Mycoplasma synoviae in broiler breeders

Zeinab M. S. Amin Girh¹, Nagwa S. Rabie¹ and Mona S. Zaki²

¹Department of Poultry Diseases, National Research Centre, Dokki, Giza, Egypt. ²Hydrobiology Department, National Research Centre, Dokki, Giza Egypt. dr mona zaki@yahoo.co.uk

Abstract: Broiler breeders are one of the most important components of the poultry industry. This type of birds is susceptible to several agents that interfere with the immune system and predispose to infection. If transmission of pathogens to progeny is considered, their economic impact will be amplified in the broiler farms *Mycoplasma synoviae* (MS) is an important pathogen of poultry worldwide, causing respiratory tract infection and infectious synovitis in chickens and turkeys. A general review of the scientific literature concerning *M. synoviae* in broiler breeders is presented on their epidemiology, economic importance, pathogenesis, lesions, clinical signs, diagnosis, control, treatment and prevention.

[Zeinab M. S. Amin Girh, Nagwa S. Rabie and Mona S. Zaki. *Mycoplasma synoviae* in broiler breeders. *Rep Opinion* 2019;11(1):1-4]. ISSN 1553-9873 (print); ISSN 2375-7205 (online). <u>http://www.sciencepub.net/report</u>. 1. doi:<u>10.7537/marsroj110119.01</u>.

Keywords: Mycoplasma synoviae; broiler; breeder

Introduction

Broiler breeders stay long periods in the rearing and production sites. This means that they are susceptible to several agents that interfere with the defense system and predispose to infection. Infections are very often apparently subclinical, but still induce damage in the infected hosts and may cause immunosupression (Feberwee et al., 2008). If transmission of these pathogens to progeny is considered, the economic impact will be amplified to the broiler farms, compromising the overall production results (Kleven, 2003; Stipkovits et al., 2011). The success of this fragile organism in infect infecting poultry flocks throughout the world indicates that evolving poultry management practices have facilitated the survival and transmission of this agent (Ferguson- Noel and Noor mohammadi, 2013). Aetiology and Economic importance

Several species of the genus Mycoplasma are pathogens of mammals, birds, reptiles, fish and arthropods, causing a wide variety of diseases and having a predilection for the respiratory and the genital tracts as well as to joints (Vogl et al., 2008). Mycoplasmasynoviae is a species of the class Mollicutes and was designated as serotype S by Dierks et al. (1967). Ingeneral, Mycoplasma spp. is characterized by their small genome size and is thought to have undergone reductive evolution, losing many genes possessed by more complex bacteria in the process. They also lack many genes, including those for cell wall synthesis and for the production of all 20 amino acids, as well as genes encoding enzymes of the citric acid cycle and the majority of all other biosynthetic genes. Presumably, they can survive with a reduced genome as they have evolved in such a way

as to acquire these products from their host in vivo (McAuliffe et al., 2006). This accounts for the "fried egg" type of colony morphology, resistance to antibiotics that affects cell wall synthesis, and complex nutritional requirements. Mycoplasm as tend to be quite host specific, some infect only a single species of animal, but others may have the ability to infect several different animal species (Ferguson-Noel and Noor mohammadi, 2013). Mycoplasma synoviae is responsible for infectious synovitis and causes economic losses because of decreased egg production, growth and hatch ability rates, and downgrading of carcasses at slaughter due to air sacculitis and arthritis lesions (Marois et al., 2005; Peebles et al., 2011). Fertile eggs have a reduced hatchability due to late embryonic mortality. Mycoplasma synoviae infection is usually subclinical in broiler breeders, but the fact that it might play an important role in an offspring complex respiratory disease has motivated breeding companies to consider eradication (Fiorentin et al., 2003).

Epidemiology and pathogenesis

Mycoplasma synoviae can be found in eggs laid by infected breeders. Vertical (i.e. transovarial) transmission is not very efficient, as peak egg transmission from an infected breeder flock is low. If complicating factors are present, such as immune suppression, there may be a higher shed of the organism (Behbahan et al., 2005). Vertical transmission plays a major role in spreading of M. synoviae. When commercial breeder flocks become infected during egg production, egg-transmission appears to be higher in the first 6 weeks after infection. After the chicks are hatched, M. synoviae organisms are spread horizontally. Transmission occurs among birds by the aerosol route and by contamination of the feed and water. The entire flock may be infected at 3weeks of age (Kleven, 2003). Horizontal transmission readily occurs by direct contact. In general, M. svnoviae appears to spread more rapidly than *M. gallisepticum*. The former can be present in the respiratory tract of infected chickens for 4 weeks and during that time the spread between houses occurs (Ferguson-Noel and Noor mohammadi, 2013). Natural infection can be observed from the first week of age, but acute infection is more often seen when chickens are adult. This fact suggests that the incubation period can be relatively short, but it generally lasts for 11-21 days. Chronic infection may or may not follow the acute phase at any age and persist for the entire life of the flock (Kleven, 2003). Therefore, M. svnoviae contaminated environment is a potential hazard to birds. Mycoplasma synoviae is also well known for its interactions with other infectious agents and environmental factor salike in producing clinical disease. Control of clinical manifestations is simplified when concurrent infections are minimized and optimal environmental conditions are provided. Respiratory infections are considerably affected by environmental factors and disease severityis increased during the winter months. Temperature, ventilation, humidity, atmospheric ammonia and dust all have important interactions with infectious agents in producing respiratory disease (Landman, 2014). Atmospheric dust significantly increased the severity of air sac lesions, and chickens maintained at environmental temperatures of 7-10°C were more susceptible to airsacculitis caused by M. synoviae than chickens maintained at 24-29°C (Kleven, 2003). Mycoplasm as also infect other domestic and wild avian species, so it is important to ensure they are not in contact with commercial chickens. Some data provide strong evidence that in direct transmission of Mycoplasma spp. via contaminated feeders occurs (Feberwee et al., 2005). Although M.synoviae can be transmitted via fomites, birds infected this way can quickly overcome mild disease and may on recovery be protected against more virulent infections acquired by direct bird-to-bird contact (Behbahan et al., 2005). Such indirect transmission is rather unexpected for wall-less bacteria, which are supposed to be sensitive to osmotic shock, heating or chemical treatments. However, M. synoviae may persist on feathers up to 2or 3 days at room temperature and its high dissemination capacity has been demonstrated (Marois et al., 2005). Mycoplasmas are more likely to spread among farms by the mechanical route, which includes spread via contaminated equipment, shoes and other fomites (Kleven, 2003). Mycoplasma synoviae most frequently occurs as a subclinical upper respiratory

infection. It may cause air sac lesions when combined with other respiratory agents such as Newcastle disease virus (NDV), infectious bronchitis virus (IBV), or both (Landman, 2014). Other times, M. svnoviae becomes systemic and results in infectious synovitis, an acute to chronic infectious disease of chickens and turkeys, primarily involving joint synovial membranes and tendon sheaths, and producing exudative synovitis, tenovaginitis, or bursitis (Ferguson-Noel and Noor mohammadi, 2013). Infectious sinusitis grossly distends infraorbital sinuses, with fibrin, heterophils, epithelial cell hyperplasia, and hypertrophy of mucous glands. Later, there is lymphocytic infiltrates in the lamina propria or nodular formation, and tracheitis and airsacculitis can occur (Kleven, 2003). The pathogen city of M. svnoviae generally involves attachment and colonization of the respiratory tract, and other additional factors like imunosupression can produce systemic invasion and clinical signs.

Clinical signs and lesions

Common disease signs like pale comb, lameness and retarded growth are the first noticeable manifestations. Disease progression debilitates the bird that became ruffled, and swellings usually occur around joints, especially the hock and foot pads joints (Ferguson-Noel and Noor mohammadi, 2013). Air sacullites may occur in chickens infected via respiratory tract at any age. In recent years, the occurrence of arthropathic and amyloidogenic strains of *M. synoviae*, as well as strains that induce eggshell apex abnormalities and egg production losses, has increased (Feberwee et al., 2008). The progeny of M. synoviae infected breeders may have increased condemnation, poor conversion rates and poor weight gain. Morbidity varies from 2 to 75%, usually reaching 5 to 15%, and mortality ranges between 1 and 10%. As *M. synoviae* infection progresses, caseous exudates involve tendon sheats and joints that became thinned over time and may evolve in to the muscle and air sacs. In the respiratory form, airsacculitis may be seen (Kleven, 2003).

Diagnosis, control, treatment and prevention

Diagnosis is based on epidemiological data, clinical signs, and analysis of macroscopic lesions, specific serology, isolation and molecular characterization of M.svnoviae. Monitoring must be part of control programs performed in breeder flocks and is mostly feasible by routine serology and PCR (Kleven, 2003). Serologic procedures are useful for flock monitoring in *M. synoviae* control programs and to aid in diagnosis when infection is suspected. A positive serologic test, together with history and signs typical of the disease, allows a presumptive diagnosis pending isolation and identification of the organisms (Fergunson-Noel et al., 2011). The tube agglutination

test was a common procedure, especially during the M. gallisepticum control program for turkeys in the 1960s and 70s but is now rarely used. Serum plate agglutination (SPA) antigen for the detection of antibodies to M. svnoviae is commercially available. Because the SPA test is quick, relatively inexpensive and sensitive, it has been widely used as an initial screening test for flock monitoring and serodiagnosis. However, nonspecific reactors occur in some flocks infected with M. synoviae due to crossreactive antigens, or those recently vaccinated with oil-emulsion vaccines and/or vaccines of tissue-culture origin against various agents. The SPA test is highly efficient in detecting IgM antibodies, which are the first class of immunoglobulins produced in response to (Kleven, 2003). The hemagglutination infection inhibition (HI) test has been commonly used to confirm reactors detected by SPA or, more recently, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA). However, the HI test is time consuming, the reagents are not commercially available and the test may lack adequate sensitivity. ELISA assays were developed to increase testing efficiency and improve sensitivity and specificity of results compared to the SPA and HI tests. Commercial ELISA test kits are now commonly used for serodiagnosis and flock monitoring. In general, ELISA tests are slightly less sensitive but more specific than SPA tests: and less specific but more sensitive than HI tests (Kleven, 2003; Ferguson-Noel and Noor mohammadi, 2013). Ewing et al. (1998) reported that the SPA test missed infected commercial layer and breeder flocks that were detected by ELISA. Further confirmation of serologic results may be made by isolation and identification of *M. synoviae* from the upper respiratory tract or by PCR) (Carli and Evigor, 2002; Ramírez et al., **2006).** However, few laboratories are equipped for culturing this organism, as specific culture media are required. Techniques for the detection and analysis of DNA through PCR arise as a very interesting alternative diagnostic method, because they offer sensitivity, specificity, capability of performing exams on a large scale and economic viability nowadays (Hammond et al., 2009). The sensitivity observed in PCR is important for detection of pathogenic agents in clinical samples taken from subclinically infected animals or those undergoing antibiotics treatment. Furthermore, it is possible to detect a pathogenic agent even before the host's immunologic response, or in hosts with immune depression, which points out advantages over the serologic tests (Buim et al., 2009; Kempf, 1998). The antibiotic treatment of breeders is not effective for the elimination of M. synoviae, although egg transmission level is reduced (Kleven, 2003). Macrolides like tylosin and tilmicosin and fluoroquinolones likeenrofloxacin and difloxacin are

among the antibiotic families most widely used in poultry in many countries (Gerchman et al., 2011), but M. synoviae is susceptible in vitro to several other antibiotics including chlortetracycline, lincomycine, oxytetracicline, spectinomycine, tetracycline and tiamulin (Ferguson-Noel and Noormohammadi, **2013)**. In the past, mycoplasmaseradication programs were based on antibiotic or heat treatment of fertile eggs, but more recently the intensive poultry industry relies heavily upon the application of vaccines for disease control (Ferguson-Noel et al., 2012). Vaccination programs are presently being used to control outbreaks of the more virulent strains of M.synoviae (Ferguson-Noel and Noormohammadi, 2013). Regarding the presence of mycoplasmas in breeder farms, their concentration in some regions and the inexistence of adequate sanitary barriers that may enable the isolation of farms are predisposing factors for the disease dissemination. Other contributing factors are related to the resistance to antimicrobial treatments and to the immunologic system escape mechanisms that these pathogens make use of. The high M. synoviae occurrence in layer and breeder birds is probably due to the fact that vaccines are still not oftenly used (Kleven.1998: McAuliffe et al., 2006). The primary objective for any poultry farm M. synoviae control is to prevent the introduction of the organism into a clean flock by use of a comprehensive biosafety program.

References:

- 1. Behbahan N, Asasi K, Afsharifar AR, Pourbakhsh SA (2005) Isolation and detection of *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* by polymerase chain reaction and restriction fragment length polymorphism. Iran J Vet Res 6: 35-41.
- Buim MR, Mettifogo E, Timenetsky J, Kleven S, Piantino FJ (2009) Epidemiological survey on *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* and *M.synoviae* by multiplex PCR in commercial poultry. Brazilian J Vet Res 29: 552-556.
- 3. Carli KT, Eyigor A (2002) Real-Time polymerase chain reaction for detection of *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* in chicken trachea. Avian Dis 47: 712-717.
- 4. Dierks RE, Newman JA, Pomeroy BS (1967) Characterization of avian Mycoplasma. Annals New York Acad Sci 143: 170-189.
- 5. Ewing L, Cookson KC, Philips RA, Turner KR, Kleven SH (1998) Experimental infection and transmissibility of *Mycoplasmasynoviae* with delayed serological response in chickens. Avian Dis42: 230-238.
- 6. Feberwee A, Mekkes DR, Klinkenberg D, Vernooij CM, Gielkens LJ, Stegeman JA (2005) An experimental model to quantify horizontal

transmission of *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*. Avian Pathol 34: 355-361.

- 7. Feberwee A, Vries TS, Landman WJ (2008) Seroprevalence of *Mycoplasma synoviae* in Dutch commercial poultry farms. Avian Pathol 37: 629-633.
- 8. Feberwee A, Vries TS, Landman WJ (2008) Seroprevalence of *Mycoplasmasynoviae* in Dutch commercial poultry farms. Avian Pathol 37: 629-633.
- Fergunson-Noel N, Victoria AL, Farrar M (2011) Influence of swabmaterial on the detection of *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* and *Mycoplasma synoviae* by real-time PCR. Avian Dis 56: 310-314.
- 10. Ferguson-Noel N, Cookson VA, Laibinis VA, Kleven SH (2012) The efficacy of three commercial *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* vaccinesin laying hens. Avian Dis 56: 272-275.
- Ferguson-Noel N, Noormohammadi AH (2013) *Mycoplasma synoviae* infection. In: Diseases of poultry 13th ed, Iowa State University Press, Ames: pp 900-906.
- 12. Ferguson-Noel N, Noormohammadi AH (2013) *Mycoplasma synoviae* infection. In: Diseases of poultry 13th ed, Iowa State University Press, Ames: pp 900-906.
- Fiorentin L, Soncini RA, Costa JL, Mores MA, Trevisol IM, Toda M (2003) Apparent eradication of *Mycoplasma synoviae* in broiler breeders subjected to intensive antibiotic treatment directed to control *Escherichia coli*. Avian Pathol 32: 213-216.
- Gerchman I, Levisohn S, Mikula I, Manso-Silván L, Lysnyansky I (2011) Characterization of in vivo-acquired resistence to macrolides of *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* strains isolated from poultry. Vet Res42: 90.
- 15. Hammond PP, Ramírez AS, Morrow CJ, Bradbury JM (2009) Development and evaluation of an improved diagnostic PCR for *Mycoplasmasynoviae* using primers located in the haemagglutininen coding gene *vlh A* and its value for strain typing. Vet Microbiol136: 61-68.
- 16. Kempf I (1998) DNA amplification methods for diagnosis and epidemio-logical investigations of avian mycoplasmosis. Avian Pathol 27: 7-14.

- 17. Kleven SH (2003) *Mycoplasma synoviae* infection. In: Diseases of poultry 13th ed, Iowa State University Press, Ames: pp 756-766.
- Kleven SH (2003) Mycoplasma synoviae infection. In: Diseases of poultry 13th ed, Iowa State University Press, Ames: pp 756-766
- Kleven, S. H. (1998). Mycoplasmosis. In: Swayne. D. E., Glisson, J. R., Jackwood, M. W., Pearson, J. E., Reed, W. M. (Eds.), A laboratory manual for the isolation and identification of avian pathogens.
- 20. Landman WJ (2014) Is *Mycoplasma synoviae* outrunning *Mycoplasmagallisepticum*? A viewpoint from the Netherlands. Avian Pathol 43:2-8.
- Marois C, Picault JP, Kobisch M, Kempf I (2005) Experimental evidence of indirect transmission of *Mycoplasma synoviae*. Vet Res 36: 759-769.
- 22. McAuliffe L, Ellis RJ, Miles K, Ayling RD (2006) Biofilm formation by Mycoplasma species and its role in environmental persistence and survival. Microbiol 152: 913-922.
- 23. Peebles ED, Park SW, Branton SL, Gerard PD, Womack SK (2011) Dietary poultry fat, phytase, and 25-hydroxycholecalciferol influence in the digestive and reproductive organ characteristics of commercial layers inoculated before or at the onset of lay with F-strain *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*. Poult Sci 90: 797-803.
- 24. Ramírez AS, Clive JN, Hammond PP, Bradbury JM (2006) Development and evaluation of a diagnostic PCR for *Mycoplasmasynoviae* using primers located in the intergenic spacer region and the 23 rRNA gene. Vet Microbiol 118: 76-82.
- 25. Stipkovits L, Glavits R, Palfi V, Beres A, Egyed L, Denes B (2011) Pathologic lesions caused by coinfection of *Mycoplasmagallisepticum*an H3N8 low pathogenic Avian Influenza Virus in chickens. Vet Pathol 49: 273-283.
- 26. Vogl G, Plaickner A, Szathmary S, Stipkovit L, Rosengarten R, Szostak MP (2008) *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* invades chickenerythrocytes during infection. Inf Imm 76: 71-77.

1/12/2019