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2 *Toxoplasma gondii* detection in cattle: A slaughterhouse survey

3

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15 **Abstract**

16 Toxoplasmosis is a zoonotic disease caused by the protozoan parasite *Toxoplasma gondii*. Ingestion  
17 of raw or undercooked meat containing viable cysts has been suggested to be a major source of *T.*  
18 *gondii* infection in humans. Suboptimal performance of serological assays in cattle has traditionally  
19 precluded accurate quantification of the extent to which cattle populations are infected and their meat  
20 harbour tissue cysts. In the absence of accurate estimates of the level of infection in the animal  
21 population, assessments of likely human exposure through the consumption of cattle meat remain  
22 highly speculative. Following the development of novel and sensitive molecular methods that can be  
23 applied to the relatively large numbers of samples required in observational studies, the first  
24 quantitative estimates of the frequency of *T. gondii* in meat samples from naturally infected cattle  
25 have become available recently. Such estimates are critical for the development of quantitative risk  
26 assessment models that could be used to inform food safety policies. The aim of this study was to  
27 generate the first estimates of the prevalence of *T. gondii* infection in a sample of cattle exposed to  
28 natural levels of infection and slaughtered for human consumption in the UK under commercial  
29 conditions. Such estimates provide great value to the global assessment of *T. gondii* burden given the  
30 scarcity of data available on the frequency of natural infection in cattle populations worldwide.

31 Between October 2015 and January 2016 diaphragm samples were collected from 305 animals,  
32 slaughtered in ten commercial slaughterhouses across the UK. Movement histories showed that the  
33 animals sampled (41.6% females and 58.4% males) had passed through a total of 614 farms and 40  
34 livestock markets across the country. Five animals (1.6%) were deemed positive for *T. gondii*  
35 following magnetic capture real-time PCR, confirmed by amplicon sequencing. The true prevalence  
36 of infection was estimated to be 1.79%. All positive animals were male, none of whom had been on  
37 the same farm and/or livestock market before slaughter and there was no apparent geographic pattern.  
38 The results from this study suggest a low level of infection in cattle raised and slaughtered in the UK  
39 and can be used to populate the first stages of formal risk assessments to quantify the likely extent of  
40 human exposure to *T. gondii* through the consumption of beef with relevance to the UK, EU and rest  
41 of the world.

42

43 **Key words:** *Toxoplasma gondii*, cattle, MC-PCR, prevalence, food safety, United Kingdom

44

45

46 **Highlights**

47

48 - Estimation of *T. gondii* prevalence in naturally infected cattle using MC-PCR

49 - Low level of *T. gondii* infection without geographic pattern for positive animals

50 - Fills gaps as a prelude to risk assessment of human foodborne exposure to *T. gondii*

51

52

53       **1. Introduction**

54       Toxoplasmosis is a zoonotic disease caused by the apicomplexan parasite *Toxoplasma gondii*  
55 (Montoya and Liesenfeld, 2004). Domestic cats and other felids are the definitive hosts, while  
56 mammals and birds are the most common intermediate hosts. Oocysts produced in the definitive host  
57 are passed in faeces and sporulate in the environment before being ingested by an intermediate or  
58 another definitive host. When sporulated oocysts are ingested by an intermediate host sporozoites are  
59 released, infecting numerous tissues (predilection tissues), where they undergo endodyogeny to form  
60 tachyzoites. While predilection tissues vary between species, muscle, liver, brain and the intestinal  
61 epithelium are commonly infected (Dubey et al., 1998; Roberts and Janovy, 2005). Following  
62 infection, the parasite develops into tissue cysts where the parasite multiplies (termed bradyzoites at  
63 this stage).

64       The sero-prevalence of *T. gondii* infection varies between host species and country. It is estimated  
65 that up to 30% of the global human population is infected (Tenter et al., 2000). Ingestion of raw or  
66 undercooked meat containing viable cysts has been suggested to be a major source of *T. gondii*  
67 infection in some European countries (Cook et al., 2000; Flatt and Shetty, 2012), however the relative  
68 contribution of different types of meats to human *T. gondii* infection is unclear. Herbivorous livestock  
69 are most likely to become infected from the ingestion of infective oocysts in the pasture, feed or  
70 drinking water (Andreoletti et al., 2007). In cattle, sero-prevalence estimates vary from 1% to 92%  
71 worldwide, however the results are not directly comparable given differences in study design and the  
72 test used. Crucially, sero-prevalence is indicative of exposure to the parasite, not cyst development.  
73 Contrary to sheep and goats, clinical signs are rarely exhibited in cattle (Dubey, 2010).

74       Reliable prevalence estimates in meat-producing animals are needed as the first stage in formal  
75 risk assessments aiming to estimate the relative contribution of meat to human *T. gondii* infection.  
76 The lack of information regarding the level of infection in cattle reared in the UK and Europe has  
77 been highlighted by the UK Food Standards Agency (FSA) and the European Food Safety Authority  
78 (EFSA) (AMCSF, 2012; Andreoletti et al., 2007). Routine detection of *T. gondii* cysts during meat  
79 inspection is not feasible given the microscopic size of the cysts. Instead, diagnosis of *Toxoplasma*  
80 infection most commonly relies on serological detection. Although numerous techniques are available

81 for detection of antibodies, the lack of correlation between seropositivity in cattle and presence of  
82 detectable cysts has limited the value of serology as an indirect indicator for cyst occurrence in beef  
83 (Opsteegh et al., 2016b; Opsteegh et al., 2011). Therefore, direct detection methods are necessary to  
84 provide estimates of the proportion of cattle harbouring cysts, a critical input for a sound assessment  
85 of the risk of human infection associated with the consumption of cattle meat.

86 The gold standard for detecting *T. gondii* in meat samples is bioassay using mice or cats.  
87 However, these methods are relatively expensive, very time consuming and not conducive for the  
88 screening of large sample numbers (da Silva and Langoni, 2001). More recently, molecular  
89 approaches such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR) based methods have been favoured for the  
90 detection of *T. gondii*, however PCR methods lack sensitivity when compared to the bioassay (da  
91 Silva and Langoni, 2001; Garcia et al., 2006; Hill et al., 2006). In response, a highly sensitive  
92 magnetic capture PCR- method was developed (Opsteegh et al., 2010). The method combines  
93 homogenization of a meat sample (100 grams) with sequence specific magnetic capture followed by  
94 quantitative real time PCR (qPCR) (Opsteegh et al., 2010). Using this method, we aimed to assess the  
95 level of *T. gondii* infection in cattle raised and slaughtered in the UK for human consumption. It is  
96 expected that the results of this study can inform future probabilistic assessments of the risk of human  
97 infection associated with beef consumption.

98

## 99 **2. Material and Methods**

### 100 *2.1. Study design*

101 A slaughterhouse-based study was conducted in the UK between October 2015 and January 2016.  
102 All slaughterhouses across the UK were invited to take part in the study. Ten of them showed  
103 willingness to participate and were included. Thus, the selection of slaughterhouses to be included in  
104 this study was non-probabilistic and based on voluntary participation. Each slaughterhouse was  
105 visited during two or three days, during which one animal was selected for sampling from each farm  
106 sending animals to the slaughterhouse during these days. In the case of animals coming in batches  
107 brought from livestock markets, the farm where the animal was located before going to market was  
108 considered as the farm of origin. The first animal of the batch was sampled, if the first animal of the

109 batch was missed, the second animal was sampled. The target number of animals was 300 for an  
110 expected prevalence of 2.9%, 95% confidence interval and 1.9% precision.

111 The study received ethical approval from the Royal Veterinary College Ethics and Welfare  
112 Committee under the reference URN 2015-1407.

113

## 114 *2.2. Sample and data collection*

115 A minimum of ~150 g of diaphragm muscle was collected at post mortem from the selected  
116 animals. Knives were rinsed and kept in hot water in between diaphragm sampling. Diaphragm  
117 samples were placed in polythene bags labelled with a unique ID and sealed to avoid leakage. ID and  
118 ear tag numbers from animals sampled were recorded in a standardised recording sheet. Samples were  
119 kept and transported on ice and stored at -20°C until ready for use. Ear tag numbers were used to  
120 obtain movement history, age, sex and breed of each animal sampled using the British Cattle  
121 Movement System ([www.bcms.gov.uk](http://www.bcms.gov.uk)).

122

## 123 *2.3. Laboratory analysis*

124 All oligonucleotides used for sequence specific magnetic capture and qPCR were used as  
125 designed previously by Opsteegh and colleagues (Opsteegh et al., 2010), targeting the 529-bp DNA  
126 fragment (GenBank accession number AF146527). A competitive internal amplification control  
127 (CIAC) was included as described by Opsteegh and colleagues to allow detection of false-negative  
128 PCR results (Hoorfar et al., 2004; Opsteegh et al., 2010).

129 Bovine diaphragm sample preparation and sequence specific magnetic capture was performed as  
130 detailed elsewhere (Opsteegh et al., 2010). In between samples, scissors and forceps were rinsed in  
131 soap and hot water and then treated with DNAzap (Ambion, Texas, USA) to minimise the risk of  
132 cross-contamination. In addition, each filter bag and contents was placed in a second plain  
133 Stomacher400 bag during homogenisation to minimise the risk of spillage.

134 PCR amplification was performed in 96 well plates using the BioRad CFX96 Real time detection  
135 system (Bio-Rad laboratories, CA, USA) and SsoAdvanced Universal Probes Supermix (Bio-Rad,  
136 CA, USA) in 20 µl reaction volumes per well. Each reaction consisted of 0.7 µM of Tox-9F and Tox-

137 11R, 0.1  $\mu$ M of Tox-TP1, 0.2  $\mu$ M of CIAC probe, 0.02 fg of CIAC (kindly provided by M. Opsteegh,  
138 as described previously) and 10  $\mu$ l of template DNA. Cycling conditions were created according to  
139 the Supermix manufacturer's recommendations for optimized cycling and comprised of 95°C for two  
140 minutes, followed by 45 cycles 95°C for 15 seconds and 60°C for 30 seconds. On each plate, a  
141 standard series of *T. gondii* DNA was included (ranging from  $5 \times 10^7$  to  $5 \times 10^1$ ). Each reaction was  
142 carried out in duplicate and nuclease free water was used in place of DNA in quadruplicate as the  
143 non-template (negative) control. The quantification cycle value (Cq) and melt curve was used to  
144 determine the *T. gondii* status of all samples. All samples without a Cq value but positive CIAC-PCR  
145 were scored negative. Samples with no Cq value for the CIAC-PCR were repeated. Samples with a  
146 Cq value for both the *T. gondii* and CIAC assays were scored positive for *Toxoplasma* DNA presence.  
147 Samples scored as putative positives were confirmed by standard PCR using magnetically captured  
148 DNA as template with primers Tox-9F and Tox-11R (Opsteegh et al., 2010) (Bioline *Taq* polymerase,  
149 conditions as described by the manufacturer, 1 x 94 °C for 1 min, 45 x [94 °C for 30 s, 52 °C for 30 s,  
150 72 °C for 30 s], 1 x 72 °C for 7 min). Amplicons were cloned using pGEM-T Easy (Promega) in  
151 XL1-Blue MRF *Escherichia coli* (Stratagene), miniprep (Qiagen) and sequenced (GATC Biotech)  
152 as described by the respective manufacturers. Sequence assembly and annotation by BLASTn  
153 comparison of homology to the GenBank NR database was undertaken using CLC Main Workbench  
154 v6.0.2 (CLC Bio).

155

#### 156 2.4. Data analysis

157 Descriptive statistics were obtained using R 3.0 (R Development Core Team, 2015). True  
158 prevalence was estimated stochastically in @Risk version 6 for Excel (Palisade Corporation,  
159 Newfield, NY) using sensitivity and specificity values previously reported for the test used (Se =  
160 89.2%; 95% CI 79.2–99.2%; Sp=100%) (Opsteegh et al., 2010) and describing uncertainty in the  
161 sensitivity values by means of a pert distribution.

162

### 163 3. Results and Discussion



164 Samples were collected from 10 slaughterhouses, nine located across England and one in  
165 Scotland. Diaphragm samples from 305 animals were collected and tested using magnetic capture and  
166 qPCR; 127 (41.6%) were female between 11.3 and 147.0 months (median 26.2 months) and 178  
167 (58.4%) were male between 9.0 and 36.7 months (median 23.2 months). Samples collected  
168 represented 34 different breeds or cross breeds (Supplementary material Table S.1). The number of  
169 sites an animal stayed before slaughter ranged from one to 15 (median 3). Overall the 305 animals  
170 sampled covered 614 different farms and 40 livestock markets across the country. The location of the  
171 farms and livestock markets, aggregated by region, is presented in Table 1.

172 Five (1.6%) samples were deemed positive following magnetic capture and qPCR. Average Cq  
173 values obtained from qPCR for each sample ranged from 19.36 to 41.23 in all positive animals  
174 (overall average  $\pm$  standard deviation was  $25.31 \pm 9.31$ ; Table 2). Since two of the five putative  
175 positives presented Cq values in excess of 40 all results were verified by independent PCR, amplicon  
176 sequencing and BLASTn annotation, confirming *T. gondii* 529-bp repeat sequence identity. Once  
177 adjusted for the test sensitivity, the mean true prevalence was estimated to be 1.79% (5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup>  
178 percentiles 1.66 and 1.95 respectively). Positive animals were slaughtered in four different  
179 slaughterhouses and none of them stayed in the same site (farm or livestock market) before being  
180 slaughtered. Although extrapolations should be made with caution given the non-probabilistic  
181 selection of animals, this study suggests a low level of infection in cattle raised and slaughtered in the  
182 UK for human consumption, with no clear geographic pattern of positive animals. When interpreting  
183 our results it is important to bear in mind that *T. gondii* positive status was defined based on testing a  
184 fraction (100g) of one elective tissue (diaphragm). It is therefore possible that some animals with  
185 cysts were deemed negative due to the absence of enough *T. gondii* DNA in the sample collected,  
186 supported by average Cq values from two of five positive animals  $>40$ .

187 Evidence has built up in recent years regarding the lack of concordance between the presence  
188 of antibodies in cattle and *T. gondii* cysts in beef, limiting the use of serology assays as an indirect  
189 indicator for the presence of cysts in beef (Opsteegh et al., 2016b; Opsteegh et al., 2011). Magnetic  
190 capture PCR (MC-PCR) has been reported to have improved sensitivity for detection of *T. gondii*  
191 compared with other molecular methods (Juránková et al., 2014; Opsteegh et al., 2010). In addition,

192 MC-PCR is considerably quicker and more cost effective than the bioassay (Opsteegh et al., 2010),  
193 and can reduce the requirement for laboratory animal use in line with the NC3Rs  
194 reduction/replacement principles. MC-PCR has successfully been used to look at the occurrence of *T.*  
195 *gondii* in different meat-producing animals (Hamilton et al., 2015; Juránková et al., 2014; Opsteegh et  
196 al., 2010; Opsteegh et al., 2016a). Nonetheless, MC-PCR still presents some limitations. The process  
197 is time consuming and is not directly amenable to upscaling. A relatively large tissue sample is  
198 required from each animal, limiting the choice of tissue cuts available for routine testing where  
199 material would otherwise enter the food chain.

200 All positive samples in this study came from male cattle aged between 15.3 and 31.2 months at  
201 the time of slaughter (Table 2). The potential effect of age on *T. gondii* infection in cattle is not clear  
202 and the scattered results available are inconsistent. A study conducted in Switzerland found a higher  
203 proportion of positive calves compared to older groups as detected by PCR using one gram of  
204 diaphragm (Berger-Schoch et al., 2011); whilst the contrary was found in a study carried out in Iran  
205 (Azizi et al., 2014). In a recent study involving four European countries no clear age pattern was  
206 found using MC-PCR on 100g of diaphragm, with the age of positive animals ranging from 1 month  
207 to 12.8 years (Opsteegh et al., 2016b). If infected cattle remain infected for life or somehow overcome  
208 the infection and eliminate the parasite over time remains unknown. All positive animals in this study  
209 were male. One previous study reported the sex of positive animals and a similar number of positive  
210 male and females were found (Opsteegh et al., 2016b). Berger-Schoch and colleagues found a higher  
211 proportion of females were positive (Berger-Schoch et al., 2011). Within the same study calves were  
212 found to include the highest proportion of positive animals, but calf sex was not reported. Further  
213 research is needed to investigate the potential effect of sex and age (if any) on the presence of cysts in  
214 infected cattle before any significant conclusion can be drawn.

215 *Toxoplasma gondii* presents a complex life cycle with multiple routes of transmission and the  
216 severity of disease associated with this parasite prompts concern for human health. Earlier reports  
217 suggested a minimal risk of transmission from beef (or beef products) to humans. This was based on  
218 discrepancies between sero-prevalence in cattle and presence of infectious parasites in beef (Dubey,  
219 1986; Dubey and Beattie, 1988). However, consumption of undercooked beef has been reported as a

220 risk factor for *T. gondii* infection in pregnant women in various European countries and the USA  
221 (Baril et al., 1999; Cook et al., 2000; Jones et al., 2009). Beyond parasite occurrence in meat-  
222 producing animals, the risk of human infection is also known to vary by regional and cultural habits.  
223 However, a formal risk assessment is needed in order to estimate the relative contribution of beef and  
224 other animal products to human *T. gondii* infection, and assess the potential effect of risk mitigation  
225 measures along the beef chain on reducing human exposure to *T. gondii*.

226 The results from this study can be used to populate the first stages of formal risk assessments as  
227 well as inform study design and sample size calculation in future studies, filling some of the data gaps  
228 previously identified by FSA (AMCSF, 2012). Given the scarcity of data available on the frequency  
229 of natural infection in cattle populations worldwide, the relevance of the results presented here goes  
230 beyond the study area and could prove of value in the EU and further afield.

231

#### 232 **4. Acknowledgments**

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235 for her technical advice and provision of template for use as the competitive internal amplification  
236 control. The authors would like to thank slaughterhouses managers and staff for their invaluable  
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238 College.

239

240

241 Table 1. Number and percentage of livestock markets and farms, per region, where sampled cattle  
242 stayed.

<b>Region</b>	<b>Num. of livestock markets (%)</b>	<b>Num. of farms (%)</b>
<b><i>England</i></b>		
•South East	4 (10%)	63 (10.3%)
•South West	10 (25%)	158 (25.7%)
•East England	-	14 (2.3%)
•Greater London	-	-
•East Midlands	3 (7.5%)	72 (11.7%)
•West Midlands	8 (20%)	94(15.3%)
•Yorkshire and the Humber	1 (2.5%)	52 (8.5%)
•Northwest	2 (5%)	45 (7.3%)
•Northeast	-	8 (1.3%)
<b><i>Scotland</i></b>	6 (15%)	44 (7.2%)
<b><i>Wales</i></b>	6 (15%)	64(10.4%)
Total	40	614

243

244

245

246

247 Table 2 Characteristics of cattle that tested positive to *Toxoplasma gondii* using MC-qPCR.

<b>Animal ID</b>	<b>Sex</b>	<b>Breed</b>	<b>Age (months)</b>	<b>Number of sites stayed</b>	<b>Site location(s)</b>	<b>qPCR (Cq)</b>
C006	Male	Limousin	18.1	5 (3 farms; 2 livestock markets)	Southeast and East Midlands	40.04
C172	Male	Charolais	31.2	3 (3 farms)	Northeast and Yorkshire and the Humber	20.32
C201	Male	Simmental cross	25.3	3 (2 farms; 1 livestock market)	Southwest	41.23
C278	Male	Limousin	15.3	3 (2 farms; 1 livestock market)	Scotland	19.59
C289	Male	Charolais cross	19.7	3 (2 farms; 1 livestock market)	Scotland	19.36

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250       **5. References**

251

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