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1 **Autoantibodies to iron-binding proteins in pigs infested with *Sarcoptes scabiei***

2

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25

26 **Abstract**

27

28 Despite the availability of effective treatments, *Sarcoptes scabiei* remains a major health
29 problem in the pig industry. Unsuccessful control of the disease is often due to the lack of
30 reliable detection methods, with current tests relying on skin scrapings and crude antigen
31 ELISAs. A previous analysis of antigens in pig skin scrapings reported that anti-transferrin
32 antibodies were present in *S. scabiei* infected animals and that this finding might be
33 considered as a useful diagnostic tool. This paper confirms IgG autoantibodies against
34 transferrin, including the first report of IgM autoantibodies, in both naturally and
35 experimentally infected pigs using ELISA and dot blot assays. Autoantibodies were also
36 detected in pigs to ferritin and to a lesser extent lactoferrin. Immunoblotting confirmed the
37 presence of IgG and IgM autoantibodies in mange positive pigs, as well as IgM antibodies to
38 transferrin and albumin in mange negative pigs. These findings suggest the presence of
39 natural autoantibodies to transferrin and albumin in pigs. The development of the IgG
40 autoimmune response may either be a host mechanism for limiting iron to the mite via
41 antibody mediated clearance, the result of host exposure to mite iron-binding homologues or
42 because of a mite-induced antigenic change to host transferrin. Further investigation into the
43 formation of these autoantibodies may provide insights into the importance of iron in scabies
44 infections and the development and perseverance of *S. scabiei* infections in pigs. The
45 specificity and sensitivity of the anti-transferrin response reinforces its potential in the
46 diagnosis of scabies in pigs.

47

48

49 **Keywords:** Mange; transferrin; ferritin; albumin; lactoferrin; autoantibodies.

50

51 **Introduction**

52

53 *Sarcoptes scabiei* is a parasitic mite responsible for the highly infectious skin disease known
54 as mange or scabies in animals and humans (Mellanby, 1941). This ectoparasite can cause
55 severe skin disorders in over 40 mammalian species, including humans, domestic animals and
56 wildlife (Fain, 1978). Commonly infected species include pigs (Alonso de Vega et al., 1998;
57 Cargill et al., 1997; Davies et al., 1991; Davis and Moon, 1990), dogs (Arlian et al., 1995;
58 Bond, 1998; Feather et al., 2010), foxes (Balestrieri et al., 2006; Newman et al., 2002;
59 Soulsbury et al., 2007), wombats (Martin et al., 1998; Morrison et al., 2003; Skerratt et al.,
60 1998) and humans (Kemp et al., 2002; Walton et al., 2008; Walton and Currie, 2007; Walton
61 et al., 2004).

62

63 Sarcoptic mange in pigs, although classed by most veterinarians as controllable, has
64 significant impacts on intensive pig production (Davis and Moon, 1990). Despite the
65 availability of effective acaricides, mange continues to cause economic losses to farmers
66 (Bornstein and Wallgren, 1997; Hollanders et al., 1997; Vercruysse et al., 2006; Wallgren
67 and Bornstein, 1997) and is found at a prevalence of 50-95% worldwide (Alonso de Vega et
68 al., 1998; Cargill et al., 1997). The high incidence of mange in many countries suggests that
69 producers are able to cope with the existence of mange in their piggeries and the associated
70 financial losses (Cargill et al., 1997). As public concern for animal welfare increasingly
71 impacts on animal production systems (Fraser, 2008), the introduction of more stringent
72 animal health guidelines may lead to renewed interest in eliminating sarcoptic mange in pig
73 production.

74

75 A major hindrance in the eradication of the disease in both animals and humans is the lack of
76 sensitive diagnostic tests to reliably inform effective management programs (Walton and
77 Currie, 2007). Monitoring antibody levels in individuals by ELISA can be a specific and
78 sensitive method to detect responses to an infection that may be sub-clinical or difficult to
79 diagnose. However, commercial serological assays for the detection of *S. scabiei* use crude
80 mite homogenates from pig (var. *suis*) (Bornstein and Zakrisson, 1993) or fox mite varieties
81 (var. *vulpes*) (Hollanders et al., 1997; van der Heijden et al., 2000) as the antigen source.
82 Mites cannot be easily maintained away from their host for long periods of time (Arlan et al.,
83 1984) and thus antigen is only available in limited amounts for commercial application. As a
84 result, current commercial ELISAs are expensive and detect a plethora of antibody responses
85 with highly variable specificities (Kessler et al., 2003; Löwenstein et al., 2004; van der
86 Heijden et al., 2000). The use of a purified antigen would improve the sensitivity of the assay
87 and should reduce cross-reactivity with other mite species (Hollanders et al., 1997). A further
88 improvement to these assays would be the ability to produce recombinant antigen in
89 sufficient quantities and at a cost suitable for widespread usage.

90

91 Previous research by Zalunardo *et al.* (2006) analysed a skin scraping extract from *S. scabiei*
92 infected pigs as a source of mite antigens for diagnosis. Immunoblotting with mange positive
93 sera identified a number of specific antigens in these extracts. An antigenic protein of 80 kDa
94 was determined by N-terminal sequencing to be pig transferrin. In addition, mange positive
95 dog IgG when coupled to a CNBr-activated sepharose affinity column bound a 40 kDa host
96 protein with autoantigenic properties identified as haptoglobin. High antibody titres were
97 detected by ELISA in mange positive pigs against both transferrin and haptoglobin. The
98 suggestion was made that the presence of these autoantigens may be a diagnostic tool for the
99 detection of mange in pigs (Zalunardo et al., 2006). The present study aimed to confirm the

100 initial findings of host autoantibodies induced by mite infections in pigs, investigate the
101 source of the autoantibodies and the dynamics of their production during infection with and
102 without immunosuppressive treatment.

103

104

105 **2. Materials and Methods**

106

107 **2.1 Source and collection of animal sera**

108 The collection of sera for this research was approved by the La Trobe Animal Ethics
109 Committee, La Trobe University, Bundoora, Victoria, Australia.

110

111 Sera from pigs experimentally infected with *S. scabiei* were obtained from the Queensland
112 Institute of Medical Research (QIMR, Royal Brisbane Hospital, Brisbane, Queensland,
113 Australia). Experimental infections, pig housing and mite sampling is described in Mounsey
114 *et al.* (2010). Pigs were allocated into two treatment groups: mange negative (n = 2) and
115 mange positive (n = 4). Blood was taken at 0, 2, 4, 8, 12 weeks post infection and the serum
116 fraction collected. Over the 12 week period, clinical development of scabies was monitored
117 by measuring skin scores (score of 1-8, 8 being most severe), and skin scrapings for collected
118 for mite counts. Pig experimental infections were conducted with ethical approval from both
119 DEEDI and QIMR Animal Ethics Committees.

120

121 Additional sera from naturally infected gilt sows (5-6 months old, n = 20) and uninfected 15
122 week old pigs (n = 20) were sourced from commercial piggeries in Victoria with the
123 assistance of Dr Patrick Daniel of the Pig Health Research Unit, Department of Primary
124 Industries (DPI), Bendigo, Victoria, Australia. Animals were confirmed positive for mange

125 based on the identification of direct symptoms diagnostic of mange, such as papules or the
126 presence of mites, by the Extension Officers on farm and at slaughter.

127

128 **2.2 Indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)**

129 The ELISA described here was optimised by a checkerboard titration using confirmed mange
130 positive and negative pigs and rabbit anti-pig IgG-HRP antisera (Sigma, Saint Louis,
131 Missouri, USA). Commercially produced serum proteins were diluted to a concentration of
132 10 µg/ml with carbonate buffer (0.015 M Na₂CO₃ and 0.035 M NaHCO₃, pH 9.6). Antigens
133 tested included transferrin (bovine, human or dog), haptoglobin (human), ferritin (horse
134 spleen), hemoglobin (bovine), albumin (Bovine Serum Albumin; BSA) and lactoferrin
135 (bovine) (Sigma). Each well of a 96 well ELISA microplate (U-bottom MICROLON®,
136 medium binding; Greiner Bio-one, Germany) was coated with 50 µl of an antigen solution
137 and plates were incubated at 4 °C overnight. Plates were washed three times with phosphate
138 buffered saline containing Tween 20 (PBS-T; 16 mM Na₂HPO₄, 5 mM NaH₂PO₄, 120 Mm
139 NaCl, 0.05 % (v/v) Tween 20, pH 7.4) between each step. Plates were blocked for 2 h at
140 room temperature (RT) with 200 µl of PBS-T containing 3% (w/v) BSA, except for assays
141 testing for antibodies to albumin where 5% (w/v) skim milk was used in place of BSA.
142 Serum was diluted 1/200 in PBS-T containing the appropriate blocking agent and incubated
143 at RT. Each sera was tested in triplicate on each plate. Plates were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h.
144 Secondary antibodies (rabbit anti-pig IgG-horseradish peroxidase (-HRP) antibody, Sigma,
145 and goat anti-pig IgM-HRP antibody, Bethyl Laboratories, Inc., Montgomery, TX, USA)
146 were diluted to 1/2000 in PBS-T containing the appropriate blocking agent and incubated at
147 RT for 30 min with shaking. A volume of 50 µl was added to each well and incubated for 1 h
148 at 37 °C. Plates were washed three times for 15 min with PBS-T and a final wash with dH₂O
149 for 15 min. The substrate 3,3',5,5'-Tetramethylbenzidine (TMB; Invitrogen, CA, USA) was

150 added at a volume of 50 μ l to each well and incubated in the dark at RT for 15 min and then
151 50 μ l of 1 M HCl was added per well. Plates were read after 5 min at an absorbance of 450
152 nm on a microplate reader.

153

154 The cut-off values between negative and positive results were calculated as the average result
155 of the range negative animals plus three times the standard deviation (S.D.).

156

157

158 The sensitivity and specificity for each assay were calculated using the following formulas:

159
$$\frac{\text{True positives}}{\text{True positives} + \text{false negatives}} \times 100\%$$

160 Sensitivity = True positives + false negatives X 100%

161

162
$$\frac{\text{True negatives}}{\text{True negatives} + \text{false positives}} \times 100\%$$

163 Specificity = True negatives + false positives X 100%

164

165 The statistical significance between the positive and negative range animals for each protein
166 tested was determined using a Mann-Whitney U-test using Minitab[®] Statistical Software
167 Version 14 (Minitab, Sydney, Australia).

168

169 **2.3 Isolation and purification of pig immunoglobulins by protein A column**

170 Natural infection and uninfected pig serum aliquots were combined to form two larger pools,
171 respectively, of 500 μ l and prepared for Ig purification by mixing with equal volumes (1:1) of
172 degassed Tris HCl running buffer (0.1 M Tris, 0.135 M NaCl, pH 8.0). Diluted serum was
173 loaded onto a Protein A affinity column (protein A-Sepharose; Invitrogen) and running buffer
174 was added until flow through was complete. Bound Ig was eluted with degassed 0.1 M

175 glycine elution buffer, pH 2.7, and the eluted Ig fractions were collected in tubes and 10%
176 (v/v) of Tris collection buffer (1 M Tris, pH 8.0) was added to neutralise pH. Ig was stored at
177 -80 °C before freeze drying in an Ilshin Freeze Drier (Model TFD8503, Ilshin Lab Co. Ltd.,
178 Europe). Samples of freeze-dried purified Ig were passed through the Sephadex G-25 column
179 (Amersham Biosciences, Uppsala, Sweden) with degassed PBS-T buffer. Concentration of
180 purified Ig was calculated using a bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein estimation kit (Pierce®
181 BCA Protein Assay; Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL, USA).

182

183 **2.4 Western blot analysis of serum proteins with protein A purified immunoglobulins**

184 Commercial lyophilised serum proteins (transferrin, albumin, ferritin) were dissolved in
185 dH₂O and approximately 5 µg of each protein was added to 10 µl of 2x sample buffer (0.5 M
186 Tris-HCl, pH 7.0, 5% w/v SDS, 120 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 0.5% w/v bromophenol blue
187 and 20% v/v glycerol). Sample preparation and electrophoresis was performed according to
188 the modified method by Laemmli (1970). After electrophoresis, gels were equilibrated in
189 transfer buffer (0.3% w/v Tris, 1.5% (w/v) glycine, 20% (w/v) methanol in dH₂O for 15 min
190 prior to transfer to Polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) Immobilon-P transfer membrane
191 (Millipore, Bedford, U.S.A). Electro-transfer was conducted using the modified method of
192 Towbin *et al.* (1979). After transfer, the membranes were washed once with PBS-T and then
193 blocked with 5% (w/v) skim milk powder in PBS-T overnight at 4 °C. Membranes were
194 washed three times with PBS-T. Purified pig antibody (1 mg/ml) was diluted 1/100 in PBS-T
195 and incubated for 1 h. Membranes were washed three times in PBS-T for 5 min and
196 incubated in rabbit anti-pig IgG-HRP (Sigma) or goat anti-pig IgM-HRP (Sigma) diluted
197 1/5000 in PBS-T for 1 h at RT. After incubation, the membranes were rinsed in PBS-T three
198 times for 15 min each wash and then washed once in dH₂O. Membranes were developed
199 using a 3',3'-Diaminobenzidine (DAB) substrate kit including metal enhancers (Sigma).

200

201 **2.5 Dot blot analysis**

202 PVDF membrane was divided into 2 cm² grids. In the centre of a single grid, 2 µl of 10 µg/ml
203 transferrin was spotted and allowed to dry at RT. Strips were blocked with 5% (w/v) skim
204 milk in PBS-T for 2 h at RT. Strips were washed three times with PBS-T. Individual naturally
205 infected and negative pig serum samples diluted 1/10 in PBS-T were added to each spot at a
206 volume of 10 µl. The strips were covered and kept at RT for 1 h, then washed three times in
207 PBS-T. Strips were incubated at RT with secondary antibody, rabbit anti-pig IgG-HRP
208 diluted 1/5000 in PBS-T for 1 h. Strips were then washed three times for 15 min with PBS-T
209 and then a final wash with dH₂O. Strips were developed with DAB as described then allowed
210 to dry. Strips were analysed by calculating the mean integrated density of the probed dot
211 using Image J analysis software Version 1.44n (National Institutes of Health, USA).
212 Differences of the integrated density results for positive versus negative mange pigs were
213 determined by using a Mann-Whitney U-test (Minitab[®] Version 14; Minitab).

214

215

216 **3. Results**

217 **3.1 Analysis of IgG & IgM immunoreactivity of pigs to serum proteins by ELISA**

218 Higher IgG antibody levels to transferrin, lactoferrin and ferritin in mange positive pigs were
219 recorded, but not for albumin, haptoglobin or hemoglobin (Fig. 1). The average IgG
220 responsiveness to transferrin was significantly lower for the mange negative pigs compared to
221 the mange positive pigs (Mann-Whitney U-test, P<0.05). A cut off value was determined
222 from the average OD₄₅₀ value of the mange negative pigs + 3 S.D., of 0.109. The OD₄₅₀ of all
223 positive pigs was greater than the calculated cut off value and no negative pigs displayed

224 OD₄₅₀ values greater than 0.109, giving this assay a diagnostic specificity and sensitivity of
225 100% . For ferritin, the mean OD₄₅₀ of the negative pigs measured was significantly lower
226 than the mean response of positive pigs (Mann-Whitney U-test, P<0.05). The cut off value
227 was calculated as 0.195. Based on this, the specificity of the assay was 100% with a
228 sensitivity of 90%. On average, mange positive pigs produced a higher OD₄₅₀ reading than
229 that of negative pigs to lactoferrin, however this difference was not statistically significant
230 (Mann-Whitney U-test, P>0.05). A cut off value was not applied to this data.

231

232 On average, mange positive pigs displayed higher IgM responsiveness to transferrin (OD₄₅₀)
233 than that of the negative pigs (Fig. 2). A cut off value was determined at 0.768, which
234 resulted in a specificity of 90% and a sensitivity of 50%. For albumin, there was little
235 difference between the mean OD₄₅₀ of the positive pigs compared with that of the negative
236 pigs. Mann-Whitney U-tests were performed to determine if the difference in the average
237 IgM OD₄₅₀ of positive pigs compared with that of negative pigs was significant. A significant
238 difference was found for the transferrin assay (Mann-Whitney U-test, P<0.05), but not for
239 albumin (Mann-Whitney U-test, P>0.05).

240

241 **3.2 Testing of pig anti-transferrin antibodies during an experimental infection with *S.***

242 *scabiei*

243 In an experimental infection model of pigs with *S. scabiei*, pigs displayed common symptoms
244 of acute-hypersensitive porcine mange, such as a papular rash, hair loss, reddened skin,
245 flaking scabs and scratching behaviour. Infections, however, were generally short-term, with
246 skin scores peaking between weeks 8 and 10 post infection before reducing. This acute-term
247 infection provided low mite recovery and gave a clinical condition similar to ordinary scabies

248 in humans. In two pigs, clinical conditions more closely resembled crusted scabies with high
249 mite counts observed.

250

251 On average, mange positive pigs displayed greater transferrin reactivity over the infection
252 program at weeks 8 and 12 (Fig. 3). Despite a low coefficient of determination value ($R^2 =$
253 0.362), a significant relationship was determined using the linear regression equation $OD =$
254 $0.301 + 0.00114 \text{ Mites}$ (ANOVA F-test, $p < 0.05$). Therefore it was determined that mite
255 burden was a poor predictor of the OD value obtained from the transferrin ELISA. This was
256 evident when comparing individual pig anti-transferrin responses at the different time points.
257 For example, pig 4162B had the highest antibody response at 12 weeks (mean OD_{450} 1.029)
258 with only ten mites recovered from skin scrapings. High numbers of mites (500 mites) were
259 counted from skin scrapings conducted at 12 weeks for pig 4160B, however the
260 corresponding antibody responses (mean OD_{450} 0.693) was moderate compared to pig
261 4162B.

262

263 **3.3 Western blotting of commercial serum proteins probed with purified pig** 264 **immunoglobulins**

265 No reactivity to transferrin was observed with pooled Ig purified from mange negative pigs
266 tested by ELISA. Blots probed with sera from mange negative pigs and anti-pig IgM showed
267 very little staining of bands (Fig. 4A), with the strongest bands identified being bovine
268 transferrin (*holo-* and *apo-*). Mange positive pig IgM showed strongest antibody binding to
269 bovine *holo-* and *apo-*transferrin (Fig. 4B). Little binding was observed by mange positive
270 pig IgM antibodies to lactoferrin and dog transferrin. Mange positive IgM binding was also
271 observed for bovine serum albumin. No IgG antibodies to serum proteins were detected in the
272 purified immunoglobulins from mange negative pigs (Fig. 4C). Mange positive pigs had IgG

273 antibodies to bovine *holo*- and *apo*-transferrin and bovine serum albumin (Fig. 4D). Mange
274 positive pig IgG also displayed affinity for dog transferrin, bovine lactoferrin and horse
275 ferritin (Fig. 4D).

276

277 **3.4 Dot blot analysis of anti-transferrin antibodies**

278 An investigation was carried out to determine the efficiency of a developed dot blot assay to
279 detect pig anti-transferrin IgG antibodies and whether this assay would show differential
280 binding to the ELISA and be useful as a diagnostic tool. The colour intensity (integrated
281 density) visualised from the dot blot was greater for most of the positive pigs (n = 10)
282 compared with the negative pig blots (n = 10) (Fig. 5). The dot blot was analysed by
283 calculating the mean integrated density for each individual sample using Image J Software.
284 Positive pigs had an average of 20.3 ± 17.4 integrated density units (IDU) and the mean value for
285 the mange negative pigs was calculated as 6.9 ± 3.2 IDU. The mange positive pigs had a
286 statistically higher mean than the uninfected pigs (Mann-Whitney U-test, $P < 0.05$). This gave the
287 assay a specificity of 90% and a sensitivity of 80%. To determine if the dot blot assay could be
288 used as a diagnostic assay for the detection of mange in pigs, the mean integrated density
289 values determined for each individual pig were compared with the corresponding OD_{450}
290 values obtained from the single dilution indirect ELISA testing for antibodies to bovine
291 transferrin. Regression analysis was used to determine the correlation coefficient between the
292 OD_{450} and mean integrated density. A general trend was observed between the two data sets
293 with a R^2 value of 0.887. The calculated equation for this correlation was $Dot = 2.407 + 47.11$
294 ELISA. This correlation was considered significant using an ANOVA F-test (ANOVA F-test,
295 $P < 0.05$). Further testing of the transferrin Dot Blot assay gave an average value of $15.09 \pm$
296 12.55 IDU for mange positive pigs (n = 20) and the mean value for the mange negative pigs
297 (n = 20) was calculated as 3.35 ± 2.98 IDU. The mange positive pigs had statistically higher

298 values on average than the mange negative pigs (Mann-Whitney U-test, $P < 0.05$). A cut off
299 based on these results using the mean of the mange negative pigs ± 2 S.D. was determined as
300 9.3 IDU. This gave the assay a specificity of 95% and sensitivity of 70%.

301

302

303 **4. Discussion**

304 Analysis by ELISA, western blotting and dot blots confirmed the report by Zalunardo *et al.*
305 (2006) that mange positive pigs produce IgG autoantibodies to transferrin. Mange positive
306 pigs did show an autoantigenic IgG response to lactoferrin and ferritin, both of which are also
307 iron-binding proteins. Transferrin and lactoferrin belong to the same family of monomeric
308 iron-binding proteins, the transferrins, and share similar structure and functions (Aisen and
309 Brown, 1975; Farnaud and Evans, 2003; Nichol *et al.*, 2002). This suggests that an
310 autoimmune response targeting iron-binding proteins may have some relation to their
311 function in the host.

312

313 The experimental infection of mange conducted by scabies researchers at QIMR provided an
314 opportunity to observe the development of transferrin autoantibodies over the course of
315 infection with *S. scabiei*. In three out of four pigs experimentally infected, antibody reactivity
316 was observed to rapidly increase between weeks four and eight. Antibodies to *S. scabiei* are
317 detectable as early as four weeks post infection (Kessler *et al.*, 2003; Wooten and Gaafar,
318 1984), with complete seroconversion in most individuals detectable at six weeks (Bornstein
319 and Zakrisson, 1993; Bornstein *et al.*, 1995; Kessler *et al.*, 2003; Nöckler *et al.*, 1992; van der
320 Heijden *et al.*, 2000; Wooten and Gaafar, 1984).

321

322 Serum IgM antibodies to transferrin were identified in mange positive pigs displaying anti-
323 transferrin IgG antibodies. Low level IgM antibodies to transferrin were also detected in
324 mange negative pigs that did not produce anti-transferrin IgG. IgM autoantibodies (known as
325 natural autoantibodies) to transferrin have been well documented in humans (Avrameas et al.,
326 1981; Guilbert et al., 1982; Seigneurin et al., 1988; Vassilev and Veleva, 1996) and are
327 naturally present in healthy individuals (Avrameas et al., 1981; Boyden, 1965). It has been
328 established that the autoantigenic repertoire is selected in early neonatal development. Adult
329 autoreactive B cells may be further selected as a result of their individual immunological
330 exposure (Meffre and Salmon, 2007; Merbl et al., 2007). Autoreactive B cells secreting IgM
331 require stimulation by selective autoreactive T cells for the class switch to IgG autoantibody
332 production. Age, environmental exposure (stimulation) and genetics may all play a role in the
333 selection of specific autoreactive B cells and T cells, thus dictating the autoantigens
334 detectable in an individual (Merbl et al., 2007). The presence and preservation of natural
335 autoantibodies indicates that they may play a role in the animal's immune repertoire. Natural
336 autoantibodies to transferrin may be involved in regulation of transferrin by clearing the body
337 of proteins whose function has been altered (Guilbert et al., 1982), supporting the theory
338 presented by Zalunardo *et al.* (2006).

339

340 The confirmation that pigs develop anti-transferrin antibodies would indicate that iron bound
341 by transferrin could be sequestered in transferrin-antibody complexes and thus possibly
342 restricted from mites. If an iron-sequestering mechanism does occur then its ability to limit
343 mite burdens depends on more than the immune responsiveness of individual pigs. Tests for
344 free iron in the serum of pigs may indicate whether the effect of the transferrin autoantibody
345 would be limiting free iron concentration, at least systemically, although local effects at the
346 site of infection could not be disregarded.

347

348 A third mechanism for autoantibody production would suggest that *S. scabiei* transferrin
349 molecules share antigenic determinants with pig transferrin. The presence of mites within the
350 skin exposes the host to mite transferrin homologues. If shared epitopes exist between the
351 host and mite proteins, this may stimulate the production of autoantibodies due to antigenic
352 cross-reactivity (Cojocaru et al., 2009). As *S. scabiei* burrows within the skin, dead mites
353 deteriorate within the epidermis and host immune components will encounter various mite
354 proteins. This results in the host producing antibodies to new antigens and a stronger immune
355 response (Arlian and Morgan, 2000). As shown in this paper, anti-transferrin IgM
356 autoantibodies are already present in the pig host. As a result, the exposure to antigens with
357 shared or similar epitopes may provoke a stronger, more specific IgG autoimmune response
358 that also targets the host protein.

359

360 A dot blot assay was developed to determine its efficacy in detecting transferrin
361 autoantibodies in pigs. The described assay identified mange positive pigs based on the
362 production of autoantibodies to transferrin, although it was not as sensitive as the ELISA.
363 This method did not detect autoreactive IgG antibodies in uninfected pigs, consistent with the
364 ELISA data. The described assay may be useful as a faster and more cost effective method
365 for identifying mange positive animals within a herd and would have potential as a farm-
366 based assay. They are also favourable assays for the detection of autoantibodies (Ghirardello
367 et al., 2009).

368

369 **5. Conclusion**

370 In this paper, transferrin was confirmed as an autoantigen in pigs. Another iron-binding
371 protein, ferritin, was found to be a significant autoantigen in pigs infected with *S. scabiei*.

372 Research into the mechanism for the formation of autoantibodies in mange positive pigs is
373 needed to determine if it is the result of cross-reactivity with *S. scabiei* proteins or the result
374 of infection induced changes to the host protein.

375

376

377 **Conflict of interest statement**

378 The authors have no conflict of interest.

379

380

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391

392

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. ELISA of the IgG immunoreactivity of pigs to various self proteins. Pig sera tested were from a confirmed mange positive piggery (n = 20) and a confirmed mange negative piggery (n = 20). Values given are the mean OD₄₅₀ value for each group of pigs ± S.D. Asterisk (*) indicates significant difference (P < 0.05) observed between positive and negative pigs.

Fig. 2. ELISA of IgM immunoreactivity of pigs to various self proteins. Pig sera tested were from a confirmed mange positive piggery (n = 20) and a confirmed mange negative piggery (n = 20). Values given are the mean OD₄₅₀ value for each group of pigs ± S.D. Asterisk (*) indicates significant difference (P < 0.05) observed between positive and negative pigs.

Fig. 3. Progression of anti-transferrin IgG antibodies in pigs experimentally infected with *S. scabiei*. Group A: mange positive pigs (n = 4), group B: mange negative pigs (n = 2). Error bars represent one standard deviation (1 S.D.).

Fig. 4. Western blots of serum proteins probed with mange negative (blots A/C) and mange positive (blots B/D) purified pig immunoglobulins, detected by goat anti-pig IgM-HRP (blots A/B) and rabbit anti-pig IgG-HRP (blots C/D). Lane 1: protein standards, lane 2: bovine *apo*-transferrin, lane 3: bovine *holo*-transferrin, lane 4: dog *apo*-transferrin, lane 5: bovine lactoferrin, lane 6: bovine serum albumin, lane 7: horse spleen ferritin. Arrows indicate bands.

Fig. 5. Dot blot analysis of pig antibodies to bovine transferrin. Mange positive pigs (n = 20) and mange negative pigs (n = 20). Asterisk (*) indicates significant difference (P < 0.05) observed between positive and negative pigs.

Highlights

We confirm the development of anti-transferrin IgG in *S. scabiei* infected pigs.

We present the first report of anti-transferrin IgM in *S. scabiei* infected pigs.

These findings suggest natural autoantibodies to transferrin and albumin in pigs.

Transferrin autoantibodies are produced due to mite interaction with the host.

The anti-transferrin ELISA has potential in the diagnosis of scabies in pigs.

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Figure 1

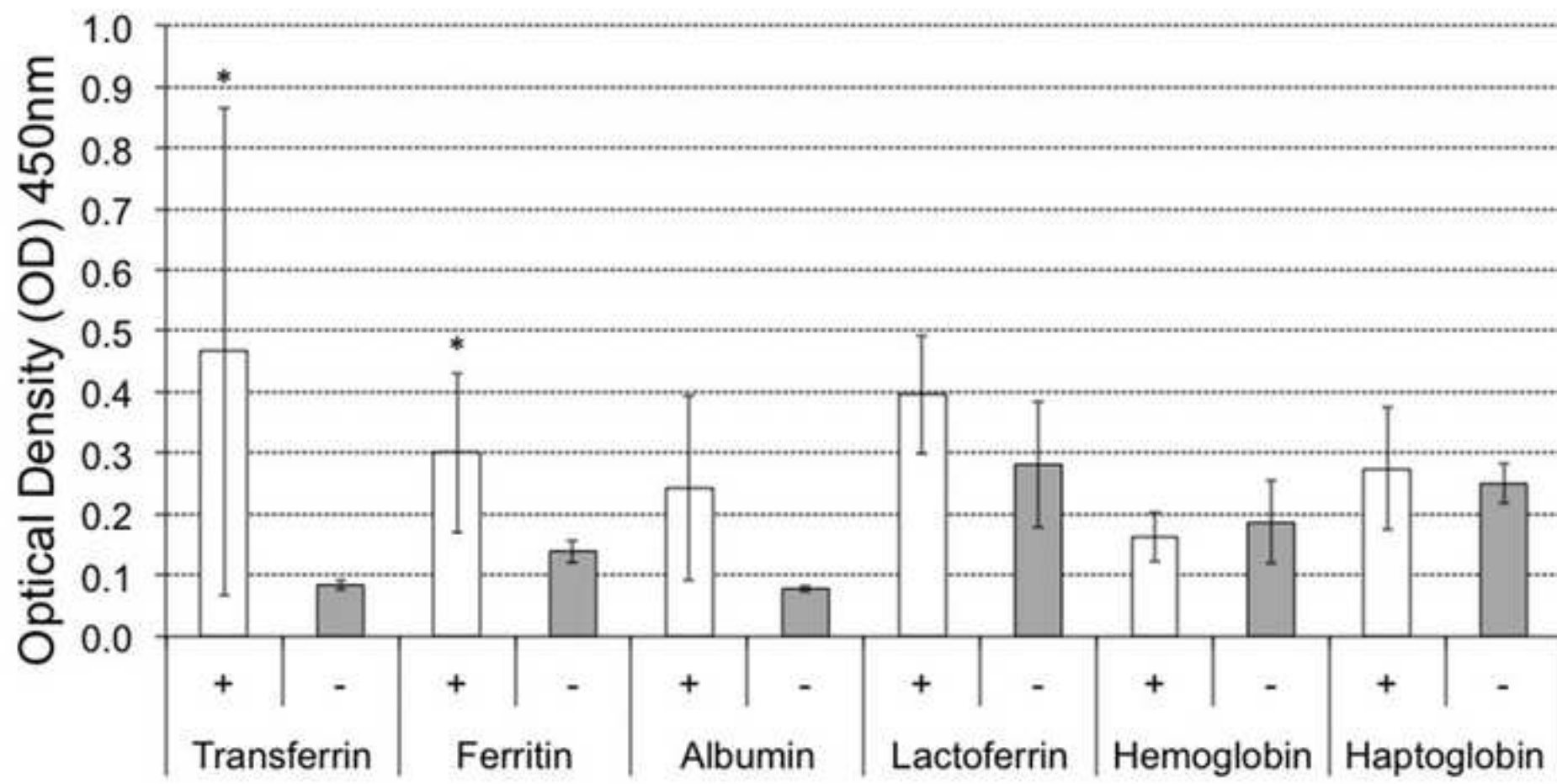


Figure 2

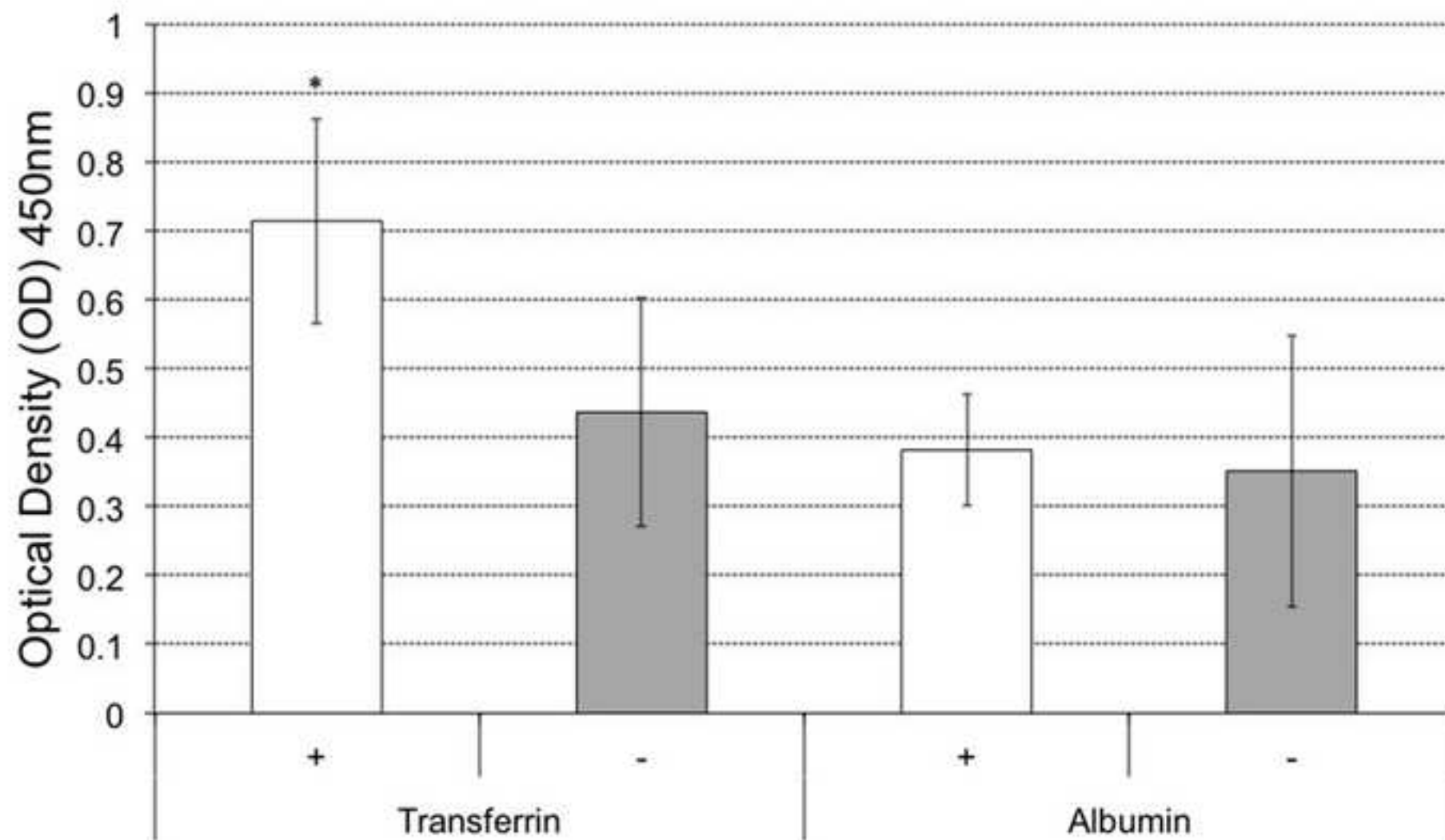
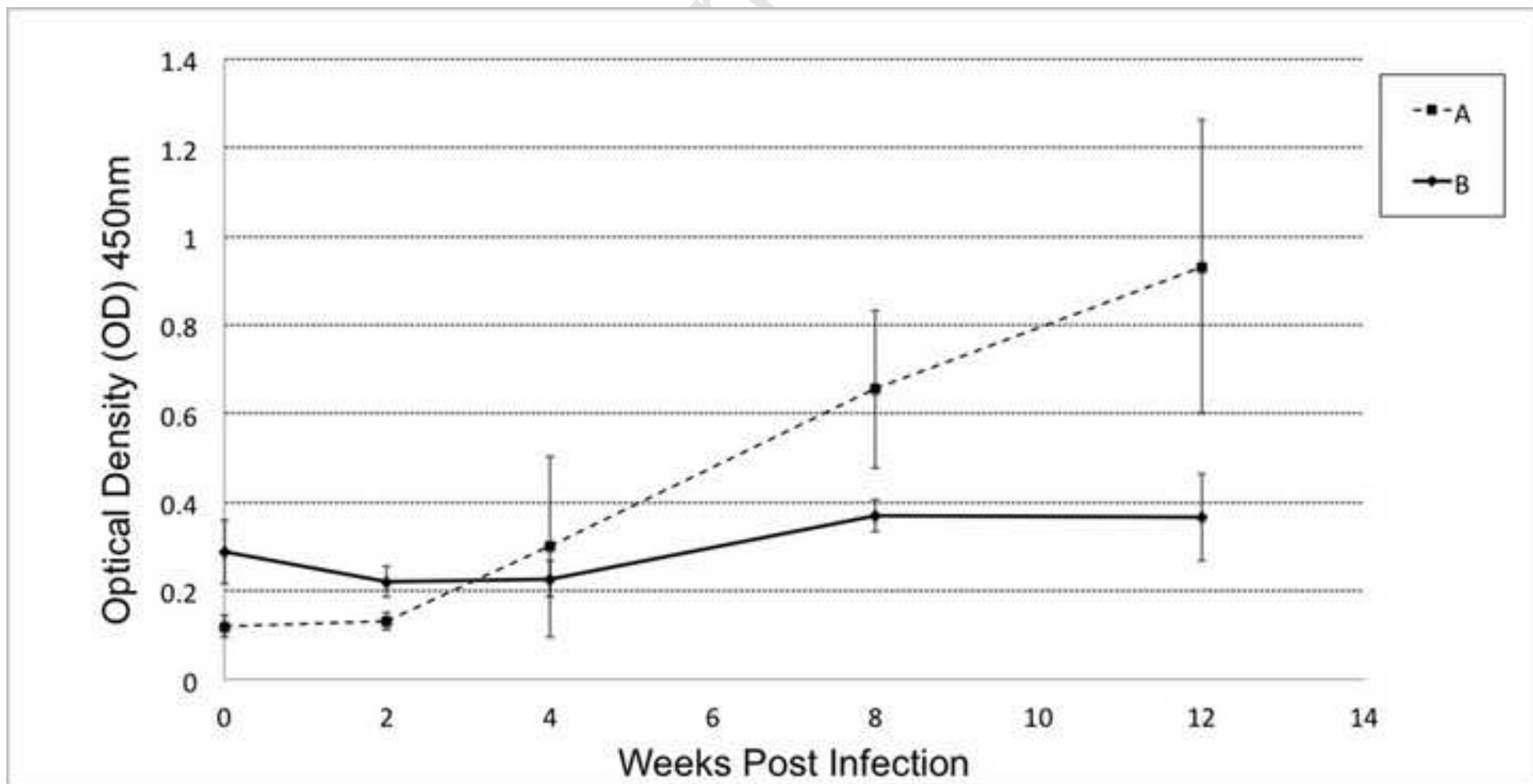


Figure 3

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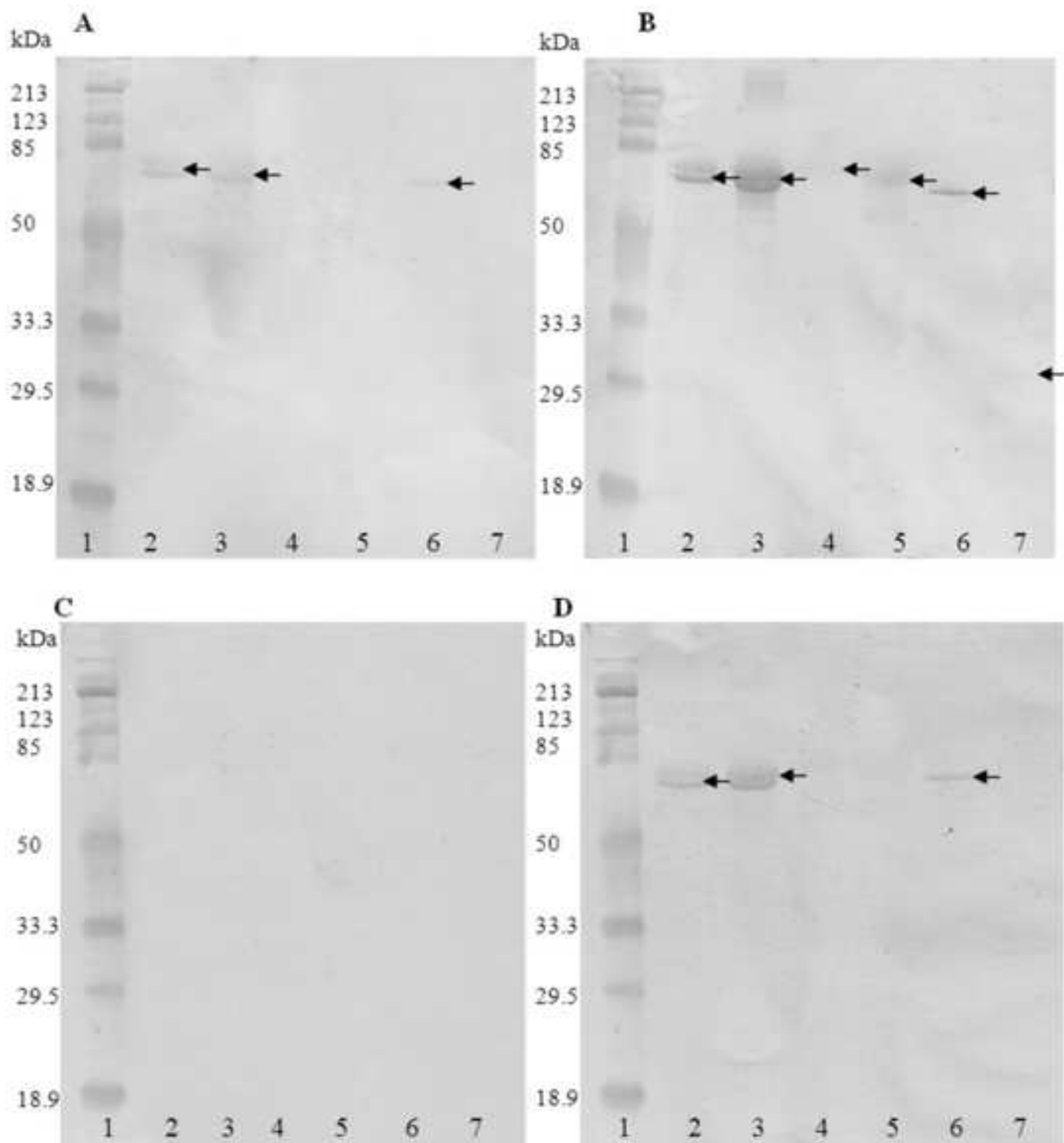


Figure 5

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