Identification of Filarial Parasites in Animals in Human Lymphatic Filariasis Endemic Areas in Central Kalimantan, Indonesia

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ABSTRACT
The re-emergence of Brugian filariasis after mass drug administration (MDA) has been documented in Indonesia. A third-round of transmission assessment survey (TAS) in Kotawaringin Barat district revealed positive anti-Brugia IgG4 antibodies in humans, indicating a newly emerged Brugian filariasis transmission. Yet, recent microfilaria (Mf) status in animals is unclear. This study aimed to assess ongoing Brugia transmission in reservoir which could be potential reservoirs of lymphatic filariasis. Cross-sectional surveys were carried out in Sungai Bakau and Dawak village in Kotawaringin Barat, Central Kalimantan to examine blood samples for microfilaria (Mf). Night blood smears (NBS) were collected animal reservoirs include cats (Felis catus), dogs (Canis familiaris) and long-tailed macaque (Macaca fascicularis) and were assessed by microscopic examination and conventional polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Overall, total of 101 blood samples of reservoirs were screened. Microfilaria of Brugia malayi was identified in cats (Felis catus) (n=6/79), long-tailed macaque (Macaca fascicularis) (n=1/5), and dogs (Canis familiaris) (n=1/1). This study indicates the possible interplay between animals and humans in maintaining the LF transmission in Kotawaringin Barat, Kalimantan. Brugia spp. identified as the source of LF infection in these areas. This study recommends the needs to strengthen LF surveillance to reduce LF transmission so that the goal of elimination can be achieved. A One-Health partnership is necessary to control transmission in LF endemic areas.

Keywords: lymphatic filariasis, Brugia spp., reservoir, Central Kalimantan

1. INTRODUCTION
Globally, it is estimated that 120 million people are infected by lymphatic filariasis (LF) and 40 million suffer from chronic disabilities [1]. In 2000, the World Health Organization launched Global Program to Eliminate Lymphatic Filariasis (GPELF) aiming to eliminate LF as public health problem in 2020. This program comprises two strategies: first, a once-annually mass drug administration (MDA) of single doses of diethylcarbamazine and albendazole for at least 5 years, and secondly, a morbidity management and disability prevention by providing access to health care facility to every clinically infected people in endemic areas [2,3].

The LF epidemiology is unique in Indonesia because it is caused by three different filarial species, including Wuchereria bancrofti, Brugia malayi, and B. Timor and each have different vector species and ecological ecotypes. This heterogeneity leads to different patterns of transmission and therefore different strategies of intervention are required [4]. Until 2015, LF were endemic in 239 out of 514 districts across Indonesia. Yet, only 132 districts had implemented MDA-LF. For some reasons, 58 endemic districts had not implemented MDA. There were 48 districts have completed the MDA-LF for 5 consecutive years, but only 26 districts had passed post-MDA survey (Transmission Assessment Survey /TAS) and 22 districts failed the evaluation phase, thus they must implement additional MDA for two consecutive years for further evaluation [5].

In South-East Asia, particularly Indonesia and Malaysia, a wide variety of non-human primates (gibbons, macaques, leaf monkeys and orangutans) are present. The macaques (Macaca spp.) and the leaf monkeys (Presbytis spp.) are the most common among these. Some representatives of these genera in Indonesia and Malaysia are important reservoirs
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 101 of blood samples of reservoirs were screened, 17 dogs (domestic), 79 cats (domestic) and 5 long-tailed macaques (stray) from both study sites. Was identified in cats (n=3), dog (n=1) and long-tailed macaque (n=1). In Sungai Bakau village, we identified in cats (n=1/48) and long-tailed macaque (n=1/3). In Dawak village, B. malayi infected from man and their infection rate is a reflection of the endemicity area [6].

Based on a third-round of transmission assessment survey (TAS) in Kotawaringin Barat district revealed positive anti-Brugia IgG4 antibodies in humans, indicating a possible emergence of Brugian filariasis transmission. Yet, recent microfilaria (Mf) status in humans and animals is unclear. This finding must be taken very seriously since it could therefore, this study was aimed to assess ongoing Brugia transmission in reservoir which could be potential reservoirs of lymphatic filariasis.

DNA extraction and PCR analysis. DNA was extracted from animal reservoir blood samples using a DNeasy® Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with modification based on the manufacturer’s protocol. The amplification of Expression Sequence Tags (EST), highly repeated sequence of filarial DNA and homologous sequence in the genome of Brugia malayi was performed with primers Hha1 F (5’-GCG CAT AAA TTC ATC AGC-3’) and Hha1R (5’-GCC CAA AAC TTA ATT ACA AAA GC-3’) [9,10]. PCR reactions were carried out using GoTaq® Green Master Mix (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). PCR thermocycling conditions were as follows: 94 °C for 5 min; followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 1 min, annealing at 59.6 °C for 1 min and elongation at 72 °C for 1 min; followed by a final extension step at 72 °C for 10 min. The amplified PCR products were separated by 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized by SYBR® safe DNA gel stain (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). A 100-bp DNA ladder was used for calculating the size of the PCR products. Amplification products were purified using Applied Biosystems ExoSAP-IT™ (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Vilnius, Lithuania). Samples were confirmed as positive for B. Malayi based on the amplified DNA fragment size of 322 bp [9,10].

Data analysis. Data were recorded in Microsoft Excel. Descriptive analyses were conducted using SPSS ver.22 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) for analysis

was positively identified in cats (n=2/31) and dogs (n=1/17) (Table 1). In addition, we identified other three species of filarial parasites from blood samples, including B. pahangi, Dirofilaria immitis and D. repens., it was different with B. malayi was identified by conventional polymerase chain reaction analysis.
The filarial worm is transmitted by various mosquito species that can be potential reservoirs of lymphatic filariasis. Our study indicated a newly emerged of Brugian filariasis due to the presence of Brugia IgG4 antibodies in humans. These findings after passed the third round of MDA revealed positive anti-Brugia IgG4 antibodies in humans. This finding is consistent with studies in Sri Lanka and India [7] that also reported high prevalence of Brugia IgG4 antibodies in humans.

Among filarial species, cats were mostly studied in Southeast Asia where cats were implicated as reservoir hosts for human lymphatic filariasis [11,12]. Mansonia and Ochlerotatus, Of which, Mansonia bonneae, which belong to the genus Mansonia, is the main vector of Brugia malayi which responsible for brugian filariasis cases in Dayak Krayan [14]. The habitat of Ma. bonneae in the area is mostly found in the environment in dense forests and the main predominant species from other Mansoniids. This type of ecosystem is typical with that observed in Dawak Village which is also a forest area and also commonly found in Ma. bonneae [15], while in Sungai Bakau Village is a coastal area also found by Ma. bonneae [16]. The physical environment was related to the existing of the vector, which can influence the emergence of infectious sources of infection. The physical environment can create mosquito breeding places. Temperature and humidity affect the growth, life and presence of mosquitoes [17–19]. The environment with aquatic plants in swamps and the presence of reservoir (monkeys, long-tailed macaque, and cats) influences the distribution B. malayi sub-periodic and non-periodic biodiversity [3].

Our findings suggest that the potential of these animals acting as reservoirs of human brugian filariasis need to be further investigated. It is also evident that establishment of veterinary control programs at the point is essential in order to reduce human exposure to infection. From a public health perspective, while the

West Kotawaringin was endemic for brugian filariasis and after passed the third round of MDA revealed positive anti-Brugia IgG4 antibodies in humans. These findings indicating a newly emerged of Brugian filariasis transmission, yet recent microfilaria (Mf) status in animals is unclear. The primary objective of this survey was to assess ongoing Brugia transmission in reservoir which could be potential reservoirs of lymphatic filariasis. Our study revealed potential B. malayi reservoirs in West Kotawaringin district including cats, dogs and long-tailed macaques. Of which, cats were the most dominant B. malayi reservoir in the area. Filarial parasites among cats have been mostly studied in Southeast Asia where cats were implicated as reservoir hosts for human lymphatic filariasis [11,12]. Among filarial species, Dirofilaria repens was found to be the most dominant species found in the animals. Our finding is consistent with that studies in Sri Lanka and India[7] that also reported high prevalence of D. repens in animals [13].

The filarial worm is transmitted by various mosquito species belong to genus of Anopheles, Aedes, Culex, Mansonia, and Ochlerotatus. Of which, Mansonia bonneae, which belong to the genus Mansonia, is the main vector of Brugia malayi which responsible for brugian filariasis cases in Dayak Krayan [14]. The habitat of Ma. bonneae in the area is mostly found in the environment in dense forests and the main predominant species from other Mansoniids. This type of ecosystem is typical with that observed in Dawak Village which is also a forest area and also commonly found in Ma. bonneae [15], while in Sungai Bakau Village is a coastal area also found by Ma. bonneae [16].

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Filarial parasite was identified both microscopic examination and conventional PCR assay. Although microscopic examination of microfilariae known as gold standard and the most widely accepted diagnostic tools for filarial worm infections, however it has limitations in terms of sensitivity during large scale screening, particularly in low or very low endemic areas. This method requires great effort for both the patients as well as the collector, because the blood samples collection must be done at night between 20:00 to 2.am. For this reason, we use the molecular method as part of this study. DNA based detection method has been reported to have better sensitivity and specificity than conventional methods. Moreover, this method can be applied with more flexible time for blood collection, both day and night [20,21].

### Table 1. Animal reservoirs of microfilariae identified in study sites during the survey based on microscopic examination and conventional polymerase chain reaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>+ive B.malayi</th>
<th>+ive B. pahangi</th>
<th>+ive Dirofilaria immitis</th>
<th>+ive Dirofilaria repens</th>
<th>+ive B.malayi + Dirofilaria repens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sungai Bakau</td>
<td>Cats (Felis catus)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1 (2.08)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>1 (2.08)</td>
<td>16 (33.33)</td>
<td>3 (6.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dogs (Canis familiaris)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Long-tailed macaque (Macaca fascicularis)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 (33.33)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dawak</td>
<td>Cats (Felis catus)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2 (6.45)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dogs (Canis familiaris)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1 (5.88)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>4 (23.52)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Long-tailed macaque (Macaca fascicularis)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0 (0.20)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>101</td>
<td>5 (4.95)</td>
<td>0 (0.00)</td>
<td>5 (4.95)</td>
<td>16 (15.84)</td>
<td>3 (2.97)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
prevalence of *B. malayi* in animals was relatively lower, the presence of these microfilaria in domestic animals warrant an appropriate prophylaxis to be administered to these animals (e.g., cats and dogs) to prevent LF transmission.

4. CONCLUSION

Our study indicates the possible interplay between animals and humans in maintaining the LF transmission in Kotawaringin Barat, Kalimantan. *Brugia* spp. identified as the source of LF infection in these areas. This study recommends the needs to strengthen LF surveillance to reduce LF transmission so that the goal of elimination can be achieved. A One-Health partnership is necessary to control transmission in LF endemic areas.

REFERENCES


