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## Behavioural dominance and *Taenia crassiceps* parasitism in BALB/c male mice

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**Abstract** Behavioural dominance relationships in mouse populations are based upon fighting and antagonistic behaviour. Social rank is affected by the physiological states present in the mice. Experimental infection by *Taenia crassiceps* cysticerci induced physiological disorders and disrupted the dominant-subordinate status. Infected male mice showed strong perturbations in territorial behaviour and aggressiveness. Infected dominant male mice did not show a significant reversal of dominance order compared to uninfected mice. In addition, during confrontation between naive infected and healthy mice, infected animals more often assumed a subordinate status than healthy ones. The effects of the infection by *T. crassiceps* were more likely to prevent adult male mice from becoming behaviourally dominant than to reverse existing dominance relationships. The results are discussed on the basis of the parasite manipulation hypothesis and host optimal foraging and decision-making theories.

In this system, the social rank of a male mouse is dependent on physical, physiological, and immunological capabilities consistent with the adaptive modulation hypothesis and differences in life-history strategy between individuals (Barnard et al. 1994, 1996, 1998). Mice experimentally infected by *Taenia crassiceps* (Zeder, 1800) Rudolphi, 1810 cysticerci are known to exhibit profound physiological (Huerta et al. 1992; Larralde et al. 1995; Morales-Montor et al. 1999; Corbin et al. 2000) and behavioural (Morales et al. 1996; Gourbal et al. 2001) modifications. The present study was undertaken, using both behavioural traits (wounding, urinary marking, and testosterone and corticosterone levels) and behavioural interactions (fighting, submissive posture, retaliation), in order to ascertain whether infection by *T. crassiceps* cysticerci in adult BALB/c male mice interferes with the establishment of dominance or whether the infection could reverse an already established dominance order.

### Introduction

The social system of male mice is based on behavioural dominance and territoriality (Poole and Morgan 1975; Poshivalov 1977), and dominance hierarchies are known to be maintained by fighting and antagonistic behaviour (Beilharz and Beilharz 1975; de Catanzaro and Ngan

### Materials and methods

#### Mice and husbandry

The specific pathogen-free BALB/c male mice (Charles Rivers) used were 8–9 weeks old and were maintained in individual cages (250x160x136 mm) under a 12-h light/12-h dark photoperiod at  $22 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  to avoid any social contact (=naive mice). Food (cereal pellets; Usine d'Alimentation Rationnelle, Epinay-sur-Orge, France) and water were given ad libitum.

#### Parasite and experimental infections

The strain of *Taenia crassiceps* came from cysticerci recovered during the autopsy of a vole, *Microtus duodecimcostatus*, trapped on Saint-Clément-de-Rivière (Hérault, France). Experimental infections of 40 *T. crassiceps* cysticerci were performed via i.p. injection (under anaesthesia) in 0.5 ml of PBS (phosphate buffered saline: 0.15 M NaCl+0.01 M Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> 7H<sub>2</sub>O, pH 7.2) (Freeman 1962; Righi et al. 1996). Healthy mice were sham-injected using the same protocol except that they received only 0.5 ml of PBS. The anaesthesia of animals was achieved using 10% ketamine-rompun in PBS solution, injected i.p. at a dose of 0.1 ml/10 g body weight.

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*T. crassiceps* cysticerci undergo asexual multiplication in the mouse intermediate host. This implies an increase of parasite load during the course of infection (Gourbal et al. 2001).

#### Blood collection and steroid radioimmunoassay

Blood samples (300–400  $\mu$ l) were centrifuged and the plasma (100–150  $\mu$ l) stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until use. All blood samples were collected between 2 p.m. and 4 p.m. in order to control for diurnal fluctuations in circulating steroid levels. Plasma samples were assayed for testosterone and corticosterone according to the methods of Mauget et al. (1994), in the CNRS laboratory of Chizé. The assay procedure was the same for both testosterone and corticosterone and each was measured without chromatography on ether-extracted samples (50  $\mu$ l) via radioimmunoassay (RIA) using specific antibodies (Falvo and Nalbandov 1974).

#### Urinary marking patterns and ultraviolet light visualization

In each experiment, urinary marking was observed to determine the social status of paired animals. Dominant males vigorously mark the entire cage floor with many small urine spots whereas subordinate ones typically void urine in only five to ten pools in the corners of the cages. The number and location of urine spots was used as an indicator of social status (Desjardins et al. 1973). Paired mice were isolated from each other by a transparent and perforated partition; the bottom of the cage was covered with a sheet of Whatman N<sup>o</sup>3 MM filter paper during overnight testing (8 p.m.–8 a.m.). Urine marks on the filter paper were visualized using an ultraviolet lamp.

#### Experimental procedures

The experimental procedures are listed in detail in Table 1. "Pairs" indicates two male mice that were kept in one cage. The mice had not interacted socially prior to the experiments. To determine the dominance status in each experiment over the 5 days of confrontation, mice were weighed, the number of tail and rump wounds was counted and the pattern of urine marks was observed. In experiment 2, blood was collected to determine the testosterone and corticosterone levels (1) before the establishment of dominance status, (2) once dominance status was established and (3) at 36 and 90 days post-infection (DPI).

#### Statistical analysis

A Mann-Whitney U-test was used to analyse the differences observed between urine spots as well as for differences in steroid

levels measured via RIA. A paired Student's *t*-test was used to compare differences in weight within a group and non-paired *t*-tests were used to compare wound numbers between different groups. Data from experiments 2 and 3 were analysed using Fisher's exact test. Results were considered significant at  $P < 0.05$  (Scherrer 1984; Zar 1996). The Statistica and Statview programs were used for analysis.

## Results

### Experiment 1

For the dominant male in uninfected pairs (controls), urine deposition (Fig. 1A,  $Z = -3.97$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) and weight (Fig. 1C, between day 1 and day 5:  $t = -5.19$ ,  $P = 0.0004$ ) increased significantly. For subordinate males the wounds were significantly greater than for the dominant mouse (Fig. 1E, day 5:  $t = -6.08$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ). In infected pairs, dominant mice presented the same urinary marking patterns as subordinate mice (Fig. 1B). The weight of dominant, infected mice increased significantly (Fig. 1D, between day 1 and day 3:  $t = -3.01$ ,  $P = 0.029$ ) There was no significant difference in the number of wounds between dominant and subordinate infected mice (Fig. 1F).

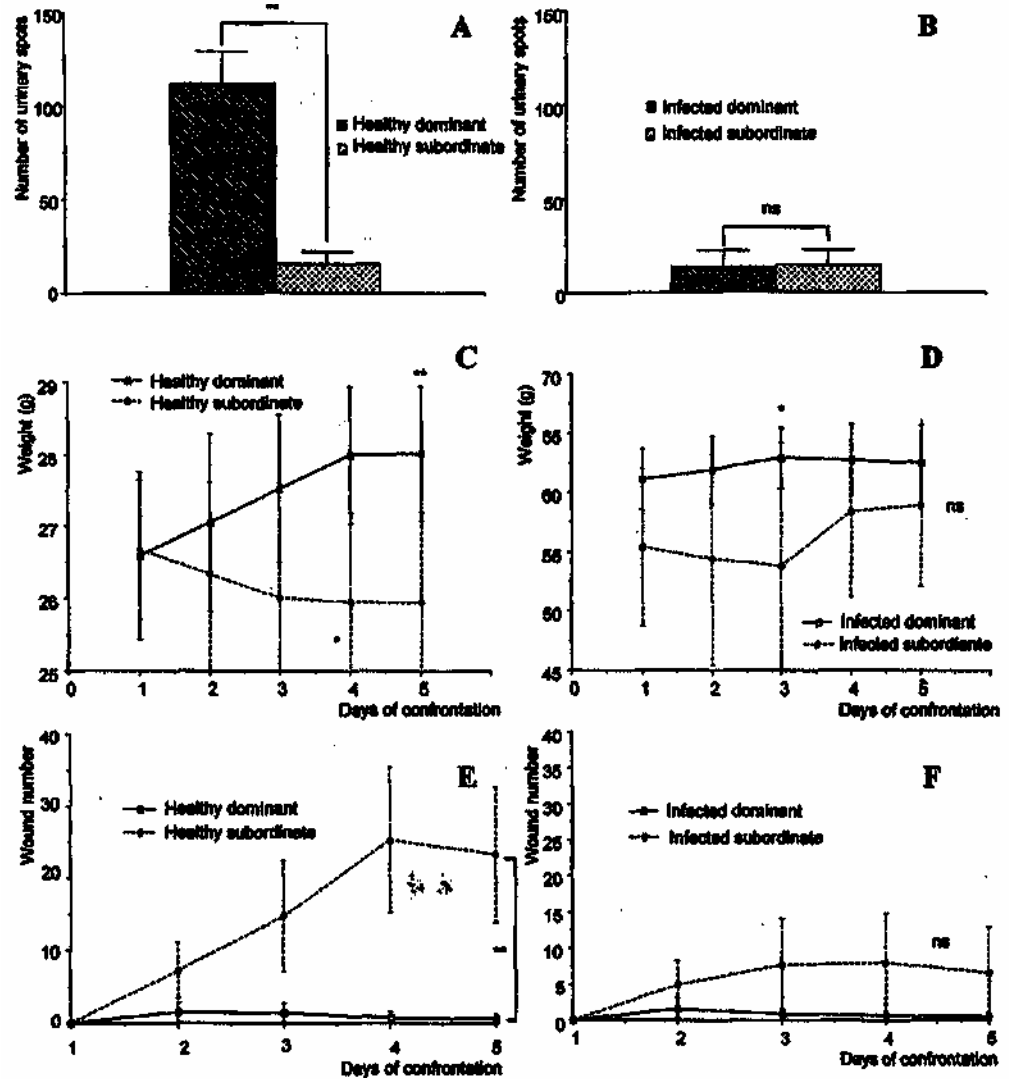
### Experiment 2

During the first 90 days, no retaliation or attack from a when the partitions were removed either for infected or uninfected dominant males. After 90 days, the urinary marking of the mice, the weight and wounds showed that among the six experimental pairs, four dominant males remained dominant and two became subordinate. Among the seven control pairs, four dominant males remained dominant and three became subordinate. There was no significant difference between the reversions observed in the experimental pairs and those observed in control pairs ( $P = 0.407$ ).

Table 1. Experimental procedures. DPI Days post-infection

		Observation
Experiment 1	Six pairs infected 90 days prior to start of observations	5 days of confrontation
Aggressiveness and expression of dominance	Controls: 11 uninfected pairs	
Experiment 2	Six experimental pairs and seven control pairs, checked for dominance order during 5 days. Then paired animals were separated by a perforated plexiglas partition	For 90 DPI the partition was removed each 3 days, observation time 10 min/day
Reversal of dominance order	Experimental pairs: dominant males were infected. subordinate sham-infected Controls: sham-infection of dominant as well as subordinate male	After 90 DPI, 5 days of confrontation
Experiment 3	14 pairs composed of one male infected 90 days prior to start of observation and one uninfected male	5 days of confrontation
Development of dominance order		

**Fig. 1.** Number of urine spots, changes in weight and wound number for dominant and subordinate healthy mice (A, C, E) ( $n = 22$ ) and infected mice (90 days post-infection) (B, D, F) ( $n = 12$ ). Data represent means  $\pm$ SE. \* $P < 0.05$ ; \*\* $P < 0.001$ ; ns not significant



### Experiment 3

Healthy mice deposited significantly more urine spots than infected individuals (Fig. 2A,  $Z = -2.71$ ,  $P = 0.0066$ ). There was no significant difference in weight between infected and healthy mice (Fig. 2B). Wounds were significantly more numerous in infected mice than in healthy ones (Fig. 2C, day 3:  $t = 2.67$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ). Healthy mice became dominant significantly more often than infected mice ( $P = 0.024$ ).

### Steroids radioimmunoassay

There were no significant differences in testosterone or corticosterone levels between healthy dominant and subordinate mice (Table 2). For infected animals, a significant decrease in testosterone level at 36 and 90 DPI was observed (healthy and 36 DPI infected mice:  $Z = -2.10$ ,  $P = 0.035$ ; healthy and 90 DPI infected mice:  $Z = -1.99$ ,  $P = 0.045$ ). The corticosterone levels of infected male mice were the same as healthy animals (Table 2).

### Discussion

The data obtained indicate that an experimental infection of BALB/c male mice with *T. crassiceps* cysticerci does not modify an established dominance order. In fact, infected dominant males lost their social status less frequently than did control mice (experiment 2). In experimental pairs in which the dominant-subordinate relationship was firmly established, the uninfected sub-ordinate male always showed a submissive attitude in the face of an infected dominant male. Such an absence of dominance order reversion has been defined as a settled or stable dominance relationship (Blanchard et al. 1988; Haemisch et al. 1994; Berdoy et al. 1995). On the other hand, for "naive" mice, the infection modified the development of the dominance relationship. During paired confrontations, infected mice were more often subordinate than healthy ones (experiment 3). In addition, the infected animals showed deep perturbations in the expression of dominance status. Furthermore, territorial marking behaviour was affected and the

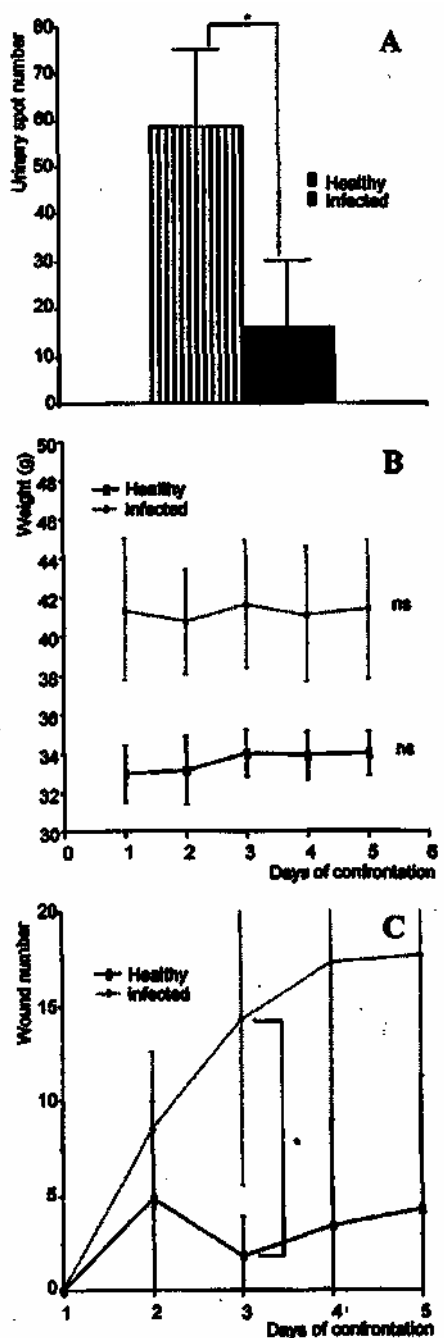


Fig. 2. A Number of urine spots, B weight change and C change in wound number for healthy and infected mice (90 days post-infection). Data represents means  $\pm$  SE with  $n \leq 14$  mice for each group. \* $P < 0.05$ ; ns not significant

aggressiveness of the infected male mice was strongly reduced (experiment 1). In short, infection by *T. crassiceps* was more likely to prevent adult male mice from becoming dominant than to reverse an existing dominance order.

In what ways could the parasite disrupt male mice agonistic behaviour and dominance relationships?

For healthy animals, different studies have reported that dominance rank and social status were associated with the physiological states of mice. Actually, the testosterone levels were often implicated in aggressive encounters between male mice (Kurischko and Oettel 1977; Maruniak et al. 1977; Machida et al. 1981; Compaan et al. 1994). In addition, hormone or energy disorders occurring with aging (Engellenner et al. 1986; Schefer and Talan 1996), and food intake and the cost of fighting (Haller 1991) were implicated in the dominance relationships.

Parasites can disrupt all host health characteristics (Thompson 1983; Thompson and Kavaliers 1994). *T. crassiceps* cysticerci induced disruptive effects on the physiological and energetic states of the mice. In fact, mice infected by *T. crassiceps* metacystodes showed a decrease in testosterone level (Table 2). This decrease was also observed by Larralde et al. (1995). In addition, these authors demonstrated a 200-fold increase of 17  $\beta$ -oestradiol, involving a feminization of *T. crassiceps*-infected male mice. The cysticerci of *T. crassiceps* could also be involved in the disruption of mouse food intake (Crompton et al. 1985; Corbin et al. 1996; 2000), as well as affecting the immunological system of the mouse host (Huerta et al. 1992; Terrazas et al. 1994, 1999; Villa and Kuhn 1996; Toenjes et al. 1999). Under these circumstances, it was not surprising that *T. crassiceps* infection led to modification of the antagonistic behaviour and dominance status of male mice.

The influence of infection on the establishment and expression of dominance status could be interpreted in two ways:

1. On the basis of the manipulation hypothesis (Dawkins 1990; Combes 1995), parasites could modify the establishment of behavioural dominance in order to cause a loss of host social status. This has been demonstrated by Rau (1983, 1984) for rodents infected by *Trichinella spiralis*. The consequence of this manipulation is the expulsion of the infected host from the group. The expelled individuals were more susceptible to predation and thus favored the parasite life cycle.

Table 2. Testosterone and corticosterone radioimmunoassay on 50  $\mu$ l plasma sample for healthy naive, dominant and subordinate mice and for mice infected for 36 and 90 days. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (ng/ml). DPI Days post-infection

	Healthy naive mice	Healthy dominant mice	Healthy subordinate mice	Infected mice (36 DPI)	Infected mice (90 DPI)
Testosterone (ng/ml)	9.2 $\pm$ 7.8	6.7 $\pm$ 5.4	11.7 $\pm$ 7.0	2.1 $\pm$ 2.4	3.8 $\pm$ 5.1
Corticosterone	88.1 $\pm$ 40.0	72.2 $\pm$ 34.7	68.5 $\pm$ 27.4	98.7 $\pm$ 28.9	83.1 $\pm$ 40.2

2. On the basis of optimal foraging theory (Milinski 1990), such behavioral modification could be interpreted as effecting "host decision-making".

In mice infected by *Heligmosomoides polygyrus*, Freeland (1983) observed that infected animals did not invest energy in functions such as social behaviour or sexual competition. This favoured their survival by compensating for both the drain on energy induced by the presence of parasites (Minchella 1985; Hart 1988, 1990; Lozano 1991; Poulin 1998) and the cost of the immune response (Folstad and Karter 1992; Saino et al. 1997).

In conclusion, the effects of a *T. crassiceps* infection on the social behaviour of male mice could be interpreted as a consequence of the disruptions caused by the parasite at two levels. First, on host physiology, including endocrine, neural, immune and neuromodulatory mechanisms and, second, on the host energy budget. In our opinion, these behavioural modifications can not to be considered just consequences of parasite manipulation (Dawkins 1990; Combes 1995) or as a careful use of energy by the host (Milinski 1990), but as the result of the co-evolution of the host-parasite interactions which could be of selective significance for both host and parasite fitness.

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