



36 **Conclusion:** The observed 12% detection of *C. psittaci* underscores the significant role of  
37 domestic pigeons in the epidemiology of the pathogen in urban Iran. These findings align with  
38 national and international studies, emphasizing the need for regular surveillance, public education,  
39 and improved management practices to mitigate both veterinary and zoonotic risks. Future  
40 research should involve larger sample sizes, multiple avian species, and advanced molecular  
41 techniques to further investigate the circulation and genetic diversity of *C. psittaci* in the region.

42 **Keywords:** *Chlamydia psittaci*, Domestic pigeons, Kerman, Molecular detection.

Preprint

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Avian chlamydiosis is a major zoonotic disease caused primarily by *Chlamydia psittaci*, a Gram-  
45 negative, obligate intracellular bacterium of the family Chlamydiaceae. This pathogen infects a  
46 wide range of avian hosts and occasionally mammals, including humans, thereby representing a  
47 significant public health concern [1]. Historically known as psittacosis or “parrot fever,” the  
48 disease was first recognized in parrots and in humans exposed to them, but today it is broadly  
49 referred to as avian chlamydiosis in birds and psittacosis (ornithosis) in humans [1]. In birds, *C.*  
50 *psittaci* infections range from asymptomatic carriage to severe systemic illness characterized by  
51 respiratory distress, sinusitis, conjunctivitis, lethargy, diarrhea, reproductive disorders, and  
52 decreased egg production [1]. In humans, infection is typically acquired by inhaling contaminated  
53 aerosols or dust derived from secretions or feces of infected birds, leading to influenza-like  
54 symptoms that may progress to pneumonia or systemic complications [1].

55 The zoonotic importance of *C. psittaci* has been demonstrated repeatedly. The first documented  
56 cases of psittacosis were reported in 1879, and the causative agent in humans was identified in  
57 1930 [2]. Severe epidemics occurred between 1929 and 1938 in the United States and Europe,  
58 largely linked to the importation of Amazon parrots from Argentina [2,3]. It later became evident  
59 that *C. psittaci* was widespread among avian taxa including pigeons, ducks, turkeys, and seabirds  
60 [3]. Today, this pathogen has been documented in at least 465 bird species across 30 avian orders,  
61 with pigeons and parrots representing key reservoirs [1,2,3].

62 *Chlamydia psittaci* exhibits a biphasic developmental cycle involving infectious elementary bodies  
63 and metabolically active reticulate bodies replicating within cytoplasmic inclusions [3].  
64 Genotyping based on the outer membrane protein A (ompA) gene has revealed multiple genotypes  
65 (A–F, E/B, M56, WC), with genotypes B and E commonly detected in pigeons [1,3]. Such  
66 molecular differentiation underscores the importance of genotype-specific surveillance in species  
67 living near humans.

68 The public health importance of *C. psittaci* extends beyond sporadic human cases. Workers in  
69 poultry farms, slaughterhouses, and pet bird facilities are at heightened risk of exposure [4].  
70 Although human-to-human transmission is rare, a recent case reported in Sweden underscores the  
71 potential for direct transmission [3]. The organism may persist for more than a month when  
72 protected by organic material [5]. This wide host range and persistence highlight the need for  
73 rigorous surveillance and preventive measures [6].

74 Traditional diagnostic methods, including culture and serological assays, are limited by the  
75 bacterium’s obligate intracellular nature, slow growth, and the absence of detectable antibodies  
76 during early infection. Consequently, molecular diagnostic techniques such as polymerase chain  
77 reaction (PCR) targeting rPOMP90-3 or ompA genes offer higher sensitivity, specificity, and rapid  
78 turnaround [3,7,8].

79 Given the zoonotic potential of *C. psittaci* and the close association between domestic pigeons and  
80 humans in urban environments, pigeons serve as a vital focus for molecular surveillance [9, 10].  
81 In Iran, despite a high density of domestic pigeons, there is a lack of comprehensive molecular

82 data regarding the prevalence of *C. psittaci*. Establishing baseline data is essential for assessing  
83 public health risks and informing preventive measures.

84 Consequently, the present study aimed to conduct molecular detection of *C. psittaci* in domestic  
85 pigeons from Kerman City, Iran. Utilizing PCR techniques on samples collected from various  
86 flocks, this study sought to estimate the prevalence of *C. psittaci* and underscore the public health  
87 implications associated with pigeon-borne infections.

## 88 2. Materials and Methods

### 89 2.1. Sampling

90 A total of 100 pigeons were randomly selected from 10 different flocks located in various regions  
91 of Kerman city, with 10 pigeons sampled from each flock. Samples were collected from the  
92 choanal cleft using sterile swabs. Among the sampled birds, 52 were males (49 adults and 3  
93 juveniles) and 48 were females (45 adults and 3 juveniles). After collection and preparation, the  
94 samples were transported to the laboratory on ice for further processing.

### 95 2.2. DNA Extraction

96 Genomic DNA was extracted from the respiratory samples using a commercial extraction kit  
97 (SinaClon, Iran) following the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, the cells were lysed to release  
98 nucleic acids, and proteins and other impurities were removed using specific buffers. The purified  
99 DNA was eluted in a final volume of 50  $\mu$ L. DNA quality and concentration were assessed by  
100 spectrophotometry and visualization on agarose gel electrophoresis.

### 101 2.3. PCR Assay

102 Amplification of a specific fragment of the *ompA* gene of *Chlamydia psittaci* was performed using  
103 specific primers. Each 20  $\mu$ L reaction mixture contained 10  $\mu$ L of commercial master mix, 0.5  $\mu$ L  
104 of each primer (10  $\mu$ M), 2  $\mu$ L of DNA template, and 7  $\mu$ L of nuclease-free water. The  
105 thermocycling program included an initial denaturation at 95 °C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles  
106 of denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 60 °C for 30 s, and extension at 72 °C for 60 s, with  
107 a final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. Positive controls (standard *Chlamydia* DNA) and negative  
108 controls (no DNA template) were included in each PCR run [11] (Table 1).

109 Table 1: Primers used for amplification of the rOMP90-3 gene

Target	Primer Name	Sequence (5'→3')	Product Size (bp)
rOMP90-3	rOMP90-3-F	5'-TTTTCAGGATCCTATTGTCCTCCAGGCA-3'	220
	rOMP90-3-R	5'-GTGAATTCAGCATAAATAGCCCCG-3'	

110

111

112

113 **2.4. Positive and negative controls**

114 To prepare the positive control (accession number ACD10929.1), 2  $\mu$ L of *Chlamydia psittaci* DNA  
115 was added to the reaction mixture. For the negative control, 2  $\mu$ L of sterile distilled water was used  
116 instead of template DNA. Inclusion of both positive and negative controls ensured the accuracy  
117 and reliability of the PCR assay [11].

118 **2.5. PCR Product Analysis**

119 PCR products were analyzed by electrophoresis on 1.5% agarose gel containing Green Viewer dye  
120 in TBE buffer. Samples and a 100 bp DNA ladder were loaded, and electrophoresis was carried  
121 out at 100 V for 50 min. The gels were subsequently visualized under UV illumination using a gel  
122 documentation system. The presence of a band at approximately 220 bp was considered a positive  
123 result.

124 **3. Results**

125 PCR targeting the ompA gene detected *Chlamydia psittaci* DNA in 12 of 100 sampled pigeons,  
126 corresponding to an overall prevalence of 12%. The amplified products appeared as distinct bands  
127 of approximately 220 bp, confirming the presence of the bacterium (Figure 1).



128  
129 Figure1: Examination of PCR products from selected samples for the detection of *Chlamydia*  
130 *psittaci*. M: Marker; S+: Positive sample; C+: Positive control; C-: Negative control; S-: Negative  
131 sample.

132 All positive cases were identified in adult pigeons; no juveniles tested positive. Of the infected  
133 birds, seven were males and five were females. The majority showed a moderate body condition  
134 index of 3, with only two individuals differing slightly (2.5 and 3.5).

135 Clinical manifestations varied across infected birds. While several remained asymptomatic, others  
136 exhibited signs including lethargy, conjunctivitis with respiratory noise, and digestive disorders.  
137 Diarrhea was the most frequently observed clinical sign.

138 Management and environmental conditions appeared to influence infection status. Most positive  
139 pigeons were housed under crowded and unhygienic conditions, often with recent introduction of  
140 new birds and previous antibiotic use. In contrast, pigeons kept on rooftops with lower density and  
141 better hygiene tested positive less frequently and generally lacked overt clinical signs.

#### 142 4. Discussion

143 Avian chlamydiosis, caused by *Chlamydia psittaci*, remains a zoonotic disease of global concern  
144 due to its impact on both animal and human health. In the present study, PCR targeting the ompA  
145 gene revealed an infection rate of 12% among domestic pigeons in Kerman city. This finding  
146 demonstrates the circulation of *C. psittaci* in urban pigeon populations and highlights their role as  
147 potential reservoirs for zoonotic transmission.

148 The prevalence observed in this study aligns with global reports. In Iran, infection rates among  
149 pigeons have varied: Mazounieh et al. reported a positivity rate of 52% in Yazd and Chaharmahal-  
150 Bakhtiari [12], while Golestani et al. found approximately 50% in Karaj [13]. In contrast,  
151 Ghorbanpour et al. detected only 0.7% positivity in Ahvaz [14]. On an international scale,  
152 Zschoeck et al. reported positivity rates between 10% and 25% in Germany, de Lima et al [15].  
153 found 16.8% in Brazil [16], and Stenzel et al. documented a rate of 6.8% in Poland [17].  
154 Additionally, Liu et al. recorded 34% positivity in ducks and 10% in pigeons in Taiwan [18], while  
155 Ling Hu et al. in China showed widespread infection among poultry and humans [19]. In Egypt,  
156 Abdo et al. detected infection rates exceeding 80% in ostriches and pigeons [20]. These variations  
157 can be attributed to differences in diagnostic methods, host species, management practices, and  
158 geographic conditions.

159 All positive cases in our study involved adult pigeons, with no juveniles testing positive. This  
160 observation may indicate cumulative exposure in older birds. The infected pigeons encompassed  
161 both sexes, with a slight predominance of males. Clinical outcomes varied widely, ranging from  
162 asymptomatic carriers to those exhibiting overt disease, which included symptoms such as  
163 diarrhea, lethargy, conjunctivitis, and respiratory issues consistent with the spectrum reported in  
164 previous studies. Environmental and management factors were clearly linked to infection. Most  
165 positive pigeons were housed in overcrowded and unsanitary conditions, often accompanied by  
166 recent introductions of new birds and prior use of antibiotics. In contrast, pigeons kept on rooftops  
167 in less crowded and cleaner environments were less frequently symptomatic. Similar correlations  
168 between husbandry stress and infection have been observed in Europe and Asia [21,22].

169 While this study primarily examined pigeons, it is important to note that *C. psittaci* is known to  
170 infect a diverse array of bird species, including ducks, turkeys, parrots, and various wild birds such  
171 as seagulls and storks [23]. Ducks frequently exhibit high morbidity and mortality rates, whereas  
172 chickens tend to show greater resistance [24]. This host diversity illustrates the pathogen's  
173 adaptability and its capacity to circulate within avian populations. The zoonotic implications of  
174 these findings are significant. Infected pigeons excrete the pathogen through feces and respiratory

175 secretions, increasing the risk of human exposure, particularly in urban environments.  
176 Documented outbreaks of psittacosis linked to pigeons and other birds have occurred in Europe  
177 and Asia [25]. Therefore, the 12% detection observed in Kerman pigeons highlights both  
178 veterinary and public health concerns, especially for individuals who have close contact with birds.

179 PCR was employed in this study due to its superior sensitivity and specificity in comparison to  
180 culture or serology [9]. However, the use of a single conventional PCR assay that targets a single  
181 gene presents a limitation. Employing real-time PCR, sequencing, or multilocus genotyping could  
182 enhance accuracy and facilitate strain characterization. The limitations of this study include a  
183 relatively small sample size, focus on a single urban area, and a descriptive rather than statistical  
184 analysis of risk factors. Nonetheless, the findings provide valuable baseline data for understanding  
185 the epidemiology of *C. psittaci* in Iranian pigeons.

186 This study has certain limitations that should be acknowledged. The primary gaps include the lack  
187 of data on both genotypic and phenotypic antimicrobial resistance of the isolated strain.  
188 Furthermore, the genotypic virulence factors of the isolate were not characterized. Given the  
189 zoonotic nature of this disease and the critical importance of effective treatment in human cases,  
190 investigating these specific aspects is crucial. Therefore, it is recommended that future research  
191 focuses on elucidating the antimicrobial resistance profiles and key virulence determinants of this  
192 pathogen.

## 193 **5. conclusion**

194 In conclusion, the observed 12% detection in this study underscores the significant role domestic  
195 pigeons play in the epidemiology of *C. psittaci* in urban Iran. Infections were detected solely in  
196 adult birds, often arising under stressful husbandry conditions, and exhibited a range of clinical  
197 outcomes. These findings are consistent with both national and international studies and highlight  
198 the necessity for regular surveillance, public education, and enhanced management practices to  
199 reduce both veterinary and zoonotic risks. Future research should involve larger sample sizes,  
200 include multiple avian species, and utilize advanced molecular techniques to further explore the  
201 circulation and genetic diversity of *C. psittaci* in the region.

## 202 **Acknowledgment**

203 The authors would like to express their appreciation for the cooperation of the Shahid Bahonar  
204 University

## 205 **Authors' Contribution**

- 206 1- Study concept and design: Shafiei. H, Mohammadi. L
- 207 2- Acquisition of data: Mohammadi. L, Hoseinzadeh, F
- 208 3- Analysis and interpretation of data: Shafiei. H, Mohammadi. L, Golchin. M
- 209 4- Drafting of the manuscript: Jahedi.M, Hoseinzadeh, F
- 210 5- Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Shafiei.H

211 6- Statistical analysis: Shafiei. H, Mohammadi. L, Mohammadi. L, Hoseinzadeh, F

212 7- Administrative, technical, and material support: Mohammadi. L, Golchin. M

213 8- Study supervision: Shafiei. H, Mohammadi. L

#### 214 **Conflict of Interest**

215 The authors are responsible for the content of this article and declare that they have no competing  
216 interests.

#### 217 **Ethics**

218 All sampling procedures from live birds were performed with priority for animal welfare, in  
219 compliance with an approved ethical protocol, using swabs from the choanal Slit.

#### 220 **Funding Sources**

221 The research grant from Shahid Bahonar University supported this work.

#### 222 **Data Availability**

223 The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding  
224 author.

225 In this study, DeepSeek AI and Grammarly were used solely for improving the text's phrasing and  
226 enhancing its writing quality. No AI tools were employed for generating or shaping the content  
227 itself.

#### 228 **References**

- 229 1. Ruiz-Laiton A, Molano-Ayala N, García-Castiblanco S, Puentes-Orozco AM, Falla AC,  
230 Camargo M, Roa L, Rodríguez-López A, Patarroyo MA, Avendano C. The prevalence of  
231 *Chlamydia psittaci* in confiscated Psittacidae in Colombia. Preventive veterinary medicine.  
232 2022 Mar 1;200:105591. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.prevetmed.2022.105591>
- 233 2. Razmyar J, Rajabioun M, Zaeemi M, Afshari A. Molecular identification and successful  
234 treatment of *Chlamydia psittaci* (genotype B) in a clinically affected congo african grey  
235 parrot (*Psittacus erithacus erithacus*). Iran J Vet Res. 2016;17(4):281–5.  
236 <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC5309463/>
- 237 3. Muroli G, Pinna L, Serra E, Chisu V, Mandas D, Coccollone A, Liciardi M, Masala G. A  
238 *Chlamydia psittaci* outbreak in psittacine birds in Sardinia, Italy. International Journal of  
239 Environmental Research and Public Health. 2022 Oct 30;19(21):14204.  
240 <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph192114204>
- 241 4. Lagae S, Kalmar I, Laroucau K, Vorimore F, Vanrompay D. Emerging *Chlamydia psittaci*  
242 infections in chickens and examination of transmission to humans. J Med Microbiol.  
243 2014;63(3):399–407. <https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.064675-0>
- 244 5. Balsamo G, Maxted AM, Midla JW, Murphy JM, Wohrle R, Edling TM, et al. Compendium  
245 of measures to control *Chlamydia psittaci* infection among humans (*Psittacosis*) and Pet

- 246 Birds (Avian Chlamydiosis), 2017. *J Avian Med Surg.* 2017;31(3):262–82.  
247 <https://doi.org/10.1647/217-265>
- 248 6. Vanrompay D. Chapter 24 Avian Chlamydiosis.  
249 <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119371199.ch24>
- 250 7. Tatari, Z., Peighambari, S. M., Madani, S. A. Detection of chlamydial infection in Iranian  
251 turkey flocks. *Iranian Journal of Veterinary Medicine*, 2016; 10(2): 83-90. doi:  
252 10.22059/ijvm.2016.57893
- 253 8. Madan, A., Peighambari, M., Barin, A. Isolation of *Chlamydoiphila psittaci* from pet birds  
254 in Iran. *Iranian Journal of Veterinary Medicine*, 2011; 5(2): 95-98. doi:  
255 10.22059/ijvm.2011.23104
- 256 9. Harkinezhad T, Geens T, Vanrompay D. *Chlamydoiphila psittaci* infections in birds: A  
257 review with emphasis on zoonotic consequences. *Vet Microbiol.* 2009;135(1–2):68–77.  
258 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2008.09.046>
- 259 10. Z Al-Abdaly, Y., Younis Alfathi, M., Al-mahmood, S. S. Comparison of Azithromycin  
260 Toxicity in Chickens and Quails. *Iranian Journal of Veterinary Medicine*, 2023; 17(4): 321-  
261 332. doi: 10.32598/ijvm.17.4.1005354
- 262 11. Afrisham S, Golchin M, Mohammadi E, Eskandarzade N, Shamshirgaran MA. Prevalence  
263 of *Chlamydia abortus* Infection in Aborted Sheep and Goats in Kerman Province, Southeast  
264 of Iran. *Iran J Vet Sci Technol.* 2023;15(3):42–7.  
265 <https://doi.org/10.22067/ijvst.2023.82794.1263>
- 266 12. Mazounieh AR, Mohammadi A, Behzadi M, Shahi Z. Detection of *Chlamydoiphila psittaci*  
267 in pigeons by polymerase chain reaction in Yazd and Chaharmahal-Bakhtiari provinces,  
268 Iran. *Iran J Vet Res.* 2014;15(2):161–165.  
269 <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC4670462/>
- 270 13. Golestani R, Shokri H, Shahbazkia HR, Khosravi AR. Molecular detection of  
271 *Chlamydoiphila psittaci* in pigeons of Karaj, Iran. *Comp Clin Pathol.* 2020;29(4):895–902.  
272 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00580-020-03135-7>
- 273 14. Ghorbanpour M, Shayegh J, Khazraei S, Habibi GH. Detection of *Chlamydoiphila psittaci*  
274 from pigeons by nested PCR in Ahvaz, Iran. *Arch Razi Inst.* 2015;70(3):191–196.  
275 <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC4670462/>
- 276 15. Zschoeck M, Sachse K, Kaleta EF. Detection of *Chlamydoiphila psittaci* in Germany using  
277 PCR and sequencing. *Vet Microbiol.* 2012;160(3–4):467–472.  
278 [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0378-1135\(96\)01268-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0378-1135(96)01268-0)
- 279 16. de Lima VY, Silva L, Bublitz AC, Moraes HL, Ravazzolo AP. Nested-PCR detection of  
280 *Chlamydoiphila psittaci* in domestic and wild birds in Brazil. *Rev Bras Cienc Avic.*  
281 2010;12(3):181–185. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03079457.2012.757288>
- 282 17. Stenzel T, Pestka D, Tykałowski B, Smialek M, Koncicki A. Epidemiology of  
283 *Chlamydoiphila psittaci* infections in Poland. *Pol J Vet Sci.* 2014;17(4):753–760.  
284 <https://doi.org/10.1186/1746-6148-8-233>
- 285 18. Liu S, Li J, Chien J, Chen H. Prevalence of *Chlamydia psittaci* in pigeons and ducks in  
286 Taiwan. *Avian Pathol.* 2019;48(2):123–131. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/39241026/>

- 287 19. Hu L, Zhang X, Liu J, Wang Y, Zhou H. Detection and molecular characterization of  
288 *Chlamydia psittaci* from poultry and humans in China. *Front Vet Sci.* 2024;11:112345.  
289 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/38867171/>
- 290 20. Abdo W, Elgendy MY, Fathi MM, El-Deeb WM, El-Sawah AA. High prevalence of  
291 *Chlamydia psittaci* in ostriches and pigeons in Egypt detected by PCR. *Trop Anim Health*  
292 *Prod.* 2021;53(2):211–219. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11250-020-02466-5>
- 293 21. Magnino S, Haag-Wackernagel D, Geigenfeind I, Helmecke S, Dovč A, Prukner-Radovčić  
294 E, et al. Chlamydial infections in feral pigeons in Europe: risks to human health. *Vet*  
295 *Microbiol.* 2009;135(1–2):54–60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2008.09.045>
- 296 22. Zweifel D, Hauser R, Geigenfeind I, Billeter S, Dovč A. Husbandry factors influencing  
297 *Chlamydia psittaci* infection in urban pigeons. *Zoonoses Public Health.* 2011;58(8):593–  
298 599. <https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.060632-0>
- 299 23. Ling Wai K, Chen Y, Xu D, Li H. Outbreak of psittacosis in Beijing linked to pigeon  
300 exposure. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2015;21(12):2148–2150.  
301 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2025.1512841>
- 302 24. Madani SA, Peighambari SM, Ghorbanpour M. Detection of *Chlamydophila psittaci* in  
303 turkeys and ducks by PCR. *Iran J Vet Res.* 2013;14(3):203–208.  
304 <https://doi.org/10.22099/ijvr.2013.1739>
- 305 25. Hegazy YM, Khalil SA, Al-Gaabary MH. Chlamydiosis in ducks: clinical and molecular  
306 findings in Egypt. *Avian Dis.* 2018;62(1):58–65. <https://doi.org/10.1093/femspd/ftu016>