

ZOONOTIC AND INFECTIOUS DISEASE SURVEILLANCE IN ECUADOR: *EHRlichia canis*, *ANAPLASMA PHAGOCYTOPHILUM*, *BORRELIA BURGdorferi*, AND *DIROFILARIA IMMITIS* PREVALENCE RATES IN CANINES

Implications for Special Operations Forces Medical Operations, Personnel, and Canines

MAJ Michael E. McCown, DVM, DACVPM; Victor H. Monterroso, MV, MS, PhD, DACLAM; and SFC Benjamin Grzeszak

ABSTRACT

Vector-borne diseases (VBD) make up a large number of emerging infectious and zoonotic diseases. Ticks, fleas, and mosquitoes are effective vectors parasitizing canines, making dogs adequate reservoirs for zoonoses. The U.S. military deploys personnel and government-owned animals around the world with possible risk of exposure to VBD. Canine VBD have veterinary and public health significance for the host nations as well as for the U.S. troops and its working animals deployed in the theater of operations. These factors make disease surveillance a great importance. The objective of this work was to survey canines from the cities of Manta and Guayaquil in Ecuador to determine prevalence of heartworm disease (*D. immitis*), ehrlichiosis (*E. canis*), Lyme disease (*B. burgdorferi*), and anaplasmosis (*A. phagocytophilum*). Canine blood samples (1-3ml) collected from the cities of Manta (n=50) and Guayaquil (n=50) were tested on site using a SNAP® 4Dx® Test Kit. Prevalence for single or multiple disease status was calculated for each city. In the city of Manta the overall prevalence of diseases was 78%; 52% for *E. canis* alone, and 26% for co-infection with *E. canis* and *A. phagocytophilum*. The overall prevalence for the city of Guayaquil was 88%; 40% for *E. canis* alone, 22% for *A. phagocytophilum* alone, and 26% for co-infection with *E. canis* and *A. phagocytophilum*. Neither heartworm disease nor Lyme disease was detected in any sample. In conclusion, this study showed the extensive presence of *E. canis* and *A. phagocytophilum* in both cities in Ecuador, emphasizing the value of surveillance for zoonotic diseases to determine disease prevalence and risk assessments, as well as to implement control measures.

INTRODUCTION

Vector-borne diseases (VBD) are rapidly emerging and globally distributed.^{1,2} In recent years, large numbers of the emerging infections and zoonotic (animal disease that can be transmitted to humans) diseases are described to be caused by arthropod-borne pathogens.² Ticks, fleas, mosquitoes, and phlebotomine sand flies are ectoparasitic arthropods and effective vectors of a large number of pathogens. Canine populations are susceptible to arthropod parasites, making dogs adequate reservoirs for infectious animal and zoonotic diseases such as heartworm disease (*Dirofilaria immitis*), ehrlichiosis (*Ehrlichia canis*), Lyme disease (*Borrelia burgdorferi*), and anaplasmosis (*Anaplasma phagocytophilum*).³⁻⁸ The U.S. military deploys personnel and government-owned animals to different regions of the world with possible risk of exposure to vector-borne diseases.⁷⁻¹¹ Because of veterinary and public health significance and the impact of canine vector-borne diseases in susceptible populations in the host nations as well as in U.S. troops and animals, surveillance of such disease is of great importance for current and future military deployments in order to decrease disease exposure risk and occupational and environmental hazard.^{10,12-16} The objective of this work was to survey canines from the cities of Manta and Guayaquil in Ecuador in order to determine prevalence of heartworm disease, Lyme disease, ehrlichiosis, and anaplasmosis.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Canine blood samples were collected in the Ecuadorian port cities of Manta and Guayaquil (Figure 1). The city of Manta is located in the province of Manabí in the central western Ecuador (0°

57' 0.08" S 80° 42' 58.3" W), and the city of Guayaquil is located in the province of Guayas (2° 11' S 79° 53' W) on the banks of the Guayas River. Guayaquil was selected for this study because it is Ecuador's largest and most populated city and Manta because of the U.S. troop and civilian contingency assigned to the U.S. Military Base there. A sample each of n=50 canines from Manta and Guayaquil were included (n=100). Dogs volunteered by local veterinary clinics and pet grooming facilities were included. Samples also included free roaming dogs collected by veterinary clinics' staff or brought into the clinic for a veterinary exam by a community member (Figure 2). A 1-3cc blood sample was obtained by venipuncture of the cephalic vein from each canine, and the sample was divided and placed into a tube with EDTA and a tube without additives. Each sample (whole blood) was tested on site for heartworm disease (*D. immitis* antigen), ehrlichiosis (antibody to *E. canis*), Lyme disease (antibody to *B. burgdorferi*), and anaplasmosis (antibody to *A. phagocytophilum*), using a SNAP® 4Dx® Test Kit (IDEXX Laboratories, Inc., Westbrook, ME), following the manufacturer's instructions.¹⁷ SNAP® 4Dx® is a rapid assay test system using enzyme-linked immunoabsorbent assay (ELISA). After testing, samples were transported under cold conditions to a refrigerated unit and store at -20°C. Results from each blood sample were recorded as positive or negative for any of the diseases tested. In addition, the number of positive or negative samples for each individual disease, as well as the samples positive to more than one disease agent were recorded.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Local prevalence for single or multiple disease status was calculated as the proportion of positive samples from the total of the samples tested on each city. Odd ratios (statistical odd is referred to the odd of an event occurring calculated by dividing the probability of the event by the probability of the event not occurring) for single or multiple diseases among cities were compared by logistic regression analysis using the PROC LOGISTIC function of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS 9.2).¹⁸

RESULTS

In Manta the overall prevalence for the tested diseases was 78% (Table 1). Dogs positive for *E. canis* as a single infection or in co-infection with *A. phagocytophilum* were identified (Table 1). However, from the tested dogs no antibody positive animals for *A. phagocytophilum* alone or single infection were found (Figure 3, Table 1).

The overall prevalence for the tested diseases was 88% in Guayaquil (Table 2). Forty percent of samples were positive for *E. canis* and 22% for *A. phagocytophilum*. In addition, 26% of the samples were positive to co-infection with *E. canis* and *A. phagocytophilum* (Table 2, Figure 4). In both cities, all blood samples tested were negative for heartworm (*D. immitis*) antigen and Lyme disease (*B. burgdorferi*) antibody (Tables 1 and 2). The proportion of antibody and/or antigen positive samples by organism within the total positive samples by city is shown in Table 3, with *E. canis* having the higher proportion in both cities. Logistic regression analysis



Figure 1: Local children and dogs from the cities of Manta and Guayaquil, Ecuador. A-Shows a dog from Manta. B-Same dog with a high burden of ticks. C-Ticks on tub after bathing and grooming. D and E-Children and pet dogs from Manta. F-Dogs from Guayaquil.

Table 1: Number of positive samples to antigen or antibody in canine blood samples collected in the city of Manta, Ecuador.

Causative organism	Antigen or antibody positive/all tested dogs	Prevalence
At least ≥ 1 organism	39/50	78%
<i>Ehrlichia canis</i> (total)	39/50	78%
<i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> (total)	13/50	26%
<i>Ehrlichia canis</i> (alone)	26/50	52%
<i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> (alone)	0/50	0%
<i>E. canis</i> + <i>A. phagocytophilum</i> (co-infection)	13/50	26%
<i>Borrelia burgdorferi</i>	0/50	0%
<i>Dirofilaria immitis</i>	0/50	0%



Figure 2: Map of the country of Ecuador in South America, showing the port cities of Manta and Guayaquil.

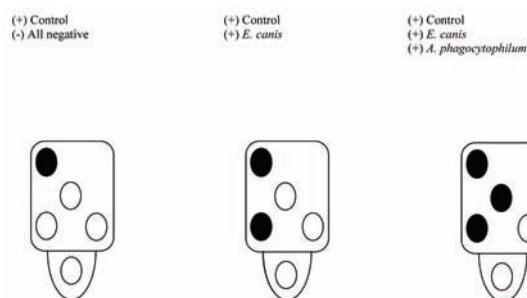


Figure 3: Depiction of on-site test results observed and recorded in the city of Manta.

showed that the odds of being positive to *E. canis* and/or *A. phagocytophilum* are 0.5 times larger for a dog in the city of Guayaquil than for a dog in the city of Manta. However, the odds of being positive to *E. canis* are 1.8 times larger for dogs in the city of Manta than the odds of being positive for dogs in the city of Guayaquil. For *A. phagocytophilum*, the odds for a dog in the city of Manta were 0.6 times less likely to be positive than the odds for a dog in Guayaquil of being positive to *A. phagocytophilum*.

DISCUSSION

Both Manta and Guayaquil are coastal cities at sea-level with hot, humid year-round tropical climates. Tropical humid climates provide an adequate environment for the presence of vectors such as ticks and mosquitoes.^{19, 20} In South America, the presence of arthropod vectors such as *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (brown dog tick), *Ixodes spp* ticks, and *Aedes albopictus* and *Anopheles spp* mosquitoes have been reported.^{21,22,23} Presence of these arthropod vectors is of significance since *R. sanguineus* is the primary vector

Table 2: Number of positive samples to antigen or antibody in canine blood samples collected in the city of Guayaquil, Ecuador.

Causative organism	Antigen or antibody positive/all tested dogs	Prevalence
At least ≥ 1 organism	44/50	88%
<i>Ehrlichia canis</i> (total)	33/50	66%
<i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> (total)	24/50	48%
<i>Ehrlichia canis</i> (alone)	20/50	40%
<i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> (alone)	11/50	22%
<i>E. canis</i> + <i>A. phagocytophilum</i> (co-infection)	13/50	26%
<i>Borrelia burgdorferi</i>	0/50	0%
<i>Dirofilaria immitis</i>	0/50	0%

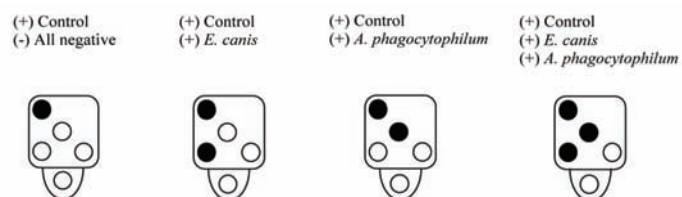


Figure 4: Depiction of on-site test results observed and recorded in the city of Guayaquil, Ecuador.

Table 3: Proportion of antibody/antigen positive samples by organism within total positive samples by city.

Causative organism	Manta		Guayaquil	
	antibody (+) / total (+)	%	antibody (+) / total (+)	%
At least ≥ 1 organism	39/39	100	44/44	100
<i>Ehrlichia canis</i> (total)	39/39	100	33/44	75
<i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> (total)	13/39	67	24/44	55
<i>Ehrlichia canis</i> (alone)	26/39	67	20/44	45
<i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> (alone)	0/39	0.0	11/44	25
<i>E. canis</i> + <i>A. phagocytophilum</i> (co-infection)	13/39	33	13/44	30
<i>Borrelia burgdorferi</i>	0/39	0.0	0/44	0.0
<i>Dirofilaria immitis</i>	0/39	0.0	0/44	0.0

for *E. canis*, and *Ixodes spp* ticks are vectors for *A. phagocytophilum* and *B. burgdorferi*.²⁴⁻²⁶ Also, *Aedes spp* and *Anopheles spp* mosquitoes are capable of transmitting *D. immitis*,⁸ and these mosquito genera have been reported in Ecuador.²⁷

In general, VBD cause impairment of health status in humans and animals, leading to disruption of activities and losses of millions of dollars worldwide annually.¹ For example, in dogs *A. phagocytophilum* causes fever, depression, myalgia, anorexia, and lameness,²⁸ and in humans its clinical signs include fever, headache, lethargy, myalgia, elevated liver function enzymes, and reduction of platelets.^{26,29} Similar clinical signs are reported in *E. canis* infections.²⁹⁻³¹ In addition, the time from exposure to onset of clinical signs for both *A. phagocytophilum* and *E. canis* in dogs and humans is between one to four weeks,^{32,33} potentially leading to an immediate (incubation period ≤ 15 days) and delayed impact (incubation period ≥ 15 days) on military operations.²⁷ The potential impact on military operations will be beyond onset of clinical signs because treatment with antibiotics will take approximately two weeks with an additional convalescence period extending beyond 30 days post infection.³⁴

All samples collected in this surveillance were negative for *B. burgdorferi* antibody and *D. immitis* antigen. It was an unexpected finding, since the presence of vectors (mosquitoes and ticks) and diagnostic evidence for the etiologic agents for these two diseases have been reported in Ecuador and other neighboring and regional countries such as Brazil, Colombia, Peru, and Argentina.^{21-23,35-44} Heartworm disease caused by *D. immitis* has been reported in the Galapagos Islands of Ecuador and in the Amazon regions of the neighboring countries of Colombia, Peru, and Brazil,^{35-38,42} and similar findings have been reported for Lyme disease cause by *B. burgdorferi*.^{39,45} However, in a surveillance study in Chile where 1056 dogs were sampled, no infection was detected for *D. immitis*,⁴⁴ and *B. burgdorferi* was not confirmed in suspected Chilean human clinical cases using ELISA, indirect fluorescent antibody (IFA), and Western Blot Analysis.⁴⁷ In another study in Southern Chile, *B. burgdorferi* was not detected by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) in 62 wild ticks collected from wild rodents and cervidae (deer).⁴⁸ It is possible that natural barriers or ecological conditions such as the ocean separating the Galapagos Islands

from the mainland, the Andes Mountains, or other geographical factors could maintain Manta and Guayaquil free of *B. burgdorferi* and *D. immitis* even when the climatic conditions and vectors might be present. Despite those possibilities, the presence of favorable climatic conditions and vectors make VBD more likely to be present.⁴⁹ Therefore, while this study did not detect evidence of their presence, heartworm and Lyme diseases may be present in the cities of Manta and Guayaquil, possibly at a low prevalence. Screening for diseases with truly low prevalence is more difficult, because low prevalence results in a decrease of a predictive value of a positive test result, leading to a requirement to increase the sample size (number of animals) needed in order to detect disease-positive animals.⁵⁰ For *D. immitis* additional diagnostic problems are encountered, because sensitivity is crucially influenced by the number of adult female parasites.⁵¹ In general, it has been suggested that co-infection with two or more VBD, like in this report, could lead to more complex immunological effects, confounding and complicating even more the diagnosis of vector-borne pathogens.³

CONCLUSION

The findings of this surveillance study showed the presence of *E. canis* and *A. phagocytophilum* in the cities of Manta and Guayaquil in Ecuador. This finding emphasizes the value of surveillance for zoonotic diseases to determine disease prevalence and risk assessments, as well as indication for implementing control measures. Studies such as this are valuable tools for U.S. military conventional or Special Operation Forces (SOF) units who will deploy or are already deployed. Special Operations Forces commanders, medical planners, public health and preventive medicine personnel and medics should take note, as they specifically must plan and ensure comprehensive preventive measures are implemented for all U.S. personnel in the areas of operation (AO) and for educating local civilian communities.

An additional goal of this work was to increase the SOF medic's knowledge and awareness of zoonotic and infectious disease through surveillance studies in animals. The findings emphasize the critical need for continual and aggressive field surveillance for zoonotic and infectious diseases present in animals within specific AOs.⁵² Vector-borne diseases have the capabilities of significantly impairing mission accomplishment by affecting force health. The SOF medics should use this value-added asset to protect themselves, teammates, and deployed forces from disease, including military working animals. In addition, by working with local health officials, they can use this information to protect the health of local military personnel and civilians.

REFERENCES

- World Health Organization Report. (2004). Changing history. *World Health Organization*, (Geneva, Switzerland).
- Jones KE, Patel NG, Levy MA, Storeygard A, Balk D, Gittleman JL, Daszak P. (2008) Global trends in emerging infectious diseases. *Nature* 451:990–993.
- Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, and Breitschwerdt EB. (2009). Managing canine vector-borne diseases of zoonotic concern: part one. *Trends in Parasitology*, 25(4):157–163.
- Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F, and Breitschwerdt EB. (2009). Managing canine vector-borne diseases of zoonotic concern: part two. *Trends in Parasitology*, 25(5):228–234.
- Bowman DD, Little SE, Lorentzen L, Shields J, Sullivan MP, Carlin EP. (2009). Prevalence and geographic distribution of *Dirofilaria immitis*, *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* in dogs in the United States: results of a national clinic-based serologic survey. *Veterinary Parasitology*. 160:138–148.
- Beall MJ, Chandrashekar R, Eberts MD, Cyr KE, Diniz PP, Mainville C, Hegarty BC, Crawford JM, Breitschwerdt EB. (2008). Serological and molecular prevalence of *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, and *Ehrlichia* species in dogs from Minnesota. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Diseases*, 8(4):455–464.
- Pantchev N, Schaper R, Limousin S, Norden N, Weise M, Lorentzen L. (2009). Occurrence of *Dirofilaria immitis* and tick-borne infectious caused by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato* and *Ehrlichia canis* in domestic dogs in France: results of a countrywide serologic survey. *Parasitology Research*, 105:s101–s113.
- Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F. (2010). Canine and feline vector-borne diseases in Italy: current situation and perspectives. *Parasites & Vectors*, 3:2–12.
- Irwin, P.J. and Jefferies, R. (2004). Arthropod-transmitted diseases of companion animals in Southeast Asia. *Trends in Parasitology*, 20(1): 27–34.
- McCown M. (2005). Infectious disease discovered in Colombian military working dogs, *Journal of Special Operations Medicine*, 5(2):66–70.
- Jansen A, Frank C, Koch J, Stark K. (2008). Surveillance of vector-borne diseases in Germany: trends and challenges in the view of disease emergence and climate change. *Parasitology Research*, (Supplement 1) 103:S11–S17.
- McCown M. (2005). South American military working horses positive for equine infectious anemia, *Journal of Special Operations Medicine*, 5(3):12–16.
- McCown M, Grzeszak B, Rada J. (2009). Veterinary public health essentials to deployment health surveillance: applying zoonotic disease surveillance and food/water safety at SOF deployment sites. *Journal of Special Operations Medicine*, 9(4):26–31.
- Department of Defense (DoD) Instruction 6490.03, Deployment Health, 11 AUG 2006.
- United States Special Operations Command (USSOCOM) Directive 40-4, Deployment Health and Medical Surveillance, 20 MAR 2007.
- Memorandum from the Chairman (MCM) 0028-07, Procedures for Deployment Health, 2 NOV 2007.
- IDEXX Laboratories Inc. (2010). SNAP® 4Dx® Test Kit. Retrieved April 2011 from IDEXX Laboratories SNAP® 4Dx® Test web site. Website: (http://www.idexx.com/view/xhtml/en_us/smallanimal/inhouse/snap/4dx.jsf)
- Statistical Analysis System (SAS) 9.2. (2008). *SAS Institute Inc.*, Cary, NC.
- Coutinho MT, Bueno LL, Sterzik A, Fujiwara RT, Botelho JR, Maria M, Genaro O, Linardi PM. (2005). Participation of *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Acari: Ixodidae) in the epidemiology of canine visceral leishmaniasis. *Veterinary Parasitology*, 128:149–155.
- Dantas-Torres F. (2008). The brown dog tick, *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* (Latrielle, 1806) (Acari: Ixodidae): from taxonomy to control. *Veterinary Parasitology*, 152:173–185.
- Mitchell CJ. (1991). Vector competence of North and South America strains of *Aedes albopictus* for certain arboviruses: a review. *Journal of the American Mosquito Control Association*, 7(3):446–451.
- Conn JE, Mitchell SE, Cockburn AF. (1997). Mitochondrial DNA variation within and between two species of neotropical anopheline mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae). *Journal of Heredity*, 88(2):98–107.
- Moraes-Filho J, Marcili A, Nieri-Bastos FA, Richtzenhain LJ, Labruna MB. (2011). Genetic analysis of ticks belonging to the *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* group in Latin America. *Acta Tropica*, 117(1):51–55.
- Johnson EM, Ewing SA, Barker RW, Fox JC, Crow DW, Kocan KM. (1998). Experimental transmission of *Ehrlichia canis* (Rickettsiales: Ehrlichieae) by *Dermacentor variabilis* (Acari: Ixodidae). *Veterinary Parasitology*, 74:277–288.

25. Swanson SJ, Neitzel D, Reed KD, and Belongia EA. (2006). Coinfections acquired from *Ixodes* ticks. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, 19:708-727.
26. Bakken JS and Dumler S. (2008). Human granulocytic anaplasmosis. *Infectious Disease Clinics of North America*, 22(3):433-448.
27. Disease Vector Ecology Profiles. (1998). Disease Vector Ecology Profiles Ecuador. *Defense Pest Management Information Analysis Center*, 1-82.
28. Granick JL, Armstrong PJ, and Bender JB. (2009). *Anaplasma phagocytophyllum* infection in dogs: 34 cases (2000-2007). *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, 234(12):1559-1565.
29. Dumler JS, Madigan JE, Pusterla N, and Bakken JS. (2007). Ehrlichiosis in humans: epidemiology, clinical presentation, diagnosis, and treatment. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 45(Suppl 1):S45-S51.
30. Rikihisa Y. (2006). New findings on members of the family Anaplasmataceae of veterinary importance. *Annals New York Academy of Science*, 1078:438-445.
31. Kuehn NF and Gaunt SD. (1985). Clinical and hematologic findings in canine ehrlichiosis. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, 186:355-358.
32. Gaunt SD, Corstvet RE, Berry CM, and Brennan B. (1996). Isolation of *Ehrlichia canis* from dogs following subcutaneous inoculation. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 34(6):1429-1432.
33. Bakken JS and Dumler JS. (2006). Clinical diagnosis and treatment of human granulocytotropic anaplasmosis. *Annals New York Academy of Science*, 1078: 236-247.
34. Nicholson WL, Allen KE, McQuiston JH, Breitschwerdt EB, Little SE. (2010). The increasing recognition of rickettsial pathogens in dogs and people. *Trends in Parasitology*, 26(4):205-212.
35. Vieira C, Velez ID, Montoya MN, Agudelo S, Alvarez MI, Genchi C, Simon F. (1998). *Dirofilaria immitis* in Tikuna Indians and their dogs in the Colombian Amazon. *Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology*, 92(1):123-125.
36. Vieira C, Montoya MN, Agudelo S, Velez ID, and Simon F. (2000). Human antibody response to a 56-kDa purified excretory/secretory product of *Dirofilaria immitis*. *Tropical Medicine and International Health*, 5(12):855-859.
37. Adrianzén JG, Chávez AV, Casas EA, and Li OE. (2003). Seroprevalencia de la dirofilariosis y ehrlichiosis canina en tres distritos de Lima. *Revista de Investigaciones Veterinarias del Peru*, 14(1):43-48.
38. Danta-Torres F. (2008). Canine vector-borne diseases in Brazil. *Parasites & Vectors*, 1(1):25.
39. Santos M, Ribeiro-Rodrigues R, Lobo R, Talhari S. (2010). Antibody reactivity to *Borrelia burgdorferi sensu stricto* antigens in patients from the Brazilian Amazon region with skin diseases not related to Lyme disease. *International Journal of Dermatology*, 49:552-556.
40. Espinoza-Leon F, Arocha F, Hassanhi M, Arevalo J. (2010). Using the polymerase chain reaction to *Borrelia burgdorferi* infection in localized scleroderma injure (morphea), in Venezuelan patients. *Investigacion Clinica*, 51(3):381-390.
41. Labarthe N, de Campos PM, Barbarini O, McKee W, Coimbra CA, Hoskins J. (2003). Serologic prevalence of *Dirofilaria immitis*, *Ehrlichia canis*, and *Borrelia burgdorferi* infections in Brazil. *Veterinary Therapeutics*, 4(1):67-75.
42. Levy JK, Crawford PC, Lappin MR, Dubovi EJ, Levy MG, Alleman R, Tucker SJ, Clifford EL. (2008). Infectious diseases of dogs and cats on Isabela Island, Galapagos. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine*, 22(1):60-5.
43. Vezzani D, Eiras DF, Wisnivesky C. (2006). Dirofilariasis in Argentina: historical review and first report of *Dirofilaria immitis* in a natural mosquito population. *Veterinary Parasitology*, 136(3-4):259-73.
44. Labarthe N and Guerrero J. (2005). Epidemiology of heartworm: What is happening in South America and Mexico? *Veterinary Parasitology*, 133(2-3):149-156.
45. Miranda J, Mattar S, Perdomo K, and Palencia L. (2009). Seroprevalence of Lyme borreliosis in workers from Cordoba, Colombia. *Revista Salud Publica (Bogota)*, 11(3):480-489.
46. Glenn MA, Mendoza LU, Falconi ER. (2004). Deteccion de Anticuerpos contra *Borrelia burgdorferi* e identificacion de garrapas ixodidas in Piura y Amazonas, Peru. *Revista Peruana de Medicina Experimental y Salud Publica*, 21(1):23-27.
47. Neira O, Cerda C, Alvarado MA, Palma S, Abumohor P, Wainstein E, Guzman L, Juliet C, Perez C, Raggio X, Rojas I, Honorato H, Alcaino H, Fredes F. (1996). Lyme disease in Chile. Prevalence study in selected groups. *Revista Medica de Chile*, 124(5):537-544.
48. Osorio G. (2001). Search for the spirochete *Borrelia burgdorferi sensu lato* by polymerase chain reaction in wild Chilean ticks. *Revista Medica de Chile*, 129(3):270-276.
49. Sutherst RW. (2004). Global change and human vulnerability to vector-borne diseases. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, 17:136-173.
50. Martin SW, Meek AH, Willeberg P. (1987). Measurement of disease frequency and production. In: *Veterinary Epidemiology Principles and Methods*. Iowa State University Press, Ames, Iowa, p 66-69.
51. Courtney CH and Zeng Q. (2001). Comparison of heartworm antigen test kit performance in dogs having low heartworm burdens. *Veterinary Parasitology*, 96(4):317-322.
52. Duncan AW, Correa MT, Levine JF, Breitschwerdt EB (2004). The dog as a sentinel for human infection: prevalence of *Borrelia burgdorferi* C6 antibodies in dogs from southeastern and mid-Atlantic states. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Diseases*, 4:221-229.

Dr. McCown enlisted in the U.S. Army in 1993. Following graduation from the University of Florida, College of Veterinary Medicine, he obtained a commission in 2001. He has had the distinct honor and privilege to work with SOF medics and other SOF NCOs while serving on active duty with Special Forces thru 2005. He served one combat tour in Afghanistan in support of Operation Enduring Freedom, three deployments to South America, and a series of other missions to Central and South America.

Dr. Monterroso is the Associate Director for the Department of Comparative Medicine and an Associate Professor at the Oregon Health and Sciences University, Portland, OR. He graduated from the University of San Carlos, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Guatemala, and he earned a MS and a PhD from the University of Florida, College of Veterinary Medicine. Dr. Monterroso is a Diplomate of the American College of Laboratory Animal Medicine.

SFC Benjamin Grzeszak is a Special Forces Medical Sergeant currently assigned to 7th SFG(A). He has served three combat tours with 7th SFG(A) in Afghanistan in support of Operation Enduring Freedom and two deployments to South America.