Sarcosporidiosis, Equine Protozoal Myeloencephalitis Pigeon Protozoal Encephalitis

Last Updated: January 2020



The Center for Food Security & Public Health



INSTITUTE FOR INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN ANIMAL BIOLOGICS

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY College of Veterinary Medicine



World Organisation for Animal Health Founded as OIE



Importance

Sarcocystosis is caused by members of the genus *Sarcocystis*, a protozoal parasite that is widely distributed in mammals, birds and reptiles. These organisms cycle through two hosts: the sexual stage of the parasite is produced in the intestines of the definitive host, and asexual replication takes place in various tissues of the intermediate host. While the vast majority of infections seem to be subclinical, *Sarcocystis* spp. sporadically cause myositis, encephalitis and other diseases in animals or humans. Serious illnesses usually occur only in the intermediate host, though self-limited enteric signs have been seen in some intestinal infections. Why some infected individuals become ill but others remain healthy is uncertain, but the dose of the parasites is thought to be one factor.

Reports of sarcocystosis seem to have increased in the last 30 years, probably as the result of increased awareness. Important organisms in clinical cases include *S. neurona* (equine protozoal myeloencephalitis) in equids, sea otters and occasionally other mammals; *S. calchasi* (pigeon protozoal encephalitis) and *S. falcatula* in birds, and *S. nesbitti* in humans. However, many other species of *Sarcocystis* also infect vertebrates and cause some illnesses.

Etiology

Sarcocystosis is caused by members of the genus *Sarcocystis*, an intracellular protozoal parasite in the phylum Apicomplexa. Most species of *Sarcocystis* have never been associated with overt disease; others have caused clinical cases but also occur in many asymptomatic animals. A few illnesses have been given individual names. They include equine protozoal myeloencephalitis in horses, which is usually caused by *Sarcocystis neurona* (and less often by *Neospora hughesi*, a parasite not discussed here), and pigeon protozoal encephalitis, which is caused by *S. calchasi*.

While there are currently more than 150-200 named species of *Sarcocystis*, most of them were described on the basis of parasite morphology in a particular host, and the exact number of valid species is uncertain. For example, some new research suggests that *S. fayeri* and *S. bertrami*, which infect horses, are the same organism.

Species Affected

Sarcocystis spp. seem to be ubiquitous in mammals, marsupials, birds and reptiles. Whether these parasites can infect amphibians and fish is unclear. As of the late 1970s, amphibians and fish were not thought to be susceptible, and a few limited surveys seem to support this view. However, a paper from the 1940s described *Sarcocystis* in the muscles of Canadian speckled trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) and eel pout (*Zoarces angularis*).

Each species of *Sarcocystis* cycles between one or more definitive hosts and intermediate hosts, typically in a predator/ prey or scavenger/prey cycle. Animals are considered to be aberrant intermediate hosts when only immature parasites have been found in their tissues, making them incapable of infecting the definitive host. An animal can be a definitive host for one species of *Sarcocystis* and an intermediate host for another.

Definitive hosts

Carnivores and omnivores are the usual definitive hosts for *Sarcocystis*. In most cases, each parasite is thought to use one or a group of closely related hosts; however, a few organisms can develop in more distantly related species (e.g., cats and dogs). Some animals have been shown to be definitive hosts only by experimental inoculation, and may or may not be important in natural cycles.

Dogs can be definitive hosts for several species with livestock intermediate hosts, including *S. cruzi. S. miescheriana, S. tenella, S. arieticanis, S. capracanis, S. hircicanis, S. levinei* and *S. cameli.* Some of these organisms are also known to use other carnivores or omnivores, such as wolves, coyotes (*Canis latrans*), raccoon dogs (*Nyctereutes procyonoides*) foxes, hyenas, jackals or raccoons (*Procyon lotor*). Cats and other felids also serve as definitive hosts for species found in livestock, including *S. hirsuta, S. porcifelis S. moulei, S gigantea, S. medusiformis, S. fusiformis,*

S. buffalonis and S. sinensis; as well as S. muris, S. cymruensis and some other species that infect rodents; and S. leporum and S. cuniculi, which occur in rabbits. Both cats and dogs can be definitive hosts for S. wenzeli, which infects poultry. The Virginia opossum (Didelphis virginiana) in North America and the white-eared opossum (D. albiventris) in South America are definitive hosts for S. falcatula, which causes disease in some birds, and S. neurona, which affects a variety of mammals. Nonhuman primates probably act as definitive hosts for some of the same parasites as humans (e.g., S. suihominis, S. hominis).

Raptors and some other birds, such as corvids, are the definitive hosts for some organisms. In Europe, the Northern goshawk (*Accipiter gentilis*) and possibly the European sparrowhawk (*Accipiter nisus*) are definitive hosts for *S. calchasi*, which causes pigeon protozoal encephalitis. Other species of *Accipiter* might play this role in North America. Snakes are definitive hosts for some organisms such as *S. singaporensis*, which has rodent intermediate hosts, and *S. zamani*. However, their main clinical significance is as the probable hosts of *S. nesbitti*, which has caused several outbreaks in people.

Intermediate hosts

Intermediate hosts can be mammals, marsupials, birds, reptiles and possibly fish. They are often herbivores or omnivores, probably because they are common prey, but some organisms infect carnivores. Some species of *Sarcocystis* seem to be more host-specific than others.

Many mammals are known to be intermediate hosts or aberrant intermediate hosts for at least one species of *Sarcocystis*. Some domestic animal hosts and the organisms that can infect them include cattle (*S. hominis*, *S. cruzi*, *S. hirsuta*, *S. heydorni*), water buffalo (*S. fusiformis*, *S. buffalonis*, *S. levinei*, *S. sinensis*), sheep (*S. tenella*, *S. arieticanis*, *S. gigantea*, *S. medusiformis*, *S. microps*, *S. mihoensis*), goats (*S. capracanis*, *S. hircicanis*, *S. moulei*), pigs (*S. suihominis*, *S. miescheriana*, possibly *S. porcifelis*), horses and other equids (*S. neurona*. *S. fayeri*/*S. bertrami*), South American camelids (*S. aucheniae*, *S. masoni*), dromedary camels (*S. cameli*, *S. ippeni*), dogs (*S. canis*, *S. neurona*), cats (*S. felis*, *S. neurona*) and rabbits (*S. leporum*. *S. cuniculi*). There are also other *Sarcocystis* species or proposed species in some of these hosts.

Wild mammals can be infected with distinct species of *Sarcocystis*, but they also share some parasites with domestic animals (or humans). *S. miescheriana* circulates in wild boar in Europe, as well as in domestic and feral pigs; *S. tenella* has been found in chamois (*Rupicapra rupicapra*) as well as sheep; the cattle parasite *S. cruzi* can replicate in American bison (*Bison bison*) after experimental inoculation; white-tailed deer (*Odocoileus virginianus*), sheep and cattle can all be intermediate hosts for *S. odocoileocanis*; and *S. canis* or a closely-related species affected a bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops aduncus*). Nonhuman primates have been proposed as intermediate hosts for *S. nesbitti*, which has caused outbreaks in humans and appears to use snakes as a

definitive host. However, some sources suggest that this organism might normally circulate in an animal frequently preyed on by snakes, such as a rodent or small mammal.

S. neurona seems to infect a particularly diverse set of hosts. Most clinical cases occur in horses, but several outbreaks have been reported in sea otters (Enhydra lutris). Clinical cases thought or proven to be caused by this organism have also been seen in cats, dogs, a Canada lynx (Felis canadensis), mink (Mustela vison), a ferret (Mustela putorius furo), a fisher (Martes pennanti), raccoons, a striped skunk (Mephitis mephitis), red pandas (Ailurus fulgens), a white-nosed coati (Nasua narica molaris) a captive zebra (Equus burchelli), an immunosuppressed rhesus macaque (Macaca mulatta), Pacific harbor seals (Phoca vitulina richardsi), harbor porpoises (Phocoena phocoena), a California sea lion (Zalophus californianus), a Pacific walrus (Odobendus rosmarus divergens) and other terrestrial or marine mammals. Some of these species are known to be intermediate hosts, but horses seem to be aberrant intermediate hosts in most cases. S. neurona has been reported in a few birds, though it might have been misidentified.

S. falcatula and S. calchasi use birds as intermediate hosts. S. falcatula seems to have a wide host range, including various birds in the orders Psittaciformes, Passeriformes, Columbiformes and Strigiformes. Grackles and cowbirds (Molothrus ater) are thought to be its usual intermediate hosts. Clinical cases have been reported in captive psittacines and a few wild raptors, such as bald eagles (Haliaeetus leucocephalus), a golden eagle (Aquila chrysaetos) and a great horned owl (Bubo virginianus). It can also cause disease in experimentally infected pigeons (Columba livia). S. calchasi has caused illnesses in various columbiform birds and psittacines. A limited study found no evidence that S. calchasi causes encephalitis in mammals. S. horvathi and S. wenzeli infect chickens, and S. rileyi infects ducks, but none of these organisms are thought to cause significant illnesses in poultry.

There is relatively little research on reptiles, but snakes are known to be infected with at least a few species (e.g., *S. pythonis*, *S. atrac*). *Sarcocystis* was also found in a gecko.

Zoonotic potential

Humans are definitive hosts for at least three organisms: *S. suihominis*, which uses members of the pig family as intermediate hosts, and *S. hominis* and *S. heydorn*i, which infect cattle. Other parasites, particularly those in nonhuman primates, might also infect people in some regions. Sporocysts of *S. cruzi*, which is thought to mature in the intestines of dogs, were found in the feces of one immunodeficient patient with diarrhea.

Humans can act as intermediate hosts or aberrant intermediate hosts for some *Sarcocystis* species, but many organisms found in human tissues have not been identified to the species level. *S. nesbitti*, which probably uses snakes as its definitive host, has caused a number of clinical cases in Malaysia.

A toxin associated with *S. fayeri* was suggested to be responsible for food poisoning associated with eating raw horsement in some countries.

Geographic Distribution

Sarcocystis spp. occur worldwide, but individual organisms can be limited by the range of their definitive or intermediate hosts. *S. neurona* and *S. falcatula* are not known to circulate outside the Americas, where opossums, their definitive hosts, reside. However, some evidence suggests that an organism related to *S. neurona* might be present in Europe. *S. calchasi* has been reported in Europe, North America and Japan, and is probably widespread.

Most cases of myositis in people have been acquired in Southeast Asia, especially Malaysia, and were caused by *S. nesbitti*. This or a related organism was recently identified in snakes in Australia, although no clinical cases have been described there. *S. hominis* and *S. suihominis*, which use humans as definitive hosts, are cosmopolitan.

Transmission and Life Cycle

Sarcocystis spp. have an indirect life cycle, which can only be completed with both an intermediate and a definitive host, typically a predator or scavenger and its prey. The parasites replicate asexually in the intermediate host, and form the sexual stage in the definitive host.

The definitive host becomes infected when it eats encysted parasites, which are called sarcocysts, in animal tissues. Each sarcocyst contains hundreds to thousands of bradyzoites, the infective form, which are released in the intestines. The parasite is not amplified in this host: after entering the intestinal wall, each bradyzoite develops directly into a microgamete (male) or macrogamete (female), which fuse to form oocysts. Mature oocysts, which contain two sporocysts, are shed in the feces; however the fragile oocyst wall often disintegrates during passage, releasing free sporocysts. The prepatent period seems to be around a week or two, and the definitive host may continue to excrete parasites for several months or more, with a few reports of oocyst shedding for as long as 1-2 years. Sporocysts are thought to remain viable for months in the environment under some conditions, including cool temperatures and freezing, but they can be killed by desiccation. One study found that S. neurona sporocysts survived for at least 34 months but less than 44 months at 4°C (39°F).

Intermediate hosts become infected when they ingest oocysts or sporocysts, often in food or water contaminated with the feces of the definitive host. Insects such as flies and cockroaches can be mechanical vectors. The ingested organisms cross the intestinal wall into the bloodstream. In many cases, they multiply in the walls of various small blood vessels before invading the muscles or neural tissues, where they multiply as merozoites or schizonts for several generations. These immature stages do not seem to be infectious. Merozoites eventually develop into bradyzoites, which are contained within the mature sarcocyst and usually take 2 months or more to form. Animals are considered to be aberrant intermediate hosts when the parasites do not develop to this stage. Most sarcocysts occur in skeletal or cardiac muscles, but they may also be found in smooth muscles, and occasionally in the central nervous system (CNS). They range in size from microscopic to visible, the latter about the shape and size of a grain of rice. Sarcocysts can persist for months to years, though many start to disintegrate after a few months. Parasites do not seem to pass from one intermediate host to another, even if it is eaten. Congenital infections can occur in the offspring of some hosts, including ruminants, horses and dogs, but this seems to be uncommon.

Disinfection

Sporocysts/ oocysts (the forms shed in feces) can be destroyed by heating to more than 60°C (140°F) for 1 minute, 55°C(131°F) for 15 minutes, or 50°C (122°F) for one hour, but can survive freezing. *S. miescheriana* sarcocysts in pork can be destroyed by holding the meat at 60°C for 20 minutes, 70°C (158°F) for 15 minutes or 100°C (212°F) for 5 minutes, or by freezing it at -4°C (25°F) for 2 days or -20°C (-4°F) for 24 hours.

A number of commonly used disinfectants (e.g., 1% iodine, 10% formalin, 12% phenol, 2% chlorhexidine) did not kill *S. neurona* sporocysts, but 5.25% sodium hydroxide (bleach) for one hour was effective.

Infections in Animals

Incubation Period

Little is known about the incubation period in most intermediate hosts. Some clinical signs can appear within the first few weeks, while others (e.g., encephalitis in birds infected with *S. calchasi*) have an incubation period of 2 months or more in the same animal. Reported incubation periods for cases of equine protozoal myeloencephalitis range from 10-12 days to several years.

Clinical Signs

Any clinical signs in the definitive host seem to be mild and transient. Self-limited diarrhea or other enteric signs have been seen in some mammals or birds given high parasite doses in the laboratory, but clinical signs are rarely documented in naturally infected animals.

Most intermediate hosts also seem to be asymptomatic, even when parasites are found in tissues at necropsy. Clinical cases are usually the result of damage to the CNS, muscles and/or heart, and sometimes the liver or lungs, though other organs and tissues can be affected.

Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis and other diseases caused by S. neurona

Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis is a sporadic illness seen in some horses infected with *S. neurona*. Often, only a single animal becomes ill. Most cases begin insidiously, though an acute onset is also possible. Affected animals

develop various focal or multifocal CNS signs, such as head tilt, facial paralysis, visual defects, dysphagia, signs of upper respiratory dysfunction, behavioral abnormalities, asymmetrical or symmetrical weakness, ataxia of one or more limbs, and occasionally seizures. Stumbling and frequent interference between limbs can be an early sign. There may also be discrete areas of spontaneous sweating or loss of reflexes and skin sensation. Most horses initially have normal mentation. CNS lesions can lead to muscle atrophy, and asymmetrical gait deficits with focal muscle atrophy are said to be particularly suggestive of this disease. In many cases, the clinical signs in untreated animals gradually become more severe; however, cases can also progress quickly to recumbency and death. Some animals stabilize for a time before relapsing days to weeks later.

S. neurona has been found or implicated in cases of meningoencephalitis in other species of mammals. There are also occasional reports of myositis, myocarditis, disseminated infections or liver disease in these hosts, either with or without CNS signs. A few animals had concurrent respiratory signs or lesions (e.g., dyspnea, interstitial pneumonia, lung mass), and retinochoroiditis accompanied neurological signs in at least one sea otter. A few unusual syndromes have also been reported. One dog had pustular dermatitis associated with S. neurona in the skin, and a ferret developed rhinitis with large numbers of organisms in the nasal turbinates, shortly after it was given a live canine distemper vaccine. A captive coati had only nonspecific signs (anorexia, lethargy, progressive weakness), which were associated with disseminated sarcocystosis affecting the gastrointestinal tract, urinary bladder and other sites, but no myositis, myocarditis or encephalitis. Most clinical cases affected a single animal, but several epidemics were reported in sea otters, and one outbreak occurred in mink.

Syndromes caused by other species of Sarcocystis in mammals

Experimentally infected animals that are given large doses of various Sarcocystis species can become ill, and sometimes die. Fever and nonspecific signs of illness were the major signs in some animals, but myositis, abortions, pneumonia/dyspnea and anemia have also been seen. In addition, some cattle had diarrhea, hemorrhages, icterus or neurological signs (hyperexcitability). Clinical cases in naturally infected animals, which are probably exposed to lower doses of the parasite, seem to be infrequent or rare. The syndromes reported in various domestic animals and captive or free-living wildlife are similar to those caused by S. neurona, and have included encephalomyelitis, myositis, liver disease (elevations in liver enzymes, with or without overt signs of hepatitis), respiratory disease (pneumonia, dyspnea), cardiomyopathy and acute nonspecific illnesses or sudden death caused by disseminated sarcocystosis. However, abortions and/or stillbirths have also been associated with sarcocystosis in some species, particularly domestic ruminants. One group of feedlot cattle failed to thrive after recovery from acute sarcocystosis and eventually died of cachexia.

Common signs in horses with myositis caused by *S*. *fayeri/ S. bertrami* include stiffness, muscle pain and/or gait abnormalities, which may be accompanied by muscle atrophy, weight loss and a decreased appetite. Dysphagia may be seen occasionally (i.e., when the muscles of the esophagus are also affected). Myositis caused by other organisms in dogs, cats and South American camelids appears similar. Other signs of organ dysfunction, including dyspnea or signs of liver injury, occurred concurrently in some animals, and dogs sometimes had nonspecific clinical signs (e.g., lethargy, anorexia) before the onset of myositis. Myositis can have a prolonged course, and some cases have been fatal. In ruminants, eosinophilic myositis is usually an incidental finding detected during meat inspection in asymptomatic animals.

Sarcocystosis in birds

S. falcatula usually causes acute respiratory disease, encephalitis and/or myositis in psittacine birds. Most birds with respiratory signs or encephalitis are severely ill, and these syndromes are often fatal. Sudden death or a rapidly progressive illness is common in respiratory cases. Myositis is characterized by profound muscle weakness, and tends to have a more prolonged or chronic course. Some birds with myositis have recovered, though it may take weeks to months of treatment and supportive care. *S. falcatula* has also caused encephalitis and/or rapidly progressive respiratory signs, which were usually fatal, in wild raptors.

S. calchasi usually causes neurological signs (e.g., torticollis, opisthotonos, muscle tremors, ataxia, paralysis) in pigeons. Most cases are fatal, and survivors may have residual neurological deficits. There are also reports of hepatitis and sudden death, with no evidence for myositis or encephalitis, in naturally infected pigeons. Experimentally infected pigeons had a biphasic disease, with mild diarrhea and nonspecific signs of illness a few weeks after inoculation, and encephalitis and myositis in some birds at approximately 2 months. Similar early and late signs occurred in experimentally infected cockatiels (*Nymphicus hollandicus*). Neurological signs were reported in a group of naturally-infected captive psittacines. The signs in this outbreak were severe, and appeared to progress more quickly than in some pigeons.

Post Mortem Lesions

Mammalian intermediate hosts

Sarcocysts can be found in skeletal and cardiac muscles either as an incidental finding or in clinical cases. In cases of myositis, the parasites are usually accompanied by granulomatous inflammation. Sarcocysts are cylindrical and whitish, range in size from a few micrometers to a few centimeters, are oriented along the length of the muscle fiber, and may or may not be visible to the naked eye. Visible sarcocysts often resemble a grain of rice. Gray to greenish, well demarcated muscle discoloration is a common finding in asymptomatic ruminants with microscopic sarcocysts. In pigs and cattle, sarcocysts are found most often in the myocardium, diaphragm and esophagus. The tongue is also a common site in sheep.

Other tissues and organs, particularly the CNS and liver, may also be damaged by the parasites. The lesions vary with the organs affected, and may include organ enlargement, inflammation, and signs such as icterus or hemorrhages. Hemorrhages tend to occur mostly in the serosa of visceral organs, myocardium and/or skeletal muscles. Gross CNS lesions, if any, are usually limited to focal discoloration, hemorrhages or malacia. Some animals have microscopic evidence of encephalitis with no apparent gross lesions.

Avian intermediate hosts

S. calchasi and *S. falcatula* can also cause meningoencephalitis with few or no gross lesions. Thickened and opaque meninges may be seen in some birds. Lesions might be more likely in *S. calchasi*-infected pigeons during the early stages of the illness. Moderate to severe hepatomegaly is common in experimentally infected pigeons at this time. Some birds also had necrotic foci in the liver or diffuse pale hepatocellular necrosis, an enlarged spleen and clear gelatinous fluid in the coelomic cavity. Birds with respiratory disease caused by *S. falcatula* can have pulmonary edema and/or congestion, hemorrhages and fibrin deposits in the lungs, and increased opacity of the air sacs. The liver and spleen may be enlarged.

Diagnostic Tests

Definitive hosts can be identified by detecting sporocysts (approx. $10x15 \ \mu$ m) and/ or oocysts with fecal flotation techniques, including flotation/ centrifugation. Sucrose or salt solutions with specific gravity ≥ 1.15 , such as saturated sodium chloride, Sheather's, sodium nitrate, magnesium sulfate or zinc sulfate, can be used. In a wet mount from a float, the organisms can be found just beneath the coverslip. The oocyst wall can be difficult to see unless the preparation is stained. Mucosal scrapings, taken at necropsy, are more likely to reveal *Sarcocystis* than fecal samples if the infection is light. Sporocysts and oocysts from different species of *Sarcocystis* are morphologically indistinguishable.

Clinical cases in intermediate hosts may occasionally be diagnosed with a biopsy, but this is uncommonly done and the parasites can be missed even at sites of muscle swelling. More often, they are found in the tissues at necropsy. Two specialized methods sometimes used to visualize Sarcocystis spp. are muscle squash preparations and a tissue digestion technique (e.g., with pepsin or trypsin), which releases free bradyzoites. Tissue digestion is a particularly sensitive method if sarcocysts are present; however, the immature stages of Sarcocystis are destroyed by the enzymes. Sarcocystis can be stained with hematoxylin and eosin, periodic acid-Schiff, Giemsa and other stains. Organisms cannot always be observed in the CNS of mammals or birds with encephalitis, but their nucleic acids can usually be detected by PCR. In birds, S. calchasi and S. falcatula may also be found in the muscles at this time. S. falcatula sarcocysts are reported to persist longer in leg (quadriceps) muscles than pectoral muscles.

Body fluids are not examined routinely for *Sarcocystis*; however, merozoites were unexpectedly found in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) of a cat with encephalitis, and in the blood of another cat with disseminated disease and pneumonia. A PCR test was developed for the antemortem diagnosis of horses with equine protozoal myeloencephalitis, using CSF samples, but its sensitivity is poor. The different species of *Sarcocystis* have traditionally been distinguished by sarcocyst morphology, but genetic techniques are increasingly used in research. Antibodies to *Sarcocystis* spp. can distinguish this parasite from other protozoa such as *Toxoplasma gondii* or *Neospora* spp.

Serology, using CSF samples, is useful for diagnosing equine protozoal myeloencephalitis in live horses. This should be evaluated as the ratio of CSF/serum antibodies, to avoid misdiagnosis caused by the passive transfer of antibodies across the blood-brain barrier or minor contamination of CSF samples with blood. Quantitative tests include immunofluorescent antibody (IFA) assays and ELISAs. A semiquantitative immunoblot may also be available in some laboratories. A direct agglutination test (SAT) can detect antibodies to S. neurona but is not quantitative. There are also reports of using an IFA test to diagnose myositis or encephalitis caused by S. falcatula in birds. (Respiratory disease is usually fatal before the antibodies develop.) Serological tests often cross-react with other species of Sarcocystis, but there is little or no crossreactivity with other pathogenic protozoa, such as T. gondii.

Treatment

Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis can be treated with toltrazuril, ponazuril or diclazuril, or a sulfonamide combined with either pyrimethamine or trimethoprim. Pyrimethamine is more effective against protozoa than trimethoprim. Supportive care, including anti-inflammatory drugs, may also be necessary.

Treatments in other mammals and birds have not been standardized, but similar antiprotozoal agents including ponazuril, decoquinate, pyrimethamine/ sulfonamide or trimethoprim/ sulfonamide have been tried, with some apparent success, in dogs, cats, marine mammals, birds and other species. Some animals with myositis have recovered after supportive treatment, antibiotics (e.g., clindamycin) and steroids. Whether the various antiprotozoal drugs affected the outcome of the disease was not always clear, particularly in cases of myositis. Treatment often fails in respiratory disease or encephalitis caused by *S. falcatula* due to their severity and rapid course.

Control

Disease reporting

Veterinarians who suspect a clinical case is caused by *Sarcocystis* should follow their national and/or local guidelines for disease reporting. Some states in the U.S. (e.g., Alaska) require that that equine protozoal myeloencephalitis be reported to state authorities within a specified period.

Prevention

Prevention generally depends on reducing exposure to oocysts and sporocysts in the environment. Horses should be provided with water sources unlikely to be contaminated by opossum feces. It may also be helpful to feed them off the ground. In cases where contamination is suspected, steam cleaning might be used to decontaminate the horse's environment, and feed could be heat treated. Food sources that may attract opossums (e.g., grains, bags of birdseed, fallen fruit) should be sealed in metal containers or removed. A partially buried fence and electric fences may discourage wildlife from entering paddocks. Opossums might occasionally be trapped and relocated, though this is likely to be impractical or ineffective where these animals are common. A vaccine was marketed for a short time in the U.S. but it did not seem to be effective and was withdrawn. Similar measures, based on reducing exposure to feces from a parasite's definitive hosts, may be used to protect other intermediate hosts.

Prevention of infections in the definitive host (e.g., dogs and cats) is based on avoiding diets that contain raw or undercooked animal tissues. Freezing raw meat (see Prevention - Humans) might also be effective.

Morbidity and Mortality

Exposure to *Sarcocystis* spp. is common in asymptomatic livestock (e.g., ruminants, horses, South American camelids, camels), dogs, cats, and some wildlife, with antibodies often reported in 10-50%, and occasionally up to 100%, of a study population. Management factors such as sanitation and contact with the definitive host (including livestock exposure to herding dogs) can influence exposure. Pigs reared in confinement are less likely to have antibodies to *Sarcocystis*; however, some authors have speculated that a lack of immunity might also increase the risk of disease if these pigs are later exposed to a source of organisms.

Clinical cases are thought to be related to the dose of parasites, and seem to be uncommon in most species. While sarcocystosis often affects only a single animal, there can be outbreaks after common source exposure. Many of these incidents are fairly small (e.g., 10% of a sheep flock, or 0.3% of the mink on a farm), but there have been serious and extensive outbreaks of *S. neurona* encephalitis in sea otters off the West Coast of the U.S., possibly when large numbers of oocysts were washed into the ocean. High mortality rates (e.g., 92% in alpacas, up to 50% in young pigs) are sometimes reported in experiments where animals are given large doses of oocysts. Severe or fatal illnesses have also been reported in some naturally infected animals.

Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis is one of the most commonly reported forms of sarcocystosis. It is a sporadic illness that affects only a small percentage of the horses infected with S. neurona. The average incidence in the U.S. is 14 cases per 10,000 horses per year, while approximately 30-60% of the horses in the U.S. are seropositive. This disease usually affects a single animal, but it can appear in clusters. Morbidity may occasionally exceed 25%. Clinical cases are most common in horses during the first few years of life. One study also found an increased incidence in horses > 13 years of age. Stressors (e.g., heavy exercise, transport, parturition) and immunosuppression are thought to increase the risk of illness. Approximately 60-75% of sick horses improve with treatment, but fewer recover fully. Up to 30% return to their original level of performance. Relapses are possible. Some other species also have significant exposure to S. neurona though clinical cases are rarely reported. One study found antibodies to this organism in 5-10% of farm cats, and up to 40% of the cats on some farms.

S. falcatula can be a significant cause of mortality, especially in outdoor-housed birds. Large numbers of birds have been affected in some outbreaks. Most clinical cases occur in Old World psittacine birds, which did not evolve around the definitive hosts, rather than New World psittacines. In New World psittacines, clinical cases are more likely to occur in nestlings. Cases of respiratory disease, which usually progresses rapidly, and encephalitis are often fatal, and attempts to treat these birds have generally been unsuccessful. Birds with myositis have sometimes recovered with supportive care.

Intestinal sarcocystosis is thought to be asymptomatic in most cases, and transient and self-limited if clinical signs occur.

Infections in Humans

Incubation Period

In some human volunteers, intestinal signs occurred as soon as 3-6 hours after eating sarcocysts, then recurred 14-18 days later. The incubation period for myositis caused by *S. nesbitti* can be as long as 1-2 months, but an estimate from one outbreak suggests it is probably around 9-13 days in many cases.

Clinical Signs

To date, the two major syndromes reported in humans are myositis, where people act as intermediate hosts, and enteritis when they are the definitive host.

Myositis

Most clinical descriptions of myositis are based on outbreaks caused by *S. nesbitti* in Southeast Asia. Some people infected with this organism had nonspecific early signs, such as fever, malaise, headache, myalgia, arthralgia, coughing, and episodes of weakness or fatigue. The onset of myositis is characterized by painful or tender muscle swelling (which may include subcutaneous nodules in some patients), generalized muscle weakness and/or fatigue, and fever. The muscle groups affected vary, and included the muscles of the face and jaw in some outbreaks. Muscle atrophy is possible in the later stages. Many patients also have eosinophilia. Cutaneous signs such as transient pruritic rashes, pruritus without a rash, and urticaria have been seen occasionally. Lymphadenopathy seemed to be uncommon in some outbreaks. Most cases of myositis seem to end within a few weeks to a few months, but some patients have had persistent or recurrent symptoms for a year or more. In a few cases, the signs lasted for several years.

Other syndromes, including self-limited cardiac abnormalities or glomerulonephritis, have been seen in a few people with *S. nesbitti* myositis, but were not definitively linked to the parasitic infection. One source mentions a death caused by myocarditis, in an isolated case of sarcocystosis in a healthy woman.

Intestinal sarcocystosis

Many or most intestinal infections, which are usually caused by *S. suihominis* or *S. hominis*, are thought to be asymptomatic. However, some people may have enteric signs such as diffuse abdominal tenderness, diarrhea, nausea and/ or vomiting, and a low-grade fever, chills or sweats in some cases. As with other intestinal illnesses, dehydration is possible. Intestinal sarcocystosis is thought to be transient and self-limited in most cases.

Some reports suggest that *S. fayeri* or another organism may produce a toxin that can cause a form of food poisoning (nausea, vomiting, diarrhea) associated with eating raw horsemeat.

Diagnostic Tests

As in animals, intestinal infections can be diagnosed by detecting oocysts or sporocysts in the feces with flotation techniques. Direct smears are also used in people, and include the Kato thick smear, which examines a larger fecal sample and is more sensitive than other methods. The prepatent period for *S. hominis* and *S. suihominis* is thought to be roughly 2 weeks, and parasites might not be found in the early stages.

In cases of myositis, sarcocysts may be detected in the muscles with a muscle biopsy. However, the parasites are unevenly distributed, and may be absent or few in number. A complete blood count, to reveal eosinophilia, may be helpful. PCR tests have been used in some outbreaks, but their sensitivity may be low: parasites were found by visual examination in some PCR-negative samples.

Serological tests are not widely available in human diagnostic laboratories. One study found that paired titers were not useful in the diagnosis of myositis in travelers or residents during an outbreak in Malaysia.

Treatment

Intestinal sarcocystosis may not be treated, as infections are usually self-limiting. Some patients with symptomatic myositis have been given antiparasitic drugs such as metronidazole, trimethoprim/ sulfonamide, pyrimethamine/ sulfonamide or albendazole. The value of these agents is still unclear; in some cases, it was uncertain whether the drug was effective or the disease improved on its own. Supportive care may include anti-inflammatory agents.

Prevention

Intestinal infections, can be preventing by avoiding raw or undercooked meat in the diet. Freezing the meat to -20° C for 48 hours or -4° C for 48 hours appears to destroy the parasites.

Myositis can result from fecal contamination of water, fruits, vegetables, and other sources of sporocysts in the environment. Water that might be contaminated should be boiled or filtered; Sarcocystis can persist in water treated with chemical decontaminants, including chlorine. Food that may have been contaminated should be washed thoroughly, and cooked if removal of the organisms is uncertain.

Morbidity and Mortality

The incidence of sarcocystosis can range from < 1% in some locations to $\geq 20\%$ in others. Intestinal infections are more prevalent in cultures where raw meat is commonly eaten. Both the dose of parasites and host factors seem to influence the severity of the signs, even in healthy people. Many or most intestinal infections are probably asymptomatic. *Sarcocystis* spp. do not multiply in the definitive host, and any clinical signs are thought to be selflimited and transient in most cases. People can probably be reinfected with the same organism when acting as the definitive host.

A few hundred clinical cases of myositis have been reported in humans worldwide, as of 2019, with the vast majority seen during outbreaks in Malaysia. Approximately 20% of the people in this region are seropositive, and most infections might be subclinical or mild. Clinical cases usually occurred in travelers, or in one case, in both travelers and residents at a conference. Many patients were young and otherwise healthy. Myositis often seems to be self-limiting. The symptoms were generally milder and ended sooner in Malaysian residents, suggesting that immunity from previous exposures might help limit parasite replication. Myositis has rarely been described in humans outside Malaysia, although some cases might be attributed to other causes. Sarcocysts are occasionally found in the muscles of asymptomatic individuals as an incidental finding.

Internet Resources

<u>Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, U.S. (CDC).</u> Sarcocystosis

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations [FAO] - Manual on Meat Inspection for Developing Countries

The Merck Manual

The Merck Veterinary Manual

Acknowledgements

This factsheet was written by Anna Rovid Spickler, DVM, PhD, Veterinary Specialist from the Center for Food Security and Public Health. The U.S. Department of Agriculture Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (USDA APHIS) provided funding for this factsheet through a series of cooperative agreements related to the development of resources for initial accreditation training.

The following format can be used to cite this factsheet. Spickler, Anna Rovid. 2020. *Sarcocystosis*. Retrieved from http://www.cfsph.iastate.edu/DiseaseInfo/factsheets.php.

References

- Abdel-Ghaffar F, Bashtar AR, Al-Quraishy S, Al Nasr I, Mehlhorn H. *Sarcocystis* infecting reptiles in Saudi Arabia : 1-Light and electron microscopic study on sarcocysts of *Sarcocystis turcicii* sp. nov. infecting the gecko *Hemidactylus turcicus* Linnaeus. Parasitol Res. 2009;104(3):503-8.
- Acha PN, Szyfres B (Pan American Health Organization [PAHO]). Zoonoses and communicable diseases common to man and animals. Volume 3. Parasitoses. 3rd ed. Washington DC: PAHO; 2003. Scientific and Technical Publication No. 580. Sarcocystosis; p. 72-6.

Agerholm JS, Dubey JP. Sarcocystosis in a stillborn lamb. Reprod Domest Anim. 2014;49(6):e60-3.

Agholi M, Shahabadi SN, Motazedian MH, Hatam GR. Prevalence of enteric protozoan oocysts with special reference to *Sarcocystis cruzi* among fecal samples of diarrheic immunodeficient patients in Iran. Korean J Parasitol. 2016;54(3):339-44.

Aiello SE, Moses MA, editors. The Merck veterinary manual. 11th ed. Kenilworth, NJ: Merck and Co; 2016. Sarcocystosis; p. 1058-60, 1906-7, 1180.

Aiello SE, Moses MA, editors. The Merck veterinary manual. 11th ed. Kenilworth, NJ: Merck and Co; 2016. Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis; p 1309-10.

Anderson D, Nathoo N, Lu JQ, Kowalewska-Grochowska KT, Power C. Sarcocystis myopathy in a patient with HIV-AIDS. J Neurovirol. 2018;24(3):376-8.

Animal Health Australia. National Animal Health Information System (NAHIS). Sarcosporidiosis. NAHIS. Available at: http://www.aahc.com.au/nahis/disease/dislist.asp.* Accessed 14 Oct 2004.

Armed Forces Institute of Pathology [AFIP]. Case I - 97-5000 (AFIP 2594818). AFIP Wednesday slide conference - No. 11. AFIP; 1997. Available at: http://www.afip.org/vetpath/WSC/WSC97/97wsc11.htm.* Accessed 22 Oct 2004.

Arness MK, Brown JD, Dubey JP, Neafie RC, Granstrom DE. An outbreak of acute eosinophilic myositis attributed to human *Sarcocystis* parasitism. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 1999;61:548-53.

Beaver PC, Jung RC, Cupp EW. Clinical parasitology. 9th ed. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger; 1984. Genus *Sarcocystis*; p. 155-62.

Berrocal A, Lopez A. Pulmonary sarcocystosis in a puppy with canine distemper in Costa Rica. J Vet Diagn Invest. 2003;15:292-4. Bisby TM, Holman PJ, Pitoc GA, Packer RA, Thompson CA, Raskin RE. *Sarcocystis* sp. encephalomyelitis in a cat. Vet Clin Pathol. 2010;39(1):105-12.

Braund KG, editor. Clinical neurology in small animals localization, diagnosis and treatment. Ithaca, NY: International Veterinary Information Service (IVIS); 2003 Feb. Inflammatory diseases of the central nervous system. Available at: http://www.ivis.org/special_books/Braund/ braund27/ivis.pdf.* Accessed 12 Oct 2004.

Britton AP, Bidulka J, Scouras A, Schwantje H, Joseph T. Fatal hepatic sarcocystosis in a free-ranging grizzly bear cub associated with *Sarcocystis canis*-like infection. J Vet Diagn Invest. 2019;31(2):303-6.

Calero-Bernal R, Mauroo NF, Hui SW, Kuiken T, van de Bildt MW, de Jong AW, Osterhaus AD, Sims L, Gendron-Fitzpatrick A, Carmena D, Cerqueira-Cézar CK, Rosenthal BM, Dubey JP. Acute fatal sarcocystosis hepatitis in an Indo-Pacific bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops aduncus*) in Hong Kong. Vet Parasitol. 2017;235:64-8.

Calero-Bernal R, Verma SK, Oliveira S, Yang Y, Rosenthal BM, Dubey JP. In the United States, negligible rates of zoonotic sarcocystosis occur in feral swine that, by contrast, frequently harbour infections with *Sarcocystis miescheriana*, a related parasite contracted from canids. Parasitology. 2015;142(4):549-56.

- Caspari K, Grimm F, Kühn N, Caspari NC, Basso W. First report of naturally acquired clinical sarcocystosis in a pig breeding stock. Vet Parasitol. 2011;177(1-2):175-8.
- Chapman J, Mense M, Dubey JP. Clinical muscular sarcocystosis in a dog. J Parasitol 2005;91:187-90.

Charbek E, Wallace MR. Sarcosporidiosis. eMedicine.com; 2015 Oct. Available at: <u>https://emedicine.medscape.com/article/</u> 228279-overview. Accessed 6 Jan 2020.

Coelho C, Gomes J, Inácio J, Amaro A, Mesquita JR, Pires I, Lopes AP, Vieira-Pinto M. Unraveling *Sarcocystis miescheriana* and *Sarcocystis suihominis* infections in wild boar. Vet Parasitol. 2015;212(3-4):100-4.

- Cooley AJ, Barr B, Rejmanek D. Sarcocystis neurona encephalitis in a dog. Vet Pathol. 2007;44(6):956-61.
- Coultous RM, Raftery AG, Shiels BR, Sutton DGM, Weir W. Molecular confirmation of *Sarcocystis fayeri* in a donkey. Vet Parasitol. 2017;240:30-3.

Davies JL, Haldorson GJ, Bradway DS, Britton AP. Fatal hepatic sarcocystosis in a captive black bear (*Ursus americanus*) associated with *Sarcocystis canis*-like infection. J Vet Diagn Invest. 2011;23(2):379-83.

Dubey JP, Benson J, Larson MA. Clinical *Sarcocystis neurona* encephalomyelitis in a domestic cat following routine surgery. Vet Parasitol. 2003;112:261-7.

Dubey JP, Black SS, Verma SK, Calero-Bernal R, Morris, E, Hanson MA, Colley AJ. Sarcocystis neurona schizontsassociated encephalitis, chorioretinitis, and myositis in a twomonth-old dog simulating toxoplasmosis, and presence of mature sarcocysts in muscles. Vet Parasitol. 2014;202:194-200.

Dubey JP, Fayer R, Rosenthal BM, Calero-Bernal R, Uggla A. Identity of *Sarcocystis* species of the water buffalo (*Bubalus bubalis*) and cattle (*Bos taurus*) and the suppression of *Sarcocystis sinensis* as a nomen nudum. Vet Parasitol. 2014;205(1-2):1-6.

Dubey JP, Hilali M, Van Wilpe E, Calero-Bernal R, Verma SK, Abbas IE. A review of sarcocystosis in camels and redescription of *Sarcocystis cameli* and *Sarcocystis ippeni* sarcocysts from the one-humped camel (*Camelus dromedarius*). Parasitology. 2015;142(12):1481-92.

Dubey JP, Howe DK, Furr M, Saville WJ, Marsh AE, Reed SM, Grigg ME. An update on *Sarcocystis neurona* infections in animals and equine protozoal myeloencephalitis (EPM). Vet Parasitol. 2015;209(1-2):1-42.

Dubey JP, Moré G, van Wilpe E, Calero-Bernal R, Verma SK, Schares G. Sarcocystis rommeli, n. sp. (Apicomplexa: Sarcocystidae) from cattle (*Bos taurus*) and its differentiation from Sarcocystis hominis. J Eukaryot Microbiol. 2016;63(1):62-8.

Dubey JP, Sykes JE, Shelton GD, Sharp N, Verma SK, Calero-Bernal R, Viviano J, Sundar N, Khan A, Grigg ME. Sarcocystis caninum and Sarcocystis svanai n. spp. (Apicomplexa: Sarcocystidae) associated with severe myositis and hepatitis in the domestic dog (Canis familiaris). Eukaryot Microbiol. 2015;62(3):307-17.

Dubey JP, Trupkiewicz JG, Verma SK, Mowery JD, Adedoyin G, Georoff T, Grigg ME. Atypical fatal sarcocystosis associated with *Sarcocystis neurona* in a white-nosed coati (*Nasua narica molaris*). Vet Parasitol. 2017;247:80-4.

Dubey JP, van Wilpe E, Calero-Bernal R, Verma SK, Fayer R. Sarcocystis heydorni, n. sp. (Apicomplexa: Sarcocystidae) with cattle (*Bos taurus*) and human (*Homo sapiens*) cycle. Parasitol Res. 2015;114(11):4143-7.

Ecco R, Luppi MM, Malta MC, Araújo MR, Guedes RM, Shivaprasad HL. An outbreak of sarcocystosis in psittacines and a pigeon in a zoological collection in Brazil. Avian Dis. 2008;52(4):706-10.

Esposito DH, Stich A, Epelboin L, Malvy D, Han PV, et al. Acute muscular sarcocystosis: an international investigation among ill travelers returning from Tioman Island, Malaysia, 2011-2012. Clin Infect Dis. 2014;59(10):1401-10.

Fantham HB, Porter A. *Plasmodium struthionis*, sp. n., from Sudanese ostriches and *Sarcocystis salvelini*, sp. n., from Canadian speckled trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*), together with a record of a *Sarcocystis* in the eel pout (*Zoarces angularis*). Proc Zool Soc Lond. 1943; B113(1-2):25-30.

Fayer R, Dubey JP. Development of *Sarcocystis fayeri* in the equine. J Parasitol. 1982;68:856-60.

Fayer R, Esposito DH, Dubey JP. Human infections with Sarcocystis species. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2015;28(2):295-311.

Formisano P, Aldridge B, Alony Y, Beekhuis L, Davies E, Del Pozo J, Dunn K, English K, Morrison L, Sargison N, Seguino A, Summers BA, Wilson D, Milne E, Beard PM. Identification of *Sarcocystis capracanis* in cerebrospinal fluid from sheep with neurological disease. Vet Parasitol. 2013;193(1-3):252-5.

Fort Dodge Animal Health. Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis. The disease and its prevention. Available at: http://www.questgel.com/epm/01fdvaccine.htm.*. Accessed 15 Oct 2004.

Frenkel JK, Holzworth J. Sarcocystidae. In: Holzworth J, editor. Diseases of the cat. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 1987. p. 360-3.

Garner MM, Barr BC, PackhamAE, Marsh AE, Burek-Huntington KA, Wilson RK, Dubey JP. Fatal hepatic sarcocystosis in two polar bears (*Ursus maritimus*). J Parasitol. 1997;83:523-6.

Gjerde B. The resurrection of a species: *Sarcocystis bovifelis* Heydorn et al., 1975 is distinct from the current *Sarcocystis hirsuta* in cattle and morphologically indistinguishable from *Sarcocystis sinensis* in water buffaloes. Parasitol Res. 2016;115(1):1-21.

Gjerde B, de la Fuente C, Alunda JM, Luzón M. Molecular characterisation of five *Sarcocystis* species in domestic sheep (*Ovis aries*) from Spain. Parasitol Res. 2019 Nov 16. [Epub ahead of print].

Gjerde B, Hilali M. Domestic cats (*Felis catus*) are definitive hosts for *Sarcocystis sinensis* from water buffaloes (*Bubalus bubalis*). J Vet Med Sci. 2016;78(7):1217-21.

Gjerde B, Hilali M, Abbas IE. Molecular differentiation of Sarcocystis buffalonis and Sarcocystis levinei in water buffaloes (Bubalus bubalis) from Sarcocystis hirsuta and Sarcocystis cruzi in cattle (Bos taurus). Parasitol Res. 2016;115(6):2459-71.

Gjerde B, Schulze J. Muscular sarcocystosis in two arctic foxes (*Vulpes lagopus*) due to *Sarcocystis arctica* n. sp.: sarcocyst morphology, molecular characteristics and phylogeny. Parasitol Res. 2014;113(3):811-21.

Godoy SN, De Paula CD, Cubas ZS, Matushima ER, Catão-Dias JL. Occurrence of *Sarcocystis falcatula* in captive psittacine birds in Brazil. J Avian Med Surg. 2009;23(1):18-23.

Gondim LSQ, Jesus RF, Ribeiro-Andrade M, Silva JCR, Siqueira DB, Marvulo MFV, Aléssio FM, Mauffrey JF, Julião FS, Savani ESMM, Soares RM, Gondim LFP. Sarcocystis neurona and Neospora caninum in Brazilian opossums (Didelphis spp.): Molecular investigation and in vitro isolation of Sarcocystis spp. Vet Parasitol. 2017;243:192-8.

Gozalo AS, Montali RJ, St Claire M, Barr B, Rejmanek D, Ward JM. Chronic polymyositis associated with disseminated Sarcocystosis in a captive-born rhesus macaque. Vet Pathol. 2007;44(5):695-9.

Gray LC, Magdesian KG, Sturges BK, Madigan JE. Suspected protozoal myeloencephalitis in a two-month-old colt. Vet Rec. 2001;149:269-73.

Gutiérrez-Expósito D, García-Bocanegra I, Howe DK, Arenas-Montes A, Yeargan MR, Ness SL, Ortega-Mora LM, Álvarez-García G.A serosurvey of selected cystogenic coccidia in Spanish equids: first detection of anti-*Besnoitia* spp. specific antibodies in Europe. BMC Vet Res. 2017;13(1):128.

Harris VC, van Vugt M, Aronica E, de Bree GJ, Stijnis C, Goorhuis A, Grobusch MP. Human extraintestinal sarcocystosis: what we know, and what we don't know. Curr Infect Dis Rep. 2015;17(8):495.

Herd HR, Sula MM, Starkey LA, Panciera RJ, Johnson EM, Snider TA, Holbrook TC. *Sarcocystis fayeri*-induced granulomatous and eosinophilic myositis in 2 related horses. Vet Pathol. 2015;52(6):1191-4.

Herenda D, Chambers PG, Ettriqui A, Seneviratna P, da Silva TJP. Manual on meat inspection for developing countries.
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations [FAO] Animal Production and Health Paper 119 [monograph online]. FAO; 1994. Specific diseases of pigs: Sarcocystosis in pigs (Sarcosporidiosis). Available at:

http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/t0756e/T0756E05.htm. Accessed 14 Oct 2004.

Herenda D, Chambers PG, Ettriqui A, Seneviratna P, da Silva TJP. Manual on meat inspection for developing countries. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations [FAO] Animal Production and Health Paper 119 [monograph online]. FAO; 1994. Specific diseases of sheep: Sarcocystosis in sheep (Sarcosporidiosis). Available at: <u>http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/t0756e/T0756E06.htm</u>. Accessed 14 Oct 2004.

Howe DK, MacKay RJ, Reed SM. Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis. Vet Clin North Am Equine Pract. 2014;30(3):659-75.

Innes EA. The host-parasite relationship in pregnant cattle infected with *Neospora caninum*. Parasitology. 2007;134:1903-10.

Italiano CM, Wong KT, AbuBakar S, Lau YL, Ramli N, Syed Omar SF, Kahar Bador M, Tan CT. *Sarcocystis nesbitti* causes acute, relapsing febrile myositis with a high attack rate: description of a large outbreak of muscular sarcocystosis in Pangkor Island, Malaysia, 2012. . PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2014;8(5):e2876.

Kamata Y, Saito M, Irikura D, Yahata Y, Ohnishi T, Bessho T, Inui T, Watanabe M, Sugita-Konishi Y. A toxin isolated from *Sarcocystis fayeri* in raw horsemeat may be responsible for food poisoning. Food Prot. 2014;77(5):814-9.

Kimmig P, Piekarski G, Heydorn AO. [Sarcosporidiosis (Sarcocystis suihominis) in man (author's transl; abstract)]. Immun Infekt. 1979;7(5):170-7.

Kirillova V, Prakas P, Calero-Bernal R, Gavarāne I, Fernández-García JL, Martínez-González M, Rudaitytė-Lukošienė E, Martínez-Estéllez MÁH, Butkauskas D, Kirjušina M. Identification and genetic characterization of *Sarcocystis arctica* and *Sarcocystis lutrae* in red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*) from Baltic States and Spain. Parasit Vectors. 2018;11(1):173.

Klumpp SA, Anderson DC, McClure HM, Dubey JP. Encephalomyelitis due to a *Sarcocystis neurona*-like protozoan in a rhesus monkey (*Macaca mulatta*) infected with simian immunodeficiency virus. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 1994;51(3):332-8.

Krol L, Fravel V, Procter DG, Colegrove KM. Sarcocystis neurona -associated meningoencephalitis in a Pacific walrus (Odobendus rosmarus divergens). J Zoo Wildl Med. 2017;48(4):1219-22.

Kwok CY, Ting Y. Atypical presentation of human acute muscular sarcocystosis: *Sarcocystis nesbitti* confirmed on molecular testing. Am J Case Rep. 2019;20:499-502.

Lane JH, Mansfield KG, Jackson LR, Diters RW, Lin KC, MacKey JJ, Sasseville VG. Acute fulminant sarcocystosis in a captiveborn rhesus macaque. Vet Pathol. 1998;35(6):499-505.

Lau YL, Chang PY, Tan CT, Fong MY, Mahmud R, Wong KT. Sarcocystis nesbitti infection in human skeletal muscle: possible transmission from snakes. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2014;90(2):361-4.

Ma CL, Ye YL, Wen T, Huang ZM, Pan J, Hu JJ, Tao JP, Song JL. Prevalence and morphological and molecular characteristics of *Sarcocystis bertrami in horses in China*. Parasite. 2020;27:1.

Maier K, Olias P, Enderlein D, Klopfleisch R, Mayr SL, Gruber AD, Lierz M. Parasite distribution and early-stage encephalitis in *Sarcocystis calchasi* infections in domestic pigeons (*Columba livia f. domestica*). Avian Pathol. 2015;44(1):5-12. Miller MA, Conrad PA, Harris M, Hatfield B, Langlois G, Jessup DA, Magargal SL, Packham AE, Toy-Choutka S, Melli AC, Murray MA, Gulland FM, Grigg ME. A protozoal-associated epizootic impacting marine wildlife: mass-mortality of southern sea otters (*Enhydra lutris nereis*) due to Sarcocystis neurona infection. Vet Parasitol. 2010;172(3-4):183-94.

Moré G, Bacigalupe D, Basso W, Rambeaud M, Beltrame F, Ramirez B, Venturini MC, Venturini L. Frequency of horizontal and vertical transmission for *Sarcocystis cruzi* and *Neospora caninum* in dairy cattle. Vet Parasitol. 2009;160 (1-2):51-4.

Moré G, Maksimov A, Conraths FJ, Schares G. Molecular identification of *Sarcocystis* spp. in foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*) and raccoon dogs (*Nyctereutes procyonoides*) from Germany. Vet Parasitol. 2016;220:9-14.

Munday BL, Hartley WJ, Harrigan KE, Presidente PJ, Obendorf DL. Sarcocystis and related organisms in Australian wildlife: II. Survey findings in birds, reptiles, amphibians and fish. J Wildl Dis. 1979;15(1):57-73.

Olias P, Gruber AD, Heydorn AO, Kohls A, Hafez HM, Lierz M. Unusual biphasic disease in domestic pigeons (*Columba livia f. domestica*) following experimental infection with *Sarcocystis calchasi*. Avian Dis. 2010;54(3):1032-7.

Olias P, Gruber AD, Heydorn AO, Kohls A, Mehlhorn H, Hafez HM, Lierz M. A novel *Sarcocystis*-associated encephalitis and myositis in racing pigeons. Avian Pathol. 2009;38(2):121-8.

Olias P, Gruber AD, Kohls A, Hafez HM, Heydorn AO, Mehlhorn H, Lierz M. *Sarcocystis* species lethal for domestic pigeons. Emerg Infect Dis. 2010;16(3):497-9.

Olias P, Maier K, Wuenschmann A, Reed L, Armién AG, Shaw DP, Gruber AD, Lierz M. Sarcocystis calchasi has an expanded host range and induces neurological disease in cockatiels (*Nymphicus hollandicus*) and North American rock pigeons (*Columbia livia f. dom.*). Vet Parasitol. 2014;200 (1-2):59-65.

Pitel PH, Lindsay DS, Caure S, Romand S, Pronost S, Gargala G, Mitchell SM, Hary C, Thulliez P, Fortier G, Ballet JJ. Reactivity against *Sarcocystis neurona* and *Neospora* by serum antibodies in healthy French horses from two farms with previous equine protozoal myeloencephalitis-like cases.Vet Parasitol. 2003;111(1):1-7.

Pivoto FL, de Macêdo AG, da Silva MV, Ferreira FB, Silva DA, Pompermayer E, Sangioni LA, Mineo TW, Vogel FS. Serological status of mares in parturition and the levels of antibodies (IgG) against protozoan family Sarcocystidae from their pre colostrum foals. Vet Parasitol. 2014;199:107-11.

Poulsen CS, Stensvold CR. Current status of epidemiology and diagnosis of human sarcocystosis. J Clin Microbiol. 2014;52(10):3524-30.

Prakas P, Strazdaitė-Žielienė Ž, Rudaitytė-Lukošienė E, Servienė E, Butkauskas D. Molecular identification of *Sarcocystis lutrae* (Apicomplexa: Sarcocystidae) in muscles of five species of the family Mustelidae. Parasitol Res. 2018;117(6):1989-93.

Pusterla N, Mackie S, Packham A, Conrad PA. Serological investigation of transplacental infection with *Neospora hughesi* and *Sarcocystis neurona* in broodmares. Vet J. 2014;202(3):649-50.

Pusterla N, Tobin T. Therapeutics for equine protozoal myeloencephalitis. Vet Clin North Am Equine Pract. 2017;33(1):87-97.

Rakich PM, Dubey JP, Contarino JK. Acute hepatic sarcocystosis in a chinchilla. J Vet Diagn Invest. 1992;4:484-6.

Ravi M, Patel J, Pybus M, Coleman JK, Childress AL, Wellehan JF Jr. Meningoencephalitis associated with disseminated sarcocystosis in a free-ranging moose (*Alces alces*) calf. Can Vet J. 2015;56(8):872-5.

Reed SM, Furr M, Howe DK, Johnson AL, MacKay RJ, Morrow JK, Pusterla N, Witonsky S. Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis: an updated consensus statement with a focus on parasite biology, diagnosis, treatment, and prevention. J Vet Intern Med. 2016;30(2):491-502.

Reed SM, Saville WJ, Schneider RK. Neurologic disease: Current topics in-depth. Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis. In: 49th Annual Convention of the American Association of Equine Practitioners Proceedings; 2003 Nov 21-25; New Orleans, Louisiana. Available at: <u>http://www.ivis.org/proceedings/AAEP/2003/reed/chapter_fr</u> m.asp?LA=1. Accessed 15 Oct 2004.

Rimoldi G, Speer B, Wellehan JF Jr, Bradway DS, Wright L, Reavill D, Barr BC, Childress A, Shivaprasad HL, Chin RP. An outbreak of *Sarcocystis calchasi* encephalitis in multiple psittacine species within an enclosed zoological aviary. J Vet Diagn Invest. 2013;25(6):775-81.

Roberts JF, Wellehan JF Jr, Weisman JL, Rush M, Childress AL, Lindsay DS. Massive muscular infection by a *Sarcocystis* species in a South American rattlesnake (*Crotalus durissus terrificus*). J Parasitol. 2015;101(3):386-9.

Saeed MA, Rashid MH, Vaughan J, Jabbar A. Sarcocystosis in South American camelids: The state of play revisited. Parasit Vectors. 2018;11(1):146.

Saeed MA, Vaughan JL, Jabbar A. An update on sarcocystosis in one-humped camels (*Camelus dromedarius*). Parasitology. 2018;145(11):1367-77.

Stanek JF, Stich RW, Dubey JP, Reed SM, Njoku CJ, Lindsay DS, Schmall LM, Johnson GK, LaFave BM, Saville WJ. Epidemiology of *Sarcocystis neurona* infections in domestic cats (*Felis domesticus*) and its association with equine protozoal myeloencephalitis (EPM) case farms and feral cats from a mobile spay and neuter clinic. Vet Parasitol. 2003;117:239-49.

Sykes JE, Dubey JP, Lindsay LL, Prato P, Lappin MR, Guo LT, Mizisin AP, Shelton GD. Severe myositis associated with *Sarcocystis* spp. infection in 2 dogs. J Vet Intern Med. 2011;25(6):1277-83.

Szekeres S, Juhász A, Kondor M, Takács N, Sugár L, Hornok S. Sarcocystis rileyi emerging in Hungary: is rice breast disease underreported in the region?Acta Vet Hung. 2019;67(3):401-6.

Traub-Dargatz JL, Schlipf JW Jr, Granstrom DE, Ingram JT, Shelton GD, Getzy DM, Lappin MR, Baker DC. Multifocal myositis associated with *Sarcocystis* sp. in a horse. J Am Vet Med Assoc. 1994;205:1574-6.

Trupkiewicz JG, Calero-Bernal R, Verma SK, Mowery J, Davison S, Habecker P, Georoff TA, Ialeggio DM, Dubey JP. Acute, fatal *Sarcocystis calchasi*-associated hepatitis in Roller pigeons (*Columba livia f. dom.*) at Philadelphia Zoo. Vet Parasitol. 2016;216:52-8. United States Department of Agriculture, Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service, Veterinary Services [USDA, APHIS, VS, CEAH]. National Animal Health Monitoring System, Equine 1998. Equine protozoal myeloencephalitis (EPM) in the U.S. #N312.0501. Fort Collins, CO: USDA APHIS VS, CEAH; 2001. 46 pp.

Ushio N, Watanabe K, Chambers JK, Shibato T, Nakayama H, Uchida K. *Sarcocystis calchasi* encephalitis in a rock pigeon. J Vet Med Sci. 2015;77(11):1523-6.

Vangeel L, Houf K, Geldhof P, De Preter K, Vercruysse J, Ducatelle R, Chiers K. Different *Sarcocystis* spp. are present in bovine eosinophilic myositis. Vet Parasitol. 2013;197(3-4):543-8.

Vangeel L, Houf K, Geldhof P, Nollet H, Vercruysse J, Ducatelle R, Chiers K. Intramuscular inoculation of cattle with *Sarcocystis* antigen results in focal eosinophilic myositis. Vet Parasitol. 2012;183(3-4):224-30.

Verma SK, Lindsay DS, Grigg ME, Dubey JP. Isolation, Culture and cryopreservation of *Sarcocystis* species. Curr Protoc Microbiol. 2017;45:20D.1.1-20D.

Villar D, Kramer M, Howard L, Hammond E, Cray C, Latimer K. Clinical presentation and pathology of sarcocystosis in psittaciform birds: 11 cases. Avian Dis. 2008;52(1):187-94.

Wassermann M, Raisch L, Lyons JA, Natusch DJD, Richter S, Wirth M, Preeprem P, Khoprasert Y, Ginting S, Mackenstedt U, Jäkel T. Examination of *Sarcocystis* spp. of giant snakes from Australia and Southeast Asia confirms presence of a known pathogen - *Sarcocystis nesbitti*. PLoS One. 2017;12(11):e0187984.

Williams JF, Zajac A. Diagnosis of gastrointestinal parasitism in dogs and cats. St. Louis, MO: Ralston Purina; 1980. Coccidia; p. 34-7.

Wünschmann A, Rejmanek D, Conrad PA, Hall N, Cruz-Martinez L, Vaughn SB, Barr BC. Natural fatal *Sarcocystis falcatula* infections in free-ranging eagles in North America. J Vet Diagn Invest. 2010;22(2):282-9.

Wünschmann A, Rejmanek D, Cruz-Martinez L, Barr BC. Sarcocystis falcatula-associated encephalitis in a free-ranging great horned owl (*Bubo virginianus*). J Vet Diagn Invest. 2009;21(2):283-7.

Zeman DH, Dubey JP, Robison D. Fatal hepatic sarcocystosis in an American black bear. J Vet Diagn Invest. 1993;5:480-3.

Zitzer NC, Marsh AE, Burkhard MJ, Radin MJ, Wellman ML, Jugan M, Parker V. Parasitemia due to *Sarcocystis neurona*like infection in a clinically ill domestic cat. Vet Clin Pathol. 2017;46(3):526-32.

Zoll WM, Needle DB, French SJ, Lim A, Bolin S, Langohr I, Agnew D. *Sarcocystis* spp. infection in two red panda cubs (*Ailurus fulgens*).J Comp Pathol. 2015;153(2-3):185-9.

Żuraw A, Plog S, Lierz M, Gruber AD. No evidence of *Sarcocystis calchasi* involvement in mammalian meningoencephalitis of unknown origin. Vet Parasitol Reg Stud Reports. 2016;3-4:49-52.

*Link defunct