The Tribe Ehrlichieae and Ehrlichial Diseases

YASUKO RIKIHISA

Department of Veterinary Pathobiology, College of Veterinary Medicine, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210

INTRODUCTION

Recently, two new ehrlichial diseases, Potomac horse fever and human ehrlichiosis, were discovered in the United States. The discoveries created an interest in ehrlichial diseases among veterinary and human medical researchers and motivated the development of a method for ehrlichial culture in a continuous cell line. Success in culturing ehrlichial organisms in quantity in turn enabled researchers to apply various molecular, biochemical, and immunologic procedures that have significantly advanced the understanding of ehrlichial organisms. The purpose of this review is to present a detailed discussion of these organisms and the important human and veterinary diseases they cause.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TRIBE EHRLICHIEAE

Taxonomy

The tribe Ehrlichieae contains obligate intracellular bacterial parasites with a tropism for leukocytes and comprises three genera: Ehrlichia, Cowdria, and Neorickettsia (Fig. 1). The genus Cytoecetes, which consists of granulocytic microorganisms (173), was eliminated in Bergey's Manual of

Systematic Bacteriology published in 1984 (156) and included in the genus Ehrlichia. The tribe Ehrlichieae is included in the family Rickettsiaceae (156) along with the tribes Rickettsieae and Wolbachieae. At the genetic level, recent studies showed strong relatedness (85.7%) in the sequences of the 16S rRNA in Ehrlichia risticii and Rickettsia prowazekii, which is the etiologic agent of epidemic typhus, a well-known rickettsial disease responsible for the deaths of millions of people during wartime and natural disasters. Both microorganisms belong to the α subdivision of the purple bacteria (180). Another group of obligate intracellular bacteria, the chlamydiae, are genetically quite different from rickettsiae. Although chlamydiae are currently considered eubacteria, they do not resemble any other known eubacteria. According to analysis of the sequence of the 16S rRNA, they are distantly related to the planctomyces (181).

As for phenotypic characteristics, as described later in more detail, purified E. risticii and E. sennetsu can metabolize L-glutamine (182, 184) and generate ATP as rickettsia can but unlike chlamydiae, which are "energy parasites." Like rickettsiae, at least four species in the tribe Ehrlichieae are known to be vector borne (156), which chlamydiae are

Order:					Rickettsiales				Chlamydiales	
Family:		Rickettsiaceae			Bartonellaceae		Anaplasmataceae		Chlamydiaceae	
Tribe:		Rickettsieae			Ehrlichieae			Wolbachieae		
Genus:	Rickettsia		Rochalimaea Coxiella	E. equi	Ehrlichia E. canis E. phagocytophila E. sennetsu E. risticii (E. platys) (E. bovis) (E. ondiri) (E. ovina)	Cowdria C. ruminantium (WSU86-1044)		Neorickettsia N. helminthoeca (N. elokominica) (SF agent)	Chlamydia	

FIG. 1. Rickettsiae and chlamydiae. Parenthesis indicate species not yet recognized in Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology (156) or the International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology.

not. However, organisms of the tribe Ehrlichieae morphologically resemble chlamydiae in that they are round and grow in the host membrane-lined cytoplasmic vacuoles (133, 156). In the genus Rickettsia, the spotted fever group and the typhus group are short rods, and the scrub typhus agent is a coccobacillus. The genus Rickettsia grows in the cytosol of the host cells. The tribe Ehrlichieae lacks an obvious peptidoglycan layer or thickened outer or inner leaflet of the outer membrane, except for some strains of Cowdria (143). E. risticii occurs in small electron-dense and large electronlucent forms (133, 147), but Ehrlichia spp. do not show a clear life cycle as Chlamydia spp. do. Major characteristics of the genus Ehrlichia are compared with those of the genera Rickettsia and Chlamydia in Table 1.

Four species in the genus Ehrlichia, one species in the genus Cowdria, and one species in the genus Neorickettsia are identified in Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology (156). Since that edition of the manual, one new ehrlichial species, E. risticii, has been accepted in the International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology (80) (Fig. 1). In addition to these species, there are less well characterized organisms: E. platys (69) , granulocytic E. canis (45) , E. ondiri (67) , E. bovis (33, 34, 152), E. ovina (33), Stellantchasmus falcatus agent (SF agent) isolated from S. falcatus fluke (a fish parasite) in Japan (58), Neorickettsia elokominica (47), and E. (Cytoecetes) microti, an organism found in the polymorphonuclear leukocytes of a vole (173). In 1986, an apparently new agent that shares antigenicity with a strain of Cowdria ruminantium was isolated from an aborted bovine fetus (31). The etiologic agent for human ehrlichiosis in the United States (108) has not yet been isolated from human patients. The characteristics of several ehrlichial agents are listed in Table 2. All members of the tribe Ehrlichieae with the exception of E. canis have a limited geographic distribution.

Host Specificity and In Vitro Culture of the Tribe Ehrlichieae

Members of the tribe *Ehrlichieae* infect specific species of animal hosts in nature (Table 3). Experimental injection of cell-cultured Ehrlichia spp. or Ehrlichia-infected blood has revealed that species other than the usual hosts can be infected with some ehrlichial species (Table 3). Whether this also occurs in nature is, however, unknown. Ehrlichia species infect dogs, horses, ruminants, and humans. Although an Ehrlichia-like agent associated with anemia in cats has been reported, electron microscopy of the agent is not convincing (18).

Depending on the species, members of the tribe Ehrlichieae chiefly infect circulating monocytes, granulocytes, lymphocytes, or platelets and thus can be transmitted by or isolated from blood. Some ehrlichial species, especially those infecting granulocytes and platelets, are easily seen in these cells at acute stages of infection. Monocytic Ehrlichia species are less frequently seen in the blood, since the infection level of blood monocytes is low. In addition, in vivo, equine tissue mast cells, macrophages, and intestinal glandular epithelial cells have been found infected with E. risticii (147). Neorickettsia helminthoeca is seen in macrophages in the canine lymph node (55, 62). C. ruminantium is seen in the endothelial cells of small blood vessels of the brains of infected ruminants (25).

None of the tribe Ehrlichieae has been cultured outside of eukaryotic cells or in yolk sac. In vitro propagation of the tribe Ehrlichieae is a prerequisite for the development of a reliable indirect immunofluorescence test for serodiagnosis of ehrlichial diseases. Successful culture of the tribe Ehrlichieae in continuous cell line is essential for achieving the quantities of organisms needed for basic research at the

TABLE 1. Characteristics of the genera Rickettsia, Ehrlichia, and Chiamydia

Genus	Replication site	Develop- mental cycle	Muramic acid	Glutamine or glutamate oxidation	Genome size (MDa)	Primary host cells	Arthropod association
Rickettsia Ehrlichia Chlamydia	Cytoplasm Membrane vacuole Membrane vacuole	Simple Complex? Complex	Present Low? Absent	Yes Yes No	1.100 660	Endothelial cells Leukocytes	Yes Yes (some)
						Epithelial cells of mucous membrane	No

molecular and cellular levels and for vaccine development. E. risticii has been cultured in vitro in primary canine blood monocytes (78) and in monocyte and macrophage cell lines of murine (39), human (144, 145), and canine (129) origin. E . risticii has also been cultured in a human intestinal epithelial cell line (T-84 cells) (132). E. sennetsu has been cultured in human (74) and canine (79) primary blood monocytes, human endothelial cells (93), and a continuous murine monocyte cell line (22). Although less efficient than macrophages, fibroblast cell lines have also been used to culture E. sennetsu (111, 148, 169). E. canis has been propagated in canine primary blood monocytes (114), canine peritoneal macrophages (167), a canine macrophage cell line (29), a human-canine hybrid cell (168), and "spontaneously immortalized" mouse peritoneal macrophage and dog blood monocyte hybrid MDH-SP cells (77). On the other hand, none of the granulocytic Ehrlichia species has thus far been cultured in a continuous cell line, and short-term culture is limited to E. phagocytophila in the granulocytes from infected sheep (188). C. ruminantium has been cultured in irradiated bovine endothelial cell line E5 (13), bovine umbilical endothelial cells (87), and caprine neutrophils (104). Two Neorickettsia species have been cultured in canine primary blood monocytes (16, 54), and N. helminthoeca has been cultured in a canine macrophage cell line (151). The cells in which these ehrlichial agents have been cultured in vitro are listed in Table 4.

Morphology of the Tribe Ehrlichieae

Members of the tribe Ehrlichieae are tiny gram-negative cocci and stain dark blue to purple with Romanowsky stain. They stain faintly red by the Macchiavello method and brown-black by silver stain (165). These last two stains, however, are not as distinct for Ehrlichia spp. as they are for the tribe Rickettsieae and for spirochetes, respectively. Members of the tribe Ehrlichieae are generally round but sometimes pleomorphic, especially in tissue culture. The organisms are found in membrane-lined vacuoles within the cytoplasm of infected eukaryotic host cells, primarily leukocytes. Vacuoles containing \overline{E} . risticii have been shown not to fuse with lysosomes (185). The inhibition of lysosomal fusion is not a generalized process but rather is restricted to vesicles that contain Ehrlichia spp. (185). Members of the tribe Ehrlichieae have distinct ribosomes and DNA strands (133). Clumps of ribosomes are homogenously distributed in the cytoplasm rather than marginated beneath the cytoplasmic membrane. Compared with those of the rickettsiae or ordinary bacteria, the DNA and ribosomes in members of the tribe Ehrlichieae are more loosely packed in the cytoplasm (except for the small, dense form of E. risticii). Thus, the electron density of ehrlichial organisms is similar to that of the host cell cytoplasmic background, and this low contrast makes it difficult to find Ehrlichia cells in infected tissue at low magnification under the electron microscope. Members of the tribe Ehrlichieae are surrounded by thin bileaflet outer and inner membranes (Fig. 2). Unlike the rickettisae, ehrlichial organisms show no thickening of either leaflet of the outer membrane (133, 147). The freeze-fracture replica procedure reveals that, like leaflets in the inner membranes of rickettisae (84), the inner (cytoplasmic) leaflet of the inner membrane of E . *risticii* is rich in membrane particles (globular protein molecules), whereas the outer leaflet of the inner membrane has few such particles (Fig. 3). Morphologically, members of the genus Ehrlichia do not appear to contain significant amounts of peptidoglycan (133,

Species	Primary host	Experimental host (reference)
E. sennetsu	Human	Mouse $(57, 113)$, nonhuman primates $(116, 159)$ but not horse (148)
E. risticii	Horse	Mouse (140) , cat (28) , dog (154) , nonhuman primate (166)
E. canis	Canidae	None; nonhuman primate not infected (99)
E. phagocytophila	Ruminants	Guinea pig, mouse (52)
E. equi	Horse	Cat, dog (101) , sheep, goat (164) , nonhuman primate (101) but not mouse, rat, guinea pig, rabbit, or cow (164)
E. ondiri	Ruminants	Not in mouse, guinea pig, or hamster (23)
C. ruminantium	Ruminants	Mouse (some strains) (12)
WSU86-1044	Cattle	None
N. helminthoeca	Canidae	None
N. elokominica	Canidae, bear, raccoon, ferret	None
SF agent	Unknown	Mouse (59) , dog (60)

TABLE 3. Host animal specificity of members of the tribe Ehrlichieae

147). C. ruminantium Mali and Kumm isolates, however, discerned in the morula by light microscopy. On the other show signs of a peptidoglycanlike substance between the hand, E. risticii in T-84, P388D₁, and U-937 cells, outer and inner membranes (Fig. 4). This substance is equine monocyte culture and in infected equine tissues are unevenly distributed along the circumference of the organ-
primarily seen as individual forms, especially in unevenly distributed along the circumference of the organ-
ism, creating occasional outpouching of the outer membrane where peptidoglycanlike materials are packed (133, 143). A line of Cercopithecus kidney cells (3), P388D₁ cells (22), large quantity of capsulelike substance is seen around E. L929 cells (148), or human endothelial cell large quantity of capsulelike substance is seen around E. L929 cells (148), or human endothelial cells (93) is also seen *canis* (29), E. risticii in morulae (147), and C. ruminantium as a single or a few organisms per va

E. risticii, E. sennetsu, C. ruminantium, and E. canis tend to occupy one side of the cytoplasm rather than being symmetrically or evenly distributed. E . *risticii* is seen in at least two different forms: multiple dark, small organisms (0.2) least two different forms: multiple dark, small organisms $(0.2 \t(54)$. These organisms do not make the extremely condensed to $0.4 \mu m$) (called morulae) enveloped by host membrane large morula formed by E. canis (151). H to 0.4 μ m) (called morulae) enveloped by host membrane large morula formed by E. canis (151). Human ehrlichiosis (Fig. 5) and relatively light, large forms (0.8 to 1.5 μ m) agent seen in a patient's leukocytes is mor individually tightly wrapped with host membrane (131, 147) similar to E. canis, forming tightly packed morulae (108) (Fig. 2 and 5). Morulae appear to interchange with individ-
(Fig. 2 and 5). Morulae appear to interchang (Fig. 2 and 5). Morulae appear to interchange with individually enveloped forms, since an intermediate stage appearing and E . *risticii.* E . *equi* and E . *phagocytophila* are seen as as moderately dense $Ehrlichia$ cells tightly enveloped with loosely packed small morulae (sev as moderately dense *Ehrlichia* cells tightly enveloped with loosely packed small morulae (several ehrlichial organisms the host membrane, which is continuous with the membrane per vacuole). C. *ruminantium* is seen predom the host membrane, which is continuous with the membrane per vacuole). C. ruminantium is seen predominantly as surrounding a morula, has been seen (133). Neither exten-
loosely packed morulae of various sizes rather than a sively condensed elementary bodies nor intermediate stages individual forms (133).
with condensed structure in the cytoplasm of the microor-
No plasmid or phage has been detected by agarose gel with condensed structure in the cytoplasm of the microor-
ganism as seen in chlamydiae have been found in any ganism as seen in chlamydiae have been found in any electrophoresis of DNA fractions from E. risticii or E.
member of the tribe Ehrlichieae, with the exception of a sennetsu cultured in vitro. Lipopolysaccharide is not rea

hand, E. risticii in T-84, P388D₁, and U-937 cells, in primary equine monocyte culture and in infected equine tissues are epithelial cells (132, 147). E. sennetsu grown in the BS-C-1 as a single or a few organisms per vacuole. SF agent cultured (143). \overline{a} in the rabbit kidney epithelial cell line RK-13 is ultrastruc-
E. risticii, E. sennetsu, C. ruminantium, and E. canis tendurally similar to E. sennetsu (59) (Fig. 7). N. helminthoeca also occurs individually and as tightly enveloped morulae (Fig. 8) and apparently can be found in phagosomes as well agent seen in a patient's leukocytes is morphologically similar to E . *canis*, forming tightly packed morulae (108) loosely packed morulae of various sizes rather than as

member of the tribe *Ehrlichieae*, with the exception of a *sennetsu* cultured in vitro. Lipopolysaccharide is not readily recently isolated bovine agent (96). detectable by the conventional extraction method or silver-E. canis cultured in the canine monocyte cell line DH82 is staining of lipopolysaccharide after polyacrylamide gel elecmainly seen as densely packed morulae (Fig. 6) that some-
trophoresis of purified *Ehrlichia* spp. (27). No endosporelike
times contain more than 100 organisms per vacuole. E. canis
structure has been reported, although mi structure has been reported, although minicell-like strucis so tightly packed that individual organisms can hardly be tures resulting from uneven binary fission and apparent outer

TABLE 4. In vitro culture of members of the tribe Ehrlichieae

Species	Primary cell (reference)	Continuous cell line (reference)
E. risticii	Canine blood monocytes (78)	$P388D_1$ (39), T-84 (132), U-937 (144, 145)
E. canis	Canine blood monocytes (114), peritoneal macrophages (167)	Human-dog hybrid (168), DH82 (29), mouse- dog hybrid MDH-SP (77)
E. sennetsu	Canine blood monocytes (79), human blood monocytes (74), human vascular endothelial cells (93)	P388D ₁ (22), L929 (148), FL (human amniotic- membrane derived) (111), HeLa (169)
E. equi	None	None
E. phagocytophila	Ovine blood (188)	None
C. ruminantium	Goat neutrophils (104), bovine umbilical endothelial cells (87)	E5 (bovine endothelial cell) (13)
WSU86-1044	None	BT (bovine turbinate cell) (31) , P388D ₁ (96)
N. helminthoeca	Canine blood monocytes (16, 54)	DH82 (151)
SF agent	None	RK-13 (rabbit kidney epithelial cell) (190)

colon of a horse. E. risticii is tightly enveloped by the host membrane (A) and has its own outer (B) and inner (C) membranes. Magnification, $\times 87,600$. Bar = 0.1 μ m. Reproduced with permission of Kluwer Academic Publishers (133).

membrane vesicles of various sizes as seen in Rickettsia tsutsugamushi (136) have been seen in E. risticii (147) .

Energy Metabolism of Genus Ehrlichia

Members of the genus Ehrlichia appear to perform aerobic and asaccharolytic catabolism. The metabolic activities of two species of the genus Ehrlichia have been investigated. Ehrlichia spp. can utilize glutamine and glutamate and generate ATP (182-184) as rickettsiae do, but unlike rickettsiae, Ehrlichia spp. prefer to use glutamine rather than glutamate because they are enveloped by the host membrane and glutamine penetrates phagosomes better than glutamate. Unlike members of the genera Chlamydia and Wolbachia but like those of the genus Rickettsia, members of the genus Ehrlichia cannot utilize glucose-6-phosphate or glucose (182). In this sense, the genus Ehrlichia is similar to the genus Rickettsia, but the rate of ATP synthesis per milligram of protein in vitro is one-fifth that of Rickettsia typhi when Percoll density gradient-purified E . risticii and E . sennetsu are tested (184). The greatest metabolic activity of ehrlichial organisms is observed at pHs 7.2 to 8.0 and rapidly declines FIG. 2. E. risticii in the cytoplasm of a macrophage in the large organisms is observed at pHs 7.2 to 8.0 and rapidly declines $\frac{1}{100}$ of a horse. E. risticii is tightly enveloped by the host at a pH below 7 (182). Th are not acidophiles, unlike members of the genus Coxiella,

FIG. 3. Freeze-fracture replica of E. risticii in the cytoplasm of P388D₁ cells. Note four microorganisms in a vacuole. Replicas of the inner leaflets of the inner membranes of two organisms and the outer leaflets of the others can be seen. Membrane particles are abundant in the inner leaflets (arrows) of the inner membranes, but there are very few in the outer leaflets of the inner membranes of *Ehrlichia* spp. Magnification, FIG. 3. Freeze-fracture replica of *E. risticii* in the cytoplasm of P388D₁ celleaflets of the inner membranes of two organisms and the outer leaflets of the o leaflets (arrows) of the inner membranes, but there are ver

FIG. 4. C. ruminantium Mali isolate in the cytoplasm of endothelial cells of a goat brain. The microorganism is loosely enveloped by the host membrane (A). C. ruminantium has outer (B) and inner (C) membranes of its own. In between the inner and outer membranes is a peptidoglycanlike substance (left arrow). Fine DNA strands and clusters of ribosomes (arrowheads) are evident. Magnification, ^x 102,000. Bar $= 0.1$ μ m. Reprinted from reference 133 with permission of Kluwer Academic Publishers.

another bacterium in the family Rickettsiaceae that multiplies in the phagolysosome.

Ehrlichial Antigens

There is no serologic cross-reactivity between the tribe Ehrlichieae and the tribes Rickettsieae and Chlamydieae by the indirect fluorescent-antibody (IFA) test (76, 78, 157). Lack of Weil-Felix reaction is reported with E . canis (44). E . risticii does not appear to have heat-sensitive antigenic determinants like the genus Rickettsia does (129). By Western blot (immunoblot) analysis (27), however, 58- to 65-kDa protein antigens of E . risticii and E . sennetsu react with a monoclonal antibody against Rochalimaea quintana 60-kDa antigen, an evolutionally conserved heat shock protein similar to that of several species of the tribe Rickettsieae.

Several ehrlichial species antigenically cross-react within the genus when tested by IFA or Western blot analysis (Table 5). Within the genus Ehrlichia, E. risticii and E. sennetsu have the strongest common antigenicity. E. sennetsu is nonpathogenic to horses, but it protects them from E. risticii infection (148). Human ehrlichiosis patients in the United States develop an antibody that strongly reacts with E. canis (108), and this phenomenon is currently used to serologically diagnose human ehrlichiosis in the United States. IFA testing uses E . canis as the antigen because the etiologic agent of human ehrlichiosis has not yet been isolated from human patients. A possibly new ehrlichia, WSU86-1044, isolated from an aborted bovine fetus, crossreacts with a bovine agent, C. ruminantium, by IFA (31). The biologically similar Neorickettsia elokominica and N. helminthoeca are antigenically distinct (54). Although belonging to different genera, E. equi and C. ruminantium have a strong common antigenicity (76, 103). Low-level serologic cross-reactivity is reported between C. ruminantium and E. phagocytophila by IFA (89). Contrary to previous reports that E . sennetsu and E . canis do not cross-react with N . helminthoeca by IFA (94, 157), our recent study shows that by both IFA and Western blot analysis (135), N. helmintho eca shares antigens with E . risticii, E . sennetsu, and E . canis.

Western blot analysis of ehrlichial antigens has been carried out for E. risticii, E. sennetsu, E. canis, C. ruminantium, and N. helminthoeca. With sera from horses experimentally infected with E. risticii, nine major E. risticii proteins of 100, 86, 70, 55, 51, 49, 44, 33, and 28 kDa can be detected (38). Serum from a patient with human sennetsu rickettsiosis reacts with 100-, 80-, 52-, and 46-kDa E. sennetsu proteins (170). E. canis-infected dog sera reacted with 160-, 100-, 78-, 74-, 64-, 48-, 40-, 30-, 24-, and 21-kDa E. canis proteins (134). N. helminthoeca-infected dog sera reacted with 80-, 64-, 52-, 36-, 32-, and 26-kDa N. helminthoeca proteins (135). Goat and mouse antisera identified a 32-kDa protein as the major common antigen among various Cowdria isolates (88). In addition, several other antigenic polypeptides of 200, 75, 54, 44, 40, and 25 kDa were detected in some isolates (88). Dog anti-N. helminthoeca serum strongly reacted with the 78- and 64-kDa proteins of E.

FIG. 5. E. risticii in the cytoplasm of U-937 cells in culture. Two vacuoles contain several ehrlichial organisms (morulae). Note the presence of electron-dense smaller organisms and electron-lucent larger organisms (arrows). Magnification, $\times 23,800$. Bar = 1 μ m. Reprinted from reference 133 with permission of Kluwer Academic Publishers.

risticii, E. sennetsu, and E. canis (135) . Many E. risticii and E. sennetsu polypeptides commonly react with equine anti-E. risticii and equine anti-E. sennetsu sera (135). In contrast, canine anti-E. canis sera react poorly with E. risticii, E. sennetsu, and N. helminthoeca (135) .

Immune Response

All ehrlichial agents induce a specific antibody response in the natural host or in experimental animals, regardless of the presence of clinical signs. The presence of antibody, however, does not always correlate with clearance of the Ehrlichia spp. and the presence of protective immunity. Persistent infection and recurrence or reinfection after recovery from the clinical disease are reported for several Ehrlichia species. In E. canis infection, parasitemia lasts a long time (years) unless oxytetracycline treatment is given. After tetracycline therapy, clinically recovered dogs with a significantly positive IFA titer against E. canis are fully susceptible to challenge with the homologous strain of E. canis (17). In chronically infected dogs with demonstrable parasitemia, plasma cell infiltration into various organs (plasmacytosis) occurs, indicating a vigorous humoral immune response (73). Immune canine serum slightly suppresses E. canis infection of normal macrophages in vitro (100) but apparently is not effective in vivo. E. phagocytophila is also reported to persist in recovered animals (50).

In E . risticii infection, parasitemia appears to be limited to the acute febrile stage of infection. Persistence of E. risticii antigen, however, was observed in the large colon of a horse for up to 58 days post-experimental infection, that is, 28 days after complete recovery from diarrhea (129). It has been

reported that recovered horses are immune to reinfection for at least 20 months (119). Several days after E. risticii infection of the horse, tests for immunoglobulin G (IgG) antibody become significantly positive (128). Immune horse serum inhibits E . risticii infection of $P388D_1$ cells in vitro and in mice (176). An IgM response occurs a few days after the initial infection and lasts for less than ² months (128). A challenge injection does not elicit an IgM response (128), but a similar study by Dutta et al. has yielded contradictory results (38).

Animals that recover from C. ruminantium infection (heartwater) are immune to reinfection for 6 to 8 months (37). However, protection does not seem to be mediated by antibody, since gamma globulins from heartwater-immune animals fail to protect susceptible animals against heartwater infection (35). In addition, these animals are shown to remain carriers of C. ruminantium for long periods after recovery, e.g., 160 to 250 days in the latest tick transmission experiment (4).

Blood collected from ponies at 81 or 114 days after primary infection with E . equi induced mild clinical signs (fever, mild thrombocytopenia in susceptible recipient ponies) but did not protect the recipient animals against a second challenge 100 days later (115) . It thus appears that E. equi may persist in small numbers despite the concomitant presence of antibodies and the demonstrable inhibition of leukocyte migration (115). As in E. canis infection, oxytetracycline treatment eliminates E. equi from the horses, but rechallenge induces minimal clinical signs, suggesting the development of protective immunity in the recovered horse as opposed to the reaction seen in E . canis infection (115).

FIG. 6. E. canis in the cytoplasm of DH82 cells in culture. Note that the large morula consists of approximately 40 sectioned profiles of microorganisms. E. canis cells are embedded in the filamentous ground substance. Presumably this substance is a capsular component of the microorganism. Magnification, $\times 31,000$. Bar = 1 μ m. Reprinted from reference 29 with permission of the publisher.

N. elokominica also persists for several months in recovered and clinically normal animals (46). Dogs recovered from N. helminthoeca infection develop solid immunity to reinfection (127).

Immunosuppression is associated with infection by two species of Ehrlichia. In E. risticii infection, when spleen or peripheral blood lymphocyte responses are determined postinfection, there is generalized immunosuppression in infected mice and horses, respectively (140, 141). Class II histicompatibility antigen (Ia antigen) induction on the surface of E. risticii-infected macrophages is suppressed in response to gamma interferon used in vitro (110) , suggesting inhibition of antigen-specific T-cell activation in E . risticii infection. Suppression of the humoral immune response (10) and reduced neutrophil function (187) are documented in cases of E. phagocytophila infection.

Pathogenesis

The incubation period for ehrlichial disease (ehrlichiosis) is approximately 1 to 3 weeks, and in general, infection is characterized by fever, depression, and anorexia (Table 6). The disease is apparently dose dependent; i.e., with a lower
dosage of Ehrlichia spp., the innate defense mechanisms
organisms have two lavers of membranes (arrows). Magnification. dosage of *Ehrlichia* spp., the innate defense mechanisms organisms have two layers of membranes (arrows). Magnification, appear to rid the host of *Ehrlichia* cells (140). Only at higher $\times 60,000$. Bar = 0.5 μ m. Cou dosages can the organism cause disease. Although Ehrlichia Miyazaki Department of Health, Miyazaki, Japan.

 $\times 60,000$. Bar = 0.5 μ m. Courtesy of S. Yamamoto and T. Fukuda,

FIG. 8. N. helminthoeca isolated from the blood of an experimentally infected dog in the cytoplasm of canine macrophage cell line DH82 cells. Note ribosomes (R) and fine DNA strands. Magnification, \times 44,000. Bar = 0.1 μ m.

spp. can be isolated from blood at the acute stages of infection, each Ehrlichia species seems to have a characteristic tissue tropism that causes a site-specific disease. E. risticii-infected cells are found predominantly along the intestinal wall, especially in the equine large colon (147), where they cause watery diarrhea. E. canis-infected cells are commonly found in the microvasculature of the canine lungs, kidneys, and meninges (72, 83, 160). Epistaxis is caused by characteristic hemorrhages in the lungs or nasal mucosa. E. sennetsu (113) and Neorickettsiae spp. (55) are predominantly localized in lymph nodes, where they cause severe lymphadenopathy. C. ruminantium commonly localizes in the endothelial cells of the brain tissue (25), where it causes severe neurologic signs.

Generally, patients with ehrlichiosis lack remarkable lesions such as cell lysis, tissue necrosis, abscess formation, or severe inflammatory reactions, especially in the acute stages of the disease. Thrombosis, endothelial-cell hypertrophy/hyperplasia and vasculitis with leukocyte infiltration around blood vessels, all of which generally occur during diseases caused by the rickettsiae, are usually absent during acute ehrlichial infection. Nonfollicular lymphadenopathy is frequently seen in ehrlichial infection. Disappearance of follicles, small lymphocyte depletion and histiocytosis in local lymph nodes are features commonly noted during infection by E. risticii (140, 148), E. sennetsu (116), E. canis (70, 73), E. phagocytophila (82), and N. helminthoeca (55). In E. platys (9) and N. elokominica (55) infection, follicles in the lymph nodes remain active. Plasmacytosis in various organs is characteristic during E . canis (73) and E . platys (9) infection and occurred in a fatal case of human ehrlichiosis in the United States (177) . Hemorrhage occurs with E. canis (73), N . helminthoeca (in the intestinal wall [46]), and E . ondiri (163) infection, but this lesion is not conspicuous with other ehrlichial organisms.

In contrast to infection with the tribe Rickettsieae, hematologic changes are prominent in ehrlichiosis. These changes are leukopenia and rebound leukocytosis. In addition, thrombocytopenia is predominant with infection by E . canis $(17, 98)$, E. platys (9) , E. equi (115) , and E. phagocytophila (53) and with human ehrlichiosis in the United States (21, 40, 108). Increases in serum hepatic aminotransferase activities are found in patients with human ehrlichiosis in the United States (21, 40) and during E . canis (63, 98) and E . phagocytophila (179) infection. Hypergammaglobulinemia is noted with E. canis infection (19), and an increase in α 2-globulin is reported during E. sennetsu infection (170).

In contrast to cells infected with virulent strains of the genus Rickettsia, host cells infected with E. risticii, E. sennetsu, E. canis, or C. ruminantium show little cytolysis in vivo or in vitro until the cytoplasm is completely filled with infecting organisms and the cells burst. Plaque forma-

FIG. 9. Ehrlichia-like agents in a morula in the cytoplasm of a human patient. Magnification, \times 5,000. Bar = 0.1 μ m. Reproduced from reference 107 with the permission of the publisher.

tion in a monolayer of host cells is not seen; instead, infected cells dissociate from the bottom of the culture flask and float. This, too, is different from the situation with the genus Rickettsia. Ehrlichial release appears to occur not only by cell lysis but also through exocytosis, by fusion of the vacuole membrane with the plasma membrane. In vitro, professional phagocytes-monocytes and macrophages of host animal species have no intrinsic resistance to infection with E. risticii, E. sennetsu, E. canis, and N. helminthoeca. In addition, intestinal epithelial cells and mast cells, which are normally not very phagocytic, are induced to take up E . risticii. Macrophages phagocytize Ehrlichia spp., and Ehrlichia spp. inhibit lysosomal fusion with vacuoles, where they reside (185), as do R. tsutsugamushi (137) and chlamydiae. Cytochalasin B, which depolymerizes microfilaments of macrophages, inhibits ehrlichial infection (122) as it inhibits R. tsutsugamushi (137) and chlamydial infections. It is not known whether the specificity for monocytes and granulocytes is due to a specific receptor for each species of Ehrlichia on certain leukocytes or whether Ehrlichia spp. simply cannot survive and proliferate in other types of leukocytes.

Entrance of Ehrlichia spp. into new host cells is not always preceded by lysis of infected host cells. In the case of intestinal epithelial cells, which make a monolayer tightly connected by circumferential zones of intercellular junc-

Source of antiserum	Antigen response ^a									
	E. risticii	E. sennetsu	E. canis	E. equi	C. ruminantium	WSU86-1044	N. helminthoeca	SF agent		
E. risticii	4(4)	3(3)	1 (1)	0			1 or $0(2)$			
E. sennetsu	4(4)	4(4)	1 (1)				1 (2)	1 or 0		
E. canis	1(1)	1(1)	4(4)				2(1)			
E. equi										
Human ehrlichiosis agent										
C. ruminantium										
WSU86-1044										
N. helminthoeca	3(4)	3(4)	3(4)				4(4)			
SF agent										

TABLE 5. Serologic cross-reactivity among ehrlichial species

 a IFA (Western blot) reactivity: 4, strong (homologous antigen); 3, moderate; 2, weak; 1, marginal; 0, negative; $-$, not done.

	Presence of":									
Organism	Incubation period (days ^b)	Recurrence or carriage	Fever, depression, and anorexia	Diarrhea	Abortion	Encephalitis	Leukopenia or rebound leukocytosis			
E. canis	$7 - 21$					$+/-$				
E. risticii	$8 - 13$				$+/-$					
E. sennetsu	$8 - 14$									
E. phagocytophila	3–5									
E. equi	$1 - 9$									
E. platys	$7 - 14$		$+/-$							
E. ondiri	$4 - 10$						$+/-$			
C. ruminantium	$7 - 16$									
N. helminthoeca	$6 - 8$					$+/-$				
Human ehrlichiosis agent	$1-21$ (after tick exposure)			÷						

TABLE 6. Clinical signs and pathology in ehrlichial disease

 $a +$, present; $+/-$, occasionally present; $-$, absent or not noted.

b After experimental transmission.

tions, ehrlichial organisms appear to be transmitted between adjacent cells in vitro by a coupled exocytosis in one cell and endocytosis in an adjacent cell (132). In contrast to ordinary bacteria, Ehrlichia spp. do not activate macrophages in vitro (121) , and phagocytized E. risticii does not induce interleukin-1 or tumor necrosis factor production in macrophages (174). These infected macrophages, however, can be activated and can kill Ehrlichia spp., especially in the early stages of infection by certain exogenous stimuli that are known to increase the intracellular Ca^{2+} level in uninfected macrophages. Such stimuli include (in order of decreasing potency) Ca^{2+} ionophore A23187, gamma interferon, and concanavalin A. Although some of these agents are known to increase protein kinase C activity in uninfected macrophages, a direct protein kinase C activator, phorbol myristic acetate, is not effective, which suggests that protein kinase C may not be involved in this process (120). The tribe Ehrlichieae in general does not induce a severe inflammatory reaction in the tissues, as noted by Cowdry (25) and Rikihisa et al. (147). In part this may be due to the lack of complete macrophage activation and its attendant cascade of inflammatory reaction.

Thrombocytopenia in E . *canis* infection may be immune mediated (90, 91). A platelet migration inhibitory factor with a molecular weight of 150,000 to 190,000, which is distinct from antiplatelet antibody and is produced by lymphocytes of E. canis-infected dogs, is suggested as the cause of thrombocytopenia in cases of tropical canine pancytopenia (1).

HUMAN EHRLICHIOSIS

Sennetsu Ehrlichiosis

Among members of the tribe Ehrlichieae, E. sennetsu, isolated in mice from a patient's blood, bone marrow, and lymph node in 1953 in Japan (57, 113), is the only species known to cause human disease in nature. Sennetsu ehrlichiosis, characterized by an acute febrile illness with lethargy, prominent hematologic abnormality, lymphocytosis, and postauricular and posterior cervical lymphadenopathy, has existed in the southwestern part of Japan since the late 19th century (112). Seroprevalence was recently recognized in Malaysia among patients suffering from fevers of unknown origin (153); E. sennetsu 11908 was isolated from the blood of a human patient in Malaysia (153, 183). Laboratory findings include leukopenia, with an increase in neutrophils at the initial disease stage, and both a relative and an absolute increase in lymphocytes (accompanied by the appearance of atypical cells) in the late febrile to convalescent stages. Erythrocyte and platelet counts are normal. C-reactive protein becomes positive, α 2-globulin fraction of serum increases, and serum transaminase values are elevated. Sennetsu ehrlichiosis has never been reported to be fatal. Differential diagnosis of the disease includes infectious mononucleosis and scrub typhus, which occurs in the same part of the world. The mode of transmission of E . sennetsu is unknown, although a fish parasite is suspected as a vector because the disease is associated with consumption of a particular raw fish (58). However, intraperitoneal and subcutaneous, but not oral, routes are effective in reproducing the disease in monkeys (116). At necropsy, lymph nodes of experimentally infected monkeys show diffuse proliferation of large basophilic lymphatic cells, disappearance of follicles, and obscure boundaries of the medullary cord and sinus (116).

Mice are highly susceptible to E. sennetsu and are used to isolate the organism from human patient specimens (57, 113). An infected mouse shows lymph node enlargement after about 2 weeks. Diarrhea, weakness, and ruffled fur followed by death occur ³ to 4 weeks after inoculation (113). Necropsy of the mouse reveals enlargement of lymph nodes, spleen, and liver but no ascites. When stained by the Romanowsky-type method or IFA labeling, the cytoplasm of peritoneal cells from infected mice contains E. sennetsu.

Human Ehrlichiosis in the United States

Recently, a new type of human ehrlichiosis was clinically, serologically, and microscopically (108) recognized in 14 states in the United States (Fig. 10) (for a review, see references 40 and 109). The disease is serologically and clinically distinct from sennetsu ehrlichiosis. Clinical signs of this disease are similar to those of Rocky Mountain spotted fever and include fever, arthralgia, myalgia, headache, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, chills, pneumonia, leukopenia, and, in 20% of the cases, rash (21). More than 100 cases have been confirmed to date (40, 48, 49, 68, 125, 172), and at least three fatalities have been associated with the infection (40, 177). Laboratory test abnormalities such as leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, and elevated levels of he-

VOL. 4, 1991							THE TRIBE EHRLICHIEAE AND EHRLICHIAL DISEASES	297
				TABLE 6-Continued Presence of:				
Thrombocy- topenia	Abnormal liver function	Lymphade- nopathy	Spleno- megaly	Plasma- cytosis	Vascu- litis	Edema	Hemorrhage	Hydro- cardium
$^{+}$	$+$		$+$	$+$	$+$		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$
$+/-$						$+/-$ (Leg)		
	$\mathrm{+}$		$^{+}$					
$^{+}$	\div							
$\boldsymbol{+}$					$+$	$+$ (Leg)	$\ddot{}$	┿
	$+/-$			$^{+}$			+ (Spleen)	
			$^{+}$			$+$ (Lung)	$\, +$	
			\div	$\,{}^+$			+ (Intestine)	
+	$\overline{+}$		$^{+}$	$^{+}$				

TABLE 6-Continued

patic aminotransferases are common (21, 40, 109). These laboratory findings for human ehrlichiosis are remarkably similar to those for canine ehrlichiosis (63, 98). In one case, autopsy revealed alveoli containing many erythrocytes and macrophages, hepatic focal acidophilic and centrilobular necrosis, Kupffer cell and bone marrow erythrophagocytosis, splenomegaly, and multifocal perivascular mononuclear infiltrates, including many plasma cells in the kidneys, brain, spinal cord, and heart (177). The pathologic findings closely resemble those for canine ehrlichiosis (73). The patient's serum reacted most strongly with E . canis and at a low dilution $(1:20)$ with $E.$ sennetsu (108) . $E.$ sennetsu infects blood monocytes, while this new agent appears to infect lymphocytes, neutrophils, and monocytes (108). The etiologic agent, which is speculated to be a new ehrlichial species or a new strain of E. canis, has been isolated and cultured in DH82 cells from a patient with human ehrlichiosis (27a). Approximately 83% of patients had a history of tick exposure in the month before onset of illness (21, 40). Differential characteristics of two human ehrlichioses are shown in Table 7.

VETERINARY IMPORTANCE OF THE TRIBE EHRLICHIEAE

E. canis (Type Species)

E. canis is the causative agent of canine ehrlichiosis (tropical canine pancytopenia), a tick-borne disease of dogs described originally in Algeria in 1935 (32) and soon after in the Middle East and Orient. E. canis was first recognized in the United States in 1962 (41). The disease is now distributed throughout the world and was especially noted during the Vietnam War, since hundreds of U.S. military dogs in Vietnam died from E. canis infection. Clinical signs can be acute, subclinical, or chronic. The acute phase is characterized by mild clinical signs such as fever, depression, dyspnea, and anorexia with lymphadenopathy and mild weight

FIG. 10. Distribution of human ehrlichiosis in the United States from 1986 to 1988. Cases were identined by state of residence or where tick exposure occurred. Shaded areas represent states from which cases of ehrlichiosis have been reported. Reprinted from reference 109 with the permission of the publisher.

TABLE 7. Characteristics of human ehrlichiosis

Parameter	Sennetsu ehrlichiosis	Ehrlichiosis in United States
Etiology	E. sennetsu	Not yet isolated
Clinical signs	Fever, lymphadenopathy	Rocky Mountain spotted fever-like
IFA antigen	E. sennetsu	E. canis
Distribution	Japan, Malaysia	United States
Vector	Unknown	Tick
Host	Monocytes	Lymphocytes

loss (17, 63, 178). The chronic phase is characterized by hemorrhages, epistaxis, peripheral edema, emaciation, and hypotensive shock leading to death (17, 63). Laboratory findings are thrombocytopenia, leukopenia, and hypergammaglobulinemia (17, 63, 98). The severity of the disease is related to the breed of dog infected. German shepherd dogs more frequently develop a chronic hemorrhagic syndrome (73). Concomitant disease (e.g., babesiosis or hemobartonellosis) may intensify the clinical signs (41). E. canis grows in the cytoplasm of blood monocytes of infected dogs and can be isolated from the peripheral blood monocytes (114).

In addition, Ewing et al. reported granulocytic canine ehrlichiosis, which is a milder disease than monocytic canine ehrlichiosis and is sometimes associated with polyarthritis $(42, 45)$, which monocytic E. canis is not. Granulocytic and monocytic E. canis strains are antigenically cross-reactive but apparently not cross-protective (42); they primarily infect granulocytes and monocytes, respectively. Although E. equi can infect canine granulocytes (101), dogs infected with granulocytic E. canis do not develop a higher antibody titer to E . equi than to monocytic E . canis (42). Granulocytic E. canis does not cause parasitemia in horses and does not protect horses from E. equi challenge (42). Thus, Ewing et al. believe that granulocytic E . canis is more closely related to E . canis than to E . equi (42). Our Western blot analysis study also supports this observation (134).

At necropsy, splenomegaly, lymphadenopathy, and plasmacytosis in various organs are found in animals infected with $E.$ canis (73). The largest numbers of morulae are seen in the lungs, spleens, and mesenteric lymph nodes from experimentally infected dogs (8). By electron microscopy, monocytic E. canis is seen in the alveolar macrophages of the lungs of experimentally infected dogs (160).

The disease is primarily transmitted by the larvae, nymphs, and adults of the brown dog tick, Rhipicephalus sanguineus (65). Experimental canine transmission of granulocytic E. canis by Amblyomma americanum has been reported (7), and *Octobius magnini* was also suggested as a vector (43). The attraction of mononuclear cells to the inflamed site of tick attachment and to tick salivary secretions may aid in the infection process of monocytes with E . canis. In infected ticks, E. canis multiples within hemocytes and salivary gland cells, eventually enters the digestive tract, and then infects the midgut epithelium (161). Ticks transmit the disease transstadially but not transovarially (65). An adult R. sanguineus can transmit E . canis for a maximum of ¹⁵⁵ days after detaching from the host (102). No species other than the Canidae are susceptible to E . canis infection. Dogs can be chronically infected without apparent clinical signs for more than 5 years. Thus, wild and domestic canids are considered the natural reservoir of E . canis (65).

Antibody formation is prompt with this organism. By 20

days postinfection, 100% of dogs are seropositive, and IFA titers in untreated dogs peak at 80 days postinfection (17).

E. risticii

E. risticii is the causative agent of Potomac horse fever (equine monocytic ehrlichiosis, equine ehrlichial colitis, acute equine diarrhea syndrome). The disease was originally recognized in 1979 (95) along the Potomac River in Maryland and Virginia. It is now known to occur throughout North America, France, and possibly India (153). The disease is seen during the summer, mostly from June through September. In 1984, the ehrlichial organism was seen for the first time in the intestinal walls of affected horses (146), serologic cross-reactivity with E. sennetsu was noted in infected horses (78), and the etiologic agent was isolated in human histiocytic lymphoma U-937 cells (144, 145), canine primary monocytes (78) , and murine P388D₁ cells (39) . Clinical signs of the disease are fever, anorexia, depression, watery diarrhea, colic, leukopenia, and laminitis. The case fatality rate varies from 5 to 30%. Transplacental transmission of E. risticii has been reported (30), and the organism may induce abortion or resorption of the fetus.

There are few gross pathologic changes in horses with Potomac horse fever except for patchy hyperemia along the wall of the large intestine (147). There is no destruction, foul odor, or significant inflammatory infiltration such as occurs with enterocolitis caused by salmonellae, which may cause similar clinical signs or may coinfect with E . *risticii* in nature (147). However, remarkable goblet cell mucous depletion and reduced height and increased basophilia of mucosal epithelial cells, dilation of intestinal glands, and entrapment of cell debris in the gland lumens are seen during experimental E. risticii infection (141, 148). Mesenteric lymph nodes are relatively small and composed of prominent sheets of histiocytes, macrophages, occasional giant cells, and severely depleted inactive lymphoid cells (148).

E. risticii has a predilection for the intestinal wall, especially that of the large colon (146, 147), and infects blood monocytes, tissue macrophages, intestinal glandular (crypt) epithelial cells, and mast cells (131, 147). Watery diarrhea is caused by a reduction in electrolyte transport $(Na^+, Cl^-);$ thus, there is lack of water resorption, mainly in the large and small colons (142). Infected intestinal epithelial cells lose microvilli (132, 142), which may contribute to reduced electrolyte transport and reduced water resorption. An increase in intracellular cyclic AMP is found in both infected mouse macrophages (129) and infected mouse and horse intestinal tissues (130, 142). This change in cyclic-AMP content may also contribute to the reduced luminal absorption of $Na⁺$ and $Cl⁻$ in the colon and thus to the lack of water adsorption and the consequent diarrhea.

Prompt IgM and IgG antibody development in E. risticii infection has been documented (128). The cell-mediated immune response in infected mice is generally severely depressed in a time- and dose-related manner (140).

The mode of transmission of Potomac horse fever is unknown. The seasonal nature, sporadic existence (95), and experimental transmission by the intradermal route (124) suggest a blood-sucking arthropod as the vector. Dermacentor variabilis, blackflies, eye gnats, biting midges, and mosquitoes have been found to be negative for E . risticii transmission (158). Experimental oral transmission of the disease has been demonstrated (118), although the feco-oral route is not the natural mode of transmission.

In vitro doxycycline, demeclocycline, and oxytetracycline

are effective in eliminating the organism in $P388D_1$ cells (138). Although oxytetracycline by itself is bacteriostatic, it was found to induce lysosomal fusion with ehrlichia-containing vacuoles in $P388D_1$ cells (185), thus becoming bactericidal. In vivo efficacy of antibiotic treatment is discussed below in Treatment and Prevention of Ehrlichial Disease.

E. equi

Equine ehrlichiosis and E . *equi* in the cytoplasm of neutrophils in affected horses were initially reported in 1969 (64). Clinical signs of the disease are fever, depression, partial anorexia, limb edema, petechiation, icterus, ataxia, and reluctance to move (164) . In contrast to E. risticii infection, laminitis does not develop in equine ehrlichiosis (106). Hematologic changes observed are thrombocytopenia, elevated plasma icterus index, decreased packed-cell volume, and marked leukopenia involving first lymphocytes and then granulocytes. The disease is inapparent to mild and is usually not fatal except for injury resulting from ataxia. In contrast to Potomac horse fever, the disease is found during late fall, winter, and spring. The disease has been observed chiefly in California. In addition, sporadic cases have been reported in Colorado, Illinois, Florida, Washington, New Jersey, Germany (20), Switzerland (71), Sweden (14), and Israel (66). In the United States, the disease occurs much less frequently than Potomac horse fever.

E. equi morulae are found in the cytoplasm of neutrophils. The infection rate of peripheral blood neutrophils varies from 0.5 to 73% (64). The characteristic gross lesions are petechial hemorrhages and edema accompanied by proliferative and necrotizing vasculitis of small arteries and veins in the legs (64). E. equi can cause parasitemia in dogs, cats, and nonhuman primates, with mild to no clinical signs (101). Infected animals develop antibody detectable by IFA, and leukocytes from infected animals show inhibition of migration when mixed with E . *equi* antigen (115). The mode of transmission of the disease is unknown, but ticks are the suspected vector. The blood of recovered horses is reported not to be infectious (106).

E. phagocytophila

E. phagocytophila was first described by Gordon et al. in 1940 (61) as the infective agent of tick-borne fever, which was originally described by MacLeod in 1932 (105). It is found in England and other European countries and is transmitted by the sheep tick Ixodes ricinus. Tick-borne fever is an acute disease from which most animals recover within 2 weeks after the onset of illness, although spontaneous relapse may occur after splenectomy, other infectious disease, or injury (50). The disease is characterized by fever, reduced milk production (26), reduced growth rate, and leukopenia, due first to a profound decrease in the number of circulating lymphocytes and later to neutropenia and transient but marked thrombocytopenia (52, 171). Abortion and stillbirths occur in infected pregnant heifers (186). Mortality is generally low, although 23.75% mortality was reported by Jamieson (85).

E. phagocytophila is pleomorphic and consists of small "elementary bodies" that develop into larger homogeneous masses called "initial bodies" (189). E. phagocytophila primarily infects neutrophils and other granulocytes of sheep, goats, cattle, and deer. At the height of fever, 95% of neutrophils may be infected (50). Lymph nodes devoid of germinal centers and cortical regions replaced by proliferat-

ing reticulocytes are the characteristic lesions in this disease (61). Reduced capacity of neutrophils to phagocytize and kill bacteria (187), B-cell depletion (11), and inhibition of humoral immunity but not delayed skin hypersensitivity reaction (10) have been reported. These immunosuppressions make E. phagocytophila-infected sheep susceptible to other diseases such as louping ill (ovine encephalomyelitis) (105) and tick pyemia (staphylococcal infection) (51). After an animal recovers from the clinical illness, the organism may persist for up to 25 months and the blood remains infectious (50).

E. platys

E. platys, originally described by Harvey et al. (69) in 1978, is found in the platelets of dogs suffering from infectious canine cyclic thrombocytopenia. Clinical signs of the disease are fever, depression, and anorexia (9). Parasitemia and thrombocytopenia occur in cycles at approximately 10 to 14-day intervals (9). Pathologic changes are generalized lymph node enlargement, follicular hyperplasia in the spleen and lymph nodes, and increased cellularity in the bone marrow (9). Megakaryocytes in bone marrow have not been observed to contain organisms.

Seropositive dogs have been found in Florida, Pennsylvania, Texas, Louisiana, Illinois, California, Arkansas, Mississippi, Idaho, and North Carolina (56) . E. canis and E. platys infections may occur simultaneously (81). Minimal serologic cross-reaction is thought to occur between E. canis and E. platys (9, 56). Antigenic relationships with other species of Ehrlichia are unknown. Transmission is thought to occur by ticks but has not been experimentally proven.

E. (Cytoecetes) ondiri

E. ondiri was identified as the cause of bovine petechial fever (Ondiri disease) in Kenya in 1962 (67). According to Haig and Danskin (67), this disease was first described in 1933 and is characterized by fever, petechiae, and depression. Clinical signs are more severe than those of E . phagocytophila infection. Leukopenia is prominent, and E. ondiri is found in neutrophils, large lymphocytes, monocytes, and eosinophils of the circulating blood and in the large lymphocytes of the spleen (97). There is no cross-immunity between E. ondiri and C. ruminantium (67), which also occurs in Kenya. Both cattle and sheep are susceptible. Recovered animals are immune to reinfection (162), which is not the case with E. phagocytophila infection. No antigenic or other relationship of E. ondiri with E. bovis, E. ovina, or E. phagocytophila is known. The disease is thought to be transmitted by ticks, but this has not yet been proven.

C. ruminantium

Heartwater was first noticed in South Africa in 1838. The disease is characterized by fever of up to 107°F (ca. 42°C), depression, excessive salivation, and neurologic signs-such as muscular twitching, squinting, blind charge, circling, and tetanic seizure-but no rash (25). Peracute or acute disease is usually fatal within a week of the onset of symptoms. Exotic breeds of cattle, sheep, and goats, when introduced into an area where heartwater is endemic, often develop a peracute form of the disease. A subacute or mild form of the disease is seen in antelope and some indigenous breeds of sheep and cattle with high resistance to the disease. Death is rare in this case, and most animals recover after mild clinical

illness. The gross changes observed at necropsy are hydropericardium (thus the name heartwater), ascites, hydrothorax, mediastinal edema, and edema of the lungs. Subendocardial petechial hemorrhages are usually seen, and submucosal and subserosal hemorrhages may occur elsewhere in the body. Degeneration of the myocardium and liver parenchyma, splenomegaly, edema of the lymph nodes, catarrhal and hemorrhagic abomasitis, and enteritis are all commonly encountered. Brain congestion may occur, but brain lesions are remarkably few considering the severity of the nervous system symptoms observed in this disease. Although C. ruminantium infects endothelial cells, necrosis, endothelial proliferation, and thrombosis are not found (25). Leukocytosis is the characteristic histopathologic lesion (36). C. ruminantium is detectable in the spleen and lymph nodes at the onset of the disease and is readily detectable in endothelial cells of the capillaries of the renal glomeruli and cerebral cortex of sheep, goats, and cattle as the disease progresses (25). Small clusters of extracellular organisms have been noted in the lumina of blood vessels in the brain and lymph node sinuses (36).

Recently, C. ruminantium was cultured in bovine endothelial cells (13, 87) and goat neutrophils (104). C. ruminantium is antigenically strongly cross-reactive with E . equi, only weakly cross-reactive with E. canis, and nonreactive with E. risticii, E. sennetsu, Rickettsia spp., Coxiella burnetii, and Anaplasma marginale (103). Electron microscopy reveals that two isolates of C. ruminantium appear to possess large quantities of peptidoglycanlike materials (133, 143). The enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for IgG antibody becomes positive when animals become febrile (175). Recent research shows that sheep, cattle, and the African buffalo remain carriers of heartwater for long periods after recovery, i.e., 223, 246, and 161 days, respectively (4). So far, the disease is limited to sub-Saharan Africa and the Caribbean region, where it is transmitted by Amblyomma ticks. The wide range of antigenic variation among Cowdria stocks makes effective vaccine development difficult (12).

WSU86-1044

WSU86-1044 agent was isolated in 1986 in cultured bovine turbinate cells from the liver and lungs of an aborted bovine fetus in the state of Washington (31). The organism antigenically cross-reacts with the Kiswani isolate of C. ruminantium but not with several Ehrlichia spp., three species of Chlamydia, the tribe Rickettsieae, or Anaplasma marginale (31). The organism has an apparent developmental cycle similar to that of chlamydiae when it is cultured in BT or $P388D_1$ cells (96). Its antigenic relationship to E. phagocytophila, E. ondiri, E. bovis, or other ehrlichial organisms is unknown. The organism is suspected to cause bovine abortion, but this has not been proven.

N. helminthoeca

N. helminthoeca in dogs was discovered in 1950 (24, 126). N. helminthoeca causes salmon poisoning disease, which was recognized by settlers in the early 19th century (127). The disease is characterized by fever, anorexia, depression, dehydration, vomiting, weight loss, and watery and often bloody diarrhea. Mortality exceeds 90% in untreated cases. Intestinal hemorrhage and inflammation are the most characteristic lesions. Generalized lymph node enlargement due to marked infiltration of macrophages is accompanied by severe depletion of small lymphocytes and loss of germinal centers (55). Splenic follicular central hemorrhage and necrosis and obliteration of thymic architecture by macrophage infiltration are common (55). N. helminthoeca is found in macrophages in most of the lymph nodes and in histiocytes of the intestinal villi but never in blood (127).

N. elokominica was first isolated in the 1960s as the cause of Elokomin fluke fever along the Elokomin river in the state of Washington (47). By immunofluorescence, N. helminthoeca and N. elokominica cross-react weakly (94) or not at all (54), and they are not cross-protective of each other (55). Clinical signs of Elokomin fluke fever are milder than those of salmon poisoning disease. Hemorrhagic enteritis is uncommon in Elokomin fluke fever. Without more data to judge by, some researchers believe that N , elokominica is an isolate or a strain of N. helminthoeca (62). Dogs may be naturally infected with the two species of Neorickettsia (46).

N. helminthoeca is a parasite of a fluke Nanophyetus salmincola, which has a complex life cycle involving both snails (Oxytrema silicula) and salmonid fish as intermediate hosts and carnivores as the final host. Infection of dogs with N. helminthoeca occurs following ingestion of salmonid fish that harbor metacercariea containing Neorickettsia spp. (62, 126, 127). N. helminthoeca is the first and only obligatory helminth-borne pathogen that has been discovered in the bacterial field. N. salmincola harbors Neorickettsia spp. throughout its life cycle, from egg to adult (126, 127).

Salmon poisoning disease occurs predominantly on the western slopes of the Cascade Mountains from northwestern California to southwestern Washington, corresponding to the distribution of the snail O . silicula. The evidence for residence of the pathogen in N. salmincola is, however, based entirely on transmission experiments, and the organism has not been seen in any of the developmental stages of N. salmincola (neither in the fish nor in the snail). Dogs, foxes, and coyotes are susceptible to the disease. House cats, minks, raccoons, bears, swine, and birds apparently are resistant to neorickettsial infection, although they can be definitive hosts of the trematode vector. N. elokominica can infect bears, ferrets, and raccoons in addition to canids (46). Recovered dogs are solidly immune for up to 56 days (127).

SF Agent

In the area where sennetsu fever exists in Japan, what is apparently another species, named SF agent, was isolated in 1973 from the fluke S. falcatus by intraperitoneal or oral administration of metacercariae into mice and was maintained by mouse passage of spleen cells of infected mice (58). SF agent antigenically cross-reacts with E. sennetsu weakly (59) or not at all (190). SF agent causes a mild clinical sign (fever) in dogs and can be reisolated from the dog (60). It causes severe splenomegaly and lymphadenopathy in mice but does not kill them, unlike E. sennetsu (58), which does. In contrast, N. helminthoeca and N. elokominica are weakly pathogenic to mice but cannot be maintained by mouse passage (127). The antigenic relationship between SF agent and N. helminthoeca is unknown. It is not known if SF agent causes illness in animals or humans in nature.

LABORATORY DIAGNOSIS OF EHRLICHIAL DISEASES

The laboratory diagnosis of ehrlichiosis is effected by (i) direct examination by Romanowsky-stained peripheral blood smears (E. equi, E. phagocytophila) or lymph node

	Usefulness of procedure ^a									
Organism			Isolation in	Postmortem tissue						
	Blood smear	Serology	cell culture	Immunoperoxidase labeling	Giemsa stain					
E. risticii			R	R						
E. sennetsu			D (mouse)	ND	ND					
E. canis			R	R	R					
E. equi		R	ND	ND	ND					
E. phagocytophila	D	R	R	ND	ND					
E. platys	D	R	ND	ND	ND					
E. ondiri	D	ND	ND	ND	ND					
C. ruminantium		R	R	ND	D					
N. helminthoeca	(Lymphnode aspirate) D	R	R	R	R					

TABLE 8. Laboratory diagnostic procedures for members of the tribe Ehrlichieae

 a D, used for clinical diagnosis; R, used primarily for research; $-$, not useful; ND, not done.

aspirate (N. helminthoeca) for the presence of ehrlichial inclusions, (ii) detection of specific antibodies (IgG or IgM or both) against Ehrlichia species in patient serum (E. canis, E. risticii, E. sennetsu), (iii) isolation of Ehrlichia spp. from patient blood by using mice $(E.$ sennetsu) or cell cultures $(E.$ risticii, N. helminthoeca), and (iv) postmortem examination of stained brain smears $(C.$ ruminantium), lung smears $(E.$ canis), or paraffin-embedded colon tissue specimens (E. risticii) (Table 8). The best diagnostic procedure varies depending on the ehrlichial species involved. Practical diagnostic methods must therefore be carefully evaluated before they are implemented.

Direct Microscopic Examination

Direct microscopic examination of Romanowsky (we prefer Giemsa or Diff-Quik)-stained peripheral-blood buffy coat smears is simple and inexpensive and provides a permanent record. Ehrlichia spp. appear as clusters of round, dark

purple-stained, small dots or clusters of dots which appear like mulberry blotches (morulae) in the cytoplasm of leukocytes. This type of examination is useful only during the acute phases of the diseases caused by E . *equi* (Fig. 11), E . phagocytophila, and the recently recognized human ehrlichiosis agent (Fig. 12), all of which infect primarily granulocytes or lymphocytes. This method is of limited value for diagnosing E. sennetsu, E. risticii, and N. helminthoeca, which primarily infect blood monocytes, because only a few blood monocytes are infected with very few organisms even at the acute stage of infection. E. canis is more frequently found in blood monocytes than E. sennetsu or E. risticii, and a positive blood smear provides a definitive diagnosis. It is difficult, however, to find E . canis in the blood, and we have found that false-negative smears are common. Lung, lymph node, and spleen (frequency of finding in this order) aspirates or biopsy specimens from dogs with canine ehrlichiosis (63) or lymph node aspirates from dogs with salmon poisoning disease reveal intracytoplasmic inclusions (62, 126).

FIG. 11. Light micrograph of a blood smear from a horse infected with E. equi. Two morulae are indicated by arrows. Giemsa stain. Original blood smear, courtesy of J. Madigan, University of California, Davis. Magnification, \times 1,500. Bar = 10 μ m.

FIG. 12. Light micrograph of a blood smear from a patient suffering from human ehrlichiosis. Six morulae appear in the cytoplasm of a blood monocyte. Leishman stain. Magnification, \times 2,700. Bar = 10 μ m. Reprinted from reference 107 with the permission of the publisher.

Serologic Diagnosis

All ehrlichial agents induce specific humoral immune responses. These responses are the basis for serologic diagnosis of ehrlichial diseases. However, since a serologic response occurs in every animal exposed to Ehrlichia spp. regardless of whether infection is established or disease is present, serologic testing alone, with no supporting clinical information, provides limited information for the diagnosis of disease. Serologic diagnosis of ehrlichial infections can be accomplished either by IFA (128, 155, 157) or enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (128). The cut-off titer for positive serology varies with the laboratory. In my laboratory, IgG IFA titers of \geq 20 represent positive serology. For serologic testing for E. risticii infection, the higher the titer, the greater the correlation with clinical Potomac horse fever disease (149). The chance of healthy horses having a titer of ≤ 40 is similar to that of ill horses (early and late stages and low level of infection with E. risticii or possible cross-reaction with other microorganisms). Thus, with a titer of ≤ 40 , although the horse is seropositive, the current disease is not likely to be caused by E , *risticii*. The chance of having a titer of \geq 80 and \leq 640 is approximately 4 times higher in ill horses than in healthy horses, and the chance of having titers $>1,280$ is 12 to 26 times higher in ill horses (149). All experimentally infected horses have had IFA titers of ≥ 80 at the onset of clinical disease.

Ehrlichia-infected macrophage cultures are used as the antigen for E. sennetsu, E. risticii, and E. canis IFA; an experimentally infected animal blood leukocyte smear is used for E . *equi* (75) and E . *phagocytophila* (123); and experimentally infected dog platelets are used for E. platys (56). E . risticii, E . sennetsu, and E . canis have been adapted to grow in continuous murine monocyte-macrophage and other cell lines (Table 4); thus the antigen slides are relatively easy to prepare (29, 128, 150). Currently, human ehrlichiosis in the United States is diagnosed by IFA with E. canis as the antigen (29). An enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay has been developed for E. risticii (128) and C. ruminantium (175). The IgM titer rises earlier during the course of infection than the IgG titer. A rise in IgM titer occurs only at the time of initial infection, and the titer becomes negative in ¹ to 2 months (128). Thus, an IgM enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay is not useful for detecting chronic or multiple infection but is useful for early diagnosis of a primary infection.

Of horses at two racetracks in Ohio, 138 (13%) of 840 and 116 (20%) of 574 were exposed to E. risticii, according to results of a serosurvey conducted in the summer of 1986 (149). Of the seropositive horses, 80 to 90% did not show clinical signs of infection. Similarly, in a serosurvey for E. canis infection conducted between 1979 and 1980, 233 (11%) of 2,077 military dogs and 535 (57%) of 938 civilian dogs were found to be seropositive (92). None of the seropositive military dogs had clinical signs of ehrlichiosis, but 216 (23%) of the seropositive civilian dogs had various signs of the disease. In a serosurvey conducted with 74 reservist humans, 9 (12%) were seropositive to E. canis, 2 of these 9 were symptomatic, and the remainder had mild clinical signs

(49). Thus, subclinical infection appears to take place with Potomac horse fever, canine ehrlichiosis, and human ehrlichiosis in the United States. An extensive serosurvey has not been conducted for other ehrlichial diseases.

In summary, recommendations for the serologic confirmation of clinical ehrlichial disease include demonstration of seroconversion, a fourfold rise or fall in titer, or the presence of specific IgM. It should be emphasized, however, that the initial diagnosis and treatment of Potomac horse fever should be based on clinical signs, negative test results for other pathogens such as salmonellae for which the use of tetracyclines may be contraindicated, and initial IFA test results if available within ¹ to 2 days. Treatment should not be delayed until laboratory confirmation is obtained from a second IFA test. With the recent advent of a commercially available vaccine, however, it has become difficult to serodiagnose vaccinated horses when they develop clinical signs of Potomac horse fever. Immunologic cross-reactivity among members of the tribe Ehrlichieae (Table 5) does not create a serious problem because of the limited geographic distribution, host animal specificity of Ehrlichia spp. in nature, different clinical signs, and effectiveness of oxytetracycline for all of the ehrlichial diseases, especially at early stages of infection.

Isolation of Members of the Tribe Ehrlichieae

The isolation of E. risticii (145), E. canis (114), and N. helminthoeca (151) is accomplished by inoculating buffy coat or mononuclear cell fractions of peripheral blood of affected animals into cell culture. E. sennetsu has been isolated by intraperitoneal injection of 0.5 ml of blood from human patients into mice (113). Murine monocyte-macrophage $P388D_1$ cells, human histiocytic lymphoma U-937 cells, or canine primary monocytes are used for isolating E . risticii, E. canis, and N. helminthoeca (Table 4). The procedure is more sensitive than direct observation. Even if a single organism cannot be seen in the original buffy coat smear, the organisms can be isolated by this procedure.

Isolation procedures for diagnosing infection are impractical for clinical laboratories because they take too long (3 days to ¹ month) relative to the rapid course of ehrlichial disease and require a good cell culture facility. Although positive isolation provides a definitive diagnosis, negative results do not necessarily indicate the absence of infection. For E. equi and E. phagocytophila, since organisms can be easily seen in granulocytes, cultivation is not required, and a reliable isolation method has not been developed. If ovine blood is incubated, however, multiplication of E . phagocytophila is induced, thereby making diagnosis easier (188). C. ruminantium has been cultured, but the method does not appear to be used frequently as a diagnostic procedure.

Postmortem Identification of Ehrlichial Organisms

E. risticii can be demonstrated in intestinal epithelial cells and macrophages in paraffin-embedded tissue specimens with a silver stain or an immunoperoxidase procedure using a specific antibody to E . risticii (165) (Fig. 13). E . canis has been demonstrated in the impression smears of the canine lung (72, 83) by using Romanowsky staining and in canine tissues by using an immunoperoxidase procedure (8). C. ruminantium is routinely identified in brain tissue after similar Romanowsky staining (25). N. helminthoeca may be demonstrated in the lymph nodes by Romanowsky staining or IFA (55).

FIG. 13. E. risticii in paraffin-embedded equine intestinal tissue stained by immunoperoxidase stain. Note the numerous microorganisms in macrophages (arrows). Magnification, $\times 616$. Bar = 10 p.m.

TREATMENT AND PREVENTION OF EHRLICHIAL DISEASES

In vitro E. risticii is susceptible to tetracyclines but resistant to erythromycin and nalidixic acid (138). E. sennetsu is susceptible to doxycycline and ciprofloxacin but resistant to erythromycin, penicillin, and chloramphenicol (15). As with other rickettsiae, Ehrlichia spp. are resistant to aminoglycosides. Oxytetracycline and doxycycline frequently correct the pyrexia and other clinical signs associated with canine ehrlichiosis (17) and human ehrlichiosis in the United States (21, 40, 108) within 24 to 48 h. Importantly, oxytetracycline eliminates carrier status in E. canis infection (17). Although doxycycline is more effective than oxytetracycline in vitro (138) and is highly effective in mice inoculated with E. risticii (139), oxytetracycline is preferred for the equine species because intravenous administration of doxycycline has an acute toxic effect. In our experience, intravenous oxytetracycline at 6.6 mg/kg of body weight twice a day for 7 days was effective in 71% of cases (five of seven) of experimentally infected ponies when the ponies were treated after the development of severe clinical signs (86). Oxytetracycline is also reported to be effective when given immediately after the development of fever but before the development of diarrhea (120). Tetracyclines are reported to be effective for treating E . equi (106), E . phagocytophila (5) , E. ondiri (67) , C. ruminantium (12) , and N. helminthoeca (46, 62) at the early stage of infection. A combination of trimethoprim, sulfadimidine-sulfamethylphenazole (5), or chloramphenicol (6) was also reported to be effective for E. phagocytophila infection. Dithiosemicarbazone is more efficacious than pyrolidino-methyl-tetracycline or oxytetracycline for E . *ondiri* (163). Intramuscular injection of imidocarb dipropionate has been shown to be effective in treating canine ehrlichiosis, especially when there is coinfection with babesia (2).

Other supportive therapy is frequently required for acutely ill animals or humans if they are to show clinical improvement. Dehydration is corrected by the oral or intravenous administration of polyionic isotonic fluids. Brief therapy (2 to 7 days) with nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory agents (phenylbutazone, flunixin meglumine, aspirin) for horses may be valuable early in the course of treatment to help in the management of clinical signs of Potomac horse

fever (150). Intranasal epinephrine, phenylephrine, or other vasoconstrictors may help to control intranasal hemorrhage in emergency situations in animals with canine ehrlichiosis.

For those ehrlichial diseases known to be transmitted by arthropod vectors, attempts to control the vector population should be made by spraying kennels and barns and dipping animals at 1- to 2-week intervals in areas where the disease is endemic. Vector transmission is probably the only means of spread under natural circumstances, as susceptible animals housed for several months adjacent to infected animals do not have a higher incidence of the disease than those kept far from infected animals (123).

Epizootics of canine ehrlichiosis and heartwater have been successfully controlled or contained by long-term tetracycline prophylaxis. It is essential to use this method of control whenever tick exposure is impossible to prevent. Two vaccines prepared from inactivated cell-cultured E. risticii are commercially available for Potomac horse fever, but none have been developed for large-scale prevention of the other ehrlichial diseases (except for an infected-blood vaccine for heartwater). Disease prevention by one of the vaccines for E. risticii was recently reviewed (117). For C. ruminantium, virulent sheep blood vaccine or Amblyomma hebraeum nymphal suspension infected with Ball ³ stock followed by treatment with tetracycline is effective in preventing a more serious course of the disease (12). However, these live, virulent vaccines are not ideal. Recently, an experimental live C. ruminantium vaccine attenuated by serial passages in bovine umbilical endothelial cells in culture was reported to be effective in protecting two goats and two sheep against homologous challenge (87).

CONCLUSION

Advances in diagnostic procedures now permit more effective identification and control of certain bacterial diseases. Therefore, members of the tribe Ehrlichieae have become increasingly recognized as common disease agents with wide endemicity. New information on these clinically important entities is becoming available; however, additional data are needed in the areas of antigenic comparison (especially among granulocytic ehrlichial organisms), in vitro propagation of thus-far-uncultivable ehrlichial organisms, biochemical and genetic characterization, analysis of host and ehrlichial interaction in the context of pathogenesis and immune recognition, development of vaccines, and elucidation of the mode of transmission.

REFERENCES

- 1. Abeygunavardena, I., I. Kakoma, and R. D. Smith. 1990. Pathophysiology of canine ehrlichiosis, p. 78-92, In J. C. Williams and I. Kakoma (ed.), Ehrlichiosis, a vector-borne disease of animals and humans. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston.
- 2. Adeyanju, B. J., and Y. 0. Aliu. 1982. Chemotherapy of canine ehrlichiosis and babesiosis with imidocarb dipropionate. J. Am. Anim. Hosp. Assoc. 18:827-830.
- 3. Anderson, D., H. Hopps, M. Barile, and B. Berheim. 1965. Comparison of the ultrastructure of several rickettsiae, Ornithosis virus and Mycoplasma in tissue culture. J. Bacteriol. 90:1387-1404.
- 4. Andrew, H. R., and R. A. I. Norval. 1989. The carrier status of sheep, cattle, and African buffalo recovered from heartwater. Vet. Parasitol. 34:261-266.
- 5. Anika, S. M., J. F. M. Nouws, H. VanGogh, J. Nieuwenhuijis, and T. B. Vree. 1986. Chemotherapy and pharmacokinetics of some antimicrobial agents in healthy dwarf goats and those infected with Ehrlichia phagocytophila (tick-borne fever). Res.

Vet. Sci. 41:386-390.

- 6. Anika, S. M., J. F. M. Nouws, T. B. Vree, and A. S. J. P. A. M. van Miert. 1986. The efficacy and plasma disposition of chloramphenicol and spiramycin in tick-borne fever-infected dwarf goats. J. Vet. Pharmacol. Ther. 9:433-435.
- 7. Anziani, 0. S., S. A. Ewing, R. W. Barker, K. M. Kocan, E. M. Johnson, D. Perritt, and J. C. Fox. 1988. Attempted transmission of a canine granulocytic form of Ehrlichia by Dermacentor variabilis and Amblyomma americanum, abstr. 223, p. 40. In Program and Abstracts of the 69th Annual Meeting of Conference of Research Workers in Animal Disease, Chicago, Ill.
- 8. Aronson, J., J. Scimeca, D. Harris, and D. H. Walker. 1990. Immunohistologic demonstration of Ehrlichia canis. In K. E. Hechemy (ed.), Ricketsiology: current issues and perspectives. Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. 590:148-156.
- 9. Baker, D. C., H. Simpson, S. D. Gaunt, and R. E. Corstvet. 1987. Acute Ehrlichia platys infection in the dog. Vet. Pathol. 24:449-453.
- 10. Batungbacal, M. R., and G. R. Scott. 1982. Suppression of the immune response to clostridial vaccine by tick-borne fever. J. Comp. Pathol. 92:409-413.
- 11. Batungbacal, M. R., G. R. Scott, and C. Burrells. 1982. The lymphocytopaenia in tick-borne fever. J. Comp. Pathol. 92: 403-407.
- 12. Bezuidenhout, J. D. 1990. Recent research findings on cowdriosis, p. 125-135. In J. C. Williams and I. Kakoma (ed.), Ehrlichiosis, a vector-borne disease of animals and humans. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston.
- 13. Bezuidenhout, J. D., C. L. Paterson, and B. J. H. Barnard. 1985. In vitro cultivation of Cowdria ruminantium. Onterstepoort J. Vet. Res. 52:113-120.
- 14. Bjoersdorff, A., D. Christensson, A. Johnson, and J. E. Madigan. 1990. Granulocytic ehrlichiosis in the horse—the first verified cases in Sweden, abstr. P35, p. 69. In Program and Abstracts of the IVth International Symposium on Rickettsiae and Rickettsial Diseases. Piešťany Spa, Czech and Slovak Federal Republics.
- 15. Brouqui, P., and D. Raoult. 1990. In vitro susceptibility of Ehrlichia sennetsu to antibiotics. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 34:1593-1596.
- 16. Brown, J. L., D. L. Huxsoll, M. Ristic, and P. K. Hildebrandt. 1972. In vitro cultivation of Neorickettsia helminthoeca, the causative agent of salmon poisoning disease. Am. J. Vet. Res. 33:1695-1700.
- 17. Buhles, W. C., D. L. Huxsoll, and M. Ristic. 1974. Tropical canine pancytopenia: clinical, hematologic, and serologic response of dogs to Ehrlichia canis infection, tetracycline therapy, and challenge inoculation. J. Infect. Dis. 130:357-367.
- 18. Buoro, I. B. J., R. B. Atwell, J. C. Kiptoon, and M. A. Ihiga. 1989. Feline anaemia associated with ehrlichia-like bodies in three domestic short-haired cats. Vet. Rec. 125:434-436.
- 19. Burghen, G. A., W. R. Beisel, J. S. Walker, R. M. Nims, D. L. Huxsoll, and P. K. Hildebrandt. 1971. Development of hypergammaglobulinemia in tropical canine pancytopenia. Am. J. Vet. Res. 32:749-756.
- 20. Buscher, G., R. Gandras, G. Apel, and K. T. Friedhoff. 1984. Der erste Fall von Ehrlichiosis beim Pferd in Deutschland (Kurzmitteilung). Dtsch. Tieraerztl. Wochenschr. 91:408-409.
- 21. Centers for Disease Control. 1988. Human ehrlichiosis--United States. Morbid. Mortal. Weekly Rep. 37:270, 275-277.
- 22. Cole, A. I., M. Ristic, G. E. Lewis, and G. Rapmund. 1985. Continuous propagation of Ehrlichia sennetsu in murine macrophage cell culture. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 34:774-780.
- 23. Cooper, J. E. 1973. Attempted transmission of the Ondiri disease (bovine petechial fever) agent to laboratory rodents. Res. Vet. Sci. 15:130-133.
- 24. Cordy, D. R., and J. R. Gorham. 1950. The pathology and etiology of salmon disease in the dog and fox. Am. J. Pathol. 26:617-637.
- 25. Cowdry, E. V. 1925. Studies on the etiology of heart water. I. Observation of a Rickettsia ruminantium (n. sp.) in the tissue of infected animals. J. Exp. Med. 42:231-253.
- 26. Cranwell, M. P., and J. A. Gibbons. 1986. Tick-borne fever in

VOL. 4, 1991

a dairy herd. Vet. Rec. 119:531-532.

- 27. Dasch, G. A., E. Weiss, and J. C. Williams. 1990. Antigenic properties of the ehrlichiae and other rickettsiaceae, p. 32-58. In J. C. Williams and I. Kakoma, (ed.), Ehrlichiosis, a vectorborne disease of animals and humans. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston.
- 27a.Dawson, J., B. Anderson, D. Fishbein, J. Sanchez, C. Goldsmith, K. Wilson, and C. Duntley. 1991. 9th Sesquiannu. Meet. Am. Soc. Rickettsia Rickettsial Dis., abstr. 11, p. 20.
- 28. Dawson, J. E., C. J. Holland, and M. Ristic. 1988. Susceptibility of cats to infection with E. risticii, causative agent of equine monocytic ehrlichiosis. Am. J. Vet. Res. 49:2096-2100.
- 29. Dawson, J. E., Y. Rikihisa, S. Ewing, and D. B. Fishbein. 1991. Serologic diagnosis of human ehrlichiosis using two Ehrlichia canis isolates. J. Infect. Dis. 163:564-567.
- 30. Dawson, J. E., M. Ristic, C. J. Holland, R. H. Whitlock, and J. E. Sessions. 1987. Isolation of Ehrlichia risticii, the causative agent of Potomac horse fever, from the fetus of an experimentally infected mare. Vet. Rec. 121:232.
- 31. Dilbeck, P. M., J. F. Everman, T. B. Crawford, A. C. S. Ward, C. W. Leathers, C. J. Holland, C. A. Mebus, L. L. Logan, F. R. Rurangirua, and T. C. McGuire. 1990. Isolation of a previously undescribed rickettsia from an aborted bovine fetus. J. Clin. Microbiol. 28:814-816.
- 32. Donatien, A., and F. Lestoquard. 1935. Existence in Algerie d'une Rickettsia du chien. Bull. Soc. Pathol. Exot. 28:418-419.
- 33. Donatien, A., and F. Lestoquard. 1936. Rickettsia bovis, nouvelle espece pathogene pour le boeuf. Bull. Soc. Pathol. Exot. 29:1057-1061.
- 34. Donatien, A., and F. Lestoquard. 1940. Rickettsiose bovine Algerienne a R. bovis. Bull. Soc. Pathol. Exot. Filiales 31:245- 248.
- 35. DuPlessis, J. L. 1970. Immunity in heartwater. I. A preliminary note on the role of serum antibodies. Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res. 37:147-150.
- 36. DuPlessis, J. L. 1970. Pathogenesis of heartwater. I. Cowdria ruminantium in the lymph nodes of domestic ruminants. Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res. 37:89-96.
- 37. DuPlessis, J. L., and J. D. Bezuidenhout. 1979. Investigations on the natural and acquired resistance of cattle to artificial infection with Cowdria ruminantium. J. S. Afr. Vet. Assoc. 50:334-338.
- 38. Dutta, S. K., B. L. Mattingly, and B. Shankarappa. 1989. Antibody response to Ehrlichia risticii and antibody reactivity to the component antigens in horses with induced Potomac horse fever. Infect. Immun. 57:2959-2962.
- 39. Dutta, S. K., A. C. Myrup, R. M. Rice, M. G. RobI, and R. C. Hammond. 1985. Experimental reproduction of Potomac horse fever in horses with a newly isolated Ehrlichia organism. J. Clin. Microbiol. 22:256-269.
- 40. Eng, T. R., J. R. Harkess, D. B. Fishbein, J. E. Dawson, C. N. Greene, M. A. Redus, and E. T. Satalowich. 1990. Epidemiologic, clinical and laboratory findings of human ehrlichiosis in the United States, 1988. J. Am. Med. Assoc. 264:2251-2258.
- 41. Ewing, S. A., and R. G. Buckner. 1965. Manifestations of babesiosis, ehrlichiosis, and combined infection in the dog. Am. J. Vet. Res. 26:815-828.
- 42. Ewing, S. A., J. C. Fox, E. M. Johnson, C. G. MacAllister, R. E. Corstvet, C. J. Baldwin, D. A. Mosier, K. M. Kocan, R. T. Tyler, and R. L. Cowell. 1988. Canine ehrlichiosis: differences between granulocytic and agranulocytic agents, abstr. 221, p. 39. Program and Abstracts of the 69th Annual Meeting of Conference of Research Workers in Animal Disease, Chicago, Ill.
- 43. Ewing, S. A., J. R. Harkess, K. M. Kocan, R. W. Barker, R. D. Tyler, R. L. Cowell, D. Perritt, B. W. Rohrbach, and R. B. Morton. 1988. Octobius magnini: a vector for Ehrlichia?, abstr. 222, p. 40. Program and Abstracts of the 69th Annual Meeting of Conference of Research Workers in Animal Disease, Chicago, Ill.
- 44. Ewing, S. A., and C. B. Philips. 1966. Ehrlichia-like rickettsiosis in dogs in Oklahoma and its relationship to Neorickettsia helminthoeca. Am. J. Vet. Res. 27:67-69.
- 45. Ewing, S. A., W. R. Robertson, R. G. Buckner, and C. S. Hayat. 1971. A new strain of Ehrlichia canis. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 159:1771-1774.
- 46. Farrell, R. K. 1979. Rickettsial diseases, p. 65-70. In E. J. Catcott (ed.), Canine medicine, 4th ed. American Veterinary Publications, Inc., Santa Barbara, Calif.
- 47. Farrell, R. K. 1964. Transmission of two rickettsialike disease agents of dogs by endoparasites in northwestern U.S.A., abstr. 0162B10, p. 438-439. Program and Abstracts of the 1st International Congress of Parasitology, Rome, Italy.
- 48. Fishbein, D. B., A. Kemp, J. E. Dawson, N. E. Green, M. A. Redus, and D. H. Fields. 1989. Human ehrlichiosis: prospective active surveillance in febrile hospitalized patients. J. Infect. Dis. 160:803-809.
- 49. Fishbein, D. B., L. A. Sawyer, C. J. Holland, E. B. Hayes, W. Okoroanyanwu, D. Williams, R. K. Sikes, M. Ristic, and J. E. McDade. 1987. Unexplained febrile illness after exposure to ticks. J. Am. Med. Assoc. 257:3100-3104.
- 50. Foggie, A. 1951. Studies on the infectious agent of tick-borne fever in sheep. J. Pathol. Bacteriol. 63:1-15.
- 51. Foggie, A. 1956. The effect of tick-borne fever on the resistance of lambs to staphylococci. J. Comp. Pathol. 66:278-285.
- 52. Foggie, A., and C. S. Hood. 1961. Adaptation of the infectious agent of tick-borne fever to guinea pigs and mice. J. Comp. Pathol. 71:414-427.
- 53. Foster, W. N. M., and A. E. Cameron. 1968. Thrombocytopenia in sheep associated with experimental tick-borne fever infection. J. Comp. Pathol. 78:251-254.
- 54. Frank, D. W., T. C. McGuire, and J. R. Gorham. 1974. Cultivation of two species of Neorickettsia in canine monocytes. J. Infect. Dis. 129:257-262.
- 55. Frank, D. W., T. C. McGuire, and J. R. Gorham. 1974. Lymphoreticular lesions of canine rickettsiosis. J. Infect. Dis. 129:163-171.
- 56. French, T. W., and J. W. Harvey. 1983. Serologic diagnosis of infectious cyclic thrombocytopenia in dogs using an indirect fluorescent antibody test. Am. J. Vet. Res. 44:2407-2411.
- Fukuda, T., T. Kitao, and Y. Keida. 1954. Studies on the causative agent of "Hyuganetsu" disease. I. Isolation of the agent and its inoculation trial in human beings. Med. Biol. 32:200-209.
- 58. Fukuda, T., T. Sasahara, and T. Kitao. 1973. Studies on the causative agent of Hyuganetsu disease. XI. Characteristics of rickettsia-like organism isolated from metacercaria of Stellantchasmus falcatus parasitic in grey mullet. J. Jpn. Assoc. Infect. Dis. 47:474-482. (In Japanese.)
- 59. Fukuda, T., and S. Yamamoto. 1979. Antigenic analysis and ultrastructure of the rickettsia-like organism isolated from Stellantchasmus falcatus. J. Jpn. Assoc. Infect. Dis. 53:713- 716. (In Japanese.)
- 60. Fukuda, T., and S. Yamamoto. 1981. Neorickettsia-like organism isolated from metacercaria of a fluke, Stellantchasmus falcatus. Jpn. J. Med. Sci. Biol. 34:103-107.
- 61. Gordon, W. S., A. Brownlee, and D. R. Wilson. 1940. Studies in louping ill, tick-borne fever and scrapie, p. 362-363. In Program and Abstracts of the 3rd International Conference on Microbiology, New York.
- 62. Gorham, J. R., and W. J. Foreyt. 1984. Salmon poisoning disease, p. 538-544. In C. E. Greene (ed.), Clinical microbiology and infectious diseases of the dog and cat. The W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia.
- 63. Greene, C. E., and J. W. Harvey. 1984. Canine ehrlichiosis, p. 545-561. In C. E. Greene (ed.), Clinical microbiology and infectious diseases of the dog and cat. The W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia.
- 64. Gribble, D. H. 1969. Equine ehrlichiosis. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 155:462-469.
- 65. Groves, M. G., G. L. Dennis, H. L. Amyx, and D. L. Huxsoll. 1975. Transmission of Ehrlichia canis to dogs by ticks (Rhipicephalus sanguineus). Am. J. Vet. Res. 36:937-940.
- 66. Gunders, A. E., and D. Gottlieb. 1977. Intra-granulocytic inclusion bodies of Psammomys obesus naturally transmitted by Ornithodoros erraticus (small race). Refuah Vet. 34:5-9.
- 67. Haig, D. A., and D. Danskin. 1962. The aetiology of bovine petechial fever (Ondiri disease). Res. Vet. Sci. 3:129-138.
- 68. Harkess, J. R., S. A. Ewing, J. M. Crutcher, J. Kudlac, G. McKee, and G. R. Istre. 1989. Human ehrlichiosis in Oklahoma. J. Infect. Dis. 159:576-579.
- 69. Harvey, J. W., C. F. Simpson, and J. M. Gaskin. 1978. Cyclic thrombocytopenia induced by a rickettisa-like agent in dogs. J. Infect. Dis. 137:182-188.
- 70. Harvey, J. W., C. F. Simpson, and J. M. Gaskin. 1979. Ehrlichiosis in wolves, dogs, wolf-dog crosses. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 175:901-905.
- 71. Hermann, M., D. Baumann, H. Lutz, and P. Wild. 1985. Erster diagnostizierter Fall von equiner Ehrlichiose in der Schweiz. Pferdeheilkunde 1:247-250.
- 72. Hildebrandt, P. K., J. D. Conroy, A. E. McKee, M. B. A. Nyindo, and D. L. Huxsoll. 1973. Ultrastructure of Ehrlichia canis. Infect. Immun. 7:265-271.
- 73. Hildebrandt, P. K., D. L. Huxsoll, J. S. Walker, R. M. Nims, R. Taylor, and M. Andrews. 1973. Pathology of canine ehrlichiosis (tropical canine pancytopenia). Am. J. Vet. Res. 34:1309-1320.
- 74. Hoilien, C. A., M. Ristic, D. L. Huxsoll, G. Rapmund, and N. Tachibana. 1982. Rickettsia sennetsu in human blood monocyte cultures: similarities to the growth cycle of Ehrlichia canis. Infect. Immun. 35:314-319.
- 75. Holland, C., J. Zachary, and M. Ristic. 1980. Characterization of an Illinois isolate of Ehrlichia equi, abstr. 290, p. 54. In Program and Abstracts of the 61st Annual Meeting of Conference of Research Workers in Animal Disease, Chicago, Ill.
- 76. Holland, C. J., L. L. Logan, C. A. Mebus, and M. Ristic. 1987. The serological relationship between Cowdria ruminantium and certain members of the genus Ehrlichia. Onterstepoort J. Vet. Res. 54:331.
- 77. Holland, C. J., and M. Ristic. 1990. Development of a cell line for continuous in vitro propagation of Ehrlichia canis, abstr. 55, p. 89. In Program and Abstracts of the IVth International Symposium on Rickettsiae and Rickettsial Diseases, Piesiany Spa, Czech and Slovak Federal Republics.
- 78. Holland, C. J., M. Ristic, A. I. Cole, P. Johnson, G. Baker, and T. Goetz. 1985. Isolation, experimental transmission and characterization of causative agent of Potomac horse fever. Science 227:522-524.
- 79. Holland, C. J., M. Ristic, D. L. Huxsoll, A. I. Cole, and G. Rapmund. 1985. Adaptation of Ehrlichia sennetsu to canine blood monocytes: preliminary structural and serological studies with cell culture-derived Ehrlichia sennetsu. Infect. Immun. 48:366-371.
- 80. Holland, C. J., E. Weiss, W. Burgdorfer, A. I. Cole, and I. Kakoma. 1985. Ehrlichia risticii sp. nov.: etiological agent of equine monocytic ehrlichiosis (synonym, Potomac horse fever). Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol. 35:524-526.
- 81. Hoskins, J. D., E. B. Breitschwendt, S. D. Gaunt, T. W. Fench, and W. Burgdorfer. 1988. Antibodies to Ehrlichia canis, Ehrlichia platys and spotted fever group rickettsiae in Louisiana dogs. J. Vet. Int. Med. 2:55-59.
- 82. Hudson, J. R. 1950. The recognition of tick-borne fever as a disease of cattle. Br. Vet. J. 106:3-17.
- 83. Huxsoll, D. L., H. L. Amyx, I. E. Hemelt, P. K. Hildebrandt, R. M. Nims, and W. S. Gochenour, Jr. 1972. Laboratory studies of tropical canine pancytopenia. Vet. Parasitol. 31:53- 59.
- 84. Ito, S., and Y. Rikihisa. 1981. Techniques for electron microscopy of rickettsiae, p. 213-227. In W. Burgdorfer and R. L. Anacker (ed.), Rickettsiae and rickettsial diseases. Academic Press, Inc., New York.
- 85. Jamieson, S. 1947. Some aspects of immunity to tick-borne fever in hogs. Vet. Rec. 59:201-202.
- 86. Jernigan, A., Y. Rikihisa, and K. W. Hinchcliff. 1989. Pharmacokinetics of oxytetracycline in ponies with Potomac horse fever, abstr. 190, p. 35. In Program and Abstracts of the 70th Annual Meeting of Conference of Research Workers in Animal Disease, Chicago, Ill.
- 87. Jongejan, F. 1991. Protective immunity to heartwater (Cowdria ruminantium infection) is acquired after vaccination with in

vitro-attenuated rickettsiae. Infect. Immun. 59:729-731.

- 88. Jongejan, F., and M. J. C. Thielemans. 1989. Identification of an immunodominant antigenically conserved 32-kilodalton protein from Cowdria ruminantium. Infect. Immun. 57:3243- 3246.
- 89. Jongejan, F., L. A. Wassink, M. J. C. Thielemans, N. M. Perie, and G. Uilenberg. 1989. Serotypes in Cowdria ruminantium and their relationship with Ehrlichia phagocytophila. Vet. Microbiol. 21:31-40.
- 90. Kakoma, I., C. A. Carson, and M. Ristic. 1980. Direct and indirect lymphocyte participation in the immunity and immunopathology of tropical canine pancytopenia-a review. Comp. Immun. Microbiol. Infect. Dis. 3:291-298.
- 91. Kakoma, I., C. A. Carson, M. Ristic, E. M. Stephenson, P. K. Hildebrandt, and D. L. Huxsoll. 1978. Platelet migration inhibition as an indicator of immunologically mediated target cell injury in canine ehrlichiosis. Infect. Immun. 20:242-247.
- 92. Keefe, T. J., C. J. Holland, P. E. Salyer, and M. Ristic. 1982. Distribution of Ehrlichia canis among military working dogs in the world and selected civilian dogs in the United States. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 181:236-238.
- 93. Kelly, D. J., M. Lee, and G. E. Lewis. 1985. A light and electron microscopic examination of Ehrlichia sennetsu in cultured human endothelial cells. Jpn. J. Med. Sci. Biol. 38:155-168.
- 94. Kitao, T., R. K. Farrell, and T. Fukuda. 1973. Differentiation of salmon poisoning disease and Elokomin fluke fever: fluorescent antibody studies with Rickettsia sennetsu. Am. J. Vet. Res. 34:927-928.
- 95. Knowles, R. C., D. W. Anderson, W. D. Shipley, R. H. Whittlock, B. D. Perry, and J. P. Davidson. 1983. Acute equine diarrhea syndrome (AEDS): a preliminary report. Proc. Am. Assoc. Equine Pract. 29:353-357.
- 96. Kocan, K. M., T. B. Crawford, P. M. Dilbeck, J. F. Evermann, and T. C. McGuire. 1990. Development of a rickettsia isolated from an aborted bovine fetus. J. Bacteriol. 172:5949-5955.
- 97. Kraus, H., F. G. Davies, Ø. A. Ódegaard, and J. E. Cooper. 1972. The morphology of the causal agent of bovine petechial fever (Ondiri disease). J. Comp. Pathol. 82:241-246.
- 98. Kuehn, N. F., and S. D. Gaunt. 1985. Clinical and hematologic findings in canine ehrlichiosis. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 186:355-358.
- 99. Lewis, G., D. Renquist, I. Hemelt, D. Huxsoll, M. Ristic, and E. H. Stephenson. 1975. Experimental inoculation of Macaca mulatta with Ehrlichia canis-infected canine monocyte cell culture, p. 15. In Program and Abstracts of the 56th Annual Meeting of Conference of Research Workers in Animal Disease, Chicago, Ill.
- 100. Lewis, G. E., S. L. Hill, and M. Ristic. 1978. Effect of canine immune serum on the growth of Ehrlichia canis within nonimmune canine macrophages. Am. J. Vet. Res. 39:71-76.
- 101. Lewis, G. E., D. L. Huxsoll, M. Ristic, and A. J. Johnson. 1975. Experimentally induced infection of dogs, cats, and nonhuman primates with Ehrlichia equi, etiologic agent of equine ehrlichiosis. Am. J. Vet. Res. 36:85-8.
- 102. Lewis, G. E., M. Ristic, R. D. Smith, et al. 1977. The brown dog tick Rhipicephalus sanguineus and the dog as experimental hosts of Ehrlichia canis. Am. J. Vet. Res. 38:1953-1955.
- 103. Logan, L. L., C. J. Holland, C. A. Mebus, and M. Ristic. 1986. Serological relationship between Cowdria ruminantium and certain ehrlichia. Vet. Rec. 119:458-459.
- 104. Logan, L. L., T. C. Whyard, J. C. Quintero, and C. A. Mebus. 1987. The development of Cowdria ruminantium in neutrophils. Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res. 54:197-204.
- 105. MacLeod, J. 1932. Preliminary studies in the tick transmission of louping ill. II. A study of the reaction of sheep to tick infestation. Vet. J. 88:276-284.
- 106. Madigan, J. E., and D. Gribble. 1987. Equine ehrlichiosis in northern California: 49 cases (1968-1981). J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 190:445-448.
- 107. Maeda, K., and Hawley, R. C. 1990. Leukocytic rickettsiosis. American Society for Clinical Pathologists Continuing Education Program, Check sample, H90-1 (H-216). Hematology

 $32:1-4.$

- 108. Maeda, K., N. Markowitz, R. C., Hawley, M. Ristic, D. Cox, and J. E. McDate. 1987. Human infection with Ehrlichia canis, a leukocytic rickettsia. N. Engl. J. Med. 316:853-856.
- 109. McDade, J. E. 1990. Ehrlichiosis-a disease of animals and humans. J. Infect. Dis. 161:609-617.
- 110. Messick, J. B., and Y. Rikihisa. 1991. Suppression of I-A^d on $P388D_1$ cells by Ehrlichia risticii infection in response to gamma interferon, abstr. 5684 p. A1351. Program Abstr. 75th Annu. Meet. Fed. Am. Soc. Exp. Biol., Atlanta.
- 111. Minamishima, Y. 1965. Persistent infection of Rickettsia sennetsu in cell culture system. Jpn. J. Microbiol. 9:75-86.
- 112. Misao, T., and K. Katsuta. 1956. Epidemiology of infectious mononucleosis. Jpn. J. Clin. Exp. Med. 33:73-82.
- 113. Misao, T., and Y. Kobayashi. 1954. Studies on infectious mononucleosis. I. Isolation of etiologic agent from blood, bone marrow, and lymph node of a patient with infectious mononucleosis by using mice. Tokyo Iji Shinshi 71:683-686.
- 114. Nyindo, M. B. A., M. Ristic, D. L. Huxsoli, and A. R. Smith. 1971. Tropical canine pancytopenia-in vitro cultivation of the causative agent, Ehrlichia canis. Am. J. Vet. Res. 32:1651-1658.
- 115. Nyindo, M. B. A., M. Ristic, G. E. Lewis, Jr., D. L. Huxsoll, and E. H. Stephenson. 1978. Immune responses of ponies to experimental infection with Ehrlichia equi. Am. J. Vet. Res. 39:15-18.
- 116. Ohtaki, S., and A. Shishido. 1965. Studies on infectious mononucleosis induced in the monkey by experimental infection with Rickettsia sennetsu. II. Pathological findings. Jpn. J. Med. Sci. Biol. 18:85-99.
- 117. Palmer, J. E. 1989. Prevention of Potomac horse fever. Cornell Vet. 79:201-205. (Editorial.)
- 118. Palmer, J. E., and C. E. Benson. 1988. Oral transmission of Ehrlichia risticii resulting in Potomac horse fever. Vet. Rec. 112:635.
- 119. Palmer, J. E., C. E. Benson, and R. H. Whitlock. 1990. Equine ehrlichial colitis: resistance to rechallenge in experimental horses and ponies. Am. J. Vet. Res. 51:763-765.
- 120. Palmer, J. E., R. H. Whitlock, and C. E. Benson. 1988. Clinical signs and treatment of equine ehrlichial colitis, p. 49-54. In Proceedings of a symposium on Potomac horse fever. Veterinary Learning Systems, Lawrenceville, N.J.
- 121. Park, J., and Y. Rikihisa. 1990. Inhibition of Ehrlichia risticii in murine peritoneal macrophage by calcium ionophore, gammainterferon, and concanavalin A, abstr. 1335, p. A496. Program Abstr. 74th Annu. Meet. Fed. Am. Soc. Exp. Biol., Washington, D.C.
- 122. Park, J., and Y. Rikihisa. 1991. Inhibition of Ehrlichia risticii in murine peritoneal macrophages by W-7, TMB-81 and cytochalasin B but not by H-7 or colchicine, abstr. 5008, p. A1234. Program Abstr. 75th Annu. Meet. Fed. Am. Soc. Exp. Biol., Atlanta.
- 123. Paxton, E. A., and G. R. Scott. 1989. Detection of antibodies to the agent of tick-borne fever by indirect immunofluorescence. Vet. Microbiol. 21:133-138.
- 124. Perry, B. D., Y. Rikihisa, and G. Saunders. 1985. Transmission of Potomac horse fever by intradermal route. Vet. Rec. 116: 246-247.
- 125. Petersen, L. R., L. A. Sawyer, D. B. Fishbein, R. W. Kelley, R. J. Thomas, L. A. Magnarelli, M. Redus, and J. E. Dawson. 1989. An outbreak of ehrlichiosis in members of an army reserve unit exposed to ticks. J. Infect. Dis. 159:562-568.
- 126. Philip, C. B., W. J. Hadlow, and L. E. Hughes. 1953. Neorickettsia helminthoeca, a new rickettsia-like disease agent of dogs in western United States transmitted by a helminth, p. 256- 257. In International Congress on Microbiology Report: Proceedings of the 6th Congress, Rome, vol. 2.
- 127. Philip, C. B., W. J. Hadlow, and L. E. Hughes. 1954. Studies on salmon poisoning disease of canines. 1. The rickettsial relationships and pathogenicity of Neorickettsia helminthoeca. Exp. Parasitol. 3:336-350.
- 128. Pretzman, C. T., Y. Rikihisa, D. Ralph, J. Gordon, and B. Nielson. 1987. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for detecting Potomac horse fever disease. J. Clin. Microbiol. 25:31-36.
- 129. Rikihisa, Y. Unpublished data.
- 130. Rikihisa, Y., B. D. Perry, and Y. C. Lin. 1985. Increase in

intestinal cyclic AMP in mouse model for Potomac horse fever, abstr. 1353, p. 357a. Annu. Meet. Am. Soc. Cell Biol. Atlanta.

- 131. Rikihisa, Y. 1986. Ultrastructural studies of ehrlichial organisms in the organs of ponies with equine monocytic ehrlichiosis (synonym, Potomac horse fever), p. 200-202. In H. Winkler and M. Ristic (ed.), Microbiology-1986. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.
- 132. Rikihisa, Y. 1990. Growth of Ehrlichia risticii in human colonic epithelial cells, p. 104-110. In K. Hechemy, D. Paretsky, D. H. Walker, and L. P. Mallavia (ed.), Rickettsiology: current issues and perspectives. New York Academy of Science, New York.
- 133. Rikihisa, Y. 1990. Ultrastructural of rickettsiae with special emphasis on ehrlichia, p. 22-31. In J. C. Williams and I. Kakoma (ed.), Ehrlichiosis: a vector-borne disease of animals and humans. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston.
- 134. Rikihisa, Y. 1991. Western immunoblot analysis of Ehrlichia canis antigens shared with other ehrlichial organisms, abstr. C193, p. 374. Abstr. Annu. Meet. Am. Soc. Microbiol. 1991.
- 135. Rikihisa, Y. 1991. Neorickettsia helminthoeca shares strong common antigens with Ehrlichia species by fluorescent antibody test and Western immunoblot, abstr. 48, p. 38. 9th Sesqui-annu. Meet. Am. Soc. Rickettsia Rickettsial Dis.
- 136. Rikihisa, Y., and S. Ito. 1981. Outer membrane vesicles of Rickettsia tsutsugamushi, p. 229-240. In W. Burgdorfer and R. L. Anacker (ed.), Rickettsiae and rickettsial diseases. Academic Press, Inc., New York.
- 137. Rikihisa, Y., and S. Ito. 1982. Mechanism of entry of Rickettsia tsutsugamushi into polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Infect. Immun. 38:343-350.
- 138. Rikihisa, Y., and B. M. Jiang. 1988. In vitro susceptibility of Ehrlichia risticii to eight antibiotics. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 32:986-991.
- 139. Rikihisa, Y., and B. M. Jiang. 1989. Effect of antibiotics on clinical, gross pathologic, and immunologic responses of mice infected with Ehrlichia risticii; protective effects of doxycycline. Vet. Microbiol. 19:253-262.
- 140. Rikihisa, Y., G. J. Johnson, and C. J. Burger. 1987. Reduced immune responsiveness and lymphoid depletion in mice infected with Ehrlichia risticii. Infect. Immun. 55:2215-2222.
- 141. Rikihisa, Y., G. C. Johnson, and S. M. Reed. 1988. Immune responses and intestinal pathology of ponies experimentally infected with Potomac horse fever, p. 27-31. In Proceedings of a symposium on Potomac horse fever. Veterinary Learning Systems, Lawrenceville, N.J.
- 142. Rikihisa, Y., G. C. Johnson, Y. Z. Wang, S. Reed, R. Fertel, and H. J. Cooke. 1991. Loss of absorptive capacity for sodium and chloride in the colon causes diarrhea in Potomac horse fever, abstr. 4450, p. A1138. Program Abstr. 75th Annu. Meet. Fed. Am. Soc. Exp. Biol., Atlanta.
- 143. Rikihisa, Y., and L. L. Logan. 1986. Unusual peptidoglycan substance in Cowdria ruminantium in the endothelial cells of the choroid plexus of the goat. J. Electron Microsc. Suppl. 35:3345-3346.
- 144. Rikihisa, Y., and B. D. Perry. 1984. Causative agent of Potomac horse fever. Vet. Rec. 115:554.
- 145. Rikihisa, Y., and B. D. Perry. 1985. Causative ehrlichial organisms in Potomac horse fever. Infect. Immun. 49:513-517.
- 146. Rikihisa, Y., B. D. Perry, and D. 0. Cordes. 1984. Rickettsial link with acute equine diarrhea. Vet. Rec. 115:390.
- 147. Rikihisa, Y., B. D. Perry, and D. 0. Cordes. 1985. Ultrastructural study of rickettsial organisms in the large colon of ponies experimentally infected with Potomac horse fever. Infect. Immun. 49:505-512.
- 148. Rikihisa, Y., C. I. Pretzman, G. C. Johnson, S. M. Reed, S. Yamamoto, and F. Andrews. 1988. Clinical and immunological responses of ponies to Ehrlichia sennetsu and subsequent Ehrlichia risticii challenge. Infect. Immun. 56:2960-2966.
- 149. Rikihisa, Y., S. M. Reed, R. A. Sams, J. C. Gordon, and C. I. Pretzman. 1990. Serosurvey of horses with evidence of equine monocytic ehrlichiosis (Potomac horse fever). J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 197:1327-1332.
- 150. Rikihisa, Y., S. M. Reed, R. A. Sams, C. W. Kohn, and J. C. Gordon. 1988. A serological survey and the clinical manage-

ment of horses with Potomac horse fever, p. 41-47. In Proceedings of a symposium on Potomac horse fever. Veterinary Learning Systems, Lawrenceville, N.J.

- 151. Rikihisa, Y., H. Stills, and G. Zimmerman. Submitted for publication.
- 152. Rioche, M. 1967. Lesions microscopiques de la rickettsiose generale bovine a Rickettsia (Ehrlichia) bovis (Donatien et Lestoquard 1936). Rev. Elev. Med. Vet. Pays Trop. (Paris) 20:415-427.
- 153. Ristic, M. 1990. Current strategies in research on ehrlichiosis, p. 136-153. In J. C. Williams and I. Kakoma (ed.), Ehrlichiosis: a vector-borne disease of animals and humans. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston.
- 154. Ristic, M., J. Dawson, C. J. Holland, and A. Jenny. 1988. Susceptibility of dogs to infection with Ehrlichia risticii, causative agent of equine monocytic ehrlichiosis (Potomac horse fever). Am. J. Vet. Res. 49:1497-1500.
- 155. Ristic, M., C. J. Holland, J. E. Dawson, J. Sessions, and J. Palmer. 1986. Diagnosis of equine monocytic ehrlichiosis (Potomac horse fever) by indirect immunofluorescence. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 189:39-46.
- 156. Ristic, M., and D. Huxsoll. 1984. Tribe II. Ehrlichiae, p. 704-711. In N. R. Krieg and J. G. Holt (ed.), Bergey's manual of systematic bacteriology, vol. 1. The Williams & Wilkins Co., Baltimore.
- 157. Ristic, M., D. L. Huxsoll, R. M. Weisiger, P. K. Hildebrandt, and M. B. A. Nyindo. 1972. Serologic diagnosis of tropical canine pancytopenia by indirect immunofluorescence. Infect. Immun. 6:226-231.
- 158. Schmidtmann, E. T., R. M. Rice, M. G. Roble, and A. F. Azad. 1988. Search for an arthropod vector of Ehrlichia risticii, p. 9-16. In Proceedings of a symposium on Potomac horse fever. Veterinary Learning Systems, Lawrenceville, N.J.
- 159. Shishido, A., S. Honjo, M. Suganuma, S. Ohtaki, M. Hikita, T. Fujiwara, and M. Takasaka. 1965. Studies on infectious mononucleosis induced in the monkey by experimental infection with Rickettsia sennetsu. I. Clinical observations and etiological investigations. Jpn. J. Med. Sci. Biol. 18:73-83.
- 160. Simpson, C. F. 1974. Relationship of Ehrlichia canis-infected mononuclear cells to blood vessels of lungs. Infect. Immun. 10:590-596.
- 161. Smith, R. D., D. M. Sells, E. H. Stephenson, M. Ristic, and D. L. Huxsoll. 1976. Development of Ehrlichia canis, causative agent of canine ehrlichiosis, in the tick Rhipicephalus sanguineus and its differentiation from a symbiotic rickettsia. Am. J. Vet. Res. 37:119-126.
- 162. Snodgrass, D. R. 1975. Pathogenesis of bovine petechial fever. Latent infections, immunity, and tissue distribution on Cytoecetes ondiri. J. Comp. Pathol. 85:523-530.
- 163. Snodgrass, D. R. 1976. Chemotherapy of experimental bovine petechial fever. Res. Vet. Sci. 20:108-109.
- 164. Stannard, A. A., D. H. Gribble, and R. S. Smith. 1969. Equine ehrlichiosis, a disease with similarities to tick-borne fever and bovine petechial fever. Vet. Rec. 84:149-150.
- 165. Steele, K., Y. Rikihisa, and A. Walton. 1986. Demonstration of Ehrlichia in Potomac horse fever using a silver stain. Vet. Pathol. 23:531-533.
- 166. Stephenson, E. H. 1990. Experimental ehrlichiosis in nonhuman primates, p. 93-99. In J. C. Williams and I. Kakoma (ed.), Ehrlichiosis: a vector-borne disease of animals and humans. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston.
- 167. Stephenson, E. H., and J. V. Osterman. 1977. Canine peritoneal macrophages: cultivation and infection with Ehrlichia canis. Am. J. Vet. Res. 38:1815-1819.
- 168. Stephenson, E. H., and J. V. Osterman. 1980. Somatic cell hybrids of canine peritoneal macrophages and SV-40-transformed human cells: derivation, characterization, and infection with Ehrlichia canis. Am. J. Vet. Res. 41:234-240.
- 169. Sugi, Y. 1960. Tissue culture of the pathogenic agent of glandular fever. Fukuoka Acta Med. 51:1056-1060.
- 170. Tachibana, N. 1986. Sennetsu fever: the disease, diagnosis, and treatment, p. 205-208. In H. Winkler and M. Ristic (ed.), Microbiology-1986. American Society for Microbiology,

Washington, D.C.

- 171. Taylor, A. W., H. H. Holman, and W. S. Gordon. 1941. Attempts to reproduce the pyaemia associated with tick-bite. Vet. Rec. 53:337-344.
- 172. Taylor, J. P., T. G. Betz, D. B. Fishbein, M. A. Roberts, J. Dawson, and M. Ristic. 1988. Serological evidence of possible human infection with Ehrlichia in Texas. J. Infect. Dis. 158: 217-220.
- 173. Tyzzer, E. E. 1938. Cytoecetes microti, N.G.N. sp., a parasite developing in granulocytes and infective to small rodents. Parasitology 30:242-257.
- 174. van Heeckeren, A. 1989. M.S. thesis. The Ohio State University, Columbus.
- 175. Viljoen, G. J., N. M. J. Vermeulen, and A. W. H. Neitz. 1987. Theoretical aspects of the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique and its use in the detection of Cowdria ruminantium antigen and antibody in reacting animals. Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res. 54:305-312.
- 176. Wada, R., and Y. Rikihisa. 1988. Demonstration of neutralizing antibody in horse sera vaccinated and challenged with Ehrlichia risticii, p. 34. Program and Abstracts of the Third Colic Research Symposium, College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Georgia, Athens.
- 177. Walker, D. H., J. P. Taylor, J. S. Buie, and C. Dearden. 1989. Fatal human ehrlichiosis, abstr. D76, p. 95. Program Abstr. 89th Annu. Meet. Am. Soc. Microbiol. 1989. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.
- 178. Walker, J. S., J. D. Rundquist, R. Taylor, et al. 1970. Clinical and clinicopathologic findings in tropical canine pancytopenia. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 157:43-55.
- 179. Watson, A. D. J., C. T. M. vanDuin, N. W. Knoppert, J. Nieuwenhuijs, T. Wensing, and A. S. J. P. A. M. van Miert. 1988. Effect of tick-borne fever on liver and kidney function in dwarf-cross goats. Br. Vet. J. 144:581-589.
- 180. Weisburg, W. G., M. E. Dobson, J. E. Samuel, G. A. Dasch, L. P. Mallavia, 0. Baca, L. Mandelco, J. E. Sechrest, E. Weiss, and C. R. Woese. 1989. Phylogenetic diversity of the rickettsiae. J. Bacteriol. 171:4202-4206.
- 181. Weisburg, W. G., T. P. Hatch, and C. R. Woese. 1986. Eubacterial origin of chlamydiae. J. Bacteriol. 167:570-574.
- 182. Weiss, E., G. A. Dasch, Y.-H. Kang, and H. N. Westfall. 1988. Substrate utilization by Ehrlichia sennetsu and Ehrlichia risticii separated from host constituents by renografin gradient centrifugation. J. Bacteriol. 170:5012-5017.
- 183. Weiss, E., G. A. Dasch, J. C. Williams, and Y.-H. Kang. 1990. Biological properties of the genus Ehrlichia: substrate utilization and energy metabolism, p. 59-67. In J. C. Williams and I. Kakoma (ed.), Ehrlichiosis: ^a vector-borne disease of animals and humans. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston.
- 184. Weiss, E., J. C. Williams, G. A. Dasch, and Y.-H. Kang. 1989. Energy metabolism of monocytic Ehrlichia. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 86:1674-1678.
- 185. Wells, M. Y., and Y. Rikihisa. 1988. Lack of lysosomal fusion with phagosomes containing Ehrlichia risticii in P388D1 cells: abrogation of inhibition with oxytetracycline. Infect. Immun. 56:3209-3215.
- 186. Wilson, J. C., A. Foggie, and M. A. Carmichael. 1964. Tickborne fever as a cause of abortion and stillbirths in cattle. Vet. Rec. 76:1081-1084.
- 187. Woldehiwet, Z. 1987. The effects of tick-borne fever on some functions of polymorphonuclear cells of sheep. J. Comp. Pathol. 97:481-485.
- 188. Woldehiwet, Z., and G. R. Scott. 1982. In vitro propagation of Cytoecetes phagocytophila, the causative agent of tick-borne fever. Vet. Microbiol. 7:127-133.
- 189. Woldehiwet, Z., and G. R. Scott. 1982. Stages in the development of Cytoecetes phagocytophila, the causative agent of tick-borne fever. J. Comp. Pathol. 92:469-474.
- 190. Yamamoto, S. 1978. Studies on the causative agent of Hyugafever: cultivation of rickettsia-like organisms isolated from metacercariae of Stellantchasmusfalcatus in tissue culture cell and their antigenic relation to Rickettsia sennetsu. J. Infect. Dis. 52:240-245. (In Japanese with English abstract.)