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1 Trichomonad parasite infection in four species of Columbidae in the UK 2 Rosie J. Lennon^{1*}, Jenny C. Dunn^{2*}, Jennifer E. Stockdale^{1,3}, Simon J. Goodman¹, 3 4 Antony J. Morris² and Keith C. Hamer¹ 5 6 ¹ School of Biology, Irene Manton Building, University of Leeds, Leeds LS9 2JT, 7 UK 8 ² RSPB, The Lodge, Potton Road, Sandy, Bedfordshire SG19 2DL, UK. 9 ³ Cardiff School of Biosciences, The Sir Martin Evans Building, Museum Avenue, 10 Cardiff CF10 3AX, UK 11 12 Running title: Trichomonas in British Columbiformes 13 14 * Correspondence authors: 15 Rosie Lennon, 16 ¹ School of Biology, , Irene Manton Building, University of Leeds, Leeds LS9 2JT, 17 UK 18 Tel: +44(0)7759 925214 19 r.j.lennon@hotmail.co.uk 20 21 Jenny Dunn, 22 ² RSPB, The Lodge, Potton Road, Sandy, Bedfordshire SG19 2DL, UK. 23 Tel: +44(0)1767 693592 24 Jenny.Dunn@rspb.org.uk

SUMMARY

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26 *Trichomonas gallinae* is an emerging pathogen in wild birds, linked to recent 27 declines in finch (Fringillidae) populations across Europe. Globally, the main 28 hosts for this parasite are species of columbiformes (doves and pigeons); here 29 we carry out the first investigation into the presence and incidence of 30 *Trichomonas* in four species of columbiformes in the UK, through live sampling of 31 wild-caught birds and subsequent PCR. We report the first known UK cases of 32 *Trichomonas* infection in columbiformes, in 86% of European Turtle Doves 33 Streptopelia turtur sampled, along with 86% of Eurasian Collared Doves 34 Streptopelia decaocto, 47% of Woodpigeons Columba palumbus and 40% of Stock 35 Doves Columba oenas. Birds sampled at farms were more likely to be infected if 36 the farm provided supplementary food for gamebirds. We found three strains of 37 *T. gallinae* and one strain clustering within the *T. tenax* clade, not previously 38 associated with avian hosts in the UK. One *T. gallinae* strain was identical at the 39 ITS/5.8S/ITS2 ribosomal region to that responsible for the finch trichomonosis 40 epidemic. We highlight the importance of increasing our knowledge of the 41 diversity and ecological implications of *Trichomonas* parasites in order further to 42 understand the sub-clinical impacts of parasite infection. 43 44 Keywords: bird-feeders, emerging diseases, farmland birds, population declines, 45 wildlife management

47	KEY I	FINDINGS
48	•	First recorded cases of trichomonad infection in Turtle Doves in the UK
49	•	High diversity of parasite strains in pigeons and doves in the UK
50	•	One strain of parasite clustered within the <i>Trichomonas tenax</i> clade, not
51		previously found in avian hosts in the UK
52	•	Parasite incidence was higher on farms providing supplementary food for
53		gamebirds
54	•	One <i>T. gallinae</i> strain was identical at the ITS/5.8S/ITS2 ribosomal region
55		to the finch trichomonosis strain
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INTRODUCTION

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58 Regrettably, there is a general paucity of studies on sub-clinical disease in wild 59 bird populations and as a result, disease ecology is not well understood 60 (Bunbury et al. 2008). In the UK, the protozoan parasite Trichomonas gallinae is 61 currently causing widespread declines in finch (Fringillidae) populations 62 (Robinson *et al.* 2010). Typically, the main hosts of the avian *Trichomonas* 63 parasite are the Columbiformes (Sansano-Maestre et al. 2009), including the 64 endangered Mauritius Pink Pigeon Columba mayeri, where it can be a major 65 factor in nestling mortality (Bunbury et al. 2007), limiting population growth 66 (Bunbury et al. 2008). Currently in the UK, the status of *T. gallinae* infection in 67 wild dove and pigeon populations is unknown but infection via garden feeders 68 has been associated with a 35% decline in Greenfinch Cardualis chloris 69 populations within a 12-month period (Robinson et al. 2010), and finch 70 trichomonosis is currently spreading across Europe (Lawson et al. 2011a). In 71 the UK, two species of columbiformes, Collared Doves Streptopelia decaocto and 72 Woodpigeons *Columba palumbus*, commonly host the *T. gallinae* parasite (as 73 diagnosed through necropsy and microscopic or microbiological confirmation; 74 Veterinary Laboratories Agency 2009) and also use garden feeders alongside 75 finches. Recent findings from Lawson et al. (2011b) identified the same strain of 76 trichomonosis in Woodpigeons as in Greenfinches. However these samples were 77 obtained from only two Woodpigeons that had died as a result of the infection in 78 2002. As yet there has been no subsequent evidence to suggest (either in 79 samples from living or deceased birds) that there is a reservoir of finch 80 trichomonosis within UK columbidae species. Stock Doves Columba oenas and 81 Turtle Doves Streptopelia turtur are less likely to feed in garden habitats and to

our knowledge there have been only twelve reported cases of *T. gallinae* infection in Stock Doves between 2002 and 2009, all diagnosed through examination of clinical histories rather than molecular or microscopic confirmation of parasite identity (Veterinary Laboratories Agency 2009) and no reported cases in Turtle Doves within the UK. Indeed, the migratory habits of Turtle Doves may lead to a reduced exposure to *Trichomonas*, as finch trichomonosis is strongly seasonal, with the highest rates between September and February (Robinson *et al.* 2010) when Turtle Doves are migrating or on wintering grounds.

T. gallinae, the protozoan causative agent of avian trichomonosis, replicates by binary fission, resulting in the formation of lesions, primarily in the gullet and respiratory tract, which can lead to death by starvation or suffocation (Stabler 1954; Sansano-Maestre et al. 2009; Robinson et al. 2010). The parasite itself has no intermediate host but can be transmitted both horizontally at shared food and water sources, and in columbiformes vertically through pigeon crop milk which is fed to young nestlings (Villanúa et al. 2006; Bunbury et al. 2007). It shows large genetic variation, with more than 15 different strains belonging to 3 clades known to infect avian species. Susceptibility and virulence varies between different strains and as a result <1% of pigeons infected by the Trichomonas parasite display clinical signs (Sansano-Maestre et al. 2009). However, subclinical infection can still lead to reduced survival (Bunbury et al. 2008) and prior infection to non-virulent isolates can also confer protection again virulent isolates (Stabler 1948). This highlights a need for surveillance of wild bird

106 populations that does not rely simply on estimating prevalence by visual 107 observation of morbidity or mortality. 108 109 Here, we aimed first to establish whether or not *T. gallinae* is present in wild 110 populations of Turtle Doves, Collared Doves, Woodpigeons and Stock Doves from 111 farmland sites across East Anglia, where Turtle Dove populations remain at 112 comparatively high densities. To our knowledge, this is the first study to 113 investigate the presence of the parasite in dove and pigeon populations in the 114 UK. Second, we sequenced a subset of positive samples to establish whether or 115 not *T. gallinae* strains infecting columbiformes sub-clinically are the same as 116 those causing finch mortality, and to advance understanding of the diversity of *T.* 117 gallinae in UK columbiformes. 118 119 120

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Oral swabs were collected from columbiformes at 12 farmland sites across
Cambridgeshire (1 site near each of Cambourne: 52° 21'N, 0° 06'W; Chrishall:
52° 03′N, 0° 10′E; Witcham: 52° 39′N, 0° 15′E; and Over: 52° 31′N, 0° 01′E), Essex
(1 site near each of Tolleshunt D'Arcy: 51° 77'N, 0° 79'E; Aldham: 51° 89'N, 0°
78'E; Marks Tey: 51° 88'N, 0° 79'E; and Silver End: 51° 85'N, 0° 62'E), Norfolk (2
sites near Hilgay: 52° 56'N, 0° 39'E) and Suffolk (2 sites near Stowmarket: 52°
19'N, 0° 99'E): we restricted sampling to these areas as Turtle Dove numbers are
declining rapidly in the UK and populations are now largely restricted to south-
east England (e.g. Dunn and Morris 2012). Adult birds were caught at temporary
bait sites using whoosh nets and large mesh mist nets (Redfern and Clarke2001)
between June and August 2011; nestlings were temporarily removed from
closely monitored nests, located by searching suitable habitat in areas known to
contain columbiformes. Birds were ringed on the leg using numbered British
Trust for Ornithology metal rings, aged where possible by reference to standard
texts (Baker 1993) and weighed using a digital balance (Satrue, Taiwan, \pm 0.1g)
The oral cavity, throat and crop were swabbed using a sterile viscose swab,
which was then inoculated in an individual InPouch TF culture kit (Biomed
Diagnostics, Oregon). The pouches were sealed to avoid cross-contamination,
and incubated at 37°C for at least 72 hours. Previous studies have indicated that
72 hours is sufficient time to allow detection of all <i>T. gallinae</i> infections, with no
further infections being detected within a further 4 days (Cover et al. 1994; Boal
et al. 1998; Bunbury et al. 2005). Accordingly, we took 72 hours as a cut-off, after
which subsequent analysis was carried out.

Parasites were isolated within a fume cupboard, using standard laboratory procedures to avoid cross-contamination and following the protocol of Riley *et* al. (1992), modified as follows. In brief, 75-100 μl of the culture was centrifuged at 900 g for 5 min at 4 °C. The resulting pellet was washed twice in 500 µl of sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) by centrifugation and then re-suspended in 200 µl of PBS. DNA was extracted from the isolated pellets using a DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions (Robinson et al. 2010). Primers TFR1 [f] and TFR2 [r] were used to target the ITS1/5.8S/ITS2 ribosomal region of the *T. gallinae* protozoan, with an expected product length of 400 bp (Robinson et al. 2010). A positive control sample was obtained from a Woodpigeon that had visible clinical signs of trichomonosis. A negative control with molecular grade water in place of DNA was also used in each PCR to confirm absence of contamination. Each PCR reaction consisted of: ~50 ng template DNA; 0.6μM forward and reverse primers; 1.5 mM MgCl₂; 0.4 mM dNTPs; 0.5U Go Taq Hot Start Polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI) and 5X PCR buffer made up to a total volume of 50 µl with molecular grade water. PCR thermal cycling was conducted as follows: 5 mins denaturation at 94 °C, then 36 cycles of 1 min at 94 °C, 30 s at 65 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, followed by 5 mins at 72 °C for final elongation (Riley et al. 1992). PCR protocols were all carried out on a Gene Amp 9700 PCR system

(Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The PCR products were electrophoresed

through a 0.8 % agarose gel in 0.5x TBE buffer, stained with ethidium bromide

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and visualised by UV light. All samples from the first PCR were screened again to confirm the presence or absence of parasites. PCR products were purified using Wizard SV Gel & PCR Clean-Up System (Promega, Madison, WI) and sequenced by GATC Biotech (London, UK) or Source BioScience (Nottingham, UK). The ITS1/5.8S/ITS2 ribosomal region of rDNA is a reliable species marker for Trichomonas spp., providing evidence of evolutionary pathways (Gaspar Da Silva et al. 2007). This region of rDNA is highly conserved with a low rate of mutation (Grabensteiner et al. 2010) therefore any sequences that were not identical to existing strains were considered to be a new strain. Forward and reverse sequences for each PCR product were trimmed and manually aligned, and assessed for sequencing errors in BioEdit (Hall 2005). The closest matching sequence to the consensus sequence for each PCR product was determined using the NCBI-BLAST database (Altschul et al. 1997). To construct a phylogenetic tree, Genbank was searched using the term "Trichomonas ITS1", and all sequences isolated from wild birds (n=33) were aligned with the four unique sequences from this study, along with representative sequences of *T. tenax, T.* vaginalis, T. canistome, and Tetratrichomonas gallinarum. The outgroup for this alignment was Trichomonas foetus isolate clone 9 (Genbank accession number DQ243911; Sansano-Maestre et al. 2009). ClustalW (Thompson et al. 1994) was used to create a full alignment of the selected sequences, following which any duplicate sequences were removed so that only unique sequences remained (n=22). The neighbour joining method was used to create a phylogenetic tree in MEGA 5.1, with genetic distance measured by the maximum composite likelihood (Tamura et al. 2011). Branch reliability was analysed using a

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bootstrap of 1000 replicates. To check the reliability of the phylogenetic tree created using the neighbour joining method, we also constructed a phylogenetic tree using the minimum evolution method, with genetic distance measured using maximum parsimony and branch reliability calculated using a bootstrap of 1000 replicates.

Ecological factors associated with *Trichomonas* infection were examined using a binomial General Linear Model (GLM) with infection status (positive or negative) as the response variable. We used the 'dredge' function in the 'MuMIn' (Bartón 2012) package in R (R Core Development Team, 2012) to fit models to all possible first-level combinations of three explanatory variables we considered likely to influence *Trichomonas* infection: species, age and gamebird feeder status (whether or not the farmat each site provided supplementary grain for gamebirds year-round). Models were ranked using the second-order Akaike's Information Criteria (AICc), which measures the goodness-of-fit of a model whilst taking into account the number of variables within each model, and penalizing models for the addition of variables. Thus, AICc selects models to maximize the goodness-of-fit whilst retaining the minimum number of explanatory variables (Burnham and Anderson 2002).

RESULTS

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Sixty samples were collected from 14 Turtle Doves, 5 Stock Doves, 7 Collared Doves and 34 Woodpigeons. 36 samples (60 %) tested positive for *Trichomonas* infection (Table 1). One top model fitted the data better than all others to predict *Trichomonas* infection status, when considering a cut off \triangle AIC < 2 (Burnham and Anderson 2002): the next best model had a \triangle AIC of 2.14. The top model contained all three predicator variables (Table 2). Confidence intervals for age and gamebird feeder status did not overlap zero, indicating strong support for the importance of these two variables in influencing *Trichomonas* infection status (Table 2). Adults were more likely to be infected than nestlings (Adults 71.4% infected, n=35; Nestlings 44% infected, n=25; Table 2), and birds sampled at sites providing food for gamebirds were more likely to be infected than those sampled at sites with no such supplementary feeding (65% infected, n=40, 6 sites and 50% infected, n=20, 6 sites, respectively; Table 2). Incidence of infection differed between species, although significant differences as denoted by non-overlapping confidence intervals were found between only Turtle Dove (85.7% infected, n=14) and Woodpigeon (47.1% infected, n=34).Twenty PCR products were sequenced from 11 Woodpigeons, 9 Turtle Doves and 1 Stock Dove, yielding 4 unique sequences (Table 3). Both phylogenetic trees agreed on branch order, and bootstrap estimates for branch reliability concurred to within 4 % (mean \pm 1 SE of the difference: 1.00 \pm 0.31 %). We present the neighbor joining tree in Figure 1 and the minimum evolution tree in Appendix 1. Sequence 1 was isolated from 8 individuals, both Woodpigeons and Turtle Doves, from sites in Essex, Suffolk and Norfolk and was identical to

Trichomonas gallinae isolate R2505 (Genbank accession number EU881917.1;
Sansano-Maestre et al. 2009). Phylogenetic analysis showed Sequence 1 to be
identical to <i>T. gallinae</i> strains C, D and E (Lawson <i>et al.</i> 2011b), all isolated from
columbiformes in the USA, Spain and Austria, and raptors in Spain and the USA
(Felleisen 1997; Gerhold et al. 2008; Sansano-Maestre et al. 2009; Grabensteiner
et al. 2010), and to fall within the same clade as one strain isolated from
passerines (a presumably captive Canary Serinus canaria domestica in Austria;
Figure 1; Grabensteiner et al. 2010). Sequence 2 was isolated from 6 individuals:
three Woodpigeons, 2 Turtle Doves and one Stock Dove, from sites in Essex,
Suffolk and Norfolk. This sequence did not match any existing <i>T. gallinae</i> strains,
but had 100% query coverage and 100% max identity to <i>Trichomonas</i> sp. AP-
2012 isolates EMD-TG2667, EMD-TG2651, PCD-TG2901 and BSD-TG2671
(Genbank accession numbers JQ030996.1, JQ030995.1, JQ0309941 and
JQ030993.1; A. Peters and S. Raidal, unpublished data). Sequence 2 falls within
the <i>T. tenax</i> clade (Figure 1) along with one sequence isolated from humans in
the USA (Felleisen 1997), and one sequence isolated from columbiformes in
Austria (Grabensteiner et al. 2010).
Sequence 3 was isolated from 4 Turtle Doves and one Woodpigeon at three sites
in Essex, and had 100% query coverage and 100% max identity to $\emph{T. gallinae}$
strain Vienna 5895-C1/06, isolated from a (presumably captive) psittaciforme in
Austria (Genbank accession number JN007005.1; Reinmann et al. 2012).
Sequence 3 was also identical to <i>T. gallinae</i> isolates XT770-05 and XT710-05,
isolated from Greenfinches Carduelis chloris and Chaffinches Fringilla coelebs
during the finch trichomonosis epidemic (Robinson et al, 2010), along with

(Kleina *et al.* 2004; Gaspar Da Silva *et al.* 2007; Gerhold *et al.* 2008; Sansano-Maestre *et al.* 2009; Grabensteiner *et al.* 2010), raptors in Europe (Sansano-Maestre *et al.* 2009), and passerines and corvids in the USA (Anderson *et al.* 2009), all classified as *T. gallinae* strain A (Lawson *et al.* 2011b). Sequence 4 was isolated from the only bird screened that showed any clinical signs of disease, a Woodpigeon sampled at a site in Essex, with a large caseous yellow lesion in the oral cavity consistent with trichomonosis. This sequence had 100% query coverage and 99% max identity to *T. gallinae* isolate P1807 (Genbank accession number EU881911.1; Sansano-Maestre *et al.* 2009), with two separate base deletions. Sequences 3 and 4 both fell within the same clade as *T. gallinae* strain B (Lawson *et al.* 2011b), isolated from raptors in the USA (Gerhold *et al.* 2008).

DISCUSSION

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We found the *Trichomonas gallinae* parasite to be present in all four columbiform species examined, confirming the first cases in Turtle Doves in the UK, with incidence at 86 %. Whilst our sample size is relatively small, samples were obtained from a wide geographic area within the current UK range of the Turtle Dove, suggesting that high levels of infection may be widespread. As we used molecular methods rather than microscopy to confirm infection, our approach seems unlikely to report false negatives; however, it is possible that we may have underestimated true infection rates. The overall incidence of *Trichomonas* infection falls within the range found by other studies: 5.6 % in Mourning Doves Zenaida macroura to 92 % in Rock Pigeons Columba livia (Villanúa et al. 2006; Sansano-Maestre et al. 2009). Woodpigeons and Stock Doves had much lower incidences of infection than Turtle Doves and Collared Doves, which both showed higher prevalence than found in previous studies of these species elsewhere (50% in Turtle Doves in Spain: Muñoz 1995; 10% for Collared Doves in Iraq: Al-Bakry 2009). Despite this difference, the incidence in Woodpigeons in our study was 22 % higher than in mainland Europe (Villanúa et al. 2006). This may be an indicator of a general increase in disease incidence or due to geographical or seasonal variation. *Trichomonas* in columbiformes tends to be more prevalent during the breeding season when temperatures are warmer and rainfall lower (Bunbury et al. 2007), partially due to increased stress and bird-bird contact at nesting sites (Sansano-

Maestre et al. 2009). In contrast, finch trichomonosis shows highest morbidity

and mortality during the winter, although levels of subclinical infection within this period are unknown (Robinson *et al.* 2010).

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We found higher incidences of Trichomonas infection on farms where supplementary food was supplied for gamebirds than on farms with no supplementary food. This supports the suggestion that such food sources may attract high densities of birds, promoting opportunities for disease transmission and dissemination (e.g. Höfle et al. 2004; Lawson et al. 2012). Although introduced gamebirds such as Pheasants Phasianus colchicus and Red-Legged Partridges Alectoris rufa are subject to Trichomonas parasites (e.g. Pennycott 1998), these species tend to be infected with *Trichomonas gallinarum* rather than *T. gallinae*. *T. gallinarum* and *T. gallinae* are found within different clades which suggests that strains may be unlikely to cross between columbiformes and galliformes at gamebird feeders. Birds in our study were primarily caught in close proximity to farmyards, which, like garden feeders, may attract sick birds, especially where supplementary food (such as that for gamebirds) is provided over extended periods. Our sample may therefore have been biased towards sick birds with restricted movement. However, all adult Turtle Doves were radiotagged (as part of another study) and displayed normal movement patterns, suggesting no increase in morbidity in this species.

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We found four strains of *Trichomonas* in UK Columbidae. Apart from one strain isolated from only one Woodpigeon, all strains were found in both Turtle Doves and Woodpigeons, with one also found in a Stock Dove, suggesting that none are species-specific, although the examination of additional genes would provide

additional corroboration of this. Sequences 1 and 2 were isolated from three counties of East Anglia, at sites up to 115km apart, suggesting these two strains are widespread. Sequences 3 and 4 were isolated only from sites in Essex, and may therefore be more localized, although further work is required to confirm this. Sequence 1 fell within the same clade as *T. gallinae* sequences from columbiformes and raptors in Europe and the USA (Felleisen 1997; Gerhold et al. 2008; Sansano-Maestre et al. 2009; Grabensteiner et al. 2010), and fell in the same clade as one strain isolated from a (presumably) captive Canary in Austria (Grabensteiner et al. 2010). This suggests this clade contains generalist and widespread avian parasites, supported by the wide geographic spread of this strain within our study sites. Interestingly, Sequence 1 is identical to a strain isolated from Collared Doves in their introduced range in the USA (Gerhold et al. 2008) suggesting that the apparently widespread nature of this strain might be linked to the spread of this invasive columbiform. Whilst the majority of UK columbiformes do not undertake long-distance migration, the exception is the Turtle Dove, which is a trans-Saharan migrant, providing an additional mechanism by which *Trichomonas* parasites could be dispersed over large distances. Sequence 2 is of particular interest, as phylogenetically it clusters not with *T.*

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Sequence 2 is of particular interest, as phylogenetically it clusters not with *T. gallinae*, but within the *T. tenax* clade, usually a parasite of humans (Cielecka *et al.* 2000). Grabenesteiner *et al.* (2010) found a '*T. tenax*-like' isolate in a Racing Pigeon *Columba livia* from Austria, and more recently, Peters and Raidal found a sequence identical to our Sequence 2 in Common Emerald Doves *Chalcophaps indica*, Zebra Doves *Geopelia striata* and Bar-Shouldered Doves *Geopelia*

humeralis in Australasia (A. Peters and S. Raidal, unpubl. data). Thus, the finding of this strain in UK columbiformes is not unprecedented, although this suggests that this strain may be extremely widespread geographically. The Collared Dove is a relatively recent addition to UK avifauna, spreading from India through a natural range expansion and it is plausible that this species may have brought *Trichomonas* strains with it, especially as it is known to carry *Trichomonas* parasites in its introduced range in North America (Stimmelmayr et al. 2012), along with its native range (e.g. Romagosa and Labisky 2000; Al-Bakry 2009). However, further analysis of strains across the range of this species would be required to confirm this. The pathogenicity of this novel strain is unknown (and it may be a pathogenic strain sampled prior to lesion development): controlled infections would be required to assess this as prior infection with a non-virulent strain can lead to sub-clinical infection by a virulent strain that would otherwise cause clinical signs, confounding correlative observations (Stabler 1948). The only bird within our study with macroscopic lesions in the oral cavity at the time of sampling, was a Woodpigeon that later died as a result of infection. Although the clinical signs were consistent with trichomonosis (a large caseous yellow lesion was visible in the oral cavity), no post-mortem was carried out so the cause of death could not be confirmed, and other lesion-forming diseases could not be excluded. This bird was infected by Sequence 4, which falls within the same clade as *T. gallinae* genotype, a strain similar to that responsible for the finch trichomonosis epidemic in the UK (Lawson et al. 2011b). Sansano-Maestre et al. (2009) found that only birds carrying this genotype had visible clinical signs (referred to as genotype B in this paper), so this outcome runs in

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trichomonosis (regurgitated seed and saliva around the beak and a fetid smell, although no visible oral lesions), was found during September 2011: its sibling showed no clinical signs and both were depredated prior to fledging. This nestling was infected by Sequence 3, which falls within the same clade as Sequence 4. Sequence 3 is identical at the ITS1/5.8S/ITS2 ribosomal region to that isolated from Greenfinches Carduelis chloris and Chaffinches Fringilla coelebs during the UK finch trichomonosis epidemic (Robinson et al. 2010). It would be beneficial for further work to examine other functional genes such as the iron hydrogenase gene, to determine whether this strain is in fact the same as the epidemic strain (Robinson et al. 2010; Lawson et al. 2011b). If so, then this would lend support to the suggestion that the finch trichomonosis epidemic was a result of parasite spillover from columbiformes to new host species at shared feeding stations (Robinson et al. 2010; Lawson et al. 2012). Given that this nestling showed clinical signs of trichomonosis, further work should also investigate the potential implications of *Trichomonas* infection for this rapidly declining dove. In the UK, Turtle Doves are a species of particular conservation concern as the population has declined by 80% between 1995 and 2010 (Risely et al. 2012). During this period of population decline Turtle Doves have halved their number

of nesting attempts per pair, thought to be a result of food stress (Browne and

Aebischer 2003). Compared to other UK columbiformes (that feed on a variety

of weed seeds, buds, shoots and occasionally invertebrates) Turtle Doves are

ecologically unique: firstly in that they rely solely on seed food throughout the

accordance with previous findings. A Turtle Dove nestling with clinical signs of

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Comment [KCH1]: 'predated' means 'occurred at an earlier time'

year; and secondly in that they are migratory. Increased agricultural efficiency has reduced the availability of arable weeds and consequently the seeds upon which this species relies (Murton et al. 1964). This in turn has driven a dietary switch from weed seeds to cereals and an increased reliance on anthropogenic food sources such as grain tailings in farmyards (Browne and Aebischer 2003), which is likely to increase the density of foraging birds and thus increase the transmission of *Trichomonas* parasites. Increased food stress can decrease immune function (Lindström et al. 2005), inducing chronic stress in birds (Clinchy et al. 2004) and can subsequently increase levels of parasitaemia for blood parasite infections (Appleby et al. 1999). Whether the same mechanism applies to Trichomonas infection is speculative and requires further investigation. Migratory stress has also been postulated to increase susceptibility to Trichomonas infection (Villanúa et al. 2006) and thus may also contribute to the high levels of infection found in this species. In summary, we have provided the first evidence as to the status of *Trichomonas* infection within Columbidae in the UK. We found a high incidence in both Turtle

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In summary, we have provided the first evidence as to the status of *Trichomonas* infection within Columbidae in the UK. We found a high incidence in both Turtle Doves and Collared Doves, although our sample size is relatively small. Despite this, we found a high diversity in parasite strains, with four unique sequences falling within three different phylogenetic clades: two of *T. gallinae* and one of a *T. tenax*-like strain, which appears to be geographically widespread. We found a higher incidence of infection at farms providing food for gamebirds, suggesting that supplementary feeding may increase disease transmission in farmland environments (although transmission from gamebirds to Columbidae appears unlikely), as well as at garden feeders postulated to lead to transmission of finch

427	trichomonosis. One of the sequences isolated from Turtle Doves and
428	Woodpigeons is identical at the ITS/5.8S/ITS2 ribosomal region to that
429	responsible for the finch epidemic, although sequencing at other genes is needed
430	in order to confirm whether this is the same strain. Overall, this work highlights
431	the need to extend our knowledge of the diversity and ecological implications of
432	Trichomonas parasites to develop effective management strategies for
433	vulnerable host species.
434	
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443	license from the Home Office.
444	
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Table 1. Incidence and numbers of birds found to be carrying *Trichomonas* in each species, shown within two age categories. Numbers in the table show % infected along with total sample size within each species and age group. WP= Woodpigeon; CD= Collared Dove; SD= Stock Dove; TD= Turtle Dove.

6	2	9

630	Incidence (%)	WP	CD	SD	TD
631	Adult	57.9 (19)	86.0 (7)	50.0 (2)	100 (7)
632	Nestling	33.3 (15)	n/a	33.3 (3)	71.4 (7)
633	Total	47.1 (34)	86.0 (7)	40 (5)	85.7 (14)

Table 2. Model estimates from the top model examining ecological factors predicting *Trichomonas* infection. Estimates and 95% CIs for factors are for the factor stated compares to a reference factor (Age: Adult; Gamebird: Fed; Species: Collared Dove)

6	4	1
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	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
Intercept	2.861	0.320	5.401
Age (Nestling)	-1.547	-2.957	-0.138
Gamebird (Un-Fed)	-1.532	-3.055	-0.009
Species (Stock Dove)	-1.476	-4.490	1.537
Species (Turtle Dove)	0.810	-2.190	3.811
Species (Woodpigeon)	-1.960	-4.479	0.560

Table 3. Details of sequenced *Trichomonas* samples providing the sequence number from this study, closest Genbank match to each sample (detailing maximum identity and query coverage), along with the location and age of bird. Species abbreviations are as in the legend to Table 1. Superscript number following Genbank sequences indicates citation for that sequence, where 1: Sansano-Maestre *et al.* 2009; 2: Peters and Raidal, unpublished data; and 3: Reinmann *et al.* 2012.

EU881917.1¹

EU881917.1¹

EU881917.1¹

JQ030996.1²

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100

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648	ID	Location	Species	Age	Sequence	Closest Genbank match	Max ident	Query coverage
649	1	Essex	TD	Nestling	1	EU881917.1 ¹	100	100
650	2	Essex	TD	Adult	1	EU881917.1 ¹	100	100
651	3	Essex	WP	Nestling	1	EU881917.1 ¹	100	100
652	4	Essex	WP	Nestling	1	EU881917.1 ¹	100	100
653	5	Norfolk	WP	Adult	1	EU881917.1 ¹	100	100

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Essex

Essex

Suffolk

Essex

WP

WP

WP

TD

Adult

Adult

Adult

Adult

1

1

1

658	10	Essex	TD	Adult	2	JQ030996.1 ²	100	100
659	11	Suffolk	SD	Nestling	2	JQ030996.1 ²	100	100
660	12	Norfolk	WP	Adult	2	JQ030996.1 ²	100	100
661	13	Suffolk	WP	Adult	2	JQ030996.1 ²	100	100
662	14	Suffolk	WP	Adult	2	JQ030996.1 ²	100	100
663	15	Essex	TD	Adult	3	JN007005.1 ³	100	100
664	16	Essex	TD	Adult	3	JN007005.1 ³	100	100
665	17	Essex	TD	Nestling	3	JN007005.1 ³	100	100
666	18	Essex	TD	Nestling	3	JN007005.1 ³	100	100
667	19	Essex	WP	Adult	3	JN007005.1 ³	100	100
668	20	Essex	WP	Adult	4	EU881911.1 ¹	99	100

Figure 1. Phylogenetic analysis using the neighbour joining method and ITS1/5.8s rRNA/ITS2 sequences of *Trichomonas* spp. found within this study in comparison to those published in Genbank. Sequences are labelled by Genbank accession number and *Trichomonas* species/strain. Information in brackets indicates the species or family from which the strain was isolated along with geographic location (where available) and a numerical citation. Genetic distance is by maximum composite likelihood and branch reliability is shown as a percentage. Sequences obtained from this study are shown as, 'Sequence X'. 0.05 scale bar: substitutions (corrected) per bp. Species abbreviations are as in the legend to Table 1. Citations are as follows: 1: Grabensteiner *et al.* 2010; 2: Gerhold *et al.* 2008; 3: Cielecka *et al.* 2000; 4: Felleisen 1997; 5: Xiao *et al.* 2006; 6: Walker *et al.* 2006; 7: Crespo *et al.* 2001; 8: Kutisova *et al.* 2005; 9: Duboucher *et al.* 2006.

686 Figure in separate file

Appendix 1. Phylogenetic analysis using the minimum evolution method and ITS1/5.8s rRNA/ITS2 sequences of *Trichomonas* spp. found within this study in comparison to those published in Genbank. Sequences are labelled by Genbank accession number and *Trichomonas* species/strain. Information in brackets indicates the species or family from which the strain was isolated along with geographic location (where available) and a numerical citation. Genetic distance is by maximum composite likelihood and branch reliability is shown as a percentage. Sequences obtained from this study are shown as, 'Sequence X'. 0.05 scale bar: substitutions (corrected) per bp. Species abbreviations are as in the legend to Table 1. Citations are as in the legend to Figure 1.

Figure in separate file