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► **To cite this version:**

Amirah Amir, Shahhaziq Shahari, Jonathan Wee Kent Liew, Jeremy Ryan de Silva, Mohammad Behram Khan, et al. Natural Plasmodium infection in wild macaques of three states in peninsular Malaysia. *Acta Tropica*, 2020, 211, pp.105596. 10.1016/j.actatropica.2020.105596 . hal-03059789

HAL Id: hal-03059789

<https://cnrs.hal.science/hal-03059789>

Submitted on 4 Sep 2021

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1 **Natural *Plasmodium* infection in wild macaques of three states in**

2 **Peninsular Malaysia**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Zoonotic cases of *Plasmodium knowlesi* account for most malaria cases in Malaysia, and humans
20 infected with *P. cynomolgi*, another parasite of macaques have recently been reported in Sarawak.
21 To date the epidemiology of malaria in its natural *Macaca* reservoir hosts remains little
22 investigated. In this study we surveyed the prevalence of simian malaria in wild macaques of three

23 states in Peninsular Malaysia, namely Pahang, Perak and Johor using blood samples from 103 wild
24 macaques (collected by the Department of Wildlife and National Parks Peninsular Malaysia)
25 subjected to microscopic examination and nested PCR targeting the *Plasmodium* small subunit
26 ribosomal RNA gene. As expected, PCR analysis yielded significantly higher prevalence (64/103)
27 as compared to microscopic examination (27/103). No relationship between the age and/or sex of
28 the macaques with the parasitaemia and the *Plasmodium* species infecting the macaques could be
29 identified. Wild macaques in Pahang had the highest prevalence of *Plasmodium* parasites (89.7%),
30 followed by those of Perak (69.2%) and Johor (28.9%). *Plasmodium inui* and *P. cynomolgi* were
31 the two most prevalent species infecting the macaques from all three states. Half of the macaques
32 (33/64) harboured two or more *Plasmodium* species. These data provide a baseline survey, which
33 should be extended by further longitudinal investigations that should be associated with studies on
34 the bionomics of the anopheline vectors. This information will allow an accurate evaluation of the
35 risk of zoonotic transmission to humans, and to elaborate effective strategies to control simian
36 malaria.

37 **Keywords:** Malaria, *Plasmodium*, Macaque, Zoonosis, Malaysia

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 The global mortality of malaria estimated at 405,000 deaths in 2018 (WHO, 2019) is
41 primarily due to infection by two of the four *Plasmodium* species that infect humans, primarily
42 *P. falciparum* but also *P. vivax*. However, over the recent years the burden of clinical malaria
43 in Malaysia is predominantly due to infection by *P. knowlesi*, a parasite of macaques. Although
44 it had long been known that humans are susceptible to this species through experimental
45 infections (Knowles and Das Gupta, 1932), only one single case of naturally acquired knowlesi
46 malaria was recorded in the 1960's (Chin et al., 1965). The true zoonotic potential was only

47 recognized with the discovery in 2004 of focus of zoonotic *P. knowlesi* in Sarawak (Singh et
48 al., 2004).

49 Eight *Macaca* species in Southeast Asia are known to be the natural host of one or more
50 of six species of *Plasmodium*: *P. coatneyi*, *P. cynomolgi*, *P. fieldi*, *P. fragile*, *P. inui*, *P.*
51 *knowlesi*, and *P. simiovale* (Coatney et al., 1971). It is thought that recent environmental and
52 social changes have contributed to increase the proximity of humans to wild macaques. Thus,
53 deforestation and the associated exploitation of these new areas for agriculture has brought
54 macaques and their anopheline vectors closer to the human habitats (Fornace et al., 2016).
55 Furthermore, the rising popularity of eco-tourism has also brought humans closer to the natural
56 habitat of macaques. Consequently, over the last decade a rising number of zoonotic knowlesi
57 malaria cases are recorded in Malaysia, particularly in the states of Sarawak and Sabah in
58 Borneo, (Barber et al., 2017). Furthermore since 2004, knowlesi malaria cases were reported
59 in many of the Southeast Asian countries where macaques are endemic (Cox-Singh, 2012) and
60 there are reports of tourists diagnosed with *P. knowlesi* after returning from southeast Asia to
61 their non-endemic countries (Müller and Schlagenhauf, 2014). In the last years, naturally
62 acquired *P. cynomolgi*, were recorded in individual, albeit in a small number, who acquired
63 their infection in Southeast Asia (Ta et al., 2014; Grignard et al., 2019; Hartmeyer et al., 2019;
64 Imwong et al., 2019). *P. cynomolgi*, along with *P. inui*, are two species that had previously
65 been shown to be capable of infecting humans by experimental transmission through the bites
66 of infected mosquitoes (Contacos et al., 1962; Coatney et al., 1966).

67 In addition to posing a threat to current efforts to eliminate malaria, zoonotic knowlesi
68 malaria can lead to life-threatening clinical severity. There is therefore an imperative to
69 elaborate control strategies that will minimize host-switching from non-human primates to
70 human. This would require knowledge of the epidemiology of macaque *Plasmodium* species
71 and their vectors. However, such knowledge is scant as the study of malaria parasites in their

72 natural *Macaca* hosts have been historically few in number and in scope with few surveys
73 carried out in peninsular Malaysia, and none in Malaysian Borneo, the last of which was
74 performed in the early 1990's (Fooden, 1994). Five surveys were carried out following the
75 discovery of zoonotic knowlesi in 2004. One was conducted in Sarawak (Lee et al., 2011; Nada
76 Raja et al., 2018) and one in Sabah (Muehlenbein et al., 2015), the two states of Malaysian
77 Borneo. Three surveys focused on macaques in peninsular Malaysia (Vythilingam et al., 2008;
78 Ho et al., 2010; Akter et al., 2015) in animals predominantly collected from Selangor State,
79 though species determination was only carried out for *P. knowlesi* in the first two. In this
80 manuscript we present a survey of the *Plasmodium* species in wild-caught monkeys from three
81 geographically distinct states of Peninsular Malaysia, Pahang, Johor and Perak (Fig. 1).

82

83 **2. Materials and methods**

84 **2.1. Sample collections**

85 A total of 98 blood samples from long-tailed macaque (*Macaca fascicularis*) and 5 from
86 pig-tailed macaque (*Macaca nemestrina*) were collected by the Department of Wildlife and
87 National Parks (DWNP) Peninsular Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia in March 2016 (from
88 Kuala Lipis and Temerloh, Pahang, Malaysia) and in August 2016 (from Kampung Maran,
89 Manong, and Kuala Gula, Perak, Malaysia; and Batu Pahat and Ayer Hitam, Johor, Malaysia)
90 (Fig. 1). The macaques were caught by the DWNP as part of the on-going Wildlife Disease
91 Surveillance Programme (WDSP) and the sampling protocol was approved by UC Davis
92 IACUC (Protocol No. 16048). Blood was drawn into a 6 mL heparin blood collection tube via
93 venepuncture of the vein in the femoral or forearm of the anaesthetized macaques. The blood
94 samples were transported at room temperature and later fractionated into whole blood/packed
95 red blood cells/plasma. The fractionated samples were kept at -20°C until further analysis.

96 This project was approved by University of Malaya Institutional Animal Care and Use
97 Committee (PAR/3/05/2016/LYL (R)).

98

99 **2.2. Thin and thick blood smears**

100 Thin and thick blood smears were prepared for each sample. Thick blood smears were
101 dehaemoglobinized in distilled water before staining with 10% Giemsa solution in phosphate-
102 buffered saline (pH 7.2). Thin blood smears were fixed with absolute methanol and then stained
103 using 10% Giemsa solution in phosphate-buffered saline (pH 7.2). At least 100 and 300 fields
104 of the thick and thin blood smears, respectively, were examined for the presence of malaria
105 parasites at 100x oil immersion. A blood sample was considered negative if no malaria
106 parasites were seen in thick blood smears.

107

108 **2.3. DNA extraction**

109 DNA was extracted from 100 µL of whole blood using DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit
110 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. DNA was eluted in 100
111 µL elution buffer and kept at -20 °C until further use.

112

113 **2.4. PCR amplification**

114 Detection of 5 simian malaria parasite species in all macaques was performed using a
115 nested PCR protocol, which targets the *Plasmodium* small subunit ribosomal RNA (18S rRNA)
116 gene. The primers used for the assay have been previously described by Snounou et al. (1993),
117 Imwong et al. (2009) and Lee et al. (2011). PCR amplification reaction for nested 1 assay was
118 performed in a final volume of 25 µL containing 4 µL of template DNA, 1X of PCR buffer,

119 0.4 μ M of each primer (rPLU1 and rPLU5), 200 μ M of dNTP mix, 4 mM of MgCl₂ and 1U of
120 *Taq* DNA polymerase (Promega, USA). Cycling parameter consisted of denaturation at 94°C
121 for 4 min, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 58°C for 1 min, 72°C for 1 min and a final
122 extension at 72°C for 5 min. The primers used was *Plasmodium* genus, rPLU1: 5'-
123 TCAAAGATTAAGCCATGCAAGTGA-3' and rPLU5: 5'-
124 CCTGTTGTTGCCTTAAACTCC-3'. For each 25 μ L of nested 2 PCR amplification, 4 μ L of
125 nested 1 PCR amplification product was used as DNA template. The conditions and
126 concentrations of reagents used in the secondary amplifications were identical to those used in
127 the primary reactions, except for the annealing temperatures (*P. knowlesi* and *P. inui*: 58°C; *P.*
128 *coatneyi* and *P. cynomolgi*: 60°C; *P. fieldi*: 66°C), and total cycles were changed to 30 cycles.
129 Species specific primers were used for nest 2: *P. knowlesi*, PkF1140: 5'-
130 GATTCATCTATTA AAAATTTGCTTC-3' and PkR1550: 5'-
131 GAGTTCTAATCTCCGGAGAGAAAAGA-3'; *P. cynomolgi*, CY2F: 5'-
132 GATTTGCTAAATTGCGGTCG-3' and CY4R: 5'-CGGTATGATAAGCCAGGGAAGT-3';
133 *P. coatney*, PctF1: 5'-CGCTTTTAGCTTAAATCCACATAACAGAC-3' and PctR1: 5'-
134 GAGTCCTAACCCCGAAGGGAAAGG-3'; *P. inui*, PinF2: 5'-
135 CGTATCGACTTTGTGGCATT TTTTCTAC-3' and INAR3: 5'-
136 GCAATCTAAGAGTTTTAACTCCTC-3'; *P. fieldi*, PfldF1: 5'-
137 GGTCTTTTTTTTGCTTCGGTAATTA-3' and PfldR2: 5'-
138 AGGCACTGAAGGAAGCAATCTAAGAGTTTC-3'. The amplification products were
139 analyzed using 2% agarose gel electrophoresis

140

141 3. Results

142 The demographic data of the 98 long-tailed macaques and 5 pig-tailed macaques
143 sampled in this study are summarized in Table 1. All macaques appeared to be in the good

144 health with no overt clinical signs at the time of sampling. Malaria infection was detected using
145 both microscopy and nested PCR. PCR analysis yielded an overall prevalence of 62.1%
146 (64/103), which is more than double that obtained by microscopy (26.2%; 27/103). Indeed,
147 only 3 of the 15 PCR positive macaques and none of the 11 sampled in Perak and Johor,
148 respectively, were positive by microscopy (Table 2). In a majority of the cases (20/27) where
149 parasites were detectable on the smears the estimated parasitaemias were generally above 500
150 P/ μ L blood, though in only 4 of the animals did this value exceed 5000 P/ μ L (Table 3). Pahang
151 had the highest prevalence of simian malaria with 30/34 *M. fascicularis* and 5/5 *M. nemestrina*
152 found positive (89.7%), followed by 18/26 in Perak (69.2%) and 11/38 in Johor (28.9%). No
153 relationship between the age and/or sex of the macaques with the parasitaemia and the
154 *Plasmodium* species infecting the macaques could be identified.

155 The distribution and frequency of infections in all the positive macaques are detailed in
156 Table 4 and Table 5. Overall, the two most prevalent species detected were *Plasmodium inui*
157 in Pahang State (26/35 positive samples) followed by *P. cynomolgi* (18/35), with all 5 *M.*
158 *nemestrina* infected with *P. inui*. In Perak State, *P. cynomolgi* infections were more frequent
159 (16/18) followed by *P. inui* (9/18). These two species were equally prevalent in Johor State
160 (8/11 with *P. cynomolgi* and 7/11 with *P. inui*). It is interesting to note that *P. knowlesi* was
161 detected in only 9/34 animals in Pahang State, and in only one of the sampled macaques in the
162 other two states. *Plasmodium fieldi* was the rarest parasite in the current samples, with only 4
163 macaques found to harbour it, two in Pahang State and two in Perak State.

164 Overall, a little more than half of the animals (33/64) were infected with two or more
165 *Plasmodium* species. In 21 of these, two species were detected, with a maximum of four species
166 in 5 macaques.

167

168 **4. Discussion**

169 The potential for zoonotic malaria, caused by *Plasmodium* species originating from
170 non-human primates, is not restricted to Southeast Asia (Escalante and Pacheco 2019
171 Microbiology Spectrum AM-0010-2019). In Africa, higher apes are known to be infected by
172 many parasites species that are morphologically similar to those of humans (Coatney et al.
173 1971) (Rayner et al. 2011 Trends in Parasitology 27:222). Two of these, *P. rodhaini* and *P.*
174 *schwetzi* can infect humans under experimental conditions, however, to date there is no
175 evidence that any of the ape parasite species have crossed to humans. This also the case for the
176 poorly investigated malaria parasites of other non-human primates in Africa. Only two species
177 of parasite are known to occur naturally in South American monkeys. It is thought that they
178 originated from a transfer from humans to monkeys following the colonisation of South
179 American by Europeans about 500 years ago. *P. brasilianum* and *P. malariae* are probably the
180 same species, and *P. simium* is closely related if not equivalent to *P. vivax*. Indeed, zoonotic
181 cases have also been reported for both species (Brasil et al. 2017 The Lancet. Global Health
182 5:e1038) (Lalremruata et al. EBioMedicine 2015 2:1186). The situation in Southeast Asia is
183 distinguished by the fact that one species *Plasmodium knowlesi* that naturally infects lower
184 primates has emerged recently to become the dominant species in humans in Malaysia.
185 Southeast Asian macaques harbour other parasites species, two of which can infect humans (*P.*
186 *cynomolgi* and *P. inui*), but little is known concerning their distribution and epidemiology,
187 hence the value of the survey presented here.

188 There are three features of the infection patterns in macaques noted in our survey that
189 concord with previously conducted similar studies of wild *Macaca* populations. First, multiple
190 species of *Plasmodium* circulate in these populations, second, these species are frequently
191 found as mixed infections, and third the infections are in the majority chronic with relatively
192 low parasite burdens. The data from the current and past surveys are useful, however, they
193 merely provide a snapshot of the infections and their corresponding *Plasmodium* species at the

194 time of collection. Indeed, there are limitations that council caution when drawing conclusions
195 as to the comparative epidemiology of the infection. The surveys conducted on malaria
196 parasites naturally found in macaques span more than a century (Fooden, 1994), with only few
197 conducted in recent times. However, the number of animals sampled in each survey is variable
198 and often relatively low. Furthermore, collections are often made at a single time point or made
199 at over a span of a few months (as is the case in our surveys). Finally, the collections are made
200 in distinct locations during each survey. Finally, meaningful conclusions from comparisons are
201 further confounded by variations in the primers and amplification protocols used to detect and
202 determine the parasite species. This notwithstanding, when all the recent surveys carried out
203 throughout Southeast Asia are considered it would appear that *P. cynomolgi* and *P. inui* are the
204 most prevalent species, with *P. fieldi* being the least frequent.

205 The results of the various surveys with respect to *P. knowlesi* merit consideration. Over
206 the past years, zoonotic knowlesi malaria constitutes more than 80% of the recorded cases in
207 Malaysia and of these more than 80% occur in Malaysian Borneo. By contrast, such cases are
208 only occasionally reported from neighbouring countries where the natural hosts and their
209 vectors are endemic. In this context it is interesting to note that the point prevalences reported
210 for *P. knowlesi* infections in their natural hosts were low (< 1%) in all the countries where
211 surveys were carried out except for two: Malaysia and Singapore. In Singapore, none of the
212 monkeys from peri-urban areas were found infected, whereas 66 of the 92 from military
213 restricted wild areas were positive for *Plasmodium*, with 30 of these (i.e. a prevalence of ca.
214 33%) harboured *P. knowlesi* (Li, 2011). It is of note that all 5 cases of autochthonous knowlesi
215 cases in Singapore occurred in military personnel following training in the restricted forested
216 areas (Wong et al., 2011). In Malaysia, *P. knowlesi* was detected in 71/82 *M. fascicularis* and
217 in 13/26 *M. nemestrina* (Lee et al., 2011). The observations for Peninsular Malaysia are
218 interesting in that the data from surveys conducted in the same state (albeit not at the same

219 location) over different years are available. Thus, for macaque populations from Selangor State,
220 the prevalence of *P. knowlesi* was 0% (0/70 animals sampled), 21% (23/107) and 30% (21/70)
221 for the surveys carried out in 2007, 2010 and 2014, respectively (Vythilingam et al., 2008; Ho
222 et al., 2010; Akter et al., 2015). Two surveys were carried out in Pahang State, one in 2007
223 (Vythilingam et al., 2008) and the one presented here, in which samples were collected in 2016,
224 yielding a prevalence of 13% (10/75) and 26% (9/34). Overall, these observations on the point
225 prevalence of *P. knowlesi* in wild macaques concord with that of the zoonotic cases. In this
226 context, the data suggest that the risk of zoonotic knowlesi in Pahang State might have
227 increased over the years.

228 Nonetheless, we recognise that data from punctual surveys are insufficient to guide the
229 elaboration of control plans. In order to obtain data suitable for this, future surveys should fulfil
230 the following conditions. First, defined sentinel sites (or indeed *Macaca* populations) should
231 be sampled and monitored longitudinally using standard amplification protocols for the
232 detection of *P. knowlesi* and *P. cynomolgi* (the two species known to cause zoonotic malaria),
233 and if possible, for the other species known to infect macaques. Given the propensity of natural
234 infections to remain chronic with low number of parasites over many months, the reliance on
235 blood samples should be favoured, as the more practical and less invasive faecal sampling
236 (Siregar et al., 2015) is highly likely to underestimate the true species prevalence.

237 Finally, surveys on the vertebrate hosts must be associated with investigations of the
238 anopheline vectors, as ultimately zoonotic malaria does not occur where the macaque-
239 mosquito-human contacts do not occur. Anopheline species of the *Leucosphyrus* group are
240 known to be vectors for simian malaria in Southeast Asia. Although most mosquitoes of this
241 group feed on macaques in forested area, some have been shown to be attracted to both humans
242 and macaques (Vythilingam and Hii, 2013). For example, *Anopheles cracens*, a dominant
243 exophagic species which has been incriminated as the vector for *P. knowlesi* in Kuala Lipis,

244 Pahang, was shown to bite man and macaque equally early in the evening and at ground level
245 (Jiram et al., 2012). These observations combined with the apparent increase of *P. knowlesi*
246 prevalence in Pahang State would indicate that the residents are at an increased risk of zoonotic
247 infection.

248

249 **5. Conclusion**

250 Residents of Southeast Asia areas where macaques are endemic are a potential risk of
251 acquiring zoonotic *P. knowlesi*, *P. cynomolgi* and *P. inui* infections, since humans are
252 permissive for these three species. To date, only zoonotic *knowlesi*, which can be fatal,
253 constitutes a serious public health threat, most particularly in Malaysian Borneo. Recently
254 observed zoonotic *P. cynomolgi* is likely to be more benign clinically, and to date, zoonotic
255 inui cases have not been recorded. Nonetheless, the increasing encroachment of humans into
256 macaque habitats, and vice versa, might lead to the expansion of zoonotic malaria. It would be
257 judicious to instigate monitoring of wild macaques and their vectors in order to gain a better
258 understanding into the epidemiology of the *Plasmodium* parasites they harbour so as to propose
259 viable effective steps to minimize the risk of zoonotic infections.

260

261 **CRedit author statement**

262 **Amirah Amir:** Investigation, Writing – Original Draft, Funding Acquisition.

263 **Shahhaziq Shahari:** Investigation, Data Curation, Visualization. **Jonathan Wee Kent Liew:**

264 Investigation, Data Curation, Visualization. **Jeremy Ryan de Silva:** Investigation.

265 **Mohammad Behram Khan:** Investigation. **Meng Yee Lai:** Investigation, Data Curation.

266 **Georges Snounou:** Writing- Reviewing and Editing. **Mohd Lutfi Abdullah:** Investigation,

267 Resources. **Millawati Gani:** Investigation, Resources. **Jeffrine J. Rovie-Ryan:** Investigation,

268 Resources, Visualization. **Yee-Ling Lau:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Project
269 Administration.

270

271 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

272 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

273

274 **Acknowledgement**

275 This study was funded by the Long Term Research Grant Scheme (LR002B-2018),
276 Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia.

277 We would like to thank the Outbreak Response Team of the Department of Wildlife
278 and National Parks Peninsular Malaysia and EcoHealth Alliance Malaysia for their assistance
279 in acquiring macaque blood samples through the WDSP and PREDICT Malaysia Project. We
280 further wish to thank the support of the Programme PHC HIBISCUS 2019 (Project 43887YL)
281 for the collaboration between the group of G.S. and that of Y.L.L.

282

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369 **Fig. 1.** Sites of origin and the number of macaques sampled from each site. 1= Kuala Gula,
370 Bagan Serai (11 Mf); 2= Kampung Maran, Kuala Kangsar (4 Mf); Manong, Kuala Kangsar
371 (11 Mf); 4= Kuala Lipis (11 Mf); 5= Temerloh (23 Mf, 5 Mn); 6= Batu Pahat (33 Mf); 7= Ayer
372 Hitam (5 Mf).

373 Mf: *Macaca fascicularis*; Mn: *Macaca nemestrina*

374 **Table 1**

375 Demographic data of wild macaques sampled.

| Place | Species | Sex | | | Age | | | |
|--------|----------------------------|------|--------|--------------------------|-------|----------|----------|--------------------------|
| | | Male | Female | Unavailable ^a | Adult | Subadult | Juvenile | Unavailable ^a |
| Pahang | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> | 21 | 11 | 2 | 23 | 1 | 9 | 1 |
| | <i>Macaca nemestrina</i> | 2 | 3 | | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Perak | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> | 17 | 9 | 0 | 16 | 0 | 10 | 0 |
| Johor | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> | 22 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 38 |
| Total | | 62 | 39 | 2 | 44 | 1 | 19 | 39 |

^a Information was not recorded by Department of Wildlife and National Parks, Malaysia.

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379 **Table 2**

380 Prevalence of malaria parasite in wild macaques by state.

| State | Host species | PCR positive | Prevalence (%) | Microscopy positive | Prevalence (%) |
|------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Pahang | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> (n=34) | 30 | 88.2 | 19 | 55.9 |
| | <i>Macaca nemestrina</i> (n=5) | 5 | 100.0 | 5 | 100.0 |
| Perak | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> (n=26) | 18 | 69.2 | 3 | 11.5 |
| Johor | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> (n=38) | 11 | 28.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Total (N=103) | | 64 | 62.1 | 27 | 26.2 |

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383 **Table 3**

384 Parasitaemia count of microscopy positive samples by state.

| State | Host species | Parasitemia (%) | | | Total |
|--------------|----------------------------|-----------------|-----------|---------|-------|
| | | <0.01 | 0.01-0.09 | 0.1-1.0 | |
| Pahang | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> | 6 | 9 | 4 | 19 |
| | <i>Macaca nemestrina</i> | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 |
| Perak | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Total | | 7 | 16 | 4 | 27 |

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389 **Table 4**390 Distribution of *Plasmodium* species in infected macaques by state.

| Location | Host species | <i>Plasmodium</i> species | Infected | Prevalence (%) | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|------|
| Pahang | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> (n=34) | <i>P. knowlesi</i> | 9 | 26.5 | |
| | | <i>P. cynomolgi</i> | 17 | 50.0 | |
| | | <i>P. inui</i> | 21 | 61.8 | |
| | | <i>P. coatneyi</i> | 9 | 26.5 | |
| | | <i>P. fieldi</i> | 2 | 5.9 | |
| | <i>Macaca nemestrina</i> (n=5) | <i>P. cynomolgi</i> | 1 | 20.0 | |
| | | <i>P. inui</i> | 5 | 100.0 | |
| | | <i>P. coatneyi</i> | 3 | 60.0 | |
| | Perak | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> (n=26) | <i>P. knowlesi</i> | 1 | 3.8 |
| | | | <i>P. cynomolgi</i> | 16 | 61.5 |
| <i>P. inui</i> | | | 9 | 34.6 | |
| <i>P. coatneyi</i> | | | 1 | 3.8 | |
| <i>P. fieldi</i> | | | 2 | 7.7 | |
| Johor | <i>Macaca fascicularis</i> (n=38) | <i>P. knowlesi</i> | 1 | 2.6 | |
| | | <i>P. cynomolgi</i> | 8 | 21.1 | |
| | | <i>P. inui</i> | 7 | 18.4 | |
| | | <i>P. coatneyi</i> | 1 | 2.6 | |
| | | <i>P. fieldi</i> | 0 | 0.0 | |

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393 **Table 5**

394 Summary of malaria parasite infection in wild macaques by state.

| Location | Host species | Infection | <i>Plasmodium</i> spp. | Infected | Total | Percentage (%) | | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|-------|----------------|-----------------|---|------|
| <i>Macaca</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| Pahang (n=30) | <i>fasicularis</i> | Mono | Pco | 3 | 13 | 43.3 | | | |
| | | | Pcy | 3 | | | | | |
| | | | Pin | 6 | | | | | |
| | | Dual | Pfi | 1 | 9 | 30.0 | | | |
| | | | Pcy + Pin | 5 | | | | | |
| | | | Pcy + Pco | 1 | | | | | |
| | | | Pco + Pin | 2 | | | | | |
| | | Triple | Pk + Pco | 1 | 5 | 16.7 | | | |
| | | | Pk + Pcy + Pin | 5 | | | | | |
| | | Quadruple | Pk + Pcy + Pin + Pfi | 1 | 3 | 10.0 | | | |
| Pk + Pcy + Pin + Pco | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Macaca</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| | <i>nemestrina</i> (n=5) | Mono | Pin | 2 | 2 | 40.0 | | | |
| | | | Dual | Pco + Pin | | | 2 | 2 | 40.0 |
| | | | | Triple | | | Pcy + Pco + Pin | | |
| <i>Macaca</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| Perak | <i>fasicularis</i> (n=18) | Mono | Pcy | 8 | 10 | 55.5 | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------|-----------|----------------------|---|---|------|
| | | | Pin | 2 | | |
| | | Dual | Pcy + Pin | 5 | 6 | 33.3 |
| | | | Pcy +Pco | 1 | | |
| | | Triple | Pcy + Pin + Pfi | 1 | 1 | 5.6 |
| | | Quadruple | Pk + Pcy + Pin + Pfi | 1 | 1 | 5.6 |
| <hr/> | | | | | | |
| | <i>Macaca</i> | | | | | |
| Johor | <i>fasicularis</i> | Mono | Pcy | 4 | 6 | 54.5 |
| | (n=11) | | | | | |
| | | | Pin | 2 | | |
| | | Dual | Pcy + Pin | 3 | 4 | 36.4 |
| | | | Pco + Pin | 1 | | |
| | | Triple | Pk + Pcy + Pin | 1 | 1 | 9.1 |
| <hr/> | | | | | | |
| Pco: <i>P. coatneyi</i> ; Pcy: <i>P. cynomolgi</i> ; Pin: <i>P. inui</i> ; Pfi: <i>P. fieldi</i> ; Pk: <i>P. knowlesi</i> | | | | | | |

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