

Rodents, goats, and dogs – their potential roles in ~~the~~ ongoing transmission of schistosomiasis in China

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Authors contributed equally to this work

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Summary (150-200 words)

Schistosomiasis in China has been substantially greatly reduced due to an effective control ~~programme efforts there by~~ employing among other measures, bovine and human chemotherapy and the ,as well as removal of bovines from endemic areas. To fulfil elimination targets it will be necessary to identify other possible reservoir hosts for *Schistosoma japonicum* and include them in control efforts. This study determined the infection prevalence in ~~looked at~~ rodents (0-9.21%), dogs (0-18.37%), and goats (6.9-46.4%) from the Dongting lake area of Hunan province, using a range of a combination of traditional coproparasitological techniques (MHT and KK) and molecular methods (qPCR and ddPCR). ~~, finding a~~ We found a much higher prevalence in goats than previously recorded in this setting, ~~seen for the Dongting lake~~. Cattle and water buffalo were also examined using the same procedures and all were infected with 100% prevalence seen, emphasising indicating the occurrence of at active transmission, ~~is still occurring~~. qPCR and ddPCR were much more sensitive than the coproparasitological procedure techniques with and both KK and MHT considerably drastically underestimating ~~ing~~ the true prevalence in all animals surveyed tested. The high level of *S. japonicum* prevalence in goats indicates that they are likely may be important reservoirs in transmission of schistosomiasis ~~transmission, to both bovines and humans and need necessitating their to be~~ included as targets of ~~in~~ control programs to reach if ~~the~~ goal of ~~schistosomiasis~~ elimination is to be achieved in China.

Key findings

- Molecular methods ~~(, qPCR and ddPCR)~~, are far more sensitive than KK, and MHT for detecting *S. japonicum* infections
- Inhibitors ~~are~~ present in goat stool ~~that~~ hinder qPCR, but not ddPCR
- Goats have a higher schistosome prevalence than previously recorded seen in the Dongting lake area
- Active transmission is ongoing still occurring as evidenced by 100% schistosome prevalence in bovines
- Goats should be targeted included as potential reservoirs in future schistosomiasis control programs

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Keywords

Schistosoma japonicum, Schistosomiasis, ~~,~~ Dongting lake, PR China, Goats, ~~b~~ Bovines, ~~R~~ Rodents, ~~D~~ Dogs, qPCR, ddPCR, KK, MHT

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Introduction

Schistosomiasis japonica is an intravascular parasitic disease caused by the blood fluke *Schistosoma japonicum* and is endemic in the People's Republic of China (PRC), the Philippines, and small pockets of Indonesia. In the PRC, there are approximately 286,000 people currently infected, with more than 60 million people considered to be at risk [1].

Major endemic foci occur in the Lakes (Dongting and Poyang) and marshland regions along the Yangtze River basin, where elimination has proven difficult to achieve.

Unlike the other main human schistosome species (*S. mansoni*, *S. haematobium*, and *S. intercalatum*), *S. japonicum* is zoonotic with 46 species of wild and domestic animals, spanning 28 genera and 7 orders, that can be infected [2-4]. This significantly complicates control efforts as infections in animals hosts lead to environmental contamination with *Schistosoma* schistosome eggs, which can cause infections in humans. Animal hosts determined identified to be of public health importance include domesticated animals (water buffalo, cattle, sheep, dogs, goats, horses, pigs, cats) and rodents [2, 3, 5, 6]. In the PRC, there is now irrefutable evidence indicating that bovines, particularly water buffaloes (*Bubalus bubalis*), play a major role in the transmission of *S. japonicum* to humans [1, 7-12]. The daily faecal output from a water buffalo (~25 kg) has been estimated to be at least 100 times that produced by a human individual (0.25kg), leading to much higher egg excretion rates [13, 14]. The environmental contamination of *S. japonicum* eggs from a previous study was 28.7 million days for 238 infected bovines (225/13; water buffaloes/cattle), emphasising their considerable contribution to the release of *S. japonicum* eggs into the external environment [9, 15]. As a result, bovines are targeted in the national schistosomiasis control program for China which is recognized as one of the most successful control programs worldwide [16, 17].

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The current national control strategy employs a multi-component integrated approach with human and bovine mass praziquantel (PZQ) chemotherapy as its cornerstone – combined with snail control, environmental modification, improved sanitation through the supply of safe water, and the building of latrines, health education, barrier farming, and removal of bovines and their replacement with mechanised tractors [18]. Research is also ongoing for the development and deployment of a transmission-blocking veterinary vaccine in livestock animals, particularly bovines to augment and accelerate elimination efforts and to achieve the Chinese government's goal of eliminating schistosomiasis by 2025 [19, 20].

As schistosomiasis in China approaches d elimination it is important to investigate whether other animal hosts, such as rodents, goats, and dogs, may act as additional reservoirs of infection and maintain low levels of transmission, and should therefore be targeted in the national control program to prevent rebounding infections after elimination is thought to have been achieved and control interventions are discontinued~~removed~~ [21].

In this study ~~for the first time~~ we describe, for the first time, the use of both molecular and copro-parasitological methods to examine the role of rodents, goats, and dogs, in the transmission of *S. japonicum* in the Dongting Lake region, Hunan Province, PRC, using both molecular and copro-parasitological methods.

Methods

Ethics

The study procedures were performed with ~~eo~~ approvals from the Animal Ethics Committees of QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute (~~QIMRB~~) ~~animal ethics committee~~ (project number: P288), and the Hunan Institute of Parasitic Diseases (HIPD), Yueyang, PRC and ~~(UQ)the~~ School of Biomedical Sciences, the University of Queensland (~~SBMS~~). The project was undertaken ~~is~~ in accordance with the Australian ~~e~~Code for ~~e~~Care and ~~u~~Use of ~~a~~Animals for Scientific ~~p~~Purposes (8th Edition, 2013).

Study Design

This cross-sectional, epidemiological study was carried out in the Dongting Lake area of Hunan Province, PRC, and aimed to determine the prevalence and infection intensity of *S. japonicum* in rodents (*Rattus norvegicus*; the brown field rat, *Microtus fortis*; the common lake vole), dogs (*Canis familiaris*), and goats (*Capra aegagrus hircus*). Stool samples were collected from 83 rodents, 145 goats and 52 dogs. Stool collection and microscopy took place

over a one month period from April 2014 to May 2014 at the HIPD. Stool ~~sm~~amples fixed in 80% ethanol (v/v) were transported to QIMRB, Australia, for molecular analysis.

Ten ~~c~~attle (*Bos taurus domestica*) and ten water buffalo (*Bubalis bubalis*) were examined to confirm ongoing *S. japonicum* transmission in the area.

Study area

The study was undertaken in six geo-referenced villages (Jimei, Lujiao, Luweichang, Laogangzhan, Yang Mao and Hubin) surrounding the Dongting Lake, ~~located in Hunan Province, PRC~~ (Figure 1). Goat stool samples were collected from two goat farms in Jimei and Yang Mao. Stool samples from dogs were collected by the owners from Jimei, Lujiao, Luweichang and Hubin. Rodent traps were set in Hubin and Laogangzhan villages and bovine samples were collected from Yang Mao and Lujiao.

Comment [d2]: Geo-referenced for what?

Study Procedures

Sample Collections

Faecal samples were collected from individual goats and dogs ~~immediately directly~~ after defecation. The ages of the goats and dogs were ~~reported eorded~~ by the owners. Rodents were collected as part of the national rodent control program and were kept in individual cages for two days and stool samples were collected each day from the bottom of the cages. Rodents were then ~~necropsied and~~ examined for ~~the presence of~~ adult *S. japonicum* worms, ~~by necropsy~~. Stool samples from cattle and water buffalo were collected ~~directly from the via rectal biopsy~~rectum. Approximately 1 – 3 g of stool from each animal was fixed and stored in 80% (v/v) ethanol for DNA extraction and molecular analysis, ~~at the QIMRB~~.

Diagnostics

For accuracy in the estimation of prevalence and intensity of infection, a combination of three diagnostic methods was used: the Kato-Katz thick smear technique (KK), the Miracidial Hatching Technique (MHT) and Quantitative Real Time PCR (qPCR). All three techniques were used to examine ~~faecal samples from~~ dogs, goats, and bovines, while the MHT and qPCR were used in ~~faecal examination in~~ conjunction with necropsy on the ~~rodent~~ specimens ~~from rodents~~. Droplet digital PCR (ddPCR) was also performed on DNA extracted from ~~the~~ goat stool ~~samples~~.

Kato-Katz thick smear technique

All goat, dog and bovine stool samples were evaluated using the KK technique, as previously described [22]. Three slides were ~~prepared from each~~~~made per~~ stool sample and ~~were~~ examined for the presence of *S. japonicum* eggs.

Miracidial Hatching Technique

All faecal samples ~~were subjected to~~~~underwent~~ examination for the presence of live ~~cercariae~~ ~~miracidia~~ using the MHT, as previously described [23], with minor slight modifications. Briefly, the stool sample was homogenised, ~~and~~ forced through a fine sieve, ~~the resulting sample product is was~~ placed into an Erlenmeyer flask filled with water (pH 6.8 – 7.2), and ~~subjected placed under to~~ a strong artificial or natural light source for one hour at room temperature (25–30°C), ~~and left for one hour~~. The neck of the flask was then examined for the presence of live miracidia.

Necropsy

All rodents were dissected and inspected for adult *S. japonicum* worms and ~~any~~ evidence of pathology caused by eggs ~~in to~~ the host liver. The dissected internal organs of ~~the~~ necropsied rodents were collected ~~in addition along with to~~ approximately 1 g of stool taken directly from the gastrointestinal tract which was subjected to the MHT, as described above.

Quantitative real time PCR

The primers used in ~~theis~~ qPCR assay amplify the NADH dehydrogenase 1 (*nad1*) mitochondrial gene and their sequences have been described ~~elsewhere~~ [24-27]. The 18 µL qPCR reaction contained: 10 µL SYBR Green MasterMix (Invitrogen, city country?), 4 µL H₂O, 1 µL each of the forward and reverse primer mixtures (200 nM final concentration) and 2 µL DNA template. The qPCR cycling conditions were: initial hold at 50°C for 2 minutes, a second hold at 95°C for 10 min, followed by 45 cycles of 95°C denaturation for 15s, 60°C annealing for 60s, 72°C extension for 90s and a final melt of 65°C and 90°C. The assay was run on a Corbett RotorGene 6000 thermocycler (Qiagen, city country?). Each samples was run in triplicate ~~and~~ ~~P~~positive and negative controls were used concurrently in each assay. Distilled H₂O was used as the template in negative controls and template DNA extracted from *S. japonicum* eggs isolated from the livers of laboratory infected mice was used as a positive control [28]. Melt curve analysis was performed for each sample.

Using the cycle threshold (Ct) score results, positive stool samples were quantified as eggs per gram of faeces (EPG). To determine the corresponding egg numbers to cycle threshold (Ct) scores, seeding and dilutions experiments were performed as previously described [25-27]. Briefly, a standard curve was generated from the results of the serial dilutions, and seeding experiments were used to determine known number of eggs corresponding to a range of Ct scores. The standard curve was then used to compare the unknown animal samples from our study and to determine egg numbers. From this a Ct score of 35 was set as the cut-off for a positive result.

Droplet digital PCR (ddPCR)

ddPCR was performed on 125 goat stool samples only. Using the same *nad1* primers as described ~~above~~ for the qPCR ~~above~~, reaction mixtures for ddPCR were prepared containing 10 µl of ddPCR EvaGreen (Bio-Rad, Hercules, USA), forward and reverse primers (200 nM final concentration), 2 µl of DNA (50 ng/µl) and distilled H₂O to a final volume of 20 µl. The assay was setup as previously described [29, 30]. The following cycling conditions were used; initialisation of 5 min at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 30 seconds, and 55.8°C for 1 minute, followed by a final stabilisation step of 95°C for 5 minutes. After amplification the plate was placed ~~in-toon~~ ~~a~~ QX200 Droplet Reader (Bio-Rad) for analysis and quantification of positive and negative droplets. Negative and positive controls were the same as ~~used~~ for the qPCR ~~assay above~~.

Data Analysis

All data were analyzed using Microsoft Excel and SAS Software (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, ~~USA~~). An animal was considered ~~infected positive~~ if at least one *S. japonicum* egg was found by KK, one adult worm was found during necropsy, one live miracidium ~~a~~ was ~~observed found from by~~ the MHT or if a positive Ct score (<35) was ~~obtained seen~~ by qPCR. ~~For With the ddPCR a goat n-animal~~ was considered ~~infected positive~~ if there ~~were~~ ~~>~~3 positive droplets ~~were evident seen~~. Egg counts from ~~the~~ KK slides and estimated egg counts from qPCR Ct scores were log transformed from average EPG to geometric mean EPG (GMEPG) to give infection intensity. 95% ~~e~~C Confidence Intervals (CI) were calculated using standard formulae based on the binomial distribution (prevalence) and the lognormal distribution (intensity). ~~When~~ ~~re~~ there was no variability in the data (e.g. 100% prevalence), CI-s could not be calculated. Chi-square tests were used to compare infection prevalence ~~s~~ and mean EPG.

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The Animal Contamination Index (ACI) was derived from a formula originally designed for bovines, called the Bovine Contamination Index [9] ~~calculated and is~~ as follows:

$$\text{ACI} = [\text{arithmetic mean EPG (infected animals)}] \times [\text{number of infected animals}] \times [\text{average daily faecal weight of animal}].$$

The average stool output per day for the goats (1000 g – 1500 g), dogs (1000 g) and rodents (1 g) was ~~determined measured~~ and recorded. The conservative average stool output of 25 kg per bovine per day was taken from the previous literature, as the average daily faecal output of water buffalo and cattle in China has been found to be between 25 and 60 kg [13].

Comment [d3]: Did Claire determine the output? If not where did these figures come from?

Comment [d4]: I think we should use the same average stool output as we have published previously.

Comment [CG5]: Do we want to keep this or do as per discussions on the Chinese schisto paper – i.e. a range?

Results

Sample ~~pecimen~~ collection

Eighty-three rodents were collected and ~~their *S. japonicum* infection status was determined analysed~~ by necropsy and MHT; DNA was successfully extracted from 79 ~~faecal~~ samples for qPCR. Stools ~~were as~~ collected from 52 dogs and analysed by KK and MHT; DNA was successfully extracted from 49 samples for qPCR. A total of 145 goats, 10 cattle and 10 water buffalo stool samples were analysed by KK, MHT and qPCR. Stool samples from 125 goats were ~~also~~ analysed by ddPCR.

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Prevalence and ~~i~~Intensity of ~~i~~Infection

Rodents

A total of 37 black field rats (*R. norvegicus*) and 46 lake voles (*M. fortis*) were ~~necropsied~~ and ~~their stools examined for *S. japonicum* infection tested~~ using the MHT. ~~None of the rodents were parasite-positive Prevalence~~ by MHT ~~for both species was 0%. But both~~ species had a prevalence of 8.43% (95% CI: 2.33 – 14.54%) ~~determined~~ by qPCR (Table 1). No significant ($p > 0.05$) differences were found in infection prevalence between the two rodent species, nor between age, village, or gender. The geometric mean eggs per gram ~~determined by as per~~ qPCR (qGMEPG) estimated from ~~*S. japonicum*-positive rodents (n=7)~~ was 45.23 (95% CI: 18.24–112.14).

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Dogs

~~None of the dogs were positive for The prevalence of *S. japonicum* infection in dogs when~~

~~tested~~ using the KK and MHT ~~procedures techniques was 0%. whereas a P~~prevalence using ~~qPCR was of~~ 18.37% (95% CI: 7.13 - 29.605%) ~~was obtained by qPCR~~ (Table 1). No significant differences ($p>0.05$) were found between prevalence and age, gender or village location of positive samples ($n=49$). The qGMEPG₇ for positive dog samples ($n=9$) was 48.69 (95% CI: 6.46-367.23).

Goats

One hundred forty-five goats were examined: ~~from two villages~~, 75 black goats (*Capra spp.*) from Jimei village₇ and 70 Boer goats (*Capra spp.*) from Yang Mao village. The *S. japonicum* prevalence of all 145 goats was 27.59% (95% CI: 20.22 - 34.95%) by both KK and MHT. The GMEPG was 18.09 (95% CI: 12.94-25.29%) using the KK data.

There was a significant difference (OR: 23.85, 95% CI: 7.71-73.8 $p<0.001$) in prevalence between black goats (50.67%, 95% CI: 39.09-62.25) and Boer goats (2.86%, 95% CI: 0-6.86) ~~when determined using the MHT, and also for and the~~ KK (46.67%, CI: 35.11-58.22; 2.86%, CI: 0-6.86) (Table 23). No significant differences ($p>0.05$) ~~were evident as seen~~ between gender or age groups. ~~Black goats also had a higher prevalence by ddPCR than boer goats, but this was not significant. The prevalence determined by qPCR was 6.9% (95% CI: 2.72-11.07). Of the 145 goat stool examined, by qPCR, 125 were examined by ddPCR. The prevalence in goats by ddPCR was 46.40% (95% CI: 37.53-55.26%) (Table 1).~~

Bovines

A total of 10 cattle and 10 water buffalo were sampled from Hubin and Laogangzhan villages ~~and all animals. All bovines (n=20) tested were~~ *S. japonicum*-positive by at least one diagnostic test. Water buffalo had a prevalence of 10% (95% CI: 0 - 32.62), 0%, and 90% (95% CI: 67.38 - 100) by MHT, KK₇ and qPCR₇ respectively (Table 1), while cattle had a prevalence of 100%, 80% (95% CI: 49.84 - 100)₇ and 100%₇ respectively. No significant differences ($p>0.05$) were ~~evident seen~~ between ~~the both~~ bovines ~~or between and~~ age ~~or and~~ gender. The cattle had a high GMEPG ~~determined by obtained through the~~ KK (24.20 - 95% CI: 8.25-71.01). Water buffalo ~~and cattle~~ had an estimated qGMEPG of 132.57 (37.69-466.33) and cattle a qGMEPG of 480.96 (97.29-2377.75) (Table 1).

Animal Contamination Index (ACI)

The total daily faecal output of the goats, rodents, and dogs was estimated to be 1500 g, 1 g and 1000 g respectively. The ACI was calculated using both the KK and qPCR data for ~~G~~goats and cattle, ~~but and~~ using only the qPCR data for dogs, water buffalo, cattle, goats, and rodents. The ACI for goats, calculated on KK positive samples, was 533,355 eggs per day for all positive goats and an average of 14,415 eggs for individual goats, while with the ~~for~~ qPCR the calculated individual ACI was 169,750 eggs per day (Table 23). A range of 15-25 kg faecal weight per day for bovines was used [13] to calculate the ACI for cattle and water buffalo. Cattle were calculated to be excreting between 788,700 and 1,314,500 eggs per day, per animal by KK and 44,025,000 to 73,375,000 by qPCR. Water buffalo had an individual ACI of between 4,337,859 and 7,229,750 eggs per day (Table 32). Rodents had a much smaller ACI of 78.99 per animal using the qPCR data, an estimate considerably less than dogs with an ACI of 22,760 per animal (Table 3).

Comment [CG7]: Ref for range?

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Discussion

-This is the first study of its kind to estimate prevalence and intensity of schistosomiasis japonica in rodents, goats, and dogs using a combination of diagnostic methods, including qPCR. Evaluating the contribution of individual animal hosts ~~s~~ is important in understanding the transmission dynamics of *S. japonicum* in China and whether a particular species should ~~they need to~~ be considered ~~added to~~ for potential treatment in the national control program. Bovines are already included in the ~~for~~ control program for China as it is well established that they are important reservoir hosts in the ~~in~~ transmission of schistosomiasis to humans [8-11].

Ongoing ~~control~~ extensive and concerted programs in China ~~have resulted in a substantial~~ decreased ~~the~~ prevalence and intensity of *S. japonicum* infection in humans and bovines since control first commenced ~~started~~ in 1949. Then ~~when~~ an estimated 12 million humans were infected, whereas ~~Currently~~ it is considered ~~estimated~~ that there are 184,943 human infections ~~in humans~~ [31-33]. Therefore, ~~To~~ determine whether ~~confirm that there is still~~ there was ongoing active transmission in the Dongting Lake study area, we examined 20 bovines (10 cattle, 10 water buffalo) and showed all were infected. The prevalence in bovines from the current study was 100%, confirming ~~that transmission is still~~ ongoing transmission. We examined bovine stools using KK, MHT, and qPCR, with the latter found ~~finding qPCR~~ to be by far the most ~~more~~ sensitive diagnostic method, ~~that KK or MHT~~. In ~~None of the~~ water buffalo particularly ~~were~~ shown infected by ~~KK failed to find any infections while~~ whereas the MHT identified only one infected animal ~~was infected by MHT, while for~~ With cattle, no ~~KK again failed to find any~~ positive

animals ~~were identified by KK~~, while ~~100% prevalence was recorded by both~~ MHT and qPCR. KK, ~~in particular~~, and ~~the~~ MHT are known to lack sensitivity, particularly in low intensity infection areas, ~~a feature -and this was confirmed herein our study~~ [26, 27, 34-36].

~~The results from P~~previous studies on *S. japonicum* infections ~~into~~in rodents, goats ~~and~~, dogs in China are conflicting with a large variation ~~in of~~ infection prevalence ~~reported~~ and ~~limited the~~ data on infection intensity (Table 4). The majority of these studies used microscopy (such as KK and the Danish bilharziasis laboratory technique (DBL)) and egg hatching ~~procedures~~ which are known to have low sensitivity, leading to under reporting of *S. japonicum* ~~infection disease~~ [25-27, 37, 38]. ~~Processing of stool samples using F~~the MHT requires ~~a~~ specific pH ~~and~~ ~~temperatures~~ and ~~good~~ water quality to work, which can be challenging ~~to achieve in under~~ field conditions [22, 23, 39, 40]. Immunodiagnostic ~~procedures have been used but these s can~~ lack specificity and do not distinguish between past and current infections [23, 24, 41].

~~In previous studies from China, i~~*S. japonicum* infection prevalence ~~reported for in~~ rodents ~~in China~~ ~~has ranged~~ from 0-26.50% ~~determined~~ by perfusion and dissection, MHT, and KK (Table 4). In this study ~~no rodents were found infected by MHT or necropsy with the qPCR indicating a the~~ prevalence ~~in rodents was of~~ 9.21% (Table 1). This ~~result and some of the and~~ previous reports from China, coupled with ~~their~~ very small faecal output, and therefore ACI (0.42; Table 32), and, unless present, ~~albeit rarely, in plague proportions numbers, suggest rodents~~ would have very limited impact on transmission, particularly when compared ~~with to~~ bovines and ~~dogs~~. In this study, bovines had an individual ACI of between 44,025,00 and 73,375,00 for cattle, between 4,337,850 and 7,229,750 for water buffalo, and 22,760 for dogs (Table 2). While there are sensitivity issues with MHT, it is the only diagnostic which also tests egg viability. Rodents are generally considered to be non-permissive hosts [2, 42]. ~~A R~~Recent epidemiological studies ~~ies~~ from the Dongting Lake reported a rodent infection prevalence of 14.2% and ~~the authors suggested state~~ that rodents are an important disease reservoir owing to their ~~large high~~ population ~~densities s~~ and ~~extensive~~ migratory patterns, ~~which vary seasonally and during flooding [44], but it should be stressed that however~~ egg viability was not ~~determined examined~~ in that ~~investigation study~~ [43] (Table 4). ~~It was hoped to collect a larger sample size of rodents in the current study, which would be required to fully investigate the issue rodent contribution to transmission, however the scope of the survey was limited due to the migratory nature of rodents, which varies due to season and flooding [44], as well as the relative short duration of the field study of one month.~~

Experimental laboratory infections demonstrated that *M. fortis* produces natural antibodies against schistosome antigens [45]. Protective monoclonal anti-schistosome antibodies produced by Wistar rats after re-infection were found to induce resistance to schistosomes in other rats [46-49]. ~~These is~~ data, along with the results ~~reported here of this study~~, again suggest that rodents are ~~poor hosts for~~

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unsuitable to *S. japonicum* infection, and are therefore likely to be minor unimportant contributors to human transmission. While the *S. japonicum* prevalence in rodents determined by qPCR was 9.21%, prevalence by all of the faecal samples tested by MHT were negative was 0%, which supports the could confirm the suggestion that these wild rodents are not permissive hosts, they not passing non-viable eggs, and, therefore, are not important as in transmission reservoirs. Similarly, whereas none of the stool samples from dDogs similarly had a prevalence of 0% were positive by MHT. However, this could also indicate lack of sensitivity in the technique, particularly as the MHT in this study was only run for one hour, while 24 hours is the usual method. It is therefore possible that more positives would have been found by MHT if it had been run longer. However in contrast, cattle had 100% prevalence by MHT under the same conditions as used with the faeces from the rodents and dogs.

Previous reports of the *S. japonicum* prevalence in goats from previous studies from China, determined using MHT and KK, ranged from 2.70% - 75%, with the highest rates of infection occurring in the lake regions, using MHT and KK (Table 4). In the current our study the prevalence in goats ranged from 6.90% by qPCR, to 27.59% by MHT, and 46.4% by ddPCR (Table 1). The low prevalence by the qPCR method was unexpected as qPCR is a much more sensitive diagnostic than either KK or MHT. After testing the qPCR assay it was we determined that there were inhibitors present in goat stool, that were not found in the dogs, bovines, or human stool samples.

As all DNA used in the study was diluted prior to qPCR to help dilute potential qPCR inhibitors, it was decided to run the goat samples using ddPCR. ddPCR has proven to have a similar or, in some cases, even higher sensitivity than qPCR, and due to how the assay procedure is performed is able to better deal less sensitive to potential with inhibitors in test samples [29, 50]. By partitioning the template DNA and Mastermix into ~20,000 droplets prior to PCR amplification, the ddPCR method it is effectively dilutes the any inhibitors present as well. Accordingly, 125 goat samples were subjected to run on the ddPCR and the a increased prevalence value of (46.4%) was recorded. This prevalence is significantly higher than a previous reports from the Dongting Lake (4.08%, Table 4) [51], suggesting that goats may play an be more important role in the transmission of schistosomiasis japonica than previously thought, suggesting goats are more important than previously thought.

It was previously originally considered thought that goats are were unimportant reservoirs for in *S. japonicum* transmission in China unless present in in high numbers populations [52]. A recent longitudinal study in the Dongting Lake region, however, reported found high infection rates in of goats (4.08-13.60%) in comparison compared with to bovines (2.83-3.62-%); and the authors concluded stated that both species are major sources of *S. japonicum* infection and recommended that control measures should must include two annual and equal mass praziquantel treatments of

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~~both~~ goats and bovines ~~equally, with an additional mass PZQ treatment annually~~ [51] (Table 4). That ~~at particular~~ study used MHT ~~to investigate S. japonicum infections in these domestic ruminants, which-and may have be-~~ under reported the true prevalence ~~ing schistosomiasis cases,~~ particularly when compared ~~with the current investigation which found to our results where~~ 27.59% of goats ~~were~~ positive by MHT and 46.4% by ddPCR (Table 1).

Two breeds of goat were examined in the current study: the common black goat, and the Boer goat, which ~~are is~~ used as livestock ~~animals~~ [53]. ~~The Black goat is an indigenous Chinese breed which, along with several other goat populations, is reported to have been bred to be relatively disease-resistant [54]. The black goats are is used in farming and by our observations indicated, was they had constant access allowed to venture into to infectious water sources, whereas the Boer goats have far more are restricted access contact with to water to prevent them from being infection ed. Using both KK and MHT, wWe found a highly significant difference in S. japonicum infection prevalence using KK and MHT between the black (46.67%; 50.67%) and Boer goats (2.86%; 2.86%) (Table 3).~~ [54]. ~~The results and observations of my study support this assertion (Table 3), positive implications on the control of schistosomiasis, if the current restricted access to water by Boer goats etions applied were to be applied also to Boer goats can be mirrored for to native Chinese goats, this would have potentially positive implications for the future control of schistosomiasis japonica in China.~~

Bovines have been shown to drive *S. japonicum* transmission in the PRC and mathematical modelling has predicted that they are responsible for up to 75% of human infections [10, 55]. As such, ~~it has been~~ one of the main aims of the Chinese national control program ~~is to reduce to keep the~~ bovine infection prevalence ~~to~~ below 1% by 2015 and ~~beyond onwards~~. The current study sampled water buffalo and cattle from the endemic Dongting Lake region and found, ~~by at least one diagnostic method,~~ that all bovines were infected. An earlier study which used MHT to assess ruminant (cattle, water buffalo, goats) ~~infections prevalence in the same locality,~~ found little difference ($p=0.28$) in prevalence ~~over the period from~~ 2005 (4.93%) to 2010 (3.64%), despite ongoing control efforts. ~~In one village prevalence in bovines increased in the same time period (7.50%–8.47%)~~ [51]. Water buffalo infection prevalence was under-estimated when testing using the KK method. A relatively new technique, the FEA-SD method has been suggested for use on bovine samples ~~instead of KK and large volume techniques such as the DBL and MHT for estimating bovine prevalence as this method have a higher sensitivity [38]. Cattle had a higher EPG than water buffalo, which mirrors the literature which finds that cattle are more susceptible to infection and will have a higher egg intensity [13]. As Water buffalo were negative by KK we are unable to compare the two bovine groups by KK, although that could indicate that the EPG of water buffalo was too low to be picked up by the KK method.~~

Comment [d14]: Delete [54] from here

Comment [d15]: Needs a reference

Comment [CG16]: KK is not usual for bovines anyway

Comment [d17]: I think this is waffle and doesn't add much here unless you just want to briefly mention the FEASD technique as another diagnostic approach that could be used in the control program.

Such as--
A new procedure, the formalin-ethyl acetate sedimentation-digestion (FEA-SD) technique, improves the visualisation of *S. japonicum* eggs in animal faeces and could be employed as an additional diagnostic procedure in the control program to determine *S. japonicum* prevalence/intensity in animal reservoirs.

For optimal sensitivity and specificity, DNA-based detection methods, such as real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR)-based assays are superior in terms of optimal sensitivity and specificity, suggested, although these procedures methods are expensive which may limit their use and considered infeasible for large scale surveys [24, 38, 56]. The FEA-SD, a microscopic method for the precise quantification of eggs, gives a more accurate estimation of infection in larger reservoir hosts, including ruminants. It has therefore been suggested FEA-SD be used in conjunction with molecular methods as a surveillance tool in endemic areas [25, 38]. However a major limitation of the FEA-SD is the processing time.

Comment [d18]: You have just said this. Say in one place only.

As China proceeds towards its goal to eliminate schistosomiasis, looking toward elimination, it will be important to examine all animal hosts which have with the potential to act as reservoir hosts opportunity to contribute to environmental contamination of the environment with schistosome eggs leading to, and therefore human infection, and if appropriate, necessary introduce interventions for their control, for those animals. Previously rebounding infections have occurred in China in villages in hilly and mountainous areas of Sichuan province that had previously participated in a mass drug administration (MDA) program with praziquantel where and it was thought schistosomiasis was had been controlled [21]. In these villages the re-emergence of the disease, the rebound of infection occurred between 2 – 15 years after the suspension of later despite the low prevalence and intensity of infections achieved while the MDA was ongoing [21]. These re-emergence of the disease rebounding infections may have been due to: a). poor surveillance with the a low human prevalence and infection intensity of infection remaining among of *S. japonicum* humans that was being missed by the insensitive diagnostic tests used when the parasite was considered to be eliminated, and/or or due b). to continued environmental contamination of the environment by schistosome eggs released from by animals that had not been included in the control program.

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Conclusion and Future Directions

This study tested the hypothesis that examined the role small mammals local to the Dongting Lake, played by including rodents, goats and dogs are unimportant as disease reservoirs of schistosomiasis japonica in the Dongting lake area of China. The low ACI of dogs and rodents, the low average daily faecal output of rodents and the apparent lack of viability of *S. japonicum* eggs in these two small mammalian species² suggests these hosts play a limited role as disease reservoirs, ports this hypothesis. The A fact all bovines were infected high (100%) prevalence was found in bovines, indicating that the Dongting Lake region still remains an active area of

schistosomiasis transmission. ~~A high~~The high infection prevalence ~~of infection~~ and ~~contamination~~ACI index of for goats ~~was also found,~~suggesting they have an important role in human transmission ~~to humans.~~ ~~Based on the results from the study~~We recommend that a additional ~~surveys comprising larger survey including a larger~~more mammalian species in larger numbers ~~range and size of small mammal species from of other~~ endemic areas in ~~the PRC~~China be ~~undertaken is recommended.~~ Molecular ~~diagnostic~~ methods and the FEA-SD ~~procedure method~~ should be ~~advocated for use~~d in surveillance to ~~diagnose~~*S. japonicum* in infected hosts ~~to determine their potential as reservoirs.~~ ~~est samples for optimal sensitivity and specificity.~~ ~~From the goat results in particular, w~~We recommend that consideration should be given to suggest applying ~~restricting the same treatment (restricted access of all indigenous Chinese goats, and other domesticated animals, especially dogs, to potential transmission spots)~~as is now applied to that Boer goats ~~receive, to all indigenous Chinese goats, and other domesticated animals, especially dogs.~~ ~~A transmission blocking vaccine for bovines has been advocated as a component of an integrated control package for schistosomiasis control in China [1]. As a result of our current observations we suggest that goat populations might also be targeted for vaccination.~~As ~~vaccinations available for bovines provide some protection and have given evidence to the lowering of infection intensities [38], we suggest trials of these vaccines on goat populations.~~

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Figure 1: The six villages in the Dongting Lake region, PRC involved in the study.

Comment [d19]: Why isn't China completely in the box? Looks strange.



Table 1: Overall ~~p~~Prevalence and intensity of *S. japonicum* infections in animals sampled from the Dongting Lake region, PRC.

	N	Number Positive	Prevalence (%) (CI*)	GMEPG _‡ (CI*)
Rodents				
<i>Necropsy</i>	83	0	0	-
<i>MHT</i>	83	0	0	N/A [†]
<i>qPCR</i>	76	7	9.21 (2.56-15.86)	45.23 (18.24-112.14)
Dogs				
<i>KK</i>	52	0	0	0
<i>MHT</i>	52	0	0	N/A [†]
<i>qPCR</i>	49	9	18.37 (7.13 - 29.61)	48.69 (6.46-367.23)
Goats				
<i>KK</i>	145	37	25.52 (18.34-32.7)	18.09 (12.94-25.29)
<i>MHT</i>	145	40	27.59 (20.22 - 34.95)	N/A [†]
<i>qPCR</i>	145	10	6.9 (2.72-11.07)	24.056 (12.04-48.06)
<i>ddPCR</i>	125	58	46.4 (37.53-55.26)	
Water Buffalo				
<i>KK</i>	10	0	0	0
<i>MHT</i>	10	1	10 (0 - 32.62)	N/A [†]
<i>qPCR</i>	10	9	90 (67.38 - 100)	132.57 (37.69-466.33)
Cattle				
<i>KK</i>	10	8	80 (49.84 - 100)	24.20 (8.25-71.01)
<i>MHT</i>	10	10	100**	N/A [†]
<i>qPCR</i>	10	10	100**	480.96 (97.29-2377.75)

*95% Confidence interval.

‡ Geometric mean eggs per gram.

† MHT does not give an estimation of intensity.

Comment [d20]: What is the significance of the two **

Table 23: Animal Contamination Index (ACI) calculated for each per animal species using the KK and qPCR arithmetic mean EPG.

KK ACI^a								
Animal	AMEPG*	# Infected	Av daily faecal weight (g)		ACI Overall		ACI Individual	
Goat s	9.61	37	1500		533355		14415.00	
Cattle	52.58	10	15000	25000	7887000	13145000	788700	1314500
qPCR ACI^b								
Animal	AMEPG*	# Infected	Av daily faecal weight (g)		ACI Overall		ACI Individual	
Rodent s	78.99	7	1		552.93		78.99	
Dog s	22.76	9	1000		204840		22760.00	
Goat s	33.95	10	5000		1697500		169750.00	
Cattle**	2935	10	15000	25000	440250000	733750000	44025000.00	73375000.00
Water Buffalo**	289.19	9	15000	25000	39040650	65067750	4337850.00	7229750.00

*Arithmetic mean eggs per gram.

**Range of 15-25 kg daily faecal output

~~a – ACI as determined by KK results.~~

~~b – ACI as determined by qPCR results.~~

Table 32: Prevalence and ~~i~~Intensity of *S. japonicum* infection in goats by KK, MHT, qPCR, and ddPCR ~~for goats~~.

Comment [d21]: Table font different

KK					qPCR			ddPCR			MHT	
	n	Number Positive	Prevalence % (CI*)	GMEPG % (CI*)	Number Positive	Prevalence % (CI*)	qGMEPG % (CI*)	n	Number Positive	Prevalence % (CI*)	Number positive	Prevalence % (CI*)
Age Group (yrs)												
Under 2	75	13	17.33 (8.56-26.1)	22.04 (12.94-25.29)	3	4 (0-8.54)	16.97 (0.80-358.11)	64	31	48.44% (35.86-61.02)	15	20.00% (10.73-29.27)
Over 2	70	24	47.8 (22.89-45.69)	16.25 (10.92-24.19)	7	10 (2.79-17.2)	27.94 (12.13-64.37)	62	27	43.55% (30.85-56.24)	25	35.71% (24.21-47.22)
Goat species												
Black goat	75	35	46.67 (35.11-58.22)	17.78 (12.52-25.22)	9	12 (4.47-19.53)	21.09 (10.35-42.97)	60	35	58.33% (45.49-71.18)	38	50.67% (39.09-62.25)
Boer goat	70	2	2.86 (0-6.86)	24.94 (0.87-100)	1	1.43 (0-4.28)	78.71 (N/A)	66	23	18.25% (23.05-46.65)	2	2.86% (0-6.86)
Total Examined	145	37			10			126	58		40	

*95% Confidence intervals

Table 4: Report~~ed of infection~~ prevalence ~~of infection~~ of *Schistosoma japonicum* among different ~~small-mammalian~~ hosts ~~in PRC~~ (from English language articles).

Reference	Location	Definitive Hosts				Infection Detection Technique
		Dogs	Goats	Rodents	Cats	
Guo <i>et al.</i> , 2013	Dongting Lake	-	-	14.20%	-	Perfusion
Ho, 1963	Laboratory	59.40%	54.80%	22.30%	-	Perfusion
Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2012	Dongting Lake	-	4.08% ^a	-	-	MHT ^b
Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2010b	Marshland village	4.80%	55%	0%	0%	MHT
		8.40%	-	-	37.50%	MHT
	Hilly village	18.90%	-	26.50%	2.60%	MHT
		21.10%	-	17.70%	5.30%	MHT
Sleigh <i>et al.</i> , 1998	Guangxi	3.30%	27.10%	0.30%	-	Dissection
Su <i>et al.</i> , 1994	Lake region	75%	-	-	-	†
Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2005	Chenqiao	2.70%	33.30%	-	0%	KK, unknown MHT
	Guanghui	4.10%	0%	-	1.50%	KK, unknown MHT
Yu <i>et al.</i> , 2009	Marshland region	55.60%	-	0%	-	†
	Hilly region	23.81%	-	13.64%	-	†
Zou <i>et al.</i> , 2010	Yunnan	-	0.52%	-	-	KK

a - 4.08% in 2010

b - Miracidial Hatching Technique

† - Technique ~~could~~ not described

Comment [d22]: Check whether they should be numbered as you have done in the text.

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