Host competence of African rodents Arvicanthis neumanni, 1 A. niloticus and Mastomys natalensis for Leishmania major. 2 Jovana Sadlova^{a*}, Barbora Vojtkova^a, Katerina Hrncirova^a, Tereza 3 Lestinova^a, Tatiana Spitzova^a, Tomas Becvar^a, Jan Votypka, Paul 4 Bates^b and Petr Volf^a 5 6 ^a Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Science, Charles University, 7 Prague, Czech Republic 8 9 ^b Division of Biomedical and Life Sciences, Faculty of Health and 10 Medicine, Lancaster University, Lancaster, United Kingdom 11 12 13

* corresponding author, sadlovaj@natur.cuni.cz

14

Abstract

Cutaneous leishmaniasis caused by *Leishmania major* is a typical zoonosis circulating in rodents. In Sub-Saharan Africa the reservoirs remain to be identified, although *L. major* has been detected in several rodent species including members of the genera *Arvicanthis* and *Mastomys*. However, differentiation of true reservoir hosts from incidental hosts requires indepth studies both in the field and in the laboratory, with the best method for testing the infectiousness of hosts to biting vectors being xenodiagnosis.

Here we studied experimental infections of three *L. major* strains in *Arvicanthis* neumanni, *A. niloticus* and *Mastomys natalensis;* the infections were initiated either with sand fly-derived or with culture-derived *Leishmania*. Inoculated rodents were monitored for several months and tested by xenodiagnoses for their infectiousness to *Phlebotomus* duboscqi, the natural vector of *L. major* in Sub-Saharan Africa. The distribution and load of parasites were determined *post mortem* using qPCR from the blood, skin and viscera samples. The attractiveness of *Arvicanthis* and *Mastomys* to *P. duboscqi* was tested by pairwise comparisons.

Three different *L. major* strains used significantly differed in infectivity: the Middle Eastern strain Friedlin infected a low proportion of rodents, while two Sub-Saharan isolates from Senegal (LV109, LV110) infected a high percentage of animals and LV 110 also produced higher parasite loads in all host species. All three rodent species maintained parasites of the LV109 strain for 20-25 weeks and were able to infect *P. duboscqi* without apparent health complications: infected animals showed only temporary swellings or changes of pigmentation on the site of inoculation. However, the higher infection rates, more generalized distribution of parasites and longer infectiousness period to sand flies in

- 39 M. natalensis suggest that this species plays the more important reservoir role in the life
- 40 cycle of *L. major* in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Arvicanthis* species may serve as potential reservoirs
- 41 in seasons/periods of low abundance of *Mastomys*.
- 42 **Key words:** wild reservoir, xenodiagnosis, Grass Rats, Multimammate Mice,
- 43 leishmaniases, Arvicanthis, Mastomys

1. Introduction

Leishmania (Kinetoplastida: Trypanosomatidae) are parasites with a digenetic life cycle, alternating between blood feeding insects - sand flies (Diptera: Psychodidae) and mammalian hosts including humans. Leishmania major is a causative agent of human cutaneous leishmaniasis (CL) affecting millions of people in the Old World. It is transmitted by sand flies of the genus *Phlebotomus*. Proven vectors are *P. papatasi*, a species with wide distribution from North Africa and Southern Europe to India, and *P. duboscqi*, a species occurring in a wide belt through the Sub-Saharan Africa ranging from Senegal and Mauritania in the west to Ethiopia and Kenya in the east (Maroli 2013).

CL caused by *L. major* is a typical zoonosis maintained in reservoir rodent hosts.

Humans are infected incidentally; lesions appear at the site of insect bite and cure without treatment after about three months. The short duration of the disease precludes survival of the parasite in humans through any non-transmission season (Ashford 2000). Proven reservoir hosts are the Fat Sand-Rat *Psammomys obesus* and gerbils of the genus *Meriones* in North Africa and the Middle East, and the Great Gerbil *Rhombomys opimus* in Central Asia. On the other hand, reservoir rodent species in Sub-Saharan Africa remains to be confirmed. *Leishmania major* has been isolated from several rodent species in this region; most isolates have been made from Grass Rats *Arvicanthis* spp. and Multimammate Mice *Mastomys* spp. which live in immediate vicinity of humans, and are the most dominant rodents in many Sub-Saharan African endemic localities of CL (reviewed by Ashford 1996, Ashford 2000, Desjeux 1996). *Arvicanthis* and *Mastomys* belong to the same large subfamily Murinae, but are separated in different tribes – Arvicanthini and Praomyini, respectively (Lecompte et al. 2008). The origin of both tribes was estimated to about 10. 2 Mya. Recently,

the genus *Arvicanthis* was reported to include seven species and the genus *Mastomys* eight species (Granjon and Ducroz 2013, Leirs 2013).

Identification of reservoir hosts is essential for the control of zoonoses. However, it requires longitudinal in-depth studies both in the field and in the laboratory. True reservoir hosts must satisfy many parameters - the most important being longevity sufficient to provide a habitat for the parasite during a non-transmission season, high population density of the host, and the location of the parasite within the host suitable for transmission. In addition, the infection is likely to be too benign (or too infrequent) to have any regulatory effect on host population (Ashford 1997, 2000). Finding PCR positive animals does not necessarily mean they serve as parasite reservoirs for biting sand flies (Silva et al. 2005). Indeed, such animals may simply serve as parasite sinks, i.e. animals upon which infected sand flies feed but do not contribute to vector infection and transmission to the next host (Chaves et al. 2007). The best method for testing the infectiousness of hosts to biting vectors is by xenodiagnosis, i.e., feeding of laboratory reared insects on the infected host with subsequent examination of the insects for presence of parasites.

The main aim of this laboratory study was to contribute to analysis of the host competence of the African rodents *Arvicanthis neumanni* (Neumann's Grass Rat), *A. niloticus* (Nile Grass Rat) and *Mastomys natalensis* (Natal Multimammate Mouse) for *L. major*. *Arvicanthis neumanni* is the smallest *Arvicanthis* species, ranging from Ethiopia to Kenya; *A. niloticus* is widespread from the Nile Delta to Kenya and West Africa and *Mastomys natalensis* widely distributed in almost all Sub-Saharan Africa throughout many biotic zones (Granjon and Ducroz 2013, Leirs 2013). Their response to the infection and ability to present the parasites to feeding sand flies were tested using experimental infections and

xenodiagnoses. Feeding rates of *P. duboscqi* on these rodents were tested by host-choice experiments.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Sand flies, parasites and rodents.

The colony of *P. duboscqi* was maintained in the insectary of the Department of Parasitology,

Charles University in Prague, under standard conditions (26°C on 50 % sucrose and 14 h

light/10 h dark photoperiod) as described previously (Volf and Volfova 2011).

Three *L. major* strains were used: MHOM/IL/81/Friedlin, a human isolate from Israel, and two strains isolated in Senegal by Ranque - MARV/SN/XX/RV24;LV109 and MHOM/SN/XX/BO-DK;LV110. The identity of the Senegalese strains was confirmed by sequencing of the RPL23a intergenic sequence (Dougall et al., 2013). Promastigotes were cultured in M199 medium (Sigma) containing 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine calf serum (FBS, Gibco) supplemented with 1% BME vitamins (Basal Medium Eagle, Sigma), 2% sterile urine and 250 µg/mL amikacin (Amikin, Bristol-Myers Squibb).

Breeding colonies of *A. neumanni* and *A. niloticus* (originating from Prague Zoo and Pilsen Zoo, respectively) and *M. natalensis* (originating from a commercial source, Karel Kapral s.r.o.) were established in the animal facility of the Department of Parasitology.

BALB/c mice originated from AnLab s.r.o. Animals were maintained in T IV breeding containers (Velaz) equipped with bedding German Horse Span (Pferde), breeding material (Woodwool) and hay (Krmne smesi Kvidera), provided with a standard feed mixture ST-1 (Velaz) and water ad libitum, with a 12 h light/12 h dark photoperiod, temperature 22-25°C and humidity 40-60%.

2.2. Experimental infection of sand flies.

Promastigotes from log-phase cultures (day 3-4 post inoculation) were washed twice in saline and resuspended in heat-inactivated rabbit blood (LabMediaServis) at a concentration of 5×10^6 promastigotes/ml. Sand fly females (5-9 days old) were infected by feeding through a chick-skin membrane (BIOPHARM) on the promastigote-containing suspension. Engorged sand flies were maintained under the same conditions as the colony.

2.3. Infections of rodents

Two methods of rodent infections were used – infections initiated with sand fly-derived Leishmania according to Sadlova et al. (2015) and infections initiated with culture-derived promastigotes. For the first method, $P.\ duboscqi$ females experimentally infected with $L.\ major$ (for details see above) were dissected on day 10 or 12 post bloodmeal (PBM); their midguts were checked microscopically for the presence of promastigotes, and thoracic midguts (the site of accumulation of metacyclic forms) with a good density of parasites were pooled in sterile saline. Pools of 100 freshly dissected thoracic midguts were homogenized in 50 μ l of saline.

For inoculation of rodents with culture-derived promastigotes, stationary-phase promastigotes (day 7 post inoculation) were washed twice in saline and counted using a Burker apparatus. Pools of 10^8 promastigotes were resuspended in 50 μ l of saline. Dissected salivary glands of *P. duboscqi* females (SG) were pooled in sterile saline (10 glands per 5 μ l of saline) and stored at -20°C. Prior to mice inoculation, SG were disintegrated by 3 successive immersions into liquid nitrogen and added to the parasite suspension.

Rodents anaesthetized with ketamin/xylazine (33 mg and 13 mg/kg in *A. neumanni*, 62 mg and 7 mg/kg in *A. niloticus*, 50 mg and 20 mg/kg in *M. natalensis*, 62 mg and 25 mg/kg in mice, respectively) were injected with 5.5 μ l of the mixed parasite and SG suspension intradermally into the ear pinnae. Therefore, the inoculum dose per one animal with culture-derived promastigotes comprised 10^7 parasites. Exact numbers of sand fly – derived parasites stages were calculated using a Burker apparatus, and the proportions of metacyclic forms were identified on Giemsa stained smears based on morphological criteria described previously (Sadlova et al. 2010). The inoculum dose in sand fly-derived parasites was 3.6×10^4 with LV 110 strain (35% of metacyclic forms) and ranged between 3.5×10^4 -7 $\times 10^4$ parasites/rodent with FVI strain (23-69% of metacyclic forms) and 4.1×10^4 -5.4 $\times 10^4$ with LV109 strain (43 – 68% of metacyclic forms). Animals were checked weekly for external signs of the disease until week 20-35 post infection (p.i.) when they were sacrificed.

2.4. Xenodiagnosis

Five to seven-day-old *P. duboscqi* females were allowed to feed on the site of inoculation of *L. major* (ear pinnae) of anaesthetized rodents (using ketamin/xylazine) between weeks 2 and 25 p.i. Smaller size rodents *M. natalensis* and *A. neumanni* were covered with the cotton bag, so that only the left ear pinnae were accessible to sand flies, placed into a small cage (20 x 20 x 20 cm) and 40-70 sand fly females were allowed to feed for one hour. In the larger sized *A. niloticus*, the xenodiagnoses were made using small plastic tubes with 30 sand fly females covered with fine mesh. The tubes were held on the ear of the anaesthetized animal for one hour (Fig 1A). Fed sand fly females were separated and maintained at 26°C on 50% sucrose. On day 7-10 PBM, females were dissected and their guts examined under the light

microscope. Intensities and locations of infections were evaluated as described previously (Sadlova et al. 2010).

2.5. Tissue sampling and quantitative PCR

Rodents were sacrificed at different weeks p.i by injecting them with an overdose of ketamin/xylazine anesthesia. Both ears (inoculated and contralateral), both ear-draining lymph nodes, spleen, liver, paws and tail were stored at -20°C for qPCR. Extraction of total DNA from rodent tissues and sand flies was performed using a DNA tissue isolation kit (Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Quantitative PCR (Q-PCR) for detection and quantification of *Leishmania* parasites was performed in a Bio-Rad iCycler & iQ Real-Time PCR Systems using the SYBR Green detection method (iQ SYBR Green Supermix, Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) as described (Sadlova et al. 2010).

2.6. Host choice experiments and assessment of mortality and

fecundity of sand flies fed on different hosts.

Pair-wise comparisons between two types of host were performed using a row of three connected small cages (20 x 20 cm). *P. duboscqi* females (200 specimens) were placed into the central cage and left for habituation for 20 minutes. Anaesthetized animals were placed in each of the lateral cages and partitions with the central cage were opened. After one hour, the cages were separated and closed, host animals removed and the numbers of blood-fed sand flies in each host cage was counted. *Arvicanthis neumanni* and *M. natalensis* are species of comparable size (60-80 g) and therefore one animal each was placed in cages. For comparison between mice and *Arvicanthis* or *Mastomys*, two mice were used against

one *Arvicanthis* or *Mastomys* to counterbalance weight differences between these host types. Each pair of different hosts was tested four times, with the hosts alternated between lateral cages in each repeat. Experiments were conducted in darkness at 24-26°C.

Fed females were maintained in the same conditions as the colony and their mortality was recorded for 4 days post-feeding. Then, females were introduced individually into small glass vials equipped with wet filter papers, closed with fine gauze and allowed to oviposit (Killick-Kendrick and Killick-Kendrick 1991). Small pieces of cotton wool soaked in sugar solution (50% sucrose) were placed on the mesh and changed every second day. All vials were placed into a single plastic box with its base filled with the wet filter paper to ensure a uniform microclimate. The humidity was checked and numbers of laid eggs were recorded daily.

2.8. Animal experimentation guidelines

Animals were maintained and handled in the animal facility of Charles University in Prague in accordance with institutional guidelines and Czech legislation (Act No. 246/1992 and 359/2012 coll. on Protection of Animals against Cruelty in present statutes at large), which complies with all relevant European Union and international guidelines for experimental animals. All the experiments were approved by the Committee on the Ethics of Laboratory Experiments of the Charles University in Prague and were performed under permission no. MSMT-10270/2015-5 of the Ministry of the Environment of the Czech Republic. Investigators are certificated for experimentation with animals by the Ministry of Agriculture of the Czech Republic.

3. Results

3.1. Experimental infections and xenodiagnosis with A. neumanni.

In total, 33 females of *A. neumanni* were infected by three different *L. major* strains, most of them (30) using sand fly-derived *Leishmania*. The strain Friedlin originating from the Middle East showed only very weak infectivity for *A. neumanni* (Table 1). None of 12 female *A. neumanni* inoculated with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* developed lesions. Q-PCR revealed presence of *Leishmania* in 1 specimen only, with parasites localized in the inoculated ear pinnae in very low numbers (less than 100). All 532 *P. duboscqi* females used in various time intervals p.i. for xenodiagnoses were negative (Table 2).

The Sub-Saharan strain LV110 originating from Senegal infected all six female *A. neumanni* inoculated with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* (Table 1), but animals did not show any external signs of the disease throughout the entire experiment. Q-PCR revealed the presence of parasites in left ear pinnae (site of inoculation) in all the six animals, however, the numbers of parasites were very low and all 442 females *P. duboscqi* used for xenodiagnoses were negative (Table 2).

The second Sub-Saharan strain LV109 originating from Senegal was inoculated into 15 *A. neumanni* (Table 1); 12 with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* (experimental groups A and B) and 3 with culture-derived promastigotes (experimental group C). Wet skin lesions did not develop, but hyper-pigmentations of left ear pinnae (site of inoculation) were observed in 3 animals, two from the group A and one from the group C (Fig 1B). PCR showed presence of parasites in 7 from 15 animals. They were localized mostly in the left ear (site of inoculation) and once in the blood. Interestingly, the numbers of detected *Leishmania* were higher (hundreds to thousands) in 3 animals, two of which also showed hyper-pigmentation of the

ear. All three animals with hyperpigmentation were infective to sand flies, two by week 5 and the third by week 10 p.i. In total, 0.4 % of 748 *P. duboscqi* females tested were positive (Table 2).

3.2. Experimental infections and xenodiagnosis with A. niloticus.

Twelve *A. niloticus* of both sexes were inoculated with the strain LV109 originating from Senegal. Six *A. niloticus* (3 males and 3 females) were infected with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* (experimental group A) and the same numbers of animals were infected with culture-derived promastigotes (experimental group C), but one animal from group C died early during the experiment and thus was not evaluated. In both groups, the first external signs of the disease appeared on inoculated ear pinnae on week 6 p.i. The affected area was characterized by mild flaking of the skin and hyper-pigmentation (Fig 1C). The pigmentation was lost in the centre while the borders remained hyper-pigmented in a part of animals (Fig 1D, Tab. 3). These dry lesions increased to 3-4 mm by weeks 12-14 p.i; then, in 3 animals the lesion size remained constant until the end of the experiment by week 25 p.i., while in the others lesions decreased or completely disappeared (Tab. 3).

PCR confirmed the presence of *Leishmania* in 4 of 11 animals, with localization in ears, forepaws, hindpaws and tail (Table 1). The numbers of detected parasites were higher (hundreds to thousands) in the animal killed by week 12 p.i., while no parasites or only low numbers (around one hundred) were present in organs dissected by week 25p.i. (by the end of the experiment). This fact corresponds with results of xenodiagnoses: similarly to *A. neumanni*, the period of infectiousness of *A. niloticus* to *P. duboscqi* was restricted to weeks 5 and 10 p.i. (4.1 % and 10.0 % of sand fly females became infected, respectively) while no females developed *Leishmania* infection in feeding experiments in weeks 15-25 p.i.(Table 2).

3.3. Experimental infections and xenodiagnosis with *M. natalensis*.

In total, 23 *M. natalensis* were inoculated with two *L. major* strains. Thirteen *M. natalensis* were all inoculated with sand fly–derived promastigotes of the Israeli strain Friedlin. Q-PCR revealed presence of *L. major* in 46% of animals (Table 1). However, none of the 13 *M. natalensis* tested developed lesions or other external signs of the disease. *Leishmania* were localized mostly in the inoculated ear pinnae (4 animals), less often in the contralateral ear pinnae (3 animals) and exceptionally also in forepaw (1 animal) and liver (1 animal). However, parasites were present in very low numbers (less than 100) in all the tissues. Therefore, animals were not infectious to sand flies (Table 1, 2).

Ten *M. natalensis* were experimentally infected with the LV109 strain (Table 1), 5 with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* (experimental group A) and 5 with culture-derived promastigotes (experimental group C). Skin swellings developed at the site of inoculation (left ear pinnae) in animals of both experimental groups approximately 10 weeks p. i. (Table 4, Fig 1E)). Prior to the swelling the affected site usually reddened, which was observed more often in specimens of the group C. The size of the swelling increased gradually to 6-8 mm, then decreased and finally disappeared. Hyper-pigmentation often accompanied healing of the swellings (Table 4) and it mostly persisted until the end of the experiments.

Parasites were detected by Q-PCR in all tested animals and they disseminated to draining lymph nodes, forepaws, hindpaws and tail in several animals and also to the spleen in one specimen (Table 1). Infectiousness to sand flies was tested at weeks 15 and 25 p.i.: 0.7% of females from group A became infected after feeding at week 15 p.i., while 3.3% and

4.1% of females from the group A and C, respectively, became *Leishmania* positive at week 25 p.i. (Table 2).

3.4. Host choice experiments with *P. duboscqi*.

Two host types were offered to *P. duboscqi* females in each pair-wise comparison.

Preliminary experiments showed that *P. duboscqi* did not distinguish between males and females of *A. neumanni* and both species of the genus *Arvicanthis* (smaller *A. neumanni* and bigger *A. niloticus*). Then, different host genera (represented by *A. neumanni*, *M. natalensis* and BALB/c mice) were compared: each host combination was tested twice with hosts alternated between lateral cages. Sand fly females showed a high feeding rate on all tested rodents: 40.5 - 80.5 % of females took bloodmeals during experiments (Table 5).The only significant preference was observed when *Arvicanthis* was compared with BALB/c mice - *Arvicanthis* was significantly preferred over mice. On the other hand, no difference was observed between *Mastomys* and *Arvicanthis* or *Mastomys* and BALB/c mice.

Engorged females were further followed for comparison of mortality and fecundity of females which took bloodmeals on different hosts. Mortality was assessed until day 4 post bloodmeal and ranged between 5 % and 27%, but was not significantly influenced by host types (Table 5). Four days PBM, females were allowed to oviposit in small glasses where they were kept individually. Blood source did not influence significantly either fecundity of fed *P. duboscqi* females (Table 5) or numbers of eggs laid by individually kept females (Table 6).

5. Discussion

The present study is, to our knowledge, the first one assessing the importance of Sub-Saharan rodents as hosts of *L. major* based on experimental infections of animals and testing of their infectiousness to sand flies.

Rodents of the genera *Arvicanthis* and *Mastomys* have been frequently found infected with *Leishmania major*: infections of *A. niloticus* have been reported from the NW and SW of Ethiopia, from Kenya, Senegal and Sudan, infections of *M. natalensis* from Kenya and *M. erythroleucus* from Senegal (reviewed by Desjeux 1996). The fact that only *A. niloticus* (and no other species of the genus *Arvicanthis*) have been mentioned could be explained by the poorly understood taxonomy of the genus. Only recently have investigations using cytogenetic and molecular data revealed the presence of at least three sibling species in western and central Africa where the single species *A. niloticus* was previously reported (Granjon and Ducroz 2013). In Ethiopia, which is situated in the center of *A. niloticus* origin (Dobigny et al. 2013), even four species of the genus are now recognized, including *A. niloticus* and *A. neumanni* (Granjon and Ducroz 2013).

Frequent field findings of *L. major* in *Arvicanthis* and *Mastomys* have been reported, and the eco-etiological and physiological characteristics of these rodents match the requirements essential for reservoirs: they live in colonies with high population numbers in the vicinity of humans in endemic localities, and they have sufficient longevity. These characteristics encouraged us to perform laboratory experiments which can help to confirm or exclude their reservoir role. The results revealed the importance of the *L. major* strain used for the experiments. Substantial differences were observed in the infectivity of *L. major* strains isolated from the Middle East and Sub-Saharan Africa. The Sub-Saharan strain LV109 persisted in all three tested rodent species for several months and, importantly, the

Middle Eastern strain FV1 produced only poor infections in *A. neumanni* and *M. natalensis*, parasites were present in low numbers and the animals were not infectious to sand flies.

These differences correspond with results of the study of Elfari et al. (2005) testing cross-infectivity of three *L. major* strains differing in geographical origin in three rodent species – *Psammomys obesus*, *Rhombomys opimus* and *Meriones libycus*. No infections were detected in *R. opimus* when infected with the African or Middle Eastern strains and no signs of disease were seen in any *P. obesus* infected with a Central Asian strain (Elfari et al. 2005).

Important methodological points influencing results of experimental infections are the size and nature of the inocula and the infection route (reviewed by Loria-Cervera and Andrade-Narvaez 2014). It has been shown repeatedly that the number of parasites transmitted by sand flies to the host is highly variable but it does not exceeded 10⁵ parasites inoculated per bite (Kimblin et al. 2008, Maia et al. 2011, Secundino et al. 2012). Here we used an intradermal route of inoculation which is close to the natural mode of transmission, since parasites are exposed to the localized immune responses in the skin (Belkaid et al. 1998, 2002). Infections were initiated with either 3-7 x 10⁴ of sand fly-derived parasites or with 10⁷ of parasites derived from stationary-phase promastigote cultures. The former inocula comprised mainly metacyclic stages present in thoracic regions of sand fly midguts during the late stage infections. Rodent infections initiated in our study by natural numbers of sand fly derived *Leishmania* showed the same outcome as those initiated with an unnaturally large inoculum from the culture. Dissemination of parasites in the host's body as well as infectiousness to sand flies was very similar with both types of infection.

Infection rates, the percentage of sand flies that became infected while biting on experimental animals, ranged between 0 -1.2% in *A. neumanni*, 0 - 10% in *A. niloticus* and 0 – 4.1% in *M. natalensis*. Similarly low infection rates were detected previously: 0 – 7% in *P.*

sergenti feeding on rats (*Rattus rattus*) experimentally infected with *L. tropica* (Svobodová et al. 2013), 0 – 5% in *Lu. youngi* feeding on *Proechimys semispinosus* experimentally infected with *L. panamensis* (Travi et al. 2002) or 0 – 11% in *P. perniciosus* feeding on hares (*Lepus granatensis*) naturally infected with *L. infantum* (Molina et al. 2012). Higher infection rates have been reported more rarely, for example 19% of *P. orientalis* feeding on BALB/c mice experimentally infected with *L. donovani* (Sadlova et al. 2015) or up to 27- 28 % of *L. longipalpis* feeding on symptomatic dogs infected with *L. infantum* in Brazil (Michalsky et al. 2007, Courtenay et al. 2002).

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

External clinical manifestations of L. major observed in ears of infected rodents in this laboratory study (changes in pigmentation in Arvicanthis and swellings, redness and hyper-pigmentation in *Mastomys*) appeared 6 and 10 weeks post infection, respectively. They generally resembled natural manifestation of *L. major* infections in *Psammomys obesus* and Meriones shawi described from Sidi Bouzid in Tunisia: hyper-pigmentation, depilation, ignition and edema of the ears were found frequently in both these North African reservoir hosts (Ghawar et al. 2011). Changes in pigmentation and swellings were often accompanied by the presence of high numbers of parasites in our experiments. This is important as only animals with high numbers of parasites in the site where sand flies fed were able to infect the vector. It was also pointed out by Courtenay et al. (2017) that among dogs infected with L. infantum, only some were "super-spreaders", while others contributed little to transmission (15% to 44% of dogs were responsible for > 80% of all sand fly infections). Based on the model proposed by Miller et al. (2014) only 3.2% of the people infected by L. donovani in Ethiopia were responsible for of 53 - 79% of infections in the sand fly population.

One of the important prerequisites of the involvement of any rodent species in the life-cycle of *Leishmania* parasites is its attractiveness to sand flies. It is also known from laboratory colonies that some sand fly species are opportunistic and readily feed on mice, while the others, like species in the subgenera Larroussius and Adlerius, prefer hamsters or rabbits (Volf and Volfova 2011). Since the blood of vertebrate species varies in several properties influencing its nutritive value (Harrington et al. 2001), host choice affects the fitness of fed females as was repeatedly demonstrated in mosquitoes (Lyimo and Ferguson 2009). In the neotropical sand fly Lutzomyia longipalpis significant differences in the numbers of eggs laid among flies fed on various hosts were reported (Macedo - Silva 2014), and in fleas significant differences in the energetic cost of blood digestion was found even at the level of two rodent species from the same family (Sarfati et al. 2005). On the other hand, studies on the Old World sand fly species P. papatasi and P. halepensis revealed no appreciable differences between the fecundity of females fed on human blood and different animal blood sources (Hare et al. 2001, Sadlova et al. 2003). In our experiments, P. duboscqi females manifested as opportunistic feeders which were ready to feed on all offered rodent species, although they preferred Arvicanthis over laboratory mice. Mortality and fecundity of P. duboscqi females was comparable post feeding on all rodents tested. This is in accordance with a study from Kenya where P. duboscqi also showed opportunistic behavior, being attracted to wild rats, chickens, mongooses, dogs and goats (Mutinga et al. 1985).

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

The definition of reservoir hosts in leishmaniasis has changed in recent years.

Ashford (1996, 1997) originally distinguished primary reservoirs (species ensuring long-term persistence of the parasite) and secondary reservoir hosts (species acting as liaison between primary reservoirs and incidental hosts), but this division was assessed to be arbitrary by Chaves et al. (2007), as hosts may vary locally and seasonally with the dynamics of

transmission. According to the widely accepted ecological concept of Pulliam (1988), populations generally exhibit source – sink dynamics, where sources sustain exponential growth and are characterized by emigration while sinks operating under worse conditions demonstrate positive immigration. Chaves et al. (2007) applied this concept on reservoirs for leishmaniasis and proposed to recognize reservoirs (sources) as species which have a dynamic feedback to the hosts through pathogen transmission by the vector. Incidental hosts (sinks) lack such a dynamic feedback and cannot transmit the pathogen to new hosts. In this light, our results suggest that both *Mastomys* and *Arvicanthis* can be assessed as promising reservoirs (sources of the parasite) as both are able to maintain parasites for several months and infect the vector without apparent health complications. However, the higher infection rates, more generalized distribution of parasites and longer infectiousness period to sand flies in *M. natalensis* suggest that this species plays the more important reservoir role in the life cycle of this parasite in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Arvicanthis* species may serve as potential reservoirs in seasons/periods of low abundance of *Mastomys*.

Both *Arvicanthis* and *Mastomys* are known to undergo enormous abundance fluctuations: they are able to breed very rapidly and their population numbers may become very large when environmental conditions are favorable but with deteriorating conditions the numbers decline very rapidly (Granjon and Ducroz 2013, Leirs 2013). In the same locality, the Paloich district in Sudan, numbers of *Arvicanthis* and *Mastomys* alternated in two consecutive years (Hoogstraal and Dietlein 1964). Therefore, the scenario that these species maintain the parasite alternatively is highly likely: in localities/seasons with a low abundance of *Mastomys* then *Arvicanthis* could serve as source of the parasite and vice versa. A similar scenario, alteration of *L. major* between two host species *P. obesus* and *M. shawi*, was proposed in Central Tunisia (Ghawar et al. 2011). Involvement of another rodent species in

maintenance of *L. major* in Sub-Saharan region is also not excluded - it was suggested in Kenya where *Tatera robusta* possessed higher infection rates of *L. major* than *A. niloticus* and *M. natalensis* (Githure et al. 1996). Moreover, a high prevalence of *L. major* in invasive *Rattus rattus* was recently described in the southern part of Senegal (Cassan et al. 2018).

In conclusion, the results of this laboratory study support the field findings and give further support to the involvement of *Arvicanthis* and *Mastomys* spp. in the life cycle of *L. major* in Sub-Saharan Africa. This information is essential for any proposed control efforts against the human infection. However, more studies concerning other rodent species are needed to reveal the whole complexity and diversity of the epidemiology of *L. major* in this region.

6. Acknowledgements

This study was funded by Czech Science Foundation GACR (grant number 17-01911S), GA UK (grant number288217) and ERD Funds; project CePaViP (16_019/0000759).

7. References

430	Ashford, R.W.	2000. The leishmaniases as emerging and reemerging zoonoses. Int. J.
431		Parasitol. 30, 1269-1281.
432	Ashford, R.W.	1996. Leishmaniasis reservoirs and their significance in control. Clin. Dermatol
433		14: 523-532.
434	Ashford, R.W.	1997. What it takes to be a reservoir host. Belg. J. Zool. 127, 85-90.
435	Belkaid, Y., Ka	mhawi, S., Modi, G., Valenzuela, J., Noben-Trauth, N., Rowton, E., Ribeiro, J., Sacks, D.
436		1998. Development of a Natural Model of Cutaneous Leishmaniasis: Powerful
437		Effects of Vector Saliva and Saliva Preexposure on the Long-Term Outcome of
438		Leishmania major Infection in the Mouse Ear Dermis. J. Exp. Med. 188(10): 1941-
439		1953.
440	Belkaid, Y., Vo	n Stebut, E., Mendez, S., Lira, R., Caler, E., Bertholet, S., Udey, M.C., Sacks, D. 2002.
441		CD8 ⁺ T Cells Are Required for Primary Immunity in C57BL/6 Mice Following Low-
442		Dose, Intradermal Challenge with <i>Leishmania major</i> J. Immunol. 168: 3992-4000.
443	Chaves, L.F., H	Hernandez, MJ., Dobson, A.P., Pascual, M. 2007. Sources and sinks: revisiting
444		the criteria for idntifying reservoirs for American cutaneous leishmaniasis.
445		Trends Parasitol. 23(7), 311-316.
446	Cassan, C., Dia	agne C.A., Tatard, C., Gauthier, P., Dalecky, A., Ba, K., Kane, M., Niang, Y., Diallo,
447		M., Sow, A., Brouat, C., Bañuls, A-L. 2018. Leishmania major and Trypanosomo
448		lewisi infection in invasive and native rodents in Senegal. PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.
449		12 (6), e0006615.

450	Courtenay, O., Quinnell, R.J., Garcez, L.M., Shaw, J.J., Dye, C. Infectiousness in a cohort of
451	Brazilian dogs: why culling fails to control visceral leishmaniasis in areas of
452	high transmission. J. Infect. Dis. 186, 1314–1320.
453	Courtenay, O., Peters, N.C., Rogers, M.E., Bern, C. 2017. Combining epidemiology with basic
454	biology of sand flies, parasites, ad hosts to inform leishmaniasis transmission
455	dynamics and control. PLoS Pathog. 13(10) e1006571
456	Desjeux, P.1996. Information on the epidemiology and control of the leishmaniases by
457	country and territory. WHO/LEISH/91.30. Geneva: World Health Organisation
458	1991, 47.
459	Dobigny, G., Tatard, C., Gauthier, P., Ba, K., Duplantier, J.M., Granjon, L., Kergoat, G.J. 2013.
460	Mitochondrial and Nuclear Genes-Based Phylogeography of Arvicanthis
461	niloticus (Murinae) and Sub-Saharan Open Habitats Pleistocene History. PLoS
462	ONE 8(12): 10.1371/annotation/a34daea8-8922-4eb0-8b4e-b0f9dbfd28ca.
463	Dougall, A.M., Alexander, B., Holt, D.C., Harris, T., Sultan, A.H., Bates, P.A., et al. 2011
464	Evidence incriminating midges (Diptera: Ceratopogonidae) as potential
465	vectors of Leishmania in Australia. Int J Parasitol. 41:571–9.
466	Elfari, M., Schnur. L.F., Strelkova, M.V., Eisenberger, C.L., Jacobson, R.L., Greenblatt, C.L.,
467	Presber, W., Schönian, G. 2005. Genetic and biological diversity among
468	populations of Leishmania major from Central Asia, the Middle East and
469	Africa. Microbes Infect. 7, 93-103.
470	Ghawar, W., Toumi, A., Snoussi, MA., Chlif, S., Zaatour, A., Boukthir, A., Hamida, N.B.H.,
471	Chemkhi, J., Diouani, M.F., Ben-Salah, A. 2011. Leishmania major infection
472	among Psammomys obesus and Meriones shawi: reservoirs of zoonotic

473	cutaneous leishmaniasis in Sidi Bouzid (Central Tunisia). Vector-Borne
474	Zoonot.11(12), 1561-1568.
475	Githure, J.I., Ngumbi, P.M., Anjili, C.O., Lugalia, R., Mwanyumba, P.M., Kinoti, G.K., Koech,
476	D.K. 1996. Animal reservoirs of leishmnaiasis in Marigat, Baringo district,
477	Kenya. E. Afr. Med. J. 73(1), 44-47.
478	Granjon, L., Ducroz, JF. 2013. Genus <i>Arvicanthis</i> Grass Rats; pp. 379-380 in Happold D.C.D.
479	(ed) 2013. Mammals of Africa: Volume III. Bloomsbury Publishing, London.
480	Hare, J.G., Dorsey, K.M., Armstrong, K.L., Burge, J.R., Kinnamon, K.E. 2001. Comparative
481	fecundity and survival rates of Phlebotomus papatasi sandflies membrane fed
482	on blood from eight mammal species. J. Med. Entomol. 15(2): 189-196.
483	Haile, T.T., Lemma, A. 1977. Isolation of parasites from <i>Arvicanthis</i> in Ethiopia. T. Roy. Soc.
484	Trop. Med. Hyg. 71, 180-181.
485	Harrington, L.C., Edman, J.D., Scott, T.W. 2001. Why do female <i>Aedes aegypti</i> (Diptera:
486	Culicidae) feed preferentially and frequently on human blood? J. Med.
487	Entomol. 38, 411-422.
488	Hoogstraal, H., Dietlein, D.R.1964. Leishmaniasis in the Sudan Republic: Recent results. Bull.
489	World Health Organ. 31, 137-43.
490	Killick-Kendrick, M., Killick-Kendrick, R. 1991. The initial establishment of sand fly colonies.
491	Parassitologia 33 (Suppl. 1), 313-320.
492	Kimblin, N., Peters, N., Debrabant, A., Secundino, N., Egen, J., Lawyer, P., Fay, M.P.,
493	Kamhawi, S., Sacks, D. 2008. Quantification of the infectious dose of
494	Leishmania major transmitted to the skin by single sand flies. Proc. Natl. Acad.
495	Sci. U. S. A. 105, 10125–30

496	Lecompte, E., Aplin, K., Denys, Ch., Catzeflis, F., Chades, M., Chevret, P. 2008. Phylogeny and
497	biogeography of African Murinae based on mitochondrial and nuclear gene
498	sequences, with a new tribal classification of the subfamily. BMC Evol. Biol. 8:
499	199.
500	Leirs, H. 2013.Genus <i>Mastomys</i> Multimammate Mice, pp 460-471 in Happold, D.C.D. (ed.)
501	2013. Mammals of Africa: Volume III. Bloomsbury Publishing, London.
502	Loría-Cervera, E.N., Andrade-Narváez, F.J. 2014. Animal models for the study of leishmaniasis
503	imunology. Rev. Inst. Med. Trop. Sao Paulo 56(1), 1-11.
504	Lyimo, I.N., Ferguson, H.M. 2009. Ecological and evolutionary determinants of host species
505	choice in mosquito vectors. Trends Parasitol. 25, 189-196.
506	Maia, C., Seblova, V., Sadlova, J., Votypka, J., Volf, P. 2011. Experimental transmission of
507	Leishmania infantum by two major vectors: a comparison between a
508	viscerotropic and a dermotropic strain. PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis. 5e1181. 35.
509	Maroli, M., Feliciangeli, M.D., Bichaud, L., Charrel, R.N., Gradoni, L. 2013. Phlebotomine sand
510	flies and the spreading of leishmaniases and other diseases of public health
511	concern. Med. Vet. Entomol. 27(2), 123-147.
512	Michalsky, E.M., Rocha, M.F., da Rocha Lima, A.C., Franca-Silva, J.C., Pires, M.Q., Oliveira,
513	F.S., Pacheco, R.S., dos Santos, S. L., Barata, R.A., Romanha, A.J., Fortes-Dias,
514	C.L., Dias, E.S. 2007. Infectivity of seropositive dogs, showing different clinical
515	forms of leishmaniasis, to Lutzomyia longipalpis phlebotomine sand flies. Vet.
516	Parasitol. 147, 67–76.
517	Miller, E., Warburg, A., Novikov, I., Hailu, A., Volf, P., Seblova, V., Huppert, A. 2014.
518	Quantifying the Contribution of Hosts wit Different Parasites Concentrations

519	to the transmission of Visceral Leishmaniasis in Ethiopia. PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.
520	8(10), e3288.
521	Molina, R., Jiménez, M.I., Cruz, I., Iriso, A., Martín-Martín, I., Sevillano, O., Melero, S., Bernal,
522	J. 2012. The hare (Lepus granatensis) as potential sylvatic reservoir of
523	Leishmania infantum in Spain. Vet. Parasitol. 190, 268–271.
524	Myskova, J., Votypka, J., Volf, P. 2008. <i>Leishmania</i> in sand flies: Comparison of quantitative
525	polymerase chain reaction with other techniques to determine the intensity
526	of infection. J. Med. Entomol. 45, 133-138.
527	Mutinga, M.J., Kyai, F.M., Kamau, C., Omogo, D.M. 1986. Epidemiology of Leishmaniasis in
528	Kenya. 3. Host Preference Studies Using Various Types of Animal Baits at
529	Animal Burrows in Marigat, Baringo District. Insect Sci. Appl. 7: 191-197.
530	Pulliam, H.R. 1988. Sources, sinks, and population regulation. Am. Nat. 132, 652-661.
531	Sadlova, J., Price, H.P., Smith, B.A., Votypka, J., Volf, P., Smith, D.F. 2010. The stage-regulated
532	HASPB and SHERP proteins are essential for differentiation of the protozoan
533	parasite Leishmania major in its sand fly vector, Phlebotomus papatasi. Cell.
534	Microbiol. 12, 1765-1779. CMI1507 [pii];10.1111/j.1462-5822.2010.01507.x
535	[doi].
536	Sadlova, J., Hajmova, M., Volf, P. 2003. <i>Phlebotomus</i> (<i>Adlerius</i>) <i>halepensis</i> vector
537	competence for Leishmania major and Le. tropica. Med. Vet. Entomol. 17: 1-7
538	Sadlova, J., Seblova, V., Votypka, J., Warburg, A., Volf, P. 2015. Xenodiagnosis of <i>Leishmania</i>
539	donovani in BALB/c mice using Phlebotomus orientalis: a new laboratory
540	model. Parasite Vector 8 doi: 10.1186/s13071-015-0765-x

541 Sarfati, M., Krasnov, B.R., Ghazaryan, L., Khokhlova, I.S., Fielden, L.J., Degen, A.A. 2005. 542 Energy costs of blood digestion in a host-specific haematophagous parasite. J. Exp. Biol. 208: 2489-2496. 543 Secundino, N.F.C., de Freitas, V.C., Monteiro, C.C., Pires, A.C.A.M., David, B.A., Pimenta, 544 P.F.P. 2012. The transmission of Leishmania infantum chagasi by the bite of 545 546 the Lutzomyia longipalpis to two different vertebrates. Parasit Vectors. 5, 20. 547 Silva, E.S., Gontijo, C.M.F., Melo, M.N.2005. Contribution of molecular techniques to the 548 epidemiology of neotropical Leishmania species. Trends Parasitol. 21(12), 550-552. 549 Svobodova, M., Votýpka, J., Nicolas, L., Volf, P. 2013. Leishmania tropica in the black rat 550 551 (Rattus rattus): persistence and transmission from asymptomatic host to sand 552 fly vector *Phlebotomus sergenti*. Microbes Infect. 5(5), 361-364. Travi, B.L., Arteaga, L.T., León, A.P., Adler, G.H. 2002. Susceptibility of Spiny Rats (*Proechimys* 553 semispinosus) to Leishmania (Viannia) panamensis and Leishmania 554 (Leishmania) chagasi. Mem. Inst. Oswaldo Cruz 97 (6), 887-892. 555 556 Volf, P., Volfova, V.2011. Establishment and maintenance of sand fly colonies. J. Vector Ecol. 36 Suppl 1, S1-S9. 557

LEGENDS TO FIGURES:

558

559

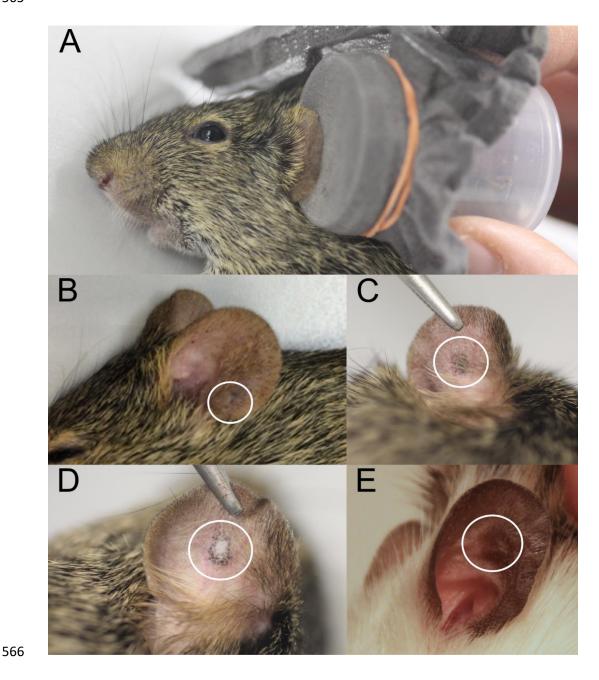
560

561

562

Figure 1. Xenodiagnosis and external manifestation of *L. major* **in rodents.** Direct xenodiagnosis with *P. duboscqi* in plastic tubes covered with fine mesh held on the ear of the anaesthetized *A. niloticus* (A) and external manifestation of *L. major* LV109 in ear pinnae

564



TABLES:

Rodent species	L. major strain	Experimental group	Week p.i.	No of animals tested	No of PCR positive animals (%)	Location (No) of parasites determined by qPCR in individual animals	External signs of the disease (on the inoculated ear)	No of animals infective for sand flies
A. neumanni	Friedlin	Group A	20	6	1	IE*	No	0
		Group B	10	2	0	-	No	not tested
		•	15	2	0	-	No	not tested
			20	2	0	-	No	not tested
A.		Total		12	1 (8.3 %)			0
	LV110	Group A	5	1	1	IE*	No	0
		•	10	2	2	IE*	No	0
						IE*	No	0
			15	1	1	IE*	No	0
			20	2	2	IE*	No	0
						IE*	No	0
		Total		6	6 (100%)			0
	LV109	Group A	20	6	4	IE*	No	0
		•				IE**	H-Pi	1
						IE**	H-Pi	1
						IE**	No	0
		Group B	10	2	0	-	No	not tested
		-	15	2	1	IE*	No	not tested
			20	2	1	B*	No	not tested
		Group C	15	3	1	IE*	H-Pi	1
		Total		15	7 (47 %)			3 (33%) ^a

A. niloticus	LV109	Group A	25 6 1 A5:FP* H-Pi		H-Pi	1		
		Group C	12	1	1	C1: IE***, CE**, HP*	H-Pi	not tested
			25	4	2	C2: IE**	H-Pi	1
						C4: CE**, T*, HP*	H-Pi	0
		Total		11	4 (37%)		2 (20%) ^b	
M. natalensis	Friedlin	Group A	35	6	3	IE*	No	0
						CE* and L*	No	0
						FP*	No	0
		Group B	10	2	2 0 -		No	not tested
			15	2	2	IE*	No	not tested
						IE*, CE*	No	not tested
			20	2	1	IE*, CE*	No	not tested
			35	1	0	-	No	not tested
		Total		13	6 (46%)			0
	LV109	Group A	20	5	5	A1: IE**	Swelling, H-Pi	1
						A2: IE**, DN-CE**, HP***	Swelling	0
						A3: IE*, S**	Swelling, H-Pi	0
						A5: IE**, FP***,HP****,T***	Swelling, H-Pi	0
						A4: IE***, DN-IE*	Swelling	0
		Group C	15	3	3	C1: IE**, T***	Swelling	0
						C4: IE**	Swelling	0
						C5: IE*	Swelling	0
			25	2	2	C2: IE***, FP***, HP**	Swelling	1

			C3: IE**	Swelling, H-Pi	Ü
Total	10	10 (100%)			2 (20 %)

Table 1. Presence of *L. major* DNA in *A. neumanni*, *A. niloticus* and *M. natalensis* and their infectiousness to *P. duboscqi*. Group A, rodent infections initiated with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* and animals exposed to sand flies; Group B, rodent infections initiated with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* and animals not exposed to sand flies; Group C, rodent infections initiated with culture-derived promastigotes and animals exposed to sand flies. IE, inoculated ear; CE, contralateral ear; DN-IE, draining lymph nodes of the inoculated ear; DN-CE, draining lymph nodes of the contralateral ear; FP, forepaws; HP, hindpaws; T, tail; L, liver; S, spleen; B, blood; *, <100 parasites; ***, 100 – 1000 parasites; ****, > 1000 parasites; H-Pi, hyper-pigmentation. A1-A6 and C1-C5 - individual marks of animals referring to tables 3 and 4. ^a 9 tested animals, ^b 10 tested animals.

Rodent species	L. major strain	Experimental group	Week p.i.	No of animals exposed	No of dissected sand flies	No and (%) of positive sand flies
A. neumanni	Friedlin	Group A	2	6	124	0
		·	5	6	179	0
			10	6	95	0
			15	5	54	0
			20	5	80	0
			Total		532	0
	LV110	Group A	5	6	143	0
			10	5	177	0
			15	3	105	0
			20	2	17	0
			Total		442	0
	LV109	Group A	5	6	85	1 (1,2)
			10	6	287	1 (0,3)
			15	5	78	0
			20	5	148	0
		Group C	5	3	98	1 (1,0)
			15	3	52	0
			Total		748	3 (0,4)
A. niloticus	LV109	Group A	5	2	30	3 (10.0)
			10	2	33	2 (6.1)
			15	2	63	0
			20	2	31	0
			25	6	108	0
		Group C	5	3	49	2 (4.1)
			10	2	18	1 (5.6)

			15	3	66	0
			20	2	31	0
			25	4	47	0
		Total			476	5 (1.1)
M. natalensis	Friedlin	Group A	2	6	126	0
			5	6	130	0
			10	6	166	0
			15	6	150	0
			20	6	66	0
		Total			638	0
	LV109	Group A	15	5	145	1 (0.7)
			25	4	61	2 (3.3)
		Group C	15	5	136	0
			25	2	24	1 (4.1)
		Total			366	4 (1.1)

Table 2. Direct xenodiagnosis of *L. major* in *A. neumanni*, *A. niloticus* and *M. natalensis*: feeding of *P. duboscqi* on inoculated ears.

578

Group A, rodent infections initiated with sand fly-derived *Leishmania*; Group C, rodent infections initiated with culture-derived promastigotes.

Animals			Weeks post infection												
	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	25		
C1*			2	3	4	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ		
C2					1	2.5	3.5	3.5	4	4	4	4	4		
C3					1	2.5	3.5	3.5	4	4	4	4	4		
C4			1	1	1	1	3.5	3.5	4	4	4	3	3		
C5				1	1	2.5	3.5	4	4	4	4	3	3		
A1					1	2	2	2.5	3	3	3	3	3		
A2			1	1	2	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3		
A3				1	1	4	4	2	1	1	1	1	1		
A4					3	3	2	2	2	2	1	1	1		
A5			1	1	2.5	2.5	3	1.5	1.5	1.5	1	1	1		
A6			1	2	2.5	3	3	1.5	1						

Table 3. Time-course of the external manifestation of *L. major* LV109 in ear pinnae (site of inoculation) of *A. niloticus*. Animals C1-C5 were infected with culture-derived promastigotes (Group C), animals A1-A5 were infected with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* (Group A). Black colour – hyper-pigmentation, grey colour – depigmentation in the centre surrounded with hyper-pigmented borders. The numbers are the length of the affected area in mm. *, animal died by week 10 p.i.

Animals								W	eeks _l	oost ii	nfecti	on							
	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
C1*				1	1	1	1	1	5.8	Х	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ
C2			1	1.7	1.7	4	4.9	5.3	6.8	7	7	7	7	5	5	5	5	1	
C3				1	1	1	1	1	2.8	3.4	5.2	5.4	5.6	2					
C4*				1	2.9	3	4.7	5	5	Х	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ
C5*				1	1	2	3.3	3.8	4	Х	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ
A1				2	2	2	3	4.6	5.2	6	6	6	6	3.7					
A2				1	1	1	2	2	4	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	3	3	1.6
A3								3	4.2	5.9	5.9	5.9							
A4				1	3	3.5	4.7	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.8	7	8	5.2	2.4	1			
A5		1	1	1	1	1	1	5	6.3	7	6.5	5.8	5	1					

Table 4. Time-course of the external manifestation of *L. major* LV109 in ear pinnae (site of inoculation) of *M. natalensis*. Animals C1-C5 were infected with culture-derived promastigotes (Group C), animals A1-A5 were infected with sand fly-derived *Leishmania* (Group A). Light grey colour – red macula, dark grey colour – swelling, black colour – hyper-pigmentation of the site where swelling had healed. The numbers are the length of the swelling area in mm. *, animals killed by week 15 p.i.

Host	Host	N (%) of fed	Significance of	Mortality post	Significance of	Fecundity	Significance of
combination		sand flies	between-species	feeding:	between-species	N lying eggs/N (%)	between-species
			differences	N dying/N (%)	differences		differences
Arvicanthis vs.	Arvicanthis	161 (80.5%)	χ2 = 17.015,	12/161 (7.4%)	χ2 = 0.118,	26/76 (34.2%)	χ2 = 0.119,
BALB/c mouse	BALB/c mouse	95 (47.5%)	P < 0.0001	6/95 (6.3%)	P = 0.472	24/76 (31.6%)	P =0.432
Arvicanthis vs. Mastomys	Arvicanthis	94 (47.0%)	χ2 = 0.129,	25/94 (26.6%)	$\chi 2 = 0.007$,	20/28 (71.4%)	χ2 = 0.012,
	Mastomys	81 (40.5%)	P = 0.719	22/81 (27.2%)	P = 0.534	14/20 (70.0%)	P =0.582
Mastomys vs. BALB/c mouse	Mastomys	134 (67.0%)	$\chi 2 = 0.055$,	6/100 (6.0 %)	$\chi 2 = 0.787$,	18/20 (90.0 %)	χ2 =0.784 ,
	BALB/c mouse	135 (67.5%)	P = 0.808	10/200 (5.0 %)	P = 0.132	16/20(80.0 %)	P = 0.661

Table 5. Feeding preferences, mortality and fecundity of *P. duboscqi* females fed on different host species. The between-species differences were tested by the Chi-squared test.

Host combination	Host	I	Number of eggs	Significance of between- species differences in distribution and means	
		N	Median (Min, Max)		
Arvicanthis vs.	Arvicanthis	26	21 (2, 75)	P = 0.426, P = 0.777	
BALB/c mouse	BALB/c mouse	24	13 (1, 54)	1 - 0.420, 1 - 0.777	
Arvicanthis vs.	Arvicanthis	20	45 (15, 75)	P = 0.290, P = 0.727	
Mastomys	Mastomys	14	40 (3, 70)		
Mastomys vs.	Mastomys	33	20 (4, 81)	P = 0.379, P = 0.190	
BALB/c mouse	BALB/c mouse	13	31 (5, 72)		

Table 6. Numbers of eggs laid by *P. duboscqi* females fed on different hosts. The differences were tested by the nonparametric Mann Whitney U test.