Vertical transmission of *Toxoplasma gondii* in Australian marsupials

N. PARAMESWARAN 1* , R. M. O'HANDLEY 2 , M. E. GRIGG 3 , A. WAYNE 4 and R. C. A. THOMPSON 1

- ¹WHO Collaborating Centre for the Molecular Epidemiology of Parasitic Infections, School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, Murdoch University, Murdoch, WA 6150, Australia
- ² Environmental Biotechnology CRC, Murdoch University, Murdoch, WA 6150, Australia
- ³ Molecular Parasitology Unit, Laboratory of Parasitic Diseases, National Institutes of Health, NIAID, 4 Center Drive, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA

(Received 23 December 2008; revised 22 April 2009; accepted 23 April 2009; first published online 24 June 2009)

SUMMARY

To date, little is known about the dynamics of vertical transmission of *Toxoplasma gondii* in Australian marsupials. Studies in mice demonstrate that vertical transmission of *T. gondii* is common and that chronically infected mice can transmit *T. gondii* to successive generations. In this study, PCR and immunohistochemistry were used to detect *T. gondii* in chronically infected marsupial dams and their offspring. *T. gondii* was detected in the unfurred pouch young of 2 out of 10 chronically infected western grey kangaroos (*Macropus fuliginosus*) and in the unfurred pouch young of a brush-tailed bettong (*Bettongia penicillata*). Results of the study suggest that vertical transmission of *T. gondii* can occur in chronically infected Australian marsupials.

Key words: Toxoplasma gondii, marsupial, vertical transmission, Australia, congenital, toxoplasmosis.

INTRODUCTION

Vertical (transplacental or transmammary) transmission of Toxoplasma gondii and its influence on the maintenance of T. gondii in natural populations has been a matter of debate (Johnson, 1997). Although it has long been known that congenital infection with T. gondii in mice and guinea pigs can occur while the dam is chronically infected (Remington et al. 1961), more recent studies have ignited debate as to whether vertical transmission occurs in other chronically infected animals. Recent studies have verified the high frequency of congenital transmission of T. gondii in chronically infected mice and it was proposed that congenital transmission in chronically infected mice can maintain T. gondii infection in wild mouse populations (Owen and Trees, 1998; Marshall et al. 2004). Recent data also suggest that T. gondii can be transmitted via successive vertical transmission within families of sheep (Morley et al. 2005).

Evidence for vertical transmission in marsupials to date is anecdotal (Boorman *et al.* 1977; Dubey *et al.* 1988), and the dynamics of vertical transmission

* Corresponding author: WHO Collaborating Centre for the Molecular Epidemiology of Parasitic Infections, School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, Murdoch University, Murdoch WA 6150, Australia. Tel: +61893602690. Fax: +61893104144. E-mail: nevi. parameswaran@gmail.com

in marsupials is poorly understood. However, considering the potential impact of toxoplasmosis in marsupials and the current efforts associated with wildlife conservation, it is important to examine the causes of infection of Australian marsupials with $T.\ gondii$. Australian marsupials are highly susceptible hosts for $T.\ gondii$ and the parasite causes both chronic and acutely fatal infection (Beveridge, 1993). Information on the occurrence of vertical transmission in chronically infected marsupials may benefit captive breeding programmes of Australian marsupials by ensuring only $T.\ gondii$ -free animals are bred, thereby improving animal health and assisting animal conservation and management.

In order to better understand T. gondii transmission in marsupials, we tested the dam and pouch young of western grey kangaroos (Macropus fuliginosus) and a woylie (Bettongia penicillata) for evidence of T. gondii infection. The MAT (modified agglutination test) and DAT (direct agglutination test) were used to test for anti-T. gondii IgM in sera of western grey kangaroo dams. Experimental studies in eastern grey kangaroos demonstrate that differences in titre between MAT and DAT are indicative of an IgM response and acute T. gondii infection (Johnson et al. 1989). Subsequent studies in a range of marsupial species have successfully used the MAT and DAT to diagnose acute T. gondii infection (Lynch et al. 1993; Skerratt et al. 1997; Bettiol et al. 2000; Hartley, 2006). All pouch young

Parasitology (2009), **136**, 939–944. © Cambridge University Press 2009 doi:10.1017/S0031182009006453 Printed in the United Kingdom

⁴ Department of Environment and Conservation, Manjimup, WA 6258, Australia

N. Parameswaran and others 940

Table 1. Results of various PCRs for western grey kangaroo dams and their pouch young

	ELISA Dam	ELISA PY	Age PY (days)	PCR Dams		PCR PY							
Dam ID				Brain	Tongue	Brain	Heart	Sk musc	Lung	Liver	Kidney	Spleen	Sm Intest
C14	Positive	Positive	145	B1, ITS1	N	N	B1	N	N	N	nd	N	N
C9	Positive	Positive	114	B1, ITS1	ITS1	N	N	N	N	N	nd	N	N
J6	Positive	Positive	124	B1, ITS1	ITS1	N	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	N
J10	Positive	Positive	125	nd	B1, ITS1	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
R7	Positive	Positive	90	B1, ITS1	N	N	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
Q1	Positive	Positive	154	N	B1, ITS1	N	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
G21	Positive	Negative	58	<i>B1</i>	ITS1	N	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
F19	Positive	Negative	132	ITS1	N	N	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
R19	Positive	Negative	142	ITS1	N	N	B1	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
15B1	Positive	Positive	246	nd	nd	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
R4	Negative	Negative	89	nd	nd	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
F8	Negative	Negative	98	N	N	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
H14	Negative	Negative	84	N	N	N	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
I14	Negative	Negative	75	N	N	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
Q20	Negative	Negative	129	nd	nd	N	N	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
15B2	Negative	Negative	233	nd	nd	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N

B1 - Positive B1 PCR (Bretagne et al. 1993).

B1 - Positive B1 PCR (Grigg and Boothroyd, 2001).

ITS1 - Positive ITS1 PCR (Miller et al. 2001).

N - Negative on all PCRs.

nd - No tests undertaken.

Sk musc - Skeletal muscle.

Sm intest - Small intestine.

were tested before the time of first pouch exit. While within the pouch, young are protected from the external environment and so are extremely unlikely to be exposed to *T. gondii* oocysts. Marsupial young are born at a very immature state (less than 1 g neonatal weight) at which time they enter the pouch. Young first exit the pouch after a long period of permanent residence (Tyndale-Biscoe and Renfree, 1987). Immunohistochemistry and PCR were used to detect *T. gondii* in the tissue of a woylie dam and western grey kangaroo dams and their corresponding pouch young.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Western grey kangaroo sera and tissues were obtained from kangaroos culled during Department of Environment and Conservation (DEC) population control programmes in Perth, Western Australia. Kangaroos were culled from a large reserve due to overpopulation. Sixty two dams were obtained, from which samples of blood, tongue and brain were collected. Blood was collected using intracardiac puncture. Each dam's head was removed and labelled. Brain and tongue samples were collected after heads were transported to a laboratory and stored at 4 °C for a maximum of 3 days prior to processing. Samples of brain and tongue were dissected, placed in sterile containers and frozen at -20 °C. The young present in each dam's pouch were killed in line with population control measures, via blunt trauma

to the head in the field. Pouch young were labelled and stored at 4 °C for a maximum of 3 days prior to processing in the laboratory. Each pouch young was weighed and measured to estimate its age (Poole *et al.* 1982) after which blood was collected via intracardiac puncture. All sera collected were separated via centrifugation and stored at -20 °C. Pouch young were dissected under sterile conditions to obtain samples of brain, heart, skeletal muscle, liver, lung, small intestine, kidney and spleen. Some portions of tissues were frozen at -20 °C for DNA extraction while other portions were placed in 10% buffered formalin for histology.

A female woylie with young in pouch from a wild population near Manjimup, Western Australia, was submitted to Murdoch University Veterinary Hospital for necropsy with a history of neurological signs. Tissue samples were placed in 10% buffered formalin and consisted of brain, heart, skeletal muscle, lung, liver, spleen and mammary tissue. In addition, brain, heart and mammary gland tissue samples were set aside in 70% ethanol for DNA extraction. The furless pouch young present in the pouch of the necropsied woylie had samples of brain, heart, skeletal muscle, lung and liver removed and placed in 70% ethanol for DNA extraction. The lack of fur in the woylie pouch young sampled indicated that it was too immature to have ever left the pouch.

The 62 western grey kangaroo dams and the corresponding 62 pouch young were all screened for *T. gondii* antibodies using an ELISA (Parameswaran

Table 2. *Toxoplasma gondii* DAT and MAT titres of seropositive western grey kangaroo dams

Dam ID	DAT	MAT	
C14	256 000	256 000	
C9	256 000	256 000	
J6	4096	4096	
J10	4096	4096	
R7	64 000	64 000	
Q1	4096	4096	
G21	64 000	64 000	
F19	4096	4096	
R19	4096	4096	
15B1	64 000	64 000	

et al. 2009) to detect IgG antibodies to T. gondii in macropod marsupials. Serum samples from sero-positive dams were sent to the Animal Health Laboratory, Tasmania to obtain MAT (modified agglutination test) and DAT (direct agglutination test) titres in order to determine the presence of T. gondii IgM. No serum samples were taken from the adult woylie or its pouch young.

The brain and tongue of seropositive and seronegative western grey kangaroo dams and a range of tissues of their offspring underwent DNA extraction. In addition, the brain, heart and mammary gland tissue of a woylie dam and the brain, heart, skeletal muscle, lung and liver of its pouch young underwent DNA extraction. Three methods of DNA extraction were used for each sample. DNA samples were extracted using a MasterPure DNA purification kit (Epicentre Biotechnologies, Madison, USA). A method of phenol-chloroform DNA extraction was also used (Miller et al. 2008). In addition, extraction using QIAamp DNA MiniKit (QIAGEN Hilden, Germany) was used. In each DNA extraction 25 mg of homogenized tissue was used. Tissues of seronegative dams and seronegative pouch young were used as DNA extraction negative controls.

Samples of DNA extracted from tissue specimens underwent nested PCR amplification for T. gondii using nested primers at the ITS1 locus (Miller et al. 2001) and B1 gene, (Bretagne et al. 1993; Grigg and Boothroyd 2001). Each sample of DNA was tested once using each set of primers. DNA from the T. gondii RH strain (Type I strain) was used as a positive PCR control and PCR negative controls consisted of distilled water. PCR products were visualized using 0.8% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide. To confirm infection with T. gondii, ITS1 and B1 PCR products were gelpurified from agarose gels using the UltraClean GelSpin DNA Extraction Kit (MO BIO Laboratories Inc, Carlsbad, USA) prior to DNA sequencing. Sequencing reactions were performed using a BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit

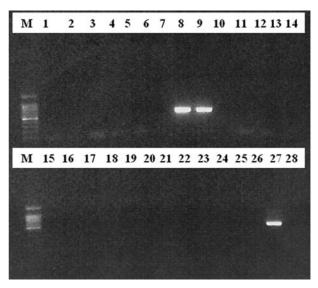


Fig. 1. Agarose gel of nested PCR for the B1 gene (Grigg and Boothroyd, 2001). Lane M, 100 bp DNA ladder; Lane 1, PYG21, brain; Lane 2, PYG21, heart; Lane 3, PYG21, skeletal muscle; Lane 4, PYF19, brain; Lane 5, PYF19, heart; Lane 6, PYF19, skeletal muscle; Lane 7, PYR19, brain; Lane 8, PYR19, heart; Lane 9, PYR19 heart 1:10 dilution; Lane 10, PYR19, skeletal muscle; Lane 11, PY15B1, brain; Lane 12, PY15B1, heart; Lane 13, PY15B1, skeletal muscle; Lane 14, PY15B1, lung; Lane 15, PY15B1, liver; Lane 16, PY15B1, kidney; Lane 17, PY15B1, spleen; Lane 18, PY15B1, small intestine; Lane 19, PYR4, brain; Lane 20, PYR4, heart; Lane 21, PYF8, brain; Lane 22, PYF8 heart; Lane 23, PYH14, brain; Lane 24, PYH14, heart; Lane 25, PYI14, brain; Lane 25, PYI14, heart; Lane 27, T. gondii RH strain positive control; Lane 28, T. gondii negative control.

(Applied Biosystems, Scoresby, Australia) according to the manufacturer's directions using the internal primers used to PCR amplify the ITS1 and B1 gene sequences. Reactions were electrophoresed through an ABI 3730 automatic sequencer and sequencing profiles analysed using FinchTV version 1.4 (Geospiza, Seattle, USA). Sequences were subjected to BlastN analysis using the GenBank nr-nt database at NCBI to confirm that the PCR-amplified sequences were that of *T. gondii*.

Formalin-fixed tissue samples were trimmed and processed before being embedded in paraffin wax, sectioned and stained with haematoxylin and eosin. Paraffin-embedded tissues were also sectioned and immunohistochemically stained with rabbit polyclonal antibodies to T.gondii, as previously described by Lindsay and Dubey (1989). Stored paraffinembedded brain tissue from a T.gondii-infected cat was used as a positive control for immunohistochemistry. Brain tissue was not included in histological analysis of western grey kangaroo pouch young due to autolysis, associated with post-mortem changes.

N. Parameswaran and others 942

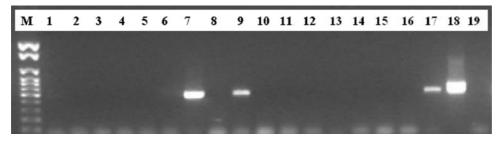


Fig. 2. Agarose gel of nested PCR for the ITS1 locus (Miller et al. 2001). Lane M, 100 bp DNA ladder; Lane 1, PYR4, brain. Lane 2, PYR4, heart. Lane 3, PYF8, brain. Lane 4, PYF8, heart. Lane 5, PYH14, brain. Lane 6, PYH14, heart. Lane 7, R7, brain. Lane 8, R7, tongue. Lane 9, Q1, brain. Lane 10, Q1, tongue. Lane 11, PYI14, brain. Lane 12, PYI14, heart. Lane 13, PYQ20, brain. Lane 14, PYQ20, heart, Lane 15, PY15B2, brain, Lane 16, PY15B2, heart. Lane 17, C14, brain. Lane 18, T. gondii positive control. Lane 19, T. gondii negative control.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Of 62 Western Kangaroo dams that were screened for *T. gondii* antibodies using an ELISA, 10 dams were seropositive for *T. gondii* and 7 of these dams had corresponding seropositive pouch young (Table 1). The remaining 52 seronegative dams all had corresponding seronegative pouch young. All 10 ELISA seropositive dams were also MAT and DAT positive. MAT and DAT titres were identical in all western grey kangaroo dams, which indicated a lack of IgM in all dam serum samples (Table 2). The lack of IgM in the serum samples is suggestive of chronic *T. gondii* infection in the western grey kangaroos.

To confirm the ELISA results, DNA extracted from 9 kangaroo dam tissues was tested for the presence of *T. gondii* DNA by PCR. One seropositive kangaroo dam was not tested due to the absence of tissue samples. All 9 seropositive western grey kangaroo dams were PCR positive for the presence of *T. gondii* DNA using primers at the ITS1 locus and B1 gene, confirming the serology results (Table 1). Negative controls included DNA extracted from tissues of 3 seronegative dams and 6 pouch young from seronegative dams. All negative controls were PCR negative for *T. gondii*. Serology results in adult kangaroos had a high correlation with PCR results, suggesting the PCR methods used were sensitive and specific.

For the 10 chronically infected western grey kangaroos, *T. gondii* DNA was detected in the heart tissue of 2 pouch young from the seropositive dams. One of the *T. gondii* PCR-positive pouch young was seronegative by the ELISA assay. No *T. gondii* specific DNA was detected in tissues from the remaining 8 pouch young. All ITS1 and B1 PCR bands amplified were sequenced and were confirmed to be that of *T. gondii* (data not shown). As PCR results had a high correlation with serology results in adult kangaroos, it is likely that the 6 seropositive, PCR negative kangaroo pouch young were not

infected with *T. gondii* and were only seropositive due to the passive transfer of antibodies from the dam.

PCR using primers for B1 and ITS1 detected *T. gondii* DNA in the mammary gland of the one woylie tested and in the brain of its corresponding pouch young. All other woylie tissue tested was negative for *T. gondii* DNA. Identification of *T. gondii* DNA in the mammary gland of the woylie dam suggests that infection of the woylie pouch young was from suckling breast milk. Clean PCR amplification products were observed for both the B1 gene (Fig. 1) and ITS1 locus (Fig. 2). Both ITS1 and B1 PCR bands sequenced were that of *T. gondii* (data not shown).

It is highly unlikely that the pouch young tested in this study were exposed to *T. gondii* oocysts from the external environment. Marsupial young first exit the pouch after a long period of permanent residence and while within the pouch, young are protected from the external environment (Tyndale-Biscoe and Renfree, 1987). All western grey kangaroo pouch young in this study were tested before the time of first pouch exit, which is approximately 298 days in this species (Tyndale-Biscoe and Renfree, 1987). In addition, the woylie pouch young in this study was unfurred and therefore too young to have left the pouch.

Generalized congestion and oedema of the lung was observed in all western grey kangaroo pouch young. No other significant lesions were observed in histological sections from all other pouch young tested from seropositive and seronegative dams. Upon immunohistochemistry, no *T. gondii* tachyzoites or cysts were found in the pouch young tested. The presence of *T. gondii* was, however, detected in the positive control tissues analysed at the same time. *T. gondii* was not detected upon histology or immunohistochemistry in the adult woylie. Histologically there was acute diffuse pulmonary congestion and oedema, and autolysis of the intestines. In addition, there was a small haematoma and focus of inflammation associated with one mammary gland.

The detection of *T. gondii* DNA in only the heart muscle of the 2 western grey kangaroo pouch young is not surprising; *T. gondii* has been detected previously in the heart muscle of a black-faced kangaroo (*Macropus fuliginosus melanops*) pouch young (Dubey *et al.* 1988) and 2 juvenile common wombats (*Vombatus ursinus*) (Hartley, 2006), and is known to commonly infect the heart of adult macropod marsupials (Canfield *et al.* 1990). However, as no pathology or *T. gondii* organisms were observed upon pathological and immunohistological examination of tissue sections from the 2 PCR-positive pouch young in this study, this suggests that neither of the PCR-positive pouch young had clinical toxoplasmosis.

This is the first evidence of vertical transmission of T. gondii in chronically infected marsupials and points to further research regarding the frequency of vertical transmission of T. gondii in Australian marsupials. Information on the frequency of vertical transmission of T. gondii in chronically infected Australian marsupials would benefit captive breeding programmes of endangered Australian marsupial species and contribute to the management of wild populations.

We wish to thank Glen Goudie and his team for their immense help with collection of western grey kangaroo samples. This research was supported by the Australian Research Council, Department of Environment and Conservation, Western Australia and in part by the Intramural Research Program of the NIH and NIAID (M.E.G.). M.E.G. is a Scholar of the Canadian Institute for Advanced Research (CIFAR) Integrated Microbial Biodiversity Program.

REFERENCES

- Bettiol, S. S., Obendorf, D. L., Nowarkowski, M. and Goldsmid, J. M. (2000). Pathology of experimental toxoplasmosis in eastern barred bandicoots in Tasmania. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 36, 141–144.
- Beveridge, I. (1993). Marsupial parasitic diseases. In Zoo and Wild Animal Medicine: Current Therapy (ed. Fowler, M.), pp. 288–293. W.B. Saunders, Phildelphia, PA, USA.
- Boorman, G. A., Kollias, G. V. and Taylor, R. F. (1977). An outbreak of toxoplasmosis in wallaroos (*Macropus robustus*) in a California zoo. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 13, 64–68.
- Bretagne, S., Costa, J. M., Vidaud, M., Tran, J., Nhieu, V. and Fleury-Feith, J. (1993). Detection of Toxoplasma gondii by competitive DNA amplification of bronchoalveolar lavage samples. Journal of Infectious Diseases 168, 1585–1588.
- Canfield, P. J., Hartley, W. J. and Dubey, J. P. (1990). Lesions of toxoplasmosis in Australian marsupials. Journal of Comparative Pathology 103, 159–167.
- Dubey, J. P., Ott-Joslin, J., Torgerson, R. W.,Topper, M. J. and Sundberg, J. P. (1988).Toxoplasmosis in black-faced kangaroos (*Macropus*

- fuliginosus melanops). Veterinary Parasitology **30**, 97–105
- **Grigg, M. E. and Boothroyd, J. C.** (2001). Rapid identification of virulent type I strains of the protozoan pathogen *Toxoplasma gondii* by PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis at the B1 gene. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* **39**, 398–400.
- Hartley, M. P. (2006). *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in two common wombats (*Vombatus ursinus*). *Australian Veterinary Journal* 84, 107–109.
- **Johnson, A. M.** (1997). Speculation on possible life cycles for the clonal lineages in the genus toxoplasma. *Parasitology Today* **13**, 393–397.
- Johnson, A. M., Roberts, H., Statham, P. and Munday, B. L. (1989). Serodiagnosis of acute toxoplasmosis in macropods. *Veterinary Parasitology* 34, 25–33.
- Lindsay, D. S. and Dubey, J. P. (1989).
 Immunohistochemical diagnosis of *Neospora caninum* in tissue sections. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* **50**, 1981–1983.
- Lynch, M. J., Obendorf, D. L., Statham, P. and Reddacliff, G. L. (1993). An evaluation of a live Toxoplasma gondii vaccine in Tammar wallabies (Macropus eugenii). Australian Veterinary Journal 70, 352-353
- Marshall, P. A., Hughes, J. M., Williams, R. H., Smith, J. E., Murphy, R. G. and Hide, G. (2004). Detection of high levels of congenital transmission of *Toxoplasma gondii* in natural urban populations of *Mus domesticus*. *Parasitology* 128, 39–42.
- Miller, M., Sverlow, K., Crosbie, P., Barr, B., Lowenstine, L., Gulland, F., Packham, A. and Conrad, P. (2001). Isolation and characterization of two parasitic protozoa from a Pacific harbor seal (*Phoca vitulina richardsi*) with meningoencephalomyelitis. Journal of Parasitology 87, 816–822.
- Miller, M. A., Miller, W. A., Conrad, P. A., James, E. R., Melli, A. C., Leutenegger, C. M., Dabritz, H. A., Packham, A. E., Paradies, D., Harris, M., Ames, J., Jessup, D. A., Worcester, K. and Grigg, M. E. (2008). Type X Toxoplasma gondii in a wild mussel and terrestrial carnivores from coastal California: new linkages between terrestrial mammals, runoff and toxoplasmosis of sea otters. International Journal for Parasitology 38, 1319–1328.
- Morley, E. K., Williams, R. H., Hughes, J. M., Terry, R. S., Duncanson, P., Smith, J. E. and Hide, G. (2005). Significant familial differences in the frequency of abortion and *Toxoplasma gondii* infection within a flock of Charollais sheep. *Parasitology* 131, 181–185.
- Owen, M. R. and Trees, A. J. (1998). Vertical transmission of *Toxoplasma gondii* from chronically infected house (*Mus musculus*) and field (*Apodemus sylvaticus*) mice determined by polymerase chain reaction. *Parasitology* 116, 299–304.
- Parameswaran, N., O'Handley, R., Grigg, M. E., Fenwick, S. G. and Thompson, R. C. A. (2009). Seroprevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* in wild kangaroos using an ELISA. *Parasitology International* (in the Press) doi: 10.1016/j.parint.2009.01.008

N. Parameswaran and others 944

- Poole, W. E., Carpenter, S. M. and Wood, J. T. (1982). Growth of grey kangaroos and the reliability of age determination from body measurements. II. The western grey kangaroos, *Macropus fuliginosus*, M. f. melanops and M. f. ocydromus. Australian Wildlife Research 9, 203–212.
- Remington, J. S., Jacobs, L. and Melton, M. L. (1961). Congenital transmission of toxoplasmosis from
- mother animals with acute and chronic infections. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* **108**, 163–173.
- Skerratt, L. F., Phelan, J., McFarlane, R. and Speare, R. (1997). Serodiagnosis of toxoplasmosis in a common wombat. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 33, 346–351.
- **Tyndale-Biscoe, H. and Renfree, M. B.** (1987). *Reproductive Physiology of Marsupials*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.