Elephant Tuberculosis References (alphabetical)
(Searched title, abstract, keywords for “tuberculosis”)

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Expansion of ecotourism-based industries, changes in land-use practices, and escalating competition for resources have increased contact between free-ranging wildlife and humans. Although human presence in wildlife areas may provide an important economic benefit through ecotourism, exposure to human pathogens may represent a health risk for wildlife. This report is the first to document introduction of a primary human pathogen into free-ranging wildlife. We describe outbreaks of Mycobacterium tuberculosis, a human pathogen, in free-ranging banded mongooses (Mungos mungo) in Botswana and suricates (Suricata suricatta) in South Africa. Wildlife managers and scientists must address the potential threat that humans pose to the health of free-ranging wildlife.

Seven outbreaks involving increasing numbers of banded mongoose troops and high death rates have been documented. We identified a Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex pathogen, M. mungi sp. nov., as the causative agent among banded mongooses that live near humans in Chobe District, Botswana. Host spectrum and transmission dynamics remain unknown.

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (M. tb) has been shown to be the main causative agent of tuberculosis in elephants worldwide. M. tb may be transmitted from infected humans to other species including elephants and vice versa, in case of prolonged intensive contact. An accurate diagnostic approach covering all phases of the infection in elephants is required. As M. tb is an intracellular pathogen and cell-mediated immune (CMI) responses are elicited early after infection, the skin test is the CMI assay of choice in humans and cattle. However, this test is not applicable in elephants. The interferon gamma (IFN-gamma) assay is considered a good alternative for the skin test in general, validated for use in cattle and humans. This study was aimed at development of an IFN-gamma assay applicable for diagnosis of tuberculosis in elephants. Recombinant elephant IFN-gamma (rEplIFN-gamma) produced in eukaryotic cells was used to immunize mice and generate the monoclonal antibodies. Hybridomas were screened for IFN-gamma-specific monoclonal antibody production and subcloned, and antibodies were isotyped and affinity purified. Western blot confirmed recognition of the rEplIFN-gamma. The optimal combination of capture and detection antibodies selected was able to detect rEplIFN-gamma in concentrations as low as 1 pg/ml. The assay was shown to be able to detect the native elephant IFN-gamma, elicited in positive-control cultures (pokeweed mitogen (PWM), phorbol myristate acetate plus ionomycin (PMA/)) of both Asian and African elephant whole-blood cultures (WBC). Preliminary data were generated using WBC from non-infected elephants, a M. tb infection-suspected elephant and a culture-confirmed M. tb-infected elephant. The latter showed measurable production of IFN-gamma after stimulation with ESAT6/CFP10 PPDB and PPDA in concentration ranges as elicited in WBC by Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex (MTBC)-specific antigens in other species. Hence, the IFN-gamma assay presented potential as a diagnostic tool for the detection
of elephant tuberculosis. Validation of the assay will require its application in large populations of non-infected and infected elephants.


Introduction: Between 1994 and June 2005, there were 34 confirmed cases of tuberculosis in elephants in the U.S. population. Thirty-one Asian (Elephas maximus) and three African (Loxodonta africana) elephants were affected. Mycobacterium tuberculosis was the etiologic agent in 33 cases and M. bovis in one case. Cases of tuberculosis caused by an unusual nontuberculous mycobacteria, M. szulgai have recently occurred as well. Currently, TB in elephants remains a diagnostic dilemma. The sensitivity of trunk wash culture, the currently recommended test for diagnosis, is unknown. False negatives have been documented (trunk wash negative elephants that were subsequently found to be culture positive at necropsy). Other non-culture techniques for TB diagnosis include ELISA, and PCR. A novel technology, MultiAntigen Print ImmunoAssay (MAPIA) and lateral-flow technology (Rapid Test) has been evaluated and used to diagnose tuberculosis in captive elephants with encouraging results. One concern with this serologic testing is the possibility of Mycobacterium other than tuberculosis (MOTT) cross-reacting with the antigen used in the Rapid Test or the MAPIA and leading to a false positive. With numerous MOTT routinely cultured from trunk washes, this is a valid concern.

Methods and Materials: A retrospective analysis was done at Busch Gardens Tampa Bay and Chembio, Inc. that matched trunk wash results to serum samples. All serum was collected within 7 days of the trunk wash and analyzed with the Rapid Test and MAPIA. Four Asian elephants with a total of 18 samples met this criteria and had serum submitted for testing. Results and Discussion: Table 1 lists the results and the organisms cultured. While the sampling is limited in this pilot project, it appears that MOTT does not evoke a response when assayed with the Rapid Test or MAPIA. The recent cases of M. szulgai do demonstrate the potential usefulness for this test when a disease develops from MOTT. The usefulness of this new technology, taken in conjunction with other clinical data including trunk washes when indicated, is a valuable tool in the healthcare of captive elephants.

LITERATURE CITED


The passive haemagglutination (PHA) test was used to test 109 captive elephants (Elephas maximus), and spotted deer (Cervus axis), blackbuck (Antilope cervicapra) and common langurs (Semnopithecus entellus?) (4 of each) for tuberculosis; 51 of the elephants and the 4 langurs were also assessed by the tuberculin test. PHA titres of 1:16 or 1:32 were found in 4 elephants, 1 deer and 2 langurs, but all were apparently healthy except 1 langur that had clinical signs indicative of tuberculosis. There were 4 positive reactors in the tuberculin tests, all elephants, but these animals did not have significant PHA titres. It is concluded that the procedures and
reagents used for the diagnosis of tuberculosis in domestic animals are not reliable for testing wild animals.


Elephant-mediated transmission of tuberculosis is assumed to be similar to human models, which state close and prolonged contact with an infected individual is required for transmission. Although considered a risk factor for infection, several case studies have reported that close contact with an elephant is not always necessary for transmission, and the role of aerosolized bacteria remains unclear. To investigate aerosol-mediated transmission of pathogenic bacteria from elephants, a method for the detection of aerosols using an adapted sampling system was developed. A commensal bacterium was isolated from the upper respiratory tract of elephants (Elephas maximus) and was used as a proxy organism to detect aerosolized droplets in the sampling system. It was found that elephants are capable of producing aerosolized bacterial particles of a size small enough to remain airborne for prolonged periods and penetrate the lower regions of the human respiratory tract.


Background and Objectives: In countries with a high frequency of tuberculosis, there are problems not only with active lung tuberculosis but also with past lung tuberculosis. Cases with sequel tuberculosis very frequently present with complaints like tuberculosis, and it is very hard to determine whether it is a sequel tuberculosis complication or reactivation of tuberculosis. In this study, we measured the serum reactive oxygen metabolite (ROM) levels of patients with active pulmonary tuberculosis and healthy controls, and investigated if these metabolites can be used as a criterion for differentiation between active pulmonary tuberculosis and sequel pulmonary tuberculosis. Methods: 40 patients with active tuberculosis, 35 patients with sequel pulmonary tuberculosis and 30 healthy control subjects with a similar age range and sex distribution were included in the study. Serum total ROM levels were detected in the patients and control group. Results: Mean serum ROM values were 994 ± 236, 551 ± 135 and 236 ± 59 U/l among active lung tuberculosis cases, sequel lung tuberculosis cases and the healthy control group, respectively. As a result of these findings, serum ROM levels of active lung tuberculosis cases and sequel lung tuberculosis cases were significantly higher than those of the control group (both p < 0.001). The serum ROM levels of active lung tuberculosis cases were also significantly higher than those of sequel lung tuberculosis cases (p < 0.001). Conclusions: In the light of our findings, it may be assumed that serum ROM values can be used as an activity criterion in the differentiation of active lung tuberculosis and sequel lung tuberculosis. Copyright © 2005 S. Karger AG.


Background. Two non-tuberculous mycobacterial strains, UM_3 and UM_11, were isolated from the trunk wash of captive elephants in Malaysia. As they appeared to be identical phenotypes, they were investigated further by conventional and whole genome sequence-based methods of strain differentiation. Methods. Multiphasic investigations on the isolates included species identification with hsp65 PCR-sequencing, conventional biochemical tests, rapid biochemical profiling using API strips and the Biolog Phenotype Microarray analysis, protein profiling with liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry, repetitive sequence-based PCR typing and whole genome sequencing followed by phylogenomic analyses. Results. The isolates were shown to be possibly novel slow-growing schotochromogens with highly similar biological and genotypic characteristics. Both strains have a genome size of 5.2 Mbp, G+C content of 68.8%, one rRNA operon and 52 tRNAs each. They qualified for classification into the same species with their average nucleotide identity of 99.98% and tetranucleotide correlation coefficient of 0.99999. At the subspecies level, both strains showed 98.8% band similarity in the Diversilab automated repetitive sequence-based PCR typing system, 96.2% similarity in protein profiles obtained by liquid chromatography mass spectrometry, and a genomic distance that is close to zero in the phylogenomic
A tree constructed with conserved orthologs. Detailed epidemiological tracking revealed that the elephants shared a common habitat eight years apart, thus, strengthening the possibility of a clonal relationship between the two strains.


Incidence, etiology, symptoms and control of specific and non-specific diseases of captive and wild elephants have been reviewed. Asian elephants have been observed to be susceptible to various parasitic diseases such as helminthiasis, trypanosomiasis and ectoparasitic infestations, bacterial diseases such as tetanus, tuberculosis, haemorrhagic septicemia, salmonellosis and anthrax, viral diseases such as foot and mouth disease, pox and rabies and non-specific diseases like impaction of colon, foot rot and corneal opacity. A detailed study extending over two decades on captive and wild elephants in Kerala, revealed high incidence of helminthiasis (285), ectoparasitic infestation (235), impaction of colon (169) and foot rot (125). Diseases such as trypanosomiasis (21), tetanus (8), tuberculosis (5) pox (2) and anthrax (1) were also encountered. The line of treatment against the diseases mentioned, have been discussed in detail.


Tuberculosis caused 20% of all human deaths in the Western world between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries and remains a cause of high mortality in developing countries. In analogy to other crowd diseases, the origin of human tuberculosis has been associated with the Neolithic Demographic Transition, but recent studies point to a much earlier origin. We analyzed the whole genomes of 259 M. Tuberculosis complex (MTBC) strains and used this data set to characterize global diversity and to reconstruct the evolutionary history of this pathogen. Coalescent analyses indicate that MTBC emerged about 70,000 years ago, accompanied migrations of anatomically modern humans out of Africa and expanded as a consequence of increases in human population density during the Neolithic period. This long coevolutionary history is consistent with MTBC displaying characteristics indicative of adaptation to both low and high host densities. © 2013 Nature America, Inc. All rights reserved.

Coscolla, M., A. Lewin, S. Metzger, K. Maetz-Rennsing, S. Calvignac-Spencer, A. Nitsche, P. W. Dabrowski, A. Radonic, S. Niemann, J. Parkhill, E. Couacy-Hymann, J. Feldman, I. Comas, C. Boesch, S. Gagneux and F. H. Leendertz (2013). "Novel Mycobacterium tuberculosis Complex Isolate from a Wild Chimpanzee." Emerging Infectious Diseases 19(6): 969-976. Tuberculosis (TB) is caused by gram-positive bacteria known as the. Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex (MTBC). MTBC include several human-associated lineages and several variants adapted to domestic and, more rarely, wild animal species. We report an M. tuberculosis strain isolated from a wild chimpanzee in Cote d'Ivoire that was shown by comparative genomic and phylogenomic analyses to belong to a new lineage of MTBC, closer to the human-associated lineage 6 (also known as M. africanum West Africa 2) than to the other classical animal-associated MTBC strains. These results show that the general view of the genetic diversity of MTBC is
limited and support the possibility that other MTBC variants exist, particularly in wild mammals in Africa. Exploring this diversity is crucial to the understanding of the biology and evolutionary history of this widespread infectious disease.

Bovine tuberculosis is an important disease that has impacts on regional and international trade. The disease can affect both social and economic stability and have a deleterious effect on species diversity. The intradermal tuberculin test has been in use for almost a century and, despite the technological advances of the last two decades, is still the only prescribed test for the diagnosis of tuberculosis in cattle. Many other species of animal, including humans, can be infected with Mycobacterium bovis. This paper reviews the various tests that have been used by researchers for detecting infection with M. bovis in a variety of animal species, and attempts to prioritise or comment on the importance of having appropriately validated diagnostics for the different species. The difficulties of test validation using small numbers of animals, especially when tuberculosis occurs in only a few instances or the species of animal affected is rare and/or valuable, are discussed.

A female Asian elephant (Elephas maximus) developed vaginal and trunk discharge. Cultures were positive for pan-susceptible Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Isoniazid and pyrazinamide were given rectally and monitored by serum levels. After being trained at 10 mo to accept oral dosing, treatment was changed and rifampin was added. Oral medications were administered for another 10 mo. A year after completion of therapy, the vaginal discharge increased and cultures yielded M. tuberculosis, resistant to isoniazid and rifampin. Treatment with oral ethambutol, pyrazinamide, and enrofloxac and intramuscular amikacin was initiated. Although followup cultures became negative, adverse reactions to medications precluded treatment completion. Due to public health concerns related to multidrug resistant M. tuberculosis (MDR-TB), the elephant was euthanized. Postmortem smears from the lung, peribronchial, and abdominal lymph nodes yielded acid-fast bacteria, although cultures were negative. This case highlights important considerations in the treatment of M. tuberculosis in animals and the need for a consistent approach to diagnosis, treatment, and follow-up.

Many wildlife species including rhinos are susceptible to infection with Mycobacterium tuberculosis or M. bovis. Antemortem diagnostic testing in large exotic hoof stock species has been limited by challenges associated with test administration, sample collection, and interpretation. Hence, a simple, rapid, blood-based test is needed. Two confirmed M. tuberculosis-infected black rhinoceros and one exposed suspect were evaluated for antibody responses using a lateral-flow rapid test (ElephantTB STAT-PAK) and multi-antigen print immunoassay (MAPIA). All three animals were seropositive by both tests. MAPIA detected antibodies to ESAT-6, CFP10, and MPB83 antigens. When the rhinos were treated with antitubercular therapeutics, their antibody responses gradually declined. One rhinoceros died approximately 9 mo after initiation of treatment and showed an increase in antibody titer shortly before death. The other two rhinoceros, which were treated for 1 and 2 yr, respectively, had no clinical signs or positive culture for M. tuberculosis at the time of necropsy performed 2 or 6 yr later for unrelated reasons. The antibody levels in these rhinos continued to be significantly decreased. The findings suggest that the ElephantTB STAT-PAK and MAPIA may be useful tools to detect M. tuberculosis infection and monitor treatment in black rhinoceros. © 2009 American Association of Zoo Veterinarians.


This report describes the pharmacokinetic profiles of chronically administered oral isoniazid and rifampin in one adult male and one adult female Asian elephant (Elephas maximus) that were asymptptomatically infected with Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Rifampin's half-life was reduced when compared to previous single-dose pharmacokinetic profiles of healthy uninfected Asian elephants. Both elephants experienced delayed absorption of isoniazid and rifampin as compared to previous pharmacokinetic studies in this species. The altered pharmacokinetics of both drugs in repeated-dosing clinical situations underscores the need for individual therapeutic drug monitoring for tuberculosis treatment.


We report a case of tuberculosis due to infection with Mycobacterium bovis in an elderly male black rhinoceros (Diceros bicornis minor) from the Limpopo Province in South Africa. The animal was euthanized due to very poor condition, old age, and dental attrition. Necropsy examination revealed two small nonencapsulated granulomas (~40-mm diameter) in the dorsocaudal lobe of the left lung. Sequencing of isolated crude lung tissue PCR product and boiled lung culture samples confirmed that the causative organism was M. bovis. Genotyping revealed limited similarities with M. bovis strains isolated thus far from South African cattle or wildlife. The source of the infection could not be determined. This case illustrates that M. bovis could impact conservation of free-ranging rare and endangered species. Effective diagnostics are urgently needed for different animal species, such as white or black rhinoceroses, to certify with a reasonable degree of certainty that these animals are free of tuberculosis in natural habitats. © Wildlife Disease Association 2009.


Many trainers of animals in the zoo now rely on positive reinforcement training to teach animals to voluntarily participate in husbandry and veterinary procedures in an effort to improve behavioral reliability, captive management, and welfare. However, captive elephant handlers in Nepal still rely heavily on punishment- and aversion-based methods. The aim of this project was to determine the effectiveness of secondary positive reinforcement (SPR) in training free-contact elephants in Nepal to voluntarily participate in a trunk wash for the purpose of tuberculosis testing. Five female elephants, 4 juveniles and 1 adult, were enrolled in the project. Data were collected in the form of minutes of training, number of offers made for each training task, and success rate for each task in performance tests. Four out of 5 elephants, all juveniles, successfully learned the trunk wash in 35 sessions or fewer, with each session lasting a mean duration of 12 min. The elephants' performance improved from a mean success rate of 39.0% to 89.3% during the course of the training. This study proves that it is feasible to efficiently train juvenile, free-contact, traditionally trained elephants in Nepal to voluntarily and reliably participate in a trunk wash using only SPR techniques.


Tuberculosis (TB) is a disease of antiquity. Yet TB today still causes more adult deaths than any other single infectious disease. Recent studies show that contrary to the common view postulating an animal origin for TB, Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex (MTBC), the causative agent of TB, emerged as a human pathogen in Africa and colonized the world accompanying the Out-of-Africa migrations of modern humans. More recently, evolutionarily 'modern' lineages of MTBC expanded as a consequence of the global human population increase, and spread throughout the world following waves of exploration, trade and conquest. While epidemiological data suggest that the different phylogenetic lineages of MTBC might have adapted to different human populations, overall, the phylogenetically 'modern' MTBC lineages are more successful in terms of their
geographical spread compared with the ‘ancient’ lineages. Interestingly, the global success of ‘modern’ MTBC correlates with a hypo-inflammatory phenotype in macrophages, possibly reflecting higher virulence, and a shorter latency in humans. Finally, various human genetic variants have been associated with different MTBC lineages, suggesting an interaction between human genetic diversity and MTBC variation. In summary, the biology and the epidemiology of human TB have been shaped by the long-standing association between MTBC and its human host.

Ghielmetti, G., M. Coscolla, M. Ruetten, U. Friedel, C. Loiseau, J. Feldmann, H. W. Steinmetz, D. Stucki and S. Gagneux (2017). "Tuberculosis in Swiss captive Asian elephants: microevolution of Mycobacterium tuberculosis characterized by multilocus variable-number tandem-repeat analysis and whole-genome sequencing." Sci Rep 7(1): 14647. Zoonotic tuberculosis is a risk for human health, especially when animals are in close contact with humans. Mycobacterium tuberculosis was cultured from several organs, including lung tissue and gastric mucosa, of three captive elephants euthanized in a Swiss zoo. The elephants presented weight loss, weakness and exercise intolerance. Molecular characterization of the M. tuberculosis isolates by spoligotyping revealed an identical profile, suggesting a single source of infection. Multilocus variable-number of tandem-repeat analysis (MLVA) elucidated two divergent populations of bacteria and mixed infection in one elephant, suggesting either different transmission chains or prolonged infection over time. A total of eight M. tuberculosis isolates were subjected to whole-genome sequence (WGS) analysis, confirming a single source of infection and indicating the route of transmission between the three animals. Our findings also show that the methods currently used for epidemiological investigations of M. tuberculosis infections should be carefully applied on isolates from elephants. Moreover the importance of multiple sampling and analysis of within-host mycobacterial clonal populations for investigations of transmission is demonstrated.

Ghodbane, R. and M. Drancourt (2013). "Non-human sources of Mycobacterium tuberculosis." Tuberculosis (Edinb) 93(6): 589-595. Mycobacterium tuberculosis is a successful pathogen responsible for the vast majority of deadly tuberculosis cases in humans. It rests in a dormant form in contaminated people who constitute the reservoir with airborne interhuman transmission during pulmonary tuberculosis. M. tuberculosis is therefore regarded majoritary as a human pathogen. Here, we review the evidence for anthroponotic M. tuberculosis infection in non-human primates, other mammals and psittacines. Some infected animals may be sources for zoonotic tuberculosis caused by M. tuberculosis, with wild life trade and zoos being amplifying factors. Moreover, living animals and cadavers can scatter M. tuberculosis in the environment where it could survive for extended periods of time in soil where amoebae could play a role. Although marginal in the epidemiology of human tuberculosis, these data indicate that M. tuberculosis is not uniquely adapted to humans.

Greenberg, H. B., R. C. Jung and A. E. Gutter (1981). "Hazel Elephant is dead (of tuberculosis) (letter)." Am. Rev. Respir. Dis 124(3): 341. Full text. Hazel Elephant was only 35 years old (by our estimate) when she died. She was cooperative and trusting to the last. Had we known about her illness sooner, we could have saved her. The Mycobacterium tuberculosis, var hominis that killed Hazel was sensitive to our drugs at the following levels: INH to 0.2mcg/ml; PAS to 2 mcg/ml; R to 1 mcg/ml; and MAB to 5 mcg/ml. Hazel worked and performed for a travelling circus. Ordinarily good-humored and loving, she had been off her feed for weeks. She became listless and apathetic, her eyes lost their sparkle, and she lacked her customary elan. Nonetheless, Hazel continued to perform for the children and do her other chores until she came to New Orleans. When Hazel got to New Orleans, she could barely move. The circus’s bosses called for help. The brought her to the hospital at the Audubon Park and Zoological Garden. As soon as we saw Hazel, we admitted her to the isolation ward. We have her fluids, electrolytes, and antibiotics. We got cultures and other clinical laboratory tests. We comforted Hazel and tried to put her at ease. It was too late. She fell to the ground, her rheumy eyes gazed at us pitifully, her respirations failed, and she died. Hazel’s postmortem examination took six hours. She was an emaciated
Asian elephant whose lungs were filled with caseating granulomata. Since microscopy showed myriads of acid-fast bacilli, we examined everyone who had, or who thought they had, contact with Hazel. We found three persons with positive tuberculin skin test results. None had tuberculous disease. Fortunately, Hazel had been kept away from other animals. Hazel's circus did not wait for the results of our autopsy. It left Louisiana. The U.S. Public Health Service tracked it down and found the man, an animal trainer with cavitary tuberculosis, who probably gave Hazel her fatal disease. Now another health department will have to deal with the circus and its animals.


Tuberculosis (TB) in elephants is a reemerging zoonotic disease caused primarily by Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Current methods for screening and diagnosis rely on trunk wash culture, which has serious limitations due to low test sensitivity, slow turnaround time, and variable sample quality. Innovative and more efficient diagnostic tools are urgently needed. We describe three novel serologic techniques, the ElephantTB Stat-Pak kit, multiantigen print immunoassay, and dual-path platform VetTB test, for rapid antibody detection in elephants. The study was performed with serum samples from 236 captive African and Asian elephants from 53 different locations in the United States and Europe. The elephants were divided into three groups based on disease status and history of exposure: (i) 26 animals with culture-confirmed TB due to M. tuberculosis or Mycobacterium bovis, (ii) 63 exposed elephants from known-infected herds that had never produced a culture-positive result from trunk wash samples, and (iii) 147 elephants without clinical symptoms suggestive of TB, with consistently negative trunk wash culture results, and with no history of potential exposure to TB in the past 5 years. Elephants with culture-confirmed TB and a proportion of exposed but trunk wash culture-negative elephants produced robust antibody responses to multiple antigens of M. tuberculosis, with seroconversions detectable years before TB-positive cultures were obtained from trunk wash specimens. ESAT-6 and CFP10 proteins were immunodominant antigens recognized by elephant antibodies during disease. The serologic assays demonstrated 100% sensitivity and 95 to 100% specificity. Rapid and accurate antibody tests to identify infected elephants will likely allow earlier and more efficient treatment, thus limiting transmission of infection to other susceptible animals and to humans.


The aim of this study was to improve the diagnosis of bovine tuberculosis in zoo and wildlife animals, in particular by using an Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA). In addition, suspected cases of tuberculosis (TB) with a positive skin test and/or ELISA were treated with antituberculosis drugs. The diagnosis of TB in animals is based primarily on the intradermal tuberculin test, corresponding with cellular immune response. Although this test has practical disadvantages in zoo animals, the application is still of high value. For this purpose tuberculins with a well controlled high potency and specificity should be used. In order to diagnose hypergic or anergic animals it is recommended to use PPD tuberculin with double strength (2 mg tuberculoprotein per ml) or to double the dose (0.2 ml instead of 0.1 ml), so that about 10,000 I.U. are applied. A strict interpretation scheme can increase the efficacy of the test, in particular in the comparative test. In order to improve the diagnosis, we have studied for some years the use of the ELISA which corresponds with humoral immunity.


One hundred fifteen captive elephants (Elephas maximus) were examined in Nepal as part of a tuberculosis (TB) survey in January 2006. Blood chemistry analysis was performed...
at Disney's Animal Kingdom laboratory (USA). Trunk wash cultures were performed both in Nepal and in the USA, and serologic TB tests were performed in the USA. Based on culture and serology results, the elephants were grouped as follows: Group 1 (high risk, suggestive or confirmatory for TB infection) and Group 2 (low risk, equivocal or negative for TB infection). Within these groups, subgroups were created based on specific tests results. Blood chemistry results were analyzed to reveal any relationships between these values and TB infection status. Student t-tests were performed on each value between Groups 1 and 2. The only significant difference was a higher BUN/creatinine ratio (p=0.047) in Group 1. ANOVA analysis was performed on each value between the various groups. Significant differences were found in the albumin level (p=0.015) within the Group 1 subgroups and in the albumin level (p=0.002), alpha globulin 1 level (p=0.030), and A/G ratio (p=0.012) within the Group 2 subgroups.

This study did not reveal an association between certain chemistry values and TB infection. However, this may be due to a variety of age, reproductive statuses, stages of infections, and other possible medical conditions. Future testing of this population will help better define the TB infection status of elephants and may provide additional information to more precisely determine any association between blood chemistry values and tuberculosis infection in Nepal elephants.

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Tuberculosis in pachyderms was put into the spotlight two decades ago when circus elephants in North America were diagnosed with Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex. Because of the close association between elephants and humans, zoonotic risk, and high susceptibility to Mycobacterium tuberculosis, periodic testing was enacted in many zoological institutions around the world.1,2 Presently the gold standard is bacterial culture of trunk wash. Trunk wash, however, puts the operator at risk, it is insensitive, and is prone to contamination. We describe here a new technique that increases the safety and sensitivity while reducing the risk of cross-contamination. It was applied in one male and five female African and one male and three female Asian elephants. The technique relies on performing standing sedation with butorphanol 0.1 mg/kg combined with detomedine hydrochloride 0.02 mg/kg i.m. and additional nerve blocks in four locations to the trunk base 10 ml per location lidocaine hydrochloride 2%. A customized 3.5-m long videochip endoscope is inserted through the trunk and up to the larynx or the trachea. A sterile newly developed 6-hole-TBH-catheter named after inventor Thomas Bernd Hildebrandt with a length of 6 m is then placed through the 4 mm working channel of the endoscope further into the respiratory system. The lavage is performed using up to 100 ml sterile saline solution. Collection of the sample is done in closed system. The technique is safe for the operator, and has higher probability of harvesting the bacteria when such are shed while keeping environmental and trunk-related contamination to a minimum.


The Guidelines for the Control of Tuberculosis in Elephants 2003 (Guidelines) of the National tuberculosis Working Group for Zoo and Wildlife Species were written to protect the health and safety of captive elephants together with their handlers and the viewing public.1 The Guidelines specifically address the display and transport of captive elephants but do not address the unique situation of free-living elephants being imported
and subsequently displayed to the public.

Although the Guidelines describe a technique for collecting and handling a trunk wash in a trained, standing, non-anesthetized elephant, it does not describe a similar technique for anesthetized elephants in lateral recumbency. In an attempt to detect active mycobacterial infection in a group of 3 male and 8 female free-ranging African elephants scheduled for import into the United States, a technique was developed for collecting trunk washes in recumbent, anesthetized elephants for mycobacterial culture.

A South African game-capture crew, experienced in translocating elephants, anesthetized elephants in groups via remote drug delivery and from a helicopter. The ground crew accomplished multiple simultaneous procedures including anesthesia maintenance and monitoring, physical and reproductive examinations, collection of general diagnostic and investigative samples, and trunk washes for mycobacterial cultures. This was accomplished while the capture crew was preparing animals for loading into specially designed trailers for transport to a holding boma. Little time was available for any one of procedure with multiple animals being attended to at one time.

Once an elephant was stable in lateral recumbency, a 3-m foal stomach tube, prepackaged and sterilized, was inserted into the dependent side of the trunk tip. It was then gently fed up the trunk approximately 2.5 m. A 50-ml sample suction trap was attached to the end of the foal tube. The suction trap was then attached to a battery powered, portable aspirator pump designed for emergency medical care. The aspiration pump was activated to collect secretions from the most proximal portion of the trunk. If little or no secretions were collected by this means, the system was disconnected between the sample trap and the foal tube. Then, 100 ml of sterile saline was placed into raised end of the foal tube allowing it to drain toward the tip through gravity. The suction trap and aspiration pump were reattached to collect a sample in the sample trap. Then, the sample trap was replaced with a new trap, and the foal tube was inserted into the oral pharynx for collection of a separate oropharyngeal sample. This same procedure was repeated with each elephant.

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LITERATURE CITED

Jones, W. D., Jr. and R. C. Good (1982). "Hazel elephant redux (letter)." Am. Rev. Respir. Dis 125(2): 270. Full text. A recent letter from Greenberg, Jung and Gutter reported the untimely death of Hazel Elephant with Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection. The authors concluded that the animal trainer, who was found to have cavitary tuberculosis, was probably the source of infection. The conclusion was based on data available at the time. The isolates from Hazel Elephant and the animal trainer were submitted to us for further study the state health departments of Louisiana and Florida. Using the methodology and classification scheme previously described, we found that the cultures were of different phage types. The isolate from the elephant was type A₀ (7), and the isolate from the trainer was type A₁ (7,13,14). The isolates differed by lysis with one major phage (MTPH 5) and two auxiliary phages (MTPH 13 and 14). We have previously used phage typing of M. tuberculosis in several well-defined outbreaks as an adjunct to other epidemiologic procedures. The isolates were typed without the laboratory’s knowing epidemiologic relationships between cases. The results indicated that M. tuberculosis transmitted from one individual to another retained the same phage-type characteristics. In the present study, our phage-type results suggest that the animal trainer and the elephant were infected from two different sources and that occurrence of disease in the animal and the trainer was coincidental. We are

Rapid and sensitive diagnostic assays for the detection of tuberculous mycobacteria in elephants are lacking. DNA extraction with PCR analysis is useful for tuberculosis screening in many species but has not been validated on elephant trunk wash samples. We estimated the analytical sensitivity and specificity of three DNA extraction methods to detect Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex organisms in trunk wash specimens. A ZR soil microbe DNA kit (ZR) and a traditional salt and ethanol precipitation (TSEP) approach were evaluated under three different treatment conditions: heat treatment, phenol treatment, and contamination with Mycobacterium avium. A third approach, using a column filtration method, was evaluated for samples contaminated with soil. Trunk wash samples from uninfected elephants were spiked with various concentrations of M. bovis cells and subjected to the described treatment conditions prior to DNA extraction. Extracted DNA was amplified using IS6110-targeted PCR analysis. The ZR and TSEP methods detected as low as 1 to 5 M. bovis cells and 10 M. bovis cells, respectively, per 1.5 ml of trunk wash under all three conditions. Depending on the amount of soil present, the column filtration method detected as low as 5 to 50 M. bovis cells per 1.5 ml of trunk wash. Analytical specificity was assessed by DNA extraction from species of nontuberculous mycobacteria and amplification using the same PCR technique. Only M. bovis DNA was amplified, indicating 100% analytical specificity of this PCR technique. Our results indicate that these DNA extraction techniques offer promise as useful tests for detection of M. tuberculosis complex organisms in elephant trunk wash specimens.


Tuberculosis, particularly Mycobacterium bovis and M. tuberculosis, is an important health issue in zoological collections. Zoos are a particular public health concern because of the close contact between tuberculosis-susceptible animals and humans, specifically animal handlers and visitors. Evidence of M. tuberculosis transmission between humans and elephants, confirmed by DNA fingerprinting, has been reported. Between 1994 and 2001, M. tuberculosis was isolated from trunk washes of captive elephants from 11 herds in the United States. To date, most reported cases of tuberculosis have occurred in captive Asian elephants (Elephas maximus). In 1997, the National Tuberculosis Working Group for Zoo and Wildlife Species partnered with the USDA to formulate the "Guidelines for the Control of Tuberculosis in Elephants." This document outlines criteria for the testing, surveillance, and treatment of tuberculosis in elephants. The guidelines recommend annual monitoring of elephants by mycobacterial culture of three direct trunk washes collected over 1 wk. Isolation of Mycobacterium avium and non-tuberculous mycobacteria from elephant trunk wash samples is common, but these organisms have not been associated with clinical disease. This case report details clinical disease with fatal complications of an atypical mycobacterial infection in an African elephant (Loxodonta africana). In September 2003, an African elephant presented with acute, severe lameness of the left rear limb with subsequent swelling of the stifle. Diagnostic procedures included aspiration cytology of the swelling, radiographs, and thermographic imaging. The exact location of the injury could not be detected, but a lesion to the stifle or coxofemoral articulation was suspected. After 13 mo of treatment, including pulse therapy with a variety of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), weekly to biweekly injections of polysulfated glycosaminoglycan, and intensive foot care efforts to treat secondary pedal lesions of both rear limbs, the animal died acutely. Gross necropsy revealed granulomatous osteomyelitis with necrosis/loss of the femoral head and acetabulum and pulmonary granulomas. Both of these lesions contained acid-fast bacteria on cytology. While awaiting confirmatory culture results, quarantine procedures were established for the elephant facility and a program was established to screen all zoo personnel in close contact with the elephant or
who participated in the necropsy. All personnel were tested by the Chicago Department of Public Health without documented conversion. *Mycobacterium szulgai* was ultimately cultured from both coxofemoral and pulmonary lesions. *Mycobacterium szulgai* is an uncommon nontuberculous mycobacterium that is usually isolated from pathologic lesions in humans. This bacterial species was first identified in 1972. The lungs are the main locality for pathologic manifestation in humans and several cases have been in patients with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. Infection due to *M. szulgai* most frequently produces thin-walled cavities in lungs resembling tuberculosis. Other documented sites of infection include the skin, bone, and tendon sheath (causing a carpal tunnel syndrome). Intra-operative contamination from ice water has led to *M. szulgai* keratitis after laser-assisted ophthalmic surgeries. A case of disseminated disease in a previously healthy young human has been reported. No evidence of human-to-human transmission of this organism has been documented and human cases are believed to originate from environmental sources. The natural habitat of the organism is unknown, but previous reports suggest an association of the bacteria with water of swimming pools and fish tanks. The organism has been cultured from a snail and tropical fish. No standard recommendation for the treatment of *M. szulgai* infection currently exists. In general, triple antibiotic therapies used in standard mycobacterial treatments are reported with a low rate of relapses and sterilization of sputum cultures within a mean of 3 mo. Pulmonary lesions in this elephant were chronic; it was not possible to determine when initial infection occurred. Infection could have occurred in captivity or in the wild prior to captivity. Three trunk washes over the past year had been negative for mycobacterial culture. Osteomyelitis in the hip may have developed secondary to hematogenous spread from the lungs with the acute lameness resulting from a pathologic fracture associated with this infection. Alternatively, though considered less likely, a traumatic fracture of the hip could have occurred, with bacterial inoculation and secondary osteomyelitis as a result of increased blood flow to the site. The source of infection for this elephant remains unknown. Prevalence of this organism in the natural habitat or captive environment of the elephants has not been previously documented.

**LITERATURE CITED**


Mycobacterium szulgai was associated with mortality in two captive African elephants (Loxodonta africana) housed at Lincoln Park Zoo. The first elephant presented with severe, acute lameness of the left rear limb. Despite extensive treatments, the animal collapsed and died 13 mo after initial presentation. Necropsy revealed osteomyelitis with loss of the femoral head and acetabulum and pulmonary granulomas with intralesionally M. szulgai. The second elephant collapsed during transport to another institution with no premonitory clinical signs. This animal was euthanized because of prolonged recumbency. Granulomatous pneumonia with intralesionally M. szulgai was found at necropsy. Two novel immunoassays performed on banked serum samples detected antibody responses to mycobacterial antigens in both infected elephants. It was not possible to determine when the infection was established or how the elephants were infected. When reviewing the epidemiology of this organism in humans, however, transmission between elephants seemed unlikely because human-to-human transmission of this organism has never been reported and a third elephant in the herd was not affected. In addition to Mycobacterium bovis and Mycobacterium tuberculosis, atypical mycobacterial organisms need to be considered potentially pathogenic in elephants.


Mycobacterium spp. infection is an important health concern for Asian elephant (Elephas maximus) populations worldwide. The disease is of particular concern considering its potential to affect not only the individual animal but also herd and public health. Although elephant tuberculosis susceptibility is poorly understood, immune function alterations are central to disease pathogenesis in other species and probably affect outcome of mycobacterial infections in elephants. Measurement of immune mediator (cytokine) levels within blood samples
can provide information regarding immune function that may elucidate disease susceptibility. For this study, mRNA levels of interleukin (IL)-2, IL-4, IL-10, and IL-12; interferon (IFN)-c; tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-a; and transforming growth factor (TGF)-b were measured using elephant-specific, real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assays in RNA-preserved whole blood samples from 106 Asian elephants, 15% of which were Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex seropositive. The Elephant TB STAT-PAKH (Chembio Diagnostics, Inc., Medford, New York 11763, USA), a novel lateral flow antibody detection assay developed for specific use in elephants, was used to determine serologic status for the study. Seropositive animals had higher levels of TNF-a and lower levels of TGF-b than seronegative animals; these differences between groups were statistically significant when levels were analyzed as categorical variables. Trends toward higher levels of IFN-c and IL-4 and slightly lower levels of IL-10 and IL-12 were noted in the seropositive group, although differences between groups were not statistically significant. Presence of other inflammatory conditions was found to be a significant confounding variable in the analysis of the relationship between tuberculosis status and TNF-a levels, necessitating its inclusion in statistical models. Age and sex were not found to significantly affect the relationship between tuberculosis status and any of the cytokines measured. Interleukin-2 levels were below the sensitivity of the real-time RT-PCR assay irrespective of tuberculosis status. These findings provide a foundation for future research into the immunopathogenesis of elephant tuberculosis.


Although Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection is an important health concern for Asian elephants (Elephas maximus), no studies have evaluated the associated local immune responses or histologic lesions. In primates including humans, latent tuberculosis is distinguished by well-organized granulomas with TH1 cytokine expression, whereas active disease is characterized by poorly organized inflammation and local imbalance in TH1/TH2 cytokines. This study examined archival, formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung samples from 5 tuberculosis-negative and 9 tuberculosis-positive Asian elephants. Lesions were assessed by light microscopy, and lymphoid infiltrates were characterized by CD3 and CD20 immunolabeling. Expression of TH1 (interferon [IFN]-gamma, tumor necrosis factor [TNF]-alpha) and TH2 (interleukin [IL]-4, IL-10, transforming growth factor [TGF]-beta) cytokines was determined using in situ hybridization. In 6 of 9 samples, inflammation was similar to the pattern of primate active disease with low to moderate numbers of lymphocytes, most of which were CD20 positive. In 1 sample, inflammation was most similar to latent tuberculosis in primates with numerous CD3-positive lymphocytes. Expression of IFN-gamma was detected in 3 of 8 tuberculosis-positive samples. Expression of TNF-alpha was detected in 3 of 8 positive samples, including the one with latent morphology. Low-level expression of IL-4 was present in 4 of 8 positive samples. Only single positive samples displayed expression of IL-10 and TGF-beta. Tuberculosis-negative samples generally lacked cytokine expression. Results showed heterogeneity in lesions of elephant tuberculosis similar to those of latent and active disease in primates, with variable expression of both TH1 and TH2 cytokines.


Tuberculosis is an important health concern for Asian elephant (Elephas maximus) populations worldwide, however, mechanisms underlying susceptibility to Mycobacterium tuberculosis are unknown. Proliferative responses assessed via brominated uridine incorporation and cytokine expression measured by real-time RT-PCR were evaluated in peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) cultures from 8 tuberculosis negative and 8 positive Asian elephants. Cultures were stimulated with Mycobacterium bovis purified protein derivative (PPD-B), M. tuberculosis culture filtrate protein (CFP)-10, and Mycobacterium avium PPD (PPD-A). Following stimulation with PPD-B, proliferation was higher (alpha = 0.005) in positive samples; no significant differences were detected following CFP-10 or PPD-A stimulation. Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-alpha, interleukin (IL)-12, and interferon (IFN)-gamma expression was greater in samples from positive elephants following stimulation with PPD-B (alpha = 0.025) and CFP-10 (alpha = 0.025 TNF-alpha and IL-12; alpha = 0.005 IFN-gamma). Stimulation
with PPD-A also produced enhanced IL-12 expression in positive samples (alpha = 0.025). Findings suggested that differences in immune cell function exist between tuberculosis positive and negative elephants. Proliferative responses and expression of TNF-alpha, IL-12, and IFN-gamma in response to stimulation with PPD-B and CFP-10 differ between tuberculosis positive and negative elephants, suggesting these parameters may be important to tuberculosis immunopathogenesis in this species.


Mycobacterium tuberculosis has become an important agent of disease in the captive elephant population of the United States, although current detection methods appear to be inadequate for effective disease management. This investigation sought to validate a multiple-antigen enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for screening of M. tuberculosis infection in captive elephants and to document the elephant's serologic response over time using a cross-sectional observational study design. Serum samples were collected from 51 Asian elephants (Elephas maximus) and 26 African elephants (Loxodonta africana) from 16 zoos and circuses throughout the United States from February 1996 to March 1999. Infection status of each animal was determined by mycobacterial culture of trunk washes. Reactivity of each serum sample against six antigens was determined, and the linear combination of antigens that accurately predicted the infection status of the greatest number of animals was determined by discriminant analysis. The resulting classification functions were used to calculate the percentage of animals that were correctly classified (i.e., specificity and sensitivity). Of the 77 elephants sampled, 47 fit the criteria for inclusion in discriminant analysis. Of these, seven Asian elephants were considered infected; 25 Asian elephants and 15 African elephants were considered noninfected. The remaining elephants had been exposed to one or more infected animals. The specificity and sensitivity of the multiple-antigen ELISA were both 100% (91.9-100% and 54.4-100%, respectively) with 95% confidence intervals. M. bovis culture filtrate showed the highest individual antigen specificity (95%; 83.0-100%) and sensitivity (100%; 54.4-100%). Serum samples from 34 elephants were analyzed over time by the response to the culture filtrate antigen; four of these elephants were culture positive and had been used to calculate the discriminant function. Limitations such as sample size, compromised ability to ascertain each animal's true infection status, and absence of known-infected African elephants suggest that much additional research needs to be conducted regarding the use of this ELISA. However, the results indicate that this multiple-antigen ELISA would be a valuable screening test for detecting M. tuberculosis infection in elephant herds.


Tuberculosis has become an important disease in captive elephants, particularly Asian elephants (Elephas maximus). Diagnosing tuberculosis in elephants has been problematic as many tests have inadequate sensitivity or specificity.2-4 A multiple-antigen enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) was previously investigated for detecting infection in Asian elephants and African elephants (Loxodonta africana); this test had excellent sensitivity and specificity, but needed further evaluation.1 Modifications to the multiple-antigen ELISA panel have since been made. Valuable antigens were retained, other antigens were removed, and new ones were added. This modified ELISA was re-evaluated, using serum from 68 Asian elephants. Sixteen had M. tuberculosis-positive trunk cultures, while 52 were either culture negative at necropsy or had a history of negative trunk cultures and no contact with infected elephants. Seven elephants were evaluated over time. The test was 100% (95% CI; 95-100%) specific and 94% (95% CI; 79-100%) sensitive using two of the six antigens (M. bovis strain AN5 culture filtrate and M. tuberculosis early secretory antigenic target 6). "Effectively-treated" elephants had decreasing seroreactivity, but those that were culture-positive post-treatment were more consistently seroreactive. Although "effectively-treated" elephants had declining seroreactivity, they still usually had higher values than animals that had never been infected. Serology continues to show great promise in detecting tuberculosis in elephants, often detecting infection months-to-years sooner than trunk wash culture.
Advances in techniques may soon make serology even more practical. While serology should not replace trunk-wash culture, it is a useful adjunct for early detection of infection in elephants and for monitoring treatment.

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LITERATURE CITED


Tuberculosis (TB) in elephants has the potential to infect humans and is an increasing public health concern. Lao PDR is one of the last countries where elephants are still used for timber extraction and where they live in close contact with their mahouts. There are 500 animals at work in the country, some interacting with wild herds. Although human TB prevalence is known to be high in Laos, studies on elephant TB had yet to be undertaken. From January to July 2012, screening was performed using the ElephantTB Stat-Pak assay on 80 elephants working around the Nam Pouy National Park in Sayaboury Province. This represents more than 18% of the total registered national working elephant population. Here we report that 36% of the elephants were seroreactive to the test. Of these, 31% had contacts with wild individuals, which suggests potential transmission of mycobacteria to the local wild herds. Clinical examination, chest X-rays, sputum microscopy and culture were performed on their 142 mahouts or owners. Despite high TB seroreactivity in elephants, no participant was smear- or culture-positive for Mycobacterium tuberculosis or M. bovis, although atypical mycobacteria were isolated from 4% of participants.


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mycobacteria to the local wild herds. Clinical examination, chest X-rays, sputum microscopy and culture were performed on their 142 mahouts or owners. Despite high TB seroreactivity in elephants, no participant was smear- or culture-positive for Mycobacterium tuberculosis or M. bovis, although atypical mycobacteria were isolated from 4% of participants. © 2014 Cambridge University Press.


Between 2001 and 2003, there was an outbreak of tuberculosis in a Swedish zoo which involved elephants, giraffes, rhinoceroses and buffaloes. Cultures of trunk lavages were used to detect infected elephants, tuberculin testing was used in the giraffes and buffaloes, and tracheal lavage and tuberculin testing were used in the rhinoceroses. The bacteria isolated were investigated by spoligotyping and restriction fragment length polymorphism. Five elephants and one giraffe were found to have been infected by four different strains of Mycobacterium tuberculosis.


Tuberculosis (TB) remains a serious re-emerging disease in wildlife and zoo animals. Mycobacterium tuberculosis has been isolated from 30 captive Asian elephant (Elephas maximus) within 14 herds in the United States (1994-2004) and Mycobacterium bovis has been isolated from one African elephant (Loxodonta africana) (Mikota, pers. comm.). There are several challenges with elephant TB diagnosis. Culture of trunk wash has relatively poor sensitivity and is subject to contamination. Skin test is not validated in elephants and there is little reliability in these results. Serologic tests are appealing because samples can be stored for future analysis, archived samples can be analyzed, various assay platforms can be directly compared, and these assays are amenable to serial analysis (e.g., to monitor therapy). There is currently a multiple antigen ELISA test available for experimental use in elephants.

To improve tuberculosis control, new diagnostic tools should be rapid, accurate, and host species-independent. Two novel serologic methods, MultiAntigen Print ImmunoAssay (MAPIA) and lateral-flow technology (Rapid Test), have been adapted for use in white-tailed deer, European badger, cattle, and Asian and African elephants for the detection of TB-specific antibody. Serologic markers of diagnostic importance have been identified for each host tested so far. With MAPIA, a machine prints specific antigens horizontally on a nitrocellulose membrane which can be cut into strips and used in Western blot. Strips are incubated with test serum samples, then an anti-Ig conjugate and color developer. Using this assay, an antibody response to multiple mycobacterial antigens has been observed in sera from M. tb-infected elephants. No antibody response was detected to any antigens in non-infected elephant sera. Additionally, the kinetics of antibody responses by elephants undergoing antibiotic therapy indicates that the MAPIA could be used for monitoring treatment and to determine recrudescence of infection.

Using selected antigens, a lateral-flow test was developed for rapid antibody detection that can be used in multiple species. The Rapid Test can use serum, plasma, or whole blood and provides results within 15 min. These tests are similar to in-clinic tests for FIV/FeLV detection (snap test, IDDEX). If a band is present in the test strip, it indicates a positive reaction (antibody present). A panel of sera from healthy and TB infected elephants showed good correlation between the MAPIA and the rapid test (Table 1).

In summary, it appears that TB-infected elephants produce a robust antibody response that can be detected in serologic assays. Of special significance is the kinetics of the response, which may permit earlier detection of infection than current diagnostic methods. While initial results are promising, additional studies are required to validate these two assays. A relatively small set of serum samples from documented infected and
Elephant TB References

Elephant Care International Database

non-infected elephants was used, and more samples are needed to further validate the tests. MAPIA has been used to optimize antigen selection in order to make the most sensitive and specific Rapid Test. This strategy may also allow for identification of "treatment-sensitive" antigens that could be used in the MAPIA format to monitor TB therapy. While elephants will be used as an initial "proof of concept" species for test development, additional samples from other species will also be evaluated to determine applicability to other species (i.e., a host species-independent test), thus benefiting other groups such as primates, rhinos, cervids, etc.

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LITERATURE CITED


Tuberculosis (TB) in elephants is a re-emerging zoonotic disease caused primarily by Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Current diagnosis relies on trunk wash culture, the only officially recognized test, which has serious limitations. Innovative and efficient diagnostic methods are urgently needed. Rapid identification of infected animals is a crucial prerequisite for more effective control of TB, as early diagnosis allows timely initiation of chemotherapy. Serology has diagnostic potential, although key antigens have not been identified and optimal immunoassay formats are not established. To characterize the humoral responses in elephant TB, we tested 143 serum samples collected from 15 elephants over time. These included 48 samples from five culture-confirmed TB cases, of which four were in Asian elephants infected with M. tuberculosis and one was in an African elephant with Mycobacterium bovis. Multiantigen print immunoassay (MAPIA) employing a panel of 12 defined antigens was used to identify serologic correlates of active disease. ESAT-6 was the immunodominant antigen recognized in elephant TB. Serum immunoglobulin G antibodies to ESAT-6 and other proteins were detected up to 3.5 years prior to culture of M. tuberculosis from trunk washes. Antibody levels to certain antigens gradually decreased in response to antitubercular therapy, suggesting the possibility of treatment monitoring. In addition to MAPIA, serum samples were evaluated with a recently developed rapid test (RT) based on lateral flow technology (ElephantTB STAT-PAK). Similarly to MAPIA, infected elephants were identified using the RT up to 4 years prior to positive culture. These findings demonstrate the potential for TB surveillance and treatment monitoring using the RT and MAPIA, respectively.


Three serologic methods for antibody detection in elephant tuberculosis (TB), the multiantigen print immunoassay (MAPIA), ElephantTB STAT-PAK kit, and DPP VetTB test, were evaluated using serial serum samples from 14 captive elephants infected with Mycobacterium tuberculosis in 5 countries. In all cases,
serological testing was performed prior to the diagnosis of TB by mycobacterial culture of trunk wash or tissue samples collected at necropsy. All elephants produced antibody responses to M.tuberculosis antigens, with 13/14 recognizing ESAT-6 and/or CFP10 proteins. The findings supported the high serodiagnostic test accuracy in detecting infections months to years before M. tuberculosis could be isolated from elephants. The MAPIA and/or DPP VetTB assay demonstrated the potential for monitoring antimycobacterial therapy and predicting TB relapse in treated elephants when continuously used in the posttreatment period. History of exposure to TB and past treatment information should be taken into consideration for proper interpretation of the antibody test results. Data suggest that the more frequent trunk wash culture testing of seropositive elephants may enhance the efficiency of the TB diagnostic algorithm, leading to earlier treatment with improved outcomes.


Mycobacterium bovis, causing bovine tuberculosis (BTB), has been recognized as a global threat at the wildlife-livestock-human interface, a clear "One Health" issue. Several wildlife species have been identified as maintenance hosts. Spillover of infection from these species to livestock or other wildlife species may have economic and conservation implications and infection of humans causes public health concerns, especially in developing countries. Most BTB management strategies rely on BTB testing, which can be performed for a range of purposes, from disease surveillance to diagnosing individual infected animals. New diagnostic assays are being developed for selected wildlife species. This review investigates the most frequent objectives and associated requirements for testing wildlife for tuberculosis at the level of individual animals as well as small and large populations. By aligning those with the available (immunological) ante mortem diagnostic assays, the practical challenges and limitations wildlife managers and researchers are currently faced with are highlighted. © 2012 Elsevier Ltd.


Mycobacterium tuberculosis can infect and be transmitted between elephants and humans. In elephants, the 'gold standard' reference test for detection of tuberculosis is culture, which takes a minimum of eight weeks for results and has limited sensitivity. A screening test that is rapid, easily implemented, and accurate is needed to aid in diagnosis of tuberculosis in elephants. Ninety-nine clinical trunk wash samples obtained from 33 elephants were utilized to validate three molecular extraction techniques followed by a polymerase chain reaction for detection of M. tuberculosis. Diagnostic sensitivity and specificity were estimated compared to culture. Kappa coefficients were determined between molecular results and various culture categories and serological test results. An internal amplification control was developed and assessed to monitor for PCR inhibition. One molecular test (the Column method) outperformed the other two, with diagnostic sensitivity and kappa agreement estimates of 100% (CI 57-100) and 0.46 (CI 0.2-0.74), respectively, compared to culture alone. The percentage of molecular-positive/culture-negative samples was 8.4% overall. The molecular extraction technique followed by PCR provides a much-needed rapid screening tool for detection of tuberculosis in elephants. Immediate procedures can be implemented to further assess PCR-positive animals and provide personnel biosecurity. While a positive result is not a definitive test for elephant tuberculosis, the molecular test results can be used to support current diagnostic procedures applied by veterinarians for treatment decisions to prevent the spread of tuberculosis in elephants.


Full text:Tuberculosis, an important zoonotic disease, has been reported in wild African and Asian domestic elephants (Seneviratna and Seneviratna, 1966). Under this communication 25 captive Indian elephants of Kaziranga National Park, Assam, were tested for allergic reaction by injecting 0.1 ml PPD at the base of ear tip.
The thickness of skin was measured after 48 and 72 h and an increase of 4 mm or more was taken as positive. Out of 25 elephants tested, 3 adults were found reactors. Base of the ear was found more appropriate site as it remained protected from rubbing against hard object due to irritation caused by the tuberculin and needle. The trunk also could not disturb this inoculation site.


Antemortem diagnosis of tuberculosis in captive wild animals is often difficult. In addition to the variability of host cellular immune response, which does not always indicate current active infection, reactivity to saprophytic or other mycobacteria is common and may interfere with the interpretation of the intradermal tuberculin skin test. Furthermore, the immobilization required for administrating the test and evaluating skin reactions in these animals may result in unacceptable levels of morbidity and mortality, of particular concern in individuals of rare or endangered species. Proteins of the antigen 85 (Ag85) complex are major secretory products of actively metabolizing mycobacteria in vitro. Production of these proteins by mycobacteria during growth in vivo could result in increases in circulating levels of Ag85 in hosts with active tuberculosis. A dot blot immunoassay has been used to detect and quantify circulating Ag85 in captive wild animals with tuberculosis. Elevated levels of Ag85 were observed in animals with active tuberculosis as compared with uninfected animals. Study populations included a herd of nyala (Tragelaphus angasi) (n=9) with no history of exposure to Mycobacterium bovis. Serum Ag85 levels ranged from <5 to 15 uU/ml (median, 5 uU/ml). The other group included 11 animals from a mixed collection with a documented history of an M. bovis outbreak. Animals with pulmonary granulomatous lesions (n=3) had serum Ag85 levels ranging from 320 to 1,280 uU/ml (median, 320 uU/ml). Animals with only chronic mediastinal or mesenteric lymphadenitis (n=4) had serum Ag85 levels ranging from <5 to 80 uU/ml (median, <5 uU/ml). This assay could provide an important adjunct to intradermal skin testing for antemortem diagnosis of tuberculosis in nondomestic species.


In August 1978, a black rhinoceros at the National Zoological Park died with generalized tuberculosis caused by Mycobacterium bovis. A 2nd black rhinoceros was euthanatized 9 months after M bovis was cultured from its lungs. After these 2 deaths, numerous large zoo mammals that had been potentially exposed were subjected to various procedures to ascertain their status regarding tuberculosis. The procedures were: intradermal tuberculin testing, evaluation of delayed hypersensitivity reaction on biopsy specimens, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) testing, and culture of various secretions and organs. Several of the animals in this series died during the study. These were necropsied and examined for evidence of mycobacterial infection. The results of tuberculin testing varied from species to species and from site to site within a species. Delayed hypersensitivity responses generally correlated well with the amount of swelling at the tuberculin site. In some cases, however, positive reactions were found without any delayed hypersensitivity response. Results of ELISA testing were confirmatory in tuberculous animals. Several species were judged to be nonspecific reactors, based on positive or suspect tuberculin test results, with negative ELISA results and necropsy findings.


Mycobacterial infections are common among humans. Of these, infection with Mycobacterium tuberculosis (TB) is the most common and of greatest concern. Non-tuberculous species of mycobacteria may also cause infections in man, especially among immunosuppressed individuals. Human TB is typically acquired by inhalation of aerosols carrying tubercle bacilli following exposure to a person with active pulmonary infection; non-tuberculous species of mycobacteria are acquired from environmental sources. Since zoonotic transmission of TB does occur, the identification of acid fast bacilli (AFB) in clinical specimens from animals is a
cause of concern, unease, and occasionally misconception for animal care handlers and zoo personnel.


Tuberculosis (TB) in elephants has been described since ancient times. However, it was not until 1996 when infection with Mycobacterium tuberculosis was identified in a herd of circus elephants that significant research into this disease began. The epidemiology and natural history of TB were unknown in elephants since there had been no comprehensive screening programs, and diagnostic techniques developed for cervidae and bovidae were of unknown value. And, while precepts of test and slaughter were the norm for cattle and deer, this was considered untenable for an endangered species. With no precedent for the treatment of TB in animals, treatment regimens for elephants were extrapolated from human protocols, which guided changes to the Guidelines for the Control of Tuberculosis in Elephants. In the absence of diagnostic testing to confirm cure in elephants, the efficacy of these treatment regimens is only beginning to be understood as treated elephants die and are examined postmortem. However, because of pressures arising from public relations related to elephant husbandry and the added considerations of TB infection in animals (whether real or imagined), sharing of information to aid in research and treatment has been problematic. Here we review the challenges and successes of the diagnosis of tuberculosis in elephants and discuss the natural history of the disease to put the work of Landolfi et al on the immunological response to tuberculosis in elephants in perspective.


Asian elephant (Elephas maximus) dams and their newborn calves were tested for Mycobacterium tuberculosis antibodies in serum. Blood was drawn from dams prior to calving and from calves on their day of birth. All six calves born to tuberculosis-reactive dams were also tuberculosis reactive, suggesting prenatal passive placental transfer of tuberculosis antibodies. In contrast, all three calves born to tuberculosis-nonreactive dams lacked detectable tuberculosis antibodies in pre-suckling or day-of-birth blood samples. Of the living tuberculosis-reactive calves observed from 1 to 11 yr of age, none exhibited clinical signs of tuberculosis infection or became tuberculosis culture positive. This is the first report of prenatal passive placental transfer of tuberculosis antibodies in elephants and demonstrates that detectible tuberculosis antibodies in newborn elephant calves should not be assumed to correlate with clinical tuberculosis. © Copyright 2014 by American Association of Zoo Veterinarians.


In many domestic species, routine hematology assays are useful diagnostic tools to diagnose inflammatory conditions. Unlike other species, these hematologic tests apparently are insensitive indicators of inflammation in elephants.1 We studied a novel group of blood proteins, called acute phase proteins, which increase during inflammatory conditions, for their usefulness in diagnosing elephants with inflammatory diseases. Although these proteins currently are useful in humans and domestic animals, each species has a different set of important proteins that must be individually investigated.2 We tested several acute phase proteins (C-reactive protein, alpha-1 glycoprotein, alpha-1 antitrypsin, serum amyloid A, haptoglobin, fibrinogen, ceruloplasmin, and albumin) as well as complete blood counts, chemistry panels, serum protein electrophoresis, and 3-D gel electrophoresis to determine their usefulness for diagnosing different types of inflammatory conditions in Asian elephants (Elephas maximus). Animals with inflammatory conditions were classified as those individuals with known illnesses such as mycobacteriosis, arthritis, nail bed abscesses, and malignant tumors. Control animals were those animals that were suspected to not have any inflammation and be healthy at the time of testing as determined by physical examination and obtaining a thorough medical history.

LITERATURE CITED


Between 1994 and 1996, three elephants from an exotic animal farm in Illinois died of pulmonary disease due to Mycobacterium tuberculosis. In October 1996, a fourth living elephant was culture-positive for M. tuberculosis. Twenty-two handlers at the farm were screened for tuberculosis (TB); eleven had positive reactions to intradermal injection with purified protein derivative. One had smear-negative, culture-positive active TB. DNA fingerprint comparison by IS6110 and TBN12 typing showed that the isolates from the four elephants and the handler with active TB were the same strain. This investigation indicates transmission of M. tuberculosis between humans and elephants.


Between 1991 and 2001 a total of 12 cases of Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection in eight different species were recorded in the National Zoological Gardens of South Africa in Pretoria (Tshwane). The genetic relatedness between seven of the M. tuberculosis isolates was determined by IS6110 restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis. For the majority of the isolates that were analyzed, a high degree of polymorphism suggested different sources of infection. Evidence of M. tuberculosis transmission between animals is reported in two chimpanzees (Pan troglodytes) housed together, from which samples were collected for analysis 29 mo apart.


Tuberculosis, caused by Mycobacterium bovis, was first diagnosed in African buffalo in South Africa's Kruger National Park in 1990. Over the past 15 years the disease has spread northwards leaving only the most northern buffalo herds unaffected. Evidence suggests that 10 other small and large mammalian species, including large predators, are spillover hosts. Wildlife tuberculosis has also been diagnosed in several adjacent private game reserves and in the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park, the third largest game reserve in South Africa. The tuberculosis epidemic has a number of implications, for which the full effect of some might only be seen in the longterm. Potential negative long-term effects on the population dynamics of certain social animal species and the direct threat for the survival of endangered species pose particular problems for wildlife conservationists. On the other hand, the risk of spillover infection to neighboring communal cattle raises concerns about human health at the wildlife-livestock-human interface, not only along the western boundary of Kruger National Park, but also with regards to the joint development of the Greater Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area with Zimbabwe and Mozambique. From an economic point of view, wildlife tuberculosis has resulted in national and international trade restrictions for affected species. The lack of diagnostic tools for most species and the absence of an effective vaccine make it currently impossible to contain and control this disease within an infected free-ranging ecosystem. Veterinary researchers and policy-makers have recognized the need to intensify research on this disease and the need to develop tools for control, initially targeting buffalo and lion.

Mycobacterium bovis is a pathogen of significant importance in livestock and a wide range of wild animal species worldwide. It is also known to cause tuberculosis disease in humans, a fact which has raised renewed concerns regarding the zoonotic risk for humans, especially those living at the animal-human interface. This review consolidates recent reports in the literature mainly on animal and zoonotic tuberculosis with an emphasis on evolution, epidemiology, treatment and diagnosis. The information presented reveals the fundamental differences in the complexity and level at which the disease affects the economy, ecosystem and human population of regions where animal tuberculosis control is achieved and regions where little or no control is implemented. In conclusion the review suggests that bovine tuberculosis has essentially been reduced to a disease of economic importance in the developed world, while low-income countries are facing a multifaceted impact which potentially affects the health of livestock, humans and ecosystems and which is likely to increase in the presence of debilitating diseases such as HIV/AIDS and other factors which negatively affect human livelihoods.


Bovine tuberculosis is endemic in African buffalo and a number of other wildlife species in the Kruger National Park (KNP) and Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park (HiP) in South Africa. It was thought that the infection had been introduced into the KNP ecosystem through direct contact between cattle and buffalo, a hypothesis which was confirmed in this study by IS6110 and PGRS restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) typing. The molecular characterisation of 189 Mycobacterium bovis isolates from nine wildlife species in the HiP, including three smaller associated parks, and the Kruger National Park with adjacent areas showed that the respective epidemics were each caused by an infiltration of a single M.bovis genotype. The two M. bovis strains had different genetic profiles, as demonstrated by hybridisation with the IS6110 and PGRS RFLP probes, as well as with regard to evidence of evolutionary changes to the IS profile. While the M. bovis type in HiP was transmitted between buffaloes and to at least baboon, bushpig and lion without obvious genetic changes in the RFLP patterns, in the KNP a dominant strain was represented in 73% of the M. bovis isolates, whilst the remaining 27% were variants of this strain. No species-specific variants were observed, except for one IS6110 type which was found only in a group of five epidemiologically related greater kudu. This finding was attributed to species-specific behaviour patterns rather than an advanced host-pathogen interaction.


Within the past 4 years, TB has emerged as a disease of concern in elephants. The population of elephants in North America is declining (Weise,1997), and transmissible diseases such as TB may exacerbate this trend. Guidelines for all elephants for TB, were instituted in 1997 (USDA, 1997, 2000). Between August 1996 and May 2000, Mycobacterium tuberculosis was isolated form 18 of 539 elephants in North America, indicating an estimated prevalence of 3.3%. Isolation of the TB organism by culture is the currently recommended test to establish a diagnosis of TB; however, culture requires 8 weeks. Further research is essential to validate other diagnostic tests and treatment protocols.


The deaths of two Asian elephants (Elephas maximus) in August 1996 led the United States Department of Agriculture to require the testing and treatment of elephants for tuberculosis. From August 1996 to September 1999, Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection was confirmed by culture in 12 of 118 elephants in six herds. Eight diagnoses were made ante-mortem on the basis of isolation of M. tuberculosis by culture of trunk wash samples; the remainder (including the initial two) were diagnosed postmortem. We present the case histories,
epidemiologic characteristics, diagnostic test results, and therapeutic plans from these six herds. The intradermal tuberculin test, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay serology, the blood tuberculosis test, and nucleic acid amplification and culture are compared as methods to diagnose M. tuberculosis infection in elephants.


Serologic tests including the ELISA, MAPIA (Multi-Antigen Print Immunoassay), and a rapid test, VetTB StatPak® (Chembio Diagnostic Systems, Inc., Medford, New York 11763 USA) have recently been developed and show great promise for the diagnosis of tuberculosis (TB) in elephants. These serologic tests detect antibodies to antigens of Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex organisms and in some cases have detected infection years in advance of active disease and mycobacterial shedding. The diagnosis of active TB (by culture) or serologic conversion presents management challenges for captive elephants in Asian range countries. Of the 2 billion humans world-wide infected with TB, fewer than 10% will develop active disease. This figure is unknown for elephants. The identification and management of infected elephants has ramifications for elephants and humans alike and issues such as public health and tourism may be impacted. TB is endemic among humans in Asia and where there is intermingling of elephants and humans, both species may act as reservoirs for disease transmission. The various situations in which elephants are kept in Asia (government-owned, privately-owned, festivals, temples, zoos, etc.) make it difficult to develop a management strategy that will address all circumstances. Other concerns are the cost of treatment for an elephant (~ $50,000 USD) and appropriate monitoring in resource-poor countries. The authors have recently undertaken the screening of 120 elephants in Nepal to further evaluate the above-mentioned (and other) diagnostic tests. To our knowledge, this is the first organized, large-scale initiative to screen Asian elephants within a range country. Preliminary discussions regarding the management of both culture and serologically positive government-owned and privately-owned elephants in Nepal have been initiated and may serve as a starting point for other countries as more elephants are screened within Asia. Basic options for active (culturepositive) cases include (1) treatment, (2) segregation or (3) euthanasia. Options for latent disease (culture-negative, serologically positive) cases include (1) treatment, (2) segregation and monitoring for active disease and (3) euthanasia. The particular ownership/husbandry system, available resources and cultural constraints may dictate final management choices in range countries.


Tuberculosis (TB) is endemic among humans in Nepal. Almost 50% of the > 28 million population are infected and up to 90,000 are active cases (http://www.who.int/infnew/tuber4.htm). Direct observed therapy short-course (DOTS) was instituted in 1996 and now reaches 75% of the population. Implementation of DOTS nation-wide is hampered by the logistics of reaching and servicing remote hill areas. Between 5,000 and 7,000 people die every year despite DOTS therapy; some of these deaths may be due to multidrug-resistant (MDR) or extensively drug-resistant (XDR) TB. Four drug resistance surveys have been carried out since 2005. MDR-TB rates of 2.9% (1.8%-3.2%) among new cases and 11.7% (7.1%-18.3%) among re-treatment cases were reported at the end of the fourth survey (http://www.searo.who.int/en/Section10/Section2097/Section2100_14801.htm).

Nepal has a mixed farming system, including over four million buffaloes and almost seven million cattle. Sporadic studies have identified a TB prevalence of 0-24% among cattle and 4.5 to 41% among buffalo. In a recent study Mycobacterium bovis (M. bovis) was isolated from 17% of buffalo and 16% of cattle positive on the single intradermal cervical test.1 There is no formal TB surveillance or control program for cattle or buffalo in Nepal. Although the World Health
Organization recommends test and slaughter to eliminate bovine TB, Nepal is predominantly Hindu and the slaughter of cattle is forbidden.

The prevalence of *M. bovis* (BTB) infection in humans is unknown as TB diagnostic laboratories in Nepal (as in many countries) report positive culture results as "*M. tuberculosis* complex" but do not speciate. Risks of TB / BTB transmission from livestock to people exist through direct contact by farmers and slaughterhouse workers and consumption of contaminated meat and unpasteurized milk. Buffalo meat comprises over 64% of the total meat consumed in Nepal. In one study, tuberculosis was diagnosed in 14% of slaughtered buffaloes.2 Intensive livestock production is rare, and human beings live in close association with their farm animals providing increased opportunities for exposure.

Captive elephants in Nepal are cared for by humans, bred by wild elephant bulls, and graze with domestic livestock. Government-owned elephants patrol the Chitwan National Park (and other protected areas) and are essential for rhino counts and other conservation programs. Privately owned elephants used for safaris in the parks generate tourist dollars that support conservation and local businesses.

TB has not yet been diagnosed in wild elephants, rhinos, or other wild mammals in Nepal but poses a significant threat. Controlling TB at the captive elephant interface may decrease transmission to the wild where it would be difficult if not impossible to control. An elephant TB surveillance program was initiated in Nepal in 2006 following the postmortem diagnosis of TB in several captive elephants. To date, 164 captive elephants (79% of the population) have been tested using the ElephantTB STAT-PAK Assay® (Chembio Diagnostic Systems, Inc., 3661 Horseblock Road, Medford, NY 11763, USA). Nineteen elephants are receiving treatment for TB; one elephant has completed treatment, and one old elephant is under permanent quarantine. Culture-confirmation of TB infection has been unrewarding due to 1) difficulty in performing the trunk wash procedure, 2) sample contamination, and 3) limited laboratory capacity to process elephant samples. Investigation of alternative direct methods for diagnosis are being pursued.3 TB has not been detected in currently employed elephant caretakers tested by the public health system.

Tuberculosis will be a main focus of the newly established One Health-Nepal, spearheaded by the National Trust for Nature Conservation (a Nepal NGO) and the Zoological Society of London. Elephant Care International, the Cummings School of Veterinary Medicine at Tufts University, and the Institute of Agriculture and Animal Science are among the organizations that will collaborate to address cross-species TB issues in Nepal.

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**LITERATURE CITED**
A comprehensive elephant tuberculosis (TB) survey using culture and four serological screening tests was conducted in Nepal in response to concern raised by wildlife officials that TB could threaten wild populations of elephants, rhinos, and other susceptible species. Captive elephants come into close contact with wild animals during conservation and tourism activities inside Nepal's national parks. Private and government-owned male and female captive Asian elephants (Elephas maximus) were included in the study. The mean reported age was 38 years (range 5-60 years). A total of 289 samples from 120 elephants were collected for mycobacterial culture. Culture samples were processed at the National Tuberculosis Centre (NTC) in Nepal and the National Veterinary Services Laboratories (NVSL) in Ames, IA. Acid-fast organisms were observed in 11 and 21 samples processed at NTC and NVSL, respectively, and nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTMs) were isolated from six elephants. There were no isolations of Mycobacterium tuberculosis or Mycobacterium bovis. Blood samples were also collected from 115 of the elephants for serological testing using the Chembio ElephantTB STAT-PAK®, the Chembio MultiAntigen Print Immunoassay test, a multi-antigen ELISA, and an immunoblot assay. Culture and serological results were variable and required careful interpretation to develop criteria to assess TB risk. Elephants were assigned to one of four disease risk groups (high, moderate, low, and undetermined), and management recommendations for each group were made to government authorities. Serological results were prioritized in developing recommendations because of culture limitations and inconclusive culture results. This strategy was based on evidence for the early predictive value of serological tests and the urgent need expressed by wildlife authorities in Nepal to protect their captive elephants, mitigate TB at the captive-wild interface, and safeguard tourism.

The Nepal Elephant Healthcare and Tuberculosis Surveillance Program was initiated by Elephant Care International in 2007 following the first comprehensive TB testing of Asian elephants in 2006. Previous reports have described the challenges that TB presents to wildlife, humans, and domestic livestock in Nepal 1-3 and a recent report has demonstrated the risk of transmission to the wild.4 The program is based near Chitwan National Park where a field office and lab are staffed by a full-time veterinarian. Program goals are to 1) mitigate transmission of TB to wild elephants, rhinos and other ungulates by controlling TB at the captive-wild interface, 2) ensure the health of government elephants used for anti-poaching patrols, rhino censuses, and other conservation purposes, 3) safeguard tourism that supports the national parks, 4) build wildlife veterinary capacity, 5) encourage the development of elephant TB control programs other Asian elephant range countries, and 6) advance our knowledge of TB in elephants.

Ninety-three percent of the captive population has been tested using the Elephant TB Stat-Pak® and / or DPP® Vet TB™ assays.a Over 20 elephants have been treated prophylactically or therapeutically for TB based on serology results, culture, and /or exposure history.

The Program has facilitated multiple research projects, involving students and investigators from Tufts University, Michigan State University, Murdoch University, and the Institute of Agriculture and Animal Science (Nepal).

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LITERATURE CITED


Over the past 15 years, cases of infection with organisms of the Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex have been diagnosed among captive elephants in the United States and worldwide. Outbreak investigations have documented that among staff employed at facilities housing infected animals, skin test conversion to purified protein derivative have been documented. Clonal spread among animals in close contact and even inter-species spread between elephant and human has been documented. Detection of actively infected animals relies on samples obtained by trunk wash. Diagnosis has been augmented by the development of a multi-antigen serologic assay with excellent specificity and sensitivity. Treatment regimens are still in development with efficacy largely unknown due to a paucity of both premortem follow-up and necropsy data of treated animals. The epidemiology, diagnosis and treatment of tuberculosis in elephants require additional careful study of clinical data.


Bovine tuberculosis (TB), caused by Mycobacterium bovis, has become established in Kruger National Park, South Africa, in the cape buffalo (Syncerus caffer) population and in other species. TB in prey species has resulted in infection and morbidity in the resident lion (Panthera leo) prides. The only validated live animal test currently available for lions is the intradermal tuberculin test. Because this test requires capture twice, 72 hr apart, of free-ranging lions to read results, it is logistically difficult to administer in a large ecosystem. Therefore,
development of a rapid animal-side screening assay would be ideal in providing information for wildlife managers, veterinarians, and researchers working with free-living lion prides. This study reports preliminary descriptive results from an ongoing project evaluating two serologic tests for M. bovis (ElephantTB Stat-Pak and dual path platform VetTB). Disease status was determined by postmortem culture and presence of pathologic lesions in 14 free-ranging lions. Seropositivity was found to be associated with M. bovis infection. Extended field studies are underway to validate these rapid animal-side immunoassays for antemortem screening tests for TB in lions.


A case of fatal Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection was diagnosed postmortem in a captive 33-yr-old male black rhinoceros (Diceros bicornis) after a nonspecific illness in April 2013. Retrospective testing of sera from this individual revealed that it had been seroreactive by ElephantTB STAT-PAK, dual-path platform VetTB, and multi-antigen print immunoassay for over 12 yr prior to death. Although samples collected at the time of intradermal tuberculin test performed in October 2000 were nonreactive in all three serologic assays, the animal appeared to seroconvert approximately 2.5 wk after the skin test administration. The antibody response remained detectable for the duration of the animal's life (12+yr), indicating ongoing immunologic stimulation. The current case report supports the use of serologic assays for diagnosis of TB in black rhinoceros and may provide information for earlier detection. However, further research is needed to develop tools for recognition of mycobacterial infections in rhinoceros.


Tuberculosis (TB) is a global anthropozoonotic infection that has raised awareness of the impact of disease at the human-livestock-wildlife interface. There are examples of transmission from livestock resulting in establishment of reservoirs in wildlife populations, and exposures from interactions between humans and wildlife that have resulted in disease outbreaks. A One Health approach is crucial to managing and protecting the health of humans, livestock, wildlife and the environment. Although still in its infancy in many areas of the world, the use of transdisciplinary teams to address wildlife-human-livestock boundary diseases will broaden the scope of options for solutions. This paper reviews some less commonly known examples of threats and outcomes using lessons learned from tuberculosis. (C) 2012 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.


The zoonotic importance of Mycobacterium bovis has been the subject of renewed interest in the wake of the increasing incidence of tuberculosis in the human population. This paper considers some of the conditions under which transmission of M. bovis from animals to humans occurs and reviews current information on the global distribution of the disease. The paper highlights the particular threat posed by this zoonotic disease in developing countries and lists the veterinary and human public health measures that need to be adopted if the disease is to contained. The association of tuberculosis with malnutrition and poverty has long been recognized and the need to address these basic issues as as crucial as specific measures against the disease itself.


Serologic and other laboratory tests (such as BTB, ELISA, and gamma interferon) are often used in conjunction with the intradermal tuberculin test to detect tuberculosis (TB) in animals. The skin test is considered the "gold standard" in domestic cattle and humans, and the BTB test has been highly rated for use in cervid species. However, these indirect methods for TB diagnosis have not been proven valid in most exotic species susceptible to Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex (which includes M. bovis) infection. In addition, many of the
tuberculin skin testing methods used in exotic species are not uniform in terms of tuberculin type(s) and sites used and interpretation of the end points.


Elephant endotheliotropic herpesvirus (EEHV) infections and tuberculosis have emerged as causes of illness and mortality in captive elephants. Twenty-six confirmed EEHV cases are documented. Since 1995, 7 have occurred in North America, 10 in Europe and 2 in Asia. A PCR test was used to detect the virus in symptomatic animals; a serological test to identify carrier elephants is under development. The African elephant is a potential source of the EEHV that is lethal for Asian elephants. Fatal infections have also occurred in Asian elephants without African elephant contacts. Three of 6 elephants recovered after treatment with antiviral famciclovir; however, more research is needed to improve the usefulness of this drug. Asian elephants that are less than 10-years old and have been moved to another facility and/or have had contact with African elephants are at increased risk for contracting EEHV. Animals traveling between facilities with a history of EEHV cases may be at greater risk. All young elephants should be monitored daily for anorexia, lethargy, body swellings and blue discoloration (bruising) of the tongue, and be trained for blood sampling and potential oral and rectal treatment with famciclovir.

Since 1996, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* has affected about 3% of Asian elephants in North America. Most were from 5 U.S. States with some contacts between private herds. Mandatory annual testing for tuberculosis by trunk wash cultures was established in 1998, and 22 culture-positive *M. tuberculosis* elephants were identified between 1996-2001. Fifteen were treated with anti-tuberculosis drugs and 7 that died or were euthanized were proven to have tuberculosis at necropsy. Antemortem sera was available from 4/7 4 (75%) were strongly ELISA positive. Tuberculosis is uncommon in African elephants but was recently associated with *M. bovis* in the U.S. and *M. tuberculosis* in Germany. Conversely, *M. bovis* tuberculosis, apparently unrecognized in Asian elephants, recently occurred in Germany. Management issues of elephant tuberculosis will be discussed relative to its complex epidemiology and clinical-pathological correlations.


Tuberculosis caused by Mycobacterium tuberculosis and M. tuberculosis-like organisms has been identified in a wide range of species, including non-human primates, elephants and other exotic ungulates, carnivores, marine mammals and psittacine birds. Disease associated with M. tuberculosis has occurred mostly within captive settings and does not appear to occur naturally in free-living mammals. Mycobacterium tuberculosis probably originated as an infection of humans, but from the zoonotic standpoint, non-human primates, Asian elephants and psittacine birds have the potential to transmit this disease to humans. However, the overall prevalence of disease in these susceptible species is low and documented transmissions of M. tuberculosis between animals and humans are uncommon. Mycobacterium tuberculosis causes progressive pulmonary disease in mammals and a muco-cutaneous disease in parrots. In all cases, the disease can disseminate and be shed into the environment. Diagnosis in living animals is based on intradermal tuberculin testing in non-human primates, culturing trunk secretions in elephants, and biopsy and culture of external lesions in parrots. Ancillary testing with deoxyribonucleic acid probes and nucleic acid amplification, and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays have been adapted to some of these species with promising results. Additionally, new guidelines for controlling tuberculosis in elephants in the United States of America, and programmes for tuberculosis prevention in animal handlers have been established.

Transboundary and Emerging Diseases 60: 60-66.
Mycobacterium bovis is the causal agent of bovine tuberculosis (BTB), with a diverse host range, extending from livestock to domestic and captive wild animals as well as free-ranging wildlife species. In South Africa, BTB is endemic in the Kruger National Park (KNP) and the Hluhluwe iMfolozi National Park (HiP), where the high prevalence of M.bovis infections in buffalo herds has led to infection of a number of wildlife species. This has raised concerns about the spillover into the rhinoceros population, a species known to be susceptible to both M.bovis and Mycobacterium tuberculosis, jeopardizing breeding and relocation projects that serve to conserve and protect this species. In view of the advantages of the interferon-gamma (IFN-) assay in the diagnosis of BTB in a variety of species worldwide, such an assay has been developed for rhinoceroses by Morar and co-workers in 2007. In this study, this assay was optimized using recombinant eukaryotic rhinoceros IFN- and the lower detection limit was calculated to be 0.5ng/ml. Subsequently, assessing the detection of native rhinoceros IFN-protein in whole-blood samples revealed stimulation with each of the mitogens: pokeweed (PWM), phytohaemagglutinin (PHA) & phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate and calcium ionophore (PMA/CaI), though most prominently with the latter two. In addition, samples collected from 52 clinically healthy rhinoceroses, of presumed negative BTB status, from two different areas in South Africa were used to determine the cut-off value for a negative test result. This was calculated to be 0.10 (OD490nm) and as determined in this study is a preliminary recommendation based on IFN- responses observed in samples from BTB-free rhinoceroses only.

We aimed to estimate the global occurrence of zoonotic tuberculosis (TB) caused by Mycobacterium bovis or M. caprae infections in humans by performing a multilingual, systematic review and analysis of relevant scientific literature of the last 2 decades. Although information from many parts of the world was not available, data from 61 countries suggested a low global disease incidence. In regions outside Africa included in this study, overall median proportions of zoonotic TB of <= 1.4% in connection with overall TB incidence rates <= 71/100,000 population/year suggested low incidence rates. For countries of Africa included in the study, we multiplied the observed median proportion of zoonotic TB cases of 2.8% with the continental average overall TB incidence rate of 264/100,000 population/year, which resulted in a crude estimate of 7 zoonotic TB cases/100,000 population/year. These generally low incidence rates notwithstanding, available data indicated substantial consequences of this disease for some population groups and settings.

In 2009, the Tennessee Department of Health received reports of 5 tuberculin skin test (TST) conversions among employees of an elephant refuge and isolation of Mycobacterium tuberculosis from a resident elephant. To determine the extent of the outbreak and identify risk factors for TST conversion, we conducted a cohort study and onsite assessment. Risk for conversion was increased for elephant caregivers and administrative employees working in the barn housing the M. tuberculosis-infected elephant or in offices connected to the barn (risk ratio 20.3, 95% confidence interval 2.8-146.7). Indirect exposure to aerosolized M. tuberculosis and delayed or inadequate infection control practices likely contributed to transmission. The following factors are needed to reduce risk for M. tuberculosis transmission in the captive elephant industry: increased knowledge about M. tuberculosis infection in elephants, improved infection control practices, and specific occupational health programs.

Tuberculosis is emerging/re-emerging in captive elephant populations, where it causes morbidity and deaths, although no case of TB in wild African elephants has been reported. In this paper we report the first case of fatal
TB in an African elephant in the wild. The infection with Mycobacterium tuberculosis was confirmed by post-mortem and histological examinations of a female sub-adult elephant aged >12 years that died in Tsavo East National Park, Kenya, while under treatment. This case is unique in that during its lifetime the elephant had contact with both humans and wild elephants. The source of the infection was unclear because the elephant could have acquired the infection in the orphanage or in the wild. However, our results show that wild elephants can maintain human TB in the wild and that the infection can be fatal.


From 1997 to 2000, Mycobacterium tuberculosis was diagnosed in two Asian elephants (Elephas maximus), three Rocky Mountain goats (Oreamnos americanus), and one black rhinoceros (Diceros bicornis) in the Los Angeles Zoo. DNA fingerprint patterns suggested recent transmission. An investigation found no active cases of tuberculosis in humans; however, tuberculin skin-test conversions in humans were associated with training elephants and attending an elephant necropsy.


A cross-sectional study was conducted from 10 January to 9 April 2012, to determine the seroprevalence of tuberculosis (TB) of all captive Asian elephants and their handlers in six locations in Peninsular Malaysia. In addition, trunk-wash samples were examined for tubercle bacillus by culture and polymerase chain reaction (PCR). For 63 elephants and 149 elephant handlers, TB seroprevalence was estimated at 20.4% and 24.8%, respectively. From 151 trunk-wash samples, 24 acid-fast isolates were obtained, 23 of which were identified by hsp65-based sequencing as non-tuberculous mycobacteria. The Mycobacterium tuberculosis-specific PCR was positive in the trunk-wash samples from three elephants which were also seropositive. Conversely, the trunk wash from seven seropositive elephants were PCR negative. Hence, there was evidence of active and latent TB in the elephants and the high seroprevalence in the elephants and their handlers suggests frequent, close contact, two-way transmission between animals and humans within confined workplaces.


Mycobacterium tuberculosis was cultured from the lung tissues of 3 captive elephants in Nepal that died with extensive lung lesions. Spoligotyping, TbD1 detection and multi-locus variable number of tandem repeat analysis (MLVA) results suggested 3 isolates belonged to a specific lineage of Indo-Oceanic clade, EA15 SIT 138. One of the elephant isolates had a new synonymous single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) T231C in the gyrA sequence, and the same SNP was also found in human isolates in Nepal. MLVA results and transfer history of the elephants suggested that 2 of them might be infected with M. tuberculosis from the same source. These findings indicated the source of M. tuberculosis infection of those elephants were local residents, presumably their handlers. Further investigation including detailed genotyping of elephant and human isolates is needed to clarify the infection route and eventually prevent the transmission of tuberculosis to susceptible hosts.


Tuberculosis (TB) in elephants is a re-emerging disease predominantly caused by Mycobacterium tuberculosis, a human type of TB. Elephant to human TB transmission has been reported from several zoological facilities which have public health implications. Culture of respiratory samples obtained using a trunk wash procedure is regarded as the gold standard for TB diagnosis in elephants; however, this technique has many limitations. Serological methods have been developed and are widely used for TB testing in elephants in zoos around the
world and elephant facilities in Asian elephant range countries. Regular TB screening of elephants and their handlers should be performed; infected elephants and handlers should be segregated and treated with anti-TB drugs according to established treatment regimens. Screening, segregation, and treatment will aid in the prevention of TB transmission between species and will contribute to the conservation of endangered wild elephants by mitigating TB spread at the captive-wild interface.


We compared cortisol and thyroid hormone (T3 and T4) concentrations between tuberculosis (TB)-suspected (n=10) and healthy (n=10) elephants of Nepal. Whole blood was collected from captive elephants throughout Nepal, and TB testing was performed using the ElephantTB STAT-PAK® and DPP VetTB® serological assays that detect antibodies against Mycobacterium tuberculosis and M. bovis in elephant serum. Cortisol, T3 and T4 were quantified by competitive enzyme immunoassays, and the results showed no significant differences in hormone concentrations between TB-suspect and healthy elephants. These preliminary data suggest neither adrenal nor thyroid function is altered by TB disease status. However, more elephants, including those positively diagnosed for TB by trunk wash cultures, need to be evaluated over time to confirm results. © 2016 The Japanese Society of Veterinary Science.


Results of Mycobacterium tuberculosis detection in animals from six Central European countries (Croatia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia) spreading over 610402 km² with a population of 11.8 million heads of cattle were analysed. In the monitoring period between 1990 and 1999, M. tuberculosis from animals was isolated only in two countries (Poland and Slovak Republic) from 16 animals with tuberculous lesions. These comprise 9 cattle (Bos taurus), 4 domestic pigs (Sus scrofa f. domestica) and three wild animals, an African elephant (Loxodonta africana), agouti (Dasyprocta aguti) and terrestrial tapir (Tapirus terrestris) from a zoological garden Gdansk in Poland. A steady decrease in the incidence of tuberculosis in humans was recorded during the monitoring period in all countries. The human population of the study countries was 68.03 million. In the period monitored, infection caused by M. tuberculosis was identified in a total of 241040 patients with a decreasing incidence of tuberculosis found in all countries. The lowest relative bacteriologically confirmed disease was found in the Czech Republic, Slovak Republic and Slovenia. Given the low number of infected domestic and wild animals, the epidemiological and epizootiological situation may be considered auspicious.


Interest in tuberculosis in elephants has been increasing over the past several years in the United States. Several techniques have been used to diagnose mammalian tuberculosis. Currently, the test considered most reliable for diagnosis of TB in elephants is based on the culture of respiratory secretions obtained by trunk washes.


A case of tuberculosis in a domesticated Asiatic elephant, Elephas maximus, was diagnosed on post-mortem examination. The causal organism was identified as Mycobacterium tuberculosis var hominis on the basis of cultural, biochemical and virulence studies. Microscopically, the lesions resembled tuberculous lesions as seen in man and other domestic animals, but an important difference was the apparent absence of Langerhan's type giant cells. The problems associated with the clinical diagnosis of tuberculosis in the elephant are discussed.

There are many case reports of elephant pathogenic bacteria and viruses that require quick and sensitive diagnostic techniques due to the impact they generate. Out of these the occurrence of TB in elephants, especially in captivity, leading to zoonotic risk for humans who live at the animal-human interface and the different strains of elephant endotheliotropic herpes virus (EEHV) that pose a threat to Asian elephants are of extreme importance. Hence, this study aims to evaluate the PCR based molecular techniques for the rapid and direct detection of TB in captive elephants by primers targeting gene hsp65 and EEHV 1 strain by primers targeting the terminase gene. Serologically positive captive Asian elephants at Elephant orphanage, Pinnawala were screened for TB by specific primer PCR assay for hsp65 gene of M.tuberculosis using direct DNA isolates from trunk wash samples. Among 21 trunk washes, only a single amplification was observed, with a size closer to 441bp. Sequencing of this resulted a 415bp fragment which was not responsible for TB. Although, there have been no recorded cases of EEHV in Sri Lanka, many healthy Asian elephants are asymptomatically infected by EEHV1 in the neighboring Indian region. Therefore, asymptomatic Asian elephants in captivity at ETH, Udawalawe were screened for 336bp partial EEHV1 terminase gene using direct DNA isolates from blood, eye swabs and buccal cavity swabs. All tested samples were negative for EEHV1. Since these elephants were closely monitored even after the study and none of them developed classical symptoms of either EEHV or TB, it is difficult to prove the fact that they were originally infected. The nonspecific amplification proves that it is possible to extract microbial DNA from elephant trunk washes.


This review examines the current situation of bovine tuberculosis (bTB) in southern African savannah systems, and uses theory on multi-species host-pathogen systems to suggest possible options for future research and management. In southern Africa, the buffalo (Syncerus caffer) and the Kafue lechwe [Marsh antelope] (Kobus leche) have been found to be maintenance hosts for this disease, but the importance of other host species is becoming apparent. The role of other host species in the maintenance and spread of the disease varies, depending on the spatial distribution and resource utilization patterns of the species, disease susceptibility, transmission modes and the ecology of both host(s) and vector(s). Future research needs to identify the pathogenicity of bTB in each of the host species, and the mechanisms and rates of inter- and intra-specific transmission among different species, in order to develop multi-host models to understand the development and spread of the disease. © 2006 Cambridge University Press.


Tuberculosis (TB) is a chronic disease affecting humans and other mammal species. Severity of TB caused by Mycobacterium tuberculosis in humans seems to be influenced by nutritional factors like vitamin D3 intake. However, this relationship has been scarcely studied in cattle and other mammals infected with Mycobacterium bovis. The aim of this work was to assess if wildlife reservoirs of M. bovis show different levels of TB severity depending on the level of vitamin D found in serum after supplementation with vitamin D3. Forty hunted wildlife mammals were included in this study: 20 wild boar and 20 red deer. Ten wild boar and ten red deer had been supplemented with a vitamin D3-enriched food, whereas the remaining animals had received no supplementation. TB diagnosis was carried out in each animal based on microbiological isolation of M. bovis. Animals infected with M. bovis were then classified as animals with localized or generalized TB depending on the location and dissemination of the lesions. Furthermore, serum levels of vitamin D2 and D3 were determined in each animal to evaluate differences not only between supplemented and non-supplemented animals but also
between those with localized and generalized TB. Levels of vitamin D3 found in both, supplemented wild boar and red deer, were significantly higher than those found in the non-supplemented animals. Interestingly, higher levels of vitamin D3 were observed in animals suffering localized TB when compared to animals with generalized TB suggesting that vitamin D3 concentration correlates negatively with TB severity in these wildlife reservoirs.

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Transfrontier conservation areas represent an international effort to encourage conservation and sustainable development. Their success faces a number of challenges, including disease management in wildlife, livestock and humans. Tuberculosis (TB) affects humans and a multitude of non-human animal species and is of particular concern in sub-Saharan Africa. The Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area encompasses five countries, including Zimbabwe, and is home to the largest contiguous population of free-ranging elephants in Africa. Elephants are known to be susceptible to TB; thus, understanding TB status, exposure and transmission risks to and from elephants in this area is of interest for both conservation and human health. To assess risk factors for TB seroprevalence, a questionnaire was used to collect data regarding elephant management at four ecotourism facilities offering elephant-back tourist rides in the Victoria Falls area of Zimbabwe. Thirty-five working African elephants were screened for Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex antibodies using the ElephantTB Stat-Pak and the DPP VetTB Assay for elephants. Six of 35 elephants (17.1%) were seropositive. The risk factor most important for seropositive status was time in captivity. This is the first study to assess TB seroprevalence and risk factors in working African elephants in their home range. Our findings will provide a foundation to develop guidelines to protect the health of captive and free-ranging elephants in the southern African context, as well as elephant handlers through simple interventions. Minimizing exposure through shared feed with other wildlife, routine TB testing of elephant handlers and regular serological screening of elephants are recommended as preventive measures.


Pathognomonic metacarpal undermining is a skeletal pathology that has been associated with Mycobacterium tuberculosis in bovids. Postcranial artiodactyl, perissodactyl, and carnivore skeletons were examined in major university and museum collections of North America and Europe for evidence of this and other pathology potentially attributable to tuberculosis. Among nonproboscidean mammals from pre-Holocene North America, bone lesions indicative of tuberculosis were restricted to immigrant bovids from Eurasia. No bone lesions compatible with diagnosis of tuberculosis were found in large samples of other pre-Holocene (164 Oligocene, 397 Miocene, and 1,041 Plio-Pleistocene) North American mammals, including 114 antilocaprids. Given the unchanged frequency of bovid tubercular disease during the Pleistocene, it appears that most did not die from the disease but actually reached an accommodation with it (as did the mastodon) (Rothschild and Laub 2006). Thus, they were sufficiently long-lived to assure greater spread of the disease. The relationships of the proboscidean examples need further study, but present evidence suggests a Holarctic spread of tuberculosis during the Pleistocene, with bovids acting as vectors. While the role of other animals in the transmission of tuberculosis could be considered, the unique accommodation achieved by bovids and mastodons makes them the likely "culprits" in its spread.


In 1997 a 26-yr-old gemsbok (Oryx gazelle gazelle) died of bovine tuberculosis in a zoo. Three remaining gemsbok were administered the comparative tuberculin skin test repeatedly over a period of 5 mo. Two animals showed inconclusive results on the second test. All three gemsbok were euthanatized. Mycobacterium bovis
was isolated from one of those with an inconclusive skin test result, whereas Mycobacterium fortuitum was detected in the other gemsbok. Eight years later, an onager (Equus hemionus onager) died of bovine tuberculosis. This animal had been kept in the same building as the gemsbok. Three herd mates were culled after administering the comparative tuberculin skin test. They were all nonreactors and produced no evidence of tuberculosis at postmortem examination. Retrospectively, using plasma samples collected from the gemsbok and onagers, three antibody tests, Elephant TB STAT-PAK, multiantigen print immunoassay (MAPIA), and dual-path platform (DPP) VetTB (Chembio Diagnostic Systems Inc., Medford, New York, 11763, USA), were used to assess their diagnostic value for these species. The M. bovis-infected gemsbok tested strongly positive by Elephant TB STAT-PAK at the time of euthanasia and 5 mo earlier when the skin test was negative. This animal was not antibody reactive in MAPIA and DPP VetTB. No M. bovis-specific antibody was detected in the other two gemsboks by any of the immunoassays. Among the onagers, Elephant TB STAT-PAK, MAPIA, and DPP VetTB revealed gradually increasing antibody response in the animal that died of bovine tuberculosis, but not in the three disease-free herd mates euthanatized. Seroconversion in the M. bovis-infected onager was first noticed 5 yr before death when the tuberculin skin test was negative. Copyright 2013 by American Association of Zoo Veterinarians.


A fatal case of tuberculosis pneumonia with anemia and helminthiasis in a Ceylon elephant is reported. Acid-fast organisms resembling Mycobacterium tuberculosis and tubercular nodules were seen in large numbers in sections of the lung.


To characterize the distribution of nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) species isolated from pulmonary samples from persons in Asia and their association with pulmonary infections, we reviewed the literature. Mycobacterium avium complex bacteria were most frequently isolated (13%-81%) and were the most common cause of pulmonary NTM disease (43%-81%). Also pathogenic were rapidly growing mycobacteria (M. chelonae, M. fortuitum, M. abscessus). Among all NTM isolated from pulmonary samples, 31% (582/1,744) were considered clinically relevant according to American Thoracic Society diagnostic criteria. Most patients were male (79%) and had a history of tuberculosis (37%). In Asia, high prevalence of rapidly growing mycobacteria and a history of tuberculosis are distinct characteristics of pulmonary NTM disease. This geographic variation is not well reflected in the American Thoracic Society criteria for NTM infections and could be incorporated in future guidelines.


Although awareness of tuberculosis among captive elephants is increasing, antituberculosis therapy for these animals is not standardized. We describe Mycobacterium tuberculosis transmission between captive elephants based on whole genome analysis and report a successful combination treatment. Infection control protocols and careful monitoring of treatment of captive elephants with tuberculosis are warranted.


Mycobacteriophage typing of Mycobacterium tuberculosis isolates was used as an epidemiologic aid in investigating the transmission of tuberculosis in community, industrial, and institutional outbreaks. The technique was also useful in other situations, e.g., documenting congenital transmission of infection and
distinguishing exogenous reinfection from endogenous reactivation. Additional studies are indicated to further explore the value of phage typing for tracking the transmission of tuberculosis in the community.


Tuberculosis (TB) caused by Mycobacterial organisms has emerged as one of the major diseases in captive elephants. In vitro Interferon-gamma (IFN-gamma) assay is being used as an ancillary test for early detection of TB in domestic and captive wild animals. In the present study, basic sequence information and immunological cross-reactivity of this major cytokine of Asian elephants were explored. At predicted amino acid level, IFN-gamma of Asian elephant showed maximum identity to that of horse (73%). Other IFN-gamma amino acid sequences that showed high level identity were that of giant panda (72%), dog (71%), nine-banded armadillo (69%), cattle (63%) and human (62%). IFN-gamma promoter sequences of Asian elephant, human, cattle and mouse showed high level conservation of the putative transcription factor binding sites, TATA box and transcriptional start site. The functionally important human IFN-gamma promoter elements, such as AP-2IRE-BE, YY1-gammaIFN-BED, ATFCS and AP-1gammaINF binding sites, were absolutely conserved in the corresponding elephant sequence. There was only a single nucleotide variation in the other two important elements, NFAT-gammaINF and IFN-gammaPE, indicating the highly conserved regulation of IFN-gamma expression across different species. Phylogenetic analysis based on IFN-gamma protein sequences revealed a closer relation of Asian elephants and nine-banded armadillo. This shows a closer evolution of these members of Afrotheria and Xenarthra, respectively; and supports the previous reports based on mitochondrial DNA studies. In Western blot analysis, IFN-gamma of Asian elephant expressed in Escherichia coli was detected using an anti-bovine IFN-gamma monoclonal antibody, indicating immunological cross-reactivity.


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Serological antibody detection tests for tuberculosis may offer the potential to improve diagnosis. Recent
metaanalyses have shown that commercially available tests have variable accuracies and a limited clinical role. We reviewed the immunodiagnostic potential of antigens evaluated in research laboratories (in‐house) for the serodiagnosis of pulmonary tuberculosis and conducted a meta‐analysis to evaluate the performance of comparable antigens. Selection criteria included the participation of at least 25 pulmonary tuberculosis patients and the use of purified antigens. Studies evaluating 38 kDa, MPT51, malate synthase, culture filtrate protein 10, TbF6, antigen 85B, αa‐crystallin, 2,3‐diacyltrehalose, 2,3,6‐triacyltrehalose, 2,3,6,6’‐tetraacyltrehalose 2’‐sulfate, cord factor, and TbF6 plus DPEP (multiple antigen) were included in the meta‐analysis. The results demonstrated that (i) in sputum smear‐positive patients, sensitivities significantly ≥50% were provided for recombinant malate synthase (73%; 95% confidence interval [CI], 58 to 85) and TbF6 plus DPEP (75%; 95% CI, 50 to 91); (ii) protein antigens achieved high specificities; (iii) among the lipid antigens, cord factor had the best overall performance (sensitivity, 69% [95% CI, 28 to 94]; specificity, 91% [95% CI, 78 to 97]); (iv) compared with the sensitivities achieved with single antigens (median sensitivity, 53%; range, 2% to 100%), multiple antigens yielded higher sensitivities (median sensitivity, 76%; range, 16% to 96%); (v) in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)‐infected patients who are sputum smear positive, antibodies to several single and multiple antigens were detected; and (vi) data on seroreactivity to antigens in sputum smear‐negative or pediatric patients were insufficient. Potential candidate antigens for an antibody detection test for pulmonary tuberculosis in HIV‐infected and ‐uninfected patients have been identified, although no antigen achieves sufficient sensitivity to replace sputum smear microscopy. Combinations of select antigens provide higher sensitivities than single antigens. The use of a case‐control design with healthy controls for the majority of studies was a limitation of the review. Efforts are needed to improve the methodological quality of tuberculosis diagnostic studies.


Animal and human health is inextricably interwoven; a good example is tuberculosis (TB). Although recognized as a disease of elephants for over 20 centuries, investigations into TB’s prevalence in the captive Asian elephant (Elephas maximus) population only go back 20 yr.3,4 The increasing problem of human TB combined with the susceptibility of elephants and the close contact between human and elephant, makes surveillance based on reliable early diagnosis essential.3 Although the availability of diagnostics for clinical applications has improved in recent years, there is still a wide discrepancy between their sensitivities and specificities.1,2

In a group of 10 Asian elephants, tuberculosis was suspected from clinical observations and various clinical tests. Nevertheless, despite over 200 trunk washes being taken for analysis over a period of 14 mo, culture and RT‐PCR tests for M. tuberculosis were negative. Three animals were euthanatized due to severe geriatric health problems. Pathologic examination revealed typical M. tuberculosis lesions in lung and lymph nodes. Culture and RT‐PCR performed from the lesions, of postmortem collected tracheal secretions and of stomach wall tissues confirmed M. tuberculosis infection.

Based on these results, utilization of a combination of clinical signs (e.g., chronic weight loss), standard tests (e.g., comparative intradermal tuberculin test, trunk wash culture or PCR) and newer serologic tests (e.g., sero‐diagnostic tests - Dual Path Platform [DPP] VetTB and multiantigen print immunoassay [MAPIA]), and repeated testing to increase antemortem validity are recommended. Gastric and bronchial lavage should also be investigated to improve accuracy of antemortem diagnostics.


Mycobacterium tuberculosis is primarily a pathogen of humans. Infections have been reported in animal species and it is emerging as a significant disease of elephants in the care of humans. With the close association
between humans and animals, transmission can occur. In November 2010, a clinically healthy Asian elephant in an Australian zoo was found to be shedding M. tuberculosis; in September 2011, a sick chimpanzee at the same zoo was diagnosed with tuberculosis caused by an indistinguishable strain of M. tuberculosis. Investigations included staff and animal screening. Four staff had tuberculin skin test conversions associated with spending at least 10 hours within the elephant enclosure; none had disease. Six chimpanzees had suspected infection. A pathway of transmission between the animals could not be confirmed. Tuberculosis in an elephant can be transmissible to people in close contact and to other animals more remotely. The mechanism for transmission from elephants requires further investigation.


From 1997 to 2000, six cases of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (TB) infection were diagnosed in three species of animals at, or recently originating from, the Los Angeles Zoo. Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis showed that five of six animal isolates shared an identical IS6110 pattern, with the sixth differing only by one additional band. A multiinstitutional epidemiologic investigation was conducted to identify and interrupt possible transmission among the animal cases, and to screen personnel for active TB infection and TB skin-test conversion.

**Animal Cases**

In April and October of 1994, Asian elephant (*Elephas maximus*) #1 and Asian elephant #2 arrived at the Los Angeles Zoo from a private elephant facility where they had lived together. They were housed together at the zoo until November of 1996 when elephant #2 was returned to the facility for several months before transfer to another zoo. In the spring of 1997, Elephant #1 (30 yr old) died of salmonellosis, with *M. tuberculosis* found in granulomatous lymph node lesions from the thoracic and abdominal cavities, and Elephant #2 (30 yr old) was found to have a positive trunk wash culture for *M. tuberculosis*. In July of 1998, one of a closed herd of three Rocky Mountain goats (*Oreamnos americanus*) consisting of a sire and two offspring, died of pulmonary *M. tuberculosis* at 6 yr of age. The goat's asymptomatic herdmates were screened and had negative chest radiographs and tracheal wash cultures, but one of the two goats was positive on tuberculin skin-test. In October of 1998, a clinically normal Black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*) was diagnosed with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* after a positive skin test and nasal wash culture. In the winter of 1998, the two remaining goats were evaluated again with negative chest radiographs and tracheal wash cultures. However, 1 yr later, both were humanely euthanatized at 8 and 12 yr of age due to clinical evidence of tuberculosis on chest radiographs (both animals), and active clinical signs in one (neither were able to be orally treated). In January of 2001, a rhino was humanely euthanatized after a protracted illness that was nonresponsive to aggressive treatment. The rhino was found to have severe multifocal hemosiderosis and atypical mycobacterial infection in her lungs, with no *M. tuberculosis* cultured. This animal had been treated with oral Isoniazid and Rifampin for 1 yr, cultured routinely, and was never culture positive again.

**Epidemiologic Investigation**

Investigators examined medical and location histories of the affected animals, animal handling practices, health-care procedures, and performed an infection control assessment of the animal compounds and health-care facilities (including measuring air flow in the compounds by smoke testing). We conducted a review of zoo employee medical records for evidence of TB symptoms, tuberculin skin-test results, and chest radiograph information. A list of current and former employees was cross-matched with reported TB cases in the California state registry from 1985 to 2000. As part of the annual occupational health screening in June of 2000, zoo employees underwent questioning regarding TB symptoms, received tuberculin skin tests, and completed a questionnaire on medical history, job type, and history of contact with the infected animals.

**Epidemiologic Findings**

No common cross-species contact outside the animal compounds and no contact with an infectious human were found. The distance at which the public was kept from the animals and the distance of the compounds from
each other (the elephant compound was 27 meters from the rhino compound and the goat compound was 90 m from both) suggests that direct transmission was unlikely. No active TB cases in humans were found, and no matches were found in the database of reported cases. The RFLP analysis of this strain of *M. tuberculosis* matched that of three elephants with which #1 and #2 were housed at a private elephant facility from September of 1993-February of 1994. We hypothesize that elephants #1 and #2 were infected at the private facility and were shipped with latent M. tuberculosis infection in 1994, subsequently infecting the black rhino and Mountain goats at the Los Angeles Zoo.

Of interest, animal caretaking and animal contact were not associated with a positive tuberculin skin-test, while groundskeepers were found to have an increased risk of tuberculin skin-test conversion compared with other job categories. Employees attending the elephant necropsy and employees who trained elephants were more likely to have tuberculin skin-test conversion than those who did not.

**Conclusion**

This is the first documented human and veterinary epidemiologic investigation of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* affecting multiple species in a zoo. No evidence of transmission from humans to animals or active infections in humans were found. Genotyping evidence strongly suggests transmission from one species to another, although no evidence of transmission was discovered. Human tuberculin skin-test conversions associated with the elephants were most likely due to lack of respiratory protection for these employees when the risk of TB infection was not known. The finding that groundskeepers and not animal handlers were associated with a higher risk of tuberculin skin-test conversion was surprising, and we hypothesized that this may have to do with groundskeepers as a group being more likely to have been born outside of the United States.

Control measures to eliminate the spread of disease to people and animals were undertaken immediately and throughout this outbreak, and no further cases of *M. tuberculosis* have been diagnosed at the zoo in the past 3 yr despite ongoing surveillance. Four elephants and three rhinos that had direct contact with the infected animals remain TB negative by trunk and nasal wash culture methods as outlined by the USDA for elephant TB surveillance. Methods of indirect transmission in mammalian zoo species and causes of variability in infection and morbidity within and among species warrant further investigation. Ongoing vigilance, occupational health programs and infection control measures in potentially exposed animals are recommended to prevent ongoing transmission of *M. tuberculosis* in zoo settings.

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**LITERATURE CITED**


Wildlife tuberculosis (TB) is becoming one of the emerging challenges for conservation globally. South Asian region is home to many endangered species like Asian elephants, rhinoceros, and Bengal tigers. Although it carries more than one-third of global burden of human TB, TB in livestock and wildlife has not been adequately studied. This chapter reviews the present knowledge and information about animal-adapted members of Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex and wildlife TB in South Asia. Recent studies of TB from different wild animals in Nepal and Bangladesh have found that M. orygis is an emerging threat of wildlife TB in the region. These studies have demonstrated wide diversity of M. orygis strains circulating in the region indicating its endemic distribution. M. orygis-associated TB was discovered from a free-ranging rhinoceros in Nepal and the finding could signify threat of TB in other wild animals, including a possibility of unknown maintenance host. Recent studies also revealed an emerging challenge caused by TB to elephants in different South Asian countries like Nepal, India, and Sri Lanka. Wildlife TB is becoming a conservation challenge in South Asia, but given the paucity of research in this area, it is overlooked and underexplored.


An enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) was developed, using protein A labeled with horseradish peroxidase for detecting antibodies in tuberculous exotic animals (llamas, rhinoceroses, elephants). The modified ELISA provides a rapid procedure for screening several animal species simultaneously for tuberculosis without the production of specific anti-species conjugates. Heat-killed cells of Mycobacterium bovis and M. avium and purified protein-derivative tuberculin of M. bovis were used as antigens for ELISA.


Mycobacteria were isolated from 59% of the 826 specimens submitted from exotic animals suspected of having tuberculosis. Mycobacterium bovis and Mycobacterium tuberculosis accounted for 61% of the isolations from nonhuman primates. Mycobacterium bovis was the organism most frequently isolated from hoofed animals and Mycobacterium avium was most commonly isolated from birds. The distribution, pathogenesis, diagnosis, and control of tuberculosis in exotic animals is discussed.


Tuberculosis is an important disease among many zoonoses, because both Mycobacterium tuberculosis and Mycobacterium bovis, which are the major causes of tuberculosis, are highly pathogenic, infect many animal species and thus are likely to be the source of infection in humans. In particular, monkeys are highly susceptible to these bacteria and are important spreaders. Recently, two outbreaks of M. tuberculosis occurred in four different kinds of monkeys and humans were also infected with the disease in Japan. In zoos, tuberculosis was reported not only in monkeys, but also in several different kinds of animals, including elephants. Pets such as dogs and cats are believed to be generally less susceptible to M. tuberculosis, but in this article we introduce a case of infection from man to dog by close contact. Japan is one of the few countries that have been able to control M. bovis infection. In other countries, however, cases of bovine tuberculosis and human M. bovis infection have been reported, and thus further attention is still required in the future.


Tuberculosis is a significant problem globally for domestic animals as well as captive and free ranging wild life. Rapid point of care (POC) serology kits are well suited for the diagnosis of TB in wild animals. However, wild animals are invariably exposed to environmental non-pathogenic mycobacterium species with the development
of cross reacting antibodies. In the present study, POC TB diagnosis kit was developed using a combination of pathogenic Mycobacteria specific recombinant antigens and purified protein derivatives of pathogenic and non-pathogenic Mycobacteria. To benchmark the TB antibody detection kit, particularly in respect to specificity which could not be determined in wildlife due to the lack of samples from confirmed uninfected animals, we first tested well-characterized sera from 100 M. bovis infected and 100 uninfected cattle. Then we investigated the kit’s performance using sera samples from wildlife, namely Sloth Bears (n = 74), Elephants (n = 9), Cervidae (n = 14), Felidae (n = 21), Cape buffalo (n = 2), Wild bear (n = 1) and Wild dog (n = 1). In cattle, a sensitivity of 81% and a specificity of 90% were obtained. The diagnostic sensitivity of the kit was 94% when the kit was tested using known TB positive sloth bear sera samples. 47.4% of the in-contact sloth bears turned seropositive using the rapid POC TB diagnostic kit. Seropositivity in other wild animals was 25% when the sera samples were tested using the kit. A point of care TB sero-diagnostic kit with the combination of proteins was developed and the kit was validated using the sera samples of wild animals. © 2017 Association of Microbiologists of India


In 2006, five Asian elephants (Elephas maximus) were imported to Taronga Zoo, Australia, from Thailand. Pre-import and initial postarrival tuberculosis screening was performed by trunk wash (TW) culture and was negative for Mycobacterium tuberculosis. In April 2009, the ElephantTB STAT-PAK (SP) assay was used to test the elephants. A 15.5-yr-old pregnant cow was reactive. TW frequency for this cow was increased from annually to quarterly. TW cultures remained negative on all other elephants. In February 2010, the Dual Path Platform (DPP) VetTB assay was used for the first time, and the SP-reactive cow also reacted on the DPP. A SP was run concurrently and was reactive. All other elephants were nonreactive on both assays. Treatment was not initiated due to concern about the effect of antituberculous drugs on the fetus. Quarterly TW cultures continued. The cow gave birth on 2 November 2010. A routine TW on 24 November 2010 was culture positive for M. tuberculosis. Although previous shedding could not be ruled out, reactivation of latent infection or exacerbation of subclinical disease due to parturition was suspected. Treatment with isoniazid, pyrazinamide, rifampicin, and ethambutol commenced. A 12-mo treatment course was completed within a 15-mo period. The isolate was susceptible to these drugs and genotyped as a Beijing strain. Stored serum samples from 2004 and 2006 were tested retrospectively and were reactive on SP and DPP. TW, SP, and DPP screening frequency increased to monthly for the positive cow on commencement of treatment in January 2011. Monthly serum biochemistry indicated drug-induced hepatitis. Therapeutic drug monitoring was conducted to ensure therapeutic levels were achieved. The infant calf was reactive on DPP, but TW culture negative, and was not treated. Serial DPP results for the cow and calf during and after treatment indicated that the antibody levels were declining, suggesting a favorable response to therapy in the dam, and that the origin of the antibodies in the calf were maternal, rather than a response to infection.


Despite having a very low incidence of disease, reindeer (Rangifer tarandus) are subject to tuberculosis (TB) testing requirements for interstate shipment and herd accreditation in the United States. Improved TB tests are desperately needed, as many reindeer are falsely classified as reactors by current testing procedures. Sera collected sequentially from 11 (experimentally) Mycobacterium bovis-infected reindeer and 4 noninfected reindeer were evaluated by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), immunoblotting, and multiantigen print immunoassay (MAPIA) for antibody specific to M. bovis antigens. Specific antibody was detected as early as 4 weeks after challenge with M. bovis. By MAPIA, sera were tested with 12 native and recombinant antigens, which were used to coat nitrocellulose. All M. bovis-infected reindeer developed responses to MPB83 and a fusion protein, Acr1/MPB83, and 9/11 had responses to MPB70. Other antigens less commonly recognized
included MPB59, ESAT-6, and CFP10. Administration of purified protein derivatives for skin testing boosted serum antibody responses, as detected by each of the assays. Of the noninfected reindeer, 2/4 had responses that were detectable immediately following skin testing, which correlated with pathological findings (i.e., presence of granulomatous lesions yet the absence of acid-fast bacteria). The levels of specific antibody produced by infected reindeer appeared to be associated with disease progression but not with cell-mediated immunity. These findings indicate that M. bovis infection of reindeer elicits an antibody response to multiple antigens that can be boosted by skin testing. Serological tests using carefully selected specific antigens have potential for early detection of infections in reindeer.


Pioneer studies on infectious disease and immunology by Jenner, Pasteur, Koch, Von Behring, Nocard, Roux, and Ehrlich forged a path for the dual-purpose with dual benefit approach, demonstrating a profound relevance of veterinary studies for biomedical applications. Tuberculosis (TB), primarily due to Mycobacterium tuberculosis in humans and Mycobacterium bovis in cattle, is an exemplary model for the demonstration of this concept. Early studies with cattle were instrumental in the development of the use of Koch's tuberculin as an in vivo measure of cell-mediated immunity for diagnostic purposes. Calmette and Guerin demonstrated the efficacy of an attenuated M. bovis strain (BCG) in cattle prior to use of this vaccine in humans. The interferon-gamma release assay, now widely used for TB diagnosis in humans, was developed circa 1990 for use in the Australian bovine TB eradication program. More recently, M. bovis infection and vaccine efficacy studies with cattle have demonstrated a correlation of vaccine-elicited T cell central memory (TCM) responses to vaccine efficacy, correlation of specific antibody to mycobacterial burden and lesion severity, and detection of antigen-specific IL-17 responses to vaccination and infection. Additionally, positive prognostic indicators of bovine TB vaccine efficacy (i.e., responses measured after infection) include: reduced antigen-specific IFN-gamma, iNOS, IL-4, and MIP1-alpha responses; reduced antigen-specific expansion of CD4(+) T cells; and a diminished activation profile on T cells within antigen stimulated cultures. Delayed type hypersensitivity and IFN-gamma responses correlate with infection but do not necessarily correlate with lesion severity whereas antibody responses generally correlate with lesion severity. Recently, serologic tests have emerged for the detection of tuberculous animals, particularly elephants, captive cervids, and camels. B cell aggregates are consistently detected within tuberculous lesions of humans, cattle, mice and various other species, suggesting a role for B cells in the immunopathogenesis of TB. Comparative immunology studies including partnerships of researchers with veterinary and medical perspectives will continue to provide mutual benefit to TB research in both man and animals.


The results of post-mortem examinations of 90 warthog (Phacochoerus aethiopicus) conducted in the Ruwenzori National Park, Uganda during a survey of tuberculous infection in wildlife are described. Nine per cent of warthog were found to show gross lesions on autopsy and of these organisms which could by typed, Mycobacterium bovis was isolated in 2 of 6 cases and 5 atypical mycobacterial strains were isolated from the remaining 4. The distribution and character of the lesions is described and it is concluded that the route of infection in the warthog is alimentary. A mycobacterial survey of 8 other species of mammals, 7 species of birds, 5 species of fish and 1 species of amphibian is described. None of the mammals (except possibly 1 elephant), birds, fish or amphibia was harbour atypical, probably saprophytic, mycobacterial types. The origin of tuberculosis in buffalo and warthog in the Ruwenzori National Park is discussed and is concluded to have been previous contact with domestic cattle.

Elephant tuberculosis (TB) caused by Mycobacterium tuberculosis is an important re-emerging zoonosis with considerable conservation and public health risk. We conducted prospective cohort and cross-sectional studies in elephants and wildlife staff respectively in order to identify potential risk factors associated with TB in captive Asian elephants and their handlers in Peninsular Malaysia. Sixty elephants in six different facilities were screened for TB longitudinally using the ElephantTB STAT-PAK and DPP VetTB assays from February 2012 to May 2014, and 149 wildlife staff were examined for tuberculosis infection using the QuantiFERON-TB Gold In-tube (QFT) assay from January to April, 2012. Information on potential risk factors associated with infection in both elephants and staff were collected using questionnaires and facility records. The overall seroprevalence of TB amongst the elephants was 23.3% (95% CI: 13.8-36.3) and the risk of seroconversion was significantly higher among elephants with assigned mahouts \([p = 0.022, OR = 4.9 (95\% CI: 1.3-18.2)]\). The percentage of QFT responders among wildlife staff was 24.8% (95% CI: 18.3-32.7) and the risk of infection was observed to be significantly associated with being a zoo employee \([p = 0.018, OR = 2.7 (95\% CI: 1.2-6.3)]\) or elephant handler \([p = 0.035, OR = 4.1 (95\% CI: 1.1-15.5)]\). These findings revealed a potential risk of TB infection in captive elephants and handlers in Malaysia, and emphasize the need for TB screening of newly acquired elephants, isolating sero-positive elephants and performing further diagnostic tests to determine their infection status, and screening elephant handlers for TB, pre- and post-employment.


Mycobacterium tuberculosis is an important disease of captive Asian elephants (Elephas maximus). In this study six adult Asian elephants which had Mycobacterium tuberculosis cultured from trunk wash samples or had reactive DPP/MAPIA serologic responses were treated, concurrently, with one to three antimycobacterial drugs. Enrofloxacin hydrochloride, 2.5 mg/kg p.o., s.i.d., was administered to all animals in various foodstuffs for 9-15 mo. Serum enrofloxacin concentrations ranged from 230-2380 μg/ml (targeted concentrations = 125-1000 μg/ml).1 Pyrazinamide (PZA), 30 mg/kg p.o., s.i.d., was administered to five elephants in various foodstuffs for 9-12 mo. Serum PZA concentrations ranged from 26-57 μg/ml (targeted concentrations = 20-60 μg/ml).2 Ethambutol (EMB), 30 mg/kg p.o., s.i.d., was administered to one elephant for 12 mo. A serum EMB
concentration of 4.07 μg/ml was achieved (targeted concentration = 2-6 μg/ml). Rifampin (RIF), 10 mg/kg p.o., s.i.d., was administered to one elephant for 9 mo. A serum RIF concentration of 16 μg/ml was achieved (targeted concentration = 8-24 μg/ml). All elephants were monitored for adverse clinical effects throughout treatments. Notable side effects were limited to excess, foamy lacrimation, believed to have occurred secondary to PZA administration. Clinical chemistries and complete blood counts were monitored in all animals and values remained within reference intervals throughout treatments. This study shows antimycobacterial drug dosages may require individualization, but concurrent, long-term, multidrug regimens for the treatment of Mycobacterium tuberculosis in Asian elephants can achieve appropriate therapeutic levels with minimal detrimental side effects.


We tested 3 wild Asian elephants (Elephas maximus) in southern India and confirmed infection in 3 animals with Mycobacterium tuberculosis, an obligate human pathogen, by PCR and genetic sequencing. Our results indicate that tuberculosis may be spilling over from humans (reverse zoonosis) and emerging in wild elephants.


This study was undertaken to characterize the population pharmacokinetics (PK), therapeutic dose, and preferred route of administration for pyrazinamide (PZA) in elephants. Twenty-three African (Loxodonta africana) and Asian (Elephas maximus) elephants infected with or in contact with others culture positive for Mycobacterium tuberculosis were dosed under treatment conditions. PZA was dosed daily at 20-30 mg/kg via oral (fasting or nonfasting state) or rectal (enema or suppository) administration. Blood samples were collected 0-24 h postdose. Population PK was estimated using nonlinear mixed effect modeling. Drug absorption was rapid with T(max) at or before 2 h regardless of the method of drug administration. C(max) at a mean dose of 25.6 (+/-4.6) mg/kg was 19.6 (+/-9.5 microg/mL) for PZA given orally under fasting conditions. Under nonfasting conditions at a mean dose of 26.1 +/- 4.2 mg/kg, C(max) was 25% (4.87 +/- 4.89 microg/mL) and area under concentration curve (AUC) was 30% of the values observed under fasting conditions. Mean rectal dose of 32.6 +/- 15.2 mg/kg yielded C(max) of 12.3 +/- 6.3 microg/mL, but comparable AUC to PZA administered orally while fasting. Both oral and rectal administration of PZA appeared to be acceptable and oral dosing is preferred because of the higher C(max) and lower inter-subject variability. A starting dose of 30 mg/kg is recommended with drug monitoring between 1 and 2 h postdose. Higher doses may be required if the achieved C(max) values are below the recommended 20-50 microg/mL range.

Ziccardi, M., H. N. Wong, L. A. Tell, D. Fritcher, J. Blanchard, A. Kilbourn and H. P. Godfrey (2003). Further optimization and validation of the antigen 85 immunoassay for diagnosing mycobacteriosis in wildlife. Proc Amer Assoc Zoo Vet. Mycobacteriosis caused by Mycobacterium bovis, M. tuberculosis and M. avium has been a well-documented health problem for zoological collections as long ago as the late 19th century. Prevalence estimation in these captive wildlife populations, however, has been hampered by diagnostic test methods that are oftentimes difficult or impossible to conduct and/or interpret (due to the requirement for multiple immobilizations for measurement of response), the occurrence of non-specific results with methods such as the intradermal skin test, and/or the near-total lack of validation, optimization and standardization of any of the available test methods in the species of interest. Additionally, because intradermal skin testing is the primary screening method for many of these species, the ability to compare exposure in captive wildlife with exposure in free-ranging populations has been limited due to the difficulty with follow-up in free-ranging populations. Lastly, unlike testing methods that use serological techniques, skin testing precludes retrospective studies of banked samples to determine onset of reactivity.

Recently, human tuberculosis researchers working with tuberculosis in humans have developed an immunoassay that detects a serum protein complex (the antigen 85, or Ag85, complex) produced by
mycobacteria in the early stages of mycobacterial infections\textsuperscript{1}. Previous work has shown that this method is a promising diagnostic tool in the evaluation of tuberculosis exposure in some primate (including orangutan \textit{(Pongo pygmaeus)}, a species known for non-specific tuberculin responses)\textsuperscript{2} and captive hoofstock species\textsuperscript{3}. In order to determine the feasibility and applicability of a widespread use of this method for captive and free-ranging wildlife species, we have undertaken a number of pilot studies on different populations of interest, with the goals of optimizing and validating the immunoassay through analysis of serum from known infected and non-infected individuals and through comparisons with other diagnostic methods. Thus far, we have begun evaluating the applicability of the antigen 85 immunoassay in various avian, primate, rhinoceros and hoofstock species for detecting tuberculosis and/or paratuberculosis (Johne's disease) infections. Preliminary results, a summary of which will be presented, indicate that this method may be a valuable adjunct to other testing methods (including gamma interferon and multiple-antigen ELISA) to allow a better evaluation of true mycobacterial status in these species.

LITERATURE CITED


In 2013, public health officials in Multnomah County, Oregon, started an investigation of a tuberculosis (TB) outbreak among elephants and humans at a local zoo. The investigation ultimately identified three bull elephants with active TB and 118 human contacts of the elephants. Ninety-six (81%) contacts were evaluated, and seven close contacts were found to have latent TB infection. The three bulls were isolated and treated (elephants with TB typically are not euthanized) to prevent infection of other animals and humans, and persons with latent infection were offered treatment. Improved TB screening methods for elephants are needed to prevent exposure of human contacts.