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Parasitological and pathological findings in fin whales Balaenoptera physalus stranded along Italian coastlines

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This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Inter-Research Science Publisher Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions. Parasitological and pathological findings in Fin Whales (*Balaenoptera physalus*) stranded along Italian coastlines

# Parasitological findings in Mediterranean Fin Whales

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#### Abstract

Mediterranean fin whale population faces many threats to its conservation, including both anthropic and natural issues. Few records on the parasitofauna of this species are present for this geographical area. The aim of this survey was to investigate presence and impact of parasitic diseases in Mediterranean fin whales (*Balaenoptera physalus*). Seven animals, stranded along Italian coastlines in the period 2006-2015, were submitted to necropsy and parasitological examination. One protozoan parasite, *Toxoplasma gondii* was detected in one fin whale and, for the first time in mysticetes, was successfully genotyped as a type II strain with 15 microsatellite markers.

One crustacean (*Pennella* spp.) and four helminth taxa (*Crassicauda boopis*, *Ogmogaster antarcticus*, *Tetrabothrium ruudi* and *Bolbosoma* sp.) were overall detected and morphologically identified. Cases of infestation by adult *P. balaenopterae* included variable parasitic burdens; impairment of immune system was suspected to be present in most severe cases, as already described for other cetacean species. Immature stages of *Pennella* sp. were also detected in two animals and are here described for the first time in cetaceans. Infection by *C. boopis* was observed or suspected in five cases. Parasitic thrombi, involving renal vessels and vena cava, fibrosis of renal parenchyma and renal impairment were observed in association to this parasite. Larval nematodes associated to arteriosclerosis of the mesenteric arteries were detected. To our knowledge, this is the first report of *C. boopis* inside the Mediterranean Sea and these findings should prompt further investigation to evaluate the prevalence of this severe infection in Mediterranean fin whales.

**Keywords:** *Balaenoptera physalus*, helminth parasites, crustacean parasites, *Toxoplasma gondii*, Genotyping, Mediterranean Sea

## 1 1. Introduction

Fin whales *Balaenoptera physalus* (Linnaeus, 1758) are the most abundant mysticetes in the
Mediterranean Sea. Genetic studies confirmed the existence of a resident Mediterranean population
(Bérubé et al. 1998) listed as vulnerable by the International Union for Conservation of Nature
(IUCN) Red List, since it is progressively decreasing.

Major concerns for their conservation are attributable to anthropic activities, with ship strikes 6 considered as the most relevant threats (Panigada & Notarbartolo Di Sciara 2012). In addition, natural 7 8 diseases are considered a problem for their conservation: two outbreaks of Dolphin Morbillivirus have been described in the Pelagos Sanctuary involving fin whale specimens during the period 2011-9 10 2013 (Mazzariol et al. 2016). Epidemics of this viral disease should be also regarded as one of the major threats for this species. In some cases, in cetaceans, this viral infection is associated to 11 opportunistic infection, such as those related to Toxoplasma gondii. Despite the fact that most of the 12 toxoplasmosis infections are referred to toothed whales, with the protozoan being recognized as 13 14 responsible for abortion, encephalitis and systemic lethal disease (Migaki et al. 1990, Di Guardo et al. 2010), 2 reports of T. gondii exist in baleen whales, in particular a young fin whale stranded in 15 16 Italy (Mazzariol et al. 2012), and a seropositive humpback whale (Megaptera novaeangliae) stranded 17 in England (Forman et al. 2009).

As for T. gondii, only few data on other parasites in Mediterranean fin whales are reported (Tamino 18 1953, Malatesta et al. 1998, Cicek et al. 2007, Giorda et al. 2017). The large copepod Pennella 19 20 balaenopterae Koren and Danielssen, 1877 (Copepoda, Pennelliidae) has been described here since long time and its presence on whales' skin in the Pélagos Sanctuary is considered almost regular 21 22 (Tamino 1953, Notarbartolo Di Sciara et al. 2003). Its presence is easily detectable even in live animals, since the posterior part of their body emerges from the host's skin and trails free in the water, 23 while the head penetrates the skin and blubber until reaching the muscular fascia. In small 24 25 odontocetes, the intensity of infection has been positively correlated to deficiency of immune system

in striped dolphins (Vecchione & Aznar 2014). Among endoparasites, the trematode Ogmogaster 26 27 antarcticus Johnston, 1931 (Digenea, Notocotylidae) was described in a fin whale stranded on the north-eastern coast of Tyrrhenian Sea. As for nematodes, infection by Crassicauda sp. was recently 28 reported in a specimen of *B. physalus*, associated with a severe nephropathy and severe mesenteric 29 30 lesions (Giorda et al. 2017). Infection by the species Crassicauda boopis Baylis 1920 is known to cause serious illness in baleen whales, since the localization of adult worms in the vascular and renal 31 32 district can lead to lethal outcomes. This species has been described in fin whales from the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean, but no reports in the Mediterranean are present in literature (Lambertsen 1986, 33 1992, Lempereur et al. 2017). 34

In order to give a throughout picture on the effect of the parasites in the conservation of this species in the Mediterranean Sea, the parasitic findings and associated pathological changes in fin whales stranded along the Italian coastline in a ten years' period (2006-2015) have been described in this paper.

39

#### 40 2. Material and Methods

Between October 2006 and January 2015 seven carcasses of fin whales, stranded along the Italian coastlines (Tyrrenian and Ligurian Sea), were necropsied on the stranding sites following standard protocols (McLellan et al. 2004) by the Cetacean stranding Emergency Response Team (C.E.R.T.), established by the Ministry for Environment, Territory and Sea at Padova University, in collaboration with the local Units of Health Institutions.

46 Biometric data, carcass condition code, body condition score, age estimation and sex of the stranded47 animals are reported in Table 1.

48

# 49 Parasitological and pathological analyses for metazoan parasites

Following post-mortem examination, whenever it was possible, parasitological analyses were carried
out on skin, blubber and respiratory, gastrointestinal, cardiovascular, and urogenital systems. In

particular, portions of skin and blubber with embedded crustacean parasites were collected; the 52 53 bronchial tree was longitudinally opened and pulmonary parenchyma was dissected and inspected for parasites. Vessels and liver ducts were dissected and examined for lesions and parasites; portion of 54 the liver was sliced, washed and the sediment was examined under a stereomicroscope. Stomach 55 56 chambers and portions of intestine (small and large intestine at least 10m each) were separately sampled and the contents were filtered with 1.0 and 0.5 mm mesh sieves; the material was then 57 58 observed by stereomicroscope. As previously described by Lambertsen (1992), intestinal mucosa and mesenteric arteries were examined to detect lesions due to the migration of parasitic larvae of the 59 genus Crassicauda. Renal vessels and vena cava were also examined to search for adult specimens 60 61 of Crassicauda boopis or related lesions. Ureteral ductworks were opened and accurately examined 62 to isolate the tails of this nematode. When possible, urine sediment, obtained by centrifugation at 2000 rpm for 5 minutes, was analyzed for the detection of eggs or larvae of Crassicauda. All parasites 63 64 recovered during post mortem examination were washed in physiological saline, counted and fixed in 70% ethanol. 65

Morphometric characteristics of crustacean species of the genus *Pennella* were studied by stereomicroscopy. The nematodes and immature stages of crustaceans were examined as wet-mounts in clearing agents (glycerin or Amman's lactophenol), whereas flatworms were stained with Semichon's Acid Carmine and mounted in Canada balsam. All parasites were measured under light microscope (Nis Elements D software, Nikon).

Crustacean parasites were compared with descriptions by Thompson (1905), Hogans (1987) and
Abaunza et al. (2001). Dichotomous keys and literature data were used to identify the helminths
(Delyamure 1955, Margolis & Pike 1955, Lambertsen 1985, Raga et al. 1986, Bray et al. 2008).

Specimens of *C. boopis* were deposited at the Natural History Museum of London (NHMUK)
(accession number: *Crassicauda boopis* 2015.10.11.1-4).

Tissue samples showing lesions were fixed in 10% buffered neutral formalin, paraffin-embedded, cut
(4 µm thickness) and routinely stained with hematoxylin and eosin for microscopic examination.

Further histochemical techniques were used on selected sections in order to gain better information
on pathogens and tissue changes (PAS and Masson's Trichromic).

80

# 81 *Analyses for protozoan parasites*

During necropsy, tissue samples (brain, spinal cord, heart, lymph nodes, skeletal muscle, lung, spleen,
liver and kidney) were collected; a portion of each tissue was processed for routine histological
examination and an aliquot was stored at -20°C and subsequently analyzed by molecular methods to
detect parasites of the family Apicomplexa.

## 86 DNA extraction and PCR assay for detection of Toxoplasma gondii, Neospora, and Sarcocystis

DNA extraction was performed on all the aforementioned tissues using NucleoSpin<sup>®</sup> Tissue kit 87 (Macherey-Nagel, Germany). The PCR reaction was carried out in 30µl volume containing 1X PCR 88 buffer, 2 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 200 µM each of the dNTPs, 2 U Platinum<sup>®</sup> Taq DNA Polymerase (Invitrogen, 89 UK), 1µM of each primer, as described previously (Ho et al. 1996), and 1-3 µl of DNA extract. This 90 PCR assay permits to amplify a conserved region of the nss-rRNA gene (300 bp in size) of Neospora 91 spp. and other Apicomplexa coccidian as Sarcocystis and Toxoplasma. The reaction mixture was first 92 93 treated at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 12 cycles at 94°C for 30 sec and 58°C for 30 sec; 23 cycles at 94°C for 30 sec, 52°C for 30 sec and 72°C for 30 sec and a final extension step at 72°C for 7 min. 94 DNA extracted from T. gondii oocysts, isolated from a domestic cat, were used as positive control. 95 PCR products were analysed by electrophoresis in SYBR Safe stained (Invitrogen, UK) 2% agarose 96 97 gel, visualised with Geldoc XR (Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA) under UV light, subsequently purified 98 and sequenced at BMR-Genomics (Padova, Italy). The sequences were analysed using ChromasPro (version 1.42, Technelysium Pty Ltd., Australia) and compared in GenBank<sup>TM</sup> database using 99 BLASTn program (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/). 100

Extracted DNA was also tested by a commercial Real Time PCR assay (*Toxoplasma* Q- PCR Alert
Kit, Nanogen Advanced Diagnostics S.p.a., Buttigliera Alta, Italy) on an ABIPRISM 7300 (Applied

Biosystem Carlsbad, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. The real-time PCR assay targeted the 529 bp repeat region (*REP529*, GenBank accession no. AF146527) of *T. gondii* DNA (Homan et al. 2000). All DNA samples were tested in triplicate and each assay was considered positive if at least one test of the triplicate was positive. Each PCR run included a negative control without DNA and, to check the absence of PCR inhibitors, each sample was coamplified with an internal control consisting of beta-globin gene.

#### 109 *Genotyping of* T. gondii *strains*

DNA samples extracted from tissues that tested positive for T. gondii DNA ( $C_t$  value < 32) were 110 submitted to a genotyping analysis using 15 microsatellite markers distributed on 10 of 14 111 112 chromosomes, as described previously (Ajzenberg et al. 2010). ,Briefly, for each primer pair, the forward one was 5'-end labeled with fluorescein to allow sizing of PCR products electrophoresed in 113 an automatic sequencer. PCR was carried out in a  $25-\mu$ L reaction mixture consisting of  $12.5 \mu$ L of 114 115 2X QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Master Mix (Qiagen, France), 5 pmol of each primer and 5 µL of DNA. Cycling conditions were 15 min at 95°C; 30 s at 94°C, 3 min at 61°C, and 30 s at 72°C (35 cycles); 116 and 30 min at 60°C. One microliter of the PCR product was mixed with 0.5 µL of a dye-labeled size 117 standard (ROX 500, Applied Biosystems) and 23.5 µL of deionized formamide (Applied 118 Biosystems). This mixture was denatured at 95°C for 5 minutes and then electrophoresed using an 119 120 automatic sequencer (ABI PRISM 3130xl, Applied Biosystems). The sizes of the alleles in bp were 121 estimated using GeneMapper analysis software (version 4.0, Applied Biosystems).

122

# 123 **3. Results**

# 124 Metazoan parasites and histopathological findings

Six out of seven fin whales were positive for one or more parasitic species. Overall, 1,164 parasites
were collected, belonging to one crustacean and four helminth taxa (Table 2).

127 Adult females of the mesoparasitic copepod *Pennella balaenopterae* (Copepoda, Pennellidae) were

128 detected in five whales. Mild infection was observed in four animals, in which the parasites were

anchored mainly on the back and on the abdominal region. In one case, a severe infestation (>200
parasites), involving the entire body surface, was observed (whale #3).

Immature specimens of parasitic copepods of the family Pennellidae Burmeister, 1835 (Fig. 1) were 131 collected from two animals. The head of the parasites was strongly embedded into the skin and 132 blubber without reaching the muscular fascia, while the trunk and the abdomen emerged from the 133 body of the host. These specimens were small in size (n=6; mean length: 33.9 mm), showed a distinct 134 135 cephalothorax dorsoventrally flattened and flecked with black pigment. Beyond the border of the cephalothorax the hamate second antennae projected, while the first pair of antennae was delicate and 136 setose. In the ventral side of the cephalothorax, a prominent rostrum was present and the sturdy 137 138 maxillipeds were situated posteriorly; ventrally in the anterior third of the cephalothorax the cuticle 139 folds forming an hourglass design with a pair of spines in the central part. At the end of the cephalothorax a pair of cuticular pointed structures were laterally present. The filiform thorax 140 141 extended to a length ten times that of the cephalothorax; the four pairs of thoracic limbs appeared well developed with bristles in the last two segments; the first and second limbs bifurcated in two 142 extremities. The abdomen was filiform; eighteen pairs of bulges or short unbranched lateral 143 appendages (with different degrees of development in the specimens) were visible along the 144 145 abdomen, which terminated with a deep notch. On either side of this was a small bisetose appendage. 146 The morphometric data of the immature specimens of *Pennella* sp. Oken, 1815 are reported in Table 3. 147

Specimens of cestodes were collected from the small intestine of one adult whale. Morphometric characteristics of the parasite and the morphology of the scolex (presence of well visible ear-like appendages and well-developed median lobes on the apical organ) permitted to ascribe the specimens to the species *Tetrabothrius ruudi* Nybelin, 1928 (Eucestoda, Tetrabothriidae). One specimen of acanthocephalan *Bolbosoma* sp. Porta, 1908 (Acanthocephala, Polymorphidae) was detected from the small intestine of one fin whale. The digenean *Ogmogaster antarcticus* Johnston, 1931 (Trematoda, Notocotylidae) was found in the rectum of three fin whales.

Crassicaudosis was suspected in five out of seven examined whales. Adult worms of the nematode 155 156 Crassicauda boopis were found in four cases (Table 2). A total of ninety-five tails of C. boopis (range: 7-40 parasites/host) were found inside the ureters of the positive animals. In three cases both kidneys 157 were parasitized, while in one case a unilateral infection was observed. The anterior part of the tails 158 was found penetrating the wall of the urinary ductworks and extending into the renal parenchyma 159 (Fig. 2F). Histopathological examinations of kidney revealed multifocal chronic nephritis with 160 161 massive fibrosis, glomerular sclerosis and tubular atrophy in two animals (#4 and #5). In fin whale #4, larvated ova were histologically observed within the kidney pelvis among epithelial cells, in 162 lumen of arterial renal vessels and in adrenal glands. Additionally, larvated eggs of Crassicauda sp. 163 164 were also found in urinary sediment in fin whale #5.

165 Cephalic ends of *C. boopis* protruded free and flowing in the vena cava lumen of two animals (#4 166 and #5). Large pendulous masses (Fig 2B) and fragments of mineralized parasites were grossly 167 observed within the lumen of arterial renal vessels of other two whales (#2 and #3 respectively).

Adult nematodes, peduncolate, knobby and mineralized proliferations obstructed partially or totally 168 169 blood passage into the vessels. Microscopic exams revealed the presence of parasitic elements also inside these proliferations, containing large numbers of ova, completely embedded by connective 170 171 tissue layers, multifocally infiltrated by mild chronic inflammatory population (Fig 2D). Nematodes 172 observed lying within the lumen of the renal and adrenal arteries (Fig. 2E) were also partially 173 embedded by a mixed chronic inflammatory response with a massive eosinophils prominence and a severe fibroblastic invasion. These changes multifocally infiltrated also the arteries' walls along with 174 175 severe edema and hyperemia.

In fin whale #5 mesenteric arteries were characterized by a mural thickening with intimal hyperemia and hemorrhages, multifocal necrosis with cavitation and mineralized area (Fig 2C): these findings reduced vascular lumina. Microscopic examination confirmed a chronic mineralizing endo-arteritis with abundant and severe eosinophilic infiltration sometimes associated to parasitic larvae. Several nodules were grossly observed in the mucosal layer of the intestine of the same animal (# 5) (n >90;

181	diameter: 6-7mm), containing amorphous material, occasionally associated to the presence of a single
182	nematode larvae (Fig. 2A). Gross examination revealed a massive and diffuse greenish discoloration
183	of muscular tissues in this fin whale. Severe eosinophilic infiltration was microscopically observed
184	in several lymph nodes.
185	Epicardial and endocardial granulomas were detected in fin whales #1 and #6 with PAS positive

traslucid remains consistent with parasitic fragments digested by the inflammatory reactions, but noparasites were isolated.

Additionally, nematode larvae were found free inside the lumen of the intestine of the calf whale #6;some of them carried hints of pre and post-cloacal papillae, indicating a preadult stage.

190

191 Protozoan parasites

One (fin whale #3) of the seven examined animals was positive for *T. gondii* DNA that was detected in heart, skeletal muscle, mesenteric lymph node and kidney samples (Table 4); the sequences showed 100% homology with *T. gondii* (GenBank<sup>TM</sup> accession no. AY 663792). The DNA sample that was genotyped was extracted from the muscle sample, successfully amplified at 3 microsatellite markers, and was identified as *T. gondii* Type II.

197 No lesions related to toxoplasmosis were observed in the histological sections of the examined animal198 tissues.

199

#### 200 **4. Discussion**

201 Complete parasitological surveys on fin whales living in the Mediterranean Sea are still lacking due 202 to the technical complexities encountered during necropsy, the large size of these animals and, 203 sometimes, to the difficulty of reaching the stranding site. Moreover, the preservation status of the 204 carcasses affects the analyses that can be carried out.

The presence on Mediterranean fin whales of ectoparasitic copepods *Pennella* sp. has been known
for a long time (Anthony & Calvet 1905). *Pennella* spp. are large mesoparasites infecting both teleost

fishes and marine mammals. The high variability of morphological features of species and stages of 207 208 parasite development have generated much debate amongst taxonomists (Kabata 1979). Although numerous species of Pennella have been described, P. balaenopterae is the only recorded copepod 209 species that parasitizes marine mammals (Hogans 1987, Abaunza et al. 2001). The life cycle of P. 210 balaenopterae is poorly understood and only the adult female and the first naupliar stage have been 211 identified (Abaunza et al. 2001, Arroyo et al. 2002). Intensity of infection by Pennella balaenopterae 212 213 is considered an indicator of health status in cetaceans and long-term, cumulative tendencies of P. balaenopterae infestation can be associated with challenged dolphin's immune system, debilitating 214 viral infection and high levels of polychlorinated biphenyls (Vecchione & Aznar 2014). Two cases 215 216 of severe infestation by Pennella spp. were described in fin whales stranded alive along Italian and 217 Turkish coastlines (Benvenuti et al. 1991, Ciçek et al. 2007). In our study, the degree of infestation was mild in most cases, and comparable to that reported by other authors in fin whales from Antarctic 218 219 (Nishiwaki & Hayashi 1950, Mizue & Murata 1952) and Atlantic waters (Raga & Sanpera 1986). In one animal, positive to Dolphin Morbillivirus and Toxoplasma gondii infection (Mazzariol et al. 220 221 2012), a severe infestation was already reported. An impairment of the immune system can be suspected in the animal included in this study, mainly due to the presence of the viral infection, thus 222 223 the higher parasitic burden matches with assumptions in literature.

224 Other two whales, which have encountered DMV (Mazzariol et al. 2016), showed the presence of immature stages of crustacean parasites belonging to the family Pennellidae. The morphological 225 features of these parasites appear similar to those of the youngest individual of Pennella filosa 226 227 (Linnaeus, 1758) described by Thompson (1905) in fish. This is the only report in literature for immature stages of Pennella genus from definitive host. Molecular analyses could be useful to ascribe 228 229 these specimens to the species P. balaenopterae. The finding of young individuals of Pennella sp. in these two sick young whales suggests that the animals had decreased their mobility shortly before 230 death, allowing during this period the colonization by the parasites, as proposed by Aznar et al. (1994) 231 in dolphins affected by a viral epizootic disease. 232

Adult tapeworms of the families Tetrabothriidae and Diphyllobothriidae are described in cetaceans. 233 234 Life cycles of these species involve a zooplankton crustacean as first intermediate host and marine mammals as their definitive hosts (Raga et al. 2008). Only the genera Priapocephalus Nybelin, 1922 235 and Tetrabothrius (Eucestoda: Tetrabothriidae) have been described in mysticetes and members of 236 the genus Tetrabothrius have been isolated from fin whales worldwide. Tetrabothrius affinis 237 (Lönnberg 1891) (syn. Tetrabothrius wilsoni) is reported by Delyamure (1955) in Norway, South 238 239 Africa, New Zealand and Antarctica (South Shetlands islands); the same author reported T. ruudi in West Norway, France and Russian Pacific coast and Antarctica, but this genus had never been 240 241 reported before in the Mediterranean.

242 Acantocephalan of the genus Bolbosoma are intestinal parasites of cetaceans. Most of the species are typical of baleen whales, which get infected most probably by ingestion of the cystacanth larvae 243 contained in an intermediate or paratenic host (Gazzonis & Merella 2012). Euphasiids and copepods 244 245 have been demonstrated to carry larvae of the genus Bolbosoma (Shimazu 1975, Tsimbalyuk 1980, Gregori et al. 2012). Five species are described in *Balaenoptera* spp., i.e. *B. brevicolle* (Malm, 1867), 246 247 B. nipponicum Yamaguti, 1939, B. turbinella (Diesing, 1851), B. balaenae (Gmelin, 1790) and B. hamiltoni Baylis, 1929 (Delyamure 1955). The pathogenicity is linked to the anchorage of the 248 249 proboscis to the intestinal wall, which is reported to cause ulceration and even perforation (Gibson et 250 al. 1998). No gross lesions were observed in the intestine of this animal, probably due to the presence 251 of a single specimen.

The genus *Ogmogaster* Jägerskiöld, 1891 include six species, that are identified by the number of longitudinal ridges on the ventral surface, the presence or absence of spines on the tegument and body size (Raga et al. 1986). *Ogmogaster antarticus* was reported in fin whales from the Spanish Atlantic coasts and from the Mediterranean basin (Raga et al. 1986, Malatesta et al. 1998). The species shows wide diffusion and low host specificity, being reported in both cetaceans and pinnipeds.

*Crassicauda boopis* has been reported in fin whales from Atlantic and Pacific Ocean (Lambertsen
1986) and is considered endemic in the Atlantic population (Lambertsen 1992). Lambertsen widely

described the diffusion and the mechanisms of this parasitic disease in Atlantic fin whales (1986, 259 260 1992). Though the number of analyzed animals is limited, our data prove for the first time that this parasitic disease exists among the Mediterranean population. The degree of severity of the infestation 261 appears to be from moderate to severe in our survey, considering the lesions observed. The 262 263 localization of the parasite inside the hosts confirm the descriptions in literature, with the female specimens getting to the lumen of the vena cava with the cephalic portion and the male's head trapped 264 265 in the renal venous vessels. Hypothetically, the localization of the head inside the lumen of vessels allows the worms to feed on host's blood (Lambertsen 1986). Depressed packed red cell volume 266 (PCV) in infected whales, potentially due to chronic consumption of blood by the worms, was 267 268 reported by Lambertsen but due to the post mortem conditions we could not perform a complete blood 269 count to confirm the anemic condition. The massive inflammatory reaction of the host's tissues to the parasite was broadly observed, causing severe lesions that appeared very similar to those described 270 271 in literature (Lambertsen 1986). Wide thrombotic masses occupying the lumen of vessels and diffuse flogosis and fibrosis of renal parenchyma were observed in all infected animals, with varying degrees 272 273 of severity. Multidigitate masses pending in renal veins are also reported by Lambertsen, as consequence of the host's attempt to capsulate the parasite. Such lesions are made up of fibrocellular 274 275 tissue and they depart from the tunica media of the vessels. In chronic cases, a mineralized core can 276 be observed right around the worm. Occlusion of the renal veins can occur as a consequence of the tissue reaction around parasite's body. The lesions observed in this survey completely overlap this 277 description, showing different degrees of severity, that appeared greater in the animal with the higher 278 279 parasitic burden (n=40). Thrombotic processes found in the kidney of this animal probably had reduced renal blood flow leading to organ impairment. Severe impact of the infection on the host was 280 281 demonstrated also by serum biochemistry. High concentration of creatinine (6.95mg/dL), urea (157.8 mg/dl) and electrolytes (phosphate and potassium: 24.06mg/dL and 29.5mEq/L, respectively) were 282 found in serum of the unique samples animal (Mignone, personal communication), significantly 283 higher than those reported in literature in infected whales (Lambertsen 1992), In this individual, 284

eosinophils infiltration was also appreciated in several lymph nodes and muscular tissues and not 285 286 only associated to parasites: these findings supports a possible increase in eosinophils blood count. Hypereosinophilia has been supposed to affect brain function in marine mammals (Di Guardo 2011) 287 and this condition could have played a role in the stranding together with the renal function 288 289 impairment suggested by blood chemistry. Other important parasitic lesions, that could have affected 290 the health of this individual, were due to the contemporary presence of larval elements within 291 intestinal and mesenteric arteries' walls along with a severe and chronic inflammatory reaction. Reasonably this finding could support the hypothesis of larval migration of *C. boopis* from intestine 292 293 to renal vessels through the tonaca media of mesenteric arteries, as speculated by Lambertsen (1992) 294 and similarly to what occurs for Crassicauda sp. in Cuvier's beaked whales (Diaz-Delgado et al. 2016). Nevertheless, since the animal was previously affected by DMV determining a possible 295 impairment of immune system, the association between larval migration and poor health condition 296 297 cannot be clearly claimed.

In conclusion, crassicaudosis could represent a cause of concern for the Mediterranean population of fin whales. Particular attention should be paid to the probable wide diffusion of the parasite among the host population and to the high severity of the disease, inheriting further sampling effort.

301 Four types of Apicomplexa coccidians (Sarcocystiidae) are reported in cetaceans: Cystoisospora 302 delphini in bottlenose dolphins, Sarcocystis spp. in toothed whales and in a striped dolphin, Neospora caninum in bottlenose dolphins, and T. gondii in four dolphin species, in one harbor porpoise 303 (Phocoena phocena [Linnaeus, 1758]) and recently in one sperm whale (Physeter microcephalus 304 305 Linnaeus, 1758) (Domingo et al. 1992, Di Guardo et al. 1995, Cabezon et al. 2004, Raga et al. 2008, Mazzariol et al. 2011). As for Mysticetes, the reports concerning Sarcocystiidae are limited; Akao 306 (1970) described Sarcocystis balaenopteralis n. sp. in muscle tissues of a Sei Whale (Balaenoptera 307 borealis Lesson, 1828) and Forman et al. (2009) reported the presence of T. gondii-specific antibodies 308 in a Humpback whale (Megaptera novaeangliae, Borowsky, 1781) using the Sabin Feldman Dye 309

310 Test. The presence of a coinfection by *T. gondii* and Dolphin morbillivirus was reported by Mazzariol
311 et al. (2012), in one fin whale included in this study.

The result of genotyping indicates the presence of Type II. This genotype seems common in marine 312 mammals since it was isolated in the California sea otter (Enhydra lutris [Linnaeus, 1758]), striped 313 314 dolphin (Stenella coeruleoalba [Meyen, 1833]), bottlenose dolphin (Tursiops truncatus [Montagu, 1821]) and Walrus (Odobenus rosmarus [Linnaeus, 1758])(Cole et al. 2000, Miller et al. 2004, 315 316 Sundar et al. 2008, Di Guardo et al. 2011); Non-type II genotypes were reported in marine mammals such as those belonging to haplogroup 12 in North America (formerly Type X and A) in the California 317 sea otter (E. lutris) (Khan et al. 2011), harbor seal (Phoca vitulina Linnaeus, 1758) and Californian 318 319 sea lion (Zalophus californianus [Lesson, 1828]), (Cole et al. 2000, Miller et al. 2004, Sundar et al. 2008, Van Bressem et al. 2009). 320

This study is the first genotyping attempt of a *T. gondii* strain from Mysticetes. Genotype II predominates not only in terrestrial mammals and birds of North America and Europe, but also in the marine environment of these areas.

It seems that the route of infection by *T. gondii* in cetaceans include ingestion of oocysts with contaminated water, as these animals feed mainly on cold-blooded animals as fish and invertebrates, which are not expected to support the tachyzoite and bradyzoite life-stages of *T. gondii* (Forman et al. 2009). The oocysts, under controlled laboratory conditions, can sporulate and remain viable in seawater for several months (Lindsay & Dubey 2009) and they can remain infectious in filter-feeding fish's alimentary canals for some hours post-exposure (Massie et al. 2010). DNA of *T. gondii* was also detected in shellfish in USA, Brazil and in Italy (Putignani et al. 2011).

The infected fin whale was observed swimming in shallow water in front of the Tuscany coast some days before stranding and it could be supposed that the animal might have been infected in this period from coastal waters. The animal showed also a dolphin morbillivirus infection and high concentration levels of organochlorine pollutants in the tissues. These data confirm the opportunistic nature of *Toxoplasma*, which can infect immune-depressed animals, already threatened by infectious diseases
and environmental contaminants (Mazzariol et al. 2012).

337

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Fig.1: Immature stages of *Pennella* sp. (A). Abdominal portion of the parasite protruding from the
host's skin (bar=0.5 cm); (B) Lateral view of cephalothorax after removing the surrounding tissues
(bar=0.5 cm); (C) Ventral view of the head with first (black arrow) and second (black arrowhead)
antennae, rostrum (\*) and maxillipeds (white arrow) (bar=300µm); (D) Cephalothorax, details of the
limbs (ventral view)(bar=500µm); (E) Abdomen of the parasite at two different developmental stages
of the appendages.



519

Fig.2: Nematode infections. (A) #5. Multifocal, well-defined nodules (arrows), containing nematode larvae (insert) visible on the surface of the intestinal mucosa. (B) #2. Knobby and mineralized formation in the vascular lumen of a renal vessel, partially obstructing blood passage. (C) #5. Histological section of a mesenteric artery characterized by a severe mural thickening with intimal hyperemia and hemorrhages, multifocal necrosis with cavitation and mineralized area. 1X magnification, Hematoxylin and Eosin (HE). (D) #2. Parasitic thrombus formed by an adult element

526	of C. boopis. 4X magnification, HE. (E) #4. Adult element of C. boopis in the lumen of an artery in
527	the adrenal parenchyma, characterized by a severe fibroblastic invasion. 4X magnification, HE. (F)
528	#6. Some adult elements of <i>C. boopis</i> in the renal parenchyma (medulla). 4X magnification, HE.

529

F	in whale	ID	CCC	BCS	Age	Sex	Body lenght (m)	Year	Stranding site	DMV*
	#1	109	3	Poor	Newborn	М	5.57	2006	Alassio (SV)	-
	#2	134	2	Moderate	Juvenile	М	13.40	2008	Giannella (GR)	-
	#3	194	3	Poor	Adult	М	16.7	2011	San Rossore (PI)	RT-PCR + (liver, spleen, lung)
	#4	208	2	Poor	Juvenile	F	10.78	2011	Capo Testa (OT)	RT-PCR + (liver, spleen, lymph node, muscle)
	#5	211	2	Poor	Juvenile	М	10	2011	Savona (SV)	VN +
	#6	297	2	Poor	Newborn	F	5	2013	Marciana (LI)	RT-PCR + (brain, spleen, lung, thymus), IHC + (brain, thymus)
	#7	342	3	Moderate	Adult	Μ	17	2015	Camaiore (LU)	-

#### 530 Table 1. Data of fin whales specimens analyzed in this study

531

532 ID = Identification code; CCC = Carcass Condition Code, according to Geraci and Lounsbury, 2005; BCS = Body Condition Score; F = Female; M = Male; DMV=Dolphin

533 morbillivirus; RT-PCR = reverse transcription PCR; VN = virus neutralization; IHC = immunohistochemical analysis; \* = Mazzariol et al. 2016

534

Organs	Parasite	Fin whale #1	Fin whale #2	Fin whale #3	Fin whale #4	Fin whale #5	Fin whale #6	Fin whale #7
Skin-blubber	Pennella balaenopterae (Copepoda; Pennellidae)	Neg	10	24	3	2	Neg	16
	Immature stage of <i>Pennella</i> sp. (Copepoda; Pennellidae)	Neg	Neg	Neg	15	Neg	3	Neg
Intestine	<i>Ogmogaster antarcticus</i> (Trematoda; Notocotylidae)	Neg	712	254	Neg	Neg	Neg	1
	<i>Tetrabothius ruudi.</i> (Eucestoda; Tetrabothriidae)	Neg	Neg	Neg	Neg	8	Neg	Neg
	<i>Bolbosoma</i> sp. (Acanthocephala; Polymorphidae)	Neg	Neg	Neg	Neg	1	Neg	Neg
	Nematoda larvae (inside nodules)	Neg	Neg	Neg	Neg	7	Neg	Neg
	Nematoda larvae (free into the lumen)	Neg	Neg	Neg	Neg	Neg	9	Neg
Kidney /ureters	Crassicauda boopis tails	Neg	40 (36 M; 4 F)	Neg	38 (24 M; 14 F)	10 (8M; 2 F)	Neg	7
Vena cava	Crassicauda boopis heads	Neg	Neg	Neg	11	Pos	Neg	Neg
Mesenteric arteries	Nematoda larvae (into the vessels wall)	Neg	Neg	Neg	Neg	4	Neg	Neg.

Table 2. Metazoan parasites collected and identified from the examined fin whales.

537 Neg = negative; Pos = positive for the presence of *C. boopis*, but not quantitatively determined; F = female; M = male

Total length		33899	21582	26641	27245	32302	43525	525999
Cephalothorax	Total length including limbs	2573	2404	2516	2420	2644	2694	2 <b>756431</b>
	Head length	1910	1726	1967	1847	1908	1978	<b>542</b> 2034
	Head width	781	665	747	797	817	824	<sub>8</sub> 543
								544
Thoracic region	Diameter in the middle region	444	392	344	402	472	494	<sup>5</sup> <del>5</del> 45
	Total length	25257	14655	18260	18475	23192	34271	42889
								547
Abdomen	Total length	6068	4522	5865	6351	6467	6560	66458
	Width in the middle region	364	340	365	370	310	324	476 549
	Width including appendages	631				630	668	5 <b>940</b>
	Appendages		Poorly	Poorly	Poorly	Present	Present	551 Present
			developed	developed	developed			552

539 Table 3. Mean and individual measurements (in µm) of six immature specimens of *Pennella* sp. Oken, 1815 in different developmental stages.

Tissues	Fin whale #1	Fin whale #2	Fin whale #3 $^\circ$	Fin whale #4	Fin whale #5	Fin whale #6	Fin whale #76
							557
Brain	Negative	Negative	NOT DONE	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative 558
Spinal cord	Negative	Negative	NOT DONE	Negative	NOT DONE	Negative	Negative 550
Heart	NOT DONE	Negative	T. gondii *	Negative	Negative	Negative	NOT DONE
Skeletal muscle	Negative	Negative	T. gondii *	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Lymph nodes	Negative	NOT DONE	T. gondii *	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Spleen	NOT DONE	NOT DONE	Negative	NOT DONE	NOT DONE	NOT DONE	NOT DONE
Liver	NOT DONE	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Lung	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Kidney	NOT DONE	Negative	T. gondii *	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative 566

555 Table 4. Results of *T. gondii, Neospora, and Sarcocystis* detection by PCR and sequencing.

567 \* *T. gondii*, GenBank accession number AY663792; ° Mazzariol et al. 2012

568