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Review Article

Global prevalence and some other important aspects of Argas persicus (Ixodida-Argasidae) in commercial poultry farms – a mini review

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ABSTRACT

Tick infestations can have negative impacts on the poultry industry, especially on broiler and egg-laying hens. Controlling ectoparasites is critical to maintain farm biosafety, and a lack of control increases the risk of poultry-related health problems and economic losses. There are two types of ticks: hard ticks and soft ticks. Among soft ticks, *Argas* ticks are very important because they are found all over the world and help in the transmission of many diseases. *Argas (A.) persicus* is of zoonotic importance and acts as a reservoir and vector for many diseases. It affects poultry and humans and causes major economic losses. It has four life cycle stages: egg, larvae, nymph (5 stages), and adults. The present review aims to outline the global distribution of *A. persicus* as well as major issues, related symptoms, and control methods in poultry production. Therefore, there is a need to disclose and approach the impacts of the species and the ways used to control it worldwide as a way of taking information to the places that are affected by or will suffer from this tick.

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Introduction

Poultry is the major group of livestock and comprises 30% or more of all proteins from animals. Poultry production is mostly of the commercial type, which accounts for 20% of the entire poultry productivity. Poultry takes the place of a huge number of domestic animal reserves all over the world. Poultry plays an important role in meat production, with backyard flocks converging both

in developing and advanced countries (Abdisa and Tagesu 2017). In Nepal, poultry plays a major role in the agriculture production system, contributing 4% to the national GDP (Poudel et al. 2021). Poultry meat is a good source of animal protein all over the world due to its low cost, nutrient density, and affinity (Shah et al. 2021). In Pakistan, the contribution of poultry to the national GDP is 1.3%

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(Hussain et al. 2015). Pakistan's broiler production (1163 million per year) is ranked 11th all over the world (Zahid et al. 2021). Poultry meat production has become the foremost meat industry globally. All over the world, it was estimated that poultry meat production during 2005–2050 would increase by 121%. The US has become the number one poultry meat producer in the world (Chowdhury and Morey 2019). According to the CDC's 2020 report, Americans ate more chicken per year than any other meat in 2020 (CDC 2020).

A large number of parasitic species affect poultry birds which broadly classified in to endoparasites and ectoparasites (Naqvi et al. 2017). Ectoparasites are parasites that live outside of the body of the host, and their purpose is to harm their host (Mahmoud et al. 2021). Ticks, mites, blackflies, fleas, mosquitoes, and blowflies are ectoparasites. These parasites are associated with poultry infections, and as a result, humans face major socioeconomic losses (Wanzala 2017). Ticks are the main vectors and reservoirs of many zoonotic pathogens (Feng et al. 2019). These losses are caused by pathogens, mostly i.e., spirochetes, viruses, bacteria, protozoa, and rickettsia (Wanzala 2017). All these pathogens cause major zoonotic infections, and the most efficient and harmful type of arthropod vectors are ticks because their feeding periods are very long and they can deceive the host immune system very easily (Hurtado and Giraldo-Ríos 2018). The digestive system is absent in ticks, which means ticks can disperse more infectious agents than other hematophagous arthropods (Wanzala 2017). In poultry, ticks, mites, and lice cause anemia by taking blood from the host and also act as mechanical vectors for certain viruses and bacterial microbes (Aljoburi 2019). Ectoparasites in poultry birds cause anemia, decrease growth and decrease egg laying which may lead to death (Kebede et al. 2017). The growing number of poultry, the production of ideal conditions of warmth and moisture, special methods of extraction of the litter, the addition of water to the mixed feed, and many other factors provide a suitable environment for the development of ectoparasites (Paliy et al. 2018). Birds have a huge potential for passive proliferation of organisms, particularly parasitic species such as ticks (Loss et al. 2016). In China, seven species of Argas have been discovered, but pathogens spread by soft ticks are very rare (Feng et al. 2019). Even though three genera of ticks are considered valid by all grouping plans, two of them (Ornithodoros and Argas) have medical and veterinary significance (Rahmani et al. 2023). Argasid ticks affect avian species during feeding by blood meal and cause weight loss, decreased egg production, and anemia (Ouchene et al. 2020).

Argas is also called the soft tick, and 61 species have been discovered in this genus. In Pakistan, it has four distinct species: *A. persicus*, *A. rousetti*, *A.*

abdussalami, and A. reflexus. Argas ticks have the capacity to lessen dehydration and invade the diapause phase. Their larvae feed slowly and stick to their host for 5-10 days. Each life stage takes a blood uptake to convert into molt. Nymphs feed many times and convert into adult females or males (Zahid et al. 2021). On the American continent, A. persicus is present in acrid and subtropical environmental conditions but absent at tropical altitudes (Muñoz-Leal et al. 2018). It is an external parasite of arboriform nesting aviaries, native to Central Asia, but due to associations between human activities and poultry farming, this species has the ability to infect domestic fowl (Monti et al. 2023). A. persicus is frequently recognized as fowl tick, commonly associated with domestic birds' farms, mainly domestic chickens, and it causes huge economic losses (Pfäffle and Petney 2017). It is widely distributed all over the world and found in distinct climate zones (Rahmani et al. 2023). Natural cavities and artificial nest boxes may act as a source of parasites, which means the nests of hole-breeding birds favour the study of external parasites, their species habitat necessities, and their life stages. The expansion of data and studies over the years has shown that this tick is present in most aviaries and is considered a potential pest (Veiga and Valera 2020). Therefore, there is a need to disclose and approach the impacts of the species and the ways used to control it worldwide as a way of taking information to the places that suffer or will suffer from this tick. This review aims to describe the global distribution of the species of A. persicus as well as major issues, related symptoms, and control methods in poultry production.

Argas (A.) persicus

In 1818, Lorenz Oken first reported *A. persicus* in Meyaneh, Persia, but now it is found all over the world, particularly in warmer areas because it has a close alliance with *Gallus domesticus*. This tick has a nocturnal habit, so it cannot be recognized during the day. Its body color is also similar to their hiding places (Mallesh et al. 2017).

Eggs

The shape of eggs is spherical or oval with openings (slit-like) (Fig. 1). Its diameter, length, and width are $418\pm11.1\mu m$, $399.5\pm0.5\mu m$ and $452.5\pm10\mu m$ respectively (Montasser 2006, 2010; Mallesh et al. 2017).

Larvae

Two leaf-like valves protect the vertical slit of larvae; each valve has a prolonged, pointed sensillum (Fig. 1). The tarsus of the first two legs consists of Haller's organ, which comprises the former pit and the latter capsule (Montasser 2006; Mallesh et al. 2017). The former pit is circular in shape and has sensilla (7), whereas the latter capsule has dorsal

apertures (20). Seven sensilla are rough and have no holes, grooves, or divisions (Mallesh et al. 2017).

Adult

The dorsal surface has mammillatiors (a disc-like area). Mouth parts have basis capitulam, hypostome, palps, mechano-sensilla, and chelicera (Fig. 1). The tarsus of all legs contains the pulvillus, bottom stalk, and claws (2) (Soulsby 1982;

Montasser 2010; Mallesh et al. 2017). The shape of genital aperture in males and females is semicircular and horizontal, respectively. The ventral surface of both sexes has two leaf-like valves, and every valve consists of five or more pointed sensilla. Anus is covered by a hard cuticle (Kakarsulemankhel 2010; Mallesh et al. 2017).

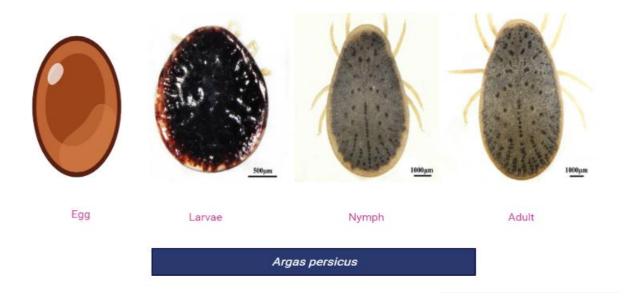


Fig 1: Larvae, nymph and adult seen at 500μm and 1000μm, respectively. *A. persicus* appears yellowish-brown when starved and slatey-blue when engorged. As an adult, it is 6 to 9mm long and a tan to reddish color before it feeds. After it feeds, it turns into a bluish color, hence the nickname given to the pest, 'Blue bug' (Retrived from biorender)

Global distribution of A. persicus

A. persicus is spread all over the world, which includes Africa (e.g., Egypt, Zimbabwe, Algeria, Kenya, Senegal, Kenya), Europe (Italy), Asia (Turkey, Iran), Australia, and 21 American countries (Reeves et al. 2002; Petney et al. 2004; Sylla et al. 2004; Abdel-Shafy 2005; Nava et al. 2007; Mungube et al. 2008; Dube et al. 2010; Pantaleoni et al. 2010; Cutler et al. 2012; Barker and Walker 2014; Koc et al. 2015; Davari et al. 2017; Lafri et al. 2018; Muñoz-Leal et al. 2018). One study also proves that A. persicus is present in Jeddah's farm in Saudi Arabia and causes huge problems in the poultry industry (Alzahrani and Edrees 2019). A. persicus is also found in Algeria, where it lives most closely with domestic chickens (Rahmani et al. 2023). In Algeria, it is found in

Mostaganen Annaba (coastal and areas). Tamanrasset (Sahara region) and Setif, M'sila, Medea, and Guelma (inland areas) (Lafri et al. 2017, 2018; Boucheikhchoukh et al. 2018; Ouchene et al. 2020; Nahal et al. 2021). In one study, A. persicus was also collected from KP, Pakistan, where it was present in domestic fowl (Zahid et al. 2021). At very low temperatures, A. persicus is found in very small quantities worldwide (Uspensky 2008). Peshawar and Lakki Marwat are favorable regions for A. persicus because their climate is moderate. In tropical and subtropical areas, it is found in hightemperature and high-humidity environments (Hoogstraal and Kim 1985; Uspensky 2008; Sonenshine and Roe 2013; Ali et al. 2019). In China, A. persicus is present in Qinghai, Anhui, Inner Mongolia, and Gansu (Chen et al. 2010; Duan et al. 2022). In one experiment, A. persicus is collected from chickens in Gansu's city of Jinqua, China, to study of the life cycle stages of A. persicus.

This study reveals that bacterial diversity in larvae and nymphs is higher than that of adults (Duan et al. 2022). Domestic and wild birds can become hosts for a large number of ticks, and their environment can become favorable for tick exchange. In Kalmykia and Russia, birds come close to poultry species during their egg-laying season and exchange ticks with them (Yatsuk et al. 2023).

Impact on host

A. persicus causes stress in birds by sucking blood (Zahid et al. 2021). Heavy infestation of ticks affects bird production capacity, e.g., decreasing weight gain, number of eggs, weight of eggs, and mortality in birds compared to uninfested birds. A. persicus causes paralysis in poultry birds (chicken) (Alzahrani and Edrees 2019). An experiment on A. persicus on chicken species in Egypt shows that one tick can feed 32/50 or 33/50 male or female chicks at a time. At one feeding, 0.06mg of blood is consumed by a pair of ticks, and 1.9kg of plasma protein loss occurs in chickens. In a year, total 57kg of blood and 2.1kg of plasma protein loss occur in one chicken with one feeding by a pair of A. persicus

(El Kammah et al. 2002). According to a study on A. persicus in chickens in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, A. persicus causes 19% body weight loss in chickens, and it also decreases HCT (52%), WBC (32%), RBC (52%), and HGB (38%), the parameters of blood in chickens, compared to tick-free chicken species (Alzahrani and Edrees 2020). A. persicus lays 900-1000 eggs in cracks and crevices in poultry sheds that hatch within 10 days. The young ticks tie themselves to the outside of the bird's body, where they take blood. The favorite side of attachment is naked area, below the wings of the birds. Throughout the day, it mainly lives in the cracks of the poultry house. Its nymphs get attached to the poultry birds from 3–10 days, then they start to fall off, drop their skin, and come out as adults (Ware and Warren 2022). The natural environment for this poultry associated tick was examined in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, and five nymphal stages were observed prior to the arrival of adults. The life cycle (egg to egg) is finished within 113 to 132 days with a temperature range of 33 ± 3°C and a moisture level of $65 \pm 5\%$ (Fig. 2) (Zahid et al. 2021).

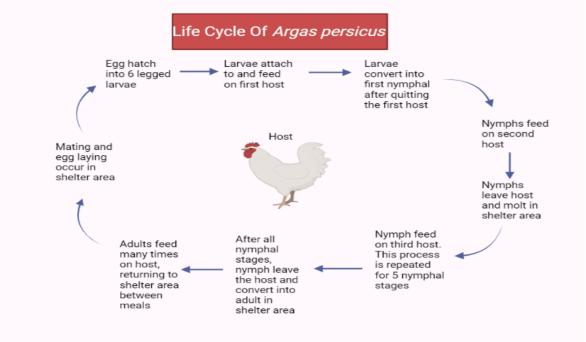


Fig. 2: Life cycle of *A. persicus* (Retrived from biorender)

A. persicus: as a vector and reservoir

A. persicus transmits various pathogens such as Salmonella pullorum, Mycoplasma gallisepticum, Mycoplasma meleagridis, Salmonella gallinarum,

Aegyptianella pullorum, avian encephalomyelitis, avian leucocytozoonosis, West Nile virus, and Borrelia anserine (Fig. 3, 4) (Khater et al. 2013; Chegeni and Tavakoli 2018; Hurtado and Giraldo-Ríos 2018; Ouchene et al. 2020; Yatsuk et al. 2023).

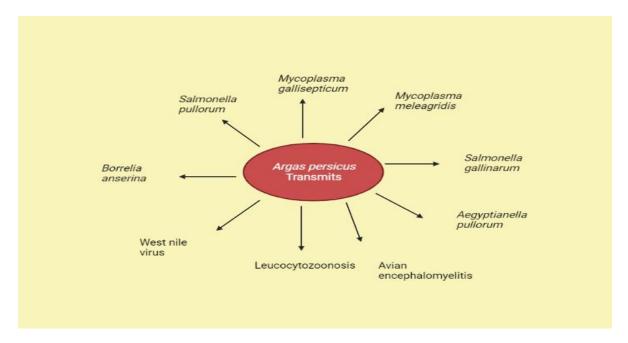


Fig. 3: Major pathogens and diseases transmitted by A. persicus (Retrived from biorender)

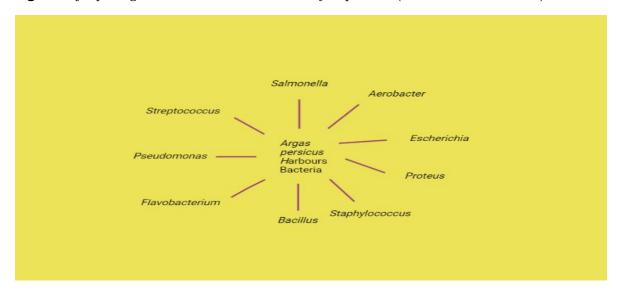


Fig. 4: A. persicus harbours bacteria (Retrived from biorender)

Control of A. persicus

There are some factors that support the dispersal of ticks on poultry farms. There are poor management policies, inefficient washing and disinfection, overcrowding, impoverished house, poor furniture patterns, and retarded treatment. Ectoparasites can be controlled on poultry farms by different techniques such as cultural control, mechanical control, chemical control, genetic control, biological control, and assimilated pest control (Onyekachi 2021). Absolute control of *A. persicus* is tough, however, if nests, feeders, poultry houses, and roosts are treated with carbolineum, then it will be the best way to control the ticks. The poultry house

can be free of these ticks if two or more consecutive sprayings are performed with an interval of 10 days. Before buying, the birds and poultry house should be checked for ticks (Ware and Warren 2022).

Peracetic acid (PAA) and deltamethrin (DMT) can also be used against *A. persicus* larvae by dipping. PPA is a more potent acaricide for larvae than DMT. After 4 weeks, larvae are completely killed with DMT. PPA and DMT inhibit molting effects by 28 and 52%, respectively. 0.5% concentration of PPA can kill larvae (100%) within 2 minutes, and at this concentration, chickens do not show any respiratory or inflammatory signs, but with 0.005%

concentration of DMT, chickens show coughing, ocular inflammation, and sneezing (temporarily) (Khater et al. 2013).

Ivermectin and Fipronil can also be used for tick control in poultry. Ivermectin is more effective than fipronil. Ivermectin (0.2% mg/kg oral) and Fipronil (spray) effects on the ticks at 28th day are 93.9 and 77.8%, respectively (Khalid et al. 2017). Different acaricides are used for tick control in poultry, but these cause environmental pollution resistance, so other methods are used for tick control (Abbas et al. 2014). One of them is the application ofMetarhizium anisopliae fungus) that (entomopathogenic affects hatching ability and causes mortality of larvae and adult females of A. persicus. Larvae are killed (92-100%) by M. anisopliae species at 103 and 104 conidia/ml concentrations. Treated overfed females are easily killed (100%) at 107 conidia/ml concentration after 18 days of this treatment compared to starving females (Pourseyed et al. 2010). Extracts of Consolida orientalis (Ranunculaceae) plants have the best acaricidal effect on A. persicus larvae by the dipping method. This plant causes 100% mortality at the minimum concentration (Ghanbarpour et al. 2019). Beauveria bassiana (an entomopathogenic fungus) also has an acaricidal effect on overfed females of A. persicus. It affects the reproduction, locomotion, and viability of ticks, and damage their tissues and DNA structure. At 106 conidia/ml concentration, the mortality rate of females ranges almost from 3.3-13.3% within 3 weeks; however, at 10¹⁰ conidia/ml, mortality rate is almost 6.7-80% (Baioumy et al. 2021). Lufox (10ul/tick, topically) is used against the adult (female) and nymphal stages of A. persicus. Its effect is increased by increasing its concentration. It is toxic for A. persicus as it affects the fecundity of the female and causes mortality of the second nymphal stage (100% at 150 ppm). It also affects the legs of nymphs, which affect their locomotion (Bakr et al. 2018). It proves that the A. persicus restriction is a significant matter so, there is a requirement to apply biological control techniques as an option or as complementary procedure in control methods for ticks (Rivaz et al. 2015).

Conclusion

Although several studies report visible problems that *A. persicus* causes in birds production, especially in commercial birds, its real impact is still to be defined and studied. As seen in this review, problems have been reported with these tick species for decades. Therefore, understanding of how the infestation caused by these ectoparasites can affect layer and broiler birds and how to control this pest is crucial to reduce losses in poultry production. Studies have already shown the possible resistance of the species to the acaricidal and biological products used in commercial poultry

houses. Control and monitoring measures for young birds are important to reduce the risk of the species' presence in laying birds. Therefore, further studies on these species and their population dynamics are required to develop biological control, eliminate these species and reduce the negative effects of these ticks on the poultry industry.

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