

1 Howler monkeys are the reservoir of malaria parasites causing zoonotic infections  
2 in the Atlantic forest of Rio de Janeiro

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4 Filipe Vieira Santos de Abreu<sup>1,2</sup>; Edmilson dos Santos<sup>3</sup>; Aline Rosa Lavigne Mello<sup>4,5</sup>; Larissa  
5 Rodrigues Gomes<sup>4,5</sup>; Denise Anete Madureira de Alvarenga<sup>6</sup>; Marcelo Quintela Gomes<sup>1</sup>;  
6 Waldemir Paixão Vargas<sup>7</sup>; Cesare Bianco-Júnior<sup>4</sup>; Anielle de Pina-Costa<sup>5,8,9</sup>, Danilo Simonini  
7 Teixeira<sup>10</sup>; Alessandro Pecego Martins Romano<sup>11</sup>; Pedro Paulo de Abreu Manso<sup>12</sup>; Marcelo  
8 Pelajo-Machado<sup>12</sup>; Patrícia Brasil<sup>5,8</sup>; Cláudio Tadeu Daniel-Ribeiro<sup>4,5</sup>; Cristiana Ferreira Alves  
9 de Britto<sup>6</sup>; Maria de Fátima Ferreira-da-Cruz<sup>4,5</sup>; Ricardo Lourenço-de-Oliveira<sup>1,5</sup>.

10 **Authors affiliations**

11 <sup>1</sup>Laboratório de Mosquitos Transmissores de Hematozoários, Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, Fiocruz,  
12 Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

13  
14 <sup>2</sup>Instituto Federal do Norte de Minas Gerais, Salinas, MG, Brazil.  
15  
16 <sup>3</sup>Divisão de Vigilância Ambiental em Saúde, Secretaria de Saúde do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto  
17 Alegre, RS, Brazil.

18  
19 <sup>4</sup> Laboratório de Pesquisa em Malária, Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, Fiocruz, Rio de Janeiro, RJ,  
20 Brazil.

21  
22 <sup>5</sup> Centro de Pesquisa, Diagnóstico e Treinamento em Malária, Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, Fiocruz,  
23 Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil.

24

25 <sup>6</sup>Laboratório de Malária, Instituto René Rachou, Fiocruz, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil.

26

27 <sup>7</sup> Grupo de Pesquisa e Epidemiologia Espacial, Departamento de Endemias Samuel Pessoa, Escola  
28 Nacional de Saúde Pública Sergio Arouca, Fiocruz, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brasil.

29

30 <sup>8</sup> Laboratório de Doenças Febris Agudas, Instituto Nacional de Infectologia Evandro Chagas,  
31 Fiocruz, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil.

32

33 <sup>9</sup>Centro Universitário Serra dos Órgãos, UNIFESO, Teresópolis, RJ, Brazil.

34

35 <sup>10</sup> Universidade Estadual de Santa Cruz, UESC, Ilhéus, BA, Brazil.

36

37 <sup>11</sup> Secretaria de Vigilância em Saúde, Ministério da Saúde, Brasília, DF, Brazil.

38

39 <sup>12</sup> Laboratório de Patologia, Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, Fiocruz, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil.

40 \*Corresponding authors: MFFC [mffcruz28@gmail.com](mailto:mffcruz28@gmail.com); RLdO [lourenco@ioc.fiocruz.br](mailto:lourenco@ioc.fiocruz.br)

## 41 **Abstract**

42 **Background:** Although malaria transmission was eradicated from southeast Brazil, a significant increase in  
43 the number of *Plasmodium vivax-like* autochthonous human cases has been reported in remote areas of the  
44 Atlantic Forest in the last decades in Rio de Janeiro (RJ) state, including an outbreak in 2015-2016. The  
45 singular clinical and epidemiological aspects of several human cases combined with molecular and genetic  
46 data revealed that they were due to the non-human primate (NHP) parasite *P. simium*. The full  
47 understanding of the epidemiology of the autochthonous malaria in southeastern Brazil depends, however,

48 upon the knowledge on the circulation of NHP *Plasmodium* in the foci and the determination of its  
49 reservoirs. **Methodology:** A large sampling effort was carried out in the Atlantic forest of RJ and its  
50 bordering states (Minas Gerais, São Paulo, Espírito Santo) for capture and examination of free-living NHPs.  
51 Blood and/or viscera were analyzed for Plasmodia infections through molecular and microscopic  
52 techniques. **Principal findings:** In total, 146 NHPs of six species, from 30 counties in four states were  
53 tested. Howler monkeys (*A. guariba clamitans*) were the only NHP species found infected. In RJ, 26% of  
54 howlers were positive, among them 17% were found to be infected with *P. simium*. Importantly, specific  
55 single nucleotide polymorphisms were detected in all *P. simium* infected howlers regardless geographical  
56 origin of malaria foci. Interestingly, 71% of *P. simium* infected NHP were from the coastal slope of a  
57 mountain chain (Serra do Mar), where most human cases have been occurring. *P. brasiliianum/malariae*  
58 was detected for the first time in 14% free-living howlers in RJ as well as in 25% of those from the Espírito  
59 Santo state. Moreover, malarial pigment was detected in spleen fragments of 50% of a subsample  
60 composed of howler monkeys found dead in both RJ and ES. All NHPs were negative for *P. falciparum*.

61 **Conclusions/Significance:** Our data indicate the howler monkeys as the main reservoir of the Atlantic  
62 forest human malaria in RJ and other sites in Southeast Brazil and reinforce its zoonotic nature.

63 **Key words:** Zoonosis; *Plasmodium simium*; *Plasmodium brasiliianum*; *Alouatta*; *Plasmodium vivax*;  
64 *Plasmodium malariae*;

65

66 **Author summary:** The present work consists of an unprecedented capture effort and large-scale field  
67 survey of plasmodial species in Non-human primates (NHPs) in RJ, a state recording a three-decade history  
68 of autochthonous human cases of benign tertian malaria pending epidemiological clarification of their  
69 origin. For the first time, we describe infection rates by *Plasmodium* sp. in free-living NHP, match the spatial  
70 distribution of *P. simium* in NHP with that of local human cases of benign tertian malaria due to this

71 parasite, disclose howler monkeys as the only confirmed reservoir of this zoonotic malaria in the state and  
72 showed that specific single nucleotide polymorphisms were present in all *P. simium* infected howlers,  
73 regardless of the geographical origin of malaria foci. It is also the first time that *P. brasiliense/malariae* is  
74 recorded in free-living NHPs from Rio de Janeiro and the widespread distribution of this quartan-malaria  
75 parasite of zoonotic potential in the state is illustrated. Together, these findings increase the understanding  
76 about the simian malaria parasites in Atlantic Forests, as well as on the zoonotic character of autochthonous  
77 human malaria in Rio de Janeiro, providing subsidies for shaping surveillance and control.

78

79 **1 – Introduction**

80 In Brazil, more than 99% of malaria infections are acquired in the Amazon, and few  
81 isolated imported cases or outbreaks of introduced cases from the Amazon or foreigner countries  
82 are occasionally recorded in the Extra-Amazonian regions [1]. Malaria transmission was  
83 considered eradicated from South and Southeast regions of Brazil more than 40 years ago [1].  
84 However, in the last three decades, a significant increase in autochthonous malaria cases by  
85 *Plasmodium vivax-like* parasites in the Atlantic Forest areas in southeastern Brazil, where no  
86 index case that could have introduced the parasite from a malaria endemic region, have been  
87 reported [1,2]. These cases present similar parasitological, clinical and epidemiological  
88 characteristics, such as: low parasitemia, absence of the expected *P. vivax* relapses, and recent  
89 visits to areas covered by dense rain forest where the bromeliad-inhabiting *Anopheles*  
90 mosquitoes belonging to the subgenus *Kerteszia*, specially *An. cruzii*, are almost the exclusive  
91 human-biting anopheline species [2–4]. *An. cruzii* is the main vector of the so-called bromeliad  
92 malaria, endemic in Southern and Southeastern Brazil, and coincidentally it is the only proved  
93 natural vector of simian malarias in the country [5]. This particular epidemiological context

94 revived the hypothesis raised by Deane et al in the 1960's about the existence of human malaria  
95 cases of simian origin in Brazil. In fact, these authors reported a human natural infection by the  
96 neotropical primate parasite *P. simium* Fonseca [6] in São Paulo (SP), southeast region [7]. The  
97 patient presented a benign tertian malaria after being exposed to mosquito bites at the tree-  
98 canopy during an entomological survey in a forest densely infested by *An. cruzii*. The description  
99 of vertical movement of *An. cruzii* between the canopy and ground level in the Atlantics rain  
100 forest of South Brazil reinforced Deane's hypothesis that part of the transmission of bromeliad  
101 malaria in Southern and Southeastern Brazil would be of zoonotic character, being monkeys the  
102 parasite reservoir [5–8].

103 Two species of *Plasmodium* have been described in neotropical non-human primates  
104 (NHP): *P. brasiliense* Gonder e Berenberg-Gossler (1908) and *P. simium*, almost  
105 indistinguishable from the human malaria parasites *P. malariae* and *P. vivax*, respectively  
106 [5,6,9]. Besides subtle morphological variations [2,5], molecular markers such as microsatellites  
107 and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were the only differences so far described between  
108 *P. malariae* and *P. brasiliense* and *P. vivax* and *P. simium* [2,10,11]. *P. brasiliense* has a  
109 broader distribution as has been found from México to Southern Brazil, infecting at least 11  
110 genera of the five families of neotropical primates (Aotidae, Atelidae, Callitrichidae, Cebidae  
111 and Phiteciidae) [5,12–15]. In contrast, *P. simium* has been found essentially in species  
112 belonging to two genera (*Alouatta* and *Brachyteles*, family Atelidae) [5], from the Atlantic forest  
113 of Southern and Southeastern Brazilian. Importantly, both *P. brasiliense* and *P. simium* are  
114 experimentally infective to humans [9].

115 The full understanding of epidemiology of recent autochthonous malaria in southeastern Brazil  
116 depends on the confirmation of circulation of NHP Plasmodia in the transmission foci as well as

117 the determination of parasite reservoirs. Studies on the prevalence of *P. simium* and/or *P.*  
118 *brasilianum* infections in NHPs and determine the potential reservoirs in southeastern Brazilian  
119 states were conducted during 1960-1990's. Almost 800 NHPs were examined, recording a  
120 variation of *Plasmodium* infection from 10.9% in the states of Espírito Santo to 56.5% in SP [5].  
121 At the time of these survey, only free-living lion-tamarins (Callitrichidae) could be examined  
122 from RJ and all were negative to malaria parasites [16]. However, RJ recorded 110  
123 autochthonous human cases of benign tertian malaria between 2005 and 2018, with an outbreak  
124 in 2015-2016 of 49 cases [1,2]. Curiously, all these human infections were acquired in sites of RJ  
125 located along Serra do Mar, an extensive mountain chain covered by the best-preserved rain  
126 forest mosaic in the southeast. This biome harbor a rich NHP fauna, composed of species of six  
127 genera (*Alouatta*, *Brachyteles*, *Callicebus*, *Callithrix*, *Leontophitecus* and *Sapajus*) [17], and  
128 have *An. cruzi* as the most common anopheline [18]. Consequently, the hypothesis of simian  
129 origin in these RJ malaria cases has been raised [5,7]. In response, multidisciplinary studies  
130 including clinical, epidemiological, parasitological, and molecular approaches have been  
131 conducted in RJ [2,4,19]. More recently, molecular studies of parasites infecting humans and  
132 four howlers clearly demonstrated that they shared the same *P. simium* parasite. [2,7,20,21].  
133 However, so far scarce number of wild NHPs of few species from only three out of numerous  
134 autochthonous malaria foci in RJ and surroundings could be examined [2]. This work presents  
135 the largest sampling effort ever carried out in the Atlantic forest of RJ and its borders for the  
136 capture and examination of free-living NHPs to describe the geographical distribution and  
137 frequency of simian malaria as well as to determine the local animal reservoirs and the identity  
138 of the parasite infecting humans and NHPs in the autochthonous malaria foci.

139

140 **2 - Material and Methods**

141 *2.1 Study area*

142 The work was carried out between May 2015 and January 2019, totaling approximately  
143 120 days of fieldwork in 44 sites of 30 counties in the Atlantic Forest biome, in RJ as well as  
144 bordering sites in states of Minas Gerais (MG), ES and SP. The survey focused forest fragments  
145 from lowlands areas to mountain valleys and escarpments of Serra do Mar and other mountain  
146 chains [22]. The choice of capture areas comprised: local existence of NHPs and/or recent  
147 human malaria cases as well as alerts of an information network built with key institutions,  
148 inhabitants, health agents and environmental guards to continuously monitoring the presence of  
149 howler monkeys, as previously described [23].

150 *2.2 Capture and sample collection*

151 The expeditions consisted of ten-days surveys in the forests conducted by 2 - 6 trained  
152 people in target areas for the search of NHPs. The capture method was chosen according to NHP  
153 species, behavior and size [24]. Briefly, smallest and frugivorous species such as marmosets  
154 (genus *Callithrix*), lion tamarin (*Leontopithecus*), and capuchins (*Sapajus*) were trapped using  
155 banana baited automatic tomahawk traps [25]. Largest species presenting folivores and  
156 acrodendrophilic habits such as howlers (*Alouatta*) and woolly spider monkey (*Brachyteles*), or  
157 then which usually don't enter in traps (e.g. one titi – *Callicebus*, captured in Minas Gerais) were  
158 captured with anesthetic darts, as previously described [23]. Sick animals reported by the  
159 information network during the 2017-2018 yellow fever epizooties [26] were captured with nets  
160 [23]. A sample of 3-6 mL of blood was collected from anesthetized or dying or recently dead  
161 animals. Thick and thin blood films were immediately prepared, and the remaining blood was let  
162 for coagulating. After sample collections and the complete recovery of anesthetic effects,

163 animals were released always in the capture point during the daytime. Liver samples were  
164 obtained from recently dead animals, due to yellow fever or other disease. Liver and blood  
165 samples were stored at – 80°C until DNA extraction.

166 *2.3 Malaria diagnosis*

167 Giemsa-stained thick and thin blood films were examined in the microscopy under a  
168 x100 oil-immersion objective by two trained and independent microscopists. DNA was extracted  
169 from blood clots as previously described [27]; extractions from liver samples [28] were done  
170 using the QIAGEN DNeasy mini kit according to manufacturer's instructions. Molecular  
171 diagnosis was made through conventional PCR. All DNA samples were tested in triplicate for  
172 18s rRNA *Plasmodium* genus-specific gene [29,30], and then for cysteine proteinase *P. vivax* and  
173 ssrRNA *P. malariae* and *P. falciparum* genes, as previously described [30,31]. *P. vivax*-positive  
174 samples were submitted to *P. simium* differential diagnosis based on a mitochondrial SNP  
175 [2,10]. The molecular diagnosis was performed by *Nested*-PCR of *coxI* gene fragment and  
176 subsequent enzymatic digestion, using primers and protocol previously described [10]. All the  
177 PCR products were visualized under UV light after electrophoresis on 2% agarose gels.

178

179 *2.4 Histopathological analysis*

180 Spleen fragments of a subsample consisting of 16 howlers (12 from RJ and 4 from ES)  
181 found dead were fixed in Carson's formalin-Millonig [32] and processed according to standard  
182 histological techniques for paraffin embedding. Sections (5 µm thick) from each block were  
183 stained with hematoxylin-eosin [33] or Lennert Giemsa [34], and analyzed looking for malarial  
184 pigments under an AxioHome microscope equipped with an HRc Axiocam digital camera (Carl  
185 Zeiss, Germany).

186 2.5 *Ethic issues*

187 The collection methods, biosafety and anesthesia protocols adhered to the Brazilian law  
188 (11.794 of July 8, 2008) about the use of animals in scientific research, and complied with the  
189 rules and regulations of Brazilian Ministry of Health [24] having been previously approved by  
190 the institutional Ethics Committee for Animal Experimentation of Instituto Oswaldo Cruz  
191 (protocol CEUA/IOC-004/2015, license L-037/2016) and by Brazilian Ministry of the  
192 Environment (SISBIO 41837-3 and 54707-4) and Rio de Janeiro's Environment agency (INEA  
193 012/2016 and 019/2018). The research also adhered to the American Society of Primatologists  
194 Principles for the Ethical Treatment of Nonhuman Primates.

195

196 **3 – Results**

197 In total, 146 animals belonging to six species from 30 counties in four Brazilian states  
198 were examined (S1 Table, Fig.1), being 130 by microscopy and PCR in blood samples, seven by  
199 microscopy and PCR in blood samples and histopathology of spleen fragments, and nine by PCR  
200 of viscera and histopathology of spleen fragments.

201

202 Figure 1: Map showing collection points of non-human primate in Rio de Janeiro. Each  
203 circle means one NHP examined. The map was prepared using free software QGIS 2.18.

204

205 Regardless the geographical origin, the only NHP species found infected with  
206 *Plasmodium* was the howler monkey *Alouatta g. clamitans* (Table 1). As expected, PCR was  
207 more sensitive than microscopic examination of blood films, that failed to detect *Plasmodium* in  
208 two infected howlers, one harboring *P. simium* and another *P. brasiliandum/malariae* (Table 1).

209 These results suggest that infected howler usually display detectable parasitemia despite the  
210 infecting plasmodial species. Trophozoites were the most common visualized blood form, but  
211 schizonts and gametocytes were also detected (Fig. 2). In addition, using PCR we were able to  
212 detect both *Plasmodium* species in four animals from which only liver and spleen samples were  
213 available.

214 Table 1: *Alouatta g. clamitans* captured and examined per state, infection rate per  
215 *Plasmodium* species and method of detection of current and past infection. Number (%).

| State | N  | Total with<br><i>Plasmodium</i> | <i>P.</i><br><i>simium</i> | <i>P.</i><br><i>brasiliandum</i><br>/ <i>malariae</i> | <i>P. simium</i> and<br><i>P. brasiliandum/</i><br><i>malariae</i> | <i>P.</i><br><i>falciparum</i> | Diagnosis                |             | Malarial Pigment\$ |                     |
|-------|----|---------------------------------|----------------------------|---|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|--------------------|---------------------|
|       |    |                                 |                            |   |  |                                | Blood<br>slides<br>+ PCR | Only<br>PCR | N                  | Positive            |
| RJ    | 42 | 11 (26.1)                       | 5 (45.4)                   | 4 (36.3)  | 2 (18.1)   | -                              | 7 <sup>#</sup>           | 4*          | 12                 | 6 (50) <sup>1</sup> |
| ES    | 4  | 1 (25.0)                        | -                          | 1 (100.0)   | -  | -                              | NR                       | 1           | 4                  | 2 (50) <sup>2</sup> |
| MG    | 2  | -                               | -                          | -   | -  | -                              | -                        | -           | -                  | -                   |
| TOT.  | 48 | 12 (25.0)                       | 5 (41.6)                   | 5 (41.6)  | 2 (16.6)   | 0                              | 7                        | 5           | 16                 | 8 (50) <sup>3</sup> |

216 <sup>#</sup>Parasitemia ranging from 15 to 300 parasites/ $\mu$ L (median = 40 p/ $\mu$ L); \*One harboring *P.*  
217 *simium*, one with *P. malariae/brasiliandum* and the remaining two found dead with no blood  
218 slides available. NR: not realized, they were found dead during a yellow fever outbreak. <sup>\$</sup>Search  
219 in spleen tissues in a subsample consisting of dead animals. <sup>1</sup>Two out of these six animals had  
220 positive PCR; <sup>2</sup>One of then had positive PCR. <sup>3</sup>Three of then had positive PCR; the other five  
221 had negative PCR.

222  
223 Figure 2: Giemsa's solution-stained thick (A-D) and thin (E-I) blood samples, and  
224 histopathological analysis hematoxylin-eosin-stained spleen fragments of howlers naturally  
225 infected with *Plasmodium* in Rio de Janeiro state, Brazil, showing (J) hypertrophy of red pulp  
226 with malarial pigments and white pulp atrophy and (K) detail of malarial pigments in the red  
227 pulp.

228

229 Only 12 NHPs could be examined from the bordering states of RJ: six of them were  
230 howler monkeys from MG and ES and none was infected by *P. simium*. One of the four  
231 examined howlers from ES was PCR positive to *P. brasiliandum/malariae* (25%) (Table 1).

232 Regarding RJ, 11 (26.1%) howler monkeys were infected with malaria parasites at the  
233 time of sampling and, among them, 16.7% were infected by *P. simium*, the causative agent of the  
234 autochthonous human malaria in this state (Tables 1 and 2). Importantly, specific *P. simium* SNP  
235 were detected in 100% of these tertian malaria parasite infected howlers. Coincidentally, most of  
236 these animals were originated from the coastal slope of Serra do Mar where most human cases  
237 were recorded in the last decade (Table 2, Fig.3). Six howlers from RJ were infected by the  
238 quartan-malaria parasite *P. brasiliandum/malariae* (14.3%), two of which displaying mixed *P.*  
239 *simium* infection (Tables 1 and 2). All samples were negative for *P. falciparum* parasites.

240

241 Figure 3: Map showing the distribution, number and *Plasmodium infections* of the  
242 examined *Alouatta g. clamitans* in Rio de Janeiro. Green shaded areas represent the counties  
243 with register of autochthonous malaria in human: 1. Macaé, 2. Nova Friburgo, 3. Cachoeira de  
244 Macacu, 4. Teresópolis, 5. Sapucaia, 6. Guapimirim, 7. Petrópolis, 8. Magé, 9. Duque de Caxias  
245 10. Miguel Pereira, 11. Angra dos Reis. Number 12 represents Sumidouro, where human case  
246 has been never detected. The map was prepared using free software QGIS 2.18.

247

248 Previous malaria infections could be investigated by the search of malarial pigment in a  
249 subsample of 16 howlers found dead. Accordingly, malarial pigment (Fig. 2) was detected in  
250 spleen fragments of five out of 13 animals with negative PCR at the time of death and, as  
251 expected, in three with positive PCR (Table 1). Interestingly, malarial pigment was found in

252 spleen samples of 50% of howlers found dead in both RJ (6/12) and ES (2/4) displayed malarial  
253 pigment indicating that malaria is frequent in these monkeys from both states.

254 Howlers could be examined from 15 counties in RJ, six of which with records of  
255 autochthonous human malaria in the past decade. Current infections by *P. simium* were  
256 diagnosed in howlers from four (66.6%) of the surveyed counties reporting human cases of  
257 benign tertian malaria in the state, and in a neighboring county (Sumidouro) where human case  
258 has been never detected (Fig. 3). Coincidentally, in Macaé where the highest number of human  
259 cases was recorded, all howlers found dead had malarial pigments in the spleen, suggesting that  
260 simian malaria is highly enzootic in the county (Table 2).

261  
262 Table 2: RJ *Plasmodium*-positive howler monkeys, according to plasmodial species,  
263 county, year, slope of capture, and occurrence of autochthonous human cases of benign tertian  
264 malaria recorded in the respective county and the year of detection.

|                           |                | <b><i>Plasmodium</i> infections in NHP</b> |                                       |  | <b>Previous PNH <i>Plasmodium</i> infection\$</b> | <b>Human “vivax-like” cases</b> |                       |
|---------------------------|----------------|--|---------------------------------------|--|---|---------------------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Serra do Mar Slope</b> | <b>County</b>  | <b>NP (%)</b>                              | <b>Parasitemia (p/mm<sup>3</sup>)</b> | <b><i>Plasmodium</i> species</b>         |   | <b>N</b>                        | <b>Year</b>           |
| <b>Coastal</b>            | Miguel Pereira | 2 (50)                                     | 40                                    | <i>P. brasiliانum</i>                    | 0 of 1  | 10                              | 2015-2017             |
|                           |                |  | 300                                   | <i>P. simium</i> + <i>P. brasiliانum</i> |   |                                 |                       |
|                           | Macaé          | 1 (16.6)                                   | 25                                    | <i>P. simium</i>                         | 3 of 3  | 12                              | 2011, 2013, 2015-2017 |
|                           | Petrópolis     | 1 (100)                                    | 0                                     | <i>P. simium</i>                         | NA  | 3                               | 2015-2016             |
|                           |                |  | 0                                     | <i>P. brasiliانum</i>                    |   |                                 |                       |
|                           |                |  | NR                                    | <i>P. brasiliانum</i>                    |   |                                 |                       |
| <b>Continent al</b>       | Angra dos Reis | 4 (40)                                     | 250                                   | <i>P. simium</i>                         | 1 of 4  | 3                               | 2015, 2017            |
|                           |                |  | NR                                    | <i>P. simium</i>                         |   |                                 |                       |
|                           | Teresópolis*   | 1 (33.3)                                   | 40                                    | <i>P. brasiliانum</i>                    | NA  | 0                               | –                     |
|                           | Sumidouro      | 2 (100)                                    | 15                                    | <i>P. simium</i>                         | NA  | 0                               | –                     |

|  | 240 | <i>P. simium</i> + <i>P. brasiliense</i> | NA | 0 | - |
|--|-----|--|----|---|---|
|--|-----|--|----|---|---|

265 NP= number of *Plasmodium* positive howlers. <sup>§</sup>Eight howlers were found dead due to Yellow  
266 Fever virus, with *Plasmodium*-negative results (PCR and/or blood slides) in three counties where  
267 *Plasmodium*-positive howlers were found. Histological preparations of spleen fragments showed  
268 malarial pigment in four (50%) of these PCR-negative animals, suggesting previous infection.  
269 \*The *P. brasiliense* infection was found in the district of Água Quente, in the continental side of  
270 Teresópolis. NA= viscera non available.

271 **4 – Discussion**

272 The present work consists of an unprecedented capture effort and large-scale field survey  
273 of plasmodial species in NHPs in RJ, a state recording a three-decade history of autochthonous  
274 human cases of benign tertian malaria. For the first time, infection rates by *Plasmodium* were  
275 described, spatial distribution of *P. simium* in NHP was matched with local human cases of *P.*  
276 *simiun* malaria previously recorded, howler monkeys were disclosed as the only confirmed  
277 reservoir of this zoonotic malaria in the state and the presence of the so-called specific SNP was  
278 demonstrated in all *P. simium* infected howlers, regardless geographical origin of malaria foci.  
279 Although *P. brasiliense/malariae* has already been found in captive NHPs from RJ [13], it is  
280 also the first time that this parasite species was recorded in free-living NHPs from Rio de Janeiro  
281 and the widespread distribution of this quartan-malaria parasite and its zoonotic potential in the  
282 state were illustrated.

283 *P. simium* was detected in howlers captured in five out of 11 counties recently reporting  
284 autochthonous human malaria cases in RJ (Fig.2). Despite efforts, we failed in capturing howlers  
285 in four malaria foci due to some local hindrances such as the steep terrain, hunt pressure and low  
286 *A. g. clamitans* population densities [23]. Nevertheless, the strong geographical overlap of  
287 howler monkey and human infections by parasites displaying specific *P. simium* SNPs in 83.3%  
288 (five out of six) of malaria foci, strengthens the importance of howlers as main reservoir of

289 benign tertian human malaria over the zoonotic transmission areas in Southeast Brazil  
290 [4,5,20,21]. Howlers have also been by far the NHP most commonly found parasitized with both  
291 *P. simium* and *P. brasiliense* in Southern and Southeastern Brazil [5]. Beside their  
292 susceptibility to *Plasmodium* infection [5], the acrodendrophilic behavior, the larger body  
293 surface, and the slower displacement (compared to the smaller monkeys) [35] may make them  
294 more exposed to the bites of the mosquito vectors. Importantly, the finding of malarial pigment  
295 in spleen fragments of 50% of a sub-sample consisting of howlers from RJ and ES, some of  
296 which *Plasmodium*-negative by PCR at the time of death, suggest that simian malaria is very  
297 frequent in this species. Indeed, in some areas with the highest numbers of human cases (e.g.  
298 Macaé), the percentage of howlers exposed to *Plasmodium* sp reached 66.6% when considering  
299 those with current and past malaria infections. This finding may also suggests that spontaneous  
300 healing from malaria infections may occur in howlers in nature, as described in *P. simium*  
301 experimental infections in some neotropical NHPs [36] and in a human natural infection [7].

302 The frequency of *P. simium* infection in free-living howler monkeys in RJ (16.6%) was  
303 higher than that found in the bordering state of SP (5.8%) but lower than that found in the entire  
304 southern and southeastern Brazilian regions (26.3-35%) [5,20,37]. *A. g. clamitans* was also the  
305 only free-living NHP from RJ in which blood forms by microscopy and plasmoidal DNA were  
306 detected. Recently, DNA but not blood forms of *P. simium* was detected in captive *Cebus* and  
307 *Sapajus* from the Southeast, whose role as reservoir for the zoonotic malaria in the region is still  
308 unclear [28]. *P. brasiliense* DNA was detected in captive capuchin, titi, howler and owl  
309 monkeys, besides tamarins and marmosets [13,28], most of which was exotic species to the  
310 Brazilian Southeast. All these NHPs were confined in a breeding institution (Center of  
311 Primatology of Rio de Janeiro - CPRJ) located in a cleared area of the enzootic simian malaria

312 forest in RJ. Therefore, it was suspected that the local ecological conditions favored the  
313 accidental infection of these captive NHPs by parasites carried from infected free-living howlers.  
314 One free living specimen was also found infected by *P. simium* near CPRJ [28]. There still no  
315 evidence if the parasite DNA found in the blood of these captive animals implies that they really  
316 undergo *Plasmodium* infections or only bear a transient parasitemia. However, it is important to  
317 continuously monitor the potential role as zoonotic plasmodia reservoir of other local or  
318 introduced NHPs, besides howlers.

319         Although *P. brasiliannum* has been found in several NHP genera [5,38,39] around other  
320 Brazilian regions, previous studies conducted in Brazilian Atlantic forest and Cerrado biomes did  
321 not find any capuchin (56 examined) nor marmosets (out of 44) infected with *Plasmodium* [20].  
322 In the same way, more than 270 marmosets and lion-tamarins from the Southeast were  
323 *Plasmodium* negative [5]. Splenectomized capuchins did not become infected when injected with  
324 *P. simium* infected blood, while splenectomized marmoset endured low parasitemia [36]. Thus,  
325 the epidemiological role of other NHPs besides howlers in the zoonotic transmission of malaria  
326 in Southeast Brazil, including RJ state, is probably despicable.

327         *P. brasiliannum / malariae* was found in similar frequency to *P. simium* (14.3 versus  
328 16.7%, respectively) in howlers from RJ, and mixed infections were recorded in 18% of  
329 *Plasmodium* infected ones. *P. brasiliannum / malariae* was the only malaria parasite detected in  
330 howlers from ES (Table 1). Besides, geographical co-occurrence of these parasites seems to be  
331 frequent in RJ, as it was disclosed in three out of five counties wherein howlers were detected  
332 with malaria parasites (Fig. 2). Curiously, despite this coincident distribution and similar  
333 frequency of *P. brasiliannum / malariae* and *P. simium* in RJ, autochthonous human cases in this  
334 and in other Atlantic forest states of Southeast Brazil (SP and ES) have been diagnosed

335 microscopically and/or molecularly as benign tertian malaria due to *P. simium* for decades  
336 [1,4,5,7,21,40,41]. In reality, *P. simium* was only identified by molecular tests and DNAmt  
337 sequencing as the causative agent in the 2015-2016 malaria outbreak in RJ, whose patients were  
338 essentially non-residents of foci [2]. Nevertheless, six human asymptomatic infection by *P.*  
339 *malariae* were detected by PCR in residents of Guapimirim in RJ, in 2011 [19], and a subsample  
340 of reactive local individuals for any plasmodial species revealed antibodies against erythrocytic  
341 antigens of *P. malariae* in 30.9%. The hypothesis of infection of NHP origin due to *P.*  
342 *brasilianum* was raised because there was no index case of introduced or imported human case  
343 of *P. malariae* in Guapimirim, and because the cases had close contact with the Atlantic forest  
344 [19]. It is well known that *P. brasilianum* is a widespread and common simian malaria parasite  
345 in the Amazon [5,14,42] and that it is experimentally infective to humans, either by inoculation  
346 of parasitized monkey blood or by the bite of infected mosquitoes [9]. High prevalence of  
347 antibodies against sporozoites antigens and erythrocytic forms of *P. brasilianum/malariae* in  
348 people living or frequently working in Amazon forests (e.g. indians, miners, settlers) of Brazil,  
349 French Guiana and Venezuela suggested infection of this simian quartan malaria parasite to  
350 humans [42–44]. Infections by *P. brasilianum/malariae* in humans would be, therefore, expected  
351 to occur also in RJ and in other southeastern states where *P. simium* has been described. In  
352 effect, the natural vector of both parasites is the same (*An. cruzii*) [5]. Notwithstanding, why  
353 malaria cases due to *P. brasilianum/malariae* have not been reported yet in this region is a  
354 question that remains to clarify and it is recommended to strengthen malaria surveillance either  
355 in residents or visitors of the Atlantic forest to evaluate the zoonotic potential of *P.*  
356 *brasilianum/malariae* in southern and southeast Brazil [1].

357 Noteworthy, most of the *P. simium* - and *P. brasiliandum/malariae* - infected howlers  
358 (73%) were from forest coastal slope of Serra do Mar, where all autochthonous human malaria  
359 cases have been acquired [2,19]. At least two main premises may explain this apparently  
360 geographical coincidence and distinct distribution of simian and human malarias. From the  
361 entomological and climatic points of view, the higher relative humidity in the costal slope may  
362 increase *An. cruzii* survival rates, supporting the sporogonic cycle of the *Plasmodia*. Sea  
363 moisture also favor density of epiphyte shade bromeliads, the larval habitat of *An. cruzii*, and  
364 generates higher rainfall indexes [45], which in turn increases the amount of water accumulated  
365 in the vector larval habitats, positively influencing mosquito density. Greater longevity and  
366 density directly influence the vector capacity of the mosquito to transmit *Plasmodia* [46–48].  
367 Vector competence is governed by genetics of vector population and therefore influence  
368 *Plasmodium* transmission dynamics [48,49]. Indeed, Deane (1992) has emphasized that  
369 environmental conditions influence to a high degree the presence and densities of neotropical  
370 NHP hosts, bromeliads and *An. cruzii*, and, consequently, defining the occurrence or not of  
371 simian malaria in nearby sites. Moreover, two genetic lineages of *An. cruzii* with partial  
372 reproductive isolation have been recently described in Serra do Mar, one curiously occurring in  
373 the coastal and another in the continental slopes [50]. Costal slope of Serra do Mar has much  
374 more sites coveted by urban people to settle hidden weekend home in the forest and visited sights  
375 by ecotourists and hikers than the continental one. As explained, the autochthonous human cases  
376 in the Atlantic forest in RJ has been reported mainly in non-residents [1,2,19]. Together, the  
377 environmental, entomological, ecological and epidemiological characteristics seem to indicate  
378 costal slope of Serra do Mar as the place to acquire malaria of simian origin. Protective measures

379 such as the use of repellents and long clothes should be encouraged especially for those who live  
380 or practice ecotourism in this slope.

381 During the present study, an yellow fever virus (YFV) outbreak erupted in the southeast  
382 Brazil, a region without records of this virus circulation for almost 80 years [26,51]. Hundreds of  
383 epizootics of NHPs were reported, causing a significant impact on the population size of howler  
384 monkeys , an extremely susceptible host to YFV [24,52–57]. Considering the role of the howlers  
385 as reservoir of *Plasmodium* infective to humans, it is plausible to suppose that dynamics of  
386 zoonotic transmission of malaria will undergo changes in short or medium term in RJ and  
387 bordering states affected by the YFV epizooties. In this context, we postulate that the rapid  
388 decrease of *Alouatta* populations would also decrease the source of plasmodial infection to *An.*  
389 *cruzii*, which would reduce the circulation of *Plasmodia* in the Atlantic forest. Despite the short  
390 time since the 2016-2018 YFV epizootics, records from the malaria surveillance seem to confirm  
391 this scenario. In fact, there was an abrupt drop in human malaria case records between 2018-  
392 2019 [58], contrasting with the numbers reported in 2015-2016 [2]. If the reduction of  
393 autochthonous malaria cases in Atlantic Forest is depending of plasmodial sources of NHP origin  
394 the role of NHP for the occurrence of malaria in Extra-Amazonia would be reinforced as never  
395 before.

396 Previous sampling efforts of examining free-living NHPs in the Southeastern Atlantic  
397 Forest over the last 30 years showed limited geographical coverage, with samplings essentially  
398 limited to wildlife rescues or carried out in areas close to cities, or were based on few  
399 individuals [4,20,21]. As a result, our data contribute to understanding the simian malaria  
400 parasite distribution and frequency as well as the zoonotic character of autochthonous human  
401 malaria in Rio de Janeiro, which in turn provides subsidies for shaping surveillance and control.

402 The evidence of the simian origin of parasites infecting humans and the widespread occurrence  
403 of anophelines vectors in the southeast increased the concern of the reemergence of endemic or  
404 epidemic autochthonous transmission in the region independent of the enzootic cycle [2].  
405 However, it is not clear if parasitaemic humans infected by the bite of *An. cruzii* carrying  
406 sporozoites of *P. simium* acquired from howlers could be source of infection to *An. cruzii* or any  
407 other malaria vector occurring in the region. It is knowning that *P. simium* infected humans  
408 usually display scanty to null parasitemia, can cure spontaneous in few days without treatment  
409 and any relapse or molecular detection of parasites during follow-ups of treatment have been  
410 described [2,5]. Besides, all autochthonous human case of benign tertian malaria detected for  
411 decades in southeast have reported recent contact with the *P. simium* enzootic forest, and no  
412 secondary transmission directly derived from a human infected in the zoonotic cycle has never  
413 been detected outside the sylvatic foci. These epidemiological and parasitological profiles appear  
414 to indicate that humans are not a source of *P. simium* infection to mosquitoes. In this light,  
415 determining vector competence of *An. cruzii* and other traditional human malaria vector  
416 occurring in the southeast (e.g. *An. darlingi*, *An. aquasalis* and *An. albitalis*) for transmitting *P.*  
417 *simium* and *P. brasiliense* between humans and from NHPs and humans and vice-versa is  
418 imperative.

419  
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443

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636 Supplementary table 1: Number of examined NHP, by species, habitat and capture method.

### NHP capture points

- *Leontopithecus capturados*
- *Sapajus capturados* 2
- *Alouatta capturados* 2
- *Callithrix capturados*
- *Callicebus capturado*

### Land use and cover

- Forest
- Agriculture and Pasture
- Sand vegetation
- Mangrove
- Water
- Sand Dunes
- Urban areas





