Evaluation of a biosecurity survey approach for contamination by *Chlamydia pecorum* in koala rehabilitation, field capture, and captive settings

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Transmission of *Chlamydia pecorum* between koalas is a potential risk in field capture or rehabilitation settings, where koalas are held in proximity to each other, or equipment is shared between animals. Given the impact of *C. pecorum* on koala welfare and population viability it is surprising that quarantine and disinfection protocols in a koala rehabilitation facility or capture settings have not previously been evaluated. This study aimed to evaluate an approach, based on the detection of chlamydial DNA and cell viability, to determine the degree of environmental contamination within a koala care facility. Various substrates associated with koala care at a koala rehabilitation facility in New South Wales, Australia were identified as potential sources of chlamydial contamination, following exposure to koalas known to be infected with *C. pecorum*. Substrates were swabbed following exposure, and again after decontamination procedures were carried out. Samples were tested for the presence of chlamydial DNA using qPCR and viability using both RT-qPCR and cell culture. From a total of 239 sampling events, 30 tested qPCR positive for chlamydial DNA, with 19 and 11 samples corresponding to pre-decontamination and post-decontamination events respectively. Detection of chlamydial DNA appeared to be most common in the examination room, especially on substrates in direct contact with koalas. Physical removal of chlamydial DNA, or its degradation by the elements, appeared to be more common on outdoor enclosures, clothing, and hands. Based on the cell culture assay, of the pre-decontamination samples with chlamydial DNA, eight had viable chlamydial cells, two of these at low levels. Of the post-decontamination samples with chlamydial DNA, one had a moderate number, and one had a very low number of viable chlamydial cells. RT-qPCR was unsuccessful in determining cell viability due to low yields of RNA and high levels of contaminants from the environmental samples.

The outcomes of this study provide a knowledge base for the design of future biosecurity evaluation guidelines in captive and koala rehabilitation facilities. The higher incidence of chlamydial DNA detection by qPCR than viable organism highlights the need to use viability assays in similar studies. However, further investment is still needed to optimise these methods and improve sensitivity for complex environmental samples.

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Abstract

22 Transmission of *Chlamydia pecorum* between koalas is a potential risk in field capture or
23 rehabilitation settings, where koalas are held in proximity to each other, or equipment is
24 shared between animals. Given the impact of *C. pecorum* on koala welfare and population
25 viability it is surprising that quarantine and disinfection protocols in a koala rehabilitation
26 facility or capture settings have not previously been evaluated. This study aimed to evaluate
27 an approach, based on the detection of chlamydial DNA and cell viability, to determine the
28 degree of environmental contamination within a koala care facility. Various substrates
29 associated with koala care at a koala rehabilitation facility in New South Wales, Australia
30 were identified as potential sources of chlamydial contamination, following exposure to
31 koalas known to be infected with *C. pecorum*. Substrates were swabbed following exposure,
32 and again after decontamination procedures were carried out. Samples were tested for the
33 presence of chlamydial DNA using qPCR and viability using both RT-qPCR and cell culture.
34 From a total of 239 sampling events, 30 tested qPCR positive for chlamydial DNA, with 19
35 and 11 samples corresponding to pre-decontamination and post-decontamination events
36 respectively. Detection of chlamydial DNA appeared to be most common in the examination
37 room, especially on substrates in direct contact with koalas. Physical removal of chlamydial
38 DNA, or its degradation by the elements, appeared to be more common on outdoor
39 enclosures, clothing, and hands. Based on the cell culture assay, of the pre-decontamination

40   samples with chlamydial DNA, eight had viable chlamydial cells, two of these at low levels.
41   Of the post-decontamination samples with chlamydial DNA, one had a moderate number, and
42   one had a very low number of viable chlamydial cells. RT-qPCR was unsuccessful in
43   determining cell viability due to low yields of RNA and high levels of contaminants from the
44   environmental samples. The outcomes of this study provide a knowledge base for the design
45   of future biosecurity evaluation guidelines in captive and koala rehabilitation facilities. The
46   higher incidence of chlamydial DNA detection by qPCR than viable organism highlights the
47   need to use viability assays in similar studies. However, further investment is still needed to
48   optimise these methods and improve sensitivity for complex environmental samples.
49

50   **Introduction**
51   As is the case for many wildlife diseases, potential for transmission of *C. pecorum* between
52   koalas in care poses a risk to koala welfare, and to wild populations. Hundreds of koalas are
53   admitted into care facilities every year, with chlamydiosis being the second most common reason
54   for hospital admission after trauma (Griffith et al., 2013), and a major cause of infertility and
55   population decline. Chlamydial strain diversity exists across the fragmented catchments of koala
56   hospitals (Higgins et al., 2012) and between neighbouring populations studied by researchers
57   (Fernandez et al., 2019; Robbins et al., 2020) and, in some areas, *Chlamydia*-free populations
58   exist that require protection. Therefore, effective biosecurity practices are necessary to prevent
59   transmission of *C. pecorum* between research populations, or across hospital catchments
60   following fomite transmission between koalas in care. Environmental contamination, and
61   disinfection protocols, have not been evaluated or standardised in koala care facilities. The
62   potential for fomite transmission of *Chlamydia trachomatis* (Versteeg et al., 2020), *Chlamydia*
63   *suis* (De Puysseleyr et al., 2014) and *Chlamydia pneumoniae* (Falsey and Walsh, 1993) has been
64   evaluated using PCR and cell cultures to detect *Chlamydia* and its viability on various surfaces,
65   indicating *C. pneumoniae* and *C. trachomatis*, at least, can maintain viability in the environment
66   for 24 - 30 hours (Falsey and Walsh, 1993; Versteeg et al., 2020), although self-inoculation or
67   direct contact of mucosal membranes with the contaminated surface is still required for
68   transmission (Gitsels, Sanders and Vanrompay, 2019). Guidelines for disinfection of *Chlamydia*
69   *psittaci* exist for avian enclosures and equipment (Balsamo et al., 2017), but these have not been
70   evaluated for *C. pecorum* or for the equipment commonly used in koala care facilities, such as
71   soiled towels and natural bark-covered timber perches. Avoiding pathogen transmission by using
72   various methods of decontamination and segregation is a large part of the daily work in koala
73   care facilities, though current disinfection processes are not evaluated, and clinicians cannot be
74   assured if risks are being mitigated.
75   Due to the novel substrates encountered in koala care facilities, this study aimed to evaluate an
76   approach, based on qPCR, cell culture and RNA-based viability assays, to determine the degree
77   of environmental contamination by *C. pecorum* within a koala care facility. This study provides
78   an evidence base for effective design of programs to monitor contamination and evaluate

79   efficacy of biosecurity practices for *C. pecorum* in koala care facilities, as well as preliminary
80   evaluation of existing practices used in one best-practice facility.
81
82   ## Materials & Methods
83   **Sample collection**
84
85   A total of 239 swabs in duplicate were collected at a koala rehabilitation facility in New South
86   Wales, Australia, from various substrates associated with koala care, using one DNA/RNA
87   Shield SafeCollect™ Swab Collection Kit (Zymo Research cat# R1160-E) for both DNA
88   detection and RT-qPCR, and one UTM® Transport Media swab (Interpath cat# 359C) for
89   *Chlamydia* cell culture. Samples were collected before and after decontamination procedures,
90   from substrates identified in consultation with staff as potential sources of chlamydial
91   contamination in the rehabilitation facility (Table 1), following exposure to koalas verified to
92   be shedding *C. pecorum* based on point-of-care testing (Hulse et al., 2019). DNA/RNA Shield
93   SafeCollect™ swabs were stored at -20°C, while UTM® Transport Media swabs were stored
94   in liquid nitrogen until processing.
95
96   Human volunteers for sampling of hands and clothing provided signed written consent prior
97   to samples being collected. This study was approved by the Human Research Ethics
98   Committee, University of Sydney (Approval No. 2022/007)
99
100   **Detection of chlamydial DNA**
101
102   Genomic DNA from DNA/RNA Shield SafeCollect™ swabs was extracted using a MagMAX
103   CORE Nucleic Acid Purification Kit (ThermoFisher cat# A32702) by taking 200 µL of
104   collection solution from each tube and adding it to a 1.5 mL tube containing 350 µL of
105   MagMAX CORE Lysis Solution and 10 µL of Proteinase K, then briefly vortexed and
106   incubated at 56°C for 1 h. The lysate was then added to a 96DW-plate containing 350 µL of
107   MagMAX CORE Binding Solution and 20 µL of MagMAX CORE Magnetic Beads, then
108   immediately processed on a KingFisher™ Flex automated extraction instrument, using the
109   MagMax_Core_Flex protocol. DNA was eluted to a final volume of 100 µL. Real-time PCR
110   used SensiFAST™ Probe No-ROX Kit (Meridian Bioscience®, Australia) on a CFX96
111   Touch™ Real-Time PCR Detection System with the corresponding CFX Maestro software
112   (BioRad, Australia) and 2 µL of template DNA. The qPCR reaction at a final volume of 20
113   µL included primers and probes targeting *C. pecorum* (*ompB* gene), *Chlamydia* genus (23S
114   rRNA) and koala β-actin reference gene. All primers and probes, described elsewhere (Hulse
115   et al., 2018), were used at a final concentration of 400 nM and 200 nM respectively. PCR
116   conditions were 3 min at 95 °C, followed by 40 cycles of 10 s at 95 °C and 40 s at 58 °C. The
117   limit of detection (LOD) of this multiplex assay is 86 copies per reaction. Samples for which
118   *C. pecorum* was detected by qPCR were processed for cell viability RT-qPCR and their
119   corresponding UTM® Transport Media swabs were processed for chlamydial cell culture.

120

Cell viability analyses

122

123 UTM® Transport Media swabs corresponding to chlamydial DNA-positive sampling events
124 were inoculated onto McCoy B cells (ATCC cat #CRL-1696) in an established chlamydial
125 culture system. Non-infected cell cultures and cells infected with *C. pecorum* at 1 MOI (1 IFU
126 / cell) were included for use as negative and positive controls, respectively. At 44 hours post-
127 infection, cells were fixed with methanol and stained to identify chlamydial inclusions (using
128 FITC-conjugated anti-chlamydial LPS antibody) and viable cells via staining of the nuclei
129 (DAPI). Cells were then imaged on an InCell imager and analysed for *C. pecorum* inclusions
130 using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health).

131

132 Samples collected using DNA/RNA Shield SafeCollect™ Swab Collection Kit that tested
133 qPCR positive for *Chlamydia* were assessed in a RT-qPCR to further indicate viability. RNA
134 was extracted from DNA/RNA Shield SafeCollect™ media for those samples using the
135 QIAGEN Allprep Micro DNA/RNA extraction kit (cat #80284) as per the manufacturer's
136 instructions. RNA samples were checked for concentration and purity on a nanodrop prior to
137 cDNA synthesis. cDNA was synthesised from 5 µg of total RNA using the Invitrogen
138 Superscript™ III First-Strand Synthesis System (cat # 18080051) as per the manufacturers
139 guidelines. qPCR reactions were then prepared using 20 ng of cDNA, 200 nM of forward and
140 reverse primers (Marsh et al., 2011) targeting the assay target gene of *C. pecorum* and
141 Applied Biosystems Fast SYBR™ Green Master Mix (cat # 4385610). DNA targets for
142 normalising controls were included from the in-house assay. The reactions were then run on a
143 Rotor-Gene Q system (QIAGEN). Results were analysed in the Rotor-Gene Q series software
144 using endpoint analysis to compare Cq values of positive and negative controls. The presence
145 of chlamydial RNA in this analysis signifies the potential for active, viable chlamydial cells.

146

147 # Results

148 **Detection of chlamydial DNA**

149

150 From the 239 sampling events, chlamydial DNA was detected in 30 samples using qPCR
151 (Table 2). All positive results showed amplification for both the *Chlamydia* genus target and
152 the *C. pecorum* specific target, and except for two samples (one hands and one oxygen mask),
153 amplification was at or below the assay's LOD. Unexpectedly, no chlamydial DNA was
154 detected on towels used under koalas with urogenital chlamydial disease, before or after
155 decontamination. Among the samples collected, detection of chlamydial DNA was most
156 common in the examination room, especially on substrates in direct contact with the koala,
157 such as the oxygen mask, but also occurred on clothing and hands prior to decontamination.
158 All positive samples from enclosures were from one indoor enclosure containing an infected
159 koala, and one from its adjacent, also indoor, enclosure.

160

161 **Cell viability analyses**
162

163 Based on cell culture, of the 19 pre-decontamination samples with chlamydial DNA, eight had
164 viable chlamydial cells, two of these at low levels. Of 11 post-decontamination samples with
165 chlamydial DNA, one had moderate levels (a volunteer's hands), and one had a very low number
166 (a sample from an oxygen mask), of viable chlamydial cells (Table 2). It was not clear whether
167 the latter sample was from a surface likely to be most exposed to cleaning and future patients, or
168 a less exposed crevice.
169 The nature of the environmental samples had a detrimental effect on sensitivity of both viability
170 assays. Some inhibition of *C. pecorum* inclusions was detected, in association with
171 contamination of samples by an array of other microbial species, including fungi, and bacteria.
172 Further, analyses of viability using the RT-qPCR method were unsuccessful due to low yields
173 of RNA and high levels of contaminants from the environmental samples.
174

Discussion

176 The study provided information of value in the design of guidelines for monitoring
177 contamination and efficacy of disinfection practices for *C. pecorum* in koala care facilities
178 and field studies. Common sites of contamination were identified, and decontamination
179 practices appeared mostly effective in the limited samples available. Based on the detection of
180 chlamydial DNA in absence of viable organisms, viability assays are clearly needed but our
181 experience indicates further work is needed to find an optimal molecular viability assay for
182 these complex environmental samples.
183

184 As expected, contamination was highest in sites associated with direct koala contact (oxygen
185 masks and other clinical equipment) and in sites most protected from the elements (indoor
186 enclosures). Future studies should prioritise these areas. While enclosures may be considered
187 low risk, as chlamydial transmission is generally considered to require moist transfer to a
188 mucosal surface (Gitsels, Sanders, and Vanrompay, 2019), these conditions could be met by
189 aerosolization of *C. pecorum* during hosing, especially within confined spaces protected from
190 the elements. Oxygen masks may be considered higher risk due to potential conjunctival and
191 respiratory contact. It was unclear whether positive swabs were from the contact face of the
192 mask or from crevices more hidden from disinfection and patient contact. Factors such as
193 spray and wipe versus soaking, as well as disinfectant penetration and contact times, should
194 be examined in future studies to confirm most effective approaches.
195

196 Disinfection practices appeared to significantly reduce risk by physical removal (reduction in
197 DNA contamination) and disinfection (reduction in viability), though this was not absolute
198 and viable *C. pecorum* was isolated from an anaesthetic mask in one instance despite
199 thorough washing. Where crevices exist in clinical equipment such as masks, soaking rather
200 than washing should be used, and disinfectant contact times strictly adhered to. Cleaning and
201 disinfection are only one element of a biosecurity program and results of the study support the

202   need for continuing segregation of animals, staff, and equipment- measures that are also
203   employed at the facility studied.
204
205   The low prevalence and low chlamydial loads encountered in this study indicate that
206   evaluation of disinfection and cleaning methods is likely best served by manipulative
207   experiments, where surfaces are manually contaminated with known quantities of viable *C.*
208   *pecorum*, rather than clinical sampling. Previous studies using *C. trachomatis* cultured stocks
209   applied to various surfaces have demonstrated this to be a useful approach for evaluating not
210   only sampling techniques but also the persistence of viable *Chlamydia* over time in the
211   environment (Novak et al., 1995; Versteeg et al., 2020). More controlled manipulative
212   experiments might also allow more effective evaluation of chlamydial viability, as both assays
213   used for this purpose were adversely impacted by environmental contaminants. Clinical
214   sampling would, however, remain useful to evaluate compliance and efficacy in local contexts
215   once ideal methods are established.
216
217   Absence of detection of chlamydial DNA on towels that had been under animals with
218   chlamydial urogenital disease indicates that our approach to sampling this important substrate
219   may have not been effective. This finding is consistent with that of Versteeg et al., (2020)
220   from a woven mat spiked with a *C. trachomatis* culture, suggesting the DNA or organisms
221   may become bound to the substrate. In the current study, the towels were heavily soaked with
222   urine, so it is possible that chlamydial organisms were carried through the towel by the urine,
223   leaving insufficient DNA to allow recovery by swabbing the surface. Swabbing was used to
224   replicate the type of contact expected between the material and the animal but excision of
225   material for direct extraction may be more effective when evaluating efficacy of washing
226   towels and bags.
227
228   Our results highlight the need for further optimisation or novel method development to
229   evaluate chlamydial viability, due to the inhibition encountered with the environmental
230   sample types associated with a koala care facility. Although qPCR is a sensitive screening
231   tool, it does not discriminate between viable and non-viable *Chlamydia*. For example, an
232   oxygen mask sample collected after decontamination had high qPCR chlamydial load, but no
233   viable chlamydial cells were recovered (likely indicating successful disinfection but not
234   removal of residual DNA). The uncertainty around viability assay sensitivity may have
235   resulted in an under-representation of viable contamination in this study.
236

Conclusions

238   The outcomes of this study provide a knowledge base for the design of future evaluation of
239   biosecurity guidelines in captive and rehabilitation facilities; it is inappropriate to interpret
240   this study as an assessment of transmission risk in the facility studied. The study supports that
241   cleaning and disinfection are only one element of an effective biosecurity program;
242   biosecurity practices at the facility studied go beyond these to include practices that ensure

243 segregation of animals, staff, and equipment and this should be considered best practice. The
244 study indicates that most attention should be paid to substrates with potential for direct
245 contact with mucosal surfaces, or those protected from the elements but with potential for
246 aerosol production, for example during cleaning. The greater frequency of detection of
247 chlamydial DNA by qPCR than viable organism indicates the need to use viability assays in
248 these studies, but further investment is needed to optimise these methods and improve
249 sensitivity for the complex environmental samples encountered in wildlife rehabilitation
250 facilities.
251

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255

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Sites and associated decontamination procedures in the study

1   **Table 1.** Sites and associated decontamination procedures in the study

Site sampled	Decontamination procedure
Examination room	
Bench	Spray and wipe down with F10®
Ultrasound Probe	Wipe down with methylated spirits and paper towel
Stethoscope	Spray and wipe down with F10®
Oxygen mask	Washed with chlorhexidine then rinsed under running tap and dried with paper towel
Recovery basket	Sprayed with F10®, and wiped and air dried
Capture bag	Washed with laundry detergent and tumble dried
Personnel	
Clinicians' shoes	Foot bath (F10®) on entry and exit from clinic and enclosures
Clinicians' shirt	Washed with laundry detergent
Clinicians' hands	Washed with soap and water
Volunteer shoes	Foot bath (F10®) on exit from enclosure
Volunteer hands	Hand gel sanitisers (75% ethanol) on exit from enclosure
Enclosures	
Door handle	Not decontaminated during cleaning of enclosure
Walls	Hosed down with water
Mesh	Hosed down with water
Floor	Swept and hosed down
PVC browse holder	Hosed down
Towel under koala with urogenital disease (bleach wash)	Washed with laundry detergent plus a cup of bleach, tumble dried (standard procedure)
Towel under koala with urogenital disease (regular wash)	Washed with laundry detergent and tumble dried
Timber perches	Sprayed with F10®, hosed down and left outside in the elements

2   F10® SC Veterinary Disinfectant (active ingredients quaternary ammonium compounds 5% and

3   biguanide 8%). Soap = KLEENEX® Hand Cleansers. Laundry detergent = Easy Wash - Castle

4   Chemicals PTY LTD. Hand gel sanitiser = Visbella® hand sanitiser (75% alcohol).

Number of chlamydial DNA positive (qPCR) and cell culture swabs before and after decontamination procedures

1 **Table 2:** Number of chlamydial DNA positive (qPCR) and cell culture swabs before and after
2 decontamination procedures

Site sampled	Sampling events	DNA positive (qPCR)		Cell culture	
Examination room		Before	After	Before	After
Examination bench	16	1	1	-	-
Ultrasound Probe	16	1	2	+	-
Stethoscope	18	2	1	-	-
Oxygen mask	18	4	5[b]	+/++/-/-	+/-/-/-/NT
Recovery basket	10	0	0	NT	NT
Capture bag	4	1	0	+++	NT
Personnel					
Clinicians' shoes	8	0	0	NT	NT
Clinicians' shirt	8	3	0	++	NT
Clinicians' hands	4	1	0	-	NT
Volunteer shoes	14	0	0	NT	NT
Volunteer hands	22	2	1	-	++
Enclosures					
Door handle	8	0	0	NT	NT
Walls	30	2[a]	0	+++/++	NT
Mesh	8	0	0	NT	NT
Floor	10	1	0	-	NT
PVC browse holder	10	1	0	+++	NT
Towel under koala with urogenital disease (bleach wash)	8	0	0	NT	NT
Towel under koala with urogenital disease (regular wash)	8	0	0	NT	NT
Timber perches	19	0	1	NT	-

3 NT = not tested; + very few viable chlamydial organisms detected; ++ moderate numbers of viable
4 chlamydial organisms detected; +++ many viable chlamydial organisms detected; - no viable
5 chlamydial organisms detected. [a] one sample in enclosure of infected koala, one adjacent. [b] no
6 "before" sample available for one positive "after" sample