

Toxoplasmosis and its Significance in Public Health: A Review

Dechas Mohammed Adem¹ and Mohammedkema Mustefa Ame^{1*} 

¹Department of Veterinary Medicine, Bedeno Woreda Veterinary Clinic, Eastern, Hararghe, Ethiopia.

***Corresponding Author:** Mohammedkema Mustefa Ame, Department of Veterinary Medicine, Bedeno Woreda Furda Veterinary Clinic, Eastern, Hararghe, Ethiopia. E-mail: mohammedmustefa4@gmail.com

Citation: Adem DM, Ame MM. Toxoplasmosis and its Significance in Public Health: A Review. Journal of Biomedical and Biological Sciences. 2023;2(1):1-20.

Copyright: © 2023 Ame MM, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Received Date: 24th January, 2023 **Accepted Date:** 21st February, 2023 **Published Date:** 8th March, 2023

Abstract

Toxoplasmosis is an obligate intracellular protozoon that infects warm-blooded animals and humans, causing multiple manifestations. It can cause serious ocular disease, even in immune competent people, as well as abortions and encephalitis in domestic and wild animals. It can also result in fatal encephalitis in immunosuppressed individuals; if first contracted during pregnancy, it can result in miscarriage or congenital defects in the new-born. The parasite then penetrates the intestinal epithelial barrier and spreads from the lamina propria to a wide range of other organs in the body. The disease has a complex epidemiology and is spread by consumption of oocysts that are shed in the faeces of definitive feline hosts and contaminate water, soil, and crops, or by consumption of intracellular cysts in undercooked meat from intermediate hosts. Congenital infection is mostly diagnosed through laboratory testing, such as PCR and serologic assays, which also helps with the confirmation diagnosis of toxoplasmic encephalitis and ocular toxoplasmosis. For prevention and control, programs on the parasite and avoiding contact with infectious stages; biosecurity and sanitation to ensure the safety of food and water; chemo- and immunotherapeutic to control active infections and disease; prophylactic measures to prevent the infection of livestock and the formation of cysts in meat; and vaccines to prevent oocyst shedding by permanent feline hosts.

Keywords: *T. gondii*, bradyzoite, oocysts, tachyzoite, protozoa, immunocompetent, immunosuppressed.

Acronyms and Abbreviations: **T. Gondii** *Toxoplasma Gondii*; **CNS** Central Nervous System; **IG** Immune Globulin; **ELISA** Enzyme Linked Sorbent Assay; **IFA** Immune Florescence Assay; **LD50** Lethal dose 50; **Th1** T-helper 1; **TE** *Toxoplasma Encephalitis*; **CT** *Congenital Toxoplasmosis*; **OT** Ocular Toxoplasmosis; **DAT** Direct Agglutination test; **MAT** Modified Agglutination test; **PCR** Polymerase Chain Reaction; **HAAT** Highly Active Antiviral Therapy; **USDA** United State Department of Agriculture.

Introduction

The protozoan parasite Toxoplasmosis which infects

all warm-blooded vertebrates and poses a serious threat to both human and animal health is the source of the infection known as toxoplasmosis [1].

Review Article

Open Access

Human *T. gondii* infection is one of the most important public health problems that affects one-third of the human population [2, 3].

T. gondii has developed a number of potential transmission pathways both within and between various host species. It is facultatively heteroxenous. Eating raw meat contaminated with tissue cysts or accidentally ingesting contaminated food, water, or soil can both cause humans to contract the infection [4]. It also accesses to the host's body through several principal pathways, including: vertical transmission, organ transplantation, and blood transfusion [5].

In humans, infection is often asymptomatic due to efficient immunological regulation; but, in situations of acute infection or reactivation of latent infection in those with impaired immune systems, serious illness can develop [6]. Pregnant women and immunocompromised individuals (cancer, transplant and AIDS patients) comprise the two important risk groups for toxoplasmosis [7].

The clinical manifestations of toxoplasmosis are influenced by the parasite strain type, host genetic background and host immune status, among other factors [8, 9]. If *Toxoplasma* predilection is the brain and eye, poor prognosis and complications such as glaucoma, chorioretinitis, retinal detachment, brain abscess and encephalitis can occur during acute or recrudescence infection. The most common pathologies associated with infection in immunocompromised individuals or neonates include ocular toxoplasmosis and infection of the central nervous system (CNS) [10].

When an organism infects a host, the sporozoites that are housed in two sporocysts inside the oocysts are released, causing an infection to spread to the enterocytes of both intermediate and final hosts. The three infectious phases of *T. gondii* life cycle are tachyzoites, bradyzoites (in tissue cysts), and sporozoites (in oocysts). Although the exact process for tachyzoites to change into bradyzoites is still unknown, it appears that tissue cyst development begins when the parasite enters the cell and a characteristic vacuole form. There is a decrease in the number of dividing organisms after around three months.

Tissue cysts can range in size (5-70 mm) and can contain a few to hundreds of bradyzoites [11]. Toxoplasmosis is diagnosed using a variety of techniques, most frequently serological ones. For the identification of *Toxoplasma*-specific antibodies, serology-based diagnostic methods like the enzyme-linked immunosorbent test (ELISA) and indirect immunofluorescence assay (IFA) are regarded as the gold standard (IgG or IgM) [1].

There isn't much information available in Ethiopia on congenital toxoplasmosis in children or seroprevalence statistics in pregnant women. Less than one-third of Ethiopia's estimated 1 million HIV-positive people are expected to be getting highly potent antiviral medication. Numerous opportunistic illnesses, such as toxoplasmosis, might cause thousands of people to die if a cautious *T. gondii* seroprevalence of 50% is used. However, precise numbers are unavailable, and the majority of serological surveys are outdated. According to serological studies, up to 79% of sheep and goats contain *T. gondii* antibodies. However, no data are available about toxoplasmosis-related livestock losses or the presence of viable *T. gondii* in any host in Ethiopia [12]. There is no approved treatment for clinical toxoplasmosis in cats. Sulphonamides, trimethoprim, pyrimethamine, and clindamycin, either alone or in combination, have been used to treat cats with clinical toxoplasmosis, with varying results [13]. The recommended treatment in cases of human cerebral toxoplasmosis is pyrimethamine and sulfadiazine (plus folic acid) [14].

For prevention and control the following practices should be considered includes practicing good hygiene (e.g., hand washing after soil contact, washing fruits and vegetables that are eaten raw), freezing meat at 12 8°C for 24 hours [15]. Moreover, and/or cooking meat until an internal temperature of 66 8°C is reached, and not drinking untreated water [14]. It is also recommended to keep cats indoors, feed them commercially prepared diets, and clean their litter boxes daily, because it takes at least one day for the organisms to sporulate and become infectious after being shed [16]. Recommendations specifically for pregnant women include wearing gloves when

Review Article

Open Access

gardening or being in contact with soil or sand, followed by thorough hand-washing [17]. It may be ideal to minimize zoonotic transmission of toxoplasmosis in the absence of a viable human vaccination, and this must be done by restricting exposure to oocysts or tissue cysts. It is clear that Ethiopia lacks a centralized facility for guidance, information on mechanisms of transmission, and information on the presence of viable *T. gondii* in edible meats and *T. gondii* oocysts in the environment.

Objectives Readers should be able to know upon completion of this review:

- Describe the etiology, epidemiology, history, and risk factors of toxoplasmosis.
- Identify the clinical signs and symptoms of toxoplasmosis in immunocompetent, immunocompromised, and pregnant individuals.
- Talk about the treatments and circumstances that are utilized to manage and prevent illness in immunocompromised individuals and pregnant women.

Toxoplasmosis and It's Public Health Significance

History/Background of disease

The condition currently known as toxoplasmosis, which is caused by the parasite *Toxoplasma gondii*, was originally identified in 1908 in the mouse *Ctenodactylusgundi* in Tunisia [18, 19] and in the domestic rabbit (*Oryctolagusuniculus*) in Brazil by [20]. It is an amazing coincidence that both teams of researchers first suspected that this illness originated in lab animals and was caused by *Leishmania*. *Toxoplasma gondii* was the name given to the parasite by [19]. Congenital toxoplasmosis was probably first recognized in Brazil in 1927 by Carlos Bastos Magarinos [21] who performed an autopsy on a 2-day-old girl in Rio de Janeiro. [21], named the parasite *Encephalitozoonchagasi*. In retrospect the lesions and the morphology of the parasite are indicative of toxoplasmosis. The first detailed scientific study was

studies of viruses [22]. They demonstrated that *Toxoplasma* was an obligate intracellular parasite that could be transmitted to lab animals by brain homogeneity injections intracranial, subcutaneously, and intraperitoneally. Congenital toxoplasmosis's first documented case was recorded by [23]. In Turkey in 1970's first isolated viable *T. gondii* from a dog [24], and from a child [25, 26].

Etiology and Parasite Life Cycle

The life cycle of *T. gondii* may be split into feline and non-feline infections, which correspond with sexual and asexual replication, respectively. Oocysts produced by parasite replication in the gut of feline family members are shed in the feces and proceed through sporulation. [27]. When consumed by animals, oocysts carrying sporozoites become infectious and give birth to the tachyzoite stage. Tachyzoites are the *Toxoplasma* stage that multiplies quickly and may invade all nucleated cells in the body. Tachyzoite replication results in cell death and rapid spread to other cells. The clinical signs of infection are brought on by a robust inflammatory response. When the host immune system exerts pressure, tachyzoites change into bradyzoites. For the duration of the host's life, this type of the parasite, which reproduces slowly, lives inside cysts that are mostly found in the skeletal muscle and the brain. In immunocompromised patients, tachyzoites that were once bradyzoites can be freed from cysts and reactivate [28, 29]. *T. gondii* is an obligate intracellular protozoan parasite that exists in nature in 3 forms: [30]. *T. gondii* has a complex life cycle consisting of three stages:

1. Tachyzoite; The kind of the bacterium that causes congenital infection is called a tachyzoite. Cell invasion causes an immediate inflammatory response and the death of parasitized cells. This particular parasite invades and multiplies inside of cells during the acute stage of infection. It may be detected in all organs, but is most prevalent in the heart, liver, spleen, lymph nodes, and central nervous system muscle. Human placental lesions are often minute, however animal reports of massive necrosis [31, 32]. Tachyzoites of *T. gondii* have been found in the bodily fluids of a

Review Article

Open Access

number of intermediate hosts, including sheep, goats, cows, and camels, including saliva, sputum, urine, tears, and semen [33]. Tachyzoites are sensitive to proteolytic enzymes and are usually destroyed by gastric digestion.

2. Bradyzoite; The term “bradyzoite” was proposed by [34], to describe the stage encysted in tissues. Bradyzoites are also called cystozoites [35]. Proposed that cysts should be called tissue cysts to avoid confusion with oocysts and pseudocysts. According to [36], cysts can also develop, but to a lesser extent, in any visceral organs, such as lungs, liver, and kidneys. Professional groups such as slaughter house workers, butchers and hunters may also become infected during evisceration and handling of meat. Bradyzoites of *T. gondii* are more resistant to digestive enzymes (i.e., pepsin and trypsin) than tachyzoites [37, 38]. Therefore, ingestion of viable tissue cysts by a non-immune host will usually result in an infection with *T. gondii*. Tissue cysts of *T. gondii* are relatively resistant to changes in temperature and that remain infectious in refrigerated (1-4°C) carcasses or minced meat for up to three weeks [39]. This is usually longer than the meat remains suitable for human consumption. Heating to 67°C or higher is a safe way to kill tissue cysts [40]. Some studies have suggested that tissue cysts are killed by commercial procedures of curing with salt, sucrose or low temperature smoking [41].

3. Sporozoite; Environmentally sourced sporulated *T. gondii* oocysts have the potential to infect people and animals used for food. It's possible that diseased domestic cats or wild cats are to blame for the oocyst contamination of the environment. Oocysts can sporulate and become contagious within a day in an environment with enough aeration, humidity, and warmth, however sporulation may take longer in an environment with low levels of oxygen. Environment-resistance in *T. gondii* sporulated oocysts is high. They can withstand brief periods of dryness and cold, and they may live up to 18 months in damp sand or soil without losing their infectiousness. As a result of their great impermeability and strong resistance to disinfectants

[33].

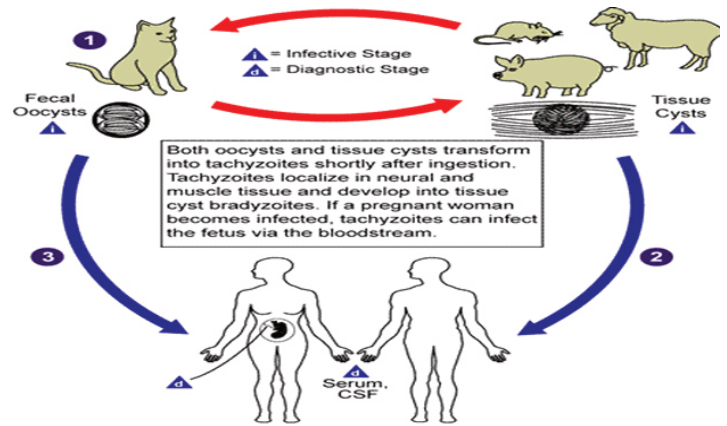


Figure 1. Life cycle of *T. Gondii*; Source CDC

Epidemiology

Prevalence

In Human

In this work, Rostami and colleagues estimated the worldwide and regional IgG seroprevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii*. Seroprevalence in the adult population was actually estimated to be between 20 and 40% in the UK and the USA, 50 to 80% in Central Europe, South and Central America, and West Africa, 4 to 39% in South East Asia, China, and Korea, 11-28% in Scandinavia, and 30% in Australia [42]. Additionally, findings from a thorough assessment of *Toxoplasma gondii* seroprevalence data revealed that seropositivity rates throughout the world ranged from less than 10% to over 90% [43]. The prevalence increases with age and does not differ greatly between males and females [6]. The infection is also more prevalent in warm and humid climates [44]. Importantly, the prevalence of infection clearly depends on the quality of water resources and hygiene. Some human epidemics have arisen as a result of the ingestion of insufficiently treated water [45]. The infection is also more common in those consuming undercooked meat [44]. The seroprevalence of *T. gondii* infection in pregnant women has been examined in different parts of the world and is estimated to range between 14% and 77% in regions with moderate to high rates of prevalence, uninfected pregnant women are at

Review Article

Open Access

considerable risk of acquiring a primary infection and transmitting it to the foetus [6].

In Animals

Using a random effects model, the pooled worldwide seroprevalence of *T. gondii* was calculated to be 35% (95% CI: 32-38%) in domestic cats and 59% (95% CI: 56-63%) in wild felids, respectively. The *T. gondii* seropositivity in domestic cats was 52% (95% CI: 15-89%) and 51% (95% CI: 20-81%), respectively, in Australia and Africa, where the seroprevalence was greater.

Asia was expected to have the lowest seroprevalence at 27% (95% CI: 24-30%). *T. gondii* seroprevalence rates in wild felids were 74% (95% CI: 62-83%), 67% (95% CI: 23-111%), 67% (95% CI: 58-75%), and 66% (95% CI: 41-91%) in Africa, Asia, Europe, and South America. [46].

Prevalence in Conventional Meat Animals and Animal Products

1. Swine meat (Pork); Due to swine's increased vulnerability to *T. gondii* infection, pork has a higher chance of contracting the parasite compared to beef and fowl [47]. Only one case of an outbreak after consumption of under-cooked pork has been reported [48]. Due to the development of intensive farming, severe confinement housing, stringent biosecurity rules, improved rodent control, and proper carcass disposal have become standard farm management practices. In many nations, the virus has all but disappeared. Because of this, hog flesh is no longer a significant source of illness as it formerly was. But it's important to keep in mind the current trend toward "organic animal raising" or "animal-friendly farming," since it may cause pig infections to recur [49]. Recent trends in consumer habits, in fact, indicate a shift toward consumption of animal-friendly or organic pigs, which include increased exposure of the pig to the environment, and this, will lead to an increased risk of *T. gondii* in products from such animals [50].

2. Sheep (Lamb, mutton,) and goat meat; the presence of sporulated oocysts in the environment increases

the risk of infection in animals kept on pastures, such as sheep and goats. In many parts of the world, such animals have high seropositivity rates. The USDA classifies sheep that are <, 1 year old and without permanent teeth as lambs [51].

Mutton is defined as meat from older sheep. Only lamb is killed for human consumption in the United States, whereas mutton is used to make pet food or is exported to other nations. Numerous case-control studies have shown that eating undercooked lamb meat is a significant risk factor. It is conceivable that the flesh of seropositive sheep contains a significant number of tissue cysts. [14], since sheep and lambs are frequently housed in pastures; the environment is contaminated with sporulated oocysts, which increases the risk of infection for these animals. Goat milk and flesh are widely consumed across the world [52].

3. Bovine meat (Beef); some case-control studies have demonstrated that consumption of undercooked beef is a risk factor for *T. gondii* in humans [53]. Although seroprevalence in cattle is very high (antibodies are detected in up to 92% of cattle and up to 20% of buffaloes) tissue cysts are found only rarely in beef or buffalo meat [2]. Cattle are considered poor hosts for *T. gondii*; there have been no confirmed cases of *T. gondii*-induced abortion in cattle [54]. *Neosporacanium*, a parasite morphologically similar to *T. gondii*, is the major cause of abortion in cattle [55].

4. Poultry meat; According to the USDA, chicken (in particular broiler chickens) and turkey are the most popular meats in the United States. Chicken is considered one of the most important hosts in the epidemiology of *T. gondii* infection [54]. Chicken age and husbandry methods are associated with the prevalence of *T. gondii* infection. Older chickens are more likely to be infected with *T. gondii* due to longer exposure to environmental oocysts. The parasite has been detected in meat from up to 80% seropositive chickens [56, 57]. And *T. gondii* is expected to be detected more commonly in free range chickens as opposed to intensively housed chickens [58, 54]. Parasite studies in muscle samples (breast) constantly give negative results

Review Article

Open Access

even in the presence of seropositivity, in animals originating from intensive farming [59]. In contrast to indoor chickens, the prevalence of *T. gondii* in free-range chickens is much higher [54]. Infection in free range chickens has been used as an indicator of environmental oocyst contamination because these chickens roam freely and obtain food directly from the ground [60].

5. Horse meat; in recent research conducted in Italy, 90% of meat samples had parasites [61]. Horse flesh is consumed raw in various nations, which may have a significant impact on the spread of *T. gondii* [61].
6. Milk; Tachyzoites of *T. gondii* have been detected in the milk of several intermediate hosts, including sheep, goats, and cows [2]. Acute toxoplasmosis in humans has only been associated with consumption of unpasteurized goat's milk [62]. A recent report on how sheep can eliminate *T. gondii* in their milk is of interest [63]. In the past, it has often been thought that the risk of acquiring an infection with *T. gondii* by drinking cow's milk, if any, is minimal, but it cannot be excluded that any type of milk is a potential source of infection if consumed raw [2].
7. Eggs; There are discrepant findings in literature regarding the presence of *T. gondii* in eggs of poultry [54]. An early study reported that *T. gondii* tachyzoites may be isolated from raw chicken eggs laid by hens with experimentally induced infection [64], whereas other studies demonstrated very low level or absence of viable organisms in eggs laid by hens experimentally infected. Raw hen eggs are therefore unlikely to be a source of infection for humans [54].
8. Water and contaminated food and soil; several studies have confirmed a link between toxoplasmosis outbreaks and water contamination with oocysts [65, 6]. Sources other than meat and water have been identified: contact with soil eating unwashed raw vegetables or fruit and geophagia in preschool-aged children [53].

Risk factors for *T. gondii*

Many factors associated with toxoplasmosis for which preventive measures must be implemented. In-depth knowledge of associated risk factors is therefore needed to prevent, or at least reduce, the transmission of CT and to open new avenues of research. The availability of data on toxoplasmosis risk factors would enable health educators, public health practitioners and clinicians to plan appropriate screening and counselling [66].

1. Age; The prevalence of toxoplasmosis increases with age [67, 68]. A significant difference in *T. gondii* antibodies was observed between adults (28.3%) and children (18.7%) in Taiwan, Increased seroprevalence with age is a predictable result due to the increased duration of risk of exposure to *T. gondii*. The increasing seroprevalence with age highlights the continuing need to educate women of childbearing age about the risk factors for toxoplasmosis [69].
2. Gender; No significant differences in the prevalence of *T. gondii* serum antibodies have been found between males and females [70]. However, the increased risk of seropositivity in males reported in one study was attributed to less attention being paid to cleanliness in food preparation and eating [71].
3. Geography; the influence of climate on the survival of *Toxoplasma* oocysts in the environment has been established [72, 73]. However, minor differences in eating habits and husbandry practices of domestic animals across geographical regions within the country may influence exposure to infection. A related study in Chile demonstrated a progressive increase of the seroprevalence of toxoplasmosis from the higher altitude to the lower altitude regions of the country, and this phenomenon probably related to geographical conditions and the type of meat consumed [69].
4. Pregnancy; Cell-mediated immunity plays the main role in host resistance to *T. gondii* infection, and a Th1 cytokine profile is necessary for protection and control of infection. Production of progesterone

Review Article

Open Access

during pregnancy leads to down regulation of cellular immune functions, and therefore increases the risk of *T. gondii* infection in pregnant women [24].

5. Immunodeficiency; The correlation between severity of *T. gondii* infection and the immune status of the infected person are well recognized. While toxoplasmosis in immunocompetent adolescents or adults is generally asymptomatic, it causes significant morbidity and mortality among immunocompromised individuals. Immunosuppression is caused by acquired immunodeficiency syndrome or therapies for malignancies, transplants or lymphoproliferative disorders [74, 75].
6. Exposure to cats; a link between feline *T. gondii* infections and an increased risk of human infections via soil contact as a possible mode of transmission. In reality, the possible risk factor for infection from cleaning contaminated cat litter trays in relation to kitchen cleanliness. These findings showed that a large source of *T. gondii* infection in humans may come from infected cats. However, other researchers did not discover a significant link between cat ownership and *T. gondii* infection [76]. The oocysts do not seem to stick to the cat's fur as roundworm eggs might. While grooming, cats may remove any oocysts on the fur before they become infective, and these oocysts are often buried in soil along with cat faeces [76].
7. Contaminated food; convincing epidemiological evidence that tissue cysts in contaminated meat are the primary human source of *T. gondii* infection [77]. *T. gondii* was even detected in one out of 67 ready-to-eat cured meat samples in the UK.
8. Drinking untreated water; In Victoria, British Columbia, Canada, the first and biggest toxoplasmosis epidemic connected to a public water source was identified in 1995. It was assumed that *T. gondii* oocysts were spread via cat faeces into a surface water reservoir [77].

Parthenogenesis and Clinical Symptom

T. gondii is a cosmopolitan protozoon [78] with no host

specificity in the asexual stage (it can parasitize all mammals, including humans and felids), whereas in the sexual stage it is specific to felids where it becomes localized in the intestine. *Toxoplasma* can become systemic via the blood stream and localize in vital organs, muscle tissue, and the nervous system. *Toxoplasma gondii* tachyzoites invade nucleated host cells by active penetration [79] and in inactivated cells, the parasites establish a non fusogenic vacuole [80], within which they replicate by endodyogeny [81]. Ultimately, tachyzoites will enter the circulation and disseminate to secondary tissues. *T. gondii* induces a strong inflammatory response from the host, which plays a critical role in controlling the infection and reducing parasite burden [82]. After the acute stage of the infection, the tachyzoites differentiate back into bradyzoites and establish a chronic infection in a large variety of tissues [83]. Tissue cysts harbouring bradyzoites persist for the lifetime of the host, and the bradyzoites are characterized as multiplying very slowly and having a quiescent metabolic program [84].

T. gondii isolates comprise four major lineages of strains: types I, II, III and the recently identified haplotype 12 strains. In mice, the type I strain is the most virulent (LD₁₀₀ = 1). The type II strain is commonly associated with human disease, the type III strain with disease in livestock, and the type 12 strains with wild animals. Notably, differences in the dissemination of these strains in infected mice correlate with disease pathogenesis and virulence. The type I strain exhibits a highly migratory phenotype, which may contribute to its invasiveness in the infected host [5].

In Humans

Humans acquire their infections from ingestion of oocyst-contaminated soil and water, from tissue cysts in undercooked meat, by transplantation, blood transfusion, laboratory accidents, or congenitally [14]. Most people infected after births were asymptomatic; however, some may develop fever, malaise, and lymphadenopathy. Congenital toxoplasmosis often results in debilitating ocular disease, causing (among other manifestations) retinochoroiditis and anterior uveitis [85]. Prenatal infection is the direct

Review Article

Open Access

consequence of a primary infection of the mother during pregnancy. Congenital toxoplasmosis ranges from sub-clinical forms to extremely serious cases leading to fetal or neonatal death. In these cases, the central nervous system and the eyes are constantly infected, whereas other organs such as the liver, spleen, kidneys, and lungs are rarely involved. Infections in the first stages of pregnancy can bring about abortion, death, or serious fetal damage, such as retinochoroiditis, endocranial calcification, hydrocephaly, and microcephaly [86]. In the later stages of pregnancy, on the other hand, *T. gondii* infections are sub-clinical, even though retinochoroiditis and neurological disorders are sometimes found [87].

Ocular toxoplasmosis is a consequence of prenatal infection only in one-third of cases and it is considered a probable consequence of postnatal infections [88]. The severity of ocular lesions depends on the length of infection and inflammatory intensity. The clinical picture presents necrotizing retinitis with variations in lesion size, number, and aspect. Lesions can be either monolateral or bilateral, with re-activation occurring in 80% of cases. More rarely, but not less serious, are the manifestations of anterior uveitis, and inflammation of sclera and papilla [89].

In Other Animals

1. In Cats; Feline infections are typically subclinical; congenitally infected kittens are the most likely to have clinical signs of infection, but previously clinically healthy adult cats may also be affected [16, 14]. Common symptoms of *T. gondii* infection in cats can include fever, ocular inflammation, anorexia, lethargy, abdominal discomfort and neurologic abnormalities [16]. Most infected cats are asymptomatic, whereas clinical toxoplasmosis is mostly manifested in pneumonia, and in cats that subsequently died the most common signs were sensory depression and anorexia [11]. Other consequences of the infection are hepatitis, pancreatic necrosis, myositis, myocarditis, uveitis, dermatitis, and encephalitis with the worst lesions being in kittens with congenital infections [90, 91]. Analogously with humans, cats with immune

deficiency syndrome are found to have a predisposition to systemic toxoplasmosis [92]. In cases of complicated ocular disease or nervous system symptoms, it is always opportune to include a laboratory test for *Toxoplasma* [92]. Ocular infections give rise to retinochoroiditis, uveitis with mydriasis, and photophobia leading to blindness. When checking for clinical signs of the nervous system, the veterinarian should take note of any altered motor coordination: signs of hyperesthesia, behavioral changes (e.g., moving in circles with ears lowered, typical signs of fear or aggressiveness), difficulty in mastication or swallowing, epileptic type convulsions, and urinary incontinence [92], cases of myocarditis and encephalitis have been reported [14].

2. Pigs; Clinical signs of the infection are rare in pigs but can cause premature births and pneumonia. Rare cite nervous system clinical signs (tremors and ataxia), coughing, diarrhea, and a 50% mortality rate, as well as still born and premature births, and neonatal deaths [52] [after 14 days of diarrhoea, revealed signs of lymphadenitis, pneumonia, encephalitis, and necrotizing enteritis, and tachyzoites were detected in all lesions [93]. Most infections are actually sub-clinical or feature non pathognomonic signs such as hyperthermia, anorexia, and tachypnea [94].
3. Cattle; There have been no confirmed cases of clinical toxoplasmosis in cattle and probably many cases of abortion were attributed to *T. gondii* before the discovery that Neosporacanium can provoke abortions in cattle [35].
4. Poultry; Reported clinical cases are very rare with the most recent describing nervous system symptoms in free-range chickens in a family run farm [59]. The autopsy on one animal showed necrosis, perivascular lymphocyte cuffs, and gliosis as well as tissue cysts and tachyzoites in the lesions [59].
5. Sheep and goats; the prevalence of *T. gondii* in adult sheep and lambs is high and the parasite is known to cause abortions and neonatal mortality in sheep [95]. Lambs that survive congenital infections grow

Review Article

Open Access

regularly and are therefore can be a source of infection for humans. In goats, apart from abortions and neonatal mortality, clinical signs may be present and the parasite can be found in organs and tissue (mainly liver, kidneys, and brain) [35].

6. Horses; Even though infection is possible in horses [61], the complete absence of reported evident clinical disease must be mentioned.

Transmission

In Animals

Cats and wild felids are essential to the persistence of *T. gondii* in hosts such as grazing animals (e.g., sheep and deer) because they serve as the sole source of the infectious oocysts that contaminate the environment.

At the same time, it is only in the feline host that sexual multiplication of this parasite takes place, so cats serve as the only site wherein genetic recombination and re-assortment of this parasite can occur. Different isolates of *T. gondii* from around the world, with isolates being placed mainly in one of three genetic strains, Type I, II, and III [27].

Toxoplasma infection can be transmitted by the ingestion of oocysts shed into the environment from cat feces which may contaminate water, soil, and vegetables, or also by viable tissue cysts found in raw or undercooked meat of intermediate hosts. Oocysts are highly infectious to herbivores and bradyzoites to cats. Infections caused through the ingestion of oocysts are considered more severe clinically in intermediate hosts than those related through the ingestion of tissue cysts [96].

In Human

Toxoplasmosis can be transmitted to humans by three principal routes. First, humans can eat raw or inadequately cooked infected meat (especially pork, mutton, and wild game meat [51] or eat uncooked foods that have come in contact with infected meat. Second, humans can inadvertently ingest oocysts that cats have passed in their feces, either in a cat litter box or in soil (e.g., soil from gardening or unwashed fruits or

vegetables). Third, a woman can transmit the infection to her unborn fetus trans placentally. Women infected with *T. gondii* before conception, with rare exception [97], do not transmit the infection to their fetuses. Women infected with *T. gondii* during pregnancy can transmit the infection across the placenta to their fetuses. When the mother is infected in the first trimester of pregnancy, abortion or stillbirth can occur. When mothers acquired their first infection in the second or third trimester, only 15% and 5% of children presented with a subclinical infection form at birth [98]. The risk of congenital disease is lowest (10–25%) when acute maternal infection occurs during the first trimester and highest (60–90%) when acute maternal infection occurs during the third trimester. In adults, the incubation period ranges from 10 to 23 days from ingestion of undercooked meat, and from 5 to 20 days from ingestion of oocysts from cat feces [99, 100,101].

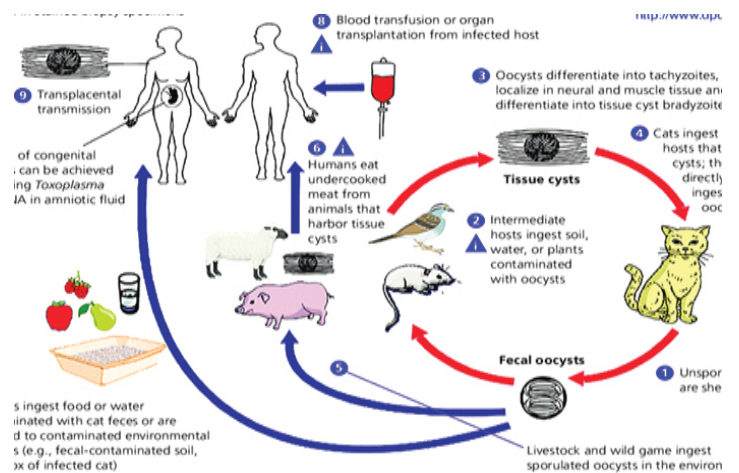


Figure 2. Transmission cycle of toxoplasmosis; Sources CDC

Diagnosis

A diagnosis of toxoplasmosis can be established by the isolation of *T. gondii* from blood or body fluids, demonstration of the parasite in tissues; detection of specific nucleic acids with DNA probes, or by carrying out serologic tests in order to detect *T. gondii*-specific immunoglobulins synthesized by the host in response to infection. Currently, routine diagnosis of toxoplasmosis relies mainly on the use of various serological tests to detect specific antibodies in the serum samples of infected patients:

Review Article

Open Access

- 1. Sabin–Feldman dye test:** Development of a novel serologic test, the dye test, in 1948 by Albert Sabin and Harry Feldman was perhaps the greatest advancement in the field of toxoplasmosis [102]. The dye test is highly sensitive and specific with no evidence for false results in humans. The ability to identify *T. gondii* infections based on a simple serological test opened the door for extensive epidemiological studies on the incidence of infection. It became clear that *T. gondii* infections are widely prevalent in humans in many countries.
- 2. Detection of IgM antibodies:** The first proposed the usefulness of the detection of IgM antibodies in cord blood or infant serum for the diagnosis of congenital toxoplasmosis because IgM antibodies do not cross the placenta, whereas IgG antibodies do [103]. Modified the indirect fluorescent antibody test and the ELISA [104]. To detect IgM in cord blood they developed a modification of IgM-ELISA, combining it with the agglutination test (IgM-ISAGA) to eliminate the necessity for an enzyme conjugate. Although IgM tests are not perfect, they have proved useful for screening programs [105, 106].
- 3. Direct agglutination test (DAT):** The development of a simple DAT has aided tremendously in the serological diagnosis of toxoplasmosis in humans and other animals. In this test no special equipment or conjugates are needed. This test was initially developed by [107] and improved by [108], and [109] and, who called it the modified agglutination test (MAT). The MAT has been used extensively for the diagnosis of toxoplasmosis in animals. The sensitivity and specificity of MAT has been validated by comparing serologic data and isolation of the parasite from naturally and experimentally infected pigs [110, 111].
- 4. Detection of *Toxoplasma gondii* DNA:** The first reported detection of *T. gondii* DNA from a single tachyzoite using the B1 gene in a polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Several subsequent PCR tests have been developed using different gene targets. Overall, this technique has proven very useful in the diagnosis of clinical toxoplasmosis [112].

Treatment

Generally, in immunocompetent patients' treatment is usually unnecessary since the infection is subclinical and the immune response is able to control it. However, in immunocompromised patients (including HIV and other risk groups), the patients need to be treated and monitored since toxoplasmosis is a major cause of death among AIDS patients [11]. In these patients, the recommended treatment is a combination of two drugs, pyrimethamine (25–100 mg daily) and trisulfapyrimidines (2–6 g daily), administered for 1 month where this combination acts by inhibiting the enzyme, dihydrofolatereductase, of *T. gondii* preventing the synthesis of DNA and proteins.

Untreated acute toxoplasmosis among pregnant women can lead to infection of the fetus via transplacental transmission [113]. At first examination, new-borns affected by congenital infection may seem normal; however, serious sequellae, such as neurological impairment and blindness, can develop within a few years later [101,114, 30].

There is no approved treatment for clinical toxoplasmosis in cats. Sulphonamides, trimethoprim, pyrimethamine, and clindamycin, either alone or in combination, have been used to treat cats with clinical toxoplasmosis, with varying results [13]. Ponazuril, an approved treatment for equine protozoalmyeloencephalitis caused by *Sarcocystis neurona* in horses, is excellent in treating acute toxoplasmosis in mice and should be evaluated in domestic cats [17, 13]. The recommended treatment in cases of human cerebral toxoplasmosis is pyrimethamine and sulfadiazine (plus folinic acid) [14].

Toxoplasmosis in Ethiopia

In Humans

Ethiopia is the second-most populous nation in the horn of Africa, with over 82 million inhabitants, and a high rate of AIDS. The finding of 93.3% seroprevalence of *T. gondii* antibodies in HIV patients by [115] is notable. Although clinical toxoplasmosis has been suspected in many HIV-infected patients treated with highly active

Review Article

Open Access

antiviral therapy (HAART), and immune reconstitution [116]. There is no histologically verified cases of toxoplasmosis in HIV-infected or immunocompetent persons in Ethiopia because histological diagnosis has not been pursued [12]. Limited data indicate a high seroprevalence of *T. gondii* antibodies in humans in Ethiopia. Seroprevalence varied from 47–96% with high rates in 97 children (aged 14–18 years) from leprosy families (85.5%) and from 427 blood donors (50–92%). This high prevalence in blood donors is important because toxoplasmosis can be transmitted by blood transfusion, especially in immunosuppressed persons or during acute infection [12]. In Ethiopia Out of the 360, 128 (35.6%) pregnant women were found to be positive for antibodies specific to *T. gondii*. Furthermore, 117 (32.5%) women were positive only for IgG, and 11 (3.1%) were positive both for IgM and IgG antibodies [117].

Toxoplasmosis in other animals in Ethiopia

There are no records of clinical toxoplasmosis in other species. Despite being more than ten years old, serological investigations show that sheep and goats have a significant incidence of *T. gondii* antibodies. Recently, [118] reported 74.9% seroprevalence in 641 goats from central and southern regions of Ethiopia. Seroprevalence in cattle was low [119]. To our knowledge, there is no report of isolation of viable *T. gondii* from animals (or humans) in Ethiopia [120].

Host	Prevalence %	Study Area
Goat	19.74	CE
Sheep	34.66	CE
Sheep and goat	74.88	CSE
Camel	48.57	CE
Chicken	38.4	CE
Pig	32.09	CE
Cat	91.67	CE
Human	90	CE
Human	81.09	SE
Human	78.92	NE
Human	88.24	SE

Sheep, goat	26.09	SE
-------------	-------	----

Table 1. Summary of prevalence in Ethiopia. CE, Central Ethiopia; CSE, Central and Southern Ethiopia; NE, Northern Ethiopia; nr, not reported; SE, Southern Ethiopia; WCSE, Western, Central and Southern Ethiopia

Control and Prevention of Infection in Animals and Humans

Toxoplasmosis prevention by zoonotic transmission control, which requires restricting exposure to oocysts or tissue cysts, may be the best strategy in the absence of a human vaccine that is effective. The main goal of toxoplasmosis prevention is to prevent human exposure to the parasite through health education. Many nations have implemented educational initiatives meant to lower the prevalence of congenital toxoplasmosis [120].

Hygiene Measures

To achieve this, suggestions include maintaining proper cleanliness (such as washing hands after using the restroom and washing fruits and vegetables eaten raw).

Another suggestion is to freeze meat at 12 °C for 24 hours [15], and avoiding untreated water consumption, cooking meat until it reaches an internal temperature of 66 °C, and other measures [14]. Due to the fact that it takes at least a day for the organisms to sporulate and become contagious after being shed, it is also advised to keep cats indoors, give them commercially prepared diets, and clean their litter boxes every day [16]. Pregnant women are advised to thoroughly wash their hands after handling dirt or sand and to use gloves when gardening or otherwise coming into contact with those materials [17]. Additionally, if at all feasible, pregnant women should refrain from changing cat litter. To prevent oocyst consumption, owners should also be counselled to keep their dogs away from the litter box [121].

Vaccination for the Control of Toxoplasmosis

The development of vaccinations to stop feline oocyst

Review Article

Open Access

shedding is still continuing, mostly using live vaccines. There are certain drawbacks, including as its short shelf life and the possibility of infection for anyone handling the vaccinations [122]. Toxovax1 (S48 strain), a live vaccination that was first created for use in sheep, prevents *T. gondii* from developing sexually in cats. Therefore, the parasite strain is recognized by the immune system, but cats are unable to manufacture oocysts [123]. This vaccination is applied to sheep to lessen the growth of tissue cysts. Given that initial infection confers lifetime immunity to the parasite, the development of an effective *T. gondii* vaccine appears to be a feasible objective [124].

Studies on a *T. gondii* vaccination in humans have not been reported. However, there is a lengthy list of experimental vaccines that have recently undergone testing in mouse models, including The only commercial vaccination against *T. gondii* available today is based on an attenuated strain intended to prevent abortion in sheep and is not deemed acceptable for administration to people due to significant safety and regulatory difficulties related with a possible reversion to fully virulent parasites [125]. Recent studies have focused on developing more effective adjuvant systems, discovering better ways to display and transport immunogenic antigens to the immune system, and boosting the effectiveness of vaccinations by combining these antigens with their T-cell epitopes [124].

Conclusion & Recommendation

Consumer knowledge of the hazardous foodborne protozoan disease toxoplasmosis is limited. Congenital toxoplasmosis, which is transferred vertically to the newborn, is one of the worst side effects of primary *T. gondii* infection. During pregnancy, it could be difficult to identify primary *T. gondii* infection. Ethiopia lacks a centralized center for diagnostic confirmation and counseling, and there is less information available on the mechanisms of transmission, the possibility that edible things may contain viable *T. gondii*, and the prevalence of *T. gondii* oocysts in the environment. The only way to lower the risk is via prevention, and efforts are currently being made to provide an effective

vaccine. Despite the possibility of reducing the risk by practicing great general hygiene, the development of effective vaccines remains a high priority for public health. The recommendations were as follows in light of this conclusion:

- Food should be prepared at safe temperatures... Pork, ground meat, and wild game should be cooked to 160 °F (71.11 degree Celsius) before consuming, whereas roasts and steaks made of beef, lamb, and veal should be cooked to at least 145 °F (62.78 degree Celsius). To make sure the meat is done all the way through, whole fowl should be cooked to 180 °F (82.22 degree Celsius) in the thigh.
- Before consuming, fruits and vegetables should be properly cleaned or peeled.
- Cutting boards, dishes, countertops, utensils, and hands should be cleaned with hot water with soapy
- Pregnant women should be wearing gloves when gardening, hands should be properly cleansed after working in the garden or coming into touch with sand or soil, and people who are immunosuppressed should receive education on infection prevention.
- The prevention of *T. gondii* infection in people and animals requires educational initiatives.

Reference

1. Saadatnia G, Golkar M. A review on human toxoplasmosis. Scandinavian journal of infectious diseases. 2012 Nov 1;44(11):805-14.
2. Tenter AM, Heckeroth AR, Weiss LM. *Toxoplasma gondii*: from animals to humans. International journal for parasitology. 2000 Nov 1;30(12-13):1217-58.

Review Article

Open Access

3. Millar PR, Moura FL, Bastos OM, Mattos DP, Fonseca AB, Sudré AP, Leles D, Amendoeira MR. Toxoplasmosis-related knowledge among pregnant and postpartum women attended in public health units in Niterói, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. *Revista do Instituto de Medicina Tropical de São Paulo*. 2014 Sep;56:433-8.
4. Fayer R, Dubey JP, Lindsay DS. Zoonotic protozoa: from land to sea. *Trends in parasitology*. 2004 Nov 1;20(11):531-6.
5. Harker KS, Ueno N, Lodoen MB. *Toxoplasma gondii* dissemination: a parasite's journey through the infected host. *Parasite immunology*. 2015 Mar;37(3):141-9.
6. Schwenk HT, Khan A, Kohlman K, Bertaina A, Cho S, Montoya JG, Contopoulos-Ioannidis DG. Toxoplasmosis in pediatric hematopoietic stem cell transplantation patients. *Transplantation and Cellular Therapy*. 2021 Apr 1;27(4):292-300.
7. Ahmadpour E, Daryani A, Sharif M, Sarvi S, Aarabi M, Mizani A, Rahimi MT, Shokri A. Toxoplasmosis in immunocompromised patients in Iran: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *The Journal of Infection in Developing Countries*. 2014 Dec 15;8(12):1503-10.
8. Jones JL, Dargelas V, Roberts J, Press C, Remington JS, Montoya JG. Risk factors for *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in the United States. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 2009 Sep 15;49(6):878-84.
9. Dupont CD, Christian DA, Hunter CA. Immune response and immunopathology during toxoplasmosis. In *Seminars in immunopathology* 2012 Nov (Vol. 34, pp. 793-813). Springer-Verlag.
10. Kolören Z, Dubey JP. A review of toxoplasmosis in humans and animals in Turkey. *Parasitology*. 2020 Jan;147(1):12-28.
11. Dubey JP. *Toxoplasmosis of animals and humans*. CRC press; 2016 Apr 19.
12. Dubey JP, Tiao N, Gebreyes WA, Jones JL. A review of toxoplasmosis in humans and animals in Ethiopia. *Epidemiology & Infection*. 2012 Nov;140(11):1935-8.
13. Dabritz HA, Miller MA, Atwill ER, Gardner IA, Leutenegger CM, Melli AC, Conrad PA. Detection of *Toxoplasma gondii*-like oocysts in cat feces and estimates of the environmental oocyst burden. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*. 2007 Dec 1;231(11):1676-84.
14. Dubey JP, Jones JL. *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in humans and animals in the United States. *International journal for parasitology*. 2008 Sep 1;38(11):1257-78.
15. Jones JL, Kruszon-Moran D, Sanders-Lewis K, Wilson M. *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in the United States, 1999-2004, decline from the prior decade. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene*. 2007 Sep 1;77(3):405-10.
16. Vollaire MR, Radecki SV, Lappin MR. Seroprevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* antibodies in clinically ill cats in the United States. *American journal of veterinary research*. 2005 May 1;66(5):874-7.
17. Mitchell SM, Zajac AM, Kennedy T, Davis W, Dubey JP, Lindsay DS. Prevention of recrudescence of toxoplasmic encephalitis using ponazuril in an immunodeficient mouse model. *Journal of Eukaryotic Microbiology*. 2006 Nov;53:S164-5.
18. Nicolle C. Sur une infection a corps de Leishman (on organismes voisins) du gondi. *CR Acad Sci*. 1908;147:736.
19. Nicole C, Manceaux L. Sur un protozoaire nouveau du gondii. In *Acad Sci* 1909 (Vol. 147, pp. 763-766).
20. Splendore A. Un nuovo protozoa parassita deconigli incontrato nelle lesioni anatomiche d'une malattia che ricorda in molti punti il Kala-azar dell'uomo. Nota preliminare pel. *Rev Soc Sci Sao Paulo*. 1908;3:109-12.

Review Article

Open Access

21. Torres CM. Sur une nouvelle maladie de l'homme, caractérisée par la présence d'une parasite intracellulaire, tres proche de Toxoplasma et de l'Encephalitozoon, dans le tissu musculaire cardiaque, les muscles du squelette, le tissu cellulair sour-cutane et le tissu nerveux. CR Soc. Biol. 1927;97:1778-81.
22. Sabin AB, Olitsky PK. Toxoplasma and obligate intracellular parasitism. Science. 1937 Apr 2;85(2205):336-8.
23. Wolf A, Cowen D, Paige B. Human toxoplasmosis: occurrence in infants as an encephalomyelitis verification by transmission to animals. Science. 1939 Mar 10;89(2306):226-7.
24. Kolören Z, Dubey JP. A review of toxoplasmosis in humans and animals in Turkey. Parasitology. 2020 Jan;147(1):12-28.
25. Ekmen H, Altay G, Altıntaş K. Isolation of Toxoplasma gondii from a newborn with congenital toxoplasmosis. InAbstract book of the 16th Turkish Microbiology Congress held in Izmir, Turkey 1974 (pp. 291-294).
26. Döşkaya M, Caner A, Ajzenberg D, Değirmenci A, Dardé ML, Can H, Erdoğan DD, Korkmaz M, Üner A, Güngör Ç, Altıntaş K. Isolation of Toxoplasma gondii strains similar to Africa 1 genotype in Turkey. Parasitology International. 2013 Oct 1;62(5):471-4.
27. Dubey JP, Miller NL, Frenkel J. The Toxoplasma gondii oocyst from cat feces. The Journal of experimental medicine. 1970 Oct 1;132(4):636-62.
28. Luft B, Conley F, Remington J, Laverdiere M, Levine J, Strandberg D, Wagner K, Craven P, File T, Rice N, Meunier-Carpentier F. Outbreak of central-nervous-system toxoplasmosis in western Europe and North America. The Lancet. 1983 Apr 9;321(8328):781-4.
29. Wong B. Parasitic diseases in immunocompromised hosts. The American journal of medicine. 1984 Mar 1;76(3):479-86.
30. Remington JS, Wilson CB, Nizet V, Klein JO, Maldonado Y. Infectious diseases of the fetus and newborn E-book. Elsevier Health Sciences; 2010 Aug 27.
31. Jones JL, Lopez A, Wilson M, Schulkin J, Gibbs R. Congenital toxoplasmosis: a review. Obstetrical & gynecological survey. 2001 May 1;56(5):296-305.
32. Stanić Ž, Fureš R. Toxoplasmosis: a global zoonosis. Veterinaria. 2020 Nov 17;69(1).
33. Tenter AM. Toxoplasma gondii in animals used for human consumption. Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz. 2009;104:364-9.
34. Frenkel JK, Dubey JP, Miller NL. Toxoplasma gondii in cats: fecal stages identified as coccidian oocysts. Science. 1970 Feb 6;167(3919):893-6.
35. Dubey JP, Beattie CP. Toxoplasmosis of animals and man. CRC Press, Inc.; 1988.
36. Dubey JP, Hattel AL, Lindsay DS, Topper MJ. Neonatal Neospora caninum infection in dogs: isolation of the causative agent and experimental transmission.
37. Jacobs L, Remington JS, Melton ML. The resistance of the encysted form of Toxoplasma gondii. The Journal of parasitology. 1960 Feb 1;46(1):11-21.
38. Dubey JP. Re-examination of resistance of Toxoplasma gondii tachyzoites and bradyzoites to pepsin and trypsin digestion. Parasitology. 1998 Jan;116(1):43-50.
39. Dubey JP, Kotula AW, Sharar A, Andrews CD, Lindsay DS. Effect of high temperature on infectivity of Toxoplasma gondii tissue cysts in pork. The Journal of parasitology. 1990 Apr 1:201-4.

Review Article

Open Access

40. Dubey JP. The scientific basis for prevention of *Toxoplasma gondii* infection: studies on tissue cyst survival, risk factors and hygiene measures. In *Congenital toxoplasmosis: scientific background, clinical management and control 2000* (pp. 271-275). Springer Paris.
41. Hill DE, Sreekumar C, Gamble HR, Dubey JP. Effect of commonly used enhancement solutions on the viability of *Toxoplasma gondii* tissue cysts in pork loin. *Journal of food protection*. 2004 Oct;67(10):2230-3.
42. Calvet G, Aguiar RS, Melo AS, Sampaio SA, De Filippis I, Fabri A, Araujo ES, de Sequeira PC, de Mendonça MC, de Oliveira L, Tschoeke DA. Detection and sequencing of Zika virus from amniotic fluid of fetuses with microcephaly in Brazil: a case study. *The Lancet infectious diseases*. 2016 Jun 1;16(6):653-60.
43. Bigna JJ, Tochie JN, Tounouga DN, Bekolo AO, Ymele NS, Youda EL, Sime PS, Nansseu JR. Global, regional, and country seroprevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* in pregnant women: a systematic review, modelling and meta-analysis. *Scientific Reports*. 2020 Jul 21;10(1):1-0.
44. Bojar I, Szymanska J. Environmental exposure of pregnant women to infection with *Toxoplasma gondii*-state of the art. *Annals of Agricultural and Environmental Medicine*. 2010;17(2):209-14.
45. Jones JL, Dubey JP. Waterborne toxoplasmosis—recent developments. *Experimental parasitology*. 2010 Jan 1;124(1):10-25.
46. Montazeri M, Mikaeili Galeh T, Moosazadeh M, Sarvi S, Dodangeh S, Javidnia J, Sharif M, Daryani A. The global serological prevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* in felids during the last five decades (1967–2017): a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Parasites & vectors*. 2020 Dec;13(1):1-0.
47. Hill DE, Dubey JP. *Toxoplasma gondii* prevalence in farm animals in the United States. *International journal for parasitology*. 2013 Feb 1;43(2):107-13.
48. Choi WY, Nam HW, Kwak NH, Huh W, Kim YR, Kang MW, Cho SY, Dubey JP. Foodborne outbreaks of human toxoplasmosis. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 1997 May 1;175(5):1280-2.
49. Kijlstra A, Eissen OA, Cornelissen J, Munniksmas K, Eijck I, Kortbeek T. *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in animal-friendly pig production systems. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science*. 2004 Sep 1;45(9):3165-9.
50. Hill DE, Haley CH, Wagner B, Gamble HR, Dubey JP. Seroprevalence of and risk factors for *Toxoplasma gondii* in the US swine herd using sera collected during the National Animal Health Monitoring Survey (Swine 2006). *Zoonoses and Public Health*. 2010 Feb;57(1):53-9.
51. Dubey JP, Lago EG, Gennari SM, Su C, Jones JL. Toxoplasmosis in humans and animals in Brazil: high prevalence, high burden of disease, and epidemiology. *Parasitology*. 2012 Sep;139(11):1375-424.
52. Cenci-Goga BT, Rossitto PV, Sechi P, McCrindle CM, Cullor JS. *Toxoplasma* in animals, food, and humans: an old parasite of new concern. *Foodborne Pathogens and Disease*. 2011 Jul 1;8(7):751-62.
53. Cook AJ, Holliman R, Gilbert RE, Buffolano W, Zufferey J, Petersen E, Jenum PA, Foulon W, Semprini AE, Dunn DT. Sources of toxoplasma infection in pregnant women: European multicentre case-control study. *Commentary: Congenital toxoplasmosis—further thought for food*. *Bmj*. 2000 Jul 15;321(7254):142-7.
54. Dubey JP. *Toxoplasma gondii* infections in chickens (*Gallus domesticus*): prevalence, clinical disease, diagnosis and public health significance. *Zoonoses and public health*. 2010 Feb;57(1):60-73.

Review Article

Open Access

55. Dubey JP, Schares G, Ortega-Mora L. Epidemiology and control of neosporosis and *Neospora caninum*. *Clinical microbiology reviews*. 2007 Apr;20(2):323-67.
56. da Silva DS, Bahia-Oliveira LM, Shen SK, Kwok OC, Lehman T, Dubey JP. Prevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* in chickens from an area in southern Brazil highly endemic to humans. *Journal of Parasitology*. 2003 Apr;89(2):394-6.
57. Lehmann T, Marcet PL, Graham DH, Dahl ER, Dubey JP. Globalization and the population structure of *Toxoplasma gondii*. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2006 Jul 25;103(30):11423-8.
58. Dubey JP, Hill DE, Jones JL, Hightower AW, Kirkland E, Roberts JM, Marcet PL, Lehmann T, Vianna MC, Miska K, Sreekumar C. Prevalence of viable *Toxoplasma gondii* in beef, chicken, and pork from retail meat stores in the United States: risk assessment to consumers. *Journal of Parasitology*. 2005 Oct;91(5):1082-93.
59. Dubey JP, Webb DM, Sundar N, Velmurugan GV, Bandini LA, Kwok OC, Su C. Endemic avian toxoplasmosis on a farm in Illinois: clinical disease, diagnosis, biologic and genetic characteristics of *Toxoplasma gondii* isolates from chickens (*Gallus domesticus*), and a goose (*Anser anser*). *Veterinary Parasitology*. 2007 Sep 30;148(3-4):207-12.
60. Tilahun G, Tiao N, Ferreira LR, Choudhary S, Oliveira S, Verma SK, Kwok OC, Molla B, Saville WJ, Medhin G, Kassa T. Prevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* from free-range chickens (*Gallus domesticus*) from Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *The Journal of Parasitology*. 2013 Aug;99(4):740-1.
61. Tassi P. *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in horses. A review. *Parassitologia*. 2007 Jun 1;49(1-2):7-15.
62. Meerburg BG, Riel JV, Cornelissen JB, Kijlstra A, Mul MF. Cats and goat whey associated with *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in pigs. *Vector-Borne & Zoonotic Diseases*. 2006 Sep 1;6(3):266-74.
63. Fusco G, Rinaldi L, Guarino A, Proroga YT, Pesce A, Cringoli G. *Toxoplasma gondii* in sheep from the Campania region (Italy). *Veterinary parasitology*. 2007 Nov 10;149(3-4):271-4.
64. Jacobs L, Melton ML. Toxoplasmosis in chickens. *The Journal of parasitology*. 1966 Dec 1:1158-62.
65. Kijlstra A, Jongert E. *Toxoplasma*-safe meat: close to reality?. *Trends in parasitology*. 2009 Jan 1;25(1):18-22.
66. Elsheikha HM. Congenital toxoplasmosis: priorities for further health promotion action. *Public health*. 2008 Apr 1;122(4):335-53.
67. Nash JQ, Chissel S, Jones J, Warburton F, Verlander NQ. Risk factors for toxoplasmosis in pregnant women in Kent, United Kingdom. *Epidemiology & Infection*. 2005 Jun;133(3):475-83.
68. Bellali H, Pelloux H, Villena I, Fricker-Hidalgo H, Le Strat Y, Goulet V. Prevalence of toxoplasmosis in France in 1998: is there a difference between men and women? At what age do children become infected?. *Revue d'épidémiologie et de santé publique*. 2013 Aug 1;61(4):311-7.
69. Elsheikha HM. Congenital toxoplasmosis: priorities for further health promotion action. *Public health*. 2008 Apr 1;122(4):335-53.
70. Fiedler K, Hülse C, Straube W, Briese V. Toxoplasmosis-antibody seroprevalence in Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania. *Zentralblatt für Gynäkologie*. 1999 Jan 1;121(5):239-43.
71. Weigel RM, Dubey JP, Dyer D, Siegel AM. Risk factors for infection with *Toxoplasma gondii* for residents and workers on swine farms in Illinois. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene*. 1999 May;60(5):793-8.
72. Ertug S, Okyay P, Turkmen M, Yuksel H. Seroprevalence and risk factors for toxoplasma infection among pregnant women in Aydin Province, Turkey. *BMC public health*. 2005 Dec;5(1):1-6.

Review Article

Open Access

73. Bethea DA. *Detection of Toxoplasma gondii in fresh produce* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia).
74. Güleşçi E, Otkun MT. Investigation of anti-Toxoplasma antibodies in patients with hematological malignancy. *Turkiye Parazitoloji Dergisi*. 2005 Jan 1;29(2):85-8.
75. Simpore J, Savadogo A, Ilboudo D, Nadambega MC, Esposito M, Yara J, Pignatelli S, Pietra V, Musumeci S. Toxoplasma gondii, HCV, and HBV seroprevalence and co-infection among HIV-positive and-negative pregnant women in Burkina Faso. *Journal of medical virology*. 2006 Jun;78(6):730-3.
76. Alvarado-Esquivel C, Torres-Castorena A, Liesenfeld O, García-López CR, Estrada-Martínez S, Sifuentes-Alvarez A, Marsal-Hernández JF, Esquivel-Cruz R, Sandoval-Herrera F, Castaneda JA, Dubey JP. Seroepidemiology of Toxoplasma gondii infection in pregnant women in rural Durango, Mexico. *Journal of Parasitology*. 2009 Apr;95(2):271-4.
77. Asthana SP, Macpherson CN, Weiss SH, Stephens R, Denny TN, Sharma RN, Dubey JP. Seroprevalence of Toxoplasma gondii in pregnant women and cats in Grenada, West Indies. *Journal of Parasitology*. 2006 Jun;92(3):644-5.
78. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/taxonomy>
79. Morisaki JH, Heuser JE, Sibley LD. Invasion of Toxoplasma gondii occurs by active penetration of the host cell. *Journal of cell science*. 1995 Jun 1;108(6):2457-64.
80. Mordue DG, Håkansson S, Niesman I, Sibley LD. Toxoplasma gondii resides in a vacuole that avoids fusion with host cell endocytic and exocytic vesicular trafficking pathways. *Experimental parasitology*. 1999 Jun 1;92(2):87-99.
81. Goldman M, Carver RK, Sulzer AJ. Reproduction of Toxoplasma gondii by internal budding. *The Journal of parasitology*. 1958 Apr 1;44(2):161-71.
82. Suzuki Y, Orellana MA, Schreiber RD, Remington JS. Interferon- γ : the major mediator of resistance against Toxoplasma gondii. *Science*. 1988 Apr 22;240(4851):516-8.
83. Dubey JP. Tissue cyst tropism in Toxoplasma gondii: a comparison of tissue cyst formation in organs of cats, and rodents fed oocysts. *Parasitology*. 1997 Jul;115(1):15-20.
84. Lyons RE, McLeod R, Roberts CW. Toxoplasma gondii tachyzoite-bradyzoite interconversion. *Trends in parasitology*. 2002 May 1;18(5):198-201.
85. Commodaro AG, Belfort RN, Rizzo LV, Muccioli C, Silveira C, Burnier Jr MN, Belfort Jr R. Ocular toxoplasmosis: an update and review of the literature. *Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz*. 2009;104:345-50.
86. Jones JL, Krueger A, Schulkin J, Schantz PM. Toxoplasmosis prevention and testing in pregnancy, survey of obstetrician-gynaecologists. *Zoonoses and Public Health*. 2010 Feb;57(1):27-33.
87. Bossi P, Bricaire F. Severe acute disseminated toxoplasmosis. *The Lancet*. 2004 Aug 14;364(9434):579.
88. Thiébaud R, Leproust S, Chêne G, Gilbert R. Effectiveness of prenatal treatment for congenital toxoplasmosis: a meta-analysis of individual patients' data. *The Lancet*. 2007 Jan 13;369(9556):115-22.
89. Hall BR, Oliver GE, Wilkinson M. A presentation of longstanding toxoplasmosis chorioretinitis. *Optometry-Journal of the American Optometric Association*. 2009 Jan 1;80(1):23-8.
90. Lappin MR. Feline infectious uveitis. *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery*. 2000 Sep;2(3):159-63.

Review Article

Open Access

92. McConnell JF, Sparkes AH, Blunden AS, Neath PJ, Sansom J. Eosinophilic fibrosing gastritis and toxoplasmosis in a cat. *Journal of Feline Medicine & Surgery*. 2007 Feb 1;9(1):82-8.
93. Levy JK, Liang Y, Ritchey JW, Davidson MG, Tompkins WA, Tompkins MB. Failure of FIV-infected cats to control *Toxoplasma gondii* correlates with reduced IL2, IL6, and IL12 and elevated IL10 expression by lymph node T cells. *Veterinary immunology and immunopathology*. 2004 Mar 1;98(1-2):101-11.
94. Dubey JP, Weisbrode SE, Sharma SP, Al-Khalidi NW, Zimmerman JL, Gaafar SM. Porcine toxoplasmosis in Indiana. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*. 1979 Mar 1;174(6):604-9.
95. Poljak Z, Dewey CE, Friendship RM, Martin SW, Christensen J, Ojkic D, Wu J, Chow E. Pig and herd level prevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* in Ontario finisher pigs in 2001, 2003, and 2004. *Canadian Journal of Veterinary Research*. 2008 Jul;72(4):303
96. Abu Samraa N, McCrindle CM, Penzhorn BL, Cenci-Goga B. Seroprevalence of toxoplasmosis in sheep in South Africa. *Journal of the South African Veterinary Association*. 2007 Sep 1;78(3):116-20.
97. Hill D, Dubey JP. *Toxoplasma gondii*: transmission, diagnosis and prevention. *Clinical microbiology and infection*. 2002 Oct 1;8(10):634-40.
98. Vogel N, Kirisits M, Michael E, Bach H, Hostetter M, Boyer K, Simpson R, Holfels E, Hopkins J, Mack D, Mets MB. Congenital toxoplasmosis transmitted from an immunologically competent mother infected before conception. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 1996 Nov 1;23(5):1055-60.
99. Gras L, Gilbert RE, Wallon M, Peyron F, Cortina-Borja M. Duration of the IgM response in women acquiring *Toxoplasma gondii* during pregnancy: implications for clinical practice and cross-sectional incidence studies. *Epidemiology & Infection*. 2004 Jun;132(3):541-8.
100. Foulon W, Villena I, Stray-Pedersen B, Decoster A, Lappalainen M, Pinon JM, Jenum PA, Hedman K, Naessens A. Treatment of toxoplasmosis during pregnancy: a multicenter study of impact on fetal transmission and children's sequelae at age 1 year. *American journal of obstetrics and gynecology*. 1999 Feb 1;180(2):410-5.
101. Dunn D, Wallon M, Peyron F, Petersen E, Peckham C, Gilbert R. Mother-to-child transmission of toxoplasmosis: risk estimates for clinical counselling. *The Lancet*. 1999 May 29;353(9167):1829-33.
102. Remington JS, Miller MJ, Brownlee I. IgM antibodies in acute toxoplasmosis. II. Prevalence and significance in acquired cases. *The Journal of laboratory and clinical medicine*. 1968 May 1;71(5):855-66.
103. Sabin AB, Feldman HA. Dyes as microchemical indicators of a new immunity phenomenon affecting a protozoon parasite (*Toxoplasma*). *Science*. 1948 Dec 10;108(2815):660-3.
104. Remington JS. The present status of the IgM fluorescent antibody technique in the diagnosis of congenital toxoplasmosis. *The Journal of pediatrics*. 1969 Dec 1;75(6):1116-24.
105. Naot Y, Remington JS. An enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for detection of IgM antibodies to *Toxoplasma gondii*: use for diagnosis of acute acquired toxoplasmosis. *Journal of infectious diseases*. 1980 Nov 1;142(5):757-66.
106. Remington JS, Klein JO. *Infectious diseases of the fetus and newborn infant*. London: WB Saunders, 2001; 2001 Sep 20.
107. Holec-Gaşior L. *Toxoplasma gondii* recombinant antigens as tools for serodiagnosis of human toxoplasmosis: current status of studies. *Clinical and Vaccine Immunology*. 2013 Sep;20(9):1343-51.

Review Article

Open Access

108. Fulton JD. Studies on agglutination of *Toxoplasma gondii*. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene. 1965 Nov 1;59(6):694-704.
109. Desmonts GE, Remington JS. Direct agglutination test for diagnosis of *Toxoplasma* infection: method for increasing sensitivity and specificity. Journal of clinical microbiology. 1980 Jun;11(6):562-8.
110. Dubey JP, Desmonts G. Serological responses of equids fed *Toxoplasma gondii* oocysts. Equine veterinary journal. 1987 Jul;19(4):337-9.
111. Dubey JP, Thulliez P, Weigel RM, Andrews CD, Lind P, Powell EC. Sensitivity and specificity of various serologic tests for detection of *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in naturally infected sows. American journal of veterinary research. 1995 Aug 1;56(8):1030-6.
112. Dubey JP, Rollor EA, Smith K, Kwok OC, Thulliez P. Low seroprevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* in feral pigs from a remote island lacking cats. The Journal of parasitology. 1997 Oct 1;83(5):839-41.
113. Burg JL, Grover CM, Pouletty P, Boothroyd J. Direct and sensitive detection of a pathogenic protozoan, *Toxoplasma gondii*, by polymerase chain reaction. Journal of clinical microbiology. 1989 Aug;27(8):1787-92.
114. Varella IS, Canti IC, Santos BR, Coppini AZ, Argondizzo LC, Tonin C, Wagner MB. Prevalence of acute toxoplasmosis infection among 41,112 pregnant women and the mother-to-child transmission rate in a public hospital in South Brazil. Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz. 2009;104:383-8.
115. Sáfyadi MA, Berezin EN, Farhat CK, Carvalho ES. Clinical presentation and follow up of children with congenital toxoplasmosis in Brazil. Brazilian Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2003;7:325-31.
116. Shimelis T, Tebeje M, Tadesse E, Tegbaru B, Terefe A. Sero-prevalence of latent *Toxoplasma gondii* infection among HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected people in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: a comparative cross-sectional study. BMC Research Notes. 2009 Dec;2:1-5.
117. Huruy K, Kassu A, Mulu A, Wondie Y. Immune restoration disease and changes in CD4+ T-cell count in HIV-infected patients during highly active antiretroviral therapy at Zewditu memorial hospital, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. AIDS research and therapy. 2010 Dec;7:1-7.
118. Teweldemedhin M, Gebremichael A, Geberkirstos G, Hadush H, Gebrewahid T, Asgedom SW, Gidey B, Asres N, Gebreyesus H. Seroprevalence and risk factors of *Toxoplasma gondii* among pregnant women in Adwa district, northern Ethiopia. BMC infectious diseases. 2019 Dec;19(1):1-9.
119. Teshale S, Dumetre A, Dardé ML, Merga B, Dorchie P. Serological survey of caprine toxoplasmosis in Ethiopia: prevalence and risk factors. Parasite. 2007;14(2):155-9.
120. Bekele T, Kasali OB. Toxoplasmosis in sheep, goats and cattle in central Ethiopia. Veterinary Research Communications. 1989 Sep; 13:371-5.
121. Rorman E, Zamir CS, Rilkis I, Ben-David H. Congenital toxoplasmosis—prenatal aspects of *Toxoplasma gondii* infection. Reproductive toxicology. 2006 May 1;21(4):458-72.
122. Hughes JM, Colley DG, Lopez A, Dietz VJ, Wilson M, Navin TR, Jones JL. Preventing congenital toxoplasmosis. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report: Recommendations and Reports. 2000 Mar 31:57-75.

Review Article

Open Access

123. Benson CA, Brooks JT, Holmes KK, Kaplan JE, Masur H, Pau A. Guidelines for prevention and treatment opportunistic infections in HIV-infected adults and adolescents: Recommendations from CDC, the National Institutes of Health, and the HIV Medicine Association/Infectious Diseases Society of America.
124. Masur H, Brooks JT, Benson CA, Holmes KK, Pau AK, Kaplan JE. Prevention and treatment of opportunistic infections in HIV-infected adults and adolescents: Updated Guidelines from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Institutes of Health, and HIV Medicine Association of the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2014 May 1;58(9):1308-11.
125. Jongert E, Roberts CW, Gargano N, Förster-Waldl E, Petersen E. Vaccines against *Toxoplasma gondii*: challenges and opportunities. *Memórias do instituto oswaldo cruz*. 2009;104:252-66.
126. Innes EA. Vaccination against *Toxoplasma gondii*: an increasing priority for collaborative research? *Expert review of vaccines*. 2010 Oct 1;9(10):1117-9.