

1 EXPERIMENTAL RUMINANT MODELS FOR BOVINE NEOSPOROSIS: WHAT IS KNOWN  
2 AND WHAT IS NEEDED

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16 Running head: EXPERIMENTAL RUMINANT MODELS FOR BOVINE NEOSPOROSIS

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1 SUMMARY:

2 At present, bovine neosporosis is an important worldwide concern because of its wide  
3 geographic distribution and economic impact. Abortion is the main clinical sign of  
4 bovine neosporosis in both dairy and beef cattle. Ruminant challenge models are  
5 critical to evaluate potential vaccine candidates to help tackle bovine neosporosis and  
6 to study pathogenesis and host responses to infection. Several research groups have  
7 developed ruminant models of *N. caninum* infection independently of others, resulting  
8 in a high degree of variability due to the use of different species of animals, breeds,  
9 strain/isolate of *N. caninum*, doses, route and time of inoculation. Standardization is  
10 greatly needed to advance research in a more collaborative, timely and efficient  
11 manner. In the absence of widely-accepted international guidelines, this manuscript  
12 serves to summarize and discuss the different models and parameters currently in use.  
13 Parameters essential for the development of non-pregnant and pregnant ruminant  
14 models are outlined and the main knowledge gaps are identified. This information  
15 could act as the basis to develop a consensus for international standard guidelines for  
16 ruminant models of neosporosis that would be helpful for researchers in this field  
17 worldwide.

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19 Keywords: bovine neosporosis, ruminant models, harmonization, knowledge gaps

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 *Neospora caninum* is a heteroxenous, cyst-forming coccidian closely related to  
3 *Toxoplasma gondii* that has been recognized as a major cause of abortion and  
4 reproductive failure in cattle (reviewed by Dubey *et al.* 2007). At present, bovine  
5 neosporosis is an important worldwide concern because of its wide geographic  
6 distribution (reviewed by Dubey *et al.* 2007 and Dubey and Schares, 2011) and  
7 economic impact (Trees *et al.* 1999; Reichel *et al.* 2013). Serologic prevalence of *N.*  
8 *caninum* antibodies in cattle indicates that there are considerable differences in  
9 prevalence of infection among countries, within countries, between regions, and  
10 between beef and dairy cattle (reviewed by Dubey and Schares, 2011). Major  
11 economic losses in livestock operations are associated to lengthened calving interval,  
12 reduced stock value and increased culling rate (Trees *et al.* 1999). In a recent review  
13 and economic analysis by Reichel *et al.* (2013), the impact of *N. caninum* abortions in  
14 just ten countries was estimated to be on average, a billion US dollars.

15 The life cycle of *N. caninum* has three described infectious stages: tachyzoites, tissue  
16 cysts bearing bradyzoites, and oocysts (Fig. 1). Intermediate hosts harbor intracellular  
17 tachyzoites and bradyzoites. Tissue cysts are primarily found in the central nervous  
18 system of intermediate hosts, but this stage has also been detected in cattle muscle  
19 (Peters *et al.* 2001). Definitive hosts excrete environmentally-resistant oocysts in an  
20 un-sporulated stage. The finding of *N. caninum* oocysts in the faeces of naturally  
21 infected dogs and grey wolves has allowed identifying them as natural definitive hosts  
22 for the parasite (Basso *et al.* 2009; Dubey *et al.* 2011). The shedding of oocysts in  
23 faeces has also been proven in experimentally infected dogs, coyotes and dingoes  
24 (reviewed by Dubey *et al.* 2006 and Dubey and Schares, 2011). Serological evidence in

1 domestic, wild and zoo animals indicates that many species have been exposed to this  
2 parasite, but viable *N. caninum* has only been isolated from a few host species such as  
3 cattle, sheep, water buffalo, dog, horse, bison, and white-tailed deer (reviewed by  
4 Dubey and Schares, 2011).

5 The routes of *N. caninum* transmission in cattle include transplacental infection from  
6 the dam to the foetus during gestation through tachyzoites, (vertical transmission) and  
7 ingestion of sporozoite-containing oocysts shed by a definitive host (horizontal  
8 transmission). Exogenous transplacental transmission occurs following primary oocyst-  
9 derived infection of pregnant dams, while endogenous transplacental transmission  
10 occurs following recrudescence of infection in persistently infected cows during  
11 pregnancy (Trees and Williams, 2005). Transmission of the parasite from dam to  
12 offspring seems to be highly efficient on the basis of precolostral serological data,  
13 ranging from 48–95% (Schaes *et al.* 1998; reviewed by Dubey *et al.* 2007). To date,  
14 cow to cow horizontal transmission of *N. caninum* has not been observed and the  
15 ingestion of sporulated *N. caninum* oocysts from the environment is the only  
16 demonstrated natural mode of infection of cattle after birth (McCann *et al.* 2007).  
17 Post-natal transmission is responsible for less than 15% of infections in the herd (Hall  
18 *et al.* 2005), although horizontal transmission could be important in some herds in high  
19 prevalence areas (Eiras *et al.* 2011). In this study, a large sample size was investigated  
20 showing high herd (80.6%) and within herd (25.1%) seroprevalence and a significant  
21 increase of seroprevalence with age (11, 14.4 and 27.5 in animals younger than 24  
22 months, 25-36 months and higher than 36 months respectively). Sero-positivity is  
23 assumed to persist for life (reviewed by Dubey and Schares, 2006), although  
24 fluctuation in antibody responses may result in some animals becoming sero-negative

1 again (Pereira-Bueno *et al.* 2003). Seropositive animals have a higher risk of abortion,  
2 ranging between 1.7 and 7.4-fold but the risk decreases over time with increasing  
3 parity (Paré *et al.* 1997; Thurmond and Hietala, 1997; Wouda *et al.* 1998). Lactogenic  
4 and venereal routes are also other suggested modes of transmission. *N. caninum*-DNA  
5 has been detected in milk and colostrum (Moskwa *et al.* 2007) and neonatal calves  
6 may become infected after ingestion of milk experimentally spiked with tachyzoites  
7 (Davison *et al.* 2001), but the lactogenic transmission of *N. caninum* was not  
8 demonstrated in natural conditions (Dijkstra *et al.* 2001). Although the presence of *N.*  
9 *caninum*-DNA has been detected in semen (Ortega-Mora *et al.* 2003), dams naturally  
10 bred with experimentally infected bulls failed to seroconvert (Osoro *et al.* 2009).

11 Control measures for bovine neosporosis such as management strategies,  
12 chemotherapy and vaccination have been reviewed in Dubey *et al.* (2007) and Reichel  
13 and Ellis (2002). However, a general strategy to control neosporosis worldwide is not  
14 applicable because of regional differences in the epidemiology of bovine neosporosis.  
15 Standard biosecurity measures are paramount to avoid the introduction of infection in  
16 *N. caninum*-free herds. In *N. caninum*-infected herds, control programs are based on  
17 decreasing the vertical transmission in herd by reduction of the number of seropositive  
18 cattle and/or decreasing the risk of horizontal transmission of *N. caninum* mainly by  
19 controlling the definitive host population as a source of oocyst contamination  
20 (reviewed by Dubey *et al.* 2007). Test and cull of *N. caninum* infected cattle seems to  
21 be an efficacious but costly option. Other practical alternatives for the control of  
22 neosporosis would be the selective breeding of only seronegative cows, breeding of  
23 seropositive cows only to beef, and the culling of those cows that actually aborted. In  
24 high prevalence areas, the difficulties that need to be overcome in establishing a

1 control programme for neosporosis include the limited number of seronegative  
2 animals available for breeding replacement animals, reducing selection by genetic  
3 merit and an increase in replacement costs (Eiras *et al.* 2011).

#### 4 *Initiatives for model harmonization in N. caninum infection*

5 During the 2011 meeting of the World Association for the Advancement of Veterinary  
6 Parasitology held in Buenos Aires, a workshop dealing with “Perspectives for control  
7 for cattle reproductive diseases caused by protozoans” stressed the urgency to  
8 standardize pre-clinical and clinical models for *N. caninum*. These models are essential  
9 to study host-pathogen interactions, host immunity at the local and systemic level, and  
10 for evaluating vaccine candidates and therapeutics (Campero and Ortega-Mora,  
11 personal communication). The following year during the first “Apicowplexa” meeting  
12 in Lisbon (Apicomplexans in farm animals, <http://www.apicowplexa.net/>), a  
13 presentation including “pros” and “cons” of *in vitro* and *in vivo* models used for *N.*  
14 *caninum* vaccine testing was presented. The necessity of consensus guidelines  
15 including isolates/strains of *N. caninum* used, challenge dose, time and route of  
16 challenge, preparation of inoculum, animal model (mice versus cattle; sheep versus  
17 cattle), and other parameters were discussed and a proposal to develop international  
18 standard guidelines that would be an aid to researchers in this field and gain  
19 acceptance worldwide was put forward (reviewed by Ortega-Mora *et al.* 2012).

20 Several recent reviews have discussed *in vitro* and *in vivo* laboratory animal (mainly  
21 mice) models of *N. caninum* infection. *In vitro* culture systems represent powerful tools  
22 for the study of apicomplexan parasites like *Neospora* and have enabled studies on  
23 host-parasite interactions including pathogen virulence, host factors involved in innate

1 resistance, parasite stage conversion and differentiation, genetics and transfection  
2 technology and vaccine candidates and drug effectiveness (reviewed by Muller and  
3 Hemphill, 2013). Notably, a recent comparative analysis of the invasive and  
4 proliferative capacities of bovine *N. caninum* isolates obtained from asymptomatic  
5 calves revealed intra-species variability, which was associated with disease severity in  
6 a pregnant mice model (Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2011). *In vitro* invasion rate and  
7 tachyzoite yield were confirmed as traits associated with the virulence phenotype for  
8 these *N. caninum* isolates (Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2012).

9 Mouse models are a suitable tool for an initial screening of vaccine candidates to  
10 assess their *in vivo* efficacy, (reviewed by Innes and Vermelulen, 2006). Indeed,  
11 cerebral and congenital mouse models of *N. caninum* infections associated with  
12 exogenous transplacental transmission have been successfully developed (Collantes-  
13 Fernández *et al.* 2006; López-Pérez *et al.* 2006, 2008) and afterwards, employed in  
14 vaccine efficacy assays (Aguado-Martínez *et al.* 2009; Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2011). On  
15 the other hand, low rates of reactivation of *N. caninum* infection in both persistently  
16 and congenitally infected mice confirm that the mouse is not an appropriate or  
17 suitable species for inducing the endogenous transplacental transmission that  
18 frequently occurs in naturally infected cattle (Jiménez-Ruiz *et al.* 2013a, b).

19 Ruminant challenge models are critical to evaluate potential vaccine candidates to  
20 help confront bovine neosporosis and to study pathogenesis and host responses to  
21 infection. Several research groups have developed ruminant models of *N. caninum*  
22 infection independently of others, resulting in a high degree of variability due to the  
23 use of different species of animals, breeds, strain/isolate of *N. caninum*, doses, route

1 and time of inoculation. Standardization is greatly needed to advance research in a  
2 more collaborative, timely and efficient manner. These models will be useful to study  
3 host–pathogen interactions, host immunity at the local and systemic level, and for  
4 evaluating diagnostics, vaccines, and therapeutics. In the absence of widely-accepted  
5 international guidelines, this manuscript serves to summarize and discuss the different  
6 models and parameters currently in use. Methodologies essential for the development  
7 of non-pregnant and pregnant ruminant models are outlined and the main knowledge  
8 gaps are identified. This information could act as the basis to develop a consensus for  
9 internationally accepted standard guidelines for ruminant models of neosporosis that  
10 would be helpful for researchers in this field worldwide.

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#### 12 *NEOSPORA CANINUM* INFECTION DYNAMICS IN CATTLE

13 Abortion is the main clinical sign of bovine neosporosis in both dairy and beef cattle.  
14 Despite many studies in experimentally-infected pregnant cows, only limited  
15 information is available in naturally occurring infection. It is unclear which factors play  
16 a major role in determining the outcome of the infection, these include: parasite  
17 virulence, routes of *Neospora* transmission (vertical or horizontal), type of infection  
18 (primary infection, recrudescence and re-infection), the efficacy of maternal and foetal  
19 immune response and the stage of gestation at which the dam is infected.

20 Cows of any age may abort from 3 months of gestation to term, with most abortions  
21 observed at 5-7 months of gestation (reviewed by Dubey *et al.* 2007 and Almería and  
22 López-Gatius, 2013). Persistent *N. caninum* infection prior to pregnancy is not  
23 responsible for abortion during the early foetal period, but does exert a significant



1 abortifacient effect after 90 days of pregnancy (López-Gatius *et al.* 2004). *Neospora*  
2 induced abortions may occur year-round. Both dairy and beef cattle with antibodies to  
3 *N. caninum* can have a 7.4-fold-increased risk of abortion compared to seronegative  
4 cows (Paré *et al.* 1997, Thurmond and Hietala, 1997; Wouda *et al.* 1998). Several  
5 studies showed that *N. caninum* antibody titers were significantly correlated with  
6 abortion in parous cows (López-Gatius *et al.* 2005; Thurmond and Hietala, 1997).  
7 Irrespective of the herd level of *Neospora*-seroprevalence, the individual serum  
8 antibody titer against *N. caninum* is a good indicator of the risk of abortion  
9 (Quintanilla-Gozaño *et al.* 1999). Increasing *N. caninum* antibody titers in the second  
10 and third trimester of gestation have been associated with abortion and birth of  
11 congenitally infected calves, respectively (Stenlund *et al.* 1999; Quintanilla-Gozaño *et*  
12 *al.* 1999; Williams *et al.* 2000).

13 Foetuses in *Neospora* infected dams, may die *in utero* and be reabsorbed, mummified,  
14 autolyzed, or stillborn. Infections after mid-pregnancy may produce calves born alive  
15 but with clinical signs or apparently clinically normal but persistently infected with the  
16 parasite. In aborted foetuses, the most common lesions are multifocal non-  
17 suppurative necrotizing encephalitis and myocarditis (Wouda *et al.* 1997). In addition,  
18 multifocal areas of necrosis surrounded by inflammatory cells may be observed in  
19 spinal cord, liver, lung, and placenta (Barr *et al.* 1991). It has been indicated that the  
20 age of foetus is an important factor which appears to influence the histological  
21 features and distribution of lesions. Frequency and severity of lesions appears to be  
22 higher in foetal tissues during the first and second trimesters of gestation rather than  
23 the last trimester, and this is likely to be a consequence of to the ontogeny of the

1 foetal immune response which progressively matures throughout gestation (Maley *et*  
2 *al.* 2003; Macaldowie *et al.* 2004; Gibney *et al.* 2008; Benavides *et al.* 2012).

3 In cattle, *N. caninum* is an abortifacient and abortions follow two main patterns:  
4 endemic and epidemic abortions. The epidemic abortions show a storm-like pattern  
5 with a large proportion (>10%) of at risk cows (in-calf) aborting over a short period of  
6 time (reviewed by Dubey *et al.* 2007). In contrast, endemic abortion persists in the  
7 herd for several months or years. Epidemic and endemic abortion patterns are related  
8 to horizontal and vertical routes of transmission of *N. caninum* infections, respectively.

9 The immunological context of the initial priming of the immune system by the  
10 parasites may have profound consequences for the risk of disease and transmission of  
11 *N. caninum*. It appears that infection in cattle originally infected *in utero* when their  
12 immune system is still developing behave differently from infection in post-natally  
13 infected cattle (reviewed by Innes and Vermeulen, 2006 and Williams *et al.* 2009).

14 Cattle infected *in utero* (transplacental transmission) remain persistently infected and  
15 can experience recrudescence of infection (Williams *et al.* 2003). Heifers can abort or  
16 transmit the infection in successive gestations and immunity after *in utero* infection  
17 protects against an exogenous challenge (concomitant immunity) (McAllister *et al.*  
18 2000; Innes *et al.* 2001; Williams and Trees, 2006; Williams *et al.* 2007). With post-  
19 natal transmission, some animals seem to clear the infection and they do not present  
20 with abortion or transmission in successive gestations (or rarely), developing a good  
21 protective immunity against an exogenous challenge (Dijkstra *et al.* 2008; McCann *et*  
22 *al.* 2007). These facts are important for vaccine development.

23

## 1 RUMINANT MODELS FOR BOVINE NEOSPOROSIS

### 2 *Purposes and endpoints of the models*

3 Ruminant experimental models have been developed to study the main consequences  
4 of *N. caninum* infection: foetal death or parasite transmission to the offspring. These  
5 models have been used to understand the host-pathogen interactions enabling the  
6 study of immune responses and disease pathogenesis during gestation. In addition, *in*  
7 *vivo* models enable studies to compare virulence between isolates, therapeutics and to  
8 test the ability of vaccine formulations to prevent abortion or transmission by  
9 immunization trials and challenge.

10 Different endpoints have been evaluated to provide a reliable way to monitor  
11 foetopathy or parasite dissemination and transmission, which include clinical  
12 observations, detection of *N. caninum* presence, lesions and immune responses. With  
13 regard to clinical observations, foetal viability is the most significant parameter to be  
14 evaluated in the abortion model and this can be monitored by trans-rectal  
15 ultrasonography during gestation. If foetal death occurs, this is normally observed  
16 between 26 and 56 days after intravenously (iv) inoculation of live tachyzoites at 70  
17 days of gestation infection (Williams *et al.* 2000, 2003, 2007; Macaldowie *et al.* 2004;  
18 Gibney *et al.* 2008; Caspe *et al.* 2012; Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2009, 2013; Regidor-Cerrillo  
19 *et al.* 2014) showing a mean time to foetal death of 24 days (Innes *et al.* 2001).  
20 However, abortion can be also observed later (about 80 days pi) (Rojo-Montejo *et al.*  
21 2013). These differences could be due to the inoculum size, inoculation route or  
22 differences in virulence between parasite isolates. Additionally, another clinical  
23 parameter associated with the infection is rectal temperature. In accordance with  
24 previous reports, a transient rise in the body temperature was recorded after infection

1 during the first week pi, which is likely to be due to tachyzoite inoculation and the first  
2 cycles of replication of the parasite in host tissues (Innes *et al.* 2001; Maley *et al.* 2003;  
3 Macaldowie *et al.* 2004; Williams *et al.* 2000; Caspe *et al.* 2012; Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.*  
4 2014). A biphasic temperature response, with a second lower temperature peak at day  
5 7 pi, was also recorded in some studies (Maley *et al.* 2003; Macaldowie *et al.* 2004;  
6 Benavides *et al.* 2012; Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2014).

7 Other key indicators are those used to measure the dissemination of the parasite to  
8 different locations by means of PCR or immunohistochemistry, parasite loads by  
9 quantitative real-time PCR or presence of lesions by histopathological evaluation,  
10 which can be categorized using a severity scoring system. In models where abortion is  
11 studied, the occurrence of severe pathological changes with simultaneous parasite  
12 detection and high parasite DNA levels in target foetal tissues (brain, heart and liver)  
13 and placenta, are thought to play a role in foetal death (Barr *et al.* 1994; Maley *et al.*  
14 2006; Macaldowie *et al.* 2004; Gibney *et al.* 2008; Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2009, 2013;  
15 Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2014). On the other hand, if the goal is to study vertical  
16 transmission, this is normally identified in calves after birth by the presence of  
17 *Neospora*-specific antibodies in pre-colostral blood and detection of parasite DNA or  
18 lesions in tissue samples from calves. However, in newborn calves, parasite DNA is  
19 sometimes difficult to detect and histological lesions are rare, mild and limited to brain  
20 tissue from these calves, which is probably due to the control of parasite multiplication  
21 by a competent foetal immune system which develops between mid to late gestation  
22 (Innes *et al.* 2001; Gibney *et al.* 2008; Almería *et al.* 2010; Rosbottom *et al.* 2011;  
23 Benavides *et al.* 2012; Bartley *et al.* 2013; Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2013). Additional  
24 measurements which could provide complementary data are detection of *N. caninum*

1 DNA in dam blood and microsatellite analysis in foetal tissues. The detection of  
2 circulating parasite in the maternal blood is difficult and interpretation of the  
3 parasitaemia results are sometimes hard to assess, mainly because of low parasite  
4 numbers or short periods of detectable parasitaemia (Maley *et al.* 2003; Macaldowie  
5 *et al.* 2004; Serrano *et al.* 2006; Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2009; Benavides *et al.* 2012). On  
6 the contrary, microsatellite analysis was very useful to distinguish the endogenous  
7 infection from any experimentally administered challenge (Benavides *et al.* 2012) and  
8 to rule out the involvement of the vaccine isolate in foetopathy during vaccine assays  
9 (Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2013).

10 Immune responses have been also evaluated in bovine models but currently are not  
11 precise to be used as definitive indicators for disease or protection. Bovine  
12 experimental models have been used to study early innate and adaptive immune  
13 responses and those involved in immunopathology, which are critical to understand  
14 foetal losses, parasite transmission or protective immunity. Standard tools (such as  
15 commercially available ELISA or in-house ELISA tests) have been used to evaluate  
16 humoral immune responses (specific IgG or IgG1, IgG2 serotypes) (Williams *et al.* 2000;  
17 Bartley *et al.* 2004; Macaldowie *et al.* 2004; Serrano *et al.* 2006; Rojo-Montejo *et al.*  
18 2009, Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2014). In addition, avidity *N. caninum* ELISA tests  
19 (Björkman *et al.* 2006; Williams *et al.* 2007) and stage-specific antigen-based ELISAs  
20 employing recombinant NcGRA7 and NcSAG4 proteins, can be also used for  
21 discrimination between primoinfection and persistent infection, and also detection of  
22 recrudescence, even at the individual level (Aguado-Martínez *et al.* 2008). Several  
23 techniques have been also employed to analyze *N. caninum* associated cellular  
24 immune responses in cattle, such as phenotypic analysis of lymphocyte populations by

1 flow cytometry, lymphoproliferative responses following antigen specific stimulation,  
2 as well as the measurement of bovine cytokines in cell free supernatants by ELISA tests  
3 or cytokine gene expression by real time RT-PCR in both peripheral blood mononuclear  
4 cells, dam and foetal tissues (spleen and lymph nodes) or at the foetal-maternal  
5 interface (Gibney *et al.* 2008; Bartley *et al.* 2004, 2012, 2013; Almeria *et al.* 2003, 2011;  
6 Rosbottom *et al.* 2007, 2008; Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2014). Little is known regarding the  
7 role of innate immune responses in bovine neosporosis. Cytotoxic NK cells seem to  
8 play a role in the control of the disease through both cytotoxic and interferon gamma  
9 (IFN $\gamma$ ) mediated mechanisms (Boysen *et al.* 2006; Klevar *et al.* 2007). Recently, it has  
10 been shown that the immune response in inoculated dams at early gestation appeared  
11 to have lead to superior priming of a cell mediated immune response in dams carrying  
12 live foetuses vs. dams carrying dead foetuses (Bartley *et al.* 2012) and there was also  
13 evidence of innate immunity, with significant increases in expression of toll like  
14 receptors (TLR)-2 and TLR-9 in spleen and lymph nodes in cattle challenged at day 210  
15 of gestation (Bartley *et al.* 2013). Intracellular protozoan parasites normally induce and  
16 are controlled by cellular immune responses. Data from several studies have  
17 demonstrated that experimental infection in cattle is accompanied by lymphocyte  
18 proliferation and IFN $\gamma$  responses (Lunden *et al.* 1998; Marks *et al.* 1998; Andrianarivo  
19 *et al.* 2001; Williams *et al.* 2003), and that these responding immune cells tend to be  
20 CD4+ T lymphocytes (Marks *et al.* 1998; Staska *et al.* 2003; Tuo *et al.* 2005; Rosbottom  
21 *et al.* 2007; Rocchi *et al.* 2011), simultaneously with a strong anti-*N. caninum* humoral  
22 response (Williams *et al.* 2000; Bartley *et al.* 2004; Macaldowie *et al.* 2004; Serrano *et al.*  
23 *et al.* 2006; Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2009, 2013; Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2014). Additionally, an  
24 increase of both Th1 and Th2 cytokines expression in placenta has been associated

1 with foetal death after infection in the first third of gestation (Maley et al 2006;  
2 Rosbottom *et al.* 2008; Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2014). On the other hand, minor fold-  
3 change differences in expression of these cytokines were detected after experimental  
4 infection during the second and third trimester of gestation, when parasite  
5 transmission to foetus occurs but the calf is born apparently healthy (Almeria *et al.*  
6 2011; Rosbottom *et al.* 2008). Therefore, bovine immunological studies have showed  
7 that immune cytokines may be either beneficial or detrimental to the host depending  
8 on their concentration, pregnancy period or tissue location and could have a role in  
9 the transplacental transmission of the parasite and/or mediate tissue damage,  
10 specifically at the dam-foetal interface.

11

#### 12 *Pregnant ruminant models of N. caninum infection*

13 *Ruminant species.* Although there is serological evidence of natural contact with *N.*  
14 *caninum* in a wide range of species, the isolation of the viable agent and experimental  
15 reproduction of the disease have been made mostly in ruminants (reviewed by Dubey  
16 *et al.* 2007 and Dubey and Schares, 2011). The establishment of exogenous *N. caninum*  
17 infection and the occurrence of vertical transmission to the foetus or abortion have  
18 been mainly reproduced in cattle but also, to lesser extent, in sheep, goat and water  
19 buffalo (Tables 1 and 2). The descriptions of the clinical presentation and  
20 consequences of experimental exogenous neosporosis are similar in all these species,  
21 mainly consisting of abortions or the *in utero* vertical transmission of the infection to  
22 the foetus. Congenitally infected animals may be born clinically normal or show  
23 weakness and clinical signs involving the CNS. The target organs in the foetus (placenta

1 and foetal brain, heart, lung, liver or muscle) and histological lesions, characterized by  
2 multifocal necrosis and non suppurative inflammation, are also similar in all ruminant  
3 species, although it has been suggested that focal leukomalacia would be more  
4 frequent in the ovine foetuses than in the other species. However, it is not known  
5 whether this reflects different pathogenesis of the lesions depending on the species  
6 (Buxton *et al.* 1998).

7 *Breed.* Epidemiological studies, based on serological evaluation of a high number of  
8 naturally infected cows have suggested that certain breeds, mainly dairy (i.e. Holstein-  
9 Freisian), are more susceptible to infection than others, i.e. Limousin (Lopez-Gatius *et*  
10 *al.* 2005; Armengol *et al.* 2007). However, there is no experimental evidence for a  
11 different susceptibility to infection or disease depending on the breed of the host, and  
12 the differences observed may also be related to the different production systems used  
13 for a variety of breeds (Bartels *et al.* 2006). Similarly, other epidemiological studies  
14 have found that the management practices have more influence in *N. caninum*  
15 infection than the genetic background (Pan *et al.* 2004). On the other hand, using beef  
16 bull semen has epidemiologically proven to reduce the risk of suffering abortion by  
17 dairy dams when compared with dairy bull semen (Lopez-Gatius *et al.* 2005). Bovine  
18 neosporosis has been reproduced in both beef and dairy breeds, although never in  
19 parallel in a comparative study. Ovine breeds used for experiment have been mainly  
20 those for meat or mixed production, while only Pigmy or Boer goats have been used  
21 for reproducing caprine neosporosis (Table 2).

22 *Stage of gestation.* There is a significant relationship between the stage of gestation  
23 when infection occurs and the clinical consequences of infection. This has been  
24 experimentally proved, with similar outcomes in the four ruminant species where



1 exogenous neosporosis has been reproduced (Lindsay *et al.* 1995; Buxton *et al.* 1998;  
2 Maley *et al.* 2003; Gondim *et al.* 2004; Macalodowie *et al.* 2004; McCann *et al.* 2007;  
3 Rosbottom *et al.* 2007; Benavides *et al.* 2012; Konrad *et al.* 2012). Reactivation of  
4 infection and abortion after exogenous, experimental infection, before pregnancy has  
5 been attempted in cattle and goats but it has not been yet achieved (Lindsay *et al.*  
6 1995; McCann *et al.* 2007).

7 Infection during early gestation (first term) is generally associated with parasite  
8 colonization of the placenta and the development of severe necrotic and inflammatory  
9 lesions, with subsequent death and reabsorption, autolysis or mummification of the  
10 foetus (Dubey *et al.* 1992; Barr *et al.* 1994; Macalodowie *et al.* 2004; Rojo-Montejo *et al.*  
11 2009; Williams *et al.* 2012). However, infection of cattle at this stage of pregnancy  
12 does not always result in foetal death and dams infected during the first trimester may  
13 carry live foetuses, with no lesions, detectable parasite or serological evidence of  
14 infection in the foetus at the time of calving, while other animals, infected with the  
15 same dose and strain of *N. caninum* would abort (Barr *et al.* 1994; Williams *et al.* 2000;  
16 Gondim *et al.* 2004; Macalodowie *et al.* 2004; McCann *et al.* 2007; Caspe *et al.* 2012).  
17 The fact that infection during the first trimester resulted in either foetal death or  
18 complete absence of detectable infection in the foetus was described as an “all or  
19 nothing” response where, in some dams, the parasite inoculated at early gestation did  
20 not invade the placenta as opposed to those dams where infection is extended to the  
21 foetus and showed severe placentitis and foetal death. The occurrence of the “all or  
22 nothing” response could be related to the dose inoculated to the animals, as it was  
23 more frequent in the subcutaneously inoculated group, where fewer parasites are  
24 thought to reach the placenta when compared to animals where parasites are directly

1 inoculated into the bloodstream (Macaldowie *et al.* 2004). Dams carrying live foetuses  
2 also showed stronger IFN $\gamma$  production and cell proliferation in lymphostimulation  
3 assays from local lymph nodes compared to those dams where the foetus was dead,  
4 suggesting that the quality of the maternal immune response triggered by the  
5 infection could influence the parasite dissemination, preventing the colonization of the  
6 placenta and foetus (Bartley *et al.* 2012). Interestingly, the “all or nothing” response  
7 has not been observed in small ruminants, where all sheep and goats infected during  
8 the first term of gestation suffered foetal death (Lindsay *et al.* 1995; McAllister *et al.*  
9 1996; Buxton *et al.* 1998). Similarly, all but one out of ten foetuses from pregnant  
10 buffalos inoculated in early pregnancy were infected and had histological lesions of  
11 neosporosis (Konrad *et al.* 2012). However, number of studies in these three species  
12 (buffalo, sheep and goats) are not enough to elucidate whether the absence, or not, of  
13 an “all or nothing” response is associated to the species, and the probable influence of  
14 the isolate, dose or route should be investigated to further characterize this response.

15 Although experimental infections during mid pregnancy (second third of gestation)  
16 may also result in abortion (Dubey *et al.* 1992), the occurrence of transplacental  
17 transmission with the delivery of live, although congenitally infected calves are the  
18 most common outcomes. These calves are mainly born without any obvious clinical  
19 signs, but neurological signs were occasionally observed (Innes *et al.* 2001; Barr *et al.*  
20 1994; Almeria *et al.* 2003; Gondim *et al.* 2004). The histological lesions found in the  
21 placenta and foetuses following infection at mid-gestation were milder than those  
22 observed after infection earlier in pregnancy (Maley *et al.* 2003). The only study  
23 carried out in goats described one abortion and the birth of one live, healthy kid. No  
24 parasites or lesions were found in the live kid, but congenital transmission could not be

1 ruled out as no serological analysis or identification of the parasite by PCR were  
2 attempted (Lindsay *et al.* 1995). In contrast to the clinical outcome in cattle, infection  
3 during mid pregnancy in sheep resulted in more dramatic consequences, as most of  
4 the animals aborted or, less frequently, produced weak lambs. Only a few lambs were  
5 born alive, and parasite cysts were found in one third of them (McAllister *et al.* 1996;  
6 Buxton *et al.* 1998).

7 Transplacental transmission of the infection and delivery of congenitally infected live  
8 calves with no obvious clinical signs have been a common consequence of  
9 experimental exogenous *Neospora* infection during late gestation (last term) in cattle  
10 (Williams *et al.* 2000; McCann *et al.* 2007). Furthermore, histological lesions in the  
11 placenta and foetus were the mildest, and parasite burdens the lowest, when  
12 compared to infections during the first and second trimesters of gestation (Gibney *et*  
13 *al.* 2008; Benavides *et al.* 2012). Infection in the last third of gestation in sheep and  
14 goats has a similar outcome to that seen with cattle, where kids and lambs are born  
15 alive. The only study carried in goats showed the kids to be born weak, although the  
16 parasite was not detected, while the study done in sheep described the delivery of  
17 clinically healthy lambs, some of them congenitally infected (Lindsay *et al.* 1995;  
18 McAllister *et al.* 1996).

19 *Route, parasite stage and dose of inoculation.* *N. caninum* oocysts, the infectious stage  
20 for ruminants in natural infection, are difficult to obtain, as experimentally infected  
21 dogs shed very few (reviewed by Dubey and Schares, 2011). For this reason, most of  
22 the experimental studies on ruminants have been carried out with tachyzoites as the  
23 parasite stage of the infectious inoculums (Tables 1 and 2). Because *N. caninum*

1 tachyzoites are susceptible to digestion, and thus destruction in the gastric  
2 environment, they have usually been inoculated through a parenteral route, namely  
3 subcutaneous, intravenous or intramuscular. All of these routes have been shown to  
4 be effective in infecting cattle and sheep while only some of them have been used in  
5 goats and water buffalos. When comparing the intravenous and subcutaneous routes,  
6 which are the most frequent routes of inoculation used, the former is associated with  
7 a more severe clinical presentation, i. e. higher peak temperature response and more  
8 frequent foetal mortality (Macaldowie *et al.* 2004).

9 As was explained previously, similar doses of the same parasite strain may lead to  
10 different clinical outcomes depending on the stage of gestation. However, the main  
11 effect of the dose of infection of tachyzoite-based inoculums is closely related to the  
12 route of administration and the host species. Intravenous doses administered to cattle  
13 have ranged from  $1.2 \times 10^6$ , which caused infection in all inoculated dams at day 76 of  
14 gestation and 75% of abortions (Weber *et al.* 2013), to  $5 \times 10^8$ , which cause both  
15 infection and abortion in all cows infected on day 70 of gestation (Macaldowie *et al.*  
16 2004). An intermediate dose of  $10^7$  has caused variable results: while in one study it  
17 caused foetal death in all dams inoculated (Gibney *et al.* 2008), in other experimental  
18 infections only 3 out of 5 dams showed foetal death, although all were infected (Rojo-  
19 Montejo *et al.* 2009). A dose-titration study in sheep showed that no abortions or  
20 vertical transmission of the parasite occurred after intravenous inoculation of 50  
21 tachyzoites, while  $5 \times 10^3$  caused abortion in 50% of infected animals, and with a dose  
22 of  $10^7$  or  $10^8$  tachyzoites all ewes aborted, although the latter was associated with a  
23 longer period of fever (Weston *et al.* 2009). An intravenous dose of  $10^4$  tachyzoites  
24 caused abortion in all infected goats, and was associated with a later detection of the

1 parasitemia by ELISA when compared with a higher dose, i.e.  $10^6$  (Yin *et al.* 2012).  
2 Pregnant buffalos inoculated intravenously with  $10^8$  tachyzoites during the first  
3 trimester of gestation showed foetal and placental lesions after transplacental  
4 transmission of the disease in all cases (Konrad *et al.* 2012).  
5 Subcutaneous inoculation of tachyzoites has also been used in other studies, as it was  
6 suggested that, although it is still an artificial route of inoculation, it may model the  
7 natural infection better than the intravenous route of inoculation (reviewed by Dubey  
8 and Schares, 2006). Subcutaneous inoculation of cattle with  $10^7$  and  $5 \times 10^8$  caused  
9 transplacental transmission and lesions of the foetus when inoculated at the second  
10 trimester of gestation, although the higher dose was associated with earlier and more  
11 severe histopathological changes (Maley *et al.* 2003). Inoculation of sheep with a dose  
12 of  $10^6$  caused vertical transmission, histological lesions in the foetuses and a high  
13 percentage of abortion, i.e. 75 to 100% (Buxton *et al.* 1997, 1998), although a higher  
14 dose of  $5 \times 10^6$  only resulted in abortion of 6 out of 11 sheep (Jenkins *et al.* 2004). The  
15 reduction in the percentage of animals aborting could have been due to the influence  
16 of other parameters, such as the isolate or host breed, as a further study by Buxton *et*  
17 *al.* confirmed that high doses, i.e.  $10^7$ , caused abortions in 100% of the sheep (Buxton  
18 *et al.* 2001). The same dose has been employed in subcutaneous inoculations of goats,  
19 confirming the occurrence of abortion or transplacental transmission depending on  
20 the term of gestation (Lindsay *et al.* 1995).  
21 Inoculation of tachyzoites through the conjunctiva, at doses of 1 and  $2.5 \times 10^8$ , resulted  
22 in infection and induction of specific immune response in pregnant cattle without  
23 causing transplacental transmission of the parasite to the foetus (Yaniz *et al.* 2007;  
24 Moore *et al.* 2014). Cows infected with the lower dose even reverted to seronegative

1 status four months after infection (Yaniz *et al.* 2007). Intramuscular inoculation of  
2 tachyzoites has not been commonly employed. As the sole route of inoculation, it has  
3 been tried directly into the foetus at day 118 of gestation, causing foetal death 18 days  
4 after infection (Barr *et al.* 1994). It has also been used in other studies, but only in  
5 addition to intravenous or subcutaneous inoculations on pregnant cows or sheep,  
6 where the consequences varied according to the term of gestation (Dubey *et al.* 1990,  
7 1992; Conrad *et al.* 1993; Barr *et al.* 1994; Adrianarivo *et al.* 2000, 2001).

8 The possibility of venereal transmission of neosporosis has been investigated after *N.*  
9 *caninum* DNA was found in semen from naturally infected bulls (Ortega-Mora *et al.*  
10 2003). Experimental studies have shown that heifers are highly susceptible to  
11 intrauterine inoculation of semen spiked with tachyzoites at different doses, from  $10^2$   
12 to  $10^7$ , where persistent specific serum antibody responses were detected with doses  
13 from  $5 \times 10^4$  tachyzoites. There was also a direct relation between the inoculated dose  
14 and fertility reduction (Serrano-Martinez *et al.* 2007a, 2007b). Adult cows were less  
15 susceptible to becoming infected using this route of inoculation, although one animal  
16 inoculated with  $5 \times 10^5$  tachyzoites developed serological antibodies against *N. caninum*  
17 (Canada *et al.* 2006; Serrano-Martinez *et al.* 2007b). Further studies failed to  
18 demonstrate venereal transmission of *N. caninum* infection from experimentally  
19 infected bulls to heifers, either through artificial insemination with semen pooled from  
20 these bulls (Ferre *et al.* 2008) or through natural breeding (Osoro *et al.* 2009). A similar  
21 approach was investigated in sheep, where experimentally infected rams did not  
22 transmit the infection to adult ewes after natural breeding (Syed-Hussain *et al.* 2013).

23 Even though sporulated oocysts purified from infected dogs are difficult to obtain, they  
24 have been employed in a number of studies to reproduce the disease (Table 1). These

1 studies have found that infection of pregnant cattle after oral inoculation of sporulated  
2 oocysts is possible. Similarly to what has been described in tachyzoite inoculated  
3 animals, the establishment of the infection and the occurrence of abortions or  
4 transplacental transmission depends very much on the combination between the dose  
5 administered and the stage of gestation (Trees *et al.* 2002; Gondim *et al.* 2004;  
6 McCann *et al.* 2007). Vertical transmission of the infection is more likely to occur in the  
7 second half of gestation, as a dose of  $1.5 \times 10^3$  oocysts at day 169 of gestation in cattle  
8 effectively caused transplacental transmission to the foetus while a higher dose, of  
9  $7 \times 10^4$ , at day 70 of gestation failed to cause foetal infection (Gondim *et al.* 2004).  
10 However, comparisons between different studies using oocysts are difficult, as there  
11 might be significant variability in the viability of oocysts, so the verification of the  
12 infectivity by bioassay was recommended as a way to standardized protocols  
13 (reviewed by Dubey, 2009).

14 *Parasite strain/isolate.* Clear differences in virulence among isolates of *N. caninum*  
15 were shown by variations between isolates in their ability to produce lesions, vertical  
16 transmission and immunological effects in a murine experimental model (Regidor-  
17 Cerrillo *et al.* 2010). In the numerous experimental infections carried out in pregnant  
18 ruminants, several different *Neospora* isolates have been employed (Tables 1 and 2).  
19 However, it is difficult to compare virulence between the different isolates used in  
20 these studies, as the experimental design varied considerably among them, including  
21 the host species employed, the stage of gestation and route or dose of inoculation. All  
22 of these factors will have an effect upon clinical outcome of the infection. Due to  
23 economic and infrastructure constraints involved in experimental infection of large  
24 animals, especially cattle, only a few studies have been conducted to compare

1 infection with different isolates. In these studies, the isolate Nc 1, was used as a  
2 virulent strain to which compare other isolates/strains. Caspe *et al.* (2012) found that  
3 Nc Spain 7 shows similar virulence to Nc 1, when inoculated into cattle at early  
4 gestation (day 65) in pregnant cattle, while Nc Spain 1H was clearly less virulent and  
5 induced milder lesions in the foetus when inoculated into cattle at the same trimester  
6 (day 70) (Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2009). Nc Spain 7 and 8 had shown similar clinical  
7 outcomes (100% abortions) when inoculated intravenously at day 70 of gestation ( $10^8$   
8 tachyzoites), although the Nc Spain 7 isolated showed a wider distribution in the  
9 foetus and placenta, determined by quantitative PCR (Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2014)  
10 The results on isolate virulence are also difficult to compare between different studies  
11 as most of them do not state how many passages the parasite has been cultured in  
12 vitro, prior to inoculation in the host. Among studies where the passage is recorded,  
13 there is variation, from less than 10 to 100 (Williams *et al.* 2000; de Yaniz *et al.* 2007).  
14 This information is relevant, as serial passage of parasites through tissue culture for  
15 extended periods of time has been shown to attenuate the virulence of *N. caninum*  
16 (Bartley *et al.* 2008) therefore, affecting the outcome of the infection.  
17 There was also variability regarding the origin of the isolates employed in the studies.  
18 While the “classical” isolates, such as Nc 1 or Nc Liverpool were isolated from nervous  
19 tissue of congenitally infected dogs (Dubey *et al.* 1988; Barber *et al.* 1995), the more  
20 recent isolates, originated from congenitally infected calves, such as the different Nc  
21 Spain isolates, Nc Illinois or Nc Beef (Gondim *et al.* 2002; Regidor-Cerrillo *et al.* 2010)  
22 or from bovine abortions, like Nc BPA1 (Conrad *et al.* 1993). Several isolates have been  
23 used to infect sheep. However, no comparison in the virulence of the isolate is feasible  
24 since, in order to assure infection, different isolates were mixed within the same



1 inoculum in studies where more than one isolate were used (McAllister *et al.* 1996;  
2 Weston *et al.* 2009).

3

#### 4 *Non-pregnant ruminant models of N. caninum infection*

5 The majority of the studies performed in non pregnant ruminants were aimed to  
6 conduct research on the parasite cycle or the possibility of post natal infection (Table  
7 3). Cyclical oral transmission between dog and cattle was proven when dogs were fed  
8 meat from calves inoculated with as few as 300 oocysts. Then, new oocysts isolated  
9 from faecal samples of one of these dogs were administered to a new calf. In turn, the  
10 meat from this calf, fed to a new dog, transmitted the infection and caused the  
11 shedding of oocysts (Gondim *et al.* 2002). A similar approach was used to investigate  
12 and establish the cyclic transmission between dogs and sheep or goats, also orally  
13 inoculated with oocysts shed by dogs (Schaes *et al.* 2001).

14 The possibility of post natal transmission of neosporosis has been addressed on  
15 newborn calves. Although tachyzoites are susceptible to digestion in the digestive  
16 tract, tachyzoites mixed with colostrum or milk, have been shown to be infectious  
17 when administered by feeding bottle through the oral route to neonatal calves (Uggla  
18 *et al.* 1998; Davison *et al.* 2001). The reduced production of chloride acid and enzymes  
19 in newborn animals, together with the presence of trypsin inhibitors in colostrum,  
20 facilitate the survival of tachyzoites (Uggla *et al.* 1998). This mechanism opens the  
21 possibility of vertical transmission from infected dams to calves, as *N. caninum* DNA  
22 has been identified in colostrum from naturally infected cows (Moskwa *et al.* 2007).  
23 However, it is still unknown whether viable parasites capable of infection, are present  
24 in colostrum. Attempts to transmit the infection to calves by feeding them milk from

1 experimentally inoculated dams have been unsuccessful (Davison *et al.* 2001). A  
2 placenta homogenate, obtained from seropositive dams aborting or giving birth to  
3 congenitally seropositive calves, did not transmit either the infection to calves or adult  
4 cows when given orally (Davison *et al.* 2001), although this has shown to be an  
5 effective source of infection for dogs, which shed oocyst in the faeces after being fed  
6 cotyledons from *Neospora*-infected cows (Dijkstra *et al.* 2001).

7 *Neospora* DNA has been found in semen from naturally infected bulls (Ortega-Mora *et*  
8 *al.* 2003), leading to a series of experimental infections to investigate the possibility of  
9 venereal transmission of the disease. With this purpose, an experimental model based  
10 in the intravenous inoculation of adult bulls with  $10^7$  to  $10^8$  of Nc 1 tachyzoites was  
11 established to analyse the presence of the parasite in semen. These studies have  
12 shown that there is intermittent shedding of low numbers of parasites, less than 20  
13 parasites/ml estimated by quantitative PCR. This burden was estimated by quantitative  
14 PCR, so it remains unclear whether there were actual infectious stages (i.e.  
15 tachyzoites) or just remains of parasite nucleic acids. The number of parasites found in  
16 the semen was below the threshold for venereal transmission, estimated in  $5 \times 10^3$   
17 tachyzoites (Serrano-Martinez *et al.* 2007b; Ferre *et al.* 2008). This experimental model  
18 has been recently transferred to sheep, where a dose titration showed that the  
19 frequency and quantity of parasite present in semen is in direct relation with the dose  
20 inoculated into the ram. An intravenous inoculum of  $10^7$  tachyzoites of Nc NZ1 induced  
21 one ram to shed as much as 723 tachyzoites/ml, estimated using a quantitative PCR  
22 technique. Despite the presence of *Neospora* in semen, breeding with this ram did not  
23 transmit the infection to sheep (Syed-Hussain *et al.* 2013).

1 Numerous experimental studies have been carried out to characterize the immune  
2 responses occurring after *N. caninum* infection (Table 3). It was shown that when  
3 calves were inoculated orally with sporulated oocysts, or subcutaneously with *N.*  
4 *caninum* tachyzoites, a cellular immune response was triggered and antigen specific  
5 cell proliferation could be detected (Marks *et al.* 1998; De Marez *et al.* 1999). This  
6 proliferation was evident from day 4-6 post inoculation and is associated with the  
7 production of IFN $\gamma$  induced by *Neospora* antigens (Lunden *et al.* 1998; Tuo *et al.* 2005).  
8 IFN $\gamma$  has been shown to control the intracellular multiplication of the parasite in cell  
9 culture (Innes *et al.* 1995) and is mainly produced by CD4+ after infection. CD8+ and  
10 NK cells also play a pivotal in controlling the parasite during the early stages of  
11 infection (Klevar *et al.* 2007). CD4 positive cytotoxic T lymphocytes have also been  
12 shown to play a relevant role in controlling early *N. caninum* dissemination in the host  
13 through the specific elimination of parasite infected cells (Staska *et al.* 2003). A specific  
14 serological response could be detected from two weeks after inoculation of calves with  
15 *Neospora* parasites and fluctuation in the levels of antibodies has been shown to  
16 occur, both in non pregnant and pregnant cattle (Conrad *et al.* 1993; Maley *et al.*  
17 2001). Interestingly, the antibody titre was not influenced by the dose of inoculation,  
18 as 10<sup>6</sup> and 10<sup>8</sup> produced similar serological titres (Maley *et al.* 2001).

19

#### 20 *Ruminant models to evaluate pharmacological treatments*

21 Experimental infection of non pregnant ruminants has been also used to evaluate the  
22 efficacy of several drugs. Efficacy is difficult to assess because exogenous infection, or  
23 recrudescence of a persistent infection in dams, does not produce evident clinical signs  
24 until the occurrence of abortion, when it is too late for treatment. It is also difficult to

1 find clinical evidence of infection if the parasitaemia occurs from mid pregnancy  
2 onwards. Field observations have suggested that cows receiving monensin were less  
3 likely to abort due to neosporosis (VanLeeuwen *et al.* 2010). Treatment with this  
4 ionophore was assessed in an experimental model, where adult cattle were  
5 subcutaneously challenged with  $5 \times 10^6$  Nc 1 tachyzoites while being treated with a low-  
6 release monensin bolus. Although treated animals showed a lower humoral response  
7 at certain days, this result was not significant when adjusting for repeated measures  
8 on time (VanLeeuwen *et al.* 2011). In a different experiment, designed as a pilot study,  
9 calves inoculated subcutaneously and intravenously with a total of  $2 \times 10^8$  Nc 1  
10 tachyzoites responded to toltrazuril-sulfone treatment, administered for six days after  
11 challenge, with lower body temperature, lower specific serological antibodies and no  
12 parasite detectable in muscle samples when compared with non-treated animals  
13 (Kritzner *et al.* 2002).

14

#### 15 *Ruminant models to evaluate vaccines*

16 Controlling ruminant neosporosis, reducing its incidence and vertical transmission are  
17 of great global interest. The main efforts in controlling neosporosis are being focused  
18 on developing effective vaccines, as they provide a sustainable prevention and control  
19 strategy, reduce the use of pharmacological treatments and minimise impact on the  
20 environment (reviewed by Innes *et al.* 2011). Field observations suggested that a  
21 previously acquired infection by *N. caninum* would protect against abortion in  
22 subsequent infections during pregnancy (McAllister *et al.* 2000). Considering these  
23 observations, the role of previous and persistent infections as a source of protection  
24 has been investigated. Persistently infected seropositive cattle challenged during the

1 first trimester of gestation through intravenous inoculation of  $10^7$  tachyzoites of Nc  
2 Liverpool did not suffer any abortion, while those seronegative cattle suffered 100%  
3 abortion. However persistent infection did not protect against transplacental  
4 transmission of the parasite after challenge (Williams *et al.* 2003). Furthermore, a  
5 recent study with the same experimental approach found foetal lesions consistent  
6 with Neospora infection, although no parasite antigen, in persistently infected  
7 seropositive cows inoculated at early gestation with  $5 \times 10^7$  tachyzoites of the Nc 6  
8 Argentina isolate (Bacigalupe *et al.* 2013). However, comparisons between these two  
9 studies are difficult due to the substantial differences in the experimental designs;  
10 thus, the protective effect of persistent infection warrants further investigation.

11 Several studies have been conducted to assess the protection conferred by inoculation  
12 of animals with different strains of *N. caninum* prior to challenge. In an experimental  
13 model in sheep, it was shown that infection through subcutaneous inoculation of  
14  $1 \times 10^7$  tachyzoites of Nc 1 prior to mating reduced the abortion rate, although the  
15 protection was not enough to avoid vertical transmission, after challenging animals  
16 with the same *N. caninum* strain, dose and route at mid gestation (Buxton *et al.* 2001).  
17 A subsequent study with a similar model applied to cattle showed that cows  
18 inoculated with infectious *N. caninum* prior to mating were protected against vertical  
19 transmission when challenged at mid gestation (Innes *et al.* 2001). The protection  
20 conferred by the previous infection is not specific for the isolate, as further  
21 investigations have shown that both virulent, i. e. Nc 6 Argentina, and low virulent  
22 isolates, i. e. Nc Nowra (Miller *et al.* 2002) or Nc Spain 1H (Rojo-Montejo *et al.* 2009),  
23 used as the vaccination strain before gestation induce variable degrees of protection  
24 against abortion and vertical transmission after inoculation of virulent isolates, i. e. Nc

1 Liverpool or Nc 1, during gestation (Williams *et al.* 2007; Hecker *et al.* 2013; Rojo-  
2 Montejo *et al.* 2013; Weber *et al.* 2013). Although these are promising results for  
3 vaccine development, there is a risk using live strains as vaccines, as they may evolve  
4 to become more virulent (Miller *et al.* 2002). Other issues for the live vaccines based  
5 on attenuated strains are the short shelf life and the need for a cold chain to deliver  
6 the vaccines, although the current existence of commercially available live vaccines  
7 shown that these issues may be overcome. A major concern when using live vaccines  
8 to protect against bovine neosporosis is that the vaccine should ideally not persist in  
9 the host due to the danger of the live vaccine being vertically transmitted to the foetus  
10 *in utero* (reviewed by Innes *et al.* 2011).

11 Experimental models have been also used to evaluate the efficacy of vaccines based on  
12 killed tachyzoites. While these formulations, inoculated before mating, partially  
13 protected sheep against abortion after challenge at mid-late gestation (subcutaneous  
14 inoculation of  $5 \times 10^6$  tachyzoites of Nc Illinois), they did not prevent vertical  
15 transmission of the infection (O'Handley *et al.* 2003; Jenkins *et al.* 2004). Furthermore,  
16 a similar formulation of adjuvanted killed tachyzoites, administered at early gestation  
17 did not protect pregnant cattle against abortion or vertical transmission when  
18 challenged with  $4 \times 10^7$  tachyzoites of Nc BPA1 by intramuscular and intravenous route  
19 (Andrianarivo *et al.* 2000). Several studies, where relative protection against challenge  
20 was achieved through vaccination with live tachyzoites, failed to produce similar  
21 protection when vaccinating with killed tachyzoites or antigen formulations from the  
22 same isolate used in the challenge (Williams *et al.* 2007; Hecker *et al.* 2013; Weber *et*  
23 *al.* 2013). This suggests that the lack of protection when using antigen or whole  
24 tachyzoite formulations was most probably related to the absence of parasite

1 intracellular multiplication, and hence lack of induction of protective cell-mediated  
2 immune responses rather than the lack of cross-recognition of the immunogenic  
3 antigens present on the vaccination and challenge isolates. An experimental model of  
4 vaccination during gestation, without challenge, has shown that vaccines based on  
5 inactivated adjuvanted antigens induced a similar immune response, in terms of  
6 serological antibodies, lymphocyte proliferation and IFN $\gamma$  production, to that found in  
7 persistently infected dams during gestation. However, vaccinated and naturally  
8 infected animals differed in the predominant IgG isotype (Moore *et al.* 2005).

9 Regarding vaccination, experimental models in non pregnant ruminants have been  
10 employed to assess the immunogenicity of several vaccine candidates, based on the  
11 evaluation of the desirable CD4 $^{+}$  T cell activation and IFN $\gamma$  secretion achieved by the  
12 immunization products. A preparation of killed whole *N. caninum* tachyzoites with a  
13 variety of adjuvants was subcutaneously inoculated to heifers three times over three  
14 months. None of the formulations induced the same levels of serological antibodies,  
15 cell proliferation or IFN $\gamma$  compared to natural infection, but among all the adjuvants  
16 tested, Polygen was the one that induced the highest humoral response and IFN $\gamma$   
17 production. This is a low molecular weight, non-particulate polymer that in solution  
18 can form a high molecular weight gel (Andrianaviro *et al.* 1999). A DNA subunit vaccine  
19 based on NcSRS2, a surface antigen of *N. caninum*, was effective, after a boost with  
20 adjuvanted antigens, in inducing a strong cell-mediated response, measured by T cell  
21 activation and IFN $\gamma$ , similar to that described after infection with live parasites (Baszler  
22 *et al.* 2008). Another study showed that the addition of immune stimulation complexes  
23 (ISCOMs) to native antigens of *N. caninum* in a vaccine formulation for calves induced

1 higher titers of serological antibodies and similar production of IFN $\gamma$  to that observed  
2 in calves intravenously infected with live 10<sup>8</sup> Nc 1 tachyzoites (Moore *et al.* 2011).

3

#### 4 FUTURE NEEDS

5 Different research groups have developed ruminant models of *N. caninum* infection  
6 independently from others, resulting in a high degree of variability. However, a better  
7 definition of such models will enable a more robust comparison of available data.  
8 Looking ahead, it is important to accurately define and standardize the animal model  
9 depending on the purpose of the study, keeping in mind those variables which play an  
10 essential role and have been reviewed in this manuscript (ruminant species, breed,  
11 term of gestation, route of inoculation, parasite stage, parasite strain/isolate, doses).  
12 In addition, several parameters that may influence the final outcome must also be  
13 agreed: inoculum preparation, method of quantifying inoculums, storage of challenge  
14 inoculum, selection of animals and statistical procedures. Finally, validation and  
15 standardization of analytical techniques used to monitor the infection (clinical data,  
16 lesion scores, PCR techniques, immunological techniques) also need to be harmonized  
17 in order to be able to compare the data obtained.

18 Most of the animal models currently available are primo-infection models suitable to  
19 evaluate exogenous transplacental transmission. However, under field conditions,  
20 endogenous transplacental transmission (following a recrudescence of infection in  
21 persistently infected cows during pregnancy) is the major transmission route and thus  
22 mainly responsible for the maintenance of the infection and occurrence of abortions  
23 associated with neosporosis in cattle (Trees and Williams, 2005; reviewed by Dubey *et*  
24 *al.* 2007). Therefore, the development of a standardized ruminant model for



1 endogenous neosporosis, in order to study the recrudescence processes of *N. caninum*  
2 infection during pregnancy is needed to further increase our understanding of the  
3 host-parasite relationship and for testing control strategies. Additionally, an abortion  
4 model based on challenge at 70 days of gestation may not be the most appropriate  
5 model to mimic the natural infection. *N. caninum*-associated abortion in cattle may  
6 occur from 3 months of gestation to term, but field data show that the majority of *N.*  
7 *caninum* abortions are observed between 5-7 months of gestation (reviewed by Dubey  
8 *et al.* 2007 and Almería and López-Gatius, 2013). In addition, the primo-infection at 70  
9 days of gestation by inoculating the cattle intravenously with high parasite doses could  
10 be too aggressive for testing the efficacy of vaccines; as a result, the vaccine potency  
11 could potentially be underestimated.

12 In summary, experimental ruminant model standardization is urgently required in  
13 order to gain knowledge on these relevant protozoan diseases. This is especially  
14 relevant when testing vaccine formulations, since the success of developing a vaccine  
15 rests not only on identifying the optimal candidate and immunization regimen, but  
16 also on devising the best strategy to test vaccine efficacy.

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1 TABLES

For Peer Review

1 Table 1. Published studies based on *Neospora caninum* infections in pregnant cattle and buffalo

Reference	Breed	Age	DOG	Strain/isolate	Passage	ROI	Dose	Parasite stage
Dubey et al. 1992	Jersey	3-5 yrs	81-129	Nc1, Nc2 and Nc3	ns	im and sc	3x10 <sup>7</sup> and ns	tz & tc
Conrad et al. 1993	ns	Heifers	120	Nc BPA1	ns	im & iv	3x10 <sup>6</sup> & 5x10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Barr et al. 1994	Simmental-cross	Heifers	138; 161	Nc BPA1	13	im foetal	0.5-10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Barr et al. 1994	Simmental-cross	Heifers	118	Nc BPA1	13	im & iv	3x10 <sup>6</sup> & 5x10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Barr et al. 1994	Simmental-cross	Heifers	80-95	Nc BPA1	13	im & iv	3x10 <sup>6</sup> & 5x10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Barr et al. 1994	Simmental-cross	Heifers	115-120	Nc BPA1	13	im & iv	3x10 <sup>6</sup> & 5x10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Andrianarivo et al. 2000	ns	Heifers	91	Nc BPA1	ns	im & iv	2x10 <sup>7</sup> + 2x10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Williams et al. 2000	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	-63; 70; 210	Nc Liverpool	9	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Andrianarivo et al. 2001	beef	Heifers	159-169	Nc BPA1	ns	im & iv	3x10 <sup>7</sup> + 5x10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Innes et al. 2001	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	140	Nc1	ns	sc	5x10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Trees et al. 2002	Hereford/Fresian cross	10-12 yrs	70	Nc Liverpool	ns	oral	6x10 <sup>2</sup>	oocy
Almeria et al. 2003	Angus	Heifers	110	Nc illinois	ns	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Maley et al. 2003	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	140	Nc1	ns	sc	10 <sup>7</sup> ; 5x10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Williams et al. 2003	Holstein-Friesian	Adults	70	Nc natural; Nc Liverpool	ns	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Macaldowie et al. 2004	Holstein-Friesian	1-4 yrs	70-176	Nc1	ns	iv or sc	5x10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Gondim et al. 2004	beef cross	Adults	70	Nc-beef, Nc-Illinois, Nc2	ns	oral	1.5x10 <sup>3</sup> - 1.15x10 <sup>5</sup>	oocy
Canada et al. 2006	Holstein-Friesian	3-6 yrs	mating	ns	ns	it	1.63x10 <sup>7</sup> + 4.5x10 <sup>6</sup>	smn cnt
Serrano et al. 2006	Asturiana de los Vallles	Heifers	mating	Nc 1	ns	it	10 <sup>7</sup>	smn cnt
De Yaniz et al. 2007	beef cross	heifers	150	Nc1	100	cnj; iv	10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
McCann et al. 2007	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	70; 120; 210	Nc Liverpool	ns	oral	4x10 <sup>4</sup>	oocy

\*: study carried out in water buffalo; DOG: day of gestation when infected; ROI: route of inoculation; ns: not stated; iv: intravenous; im: intramuscular; sc: subcutaneous; it: intrauterine; cnj: conjuntival; tz: tachyzoites; tc: tissue cysts; oocy: sporulated oocysts; smn cnt: semen spiked with tachyzoites;

2 Table 1 (cont). Published studies based on *Neospora caninum* infections in pregnant cattle and buffalo

Reference	Breed	Age	DOG	Strain/isolate	Passage	ROI	Dose	Parasite stage
Rosbottom et al. 2007	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	70; 210	Nc1	ns	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Serrano-Martinez et al. 2007	Asturiana de los Valles	Heifers	mating	Nc1	ns	it	10 <sup>2</sup> - 5x10 <sup>5</sup>	smn cnt
Serrano-Martinez et al. 2007	Asturiana de los Valles	3-18 yrs	mating	Nc1	ns	it	10 <sup>2</sup> - 5x10 <sup>5</sup>	smn cnt
Williams et al. 2007	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	70	Nc Nowra; Nc Liverpool	ns	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Ferre et al. 2008	Asturiana de los Valles	Heifers	mating	Nc1	ns	it	0-20	smn infc
Gibney et al. 2008	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	70; 210	Nc Liverpool	ns	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Osoro et al. 2009	Asturiana de los Valles	heifers	mating	Nc1 or Nc Spain7	ns	it	natural mating	smn infc
Rojo-Montejo et al. 2009	Holstein-Friesian	16-24 months	70	Nc1; Nc Spain 1H	12; 10	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Almeria et al. 2010	Angus	Heifers	111	Nc illinois	ns	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Wiengharoen et al. 2011	ns	Heifers	150	Nc K9WA	ns	sc	3x10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Benavides et al. 2012	beef breeds	Heifers	210	Nc1	ns	sc	5x10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Caspe et al. 2012	Aberdeen Angus	Heifers	65	Nc Spain7; Nc1	ns	iv	10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Konrad et al. 2012	Mediterranean <sup>*</sup>	4-14 yrs	70; 90; 90	Nc1	ns	iv	10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Weber et al. 2013	ns	Heifers	65	Nc Nowra; Nc S197	10	iv	1.2 x10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Hecker et al. 2013	Angus	Heifers	70	Nc6: Nc1	ns	iv	4.7 x10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Bacigalupe et al. 2013	Aberdeen Angus	ns	-60; 60	Nc6 Argentina	ns	iv	5x10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Ribas-Pereira et al. 2013	Hereford cross	Heifers	-80; 70; 135	Nc 1	ns	iv	10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Rojo-Montejo et al. 2013	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	76	Nc Spain 1H; Nc 1	ns	sc; iv	10 <sup>7</sup> ; 4x10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Moore et al. 2014	Aberdeen Angus	4-6 yrs	211	Nc 1	ns	iv; cnj	2.5x10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Regidor-Cerrillo et al. 2014	Holstein-Friesian	Heifers	70	Nc Spain7; Nc Spain8	8; 13	iv	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz

DOG: day of gestation when infected; ROI: route of inoculation; ns: not stated; iv: intravenous; im: intramuscular; sc: subcutaneous; it: intrauterine; cnj: conjunctival; tz: tachyzoites; tc: tissue cysts; oocy: sporulated oocysts; smn cnt: semen spiked with tachyzoites; smn infc: semen from infected bulls

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Table 2. Published studies based on *Neospora caninum* infections in pregnant goat and sheep.

Reference	Breed	Age	DOG	Strain/isolate	Passage	ROI	Dose	Parasite stage
Dubey et al. 1990	ns	1 yr	90	Nc1	ns	im & iv	1.5x10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Lindsay et al. 1995	Pygmy Goat <sup>‡</sup>	Adults	51; 85; 127	Nc1	ns	sc	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
McAllister et al. 1996	Rambouillet	6 yrs	65; 90; 120	Nc2 and Nc Liverpool	ns	iv	1.7.E+05 or 1.7x10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Buxton et al. 1997	Scottish Blackface cross	4-5 yrs	90	Nc Liverpool	ns	sc	10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Buxton et al. 1998	Scottish Blackface	2-4 yrs	45; 65; 90	Nc 1	ns	sc	10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Harkins et al. 1998	ns <sup>‡</sup>	4 yrs	65	Nc 1	ns	sc	10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Innes et al. 2001	Scottish blackface	2-4 yrs	90	Nc 1	ns	sc	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
Buxton et al. 2001	Scottish Blackface	2-4 yrs	90	Nc 1	ns	sc	10 <sup>7</sup>	tz
O'Handley et al. 2003	Dorset	Adults	68-108	Nc illinois	ns	sc	5.x10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Jenkins et al. 2004	Dorset	Adults	30-75	Nc illinois	ns	sc	5x10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Weston et al. 2009	Rommey cross	7-8 months	73-90	Nc NZ1, Nc NZ2 and Nc Z3	ns	iv	50; 5.-5x10 <sup>8</sup>	tz
Yin et al. 2012	Boer <sup>‡</sup>	ns	45-90	Nc illinois	ns	iv	10 <sup>4</sup> ; 10 <sup>6</sup>	tz
Syed-Hussain et al. 2013	Meat breeds	4 yrs	mating	Nc NZ1	ns	it	natural mating	smn infc.

<sup>‡</sup>: study carried out in goats; DOG: day of gestation when infected; ROI: route of inoculation; ns: not stated; iv: intravenous; im: intramuscular; sc: subcutaneous; it: intrauterine; tz: tachyzoites; smn infc: semen from infected rams

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4Table 3. Published studies based on *Neospora caninum* infections in non pregnant ruminants

Reference	Specie	Breed	Age	Strain/isolate	Passage	ROI	Dose	Parasite stage
Buxton et al. 1997	Sheep	Scottish Blackface	1 yr	Nc Liverpool	ns	sc	$10^8$ ; $10^6$ ; $10^4$	tz
Harkins et al. 1998	Cattle	ns	8 months	Nc 1	ns	sc	$10^8$	tz
Harkins et al. 1998	Sheep	Scottish blackface	1 yr	Nc 1	ns	sc	$10^6$	tz
Lunden et al. 1998	Cattle	ns	2-4 moths	Nc 1	ns	sc	$2.5 \times 10^8$	tz
Uggla et al. 1998	Cattle	Swedish Red and White	3-5 months	Nc SweB1	ns	oral	$3 \cdot 10^7$	tz
De Marez et al. 1999	Cattle	Holstein-Friesian	2.5 months	Nc 2	ns	oral	$0.1 \cdot 10^5$	oocy
Davison et al. 2001	Cattle	Holstein-Friesian	Newborn	ns	42-50	oral	ns	mlk infc.
Davison et al. 2001	Cattle	Holstein-Friesian	Newborn; Adult	NC Liverpool B2	ns	oral	ns	placent.
Maley et al. 2001	Cattle	Beef & dairy	6 months	Nc 1	ns	sc	$5 \times 10^6$ ; $5 \times 10^6$	tz
Schares et al. 2001	Goat	ns	5-9 months	<i>H. heydorni</i> (Berlin 1996)	ns	oral	$10^3$ - $4 \times 10^5$	oocy
Schares et al. 2001	Sheep	ns	5-9 months	<i>H. heydorni</i> (Berlin 1996)	ns	oral	$10^3$ - $4 \times 10^5$	oocy
Gondim et al. 2002	Cattle	ns	Newborn	Nc-beef, Nc-Illinois, Nc 2	ns	oral; iv	300-1400; $2 \times 10^6$ - $10^7$	oocy; tz
Kritzner et al. 2002	Cattle	ns	42-98 days	Nc 1	ns	sc & iv	$2 \times 10^8$	tz
O'Handley et al. 2002	Sheep	ns	3-4 months	Nc 2	ns	oral	$10^4$	oocy
Staska et al. 2003	Cattle	Holstein-Frisian	5-7 yrs	Nc 1	ns	im & iv	$10^7$ + $5 \times 10^6$	tz
Rettigner et al. 2004	Sheep	Préalpes du Sud	6 months	Nc 1	ns	sc	$2.5 \times 10^6$	tz

DOG: day of gestation when infected; ROI: route of inoculation; ns: not stated; iv: intravenous; im: intramuscular; sc: subcutaneous; it: intrauterine; cnj: conjuntival; tz: tachyzoites; tc: tissue cysts; oocy: sporulated oocysts; mlk infc: milk spiked with tachyzoites smn cnt: semen spiked with tachyzoites; smn infc: semen from infected sires

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3Table 3 (cont). Published studies based on *Neospora caninum* infections in non pregnant ruminants

Reference	Specie	Breed	Age	Strain/isolate	Passage	ROI	Dose	Parasite stage
Klevar et al. 2007	Cattle	Norwegian Red	3 months	Nc Liverpool	9	iv	$10^7$	tz
Serrano-Martinez et al. 2007	Cattle	Asturiana de los Valles	3.4-6-5 yrs	Nc 1	ns	iv	$10^7$	tz
Ferre et al. 2008	Cattle	Asturiana de los Valles	3-13 yrs	Nc 1	ns	iv	$2 \times 10^8$ ; $10^8$	tz
Osoro et al. 2009	Cattle	Asturiana de los Valles	1.5-2 years	Nc1 or Nc Spain7	ns	iv	$10^8$	tz
Davison et al. 2011	Cattle	Holstein-Friesian	newborn	Nc Liverpool B1	42-50	oral	$4 \times 10^8$	tz
Moore et al. 2011	Cattle	Aberdeen Angus	5 months	Nc 1	ns	iv	$10^8$	tz
Rocchi et al. 2011	Cattle	ns	2 months	Nc 1	ns	sc	$4 \times 10^9$	tz
Vanleeuwen et al. 2011	Cattle	Holstein and Jersey	Adults	Nc 1	ns	sc	$2.5 \times 10^6$	tz
Nishimura et al. 2013	Cattle	Holstein-Friesian	2-4 moths	Nc 1	ns	iv	$10^6$ or $5 \times 10^7$	tz
Syed-Hussain et al. 2013	Sheep	Dairy & milk	6 months	Nc NZ1	ns	iv	50; $10^3$ ; $10^7$	tz

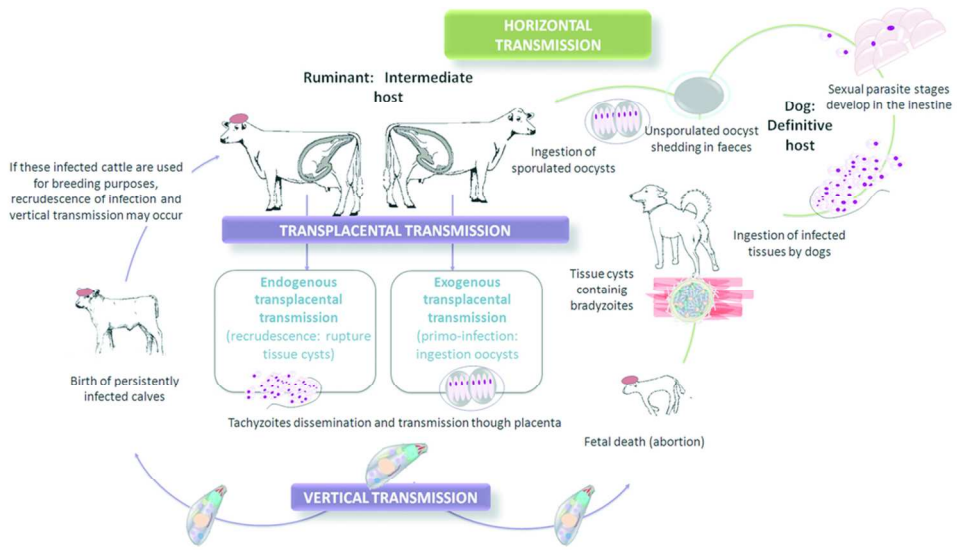
ROI: route of inoculation; ns: not stated; iv: intravenous; im: intramuscular; sc: subcutaneous; it: intrauterine; cnj: conjuntival; tz: tachyzoites; tc: tissue cysts; oocy: sporulated oocysts

1 FIGURES.

2 Figure 1. Transmission routes of *Neospora caninum* infection in cattle

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Transmission routes of Neospora caninum infection in cattle  
94x53mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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