

SHORT PAPER

Serosurvey for hepatitis A in neotropical primates in southeast Brazil

Ariela Priscila Setzer¹, Ana Maria Coimbra Gaspar², Marli Sidoni³, Marina Galvão Bueno¹ & José Luiz Catão-Dias¹

1 Laboratório de Patologia Comparada de Animais Selvagens – LAPCOM, Faculdade de Medicina Veterinária e Zootecnia, Universidade de São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil

2 Laboratório de Hepatites Virais, Fundação Oswaldo Cruz (Fiocruz), Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

3 Laboratório de Tecnologia Diagnóstica/LATED, Vice-diretoria de Desenvolvimento Tecnológico/Fundação Oswaldo Cruz (Fiocruz), Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

Keywords

New World primates – Picornavirus – hepatic disease

Correspondence

Dr. José Luiz Catão Dias, Departamento de Patologia, Laboratório de Patologia Comparada de Animais Selvagens – LAPCOM, Faculdade de Medicina Veterinária e Zootecnia / Universidade de São Paulo/Av. Orlando Marques de Paiva, 87, São Paulo, SP 05508-270, Brazil.
Tel.: +55 (11) 3091-7710;
fax: +55 (11) 3091-7829;
e-mail: zecatao@usp.br

Accepted January 26, 2014.

Abstract

Background Hepatitis A virus (HAV) is the cause of a zoonotic disease, which has only humans and non-humans primates as its natural hosts.

Methods The seroprevalence of antibodies anti-HAV in wild and captive neotropical primates were investigated.

Results 4.9% (18/369) were positive for antibodies anti-HAV, in captivity.

Conclusion Implications for health managements are discussed.

Introduction

The hepatitis A is a zoonotic disease caused by a RNA virus (Hepatitis A virus – HAV), classified as a *Hepatitis virus*, Picornaviridae Family. The natural hosts for this virus are humans and non-human primates (NHP) [1, 14].

There is just one serotype of HAV, but several strains are known, which are divided in seven genotypes. The genotypes I, II, and VII have exclusively human strains, while the genotypes IV, V, and VI have exclusively simian strains. The genotype III has both human and NHP strains [11]. Although the HAV has a worldwide distribution, the antigenic difference between the strains is minimal, [2, 13] which enables the use of human diagnostic test for NHP samples [16].

Once HAV has a fecal–oral infection, sanitation has an important role in the disease's epidemiology [8, 21].

The physiopathology is poorly understood, but is accepted that the virus replicates in the liver and is eliminated with the feces [11, 21].

Non-human primates represent a natural reservoir of virus [21], and Old World primates (OWP) and New World primates (NWP) can be infected with the HAV [4–6, 9, 12, 18, 19, 21]. In NHP, the diseases are usually asymptomatic; but when clinical disease occurs, the signals are unspecific and vary from mild to fatal outcome [11, 21].

Diagnosis is made by serological detection of specific anti-HAV antibodies, or by viral antigen detection in blood or feces during the acute phase of the disease [21]. The presence of IgM anti-HAV indicates acute infection or early convalescence. In contrast, IgG anti-HAV is found in early phases of the infection, reaching peak levels during the convalescence and remaining detectable for decades [11].

This study investigated the occurrence of anti-HAV antibodies in NWP from *in situ* and *ex situ* at southeast region of Brazil.

Methods

Serum samples from 419 NWP (364 *ex situ*; 55 *in situ*) of 32 species were tested. All free-ranging animals were from Presidente Epitaceo and Anaurilandia municipalities (22°07'S, 52°30'W), southeast of Brazil.

Blood samples were processed and serum samples were maintained during a variable period of time at -20°C and then transferred to -70°C until tested.

All samples were tested for IgM anti-HAV and total anti-HAV (IgM and IgG) antibodies with enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA).

For the IgM anti-HAV test, two different ELISA capture kits were used: an in-house IgM anti-HAV ELISA, developed by the Viral Hepatitis Reference Center – FIOCRUZ, and a commercial kit Bioelisa HAV IgM (Biokit® S.A., Barcelona, Spain).

For the total anti-HAV test, three different ELISA competition kits were used. First, 288 samples were tested with an in-house total anti-HAV ELISA manufactured by the Viral Hepatitis Reference Center – FIOCRUZ. From these samples, those who had an indeterminate result were retested with the commercial kit Hapanostika® HAV Antibody (Organon Teknika BV, Boxtel, the Netherlands). The remaining samples ($n = 131$) were tested with the commercial kit Bioelisa HAV (Biokit® S.A., Barcelona, Spain), and those who

had an indeterminate result were retested in duplicate with the same kit.

All tests were performed according to the manufacturer's procedures recommendations, with positive and negative controls in each batch.

The procedures adopted were approved by the Bioethic Commission of the School of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Sciences of University of São Paulo (protocol number 120/2002), and in full compliance with specific federal permits issued by the Brazilian Ministry of Environment (IBAMA, process number 02027/003259/0248).

Results

From the 419 NWP tested, 45.6% (191/419) were Callithrichidae, 38.4% (161/419) Cebidae, 15.5% (65/419) Atelidae, 0.25% (1/419) Pitheciidae, and 0.25% (1/419) Aotidae (Table 1).

All samples were negative for IgM anti-HAV and therefore the genotyping was not possible.

Regarding the total anti-HAV test, 5.2% (22/419; 95% exact CI: 3.5–7.8%) of the captive animals were positive (Table 2). All samples from free-ranging animals were negative for total anti-HAV.

Discussion

The percent (5.2%) of positive animals for total anti-HAV found in our work is remarkably below than from other studies, where 33% to 95% of positives

Table 1 Distribution of animals in relationship to the species. The numbers in parenthesis represent positive animals for total anti-hepatitis A virus. CAPT, captivity; FRE, free-ranging. Total N = 419. Brazil, 2013

Species ¹	Condition	n	Species ¹	Condition	n
<i>Alouatta belzebul</i>	CAPT	1	<i>Cebus albifrons</i>	CAPT	1
<i>Alouatta caraya</i>	CAPT/FRE	5/33	<i>Lagothrix lagothricha</i>	CAPT	4 (1)
<i>Alouatta fusca</i>	CAPT	4	<i>Leontopithecus chrysometas</i>	CAPT	43
<i>Alouatta sp.</i>	CAPT	4	<i>Leontopithecus chrysopygus</i>	CAPT	25 (2)
<i>Aotus sp.</i>	CAPT	1	<i>Leontopithecus rosalia</i>	CAPT	4
<i>Ateles marginatus</i>	CAPT	6	<i>Leontopithecus sp.</i>	CAPT	2
<i>Ateles paniscus</i>	CAPT	7	<i>Mico humeralifer</i>	CAPT	4
<i>Ateles belzebul</i>	CAPT	1 (1)	<i>Mico metanurus</i>	CAPT	2
<i>Callicebus personatus</i>	CAPT	1	<i>Saguinus bicolor</i>	CAPT	10
<i>Callimico goeldii</i>	CAPT	3	<i>Saguinus martinsi</i>	CAPT	2
<i>Callithrix argentata</i>	CAPT	2	<i>Saguinus midas</i>	CAPT	3 (2)
<i>Callithrix aurita</i>	CAPT	1	<i>Saguinus niger</i>	CAPT	4
<i>Callithrix geoffroyi</i>	CAPT	17 (1)	<i>Saguinus mystax</i>	CAPT	1 (1)
<i>Callithrix jacchus</i>	CAPT	29 (2)	<i>Saguinus sp.</i>	CAPT	4
<i>Callithrix kuhlii</i>	CAPT	2	<i>Saimiri sciureus</i>	CAPT	6
<i>Callithrix penicillata</i>	CAPT	28	<i>Sapajus sp.</i>	CAPT/FRE	131 (11)/22
<i>Callithrix sp.</i>	CAPT	5	<i>Sapajus xanthostemos</i>	CAPT	1 (1)

¹Primate taxonomy according to Paglia et al. [15]

Table 2 Positive animals (n = 22) with regard to the gender and family. Brazil, 2013

Animals	Positive animals, %
Males	54.5 (12/22)
Females	45.5 (10/22)
Callitrichidae	36.4 (8/22)
Cebidae	54.5 (12/22)
Atelidae	9.1 (2/22)

were found for captive animals [1, 4, 10, 12, 17, 19] and 22% to 37% tested positive for wild animals [5, 6].

One important factor to justify the low prevalence of anti-HAV antibodies in our study regards the species studied. There are some simian strains of HAV that are specific for OWP, what favors the virus circulation in certain species. On the other hand, until now, just one strain of HAV, the PA21, was isolated from NWP, but this strain was also isolated from humans, indicating that it has no significant species specificity [3, 21].

As NWP can be infected with human strains of HAV, we expected that animals with higher contact with humans would have greater possibility to present anti-HAV antibodies. When we compare the free-ranging animals, with those kept in captivity, we note that this hypothesis may be acceptable because the incidence of positive animals was only seen in *ex situ* animals that have frequently contact with people (visitors, keepers, technicians etc.).

According to the present results, one may assume that the virus does not circulate among the free-ranging NWP population studied. These results are important in

regions where the environment is changing. In addition, researchers are concerned with the animal's movement. Eventually, wild animals originated from rescue programs are destined for different locations, returning to nature through reintroductions, or sent to captivities in contact with people. Therefore, it can be considered a source of infection to a place where it did not occur before [7, 20].

Observing the positive captivity animals for total anti-HAV in this study, we can consider that the virus circulates in this population and we can see that 54.5% (12/22; 95% exact CI: 32.2%-75.6%) belong to the Cebidae family. It could be explained due to the biology of the animals belonging to this family. The Cebidae, especially those of the *Cebus* and *Sapajus* genus kept in captivity, have the habit to go to the ground and therefore could have easier contact with contaminated food or objects.

Finally, this is the first study where animals of the *Leontopithecus* genus were found to have anti-HAV antibodies, and it could be important for the conservation programs involving these animals.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Dr. Alcides Pissinatti, from Primatology Center of Rio de Janeiro (CPRJ), Fundação Oswaldo Cruz (Fiocruz) and all institutions that have supported and allowed the collection of samples. The author would also thank FAPESP for financial support (Grants 01/00149-7) and the Brazil Environmental Agency (IBAMA 02027/003259/0248).

References

- Andrade MR, Yee JB, Spinner A, Roberts JA, Cabello PH, Leite JP, Lerche NW: Prevalence of antibodies to selected viruses in a long-term closed breeding colony of rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*) in Brazil. *Am J Primatol* 2003; **59**: 12–128.
- Balayan MS: Natural hosts of hepatitis A virus. *Vaccine* 1992; **10** (Suppl. 1):S27–31.
- Brown EA, Jansen RW, Lemon SM: Characterization of a simian hepatitis A virus (HAV): antigenic and genetic comparison with human HAV. *J Virol* 1989; **63**:4932–7.
- Burke DS, Graham RR, Heisey GB: Hepatitis A virus in primates outside captivity. *Lancet* 1981; **2**:928.
- Burke DS, Heisey GB: Wild malaysian cynomolgus monkeys are exposed to hepatitis A virus. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 1984; **33**:940–4.
- Coursaget P, Levesque B, Gretillat E, Eyraud M, Ferrara L, Germain M: Hepatitis A virus in primates outside captivity. *Lancet* 1981; **2**:929.
- Cunningham AA: Disease risk of wildlife translocation. *Conserv Biol* 1996; **10**:349–53.
- Gust ID: Epidemiological patterns of hepatitis A in different parts of the world. *Vaccine* 1992; **10**(Suppl. 1):S56–8.
- Hillis WD: Viral hepatitis associated with sub-human primates. *Transfusion* 1963; **3**:445–54.
- Hollinger FB, Ticehurst JR: Hepatitis A virus. In: Fields Virology, 3rd edn. Fields, Knipe, Howley (eds). Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott-Raven Publishers, 1996; 735–82.
- Koff RD: Clinical manifestations and diagnosis of hepatitis A virus infection. *Vaccine*, 1992; **10** (Suppl. 1):S15–7.
- Leduc JW, Escajadillo A, Lemon SM: Hepatitis A virus among cap-

- tive panamian owl monkeys. *Lancet* 1981; **2**:1427–8.
- 13 Lemon SM, Jansen RW, Brown EA: Genetic, antigenic and biological differences between strains of hepatitis A virus. *Vaccine* 1992; **10** (Suppl. 1):S40–4.
- 14 Melnick JL: Properties and classification of hepatitis A virus. *Vaccine* 1992; **10**(Suppl. 1):S24–6.
- 15 Paglia AP, Fonseca GBA, Rylands AB, Herrmann G, Aguiar LMS, Chiarello AG, Leite YLR, Costa LP, Siciliano S, Kierulff MCM, Mendes SL, Tavares V da C, Mittermeier RA, Patton JL: Lista Anotada dos Mamíferos do Brasil / Annotated Checklist of Brazilian Mammals. In: Occasional Papers in Conservation Biology, 2a edição / 2nd edition. Conservation International. Vol. 6, Arlington, VA: Conservation International, 2012.
- 16 Ramsay E, Montali RJ: Viral hepatitis in New World primates. In: Zoo and Wild Animal Medicine: Current Therapy 3. Fowler (ed.) Philadelphia, PA: W.B. Saunders, p.617, 1993.
- 17 Smith MS, Swanepoel PJ, Bootsma M: Hepatitis A in non-human primates in nature. *Lancet* 1980; **2**:1241–2.
- 18 Pereira WLA, Galo KR, Silva KSM, Soares MCP, Alves MM: Viral hepatitis, helminthiasis and protozoan disease in neotropical primates raised in captivity: potentially zoonotic affections with fecal-oral transmission. *Rev Pan-Amaz Saúde* 2010; **1**:57–60.
- 19 Warren KS, Niphuis H, Heriyanto, Verschoor EJ, Swan RA, Heeney JL: Seroprevalence of specific viral infections in confiscated orangutans (*Pongo pygmaeus*). *J Med Primatol* 1998; **27**:33–7.
- 20 Woodford MH, Rossiter PB: Diseases risk associated with wildlife translocation projects. *Rev Sci Tech* 1993; **12**:115–35.
- 21 WHO, World Health Organization: Hepatitis A. Department of Communicable Disease Surveillance and Response, 2000. Available on: http://www.who.int/csr/disease/hepatitis/HepatitisA_whoedscs-rede2000_7.pdf. Accessed on 4 October 13.