetracyclines without an etiological diagnosis being performed.
182 Thus, we cannot discuss on a possible link with *C. psittaci* infections. However, as suggested by
183 Dickx et al., (2010), poultry workers are almost continuously exposed to *C. psittaci* and therefore
184 could have natural immunity against disease.

185 Genotype A was the most prevalent genotype in the employees, as shown by quantitative real-
186 time PCR (Table 2). This is in accordance with the high prevalence of this genotype in air
187 samples (Table 1). Men were less infected than women. The men spend most of their daytime in
188 the administrative office and only assisted in the hatching chambers during ‘peak moments’. The
189 women spend most of their daytime handling both eggs and hatchlings.

190 Psittacosis is recognized as an occupational disease in the USA, Belgium, France, the
191 Netherlands, Germany, Slovakia and the UK. In those countries, the occupational physician is
192 obliged to report each case of psittacosis. In Belgium, there is a Fund for Occupational Diseases
193 to assess *C. psittaci* cases and possibly accept them as an occupational disease, and take care of
194 financial compensations for the employee if necessarily.

195 Each employer is responsible for the health and safety of his employees and should focus on
196 prevention of infections. An adequate prevention starts with a risk assessment. The employer,
197 assisted by the occupational physician and occupational hygienist, evaluates the exposure to
198 biological agents, taking into account the nature (contact with people or animals, or the
199 workplace itself), intensity (the amount of infectious material handled) and duration of the
200 worker’s exposure (HSE, 2010). The risk assessment must also identify workers and other people
201 who may not be in the workplace all the time (cleaners, maintenance and repair workers,
202 contractors, students on placements) and members of the public who might be present (visitors)
203 (HSE, 2010). Based on this information, adequate preventive measures can be designed. The
204 second phase is the implementation of the preventive measures. In this stage, education and

205 training of the employees is very important to ensure that the measures are well understood and
206 executed. When present, a company doctor might play a crucial role in both prevention and
207 recognition of *C. psittaci* infections.

208 On a personal level, prevention includes a good hand hygiene protocol, protective clothing that
209 does not retain dust and a mouth and eye (full face) mask. It is necessarily to have a transition
210 room where protective clothing may be kept. Employees should only stay in the hatching
211 chambers for as short as possible. Good environmental hygiene is also important, such as daily
212 cleaning and disinfection of work areas and equipment, hereby preventing the creation of
213 infectious aerosols. Some safe cleaning techniques include wet mopping of the floor with
214 disinfectants or spraying the floor with a disinfectant or water before sweeping it. For larger
215 areas, such as industrial hatching chambers, low pressure washers instead of high pressure
216 cleaners are strongly recommended.

217 **CONCLUSIONS**

218 Until now, *in ovo* transmission of *C. psittaci* was considered of minimal impact. At present, we
219 found increasing amounts of *C. psittaci* in the air during hatching of turkeys or chickens. Thus,
220 hatchlings could already become infected before arriving on the farm. Diagnostic monitoring and
221 reporting of *C. psittaci* infections in poultry workers should be promoted. Additionally, an
222 efficient veterinary vaccine and information campaigns on zoonotic risk and preventive measures
223 against *C. psittaci* transmission would be beneficial to public health.

224 **Acknowledgements**

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226 Environment (convention RF-6177).

227 Table 1. Diagnostic results on air samples from the turkey/guinea fowl or chicken hatching
 228 chambers.

Presence of <i>C. psittaci</i> in the air of hatching facilities			
Turkey/guinea fowl hatching chamber			
Time point	Culture score	Titer (log ₁₀ TCID ₅₀ per ml)	<i>ompA</i> genotype
T0	4	6.75	C
T1	4	6	A
T2	4	9	A
T3	4	10.75	A
Chicken hatching chamber			
T0	4	4.25	D
T1	4	5.75	D
T2	4	5.75	D
T3	4	6.25	D

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232 Table 2. Normalized number of *ompA* copies per 5 μ l DNA extract determined by genotype-
 233 specific real-time PCR

Pharyngeal sample	Normalized number* of <i>C. psittaci ompA</i> copies		
	Genotype A	Genotype D	Genotype C
M1	3.12×10^4	1.66×10^2	Neg
M2	1.55×10^3	1.34×10^2	Neg
F1	3.60×10^6	3.60×10^5	1.23×10^2
F2	4.12×10^6	4.60×10^5	2.69×10^5

234 *The number of human beta-actin copies in the reaction was determined in order to correct for
 235 inter-sample variability due to differences in sample taking and efficiency of DNA extraction.
 236 Absolute *C. psittaci* copy numbers were then normalized to the amount of human beta-actin gene
 237 copies in each sample.

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