

Monkey business



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Monkey business



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Haematology



Mr JP: History

- 39 year old Australian man
- 2/52 morning fevers, headaches
- Presented to GP who was concerned enough to refer to Mona Vale Hospital
- Mild illness



Background

- No significant past medical history
- Works as a commercial manager for coal mine, Kalimantan, Indonesian Borneo
- 10 days every month in Borneo
- No antimalarial prophylaxis
- Does not recall mosquito bites
- Onset of illness 13 days after leaving mine site, Indonesian Borneo











Examination

- Examination

- Febrile 39, HR 88
- BP 126/80mmHg, SaO₂ & RR normal
- Nil else

- Investigations

- Platelets **106** x 10⁹/L [150-450 x 10⁹/L]
- WCC **3.7** x 10⁹/L [4.3-10 x 10⁹/L]
- Biochemistry normal



Differential diagnosis?

- What further investigations would assist?



Differential diagnosis

■ Travel related

- Malaria
- Malaria
- Malaria
- Dengue
- Enteric fever:
 - typhoid
 - paratyphoid
- Leptospirosis
- Scrub typhus
- HIV

■ Non-travel related

- Influenza
- Atypical respiratory tract infection
- Other viral infection



Investigations

- Thick and thin blood films: malaria parasites, unusual appearance
- Rapid diagnostic test: *Plasmodium falciparum* ICT HRP2 negative
- Blood cultures: no growth
- Serology
flavivirus/dengue/leptospirosis/typhus
 - All negative (not unexpected)



Imported Malaria

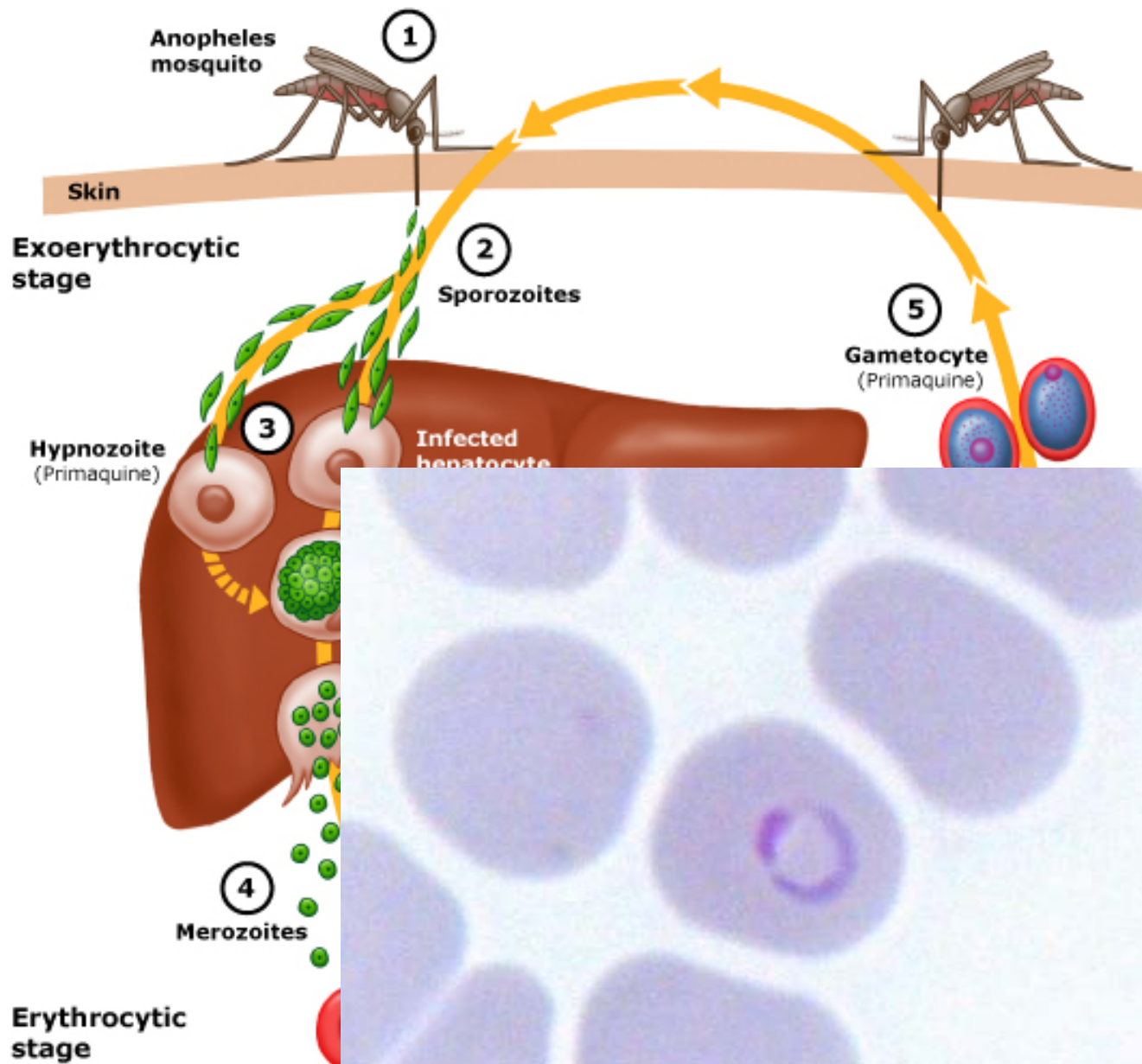
- **Malaria** is the most common exotic diagnosis in febrile travelers presenting to tertiary referral hospitals
- **MUST** be excluded in any febrile traveler returning from a malaria endemic area
- Diagnosis: by thick & thin blood films + help from rapid diagnostic test
- Initial films can be negative, need repeating to exclude malaria (2-3 over 48-72hrs)
- Diagnostic error rate microscopy *P.falciparum* 15% NSW (Walker et al., NSW PHB 2005)
- Major risk factor for severe malaria is a **delay in the diagnosis & correct management**

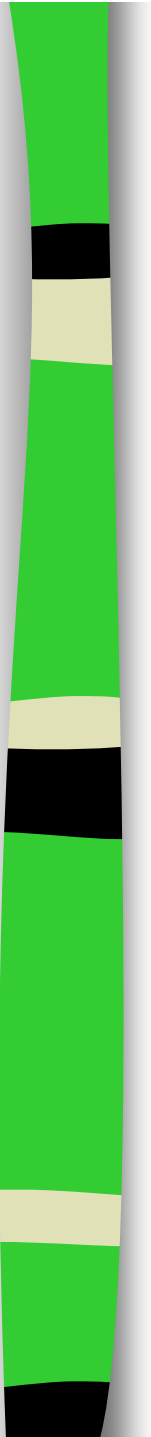
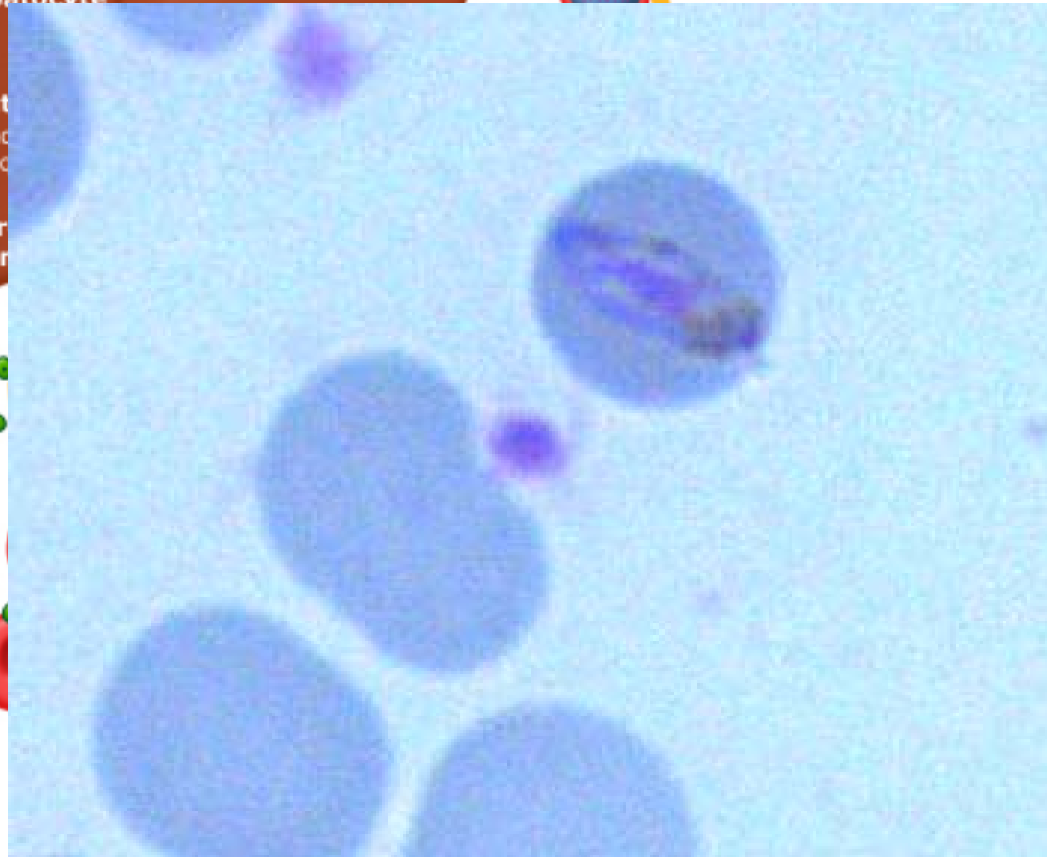
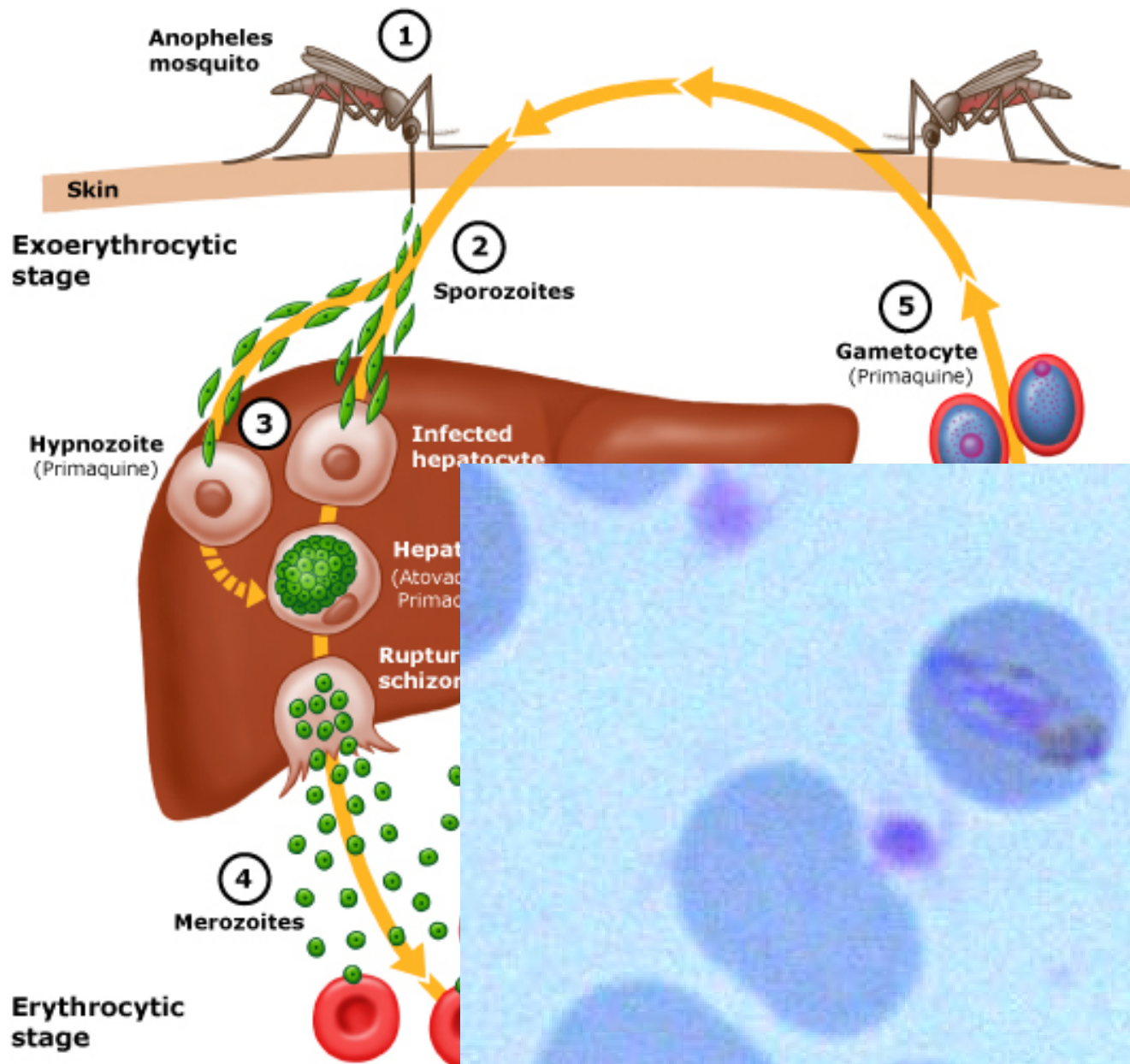
“Human” malaria

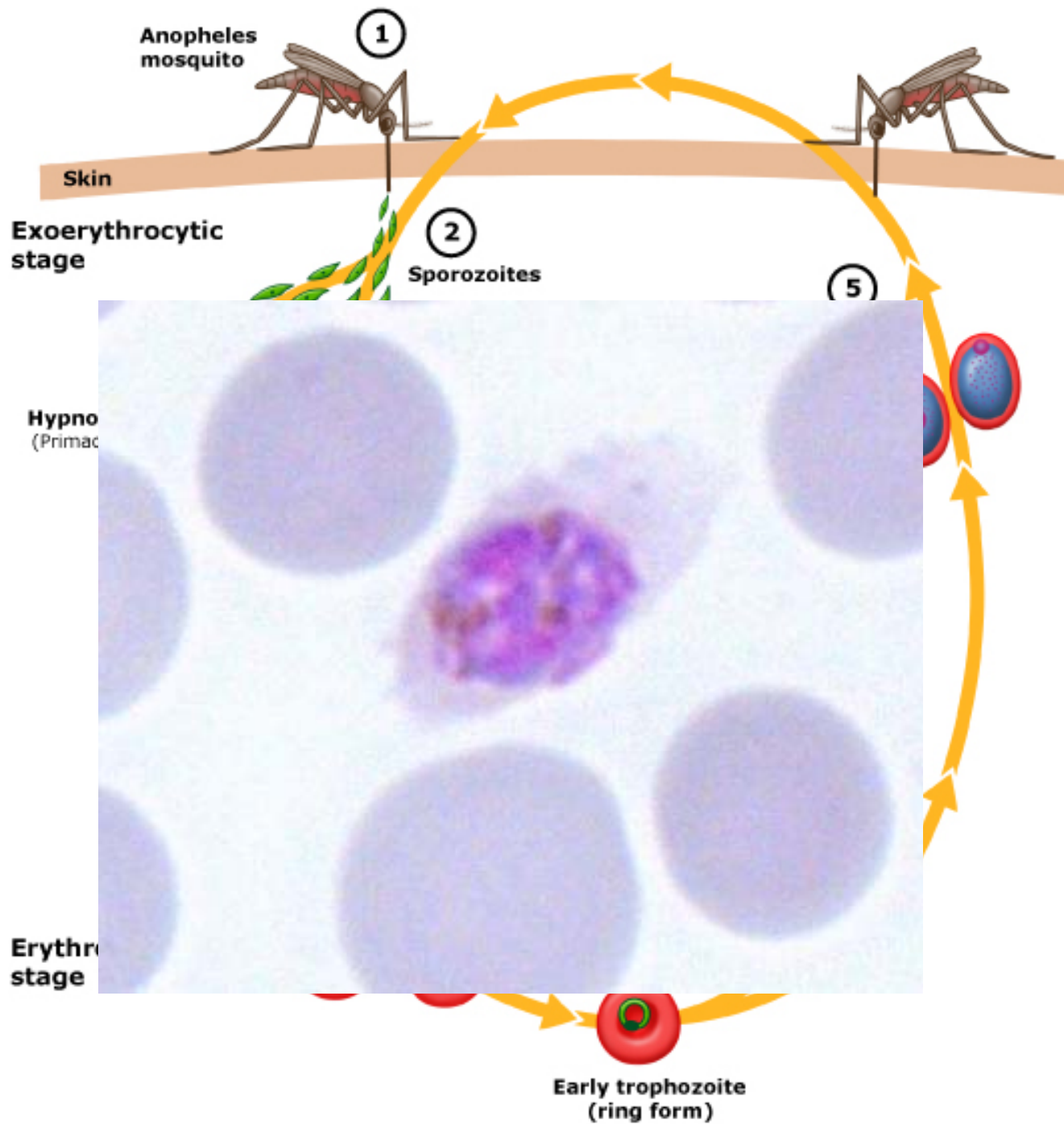
- *Plasmodium falciparum*
- *Plasmodium vivax*
- *Plasmodium ovale*
- *Plasmodium malariae*

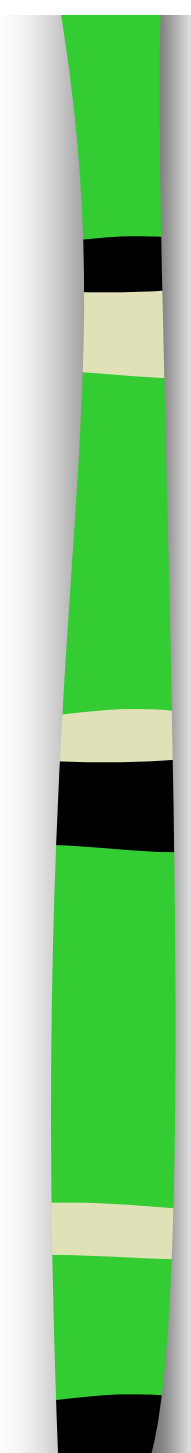
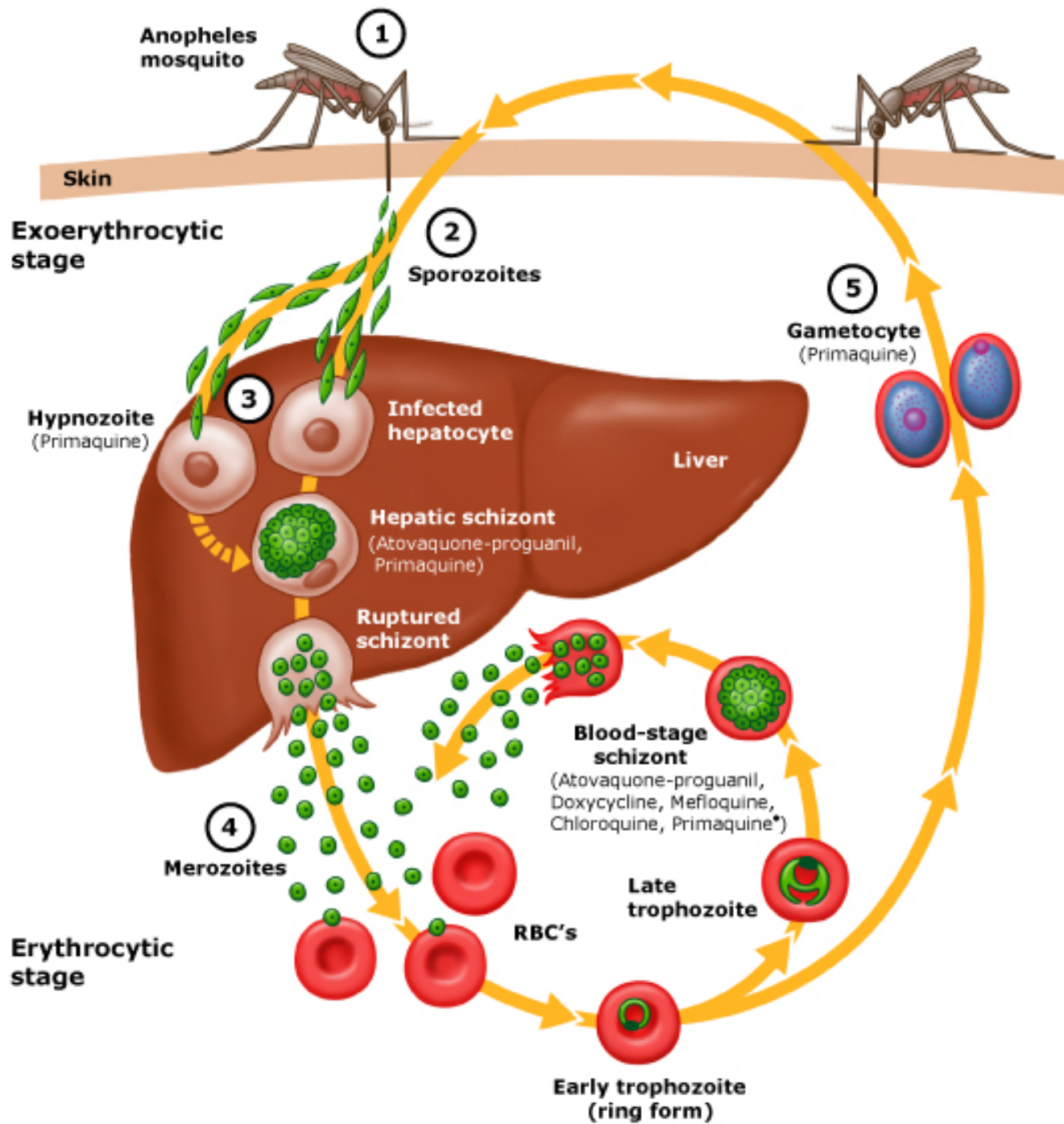
- *Plasmodium knowlesi*
- *Plasmodium inui*
- *Plasmodium cynomolgi*

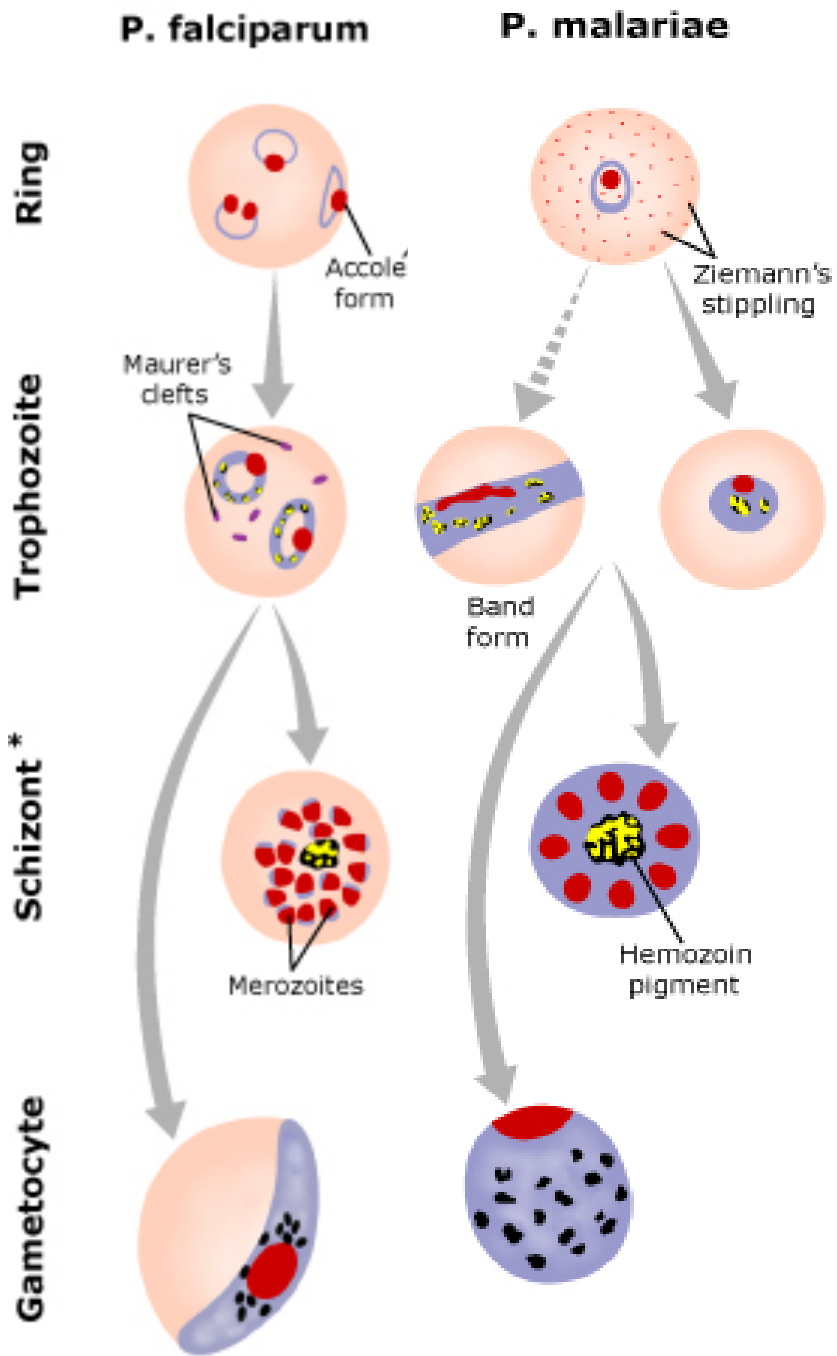




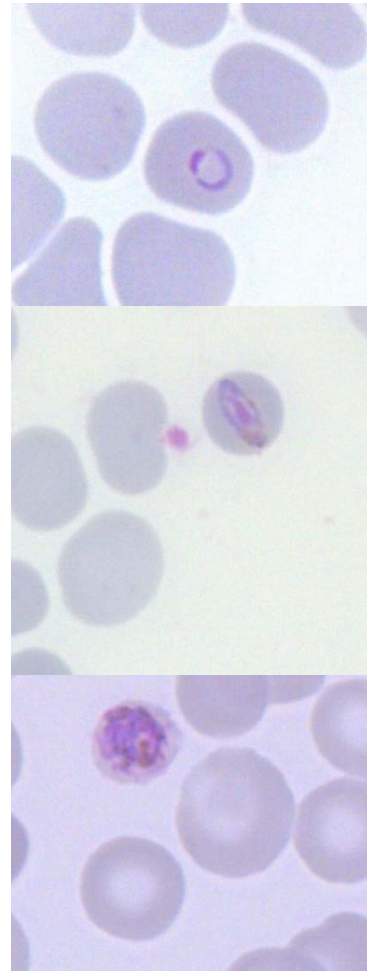




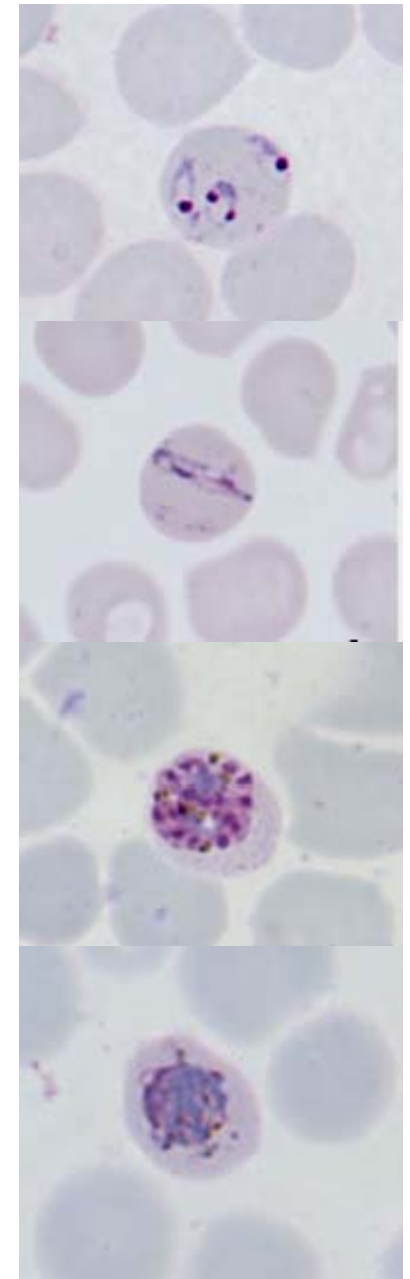




Mr JP



P. knowlesi



Singh et al., 2004

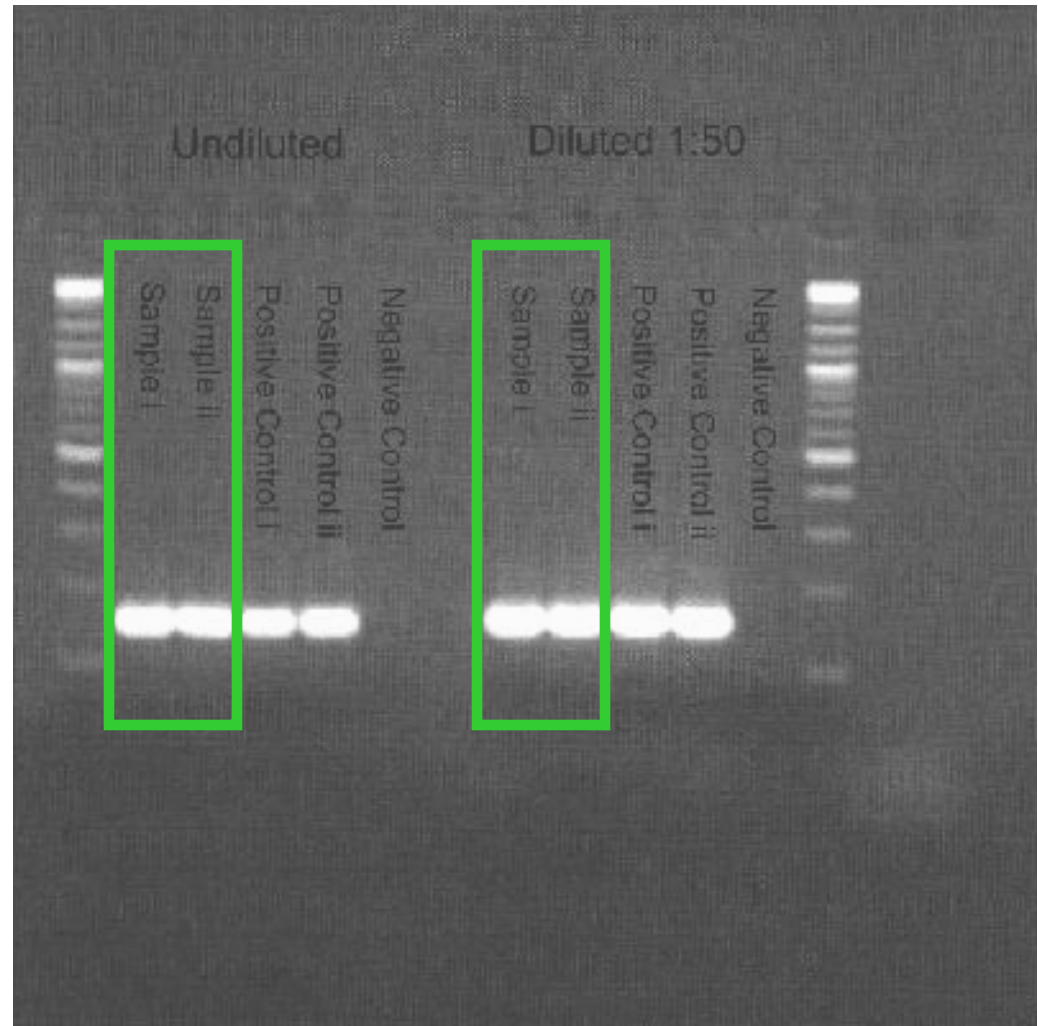


Which species?

- Suspicion of monkey malaria *Plasmodium knowlesi* recently described as the “5th human malaria”
- Molecular confirmation required
- Multiplex PCR for 4 main human malaria species negative
- Request Army Malaria Unit for *Plasmodium knowlesi* PCR and sequence

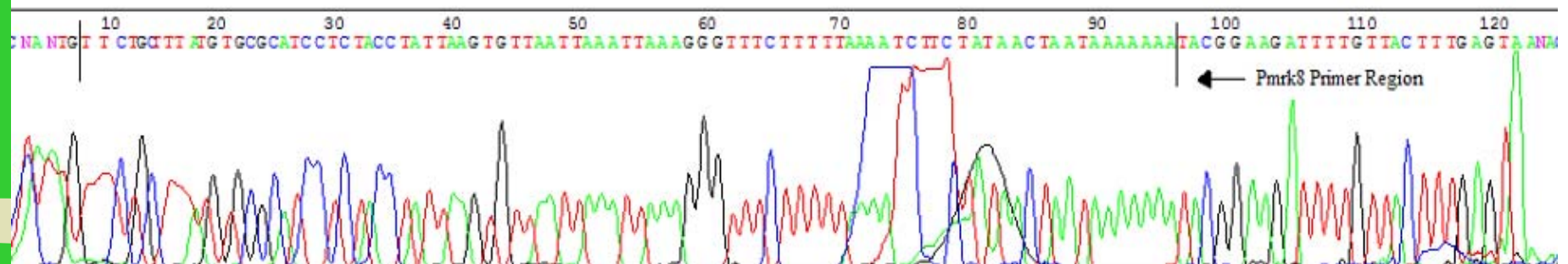
Plasmodium knowlesi PCR

- 153bp
PCR
product



Plasmodium knowlesi DNA sequencing

- DNA sequencing
- 100% match to *P. knowlesi* subunit RNA

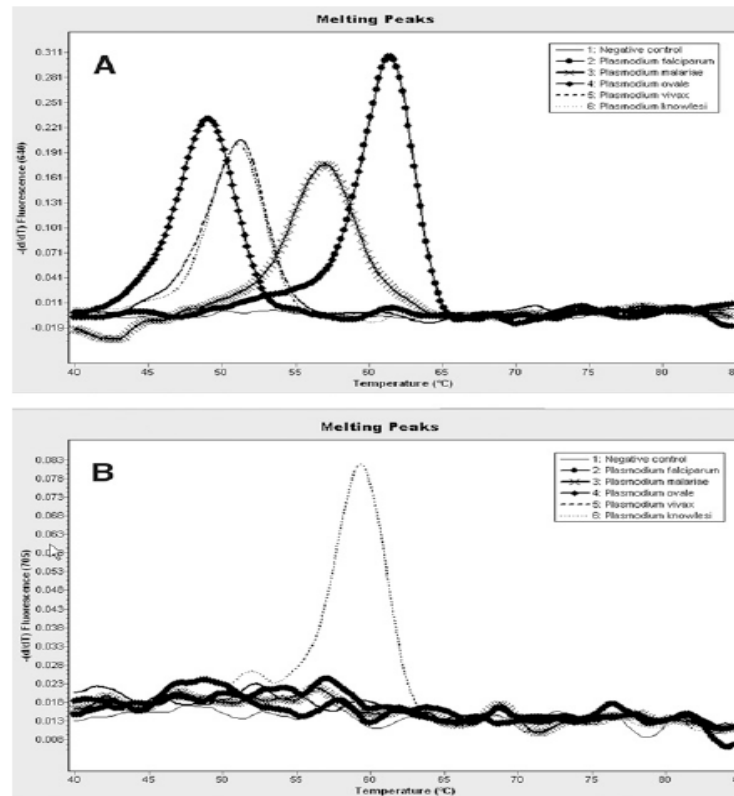


Short Report: Detection of *Plasmodium knowlesi* by Real-Time Polymerase Chain Reaction

N. Esther Babady, Lynne M. Sloan, Jon E. Rosenblatt, and Bobbi S. Pritt*

Division of Clinical Microbiology, Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minnesota

Abstract. We previously developed a real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assay for detection of the four *Plasmodium* species that infect humans. Recent studies have shown that natural transmission of the simian parasite *Plasmodium knowlesi* to humans occurs frequently in Southeast Asia. We have expanded our PCR assay to include detection of *P. knowlesi*.



Plasmodium species	Tm (°C)
<i>P. falciparum</i>	61.33
<i>P. malariae</i>	57.10
<i>P. ovale</i> <i>P. vivax</i>	49.42
<i>P. vivax</i>	51.41
<i>P. knowlesi</i>	51.15

Plasmodium species	Tm (°C)
<i>P. knowlesi</i>	59.33

FIGURE 1. Detection of *Plasmodium* species by real-time polymerase chain reaction. Positive reaction = melting curve; negative reaction = no melting curve. **A**, detection of all four human *Plasmodium* species, as well as *P. knowlesi*. *Plasmodium knowlesi* is indistinguishable from *P. vivax* at 640 nm on the basis of melting curve analysis. **B**, Same reaction as in Figure 1A, shown at 705 nm. At this wavelength, this assay only detects *P. knowlesi* DNA.



Plasmodium knowlesi

- History
- How common?
- Why is it important?
- Diagnosis
- Management



Plasmodium knowlesi: history

- Described by Knowles and Das Gupta 1932
- Host versatility in laboratory
- Used to treat neurosyphilis
- First naturally acquired human case 1965, US intelligence in Malaysian jungle
 - Inoculated blood into prison “volunteers”
 - “Volunteers” became sick with increasing parasitaemia
 - Inoculated monkeys => died



Plasmodium knowlesi

- Accepted as the “5th” human malaria
- Molecular techniques have led to recognition (Singh et al., 2004)
- South-East Asia forest areas
- Zoonotic disease
- Monkeys
 - > *Anopheles latens* mosquito > humans
- However human > mosquito > human transmission can occur



Plasmodium knowlesi: how big a problem?

- Accounts for 70% malaria in rural areas of Sarawak Malaysia (Daneshvar, **2009**)
- Case reports from other SE Asian countries
 - Returning travellers to USA, Europe



Clinical and Laboratory Features of Human *Plasmodium knowlesi* Infection

Clinical Infectious Diseases 2009;49:652-60
© 2009 by the Infectious Diseases Society of America
1058-4626/2009/4906-0004\$15.00
DOI: 10.1093/cid/cin5439

649 (15 September) • Daneshvar et al

Cyrus Daneshvar,¹ Timothy M. E. Davis,³ Janet Cox-Singh,¹ Mohammad Zakri Rafa'ee,² Siti Khatijah Zakaria,¹ Paul C. S. Davis,¹ and Balbir Singh,¹

¹Malaria Research Centre, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak, and ²Kapit Hospital, Sarawak, Malaysia; and ³Department of Medicine, Fremantle Hospital, University of Western Australia, Fremantle, Australia

Background. *Plasmodium knowlesi* is increasingly recognized as a cause of human malaria in Southeast Asia but there are no detailed prospective clinical studies of naturally acquired infections.

Methods. In a systematic study of the presentation and course of patients with acute *P. knowlesi* infection, clinical and laboratory data were collected from previously untreated, nonpregnant adults admitted to the hospital with polymerase chain reaction–confirmed acute malaria at Kapit Hospital (Sarawak, Malaysia) from July 2006 through February 2008.

Results. Of 152 patients recruited, 107 (70%) had *P. knowlesi* infection, 24 (16%) had *Plasmodium falciparum* infection, and 21 (14%) had *Plasmodium vivax*. Patients with *P. knowlesi* infection presented with a nonspecific febrile illness, had a baseline median parasitemia value at hospital admission of 1387 parasites/ μ L (interquartile range, 6–222,570 parasites/ μ L), and all were thrombocytopenic at hospital admission or on the following day. Most (93.5%) of the patients with *P. knowlesi* infection had uncomplicated malaria that responded to chloroquine and primaquine treatment. Based on World Health Organization criteria for falciparum malaria, 7 patients with *P. knowlesi* infection (6.5%) had severe infections at hospital admission. The most frequent complication was respiratory distress, which was present at hospital admission in 4 patients and developed after admission in an additional 3 patients. *P. knowlesi* parasitemia at hospital admission was an independent determinant of respiratory distress, as were serum creatinine level, serum bilirubin, and platelet count at admission ($P < .002$ for each). Two patients with knowlesi malaria died, representing a case fatality rate of 1.8% (95% confidence interval, 0.2%–6.6%).

Conclusions. Knowlesi malaria causes a wide spectrum of disease. Most cases are uncomplicated and respond promptly to treatment, but approximately 1 in 10 patients develop potentially fatal complications.



Plasmodium knowlesi:

Why is it important?

- Individual
 - Mistaken as more benign *P. malariae*
 - 24 hour erythrocytic cycle potential for high parasitaemia
 - Evades host immune system
- Daneshvar et al., CID 2009
 - 6.5% severe infection
 - 2% fatal (1 stroke intercurrent)
 - 100% had thrombocytopaenia



Plasmodium knowlesi:

Why is it important?

■ Public Health

- Monkey reservoir for human malaria
- Standard preventive measures (insecticide-treated nets, indoor residual spraying and Rx of reservoir population) may not be effective or practical
- Opens up possibility of human infection with other simian malarias eg *P.inui* & *P.cynomolgi* (have **anthrophilic** Anopheles sp as vectors)



Plasmodium knowlesi: Diagnosis

- Presumptive diagnosis based on epidemiological data + unusual morphology
- Molecular diagnosis is the only definitive confirmatory diagnosis
- Current rapid diagnostic tests not specific
 - Shared pLDH epitopes with *P.vivax*
 - Shared pLDH epitopes with *P.falciparum*



Plasmodium knowlesi: management

- High index of suspicion
- Severe (as for severe malaria in general)
 - Artemether or Quinine parenteral
- Uncomplicated (?depending on what was taken as prophylaxis)
 - **Artemether/lumefantrine** (Riamet)
 - Quinine + either doxycycline or clindamycin
 - Atovaquone/proguanil
 - Mefloquine
 - **Chloroquine**
- For benign *P. malariae*: chloroquine



Mr JP

- Atovaquone/proguanil (Malarone)
 - Wanted to leave for Kalimantan
- Within 48 hours
 - Asymptomatic
 - Platelets normalised
- Back in Indonesian Borneo
- Counseled re: vector avoidance



Rapid Diagnostic Tests

- Malaria
 - Pl. Falciparum
 - Histidine Rich Protein - 2
 - All plasmodium species
 - Plasmodium Lactate Dehydrogenase
 - Aldolase



Rapid Diagnostic Tests

- RDTs are lateral flow 'immuno-chromatographic' antigen-detection tests, which rely on the capture of dye-labeled antibodies to produce a visible band on a strip of nitro-cellulose.



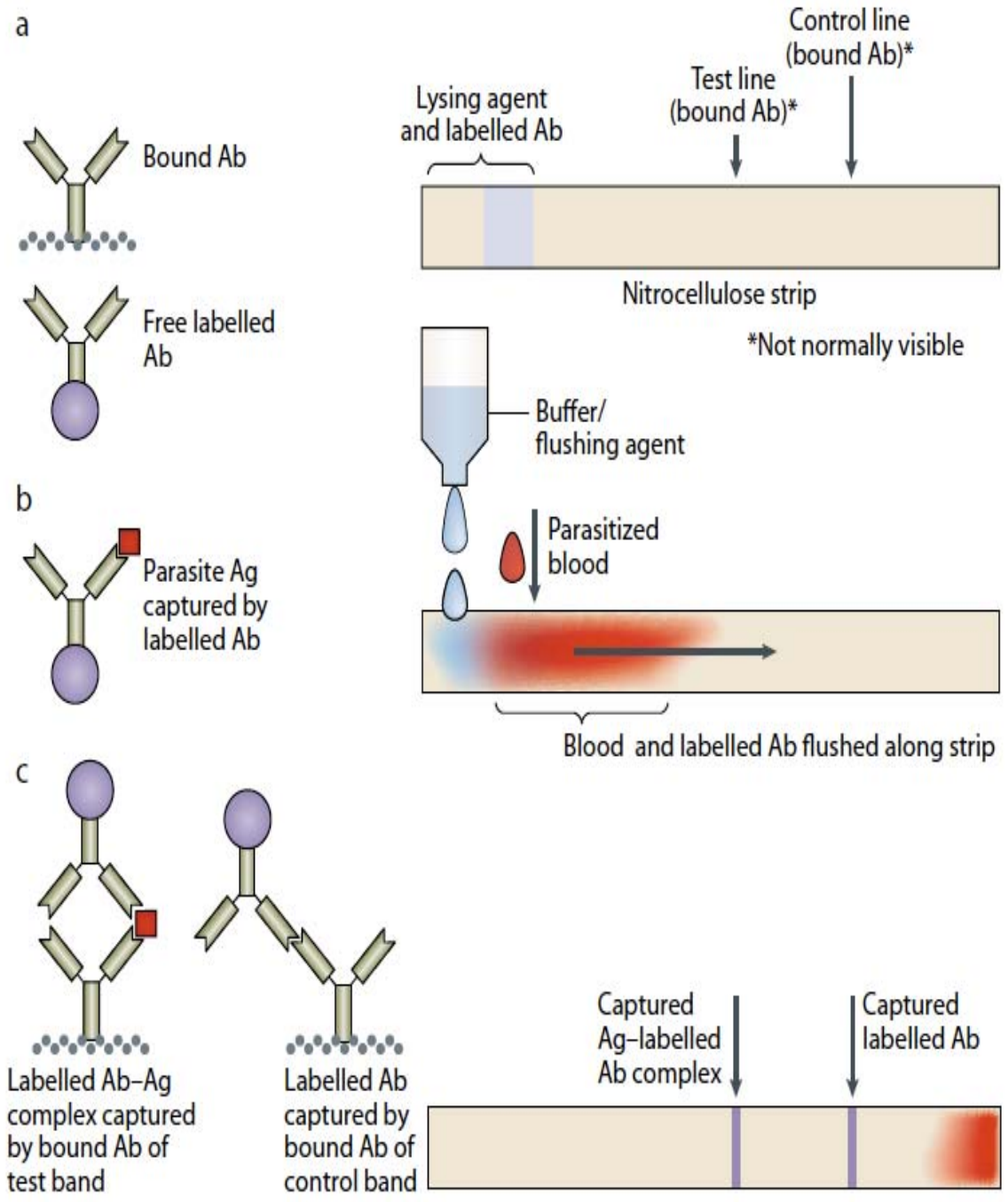
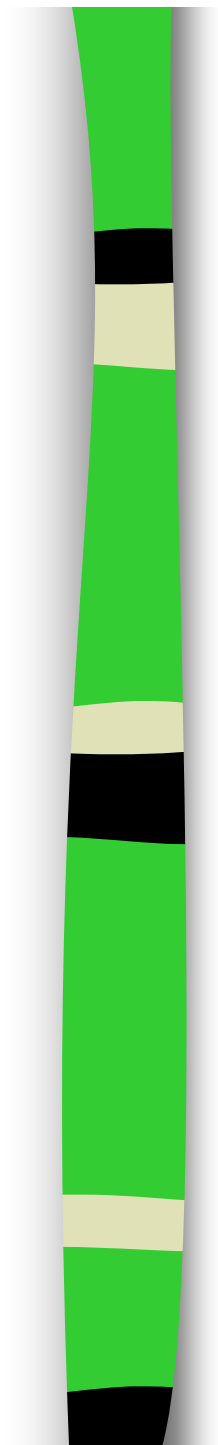
Rapid Diagnostic Tests (2)

- With malaria RDTs, the dye-labeled antibody first binds to a parasite antigen, and the resultant complex is captured on the strip by a band of bound antibody, forming a visible line (test line).



Rapid Diagnostic Tests (3)

- A control line gives information on the integrity of the antibody-dye conjugate, but does not confirm the ability to detect parasite antigen.





Potential uses for malarial RDTs


- Diagnosis by health workers distant from good microscope services.
- Remote diagnosis in organized workforces in malaria-endemic areas (eg military or mining companies).
- Outbreak investigation and malaria prevalence surveys.
- Self diagnosis by trained individuals or groups.
- ‘After-hours’ diagnosis in hospital laboratories or clinics.



RDT Sensitivity

The sensitivity of malarial RDT's is determined by the:

- parasite species
- parasite viability
- variation in antigen structure and expression
- conditions of the RDT
- correctness of technique used to perform the test
- correctness of interpretation by the reader



Malaria Rapid Diagnostic Test Performance

Results of WHO product testing of
malaria RDTs: Round 1 (2008)



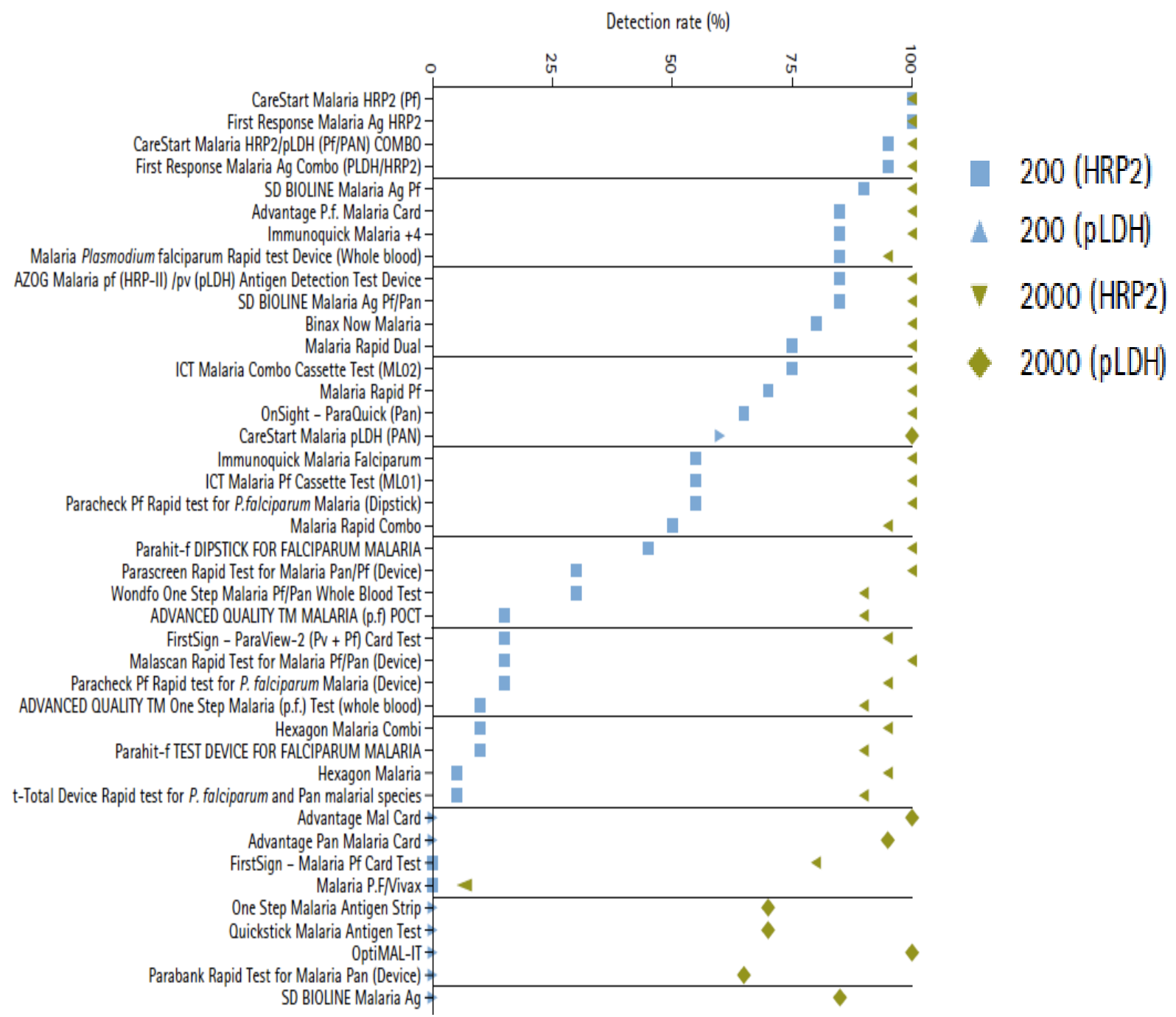
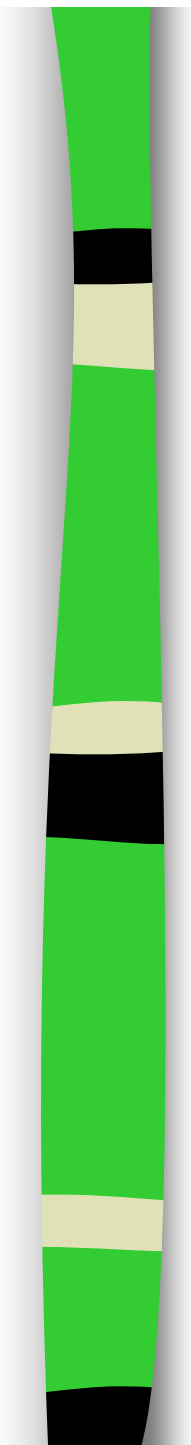
Special issues for malaria RDTs

Use in remote areas

Limited temperature control	→	Prolonged exposure to tropical temperatures
Poor re-supply	→	Require long shelf life
Village-level diagnosis	→	Limited supervision Use by health workers with less training

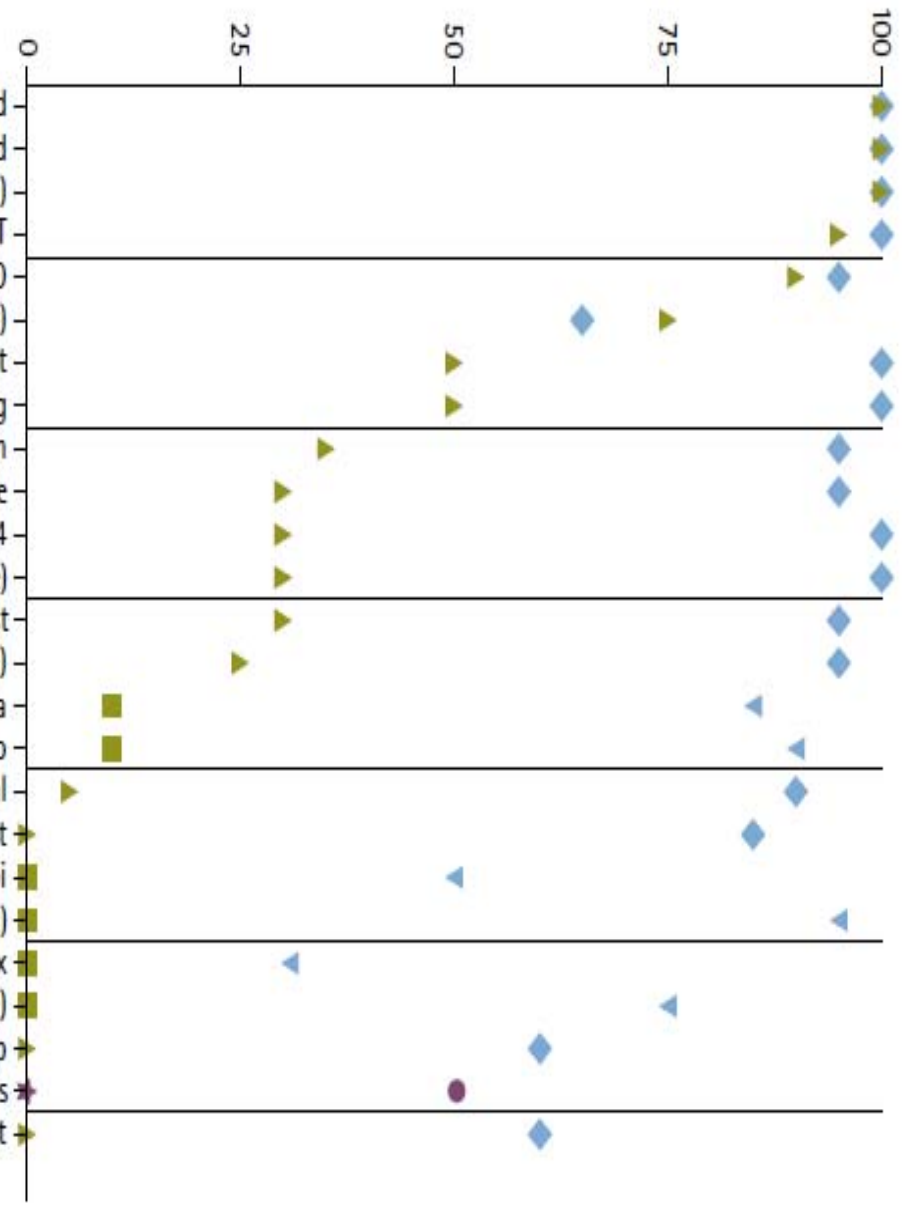
Potentially rapidly-fatal disease

High sensitivity or limited reliance on negative result essential



- 200 (aldolase)
- ▲ 200 (pLDH)
- ★ 200 (pLDH + aldolase)
- ▼ 2000 (aldolase)
- ◆ 2000 (pLDH)
- 2000 (pLDH + aldolase)

Detection rate (%)





Negative predictive value poor

A **negative** RDT does *not always* exclude malaria with certainty as:

- There may be *insufficient parasites* to register a positive result
- The RDT may have been *damaged*, reducing its sensitivity
- Illness may be caused by *another species* of malarial parasite which the RDT is not designed to detect

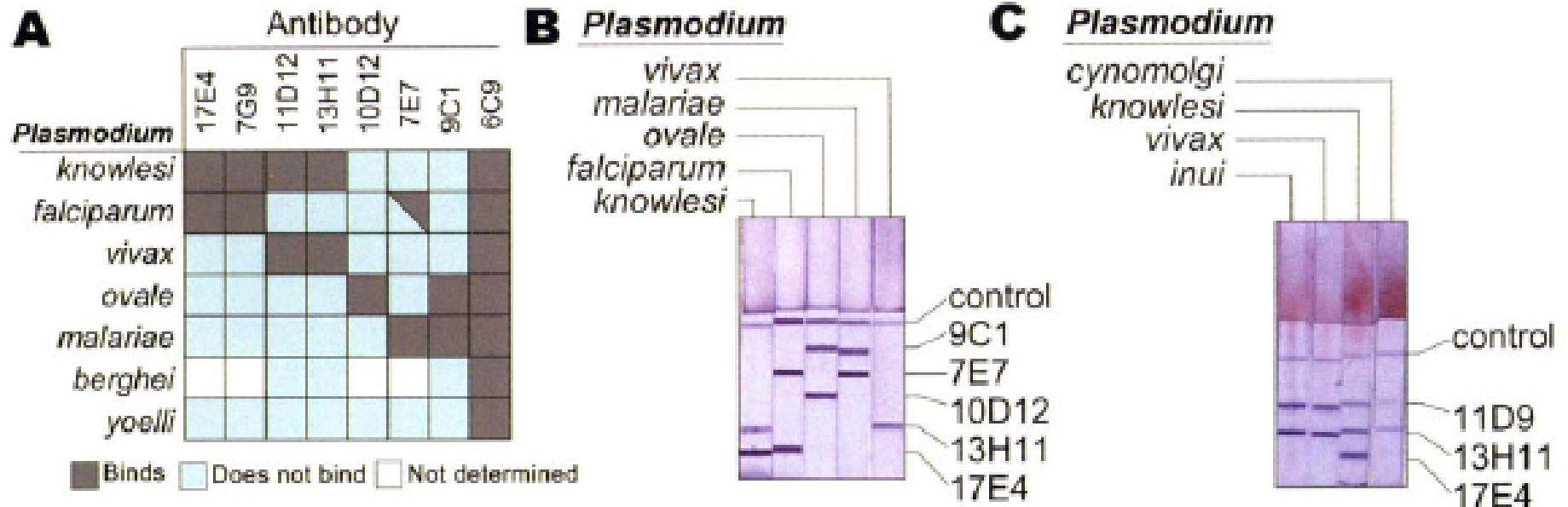


Figure 1. Binding specificity of different anti-*Plasmodium* lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) antibodies. A) Shown are the reactivities of the indicated monoclonal antibodies (MAbs) to the LDH from 7 *Plasmodium* spp. Reactivity was determined by using an immunocapture assay as previously described (9). B) Example of an immunodipstick assay that detects *P. knowlesi*. An immunochromatographic strip assay containing the indicated antibodies was allowed to wick lysed blood infected with *P. vivax*, *P. falciparum*, *P. knowlesi*, *P. ovale*, or *P. malariae*. Blood was wicked in the presence of colloidal gold conjugated to antibody 6C9, which binds all pLDH isoforms. *P. vivax* LDH is immobilized only by 11D9 and 13H11, and *P. falciparum* LDH was only immobilized by 17E4. *P. knowlesi* LDH was immobilized by 11D9 and 13H11 antibodies and also by 17E4. C) An immunochromatographic strip assay containing the indicated antibodies was allowed to wick lysed blood infected with *P. vivax*, *P. cynomolgi*, *P. inui*, and *P. knowlesi*. Blood was wicked in the presence of colloidal gold conjugated to antibody 6C9, which binds all pLDH isoforms. Both *P. cynomolgi* and *P. inui* show the same epitope profile as *P. vivax*.



Will PCR Rule?

- Increasingly feasible in main labs
- Confirmatory, epidemiology
- Specimen
 - Finger prick
 - Peripheral blood
- Parasite burden v Parasitemia
 - HRP2 & severity of malaria

Unified Parasite Lactate Dehydrogenase and Histidine-Rich Protein ELISA for Quantification of *Plasmodium falciparum*

Samuel K. Martin, G-Halli Rajasekariah,* George Awinda, John Waitumbi, and Carolyn Kifude
United States Army Medical Research Unit, Nairobi, Kenya; Biofirm Pty, Sydney, Australia

Abstract. There is a need for more objective and quantitative tools to replace microscopy in malaria diagnosis. Emphasis has recently been placed on alternative methods such as immunochromatography-based rapid tests. However, these tests provide only qualitative results. Two bio-molecules, parasite lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) and histidine-rich proteins (HRPs), that are released by the intra-erythrocytic stages of the parasite offer certain specific characteristics that could potentially improve malaria diagnosis. In this paper, we describe a protocol for a unified sandwich ELISA that allows for the separate but concurrent measurement of pLDH and HRP biomolecules in aliquots taken from the same samples. Freshly drawn blood from a healthy unexposed adult male was used to serially dilute *in vitro* cultivated and synchronized ring stage *Plasmodium falciparum* parasites. Commercially available ELISA formats were modified to allow for the measurement of pLDH and HRP from aliquots of the same samples. The pLDH and HRP levels in the samples spiked with known numbers of infected red blood cells (iRBCs) were measured, and the values were used to generate standard graphs. The standard graphs were used to estimate the numbers of iRBCs in test samples. Serially diluted recombinant proteins were similarly used to generate a calibration curve, allowing for the expression of test results in nanograms of their respective recombinant protein. Levels of pLDH and HRPs were determined by using 1) *P. falciparum* culture material (cells and medium) 2) *P. falciparum* infected human blood ($N = 6$) samples, and 3) plasma from *P. falciparum*-infected patient ($N = 22$) samples. The parasite density of all culture and infected patient samples was also estimated by microscopy. Both pLDH and HRP levels correlated positively with the parasite density assessed by microscopy: Pearson correlation coefficient pLDH ($r = 0.754$, $P < 0.0001$, 95% CI: 0.47–0.89); HRP ($r = 0.552$, $P < 0.007$, 95% CI: 0.16–0.79). The HRPs seem to be released in larger quantities than pLDH (in a ratio of ~1 pLDH:~6 HRP), making the detection of HRP in culture material, blood, and plasma easier. The modified ELISA assay with quantitative measurement of pLDH and HRPs may provide a valuable tool for malaria research and patient management.

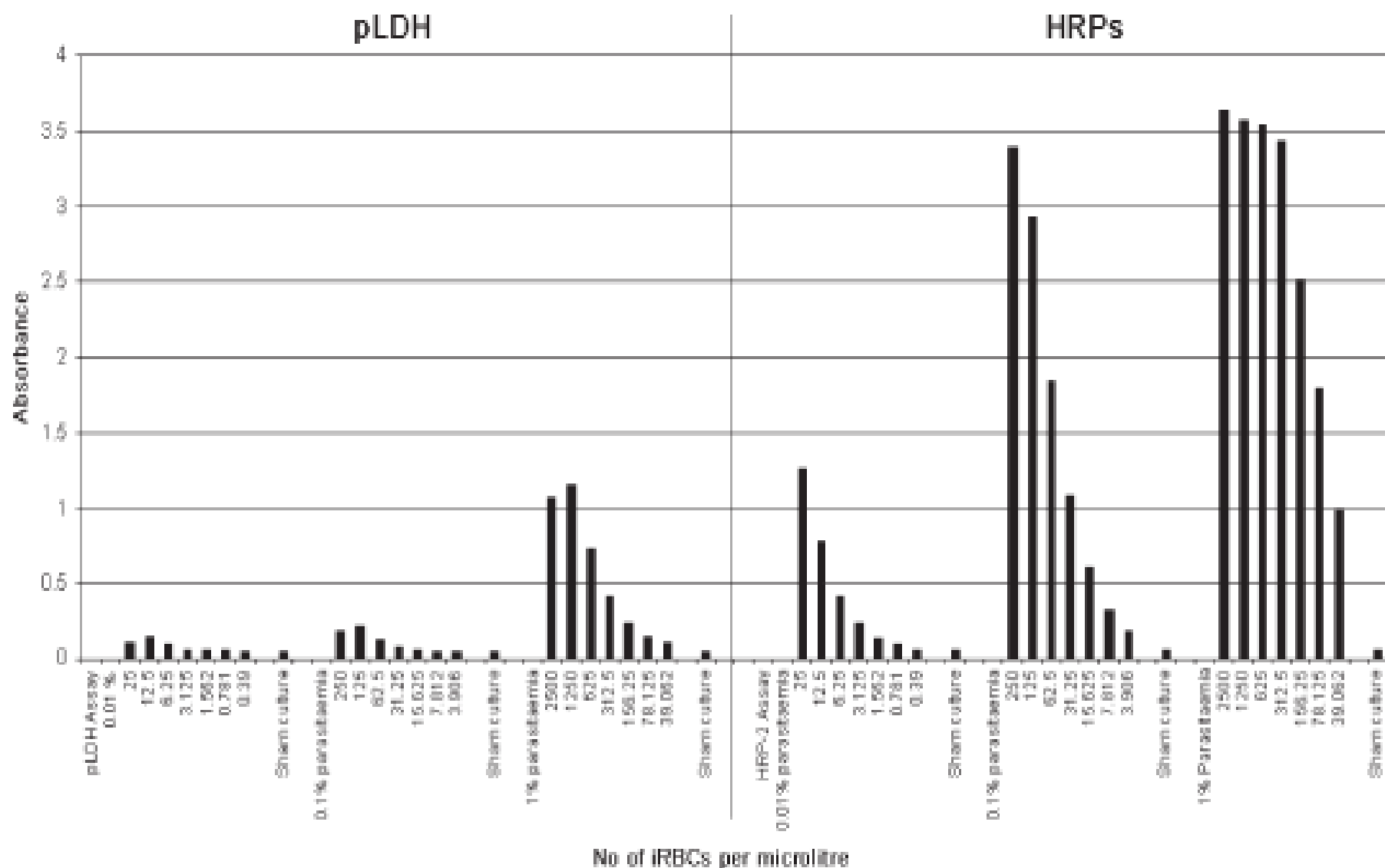


FIGURE 1. Alliquots (50 μ L) from serially diluted (0.3 , 3.0 , and 30×10^8 IRBCs in 6 mL) stock cultures were tested using the unified ELISA. The levels of HRP2 were consistently higher than pLDH at all IRBC dilutions tested.

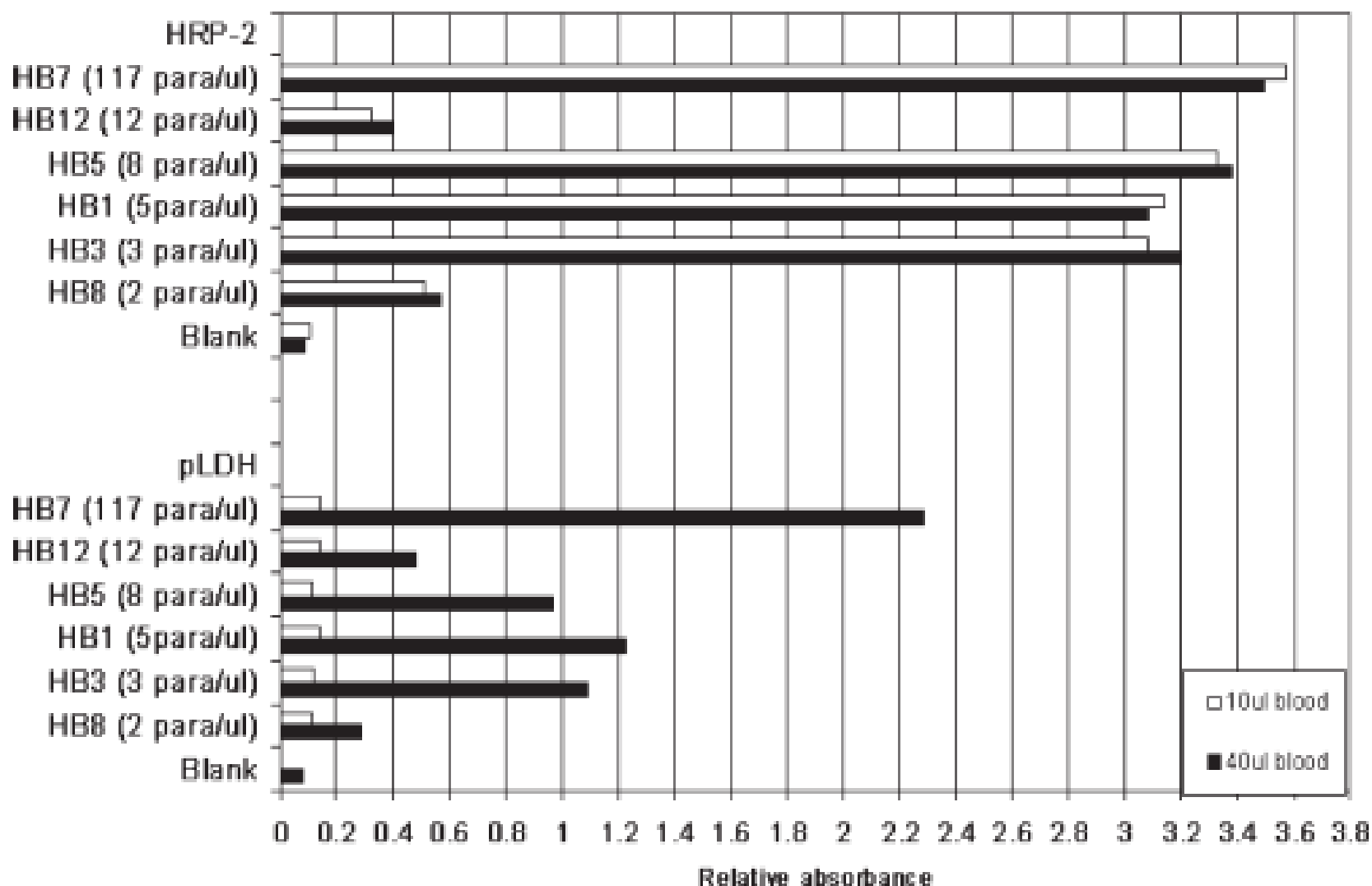
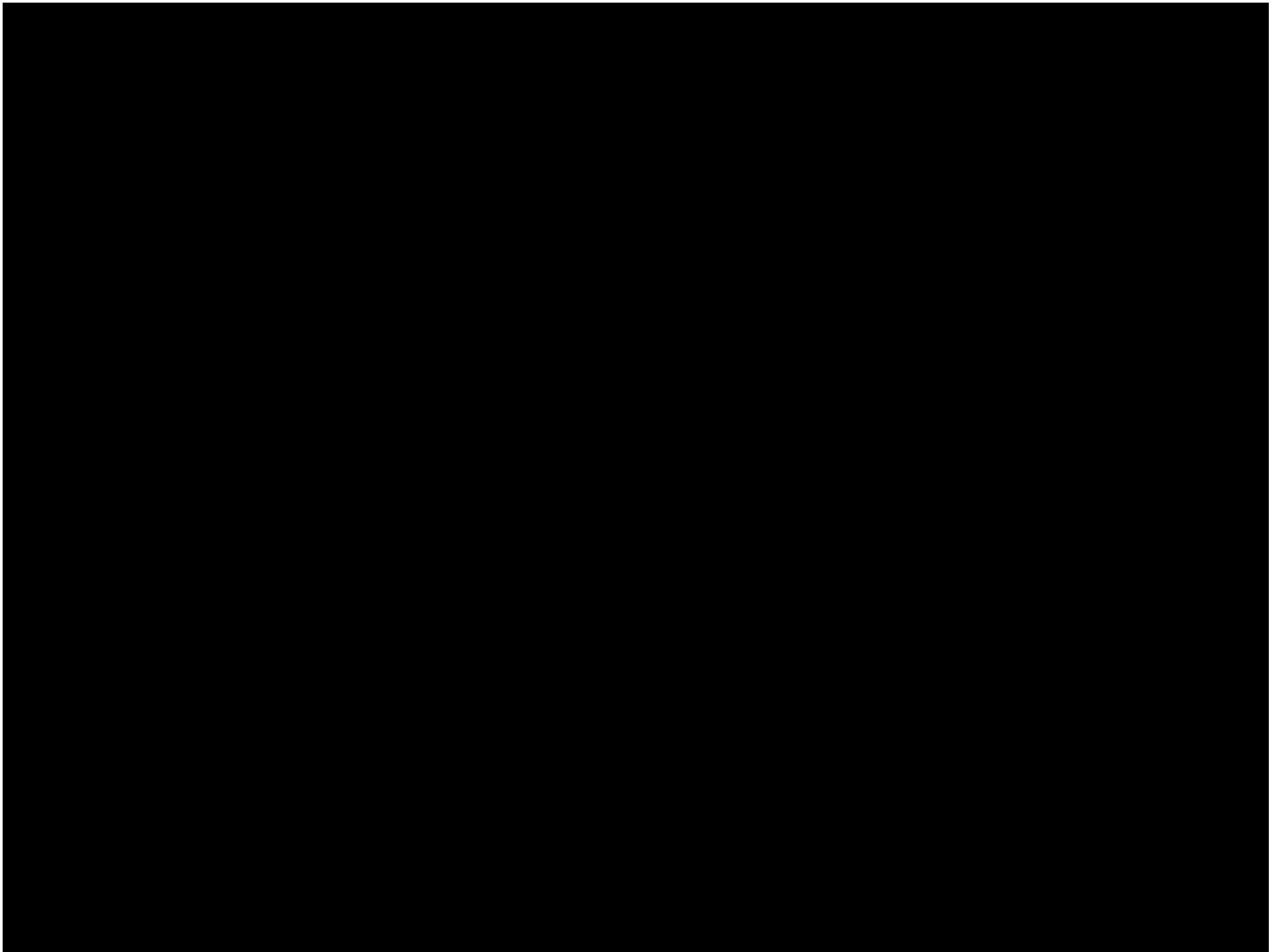
The Effect of Sample Volume on *P. falciparum* pLDH and HRP2 ELISA Absorbance

FIGURE 3. Either (10 or 40 μ L) aliquots of whole blood were taken from each of six patients with known *P. falciparum* parasite densities and the relative amounts of pLDH and HRP2 measured, using the unified ELISA protocol. Increasing the sample volume from 10 μ L to 40 μ L greatly improved the relative absorbance for the pLDH versus the HRP2 ELISA assay result.





Acknowledgements

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- Rogan Lee: ICPMR, Westmead Hospital
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- GH Rajasekariah: Cellabs, NSW

Questions

