Reptile Exposure in Human Salmonellosis Cases and Salmonella Serotypes Isolated from Reptiles, Ontario, Canada, 2015–2022

Katherine Paphitis, Alexandra Reid, Hannah R. Golightly, Janica A. Adams, Antoine Corbeil, Anna Majury, Allana Murphy, Heather McClinchey



In support of improving patient care, this activity has been planned and implemented by Medscape, LLC and Emerging Infectious Diseases. Medscape, LLC is jointly accredited with commendation by the Accreditation Council for Continuing Medical Education (ACCME), the Accreditation Council for Pharmacy Education (ACPE), and the American Nurses Credentialing Center (ANCC), to provide continuing education for the healthcare team.

Medscape, LLC designates this Journal-based CME activity for a maximum of 1.00 **AMA PRA Category 1 Credit(s)**™. Physicians should claim only the credit commensurate with the extent of their participation in the activity.

Successful completion of this CME activity, which includes participation in the evaluation component, enables the participant to earn up to 1.0 MOC points in the American Board of Internal Medicine's (ABIM) Maintenance of Certification (MOC) program. Participants will earn MOC points equivalent to the amount of CME credits claimed for the activity. It is the CME activity provider's responsibility to submit participant completion information to ACCME for the purpose of granting ABIM MOC credit.

All other clinicians completing this activity will be issued a certificate of participation. To participate in this journal CME activity: (1) review the learning objectives and author disclosures; (2) study the education content; (3) take the post-test with a 75% minimum passing score and complete the evaluation at https://www.medscape.org/qna/processor/75358?showStandAlone= true&src=prt_jcme_eid_mscpedu; and (4) view/print certificate. For CME questions, see page 2072.

NOTE: It is the policy of Medscape Education to avoid the mention of brand names or specific manufacturers in accredited educational activities. However, trade and manufacturer names in this activity are provided in an effort to provide clarity. The use of brand or manufacturer names should not be viewed as an endorsement by Medscape of any specific product or manufacturer.

Release date: September 23, 2025; Expiration date: September 23, 2026

Learning Objectives

Upon completion of this activity, participants will be able to:

- Distinguish the subspecies of Salmonella enterica responsible for the majority of human infections
- · Assess why pet reptiles and amphibians may be frequent hosts for Salmonella species
- Analyze the epidemiology of recent contact with a reptile and risk for salmonellosis in the current study
- · Compare different reptiles and amphibians regarding their relative risks for salmonellosis after exposure.

CME Editor

Jill Russell, BA, Technical Writer/Editor, Emerging Infectious Diseases. *Disclosure: Jill Russell, BA, has no relevant financial relationships.*

CME Author

Charles P. Vega, MD, Health Sciences Clinical Professor of Family Medicine, University of California, Irvine School of Medicine, Irvine, California. *Disclosure: Charles P. Vega, MD, has the following relevant financial relationships: served as consultant or advisor for: Boehringer Ingelheim; Exact Sciences.*

Authors

Katherine Paphitis, PhD, MSc; Alexandra Reid, DVM, PhD; Hannah R. Golightly, DVM, PhD; Janica A. Adams, MSc; Antoine Corbeil, MD; Anna Majury, DVM, MSc, PhD; Allana Murphy, BHSc; Heather McClinchey, MSc, DVM, MPH.

Reptile-associated outbreaks of human Salmonella infections are increasing in Canada, coinciding with a rise in the popularity of reptiles as pets. We conducted a retrospective analysis of surveillance data for human Salmonella case-patients in Ontario during 2015–2022. We compared serotypes and reptile types for those reporting domestic reptile or amphibian exposure with veterinary Salmonella isolates reported during the same period. Case-patients commonly reported contact with reptile types from which Salmonella was most frequently isolated.

Calmonella is a common cause of human bacterial enteric illness in Canada (1). Most cases of human infection are associated with Salmonella enterica subspecies enterica, the main subspecies responsible for mammalian salmonellosis and one that is also frequently isolated from reptiles (2,3). Each year, a lesser number of human infections are associated with Salmonella subspecies primarily associated with cold-blooded animals, including reptiles, such as S. enterica subspecies salamae, arizonae, diarizonae, houtenae, and indica (2). Salmonella bacteria are naturally found in the gastrointestinal microbiotia of many animals, including reptiles kept as pets. According to a representative national population-based survey in Canada (2014-2015) assessing food, animal and water exposures, 2.1% of Ontario residents reported contact with a reptile in the week before interview, and 1.0% reported contact with an amphibian (4). A recent review by Varela et al. (5) noted ownership of pet reptiles and amphibians is increasing in the United States; similar trends have been reported in Canada, particularly during the COVID-19 pandemic when persons were spending more time at home (6).

Reptiles (including lizards, snakes, and turtles) and amphibians (including frogs, toads, and salamanders) often carry *Salmonella* bacteria in their intestines without any signs of clinical illness and can contaminate their surrounding environments through fecal shedding (7). Improper animal husbandry is a risk factor for human illness (8). If reptiles do not receive appropriate veterinary care, are fed an inappropriate diet, are housed in inappropriate environments (e.g., inadequate temperature, overcrowded, or environments in which they are unable to express natural behaviors or receive environmental cues), or are otherwise stressed during capture and transport, shedding

Author affiliations: Public Health Ontario, Toronto, Ontario, Canada (K. Paphitis, J.A. Adams, A. Corbeil, A. Majury, A. Murphy); Ontario Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Agribusiness, Guelph, Ontario, Canada (A. Reid, H.R. Golightly); Ontario Ministry of Health, Toronto (H. McClinchey)

DOI: https://doi.org/10.3201/eid3110.241803

Some serotypes from human case-patients were closely associated with contact with specific reptile types, including Salmonella Paratyphi B biovar Java (Salmonella Paratyphi B variant L (+) tartrate +) with snakes, Salmonella Agbeni with turtles, and Salmonella Cotham, Salmonella Chester, and Salmonella Tennessee with bearded dragons. Salmonella was most likely to be reported from reptiles fed a carnivorous diet. Education of reptile owners could help promote proper veterinary care and reduce transmission of zoonotic infections.

of Salmonella bacteria can be exacerbated, increasing the risk for transmission to humans (5,9,10). Reptiles in captivity have indeed been noted to shed Salmonella at higher frequencies than their wild counterparts (11). Immunosuppression from husbandry stress, in snakes for example, has also been noted to change pet oral flora from predominantly gram-positive to aerobic gram-negative bacteria, increasing oral cavity colonization by Salmonella and potentially leading to more gastrointestinal tract shedding (12). Further, all adult amphibians and some reptiles (e.g., snakes) are obligate carnivores and require diets of live foods. Many examples of recommended feeding sources (e.g., crickets, worms, or rodents) (13) for carnivorous amphibians and reptiles are also natural reservoirs of Salmonella, further increasing the risk for infection in pet owners or those involved in animal husbandry who fail to take appropriate preventive measures (5).

Children <5 years of age, elderly persons, and those with impaired immunity are particularly susceptible to Salmonella because of their developing or weakened immune systems (14). Several outbreaks of reptile-associated salmonellosis have been reported in Canada and the United States, including recent outbreaks of S. enterica serovar Vitkin (bearded dragons, 2024), S. enterica serovar Lome (geckos, 2020-2024), S. enterica serovar Muenchen (geckos, 2020-2024), S. enterica serovar Cotham and S. enterica serovar Kisarawe (bearded dragons, 2012-2014), S. enterica serovar Typhimurium (snakes and feeder rodents, 2012–2014), and S. enterica serovar Enteritidis (snakes and feeder mice, 2012–2015); children accounted for a high proportion of cases in each instance (15–20). Similarly, numerous outbreaks of Salmonella Typhimurium linked to pet amphibians and turtles have been reported in the United States (21), including a large outbreak associated with dwarf clawed frogs (2008-2011) and a multistate outbreak associated with pet turtles (2008) (22,23). In both instances, children accounted for a high percentage of cases (22,23).

In Ontario, persons reported to have salmonellosis are interviewed by local public health investigators to identify a potentially causative source of infection. Where multiple possible exposures are reported, awareness of serotypes known to be associated with reptiles (or feeder prey) can aid in identifying the most likely exposure and inform follow-up actions. This study aimed to explore the proportion of locally acquired human salmonellosis case-patients in Ontario during 2015-2022 who reported reptile or amphibian contact before symptom onset, to assess the reptile species and Salmonella serotypes reported most often among those human case-patients, and to compare those observations to reptile and amphibian veterinary isolates reported during the same time period in Ontario, thereby establishing whether the reported reptile or amphibian exposure in human casepatients was a reasonable source of acquisition on the basis of correlating veterinary data.

Methods

Epidemiology

We extracted for analysis data for all human casepatients meeting the confirmed or probable case definition for salmonellosis in Ontario (24) and reported through the provincial electronic surveillance system by local public health units with an episode date of January 1, 2015–December 31, 2022. Episode date was captured per the following hierarchy depending on available information: symptom onset date, specimen collection date, laboratory test date, or date on which the case was reported to the local public health unit.

We extracted *Salmonella* serotype, demographic data, and exposure data for all human case-patients with a yes or no response regarding contact with reptiles or amphibians during the week before symptom onset. Sporadic cases had no epidemiologic link to a known common source. Outbreak-associated cases were linked by a shared spatiotemporal or exposure event or by PulseNet Canada whole-genome sequencing (WGS) with an initial threshold of 0–10 alleles by whole-genome multilocus sequence typing, and where ≥2 related isolates occurred within a 60-day period (24,25).

Per the standardized Ontario questionnaire for salmonellosis, persons who report travel during the exposure period do not necessarily need to be asked about other potential exposures, including reptile or amphibian contact; however, that information can be optionally collected (26). We thus excluded persons who reported travel during the exposure period from further analysis. Removing those cases was further justified because reptile and amphibian species can vary globally, and we anticipated interactions during travel to differ from

those with pets or interactions through local petting zoos or wildlife exposure.

We compared demographic data for sporadic cases in which no travel was reported to assess differences in age or sex between those with or without reptile or amphibian contact. We performed descriptive analyses of case-patient demographics, *Salmonella* serotype, and reptile and amphibian types for a reduced dataset, which included sporadic case-patients who reported having contact with a reptile or amphibian in the week before symptom onset and who did not report travel. We used Pearson χ^2 test to assess associations between case-patients reporting any or no reptile or amphibian contact and case-patient demographics or risk factors.

Reptile and Amphibian Veterinary Isolates

We obtained Ontario reptile and amphibian veterinary isolate data reported to the Ontario Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Agribusiness (OMAFA) through mandatory reporting by veterinary diagnostic laboratories during 2015-2022 (27). Those data reflected all reptile and amphibian specimens submitted to Ontario veterinary diagnostic laboratories from private veterinarians as part of animal health examinations in which Salmonella was identified. Sequencing data from veterinary Salmonella isolates are not routinely reported to OMAFA; therefore, only serotype information was available for evaluation. We compared the serotypes detected with the human case data and further reviewed to assess the frequency of detection of specific serotypes by diet type and whether the animals were privately owned or from a zoological collection. We used the Pearson χ^2 test to assess associations between reptile types and reptile diet. We conducted all analyses using Microsoft Excel (Microsoft) and SAS Enterprise Guide version 8.2 (SAS Institute Inc.) with a significance level of 5% (α = 0.05). This project did not require research ethics committee approval because the activities described herein were conducted in fulfillment of Public Health Ontario's legislated mandate "to provide scientific and technical advice and support to the health care system and the Government of Ontario in order to protect and promote the health of Ontarians" and are therefore considered public health practice, not research (28).

Results

Epidemiology

A total of 18,452 human salmonellosis cases (all serotypes) were reported in Ontario during 2015–2022

(18,296 confirmed, 246 probable). Of those case-patients, 68.8% (12,585) had a yes or no response regarding reptile or amphibian contact in the week before symptom onset; the remainder reported contact as unknown or not asked. Most cases were sporadic (92.7%, 11,668/12,585); the remainder were linked to 1 of 97 unique outbreaks (ranging in size from 1–59 cases with a median of 6 cases). Of the outbreak-associated cases, 13 were linked by WGS to a known outbreak of *Salmonella* (I) 4,[5],12:i:- associated with snakes and feeder rodents (2022), 2 were linked by WGS to a known outbreak of *Salmonella* Vitkin associated with bearded dragons (2022), and the remainder were linked to nonreptile or feeder prey exposure.

Of all case-patients, 28.2% (3,551/12,585) reported travel outside of Ontario during the week before symptom onset and were excluded from subsequent analyses. Of the remaining sporadic case-patients, 6.3% (513/8,148) reported having contact with a reptile or amphibian in the week before symptom onset (from 4.3% [27/625] of cases in 2022 to 8.1% [99/1,225] of cases in 2015) (Table 1).

Age was unknown in 2 sporadic cases with no reported reptile contact; we excluded those persons from analyses involving age. The age distribution of sporadic case-patients differed between those who reported having contact with a reptile or amphibian during the week before symptom onset and those who reported no contact (χ^2 = 46.1; p<0.001) (Table 1). Of all sporadic case-patients who reported reptile or amphibian contact, 9.0% (46/513) were <1 year of age and 29.2% (150/513) were <10 years of age (Table 1). Comparatively, 3.6% of sporadic case-patients with no reported reptile or amphibian exposure were <1 year of age (278/7,635) and 21.6% were <10 years of age (1,646/7,635) (Table 1).

Reptile and Amphibian Exposures

The most common reptiles reported by sporadic case-patients with local acquisition of infection were lizards (46.4%, 238/513) followed by snakes (26.7%, 137/513) and turtles or tortoises (19.3%, 99/513), whereas 10.7% (55/513) reported contact with amphibians (Table 1). Just under 12% of case-patients reported >1 reptile type (11.9%, 61/513). Corn snakes (*Pantherophis guttatus*) were the most frequently reported species of snake (44.1%, 15/34), followed by pythons (family Pythonidae) or ball pythons (*Python regius*) (32.4%, 11/34) and boas (family Boidae) (14.7%, 5/34). However, information regarding snake species was not

Table 1. Case-patient demographics for reported confirmed and probable sporadic locally acquired human cases of salmonellosis in Ontario, Canada, 2015–2022*

	Reptile contact			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Total cases	p value (χ²)
Sex†‡				0.37 (0.82)
M	234 (6.0)	3,637 (94.0)	3,871 (100.0)	, ,
F	279 (6.5)	3,992 (93.5)	4,271 (100.0)	
All	513 (6.3)	7,629 (93.7)	8,142 (100.0)	
Age group, y‡§	· ·			<0.001 (46.1)
<1	46 (9.0)	278 (3.6)	324 (4.0)	, ,
1–4	42 (8.2)	815 (Ì0.႗)	857 (Ì0.Ś)	
5–9	62 (12.1)	553 (7.2)	615 (7.6)	
10–19	84 (16.4)	693 (9.1)	777 (9.5)	
20–29	109 (21.2)	939 (12.3)	1,048 (12.9)	
30–39	54 (10.5)	699 (9.2)	753 (9.2)	
40–49	52 (10.1)	696 (9.1)	748 (9.2)	
50–59	40 (7.8)	965 (12.6)	1,005 (12.3)	
60–69	13 (2.5)	853 (11.2)	866 (10.6)	
>70	11 (2.2)	1,142 (15.0)	1,153 (14.2)	
<u>></u> 70 All	513 (100.0)	7,633 (100.Ó)	8,146 (100.0)	
Year	· · · ·			
2015	99 (8.1)	1,126 (91.9)	1,225	
2016	88 (6.2)	1,328 (93.8)	1,416	
2017	80 (6.4)	1,176 (93.6)	1,256	
2018	69 (5.3)	1,236 (94.7)	1,305	
2019	71 (6.4)	1,035 (93.6)	1,106	
2020	42 (6.5)	609 (93.5)	651	
2021	37 (6.6)	527 (93.4)	564	
2022	27 (4.3)	598 (95.7)	625	
All	513 (6.3)	7,635 (93.7)	8,148	

^{*}Values are no. or no. (%) except as indicated.

[†]Sex is reported in the provincial electronic surveillance system as male, female, transgender, or other. Analyses involving sex were restricted to data for case-patients with sex reported as male or female due to low counts for other variables. No case-patients with domestic acquisition of infection and reported reptile exposure reported sex other than male or female.

[‡]Sporadic cases only.

[§]Of 513 case-patients with no travel history who reported reptile exposure.

collected for most case-patients reporting snake contact (75.2%, 103/137). Almost 12% of sporadic case-patients who reported reptile or amphibian contact did not have any details available regarding species (11.9%, 61/513), and 1 person reported contact with a crocodilian (0.2%, 1/513). Of those who reported contact with lizards, most reported contact with bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*) (47.1%, 112/238), followed by other lizards (order Squamata) (29.4%, 70/238), geckos (order Gekkota) (26.1%, 62/238), chameleons (family Chamaeleonidae) (5.5%, 13/238), and iguanas (family Iguanidae) (3.8%, 9/238).

Although we found no significant association between sex and whether a person reported contact with reptiles during the exposure period ($\chi^2 = 0.82$; p = 0.37), female patients were generally more likely than male patients to report contact with each reptile type and were significantly more likely to report contact with amphibians (Table 2). We noted a significant difference between age group and whether sporadic casepatients with local acquisition of infection reported reptile contact (χ^2 = 46.1; p<0.001) (Table 1). We also found an apparent association between case-patient age and reptile type. Of those reporting contact with a snake, the largest percentage (30.7%, 42/137) were 20–29 years of age (Figure 1). Conversely, children <10 years of age made up the greatest percentages of those reporting contact with an amphibian (43.6%, 24/55) or a turtle (34.3%, 34/99) (Figure 1). Children <10 years of age (26.1%, 62/238) and adults 20-29 years of age (25.6%, 61/238) each made up a similar percentage of those reporting lizard contact (Figure 1).

A total of 94 unique *Salmonella* serotypes were reported, 47.9% (n = 45) of which were only reported once. Most human isolates (94.9%, n = 487) were *S. enterica* subsp. *enterica*. The most common serotypes identified among the sporadic human case-patients reporting reptile or amphibian contact were *Salmonella* Typhimurium (15.8%, 81/513), *Salmonella* Enteritidis (14.8%, 76/513), *Salmonella* Oranienburg (5.3%, 27/513), and *Salmonella* Muenchen (4.9%, 25/513),

which are serotypes also often associated with feeder prey (Figure 2; Appendix Table, https://wwwnc.cdc. gov/EID/article/31/10/24-1803-App1.pdf) (29-32). Although some serotypes were associated with a range of reptile or amphibian exposures, some were more closely associated with a single type. For example, 87.5% (14/16) of Salmonella Paratyphi B biovar Java (also known as Salmonella Paratyphi B variant L [+] tartrate +) case-patients reported contact with a snake, whereas 100.0% (5/5) of Salmonella Chester, 81.8% (9/11) of Salmonella Tennessee, and 71.4% (5/7) of Salmonella Cotham case-patients reported contact with a bearded dragon and 80.0% (4/5) of Salmonella Agbeni case-patients reported contact with a turtle (Figure 2; Appendix Table). Most S. enterica subsp. diarizonae case-patients reported contact with lizards (57.1%, 8/14), as did most S. enterica subsp. houtenae case-patients (88.9%, 8/9).

Reptile and Amphibian Veterinary Isolates

A total of 46 reptile submissions where Salmonella was detected were reported to OMAFA by veterinary diagnostic laboratories in Ontario during 2015–2022; 35 different serotypes were isolated. No amphibian submissions were reported to OMAFA during that period. Most animals were privately owned (80.4%, 37/46) versus zoological (19.6%, 9/46), and 89.1% (41/46) could be identified to the species level. Among privately owned reptiles, the most common species with a Salmonella isolate were bearded dragons (16.2%, 6/37), ball pythons (13.5%, 5/37), and corn snakes (8.1%, 3/37). The most common reptile species with Salmonella isolated from zoological collections was the Eastern Massasauga rattlesnake (Sistrurus catenatus [89%, 8/9]). More Salmonella isolates came from snake submissions (63.0%, 29/46) than from lizard submissions (34.8%, 16/46) or chelonian submissions (2.2%, 1/46) ($\chi^2 = 16.73$; p = 0.003).

In this dataset, obligate carnivores were more likely to have *Salmonella* isolated (69.6%, 32/46) than

Table 2. Case-patient reptile contact by sex for reported confirmed and probable sporadic locally acquired human cases of salmonellosis in Ontario, Canada, 2015–2022*

	Case-pat	ient sex‡		
Reptile†	M	F	Total cases	p value (χ²)
Lizards	109 (45.8)	129 (54.2)	238	0.94 (0.006)
Snakes	58 (42.3)	79 (57.7)	137	0.22 (1.52)
Turtles	47 (47.5)	52 (52.5)	99	0.99 (0.0002)
Amphibians	17 (30.9)	38 (69.1)	55	0.01 (6.14)
Unspecified	32 (52.5	29 (47.5)	61	>0.99 (0.00)

^{*}Values are no. or no. (%) except as indicated.

[†]Of 513 case-patients with no travel history who reported reptile exposure. Sporadic cases only. Reported reptile types were not mutually exclusive. ‡Sex is reported in the provincial electronic surveillance system as male, female, transgender, or other. Analyses involving sex were restricted to data for case-patients with sex reported as male or female due to low counts for other variables. No case-patients with domestic acquisition of infection and reported reptile exposure reported sex other than male or female.

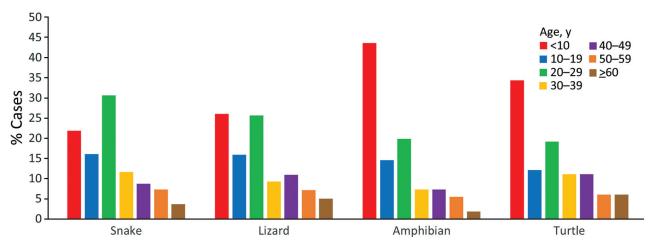


Figure 1. Age distribution of confirmed and probable sporadic locally acquired human salmonellosis case-patients who reported reptile or amphibian contact, by reptile type (n = 513), in study of reptile exposure among human cases and *Salmonella* serotypes isolated from reptiles, Ontario, Canada, 2015–2022. Reptile types reported by each case-patient were not mutually exclusive; thus, a case might be reported under >1 reptile type. The proportion of case-patients by age group is presented separately for each reptile type (i.e., percentages by age group for each reptile type sum to 100%).

were omnivores (15.2%, 7/46), herbivores (8.7%, 4/46), and species that could not be classified (6.3%, 3/46) (χ^2 = 14.53; p<0.001) (Figure 3). For all reptile cases, the most common *Salmonella* serotype isolated was *Salmonella* IIIa:56:z4,z23:- (15.2%, n = 7/46), followed by *Salmonella* Cotham, *Salmonella* IIIa:41:z4,z23:-, *Salmonella* IV:43:z4,z23:-, *Salmonella* IV:50:g,z51:-, and *Salmonella* Kisarawe (4.3% for each, n = 2) (Figure 3). An additional 29 serotypes were detected only once (Figure 3).

Discussion

As the popularity of reptiles kept as household pets has increased, a concurrent increase has occurred in the number of sporadic case-patients with Salmonella who report reptile contact before symptom onset, in addition to an increase in the number of outbreaks linked to reptiles and feeder rodents. Although only 2.1% of Ontario residents surveyed in 2014 reported having contact with a reptile in the previous week and 1.0% reported contact with an amphibian (4), 6.3% of sporadic Salmonella case-patients with no recent travel history reported contact with reptiles or amphibians in the week before symptom onset during the study period, reflecting a higher-thanexpected frequency of reptile or amphibian contact among Salmonella case-patients compared with the background population. Several recent outbreaks of Salmonella have also been linked to reptiles (including snakes and lizards) and feeder rodents; children have been disproportionately affected (15,19).

Similar to reported trends in reptile ownership derived from online search data, lizards (particularly

bearded dragons) and snakes were commonly reported by Ontario case-patients with reptile exposures (33). The finding that Salmonella case-patients reporting reptile or amphibian contact were generally younger than those with no reported reptile contact likely reflects young children's increased susceptibility and increased risk for exposure to bacteria because of a combination of developing immune systems, limited hand hygiene, tendency to mouth their hands and objects, and lack of supervision during reptile contact (14). Observed associations between age and reptile type may reflect differences in pet ownership; however, low counts for some age groups resulted in insufficient study power to reliably test for a statistical difference between age groups. Recognizing the risk for Salmonella infection associated with pet turtle ownership (particularly for turtles with a shell <4 cm long, which children might be more likely to handle and place in their mouths), the US Food and Drug Administration banned the sale of small turtles to the public (i.e., as pets) in 1975; however, no such national ban exists in Canada, and any ownership restrictions are decided at a municipal level (34,35). Despite the US ban on turtles sold as pets, national outbreaks linked to small turtles sold illegally continue to occur, reflecting enforcement challenges associated with such bans (21).

Although the most common reptile species with detection of *Salmonella* reported to OMAFA were similar to the most common reptiles reported by human salmonellosis case-patients, the most frequent *Salmonella* serotypes isolated were dissimilar. In the reptile veterinary cases, greater diversity was observed in

the Salmonella serotypes isolated. In our study, this finding might be explained by the veterinary patient population included; identified serotypes might reflect those more likely to be isolated from reptiles experiencing stress or illness (and hence, reptiles undergoing veterinary examination) than isolates from apparently healthy animals sampled during human health investigation. Salmonella serotype richness and prevalence have been observed to increase in reptiles after shipment; those changes are typically attributed to exposure to stress, among other factors (36). Most Salmonella serotypes identified from reptile veterinary isolates belonged to S. enterica subsp. enterica, arizonae, and diarizonae, and within each subspecies many serotypes are known to be reptile-associated (2,37).

A carnivorous diet (10) was associated with greater risk for Salmonella isolation from reptile veterinary cases in this dataset. Several outbreaks of human salmonellosis associated with contact with snakes and feeder rodents have been documented, which might also underlie an increased risk for veterinary salmonellosis cases in reptiles fed contaminated prey (18,38). Feeding live prey contaminated with Salmonella, combined with poor husbandry, poor welfare, or other concurrent physiologic stressors such as debilitation through inanition and dehydration in wild-caught reptiles, might lead to increased Salmonella shedding and subsequent contamination of the cage enclosure with Salmonella (3,5). Many omnivorous and herbivorous reptiles also consume their own fecal matter as part of their normal diet or use fecal marking as part of territoriality and home range marking, which could amplify infection.

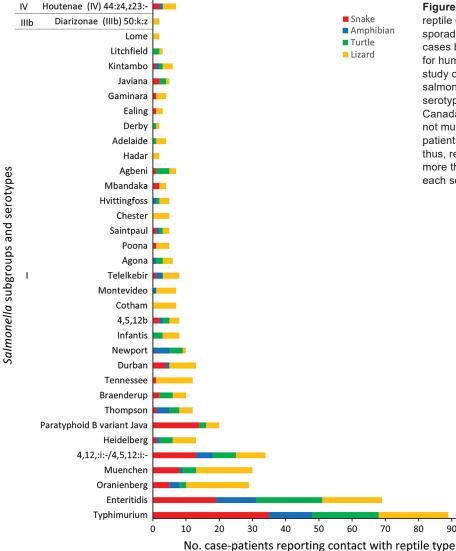


Figure 2. Major taxonomic grouping of reptile or amphibian contact reported by sporadic locally acquired salmonellosis cases by reported Salmonella serotype for human case-patients (n = 513) in study of reptile exposure among human salmonellosis cases and Salmonella serotypes isolated from reptiles. Ontario. Canada, 2015-2022. Reptile species were not mutually exclusive (i.e., some casepatients reported contact with >1 species); thus, reptile species counts may sum to more than the number of cases reported for each serotype over the study period.

90

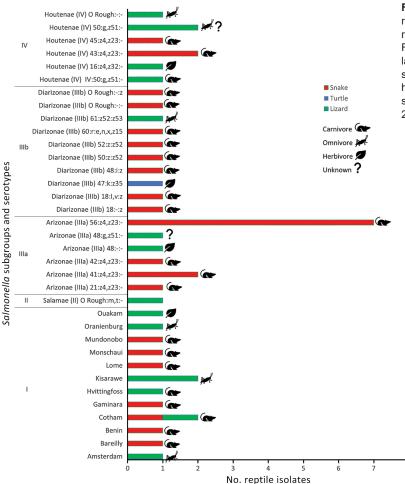


Figure 3. Major taxonomic grouping and diet of reptiles from which *Salmonella* was detected and reported to the Ontario Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Agribusiness by veterinary diagnostic laboratories in Ontario, by reported *Salmonella* serotype, in study of reptile exposure among human salmonellosis cases and *Salmonella* serotypes isolated from reptiles, Ontario, Canada, 2015–2022.

Previous research (39) noted that 48% of pet reptiles sampled from private households and pet shops were found to carry Salmonella, and a literature review (3) found that captive reptiles had higher rates of Salmonella carriage than did wild reptiles. Similar to other research, we found that Salmonella was isolated more frequently in snakes than in lizards or chelonians (3,11,37,39). Snakes are highly prone to Salmonella infections because of rodent-based diets and captive husbandry practices, which could explain their association with human disease (12). Pet owners and others in contact with reptiles should adopt precautionary measures while handling reptiles, feeder prey, and their enclosures, assuming that Salmonella could be present even if the reptiles appear healthy (40). Routine culture of Salmonella could be difficult in healthy reptiles, and treatment to reduce carriage is not possible; therefore, routine pet testing might not be advisable unless persons at risk for severe illness are frequently exposed or unless reptile handling is part of a commercial business

(12). In the event of an outbreak of human salmonellosis in which reptiles or amphibians are suspected to be the source of exposure, collection of environmental swab samples from the animal's enclosure might successfully identify the same serotype. In fact, isolating *Salmonella* from environmental specimens was found to be more reliable than isolating *Salmonella* from animal fecal specimens, possibly because of intermittent fecal shedding (15,19,40). Furthermore, as part of human outbreak management, pet owners should be encouraged to seek appropriate veterinary care, including husbandry analysis, to resolve immunocompromised health status, given pet owners might have a poor understanding of optimal health and welfare of their pets (41).

Although we identified associations between reptile contact and subsequent human illness, we did not adjust analyses for other potentially causative exposures reported during the exposure period (i.e., consumption of specific food items or other animal exposures). Thus, reptile contact should not necessarily

be inferred to be the causative exposure responsible for human illness. Data used for analyses were subject to case-patient recall and individual investigator interview and data entry practices; thus, some outbreak-associated cases might have been misreported as sporadic. Ideally, public health investigators should ensure that all Salmonella case-patients are asked about reptile and amphibian contact, including reptile type. If a human case or outbreak of Salmonella infection involving a species other than S. enterica is identified, potential reptile- or amphibian-associated exposure should be considered. Similarly, if reptile or amphibian exposure is reported during a Salmonella case or outbreak investigation and a reptile-associated serotype is identified, further testing should be considered to confirm the source of illness and inform case education and outbreak prevention.

The lack of amphibian animal salmonellosis cases in this study and overall far fewer isolations of Salmonella from reptiles compared with isolations in humans with exposure to reptiles suggest that Salmonella carriage might not always lead to illness in reptiles and amphibians, signs of illness might not always be recognized, veterinary care might not always be available, or the cause of death might not always be investigated (42). In developing educational resources for pet owners, consideration should be given to providing information to pet owners on the risks associated with both reptile ownership and handling of feeder prey such as rodents. Reminding pet owners that reptiles kept as pets should receive regular veterinary care, both to ensure the health of reptiles and to provide opportunities for ongoing pet owner education, is also crucial.

Acknowledgments

We thank the Ontario public health unit investigators involved in human case investigation and follow-up and the Ontario veterinarians involved in reptile and amphibian care and testing. We also thank Public Health Ontario's Laboratory and the Animal Health Laboratory for their routine work isolating, identifying, and sequencing *Salmonella*.

The opinions expressed by authors contributing to this journal do not necessarily reflect the opinions of Public Health Ontario; the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Agribusiness; or the Ministry of Health.

About the Author

Dr. Paphitis is the enteric zoonotic specialist at Public Health Ontario. Her primary research interests are One Health and the epidemiology of enteric and zoonotic diseases, including salmonellosis.

References

- Ontario Agency for Health Protection and Promotion (Public Health Ontario). Infectious disease trends in Ontario [cited 2025 May 16]. https://www.publichealthontario.ca/ en/Data-and-Analysis/Infectious-Disease/Reportable-Disease-Trends-Annually
- Desai PT, Porwollik S, Long F, Cheng P, Wollam A, Clifton SW, et al. Evolutionary genomics of *Salmonella* enterica subspecies. mBiol 2013;4:e00579–12.
- Pees M, Brockmann M, Steiner N, Marschang RE. Salmonella in reptiles: a review of occurrence, interactions, shedding and risk factors for human infections. Front Cell Dev Biol. 2023;26:1251036.
- 4. Public Health Agency of Canada. Foodbook report [cited 2025 May 16]. https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/services/publications/food-nutrition/foodbook-report.html
- 5. Varela K, Brown JA, Lipton B, Dunn J, Stanek D, Behravesh CB, et al.; NASPHV Committee Consultants, et al. A review of zoonotic disease threats to pet owners: a compendium of measures to prevent zoonotic diseases associated with non-traditional pets such as rodents and other small mammals, reptiles, amphibians, backyard poultry, and other selected animals. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis. 2022;22:303–60.
- Narrative Research. Canada has seen a significant increase in pet owners since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic [cited 2024 Mar 21]. https://narrativeresearch.ca/ canada-has-seen-a-significant-increase-in-pet-owners-sincethe-start-of-the-covid-19-pandemic
- 7. Doyle M, Kaspar C, Archer J, Klos R. White paper on human illness caused by *Salmonella* from all food and non-food vectors [cited 2024 Nov 21]. https://fri.wisc.edu/files/Briefs_File/2014-11-06_1403_FRI_Brief_Salmonella_Human_Illness_2009.pdf
- Divers SJ, Stahl SJ, Mader DR, editors. Mader's reptile and amphibian medicine and surgery, 3rd edition. St. Louis: Elsevier; 2019.
- 9. Bjelland AM, Sandvik LM, Skarstein MM, Svendal L, Debenham JJ. Prevalence of *Salmonella* serovars isolated from reptiles in Norwegian zoos. Acta Vet Scand. 2020;62:3.
- 10. Scheelings TF, Lightfoot D, Holz P. Prevalence of *Salmonella* in Australian reptiles. J Wildl Dis. 2011;47:1–11.
- 11. Merkevičienė L, Butrimaitė-Ambrozevičienė Č, Paškevičius G, Pikūnienė A, Virgailis M, Dailidavičienė J, et al. Serological variety and antimicrobial resistance in *Salmonella* isolated from reptiles. Biology (Basel). 2022;11:836.
- Doneley B, Monks D, Johnson R, Carmel B, editors. Reptile medicine and surgery in clinical practice, 1st edition. Hoboken (NJ): Wiley; 2017.
- 13. Whitaker BR. Merck Manual Veterinary Manual. Diet for amphibians [cited 2024 Nov 21]. https://www.merckvetmanual.com/all-other-pets/amphibians/diet-for-amphibians
- Sockett PN, Rodgers FG. Enteric and foodborne disease in children: a review of the influence of food- and environmentrelated risk factors. Paediatr Child Health. 2001;6:203–9.
- Paphitis K, Habrun CA, Stapleton GS, Reid A, Lee C, Majury A, et al. Salmonella Vitkin outbreak associated with bearded dragons, Canada and United States, 2020–2022. Emerg Infect Dis. 2024;30:225–33.
- Kiebler CA, Bottichio L, Simmons L, Basler C, Klos R, Gurfield N, et al. Outbreak of human infections with uncommon Salmonella serotypes linked to pet bearded dragons, 2012–2014. Zoonoses Public Health. 2020;67:425–34.
- 17. Kanagarajah S, Waldram A, Dolan G, Jenkins C, Ashton PM, Carrion Martin AI, et al. Whole genome sequencing reveals

- an outbreak of *Salmonella* Enteritidis associated with reptile feeder mice in the United Kingdom, 2012–2015. Food Microbiol. 2018;71:32–8.
- Vrbova L, Sivanantharajah S, Walton R, Whitfield Y, Lee C, Picard I, et al. Outbreak of Salmonella Typhimurium associated with feeder rodents. Zoonoses Public Health. 2018;65:386–94.
- Government of Canada. Public health notice: outbreak of Salmonella infections linked to geckos [cited 2024 Mar 22]. https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/services/ public-health-notices/2024/outbreak-salmonella-geckos.html
- Government of Canada. Public health notice: outbreak of Salmonella Muenchen infections linked to geckos [cited 2024 Mar 22]. https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/ services/public-health-notices/2024/outbreak-salmonellamuenchen-infections-geckos.html
- Waltenburg MA, Perez A, Salah Z, Karp BE, Whichard J, Tolar B, et al. Multistate reptile- and amphibian-associated salmonellosis outbreaks in humans, United States, 2009– 2018. Zoonoses Public Health. 2022;69:925–37.
- Mettee Zarecki SL, Bennett SD, Hall J, Yaeger J, Lujan K, Adams-Cameron M, et al.; Salmonella Typhimurium Outbreak Investigation Team. US outbreak of human Salmonella infections associated with aquatic frogs, 2008–2011. Pediatrics. 2013;131:724–31.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Multistate outbreak of human Salmonella Typhimurium infections associated with pet turtle exposure – United States, 2008. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2010;59:191–6.
- 24. Ontario Ministry of Health. Appendix 1: case definitions and disease-specific information. Disease: salmonellosis [cited 2025 May 16]. https://files.ontario.ca/moh-ophs-salmonellosis-en-2023.pdf
- Public Health Agency of Canada. Outbreak toolkit: cluster code [cited 2025 May 16]. https://outbreaktools.ca/ case-study-overview/module-1-cluster-detection-and-initialinvestigation-2/cluster-code
- Ontario Agency for Health Protection and Promotion (Public Health Ontario). Ontario investigation tools [cited 2024 Mar 16]. https://www.publichealthontario.ca/en/ diseases-and-conditions/infectious-diseases/ccm/oit
- 27. Animal Health Act. Ontario Regulation 277/12: reporting of hazards and findings [cited 2025 May 16]. https://www.ontario.ca/laws/regulation/120277
- King's Printer for Ontario 2012-24. Ontario Agency for Health Protection and Promotion Act, 2007, S.O. 2007, c. 10, Sched. K [cited 2025 May 16]. https://www.ontario.ca/laws/ statute/07o10
- Guard J, Henzler DJ, Ramadan H, Jones DR, Gast RK, Davison S, et al. Serotyping of *Salmonella Enterica* isolated from mice caught on US poultry farms 1995 through 1998. Food Saf (Tokyo). 2018;6:44–50.
- Jahan NA, Lindsey LL, Larsen PA. The role of peridomestic rodents as reservoirs for zoonotic foodborne pathogens. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis. 2021;21:133–48.

- 31. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2015 Salmonella outbreak linked to contact with pet crested geckos [cited 2024 Mar 16]. https://archive.cdc.gov/#/details?url=https://www.cdc.gov/salmonella/muenchen-05-15/index.html
- 32. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2019 Salmonella infections linked to pet turtles [cited 2024 Mar 16]. https://archive.cdc.gov/#/details?url=https://www.cdc.gov/salmonella/oranienburg-10-19/index.html
- Valdez JW. Using Google Trends to determine current, past, and future trends in the reptile pet trade. Animals (Basel). 2021;11:676.
- 34. US Food and Drug Administration. Pet turtles: a source of germs [cited 205 May 16]. https://www.fda.gov/animal-veterinary/animal-health-literacy/pet-turtles-source-germs
- Code of Federal Regulations. Title 21. 1240.62 turtles intrastate and interstate requirements [cited 2024 Nov 21]. https://www.ecfr.gov/current/title-21/chapter-I/ subchapter-L/part-1240/subpart-D/section-1240.62
- Smith KF, Yabsley MJ, Sanchez S, Casey CL, Behrens MD, Hernandez SM. Salmonella isolates from wild-caught Tokay geckos (Gekko gecko) imported to the U.S. from Indonesia. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis. 2012;12:575–82.
- Clancy MM, Davis M, Valitutto MT, Nelson K, Sykes JM IV. Salmonella infection and carriage in reptiles in a zoological collection. J Am Vet Med Assoc. 2016; 248:1050-9.
- Cartwright EJ, Nguyen T, Melluso C, Ayers T, Lane C, Hodges A, et al. A multistate investigation of antibioticresistant *Salmonella enterica* serotype I 4,[5],12:i:- infections as part of an international outbreak associated with frozen feeder rodents. Zoonoses Public Health. 2016;63:62–71.
- Marin C, Balasch S, Vega S, Lainez M. Sources of Salmonella contamination during broiler production in Eastern Spain. Prev Vet Med. 2011;98:39–45.
- Pees M, Rabsch W, Plenz B, Fruth A, Prager R, Simon S, et al. Evidence for the transmission of *Salmonella* from reptiles to children in Germany, July 2010 to October 2011. Euro Surveill. 2013;18:20634.
- Azevedo A, Guimarães L, Ferraz J, Whiting M, Magalhães-Sant' Ana M. Magalhães-Sant' Ana M. Pet reptiles – are we meeting their needs? Animals (Basel). 2021;11:2964.
- Benn AL, McLelland DJ, Whittaker AL. A review of welfare assessment methods in reptiles, and preliminary application of the Welfare Quality® Protocol to the pygmy blue-tongue skink, *Tiliqua adelaidensis*, using animal-based measures. Animals (Basel). 2019;9:27.

Address for correspondence: Katherine Paphitis, Public Health Ontario, 661 University Ave, Ste 1701, Toronto, ON M5G 1M1, Canada; email: katherine.paphitis@oahpp.ca