Subject of the discussion.

In Response:

Ekaterina Lukianova-Hleb, Sarah Bezek, Reka Szigeti, Alexander Khodarev, Thomas Kelley, Andrew Hurrell, Michael Berba, Nirbhay Kumar, Umberto D’Alessandro, Dmitri Lapotko

Author affiliations: Rice University, Houston, Texas, USA (E. Lukianova-Hleb, D. Lapotko); Baylor College of Medicine, Houston (S. Bezek, R. Szigeti); Ben Taub General Hospital, Harris Health System, Houston (S. Bezek, R. Szigeti); X Instruments LLC, Fremont, California, USA (A. Khodarev); Precision Acoustics Ltd, Dorset, England, UK (T. Kelley, A. Hurrell); Standa UAB, Vilnius, Lithuania (M. Berba); Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana, USA (N. Kumar); Medical Research Council, Banjul, The Gambia (U. D’Alessandro); London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK (U. D’Alessandro)

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In Response: The letter by Rebelo et al. (1) that questions our previously described noninvasive malaria diagnostics (2,3) misinterprets both articles. The main objection comes to our alleged call for “large-scale studies in humans”; no such statement appeared in our 2014 article (2), and in the 2015 article (3), we clearly stated that large-scale studies will be considered after the optimization of a new prototype and improving its sensitivity. The authors’ final questioning of our eligibility for resources is a nonscientific opinion.

Concerning the quality of the standard clinical diagnosis, both thin blood film analysis and rapid diagnostic test results were obtained in a certified US clinical laboratory and returned consistent data. The lack of re-evaluation of the patient and the diagnostic timing are indeed limitations but were caused by the clinical restrictions. Our goal in the 2015 article (3) was to demonstrate the first noninvasive diagnosis of malaria in a human, which was achieved. The additional parameters discussed in the letter were not the subject of this study. Their letter further misinterprets our 2014 study, stating that parasitemia was virtual in that article; in fact, we studied actual infections among mice (2).

The criticism of Rebelo et al. might have been fueled by their own limited detection of hemozoin with flow cytometry and microscopy (4), in which they used parasite cultures and an unspecified number of malaria patients. That the methods they used might not have performed well does not mean that the novel technology we described, based upon a different mechanism, would have the same limitations in detecting hemozoin.

In conclusion, we agree with the need for optimization of the technology and additional testing. We are currently developing and testing our technology in a malaria-endemic country. Nevertheless, the letter by Rebelo et al. does not alter the fact that our novel noninvasive malaria diagnostic technology worked in a human.

References


Address for correspondence: Dmitri Lapotko, Rice University, Houston, Texas, USA, 6100 Main St, MS-140, Houston, TX 77005, USA; email: dl5@rice.edu

Malaria in French Guiana Linked to Illegal Gold Mining

Vincent Pommier de Santi, Aissata Dia, Antoine Adde, Georges Hyvert, Julien Galant, Michel Mazevet, Christophe Nguyen, Samuel B. Vezenehgo, Isabelle Dusfour, Romain Girod, Sébastien Briolant

Author affiliations: Military Center for Epidemiology and Public Health, Marseille, France (V. Pommier de Santi, A. Dia); Direction Interarmées du Service de Santé en Guyane, Cayenne, French
Guiana (V. Pommier de Santi, G. Hyvert, J. Galant, M. Mazevet, C. Nguyen, S. Briolant); Institut Pasteur, Cayenne (A. Adde, C. Nguyen, S.B. Vezenegho, I. Dusfour, R. Girod, S. Briolant); Institut de Recherche Biomédicale des Armées, Brétigny-sur-Orge, France (C. Nguyen, S. Briolant)

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To the Editor: French Guiana, an overseas territory of France and part of the European Union, is located on the northeast coast of South America (Figure). During 2008–2014, the number of malaria cases reported in French Guiana drastically decreased (1). The littoral area (≈30 km–wide Atlantic Ocean coastal band between the cities of Awala-Yalimapo and Ouanary) and the lower part of the Maroni River bordering Suriname (between the cities of Maripasoula and Saint-Laurent du Maroni) are considered malaria free, but this status may not reflect malaria transmission in the inland rainforest (2–4). Since 2008, French Armed Forces have been involved in military operations to control and reduce illegal gold mining activities in forested areas. Soldiers and military policemen usually spend 1–3 weeks in illegal gold mining sites in remote rainforest areas before returning to the littoral area or to bases on rivers bordering Suriname and Brazil. Despite malaria prevention strategies (5), these deployments have resulted in several outbreaks and increased malaria incidence among French forces (6). Most malaria episodes occurred during or just after deployments, so presumed locations of exposure can be easily identified.

Information about malaria cases was collected during 2008–2014 by the French Armed Forces' epidemiologic surveillance system by using a mandatory, specific form that captured putative place of malaria exposure and biologic data for case-patients (6). Geographic coordinates of presumed places of contamination were uploaded into a geographic information system (ArcGIS; http://www.esri.com/software/arcgis/) to produce a malaria distribution map.

During 2008–2014, a total of 1,070 malaria cases were reported to the French Armed Forces' epidemiologic surveillance system. Plasmodium vivax accounted for 78.8% (843/1,070), P. falciparum for 18.0% (193/1,070), and mixed infection (P. vivax and P. falciparum) for 3.2% (34/1,070). Places where malaria exposure occurred were identified for 742 cases of single malaria (586 P. vivax and 156 P. falciparum) infections (Figure). Cases occurring along the Maroni and Oyapock Rivers delimiting the frontiers with Suriname and Brazil, respectively, accounted for 25.3% (188/742). The other cases (74.7%, 554/742) were associated with exposures during military operations in illegal gold mining sites.

Entomologic investigations were conducted in 2 malaria epidemic locations where French forces were deployed: Eau-Claire and Dagobert. Collected Anopheles spp. mosquito specimens were identified by using morphologic keys specific to the Guyana Shield, a geomorphic formation underlying French Guiana and other areas (7). Nonidentifiable Anopheles mosquito specimens were further identified molecularly (8). PCR products from the internal transcribed spacer 2 gene were sequenced, and Anopheles species were identified by comparing sequences to those in GenBank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/) by searching with BLAST (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi). Testing for P. falciparum and P. vivax infections was conducted for all Anopheles spp. specimens by using nested PCR, as described (9).

In May 2013, a malaria outbreak occurred 1 month after military deployment of 100 soldiers at Eau Claire (3.56075°N, –53.21268°E; Figure), where 1 Mosquito Magnet trap (Woodstream Corporation, Lititz, PA, USA) baited with octenol was used to sample Anopheles mosquitoes during April 22–May 12, 2013 (10). The attack rate among the soldiers was 5.0% (5/100): 4 P. vivax and 1 P. falciparum malaria cases. Fifty-three Anopheles mosquito specimens were caught during the 20 days before the outbreak and identified as comprising 4 species (online Technical
Appendix Table, http://wwwnc.cdc.gov/EID/article/22/2/15-1292-Techapp1.pdf). P. falciparum infection was detected in 2 Anopheles species: 1 (12.5%) of 8 An. ininii and 1 (5.0%) of 19 An. nuneztovari s.l. mosquitoes collected; P. vivax infection was found in 1 (5.5%) of 19 An. nuneztovari s.l. mosquitoes.

In September 2013, another malaria outbreak occurred 3 weeks after the deployment of 15 soldiers in Dagobert (4.06028°N, -53.70667°E; Figure). The attack rate among these soldiers was 53.3% (8/15): 7 P. vivax infections and 1 co-infection with P. vivax and P. falciparum. Mosquitoes were collected 3 months later by using human landing catches during 5 consecutive days. The area had been free of illegal gold mining activities since the 15 soldiers were deployed. A total of 321 Anopheles mosquitoes were collected in this location; 95.6% were identified as the same 4 species as in the Eau Claire mosquito collection (online Technical Appendix Table). Only 1 specimen (0.4%, 1/282), An. darlingi mosquito, was infected with P. vivax.

These results suggest a high level of malaria transmission involving An. darlingi and other Anopheles species as primary vectors of malaria in the rainforest. The findings probably highlight malaria hyperendemicity in communities of undocumented gold miners, who are often mobile and pose a challenge for controlling malaria and other infectious diseases in the region. Indeed, these gold miners could reintroduce malaria in areas where competent vectors exist in the coastal part of French Guiana and in Surinam and Brazil, which border French Guiana. This potential for transmission could seriously threaten the success of malaria elimination programs in the Guiana Shield. Further studies are needed to better evaluate malaria epidemiology in these undocumented populations to determine how best to adapt strategies to control malaria transmission in this subregion of South America.

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References


Address for correspondence: Vincent Pommier de Santi, Military Center for Epidemiology and Public Health, Camp Militaire de Sainte Marthe, BP 40026, 13568 Marseille CEDEX 02, France; email: v.pommierdesanti@gmail.com

Importation of Fosfomycin Resistance fosA3 Gene to Europe

Ana C. Mendes, Carla Rodrigues, João Pires, José Amorim, Maria Helena Ramos, Ângela Novais,1 Luísa Peixe1

Author affiliations: Universidade do Porto, Porto, Portugal (A.C. Mendes, C. Rodrigues, J. Pires, Â. Novais, L. Peixe); Centro Hospitalar do Porto, Porto (A.C. Mendes, M.H. Ramos); Botelho Moniz Análises Clínicas, Santo Tirso, Portugal (J. Amorim)

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To the Editor: The wide spread of Enterobacteriaceae resistant to last-resource therapeutic options, including

1These authors contributed equally to this article.