

1 Title: A two-year study on the phenology, host and habitat associations, and pathogens of *Haemaphysalis*  
2 *longicornis* in Virginia, U.S.A.

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19 Abstract:

20           Understanding the abiotic and biotic variables affecting tick populations is essential for studying  
21 the biology and health risks associated with vector species. We conducted a study on the phenology of  
22 exotic *Haemaphysalis longicornis* (Asian longhorned tick) at a site in Albemarle County, Virginia. We  
23 assessed the importance of available wildlife hosts, habitats, and microclimate variables such as  
24 temperature, relative humidity, and wind speed on this exotic tick's presence and abundance. In addition,  
25 we determined the prevalence of selected tick-borne pathogens potentially transmitted by *H. longicornis*.  
26 We determined that the seasonal activity of *H. longicornis* was slightly different from previous studies in  
27 the northeastern United States. We observed nymphal ticks persist year-round but were most active in the  
28 spring, followed by a peak in adult activity in the summer and larval activity in the fall seasons. We also  
29 observed a lower probability of detecting *H. longicornis* in field habitats and the summer months. In  
30 addition, we detected *H. longicornis* on several wildlife hosts, including coyote (*Canis latrans*), eastern  
31 cottontail (*Sylvilagus floridanus*), raccoon (*Procyon lotor*), Virginia opossum (*Didelphis virginiana*),  
32 white-tailed deer (*Odocoileus virginianus*), woodchuck (*Marmota monax*), and a *Peromyscus* sp. This is  
33 the first detection of this tick on a rodent host important to the epidemiology of tick-borne pathogens of  
34 humans and animals. Finally, we continued to detect the exotic piroplasm parasite, *Theileria orientalis*  
35 Ikeda, in *H. longicornis* as well as other pathogens, including *Rickettsia felis*, *Anaplasma*  
36 *phagocytophilum* (AP-1), and a *Hepatozoon* sp. previously characterized in *Amblyomma americanum*.  
37 These represent some of the first detections of arthropod-borne pathogens native to the United States in  
38 host-seeking *H. longicornis*. These data increase our understanding of *H. longicornis* biology in the  
39 United States and provide valuable information into the future health risks associated with this tick and  
40 pathogens.

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42 Key Words: *Haemaphysalis longicornis*, phenology, seasonal abundance, host associations, habitat  
43 associations

44

45 Introduction:

46 The seasonal abundance of tick populations has implications for pathogen transmission to humans  
47 and animals. Abiotic factors, habitat conditions, and the presence of host species acting as tick hosts and  
48 pathogen reservoirs all strongly influence the risk of transmission (Gleim et al., 2014; MacDonald, 2018).  
49 In addition, understanding habitat preferences of ticks coupled with presence/absence data of different  
50 species can provide critical information to identify high-risk regions for certain tick-borne diseases.  
51 Therefore, data on the peak activity periods and habitat preferences of tick species are needed to better  
52 understand the seasonal risk for pathogen transmission and the deployment of tick mitigation strategies.

53 In the United States, the biology for most native tick species relevant to human and companion  
54 animal health are well studied. However, the recent widespread detections of exotic *Haemaphysalis*  
55 *longicornis* (Asian longhorned tick) in the United States raise concern for native and exotic tick-borne  
56 pathogen transmission, warranting further investigation (Beard et al., 2018; Hutcheson et al., 2018).  
57 Native to East Asia, *H. longicornis* has been introduced into multiple regions of the world, including  
58 Australia, New Zealand, and now the United States, where it is a recognized One Health concern (Beard  
59 et al., 2018; Heath, 2020; Hoogstraal et al., 1968). Although *H. longicornis* was first detected outside of  
60 quarantine zones in New Jersey in late 2017, an examination of archived ticks indicated this species has  
61 been in the United States since as early as 2010 in West Virginia (Beard et al., 2018; Rainey et al., 2018).  
62 Recent molecular analysis indicates that at least three females of different lineages were introduced (Egizi  
63 et al., 2020). To date, *H. longicornis* has been detected in multiple states in the eastern United States and  
64 has been found on many different hosts species raising concerns for potential pathogen transmission  
65 between humans, domestic animals, and wildlife species (Beard et al., 2018; Duncan et al., 2020; Tufts et  
66 al., 2019; USDA-APHIS-VS, 2021; White et al., 2020).

67 Many studies regarding the biology and seasonal abundance of *H. longicornis* have been  
68 conducted within its established range outside of the United States (Heath, 2016; Zheng et al., 2012).  
69 Generally, *H. longicornis* life stages follow a seasonal trend where adults are active in the summer,  
70 followed by a peak in larvae in the fall with nymphal ticks overwintering and becoming active again in

71 the spring. Currently, few phenology and habitat association studies for *H. longicornis* have been  
72 completed in the United States (Bickerton et al., 2020; Piedmonte et al., 2020; Tufts et al., 2020a, 2019).  
73 While the life stage trends follow what has previously been reported outside of the United States, these  
74 studies were short term or situated in suburban areas and were limited to the northern regions of the  
75 recognized *H. longicornis* range in the United States. Thus, additional work on long-term seasonal trends  
76 in areas with a greater diversity of hosts is needed to better understand the phenology and habitat and host  
77 associations of *H. longicornis* in the United States.

78 In addition to phenological studies, there are few data on the abundance and diversity of  
79 pathogens in *H. longicornis* in the United States. Most recently, a study from Pennsylvania has detected  
80 *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu stricto (causative agent for Lyme Disease) in a single *H. longicornis* (Price et  
81 al., 2021). Another study tested host-seeking ticks in Virginia and detected an exotic cattle pathogen,  
82 *Theileria orientalis* Ikeda strain (Thompson et al., 2020b). Finally, a study from New York using a  
83 shotgun sequencing approach failed to detect any bacterial or viral pathogens from *H. longicornis* (Tufts  
84 et al., 2020b). However, within its established range outside of the United States, *H. longicornis* is  
85 associated with numerous pathogens of both human and veterinary concern including *Anaplasma*,  
86 *Theileria*, *Babesia*, and spotted fever group *Rickettsia* spp. (Hong et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2016; Lee et  
87 al., 2003; Lee and Chae, 2010; Lu et al., 2013; Sivakumar et al., 2014; Watts et al., 2016). Although the  
88 role that this tick will play in the transmission of native tick-borne pathogens is currently unclear, the  
89 introduction of *H. longicornis* to the United States is of great concern to human and veterinary health as it  
90 could potentially alter the dynamics of endemic diseases and enable the transmission and potential  
91 establishment of exotic pathogens.

92 This study aims to obtain data on the phenology, habitat, and host associations for *H. longicornis*  
93 and the prevalence of selected pathogens in host-seeking *H. longicornis* relevant to both public and  
94 veterinary perspectives. To accomplish this, a multi-year study at a single site in rural Virginia was  
95 conducted where ticks were systematically collected from the environment and wildlife hosts.

96 Methods:

97 *General*

98 Wildlife and ticks were sampled seasonally at a 109-acre cattle operation with a known *H.*  
99 *longicornis* infestation in Albemarle County, Virginia, from May 2019 to September 2020. This site also  
100 previously experienced cattle mortalities caused by the exotic intraerythrocytic parasite *Theileria*  
101 *orientalis* Ikeda genotype (Oakes et al., 2019). Approximately 72% of the property is a mixture of cow-  
102 calf beef cattle grazing and hay production pastures, 25% is a small plot of hardwood forest with a high  
103 mixed brush understory. The remaining 3% consists of owner residences. The surrounding properties are  
104 of similar habitats used for pastures or crops. To investigate seasonal phenology for *H. longicornis*, host  
105 and habitat associations, we conducted two 5-day sampling periods during May (spring) and September  
106 (fall) (rodent trapping and environmental sampling), and a 12-day sampling period during July for the  
107 summer season (rodent, meso-mammal, and environmental sampling). All collected ticks are stored in  
108 70% ethanol for morphologic identification using published keys (Clifford et al., 1961; Cooley and Kohls,  
109 1944; Durden and Keirans, 1996; Egizi et al., 2019; Keirans and Litwak, 1989; Walker, 2000). Suspect *H.*  
110 *longicornis* were confirmed using molecular techniques as described (Thompson et al., 2020a).

111 *Wildlife sampling*

112 Rodents and meso-mammals were trapped using methods as described (White et al., 2020).  
113 Briefly, Sherman box traps (H. B. Sherman Inc., Tallahassee, FL) baited with peanut butter cereal were  
114 used for rodents, and Havahart cage traps (Woodstream Corporation, Lititz, PA) baited with either canned  
115 dog food or sardines were used for meso-mammals such as Virginia opossums (*Didelphis virginiana*) and  
116 raccoons (*Procyon lotor*). Traps were preferentially placed in areas to avoid tampering by cattle and to  
117 maximize capture success. Rodents were trapped during all sampling periods, but meso-mammals were  
118 only trapped during the summer sampling period. Other wildlife species, such as white-tailed deer  
119 (*Odocoileus virginianus*), coyote (*Canis latrans*), reptiles, and amphibians were opportunistically  
120 sampled when available (e.g., vehicle collision or manual capture). All meso-mammals except for small  
121 rodent species and Virginia opossums were immobilized prior to tick collection using the premixed  
122 combination of nalbuphine (40 mg/ml), azaperone (10 mg/ml), and medetomidine (10 mg/ml) (NalMed;

123 ZooPharm, Laramie, Wyoming USA) administered by intramuscular (IM) injection (0.3 mg/kg).  
124 Anesthetized animals were reversed with 0.6 mg atipamezole/kg and 0.15 mg naltrexone/kg (ZooPharm)  
125 IM and released at the site of capture after recovery. All animal capture and handling techniques were  
126 reviewed and approved by the University of Georgia's Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee  
127 (A2018 06-027).

### 128 *Environmental sampling*

129 Tick drags were conducted during the same sampling periods as the wildlife trapping. Host-  
130 seeking ticks were collected from field, forest, and edge habitats via tick drags using a 1m<sup>2</sup> felt cloth.  
131 Field habitats primarily consisted of switchgrass (*Panicum virgatum*) and pastures used for cattle grazing  
132 or hay production. Forest habitats consisted of hardwood forest with a high understory, with groundcover  
133 primarily of invasive Japanese stiltgrass (*Microstegium vimineum*) and wild blackberry (*Rubus*  
134 *fruticosus*). Edge habitats contained previously listed grasses and beefsteak mint (*Perilla frutescens*) and  
135 followed pasture and forest fence line. Flagging on the fence line's forest side was done when possible.  
136 Each drag was 100m long, with stops every 10-20 m for tick removal. During the sampling period, each  
137 habitat was sampled six times daily except the forest habitat (sampled four times) due to limited space in  
138 this habitat. Tick dragging was generally conducted in the early afternoon or later in the evening if the  
139 ground was still wet. Dragging was not conducted on rainy days. Microclimate data such as average wind  
140 speed, temperature, and relative humidity were collected at the beginning of every drag using a Kestrel  
141 3000 wind meter (Nielsen-Kellerman Company, Boothwyn, PA).

### 142 *Analysis of Haemaphysalis longicornis phenology and habitat associations*

143 Each life stage's seasonal pattern of activity was visualized in R (version 3.6.2 – R Core Team  
144 2018). For questing tick phenology data, counts of *H. longicornis* from all drags were pooled for a given  
145 collection day, and the proportion of each life stage (larvae, nymphs, and adults) was calculated and  
146 plotted. A best fit curve was generated between sampling periods using generalized additive models  
147 (GAM) fitted to the count data across time (Moussus et al., 2009). General linearized models (GLMs)  
148 were used to determine which abiotic variables were the most important predictors for *H. longicornis*

149 abundance and presence. The variables tested were habitat type (field, forest, and edge), season (spring,  
150 summer, fall), and collected microclimate variables (average wind speed, temperature, and relative  
151 humidity). For the tick presence models, a logit link function with a binomial response variable was used,  
152 whereas the tick abundance models used a Poisson regression.

### 153 *Pathogen surveillance*

154 Only adult and nymphal ticks collected from the environment were screened for pathogens. Ticks  
155 were medially bisected with a sterile razor blade and then dried overnight in a sterile hood to allow  
156 ethanol to evaporate. DNA was extracted from one half using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit  
157 (Qiagen, Germantown, MD) following the manufacturer's protocol. The other half of the tick was  
158 preserved in 70% ethanol for archiving and morphologic identification. Both native ticks and exotic *H.*  
159 *longicornis* were screened for selected pathogens, including *Theileria*, *Babesia*, *Hepatozoon*, *Ehrlichia*,  
160 *Anaplasma*, *Rickettsia*, and *Borrelia* spp. using published polymerase chain reaction (PCR) protocols  
161 (Table 1). Positive PCR amplicons were visualized on 2% agarose gels stained with GelRed (Biotium,  
162 Hayward, CA, USA). Amplicons were purified from gels using the QIAquick gel extraction kit (Qiagen,  
163 Hilden, Germany) and submitted for bi-directional Sanger sequencing at the Genewiz Corporation (South  
164 Plainfield, NJ, USA). Chromatograms were analyzed using Geneious R11 (Geneious, Auckland, New  
165 Zealand, <https://www.geneious.com>). For the piroplasm surveillance, the genotype of *Theileria orientalis*  
166 detected was determined by sequence analysis of the major piroplasm surface protein (*MPSP*) primer  
167 gene. For *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* screening, all ticks were initially screened with the major surface  
168 protein-2 (*MSP-2*) primer pair, and a 16S rRNA primer set was used to type variants (human (AP-ha) or  
169 white-tailed deer (AP-1)) detected. All unique sequences obtained from this study were deposited to  
170 GenBank under the Accession numbers: MW480558, MW491252-MW491253.

### 171 Results:

172 Over the two sampling years, 1582 ticks were collected from 203 hosts and 478 drags (Table 2,  
173 Figure 1). From the wildlife sampling, a total of 670 ticks were collected, with the most abundant tick  
174 species being *Dermacentor variabilis* (n=205), followed by *Amblyomma americanum* (n=152) and

175 *Amblyomma maculatum* (n=133). Most *Ixodes* species collected from the wildlife hosts were *Ixodes*  
176 *scapularis* (n=92), but lower numbers of *Ixodes cookei* (n=31) and *Ixodes texanus* (n=10) were collected.  
177 The native rabbit tick, *Haemaphysalis leporispalustris* (n=4), was the least abundant tick collected from  
178 wildlife (Table 2, Figure 1). A total of 43 *H. longicornis* were collected from 18 different individual hosts  
179 of the following species: coyote, eastern cottontail (*Sylvilagus floridanus*), raccoon, Virginia opossum,  
180 white-tailed deer, woodchuck (*Marmota monax*), and a *Peromyscus* sp. (Table 2, Figure 1). Two *H.*  
181 *longicornis* nymphs were also opportunistically collected from humans as part of daily tick checks.

182 A total of 912 ticks were collected during environmental sampling. Of those, a majority were *H.*  
183 *longicornis* (n=615) followed by *A. americanum* (n=248), *D. variabilis* (n=30), *I. scapularis* (n=14), and  
184 *H. leporispalustris* (n=5) (Table 2, Figure 1). *Haemaphysalis longicornis* was collected from every  
185 habitat type sampled (field, forest, and edge). There was no significant difference in forest and edge  
186 habitats, but we observed a lower probability to find *H. longicornis* in field habitats ( $p < 0.05$ , Figure 2A).  
187 Season also had a significant effect on the probability of occurrence as we were less likely to detect *H.*  
188 *longicornis* in the summer season ( $p < 0.001$ , Figure 2B). There was no significant effect of the abiotic  
189 variables (average wind speed, temperature, and relative humidity) measured on *H. longicornis* presence  
190 or abundance. For phenology, nymphs were found in every season but were most active in the spring.  
191 This spring peak in nymphs is followed by a smaller adult peak in summer, followed by a large larval  
192 peak in the fall (Figure 3).

193 All host-seeking nymphal and adult ticks collected during this study (n=410) were screened for  
194 selected pathogens relevant to human and veterinary health (Table 1). However, our primary interest was  
195 exotic *Theileria orientalis* Ikeda genotype and native pathogens present in host-seeking *H. longicornis*.  
196 *Theileria orientalis* was detected in *H. longicornis* during both the 2019 and 2020 sampling periods  
197 (Table 3; Thompson et al., 2020b). Sequence analysis of partial *MPSP* gene sequences of all *T. orientalis*  
198 samples were 100% identical to the Ikeda genotype (JQ781070). In 2019, a single *H. longicornis* nymph  
199 was positive for *Rickettsia felis* (100% to MK509751), and two nymphs from 2020 were positive for a  
200 *Hepatozoon* sp. (100% to MT259335) (Table 3). Several *H. longicornis* nymphs from 2019 (n=1) and



201 2020 (n=7) were positive for *A. phagocytophilum* (99.4-100% to CP006617) (Table 3). Two of these *A.*  
202 *phagocytophilum* positive ticks were also positive with the 16S rRNA gene PCR (100% to MK341075),  
203 and the two nucleotide polymorphisms at bases 76 and 84 were consistent with *A. phagocytophilum*  
204 variant 1 (AP-1) associated with white-tailed deer (Dugan et al., 2006; Massung et al., 2003).

205 No *T. orientalis* Ikeda was detected in any native tick species screened, but numerous native  
206 piroplasm species relevant to veterinary health were detected from the 2019 and 2020 sampling periods.  
207 Data for the piroplasm screening from 2019 has been previously reported (Thompson et al., 2020b), but  
208 briefly, we detected a *Theileria* sp. of white-tailed deer (often called *T. cervi*) (n=3; 99% to AY35135),  
209 *Babesia* spp. Coco (n=1; 99% to EU109716), and a *Hepatozoon* sp. (n=1; 99% to KC162911) in *A.*  
210 *americanum*, and these unique sequences were deposited to GenBank (MT259333-MT259335) (Table 3).  
211 Additional testing for other tick-borne pathogens from the 2019 cohort of ticks were all negative. In 2020,  
212 we detected the same *Hepatozoon* sp. (n=12; 100% to MT259335) previously detected in 2019, *Borrelia*  
213 *lonestari* (n=1; 100% to AF273670), *A. phagocytophilum* (n=5; 99.4-100% to CP006617), *Ehrlichia*  
214 *ewingii* (n=2; 100% to U96436), and *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* (n=1; 100% to NR074500) in *A. americanum*.  
215 Sequence analysis of the 16S rRNA gene region for one *A. phagocytophilum*-positive tick (100% to  
216 MK341075) was consistent with the Ap-1 strain. For *I. scapularis*, we detected *Babesia odocoilei* (n=2;  
217 99.76% to MH899097) and *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato (n=1; 100% to AF264899). Numerous  
218 rickettsial endosymbionts (*Rickettsia amblyommatis*, *Rickettsia montanensis*, *Rickettsia* sp. TR-39,  
219 ‘*Candidatus* Midichloria mitochondrii’) were also detected from various tick species collected (Table 3).

220

221 Discussion:

222 In this study, we found that the *H. longicornis* populations in Virginia had similar phenology as  
223 has been previously reported in New York (Piedmonte et al., 2020; Tufts et al., 2019). To date, few  
224 studies have investigated habitat preferences for *H. longicornis* in the United States, though current data  
225 suggests that it is a habitat generalist. We detected *H. longicornis* from all habitat types during every  
226 sampling period of this two-year study in Virginia. We found *H. longicornis* on several wildlife host

227 species, including coyote, eastern cottontail, raccoon, Virginia opossum, white-tailed deer, woodchuck,  
228 and a *Peromyscus* sp. (Table 2). In addition, we found more infections of host-seeking *H. longicornis*  
229 with the exotic pathogen *T. orientalis* Ikeda strain, as well as new reports of native pathogens (i.e., *R. felis*  
230 and *A. phagocytophilum*). These combined findings suggest that this tick may play an important and  
231 currently unrecognized role in the disease dynamics of native tick-borne pathogens warranting continued  
232 molecular surveillance to help to predict the health risks posed by this introduced species.

233 Our trapping efforts were focused on rodent species and meso-mammals since previous reports  
234 suggest that raccoons and Virginia opossums might be important hosts for *H. longicornis* (Beard et al.,  
235 2018; Tufts et al., 2020a; White et al., 2020). One study in New York failed to find any infested  
236 *Peromyscus* spp.; however, a later study conducted by the same group did find a single squirrel (*Sciurus*  
237 *carolinensis*) to be infested with *H. longicornis* (Tufts et al., 2019, 2020a). Rodents are also important  
238 hosts for ticks and are reservoirs for numerous human tick-borne pathogens necessitating the continued  
239 surveillance of their role with *H. longicornis*. Domestic cattle are also commonly important hosts for this  
240 tick, and they do occur on the property but were not sampled because they are regularly treated with an  
241 acaricide spray. Our detections of *H. longicornis* on eastern cottontail rabbits, raccoons, woodchucks, and  
242 Virginia opossums, support results previously reported from this area and New York that this tick can use  
243 a wide range of wildlife hosts (Tufts et al., 2020a, 2019; White et al., 2020). The sampling of coyotes and  
244 white-tailed deer was opportunistic, but previous detections of *H. longicornis* on these species have also  
245 been documented (Tufts et al., 2019; USDA-APHIS-VS, 2021; White et al., 2020). Here we report an  
246 important finding of a single *H. longicornis* larva on a *Peromyscus* sp. (Table 2). This finding was  
247 surprising given experimental data showing this tick species has an aversion to smaller rodent fur  
248 (Breuner et al., 2019; Ronai et al., 2020). Importantly, this single infested animal was out of 112  
249 *Peromyscus* sp. sampled at our site. Tufts et al. (2019) failed to find any *H. longicornis* on 190 captured  
250 *Peromyscus* sp. sampled in New York, so our detection may have been an aberrant occurrence. While  
251 some ticks depend on rodents for their earlier life stages, this does not seem the case for *H. longicornis*, as

252 heavy infestations of larvae have been reported on Virginia opossums and raccoons (Tufts et al., 2020a;  
253 White et al., 2020).

254 Our seasonal density data are similar to reports from the northeastern United States, where  
255 nymphal *H. longicornis* are most active in the spring, followed by a peak in adult activity in the summer  
256 and larval activity in the fall (Figure 3) (Bickerton et al., 2020; Piedmonte et al., 2020; Tufts et al., 2019).  
257 Interestingly, we never observed a sampling period when the nymphal life stage was inactive (Figure 3).  
258 While there were gaps in our sampling periods, this suggests that in the more southern regions in the  
259 United States, there is overlap in the activity between the life stages of *H. longicornis*. This observation  
260 has been previously reported for *H. longicornis* in New Zealand and is likely due to climatic and other  
261 habitat variables within the southern United States being more favorable to multiple *H. longicornis* life  
262 stages (Heath, 2016). Since we did not detect any significant effect of microclimate variables (i.e.,  
263 average wind speed, temperature, and relative humidity), more rigorous sampling of microclimate data  
264 and phenology across the recognized range of *H. longicornis* is needed to further understand the natural  
265 history of this tick and to better predict the seasonal abundance of different life stages across its range as  
266 well as potential distribution. In addition, the overlap of different *H. longicornis* life stages could  
267 complicate potential control strategies that target specific life stages. A recent study has found that  
268 environmental treatments with a pyrethroid acaricide toward the end of peak adult *H. longicornis* activity  
269 is potent enough to curb populations in the subsequent larval and nymphal life stages (Bickerton et al.,  
270 2020). Fortunately, our data suggest that the dip in nymphal activity is around this same time frame,  
271 potentially increasing this management practice's efficacy in the southern United States.

272 We did not detect the exotic *Theileria orientalis* Ikeda in any screened native tick species.  
273 However, we continued to detect the pathogen in host-seeking *H. longicornis* during the 2020 sampling  
274 period, further supporting our previous results from 2019 (Thompson et al., 2020b). In addition, recent  
275 experimental work has shown that *H. longicornis* is a competent vector for this pathogen in the United  
276 States, warranting continued molecular surveillance for *T. orientalis* in *H. longicornis* in other states,  
277 especially in regions near cattle operations (Dinkel et al., n.d.). The other apicomplexan detected in *H.*

278 *longicornis* was a *Hepatozoon* sp. that has previously been detected in *A. americanum* ticks from this  
279 same site and Texas (Shock et al., 2014). The vertebrate host for this parasite is currently unknown.

280 Two bacterial pathogens were detected in *H. longicornis*. A single tick was positive for *R. felis*,  
281 the causative agent of cat-flea typhus in humans. This pathogen also infects numerous other mammalian  
282 hosts and can be transmitted by many hematophagous arthropods, including *H. longicornis*, in low  
283 prevalence from China (Liu et al., n.d.; Pérez-Osorio et al., 2008). Because this pathogen has a broad  
284 geographic range, it is not known if it is a native or exotic strain and the genetic target is highly  
285 conserved. We detected the AP-1 strain of *A. phagocytophilum* in two *H. longicornis*. We had additional  
286 detections of *A. phagocytophilum*; however, the 16S rRNA target needed to distinguish the Ap-ha strain  
287 from AP-1 was negative for other samples positive with the *MSP-2* screening PCR. Additional studies are  
288 warranted on the role of *H. longicornis* as a vector for different *A. phagocytophilum* strains in the United  
289 States, especially since it is associated with *A. phagocytophilum* in other regions of its established range  
290 (Kim et al., 2003; Qin et al., 2018).

291 Notably, we did not detect any *Borrelia* or *Ehrlichia* spp. in *H. longicornis* despite detecting these  
292 pathogens in native tick species collected from the same site. The lack of *Borrelia* sp. is expected due to  
293 previous experimental work showing that *H. longicornis* is not a suitable vector for *B. burgdorferi* and  
294 other studies that have shown that rodents, the primary reservoir, are not preferred hosts (Breuner et al.,  
295 2019; Ronai et al., 2020; Tufts et al., 2019). However, a recent study from Pennsylvania did detect a  
296 single *H. longicornis* with *B. burgdorferi* s.s. using real-time PCR so additional surveillance is warranted  
297 (Price et al., 2021). Although we did not detect *Ehrlichia* spp. in *H. longicornis*, we believe that more  
298 research into their role as a vector is needed. White-tailed deer appear to be a preferred host for the tick  
299 and are important reservoirs for *E. chaffeensis* and *E. ewingii* (Lockhart et al., 1997; Tufts et al., 2019;  
300 USDA-APHIS-VS, 2021; Yabsley et al., 2002). In addition, related *Ehrlichia* spp. have also been  
301 detected in *H. longicornis* from endemic areas (Lee et al., 2005; Luo et al., 2016).

302 Our results show some variation in seasonal abundance of different life stages in the more  
303 southern region of this tick's recognized distribution in the United States. In addition, a new potential host

304 for *H. longicornis*, a *Peromyscus* sp., was documented in this study, and further investigations are needed  
305 to determine if this was an aberrant finding or if *H. longicornis* will feed on small rodents under certain  
306 circumstances. Finally, our molecular surveillance for pathogens infecting host-seeking *H. longicornis*  
307 reveals greater diversity of pathogens than previously recognized (Tufts et al., 2020b). While the role of  
308 the *Hepatozoon* sp. as a pathogen is unknown, the detections of *R. felis* and *A. phagocytophilum* AP-1  
309 suggests that *H. longicornis* may be a vector of native pathogens circulating in our host populations.  
310 Ultimately, more investigations throughout the current range are needed to understand the ecology of *H.*  
311 *longicornis* and associated pathogens in the United States.

312

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326

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527

529 Table 1. Gene targets and PCR primers used to detect pathogens in host-seeking ticks.  
530

Species	Gene Target	Reaction	Primers	Amplicon Size	Reference
Apicomplexa	18S rRNA	Primary	RIB-19 (5'-CGGGATCCAACCTGGTTGATCCTGC-3') RIB-20 (5'-CCGAATTCCTTGTTACGACTTCTC-3')	~1700bp	(da Silveira et al., 2011)
		Secondary	BabRUMF (5'-ACCTCACCAGGTCCAGACAG-3') BabRUMR (5'-GTACAAAGGGCAGGGACGTA-3')	~420bp	
<i>Theileria orientalis</i> Ikeda	MPSP	Primary	Ts-U (5'-CACGCTATGTTGTCCAAGAG-3') Ts-R (5'TGTGAGACTCAATGCGCCTA-3')	~875bp	(Kubota et al., 1995)
		Secondary	MPSP-AJ-F (5'-TTCACCTCCAACAGTCGCCACA-3') MPSP-AJ-R1 (5'-ACGTAAACTTTGACTGCGGTG-3')	~345bp	(Cufos et al., 2012)
<i>Rickettsia</i> spp.	17-kDa		17kD1 (5'-GCTCTTGCAACTTCTATGTT-3') 17kD2 (5'-CATTGTTTCGTCAGGTTGGCG-3')	~434bp	(Webb et al., 1990)
<i>Borrelia</i> spp.	FlaB	Primary	FlaLL (5'-ACATATTCAGATGCAGACAGAGGT-3') FlaRL (5'-GCAATCATAGCCATTGCAGATTGT-3)	~350bp	(Barbour et al., 1996)
		Secondary	FlaLS (5'-AACAGCTGAAGAGCTTGGAATG-3') FlaRS (5'-CTTTGATCACTTATCATTCTAATAGC-3')		
<i>Anaplasma</i> spp.	16S rRNA	Primary	MSP2-3F (5'-CCAGCGTTTAGCAAGATAAGAG-3') MSP2-3R (5'-GCCAGTAACAACATCATAAGC-3')	344bp	(Zeidner et al., 2000)
		Secondary	ECC (5'-AGAACGAACGCTGGCGGCAAGCC-3') ECB (5'-CGTATTACCGCGCTGCTGGCA-3')	490bp	(Little et al., 1997)
<i>Ehrlichia</i> spp.	16S rRNA	Primary	GE9F(5'-AACGGATTATCTTTATAGCTTGCT-3') GA1UR (5'-GAGTTTGCCGGGACTTCTTCT-3')	~412bp	
		Secondary	EHR16SD (5'-GGTACCYACAGAAGAAGTCC-3') EHR16SR (5'-TAGCACTCATCGTTTACAGC-3')	345bp	

531 Table 2. Summary of ticks collected from hosts and drags from May 2019 to September 2020.<sup>a</sup>

Sampling	Species	n	# infested with ticks	# with ALT <sup>b</sup>	Tick species identified
Spring 2019 May 2 – May 8	Gray squirrel	1	0	0	-
	Hispid cotton rat	1	0	0	-
	<i>Peromyscus</i> sp.	41	22 (54%)	0	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>A. maculatum</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
	Garter snake	1	0	0	-
	Tick drag	64	31 (48%)	29 (45%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. leporispalustris</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i>
Summer 2019 July 9 – July 21	Alleghany woodrat	1	0	0	-
	Eastern cottontail	1	1 (100%)	0	<i>H. leporispalustris</i>
	Gray squirrel	2	1 (50%)	0	<i>D. variabilis</i>
	<i>Peromyscus</i> sp.	17	1 (6%)	0	<i>I. scapularis</i>
	Raccoon	9	9 (100%)	4 (44%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>A. maculatum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. cookei</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i> , <i>I. texanus</i>
	Virginia opossum	6	6 (100%)	1 (17%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
	White-tailed deer	1	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i> ,
	Woodchuck	2	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	<i>H. longicornis</i>
	Human	2	1 (50%)	0	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i>
Tick drag	110	25 (23%)	18 (16%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i>	
Fall 2019 Sept. 5 – Sept. 11	Alleghany woodrat	1	0	0	-
	Coyote	2	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	<i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i>
	<i>Peromyscus</i> sp.	9	1 (11%)	0	<i>A. americanum</i>
	Human	2	2 (100%)	1 (50%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i>
	Tick drag	64	33 (52%)	30 (47%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>H. leporispalustris</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i>
Spring 2020 May 3 – May 9	Hispid cotton rat	1	1 (100%)	0	<i>A. americanum</i>
	<i>Peromyscus</i> sp.	30	22 (73%)	0	<i>A. maculatum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
	Woodland jumping mouse	1	1 (100%)	0	<i>A. americanum</i>
	Human	1	1 (50%)	0	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i>
	Tick drag	64	25 (39%)	21 (33%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
Summer 2020 July 6 – July 19	Alleghany woodrat	3	0	0	-
	Eastern cottontail	1	1	1 (100%)	<i>H. leporispalustris</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i>
	Hispid cotton rat	1	0	0	-
	<i>Peromyscus</i> sp.	23	7 (30%)	1 (4%)	<i>A. maculatum</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
	Raccoon	4	4 (100%)	1 (25%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. cookei</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i> , <i>I. texanus</i>
	Virginia opossum	10	8 (80%)	4 (44%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. leporispalustris</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
	Woodchuck	2	1 (50%)	0	<i>A. americanum</i>
	House sparrow	1	0	0	-
	American toad	1	0	0	-
	Broadheaded skink	1	0	0	-
	Eastern ratsnake	2	0	0	-
	Human	2	2 (100%)	1 (50%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
	Tick drag	128	52 (41%)	17 (13%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>D. variabilis</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
Fall 2020 Sept. 6 – Sept. 12	Hispid cotton rat	7	4 (57%)	0	<i>A. maculatum</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
	<i>Peromyscus</i> sp.	8	2 (25%)	0	<i>A. maculatum</i> , <i>I. scapularis</i>
	Virginia opossum	2	2 (100%)	0	<i>I. scapularis</i>
	Carolina wren	1	0	0	-
	Garter snake	1	0	0	-
	S. Leopard frog	1	0	0	-
	Tick drag	48	20 (42%)	20 (42%)	<i>A. americanum</i> , <i>H. longicornis</i>

532 <sup>a</sup> Raw data describing total number of species and life stages for each host and drag sampled can be found in the  
533 supplementary data.

534 <sup>b</sup> ALT, Asian longhorned tick

535 Table 3. Results of pathogen screening from host-seeking ticks collected from Albemarle Co., Virginia

Species	Life stage <sup>a</sup>	Apicomplexa	Apicomplexa Species <sup>b</sup>	<i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> <sup>c</sup>	<i>Borrelia</i> spp.	<i>Ehrlichia</i> spp.	<i>Rickettsia</i> spp. <sup>e</sup>
<i>Amblyomma americanum</i>	13/12/96	2/2/13	<i>Theileria cervi</i> (n=3), <i>Babesia</i> spp. Coco (n=1), <i>Hepatozoon</i> sp. (n=13)	0/1/4	0/1/0	3/1/4 <sup>d</sup>	2/1/16
<i>Dermacentor variabilis</i>	15/15/0	0/0/0	-	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0	1/1/1
<i>Haemaphysalis leporispalustris</i>	0/1/1	0/0/0	-	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0
<i>Haemaphysalis longicornis</i>	0/18/229	0/0/24	<i>Theileria orientalis</i> (n=22), <i>Hepatozoon</i> sp. (n=2)	0/0/8	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/2/3
<i>Ixodes scapularis</i>	0/0/10	0/0/2	<i>Babesia odocoilei</i> (n=2)	0/0/0	0/0/1	0/0/0	0/0/8
Total (410)	28/46/336	2/2/39		0/1/12	0/1/1	3/1/4	3/4/28

536 <sup>a</sup> Life stages and results are represented as the number of Male/Female/Nymph tested or positive, respectively.

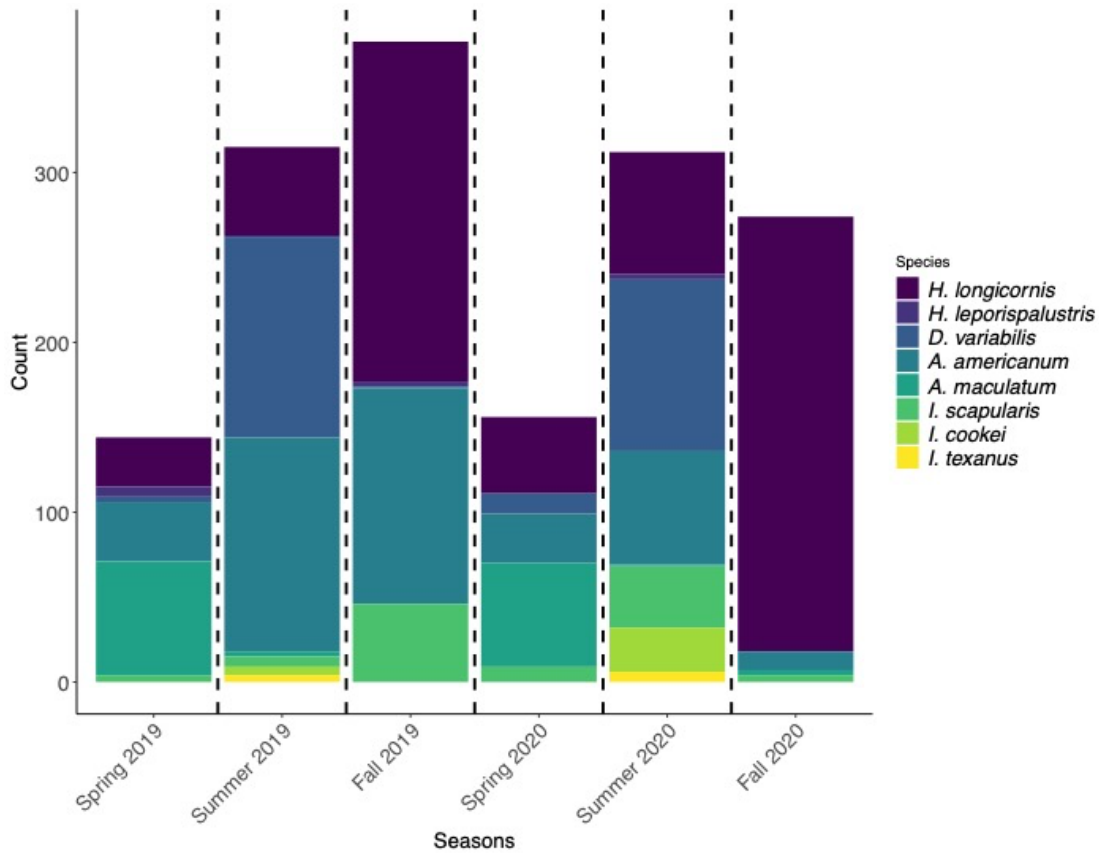
537 <sup>b</sup> All *Theileria orientalis* were confirmed as the Ikeda genotype using a supplemental PCR targeting the *MPSP* gene  
538 (see Table 1), some results are previously described in Thompson et al. 2020b.

539 <sup>c</sup> Only a single nymph of the *A. americanum* and two nymphs of *H. longicornis* were PCR positive for the 16S  
540 rRNA gene target, these were determined to the AP-1 variant (non-human pathogen).

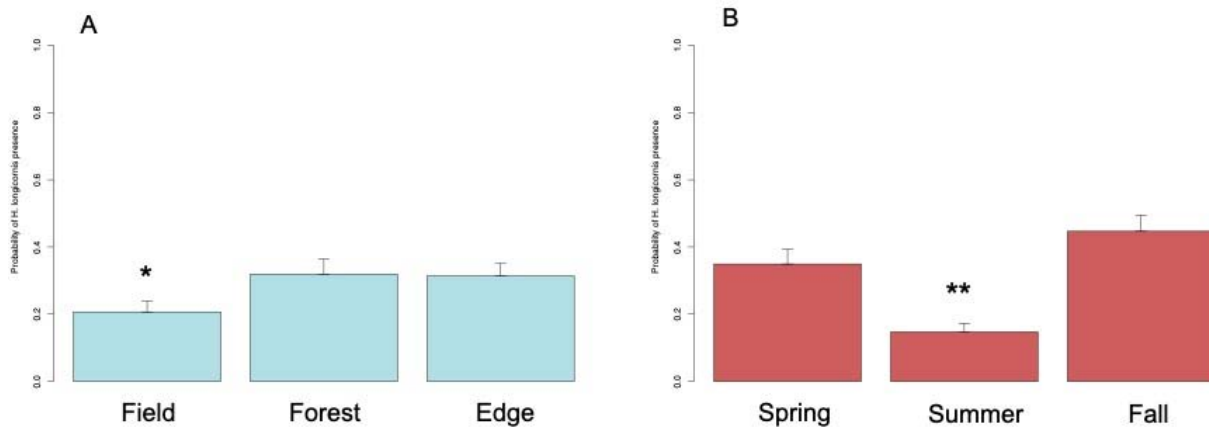
541 <sup>d</sup> A single adult male and female were both infected with *E. ewingii* (100% to U96436) and a nymphal stage was  
542 infected with *E. chaffeensis* (100% to NR074500), others were infected with '*Candidatus* Midichloria mitochondrii'.

543 <sup>e</sup> All *Rickettsia* spp. detected were endosymbionts of ticks, except for a single *Rickettsia felis* (100% to MK509751)  
544 was detected in a *H. longicornis* nymph.  
545

546 Figures:  
547

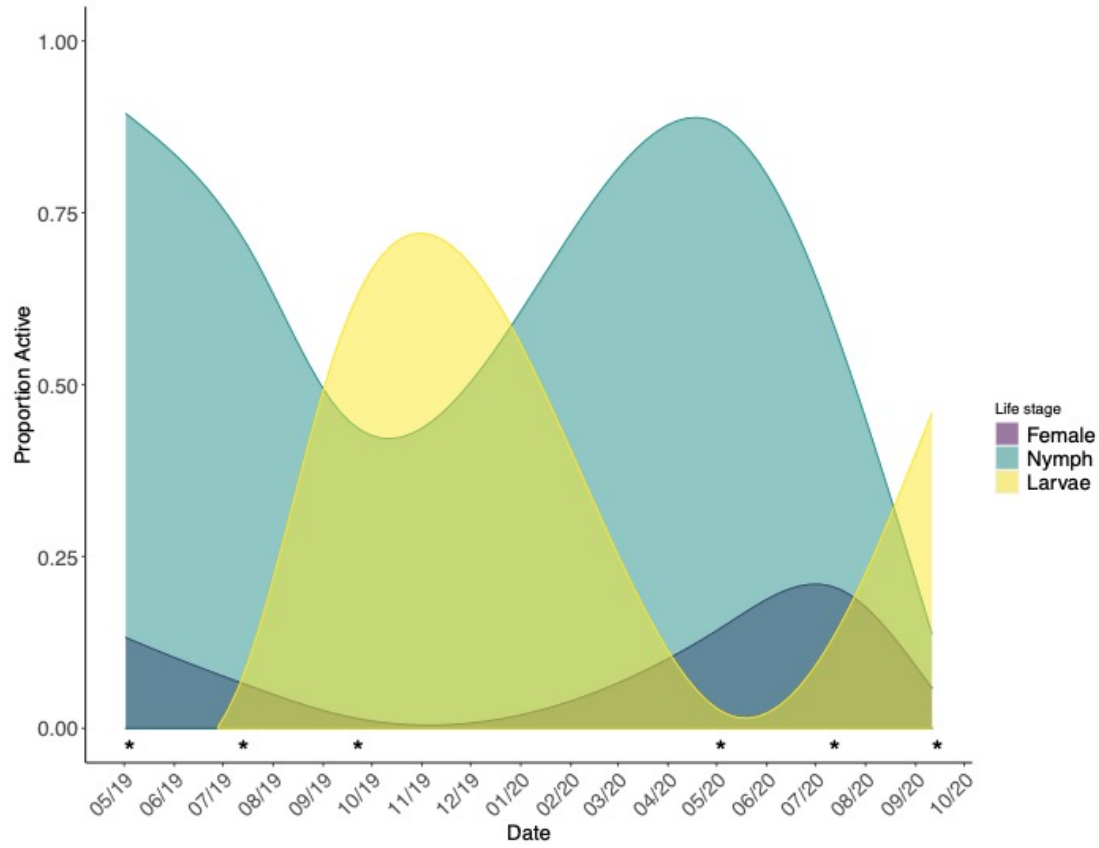


548 Figure 1. Diversity and abundance of ticks collected during the sampling periods from 2019-2020.  
549



550 Figure 2. Effects of environmental variables on *Haemphysalis longicornis* presence. A) There is a  
551 significant effect of habitat type on *H. longicornis* presence. It is less likely to find *H. longicornis* in field  
552 habitats (\*,  $p < 0.05$ ) when compared to forest or edge habitats. B) There is a significant effect of season  
553 on *H. longicornis* presence. It is less likely to find *H. longicornis* during the summer (\*\*,  $p < 0.001$ ) when  
554 compared to spring or fall.

555



556 Figure 3. Seasonal activity of different *H. longicornis* life stages from 2019-2020. Nymphs (blue) are  
557 most active during the spring, with adults becoming active in summer (purple) and larvae becoming  
558 active in the fall (yellow). Asterisks indicate start of seasonal sampling periods. The adult peak was  
559 missed during the 2019 sampling period.