

Pentastomiasis in Australian reptiles Fact Sheet

January 2019

Introductory statement

Pentastomiasis (also known as Porocephalosis) is a disease caused by infection with pentastomids. Pentastomids are endoparasites of vertebrates, maturing primarily in the respiratory system of carnivorous reptiles (90% of all pentastomid species), but also in toads, birds and mammals. Pentastomids have zoonotic potential although no human cases have been reported in Australia. These parasites have an indirect life cycle involving one or more intermediate host. They may be distinguished from other parasite taxa by the presence of four hooks surrounding their mouth, which they use for attaching to respiratory tissue to feed on host blood. Pentastomid infections are often asymptomatic, but adult and larval pentastomids can cause severe pathology resulting in the death of their intermediate and definitive hosts, usually via obstruction of airways or secondary bacterial and/or fungal infections.

Aetiology

Pentastomiasis in reptiles is caused by endoparasitic metazoans of the subclass Pentastomida.

Four genera are known to infect crocodiles in Australia: *Alofia, Leiperia, Sebekia,* and *Selfia;* all in the family *Sebekidae*. Three genera infect lizards in Australia: *Raillietiella* (Family: *Raillietiellidae*), *Waddycephalus* (Family: *Sambonidae*) and *Elenia* (Family: *Sambonidae*). Four genera infect snakes in Australia: *Waddycephalus, Parasambonia* (Family: Sambonidae), *Raillietiella* and *Armillifer* (Family: Armilliferidae).

Natural hosts

Definitive hosts

Many species of Australian reptiles, including snakes, lizards and crocodiles are proven definitive hosts for pentastomes (see Appendix 1).

Lizards may be both intermediate and definitive hosts for pentastomids. *Raillietiella* spp. occurs primarily in small to medium-sized lizards and *Elenia australis* infects large varanids. Nymphs of *Waddycephalus* in several lizard species likely reflect incidental infection; it is possible that lizards are an intermediate host for *Waddycephalus*. *Raillietiella frenata* in the NT has recently host-switched from its traditional host, the invasive Asian house gecko (*Hemidactylus frenatus*), to infect the invasive cane toad (*Rhinella marina*) ^[1, 2]. It is likely that the distribution of *R. frenata* will spread to encompass that of the cane toad and *R. frenata* may potentially utilise new lizard host species.

Intermediate hosts

Fish are intermediate hosts for all pentastomids that infect Australian crocodiles. In the Americas, *Sebekia* spp. may utilise snakes, lizards, turtles and mammals as additional intermediate hosts ^[3-5]; it is unknown whether the same is true for Australia.

Intermediate hosts for pentastomids of lizards are largely unknown. For *Raillietiella* spp. where the life cycle is known, an insect (such as a cockroach) is the intermediate host ^[6].

Intermediate hosts for snake pentastomes are largely unknown but may include insects, amphibians, reptiles and mammals. Frogs and/or lizards are the most plausible intermediate host for *Waddycephalus*^[7]; although nymphs of *Waddycephalus* have been recorded in numerous taxa (e.g. dasyurids, elapids, geckos, skinks, frogs and owls), these animals are likely accidental hosts in which the parasite will not develop further.

The diet of Australian snakes known to host *Raillietiella orientalis* (the only raillietiellid known to mature in Australian snakes), indicates insects may be a first intermediate host, but frogs are the most plausible second intermediate host responsible for transferring this parasite to snakes in Australia. Intermediate hosts for *Armillifer* spp. are most likely mammals, considering the diet of the definitive host (pythons).

World distribution

Pentastomiasis occurs on all continents except Antarctica.

Crocodilians: *Alofia* spp. occur in Africa, Samoa, the Philippines, India and Australia; *Leiperia* spp. occur in Africa, the Americas and Australia; *Sebekia* spp. occur in Africa, the Americas, Trinidad, South East Asia, Papua New Guinea and Australia; *Selfia porosus* exclusively infects *C. porosus* in Australia^[8]. Data on pentastomiasis prevalence in wild crocodilians is primarily restricted to *Sebekia mississippiensis* in American alligators (*Alligator mississippiensis*); prevalence is high (81-96%)^[5, 9, 10].

Lizards and snakes: *Raillietiella* spp. are globally widespread; *Waddycephalus* spp. occur primarily in Australia and occasionally from snakes in Papua New Guinea, Hong Kong, Korea, Komodo Island and Fiji ^[11, 12]; and *Elenia* spp. are known from Australia and Papua New Guinea. *Parasambonia* spp. are known only from Australia ^[13]; *Raillietiella* spp. are globally widespread; and *Armillifer* spp. occur widely throughout Africa and Asia.

Occurrences in Australia

Crocodiles: documented in Qld and NT ^[14-17], likely to occur in WA. Data in wild Australian crocodiles is lacking; in captivity, pentastomids infected 90% of 10 crocodiles at a crocodile farm at Innisfail, Qld ^[14].

Lizards: reported in SA, WA, NT, Qld and potentially NSW (see Appendix 1).

Snakes: *Waddycephalus* spp. occur in all states and territories ^[7, 11, 18]; *Parasambonia* spp. occur in NSW and Qld ^[13]; *Raillietiella* spp. occur in NT, Qld, NSW, SA, and WA ^[2, 7, 19]; and *Armillifer* spp. occur in NT, Qld, and WA ^[20].

Epidemiology

The life cycle is unknown for most species of pentastomids. Where known, it is indirect, complex and long (e.g. >8 months in *Raillietiella frenata*), involving one or more intermediate hosts ^[6]. Pentastomids are long-lived; up to 8 years in some species ^[21].

Basic life cycle

- Adult female pentastomids continuously lay eggs in the lungs, amounting to millions of eggs per female (female *Raillietiella* spp. can lay eggs continuously for more than one year, the patent period is unknown for all other Australian genera); see Ali and Riley 1983 [6].
- Eggs leave the lungs with host fluid and pass into the mouth or are swallowed into the digestive tract.
- Eggs pass out into the environment when the host expels fluid orally or defecates.
- Eggs remain viable for months, are consumed by an intermediate host and develop into infective larvae.
- Infective larvae enter the definitive host when it consumes an infected intermediate host.
- Infective larvae burrow out of the host's gastrointestinal tract and enter the major vessels of the heart (aorta and pulmonary artery), in *Leiperia* spp., or the respiratory tract (nasal passages, trachea, bronchus, bronchi, bronchioles and lungs), in all other genera.
- Developing pentastomids feed on host blood and develop into mature adults.
- Adult *Leiperia* pentastomids migrate out of the blood vessels and into the respiratory tract (trachea, bronchus, bronchi, bronchioles and lungs).
- Male and female pentastomes mate once (presumably in the respiratory tract, not within the blood vessels), females store sperm and begin laying eggs to complete the life cycle.

Sources of infectious agent

The oral and nasal secretions (i.e. saliva and mucous) and faeces of an infected definitive host contain pentastomid eggs. These eggs will not develop to the blood-feeding adult stage without passing through an intermediate host. Pentastome eggs are very resilient and able to survive at least two weeks of desiccation and six months of refrigeration ^[22].

Prevalence and effect on host

In captive *C. porosus* and New Guinea crocodiles (*C. novaeguineae*), 15% of ill or deceased crocodiles were afflicted by pentastomiasis (*Sebekia* spp.) ^[23]. Captive crocodiles overseas have died from pentastomid infections ^[24]. Young crocodiles are considered particularly susceptible to disease caused by pentastomids ^[25], though dietary differences between hatchling and adult crocodiles (whereby hatchlings rarely eat fish) may preclude pentastomid infections in wild hatchlings ^[26].

Morbidity may be caused by larvae migrating from the gastrointestinal tract to infection sites, causing scarring and interfering with organ function ^[27]. Pentastomids inside the large vessels of the heart could cause vascular blockage. The mouthparts of adult pentastomids may pierce respiratory tissue, leading to pulmonary haemorrhage and/or bacterial infections that may culminate in chronic pneumonia ^[28, 29]. Heavy infections may possibly cause anaemia, though there are no published accounts of this. There are several cases where snake deaths have been attributed to pentastomid

infections ^[30-32]. A study suggested that pentastomids might have a negative influence on lizard fitness during times of stress or increased activity ^[33].

Age of the definitive host may be a factor in infection since the prepatent period is so long. Young reptiles are unlikely to be infected with mature pentastomids.

Heavily infected fish intermediate hosts can die from their infections whilst others show no morbidity.

Clinical signs

Commonly, there are no clinical signs of infection with pentastomids in reptiles.

Signs, when present, may be nonspecific (anorexia, lethargy or sudden death) or indicative of respiratory disease (nasal or oral discharge, open-mouthed, laboured or rapid breathing, abnormal swimming, excessive basking). If there is secondary bacterial infection there may be clinical signs of chronic pneumonia ^[29, 34].

Diagnosis

The disease can only be diagnosed via direct observation of pentastomid eggs or adults; both life history stages are distinctive and not easily confused with any other disease agent (Figure 1). Diagnostic tests include:

- Tracheal wash, cloacal wash and faecal flotation to detect pentastomid eggs
- Radiograph to detect adult pentastomids in the respiratory tract
- Endoscopic or surgical examination of the respiratory tract
- Presence of live pentastomids exiting the definitive host (from a stressed or dying hosts)
- Direct examination of the respiratory tract and major blood vessels of the heart during necropsy.

There are no consistent clinical pathology changes in reptiles with pentastomiasis.



Figure 1. Egg of *Waddycephalus* sp. at 400X magnification. Note "clawed feet" characteristic of pentastomid larvae.

Laboratory diagnostic specimens and procedures

Fresh samples are preferred since the diagnostic features of pentastomid eggs become obscured with dehydration caused by chemical preservation. For practicality, fluid (from tracheal and cloacal washes) and faecal samples (1 mL) preserved in 70% ethanol may suffice. Microscopic examination (using the 40X objective on a compound microscope) of these samples will allow detection of pentastomid eggs^[1].

Pathology

Pentastomids have been recovered from the nasal passages, trachea, bronchus, bronchi, bronchioles, lungs and the major blood vessels (aorta and pulmonary artery) of the heart. Size ranges from relatively small (11 mm in *Sebekia multiannulata*) to quite large (75 mm in *Leiperia australiensis*).

Pentastomids pierce lung tissue and may cause substantial lesions at feeding sites ^[7]. Secondary bacterial and fungal infections may occur. Large pentastomids may cause substantial lesions at feeding sites and puncture the lung. There may be pulmonary oedema and haemorrhage; large or numerous pentastomids can obstruct respiratory passages leading to suffocation ^[29, 33]. Pentastomids in the major blood vessels of the heart are thought to possibly obstruct blood flow.

Adult pentastomids are visible in respiratory tissue and infected lungs have visible red to black consolidated foci (up to 15 mm) which are composed of pentastomids, eggs, haemorrhage, and inflammatory cells (often surrounding the pentastomid eggs). Pathology includes extensive interstitial pneumonia, emphysema, bronchiectasis, granulomas and hyperplasia of the bronchiolar epithelium ^[14, 23, 35, 36].

Changes in crocodilians overseas include coagulative necrosis with heterophilic and eosinophilic infiltrates, haemorrhage, oedema, ulceration, collapsed air sacs and hepatic lipidosis ^[25, 37, 38].

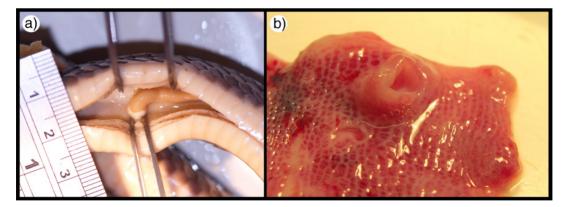


Figure 2. *Waddycephalus* sp. infecting the lungs of the slaty-grey snake (*Stegonotus cucullatus*). **a)** Parasite deeply embedded in lung tissue of an ethanol-preserved snake; **b)** Dissected fresh lung tissue showing attachment site where a *Waddycephalus* was recently removed. Note raised lesions surrounding attachment sites.

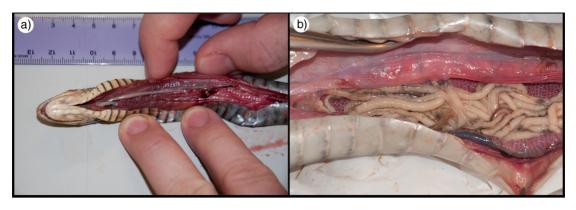


Figure 3. *Raillietiella orientalis* infecting the lungs of the lesser black whip snake (*Demansia vestigiata*). Infection is comprised of **a**) one long female pentastomid; **b**) 68 pentastomids.

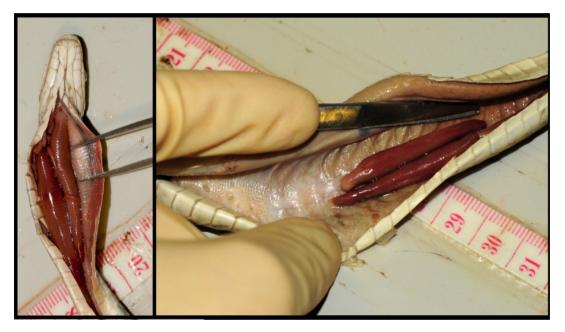


Figure 4. *Waddycephalus* sp. infecting the lungs of the green tree snake (*Dendrelaphis punctulatus*). Note complete occlusion of trachea (left) and multiple visible attachment sites in the lung (right).

Differential diagnoses

Other causes of respiratory disease or ill-thrift in reptiles should be included in differential lists, including bacterial, fungal and viral infections.

Treatment

Treatment is not generally recommended except in captive (e.g. farmed or zoo animals) or endangered animals that are showing signs of disease and have a confirmed diagnosis of pentastomiasis. Surgical or endoscopic removal is the most reliable method for eliminating infections ^[39, 40]. There is no reliable chemotherapeutic treatment but anecdotal reports suggest that Ivermectin may be successful ^[28]. Treatment with drugs is complicated by the large size and number of pentastomids and the fact that these parasites can dwell in the major vessels of the heart. Killing the parasites with drugs and leaving these dead parasites *in situ* may induce secondary

bacterial infections or cardiovascular distress as the host's immune system attempts to dispose of them ^[29].

Prevention and control

Pentastome eggs are very resilient; thorough cleaning and disinfection of surfaces that have been in contact with reptile or reptile excretions is recommended. In captivity, carnivorous and insectivorous reptiles should be fed on captive-bred food (as wild caught food may be infected with intermediate stages of the pentastome life cycle). Alternatively, food should be frozen at -10°C for at least 72 hours to kill larvae ^[14].

With the indirect life cycle, infections should be self-limiting over time in captivity if no new exposures occur. However pentastomids are quite long-lived (e.g. up to 8 years in some species)^[21]. Definitive hosts should not be housed with intermediate hosts.

• Personal hygiene such as wearing gloves and washing hands thoroughly with hot soapy water after being in contact with reptiles and their products should preclude human ingestion of pentastomid eggs or larvae.

Research

The majority of Australian studies are taxonomic in nature. Key areas for future research include:

- taxonomy
- life cycle: intermediate and definitive host taxa; duration of each stage of the life cycle
- ecology of infections
- pathology of infections.

Considering the diversity of reptile hosts infected, the wide geographic distribution of reported infections and the fact that multiple species of pentastomids can infect Australian reptiles, there is almost certainly much to be discovered in this field.

Surveillance and management

There is no targeted surveillance or management of this disease in Australia.

Wildlife Health Australia administers Australia's general wildlife health surveillance system, in partnership with government and non-government agencies. Wildlife health data is collected into a national database, the electronic Wildlife Health Information System (eWHIS). Information is reported by a variety of sources including government agencies, zoo based wildlife hospitals, sentinel veterinary clinics, universities, wildlife rehabilitators, and a range of other organisations and individuals. Targeted surveillance data is also collected by WHA. See the WHA website for more information <u>https://wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au/Our-Work/Surveillance</u> and <u>https://wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au/Our-Work/Surveillance/eWHIS-Wildlife-Health-Information-System</u>.

There is one case of pentastomiasis reported from a wild salt water crocodile in eWHIS.

We are interested in hearing from anyone with information on this condition in Australia, including laboratory reports, historical datasets or survey results that could be added to the National Wildlife Health Information System. Negative data are also valuable. If you can help, please contact us at admin@wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au.

Human health implications

Pentastomids are zoonotic parasites but most human cases of pentastomiasis are asymptomatic. In humans, 99% of cases are caused by pentastomids of the genera *Armillifer* (from snakes) and *Linguatula* (from mammals) and are concentrated in the tropics and subtropics of Africa, Southeast Asia and the Middle East ^[41]. There has never been a human case of pentastomiasis in Australia.

Zoonotic infections may arise from consumption of undercooked reptile flesh, ingestion of water contaminated with reptile faeces, and from direct contact with saliva, mucous or faeces from an infected reptile. Pentastomids do not develop past the larval stage in humans; in rare cases systemic infection with *Armillfer* larvae has caused death ^[42-45].

Reptiles and their products, including raw meat (and fish) should be handled in a sanitary manner. Reptile meat for consumption should be thoroughly cooked. Advice regarding human health implications of pentastomiasis should be sought from your local public health department.

Statistics

A study found *Raillietiella frenata* in 11 of 72 Asian house geckoes in the NT but no pentastomids in this host in Qld or zigzag velvet geckoes (*Oedura rhombifer*) in the NT ^[46]. Another study found *R. frenata* in Asian house geckoes from Darwin and surrounds ^[2].

A NT study found 59% wild snakes were infected with one or more species of pentastomid of the genera *Raillietiella* and *Waddycephalus*^[7].

Conclusions

Relatively little is known about pentastomiasis in wild reptiles in Australia. In many species of pentastomid almost nothing is known of the life cycle, the geographical distribution, or the effect on the host. Host-swapping and changes in distribution may result in significant changes in epidemiology of these infections. Further research is required to determine the influence of pentastomiasis on reptile health in Australia, both at the individual and population level.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the people who contributed to this fact sheet and would specifically like to thank Crystal Kelehear.

Wildlife Health Australia recognises the Traditional Custodians of Country throughout Australia. We respectfully acknowledge Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples' continuing connection to land, sea, wildlife and community. We pay our respects to them and their cultures, and to their Elders past and present.

Updated: January 2019

Appendix 1

Table 1. Known lizard species that host pentastomids in Australia

Host family	Host species	Pentastome species	Locality	Reference
Agamidae	Pogona barbata	Raillietiella amphiboluri	Zoo	Mahon 1953 [47]
	(Bearded dragon)		(London)	
Gekkonidae	Diplodactylus vittatus	Waddycephalus sp.	NSW or	Johnston 1911 [48],
	(Eastern stone gecko)		Qld⁺	Krefft 1871 [49]
Gekkonidae	<i>Gehyra australis</i> (Northern dtella)	Raillietiella frenata	NT	Barton 2007 [46]
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus frenatus</i> (Asian house gecko) [‡]	Raillietiella frenata	NT	Kelehear et al. 2011 [2], Barton 2007 [46]
Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus frenatus</i> (Asian house gecko) [‡]	Waddycephalus sp. nymph	NT	Barton 2007 [46]
Gekkonidae	<i>Heteronotia binoei</i> (Binoe's gecko)	Waddycephalus sp. nymphs (encapsulated)	Qld	Riley and Spratt 1987 [19]
Gekkonidae	Nephrurus laevissimus (Pale knob-tailed gecko)	Raillietiella scincoides	WA	Bursey and Goldberg 1999 [50]
Scincidae	Hemiergis decresiensis (Three-toed earless skink)	Waddycephalus sp. nymph (encapsulated in lungs)	SA	Riley and Spratt 1987 [19]
Scincidae	<i>Ctenotus taeniolatus</i> (Australian striped skink)	Waddycephalus sp.	NSW or Qld	Johnston 1911 [48], Krefft 1871 [49]
Scincidae	<i>Tiliqua scincoides</i> (Blue- tongued lizard)	Raillietiella scincoides	SA	Ali et al. 1984 [51]
Varanidae	<i>Varanus varius</i> (Lace monitor)	Elenia australis	Qld	Heymons 1939 [52]

[‡]Non-native lizard species.

Table 2. Known pentastomid species that infect crocodilians within Australia

Host species	Pentastome species	Reference	
Freshwater crocodile	Leiperia australiensis	Riley and Huchzermeyer 1996 [15]	
(C. johnstoni)	Sebekia johnstoni	Riley et al. 1990 [16]	
	Sebekia multiannulata	Riley et al. 1990 [16]	
Estuarine crocodile	Alofia merki	Riley 1994 [17]	
(C. porosus)	Leiperia australiensis	Riley and Huchzermeyer 1996 [15]	
	Sebekia johnstoni	Riley et al. 1990 [16]	
	Sebekia multiannulata	Riley et al. 1990 [16]	
	Sebekia purdieae	Riley et al. 1990 [16]	
	Selfia porosus	Riley 1994 [17]	

Table 3. Known Australian snakes are definitive hosts for pentastomids

Host family	Host species	Pentastome genus
Colubridae	Boiga irregularis	Armillifer
Colubridae	Dendrelaphis calligastra	Waddycephalus

Colubridae	Dendrelaphis pictus	Waddycephalus
Colubridae	Dendrelaphis punctulatus	Raillietiella; Waddycephalus
Colubridae	Stegonotus cucullatus	Waddycephalus
Colubridae	Tropidonophis mairii	Raillietiella; Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Acanthophis praelongus	Raillietiella; Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Austrelaps superbus	Parasambonia; Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Demansia papuensis	Raillietiella
Elapidae	Demansia psammophis	Parasambonia; Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Demansia vestigiata	Raillietiella; Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Notechis scutatus	Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Pseudechis australis	Raillietiella
Elapidae	Pseudechis porphyriacus	Parasambonia; Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Pseudonaja nuchalis	Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Pseudonaja textilis	Raillietiella; Waddycephalus
Elapidae	Tropidechis carinatus	Parasambonia
Pythonidae	Aspidites melanocephalus	Waddycephalus
Pythonidae	Liasis fuscus	Raillietiella
Pythonidae	Liasis olivaceus	Armillifer
Pythonidae	Morelia amethistina	Armillifer
Pythonidae	Morelia spilota	Armillifer; Waddycephalus
Pythonidae	Morelia spilotes variegata	Waddycephalus
Pythonidae	Morelia viridis	Armillifer

References and other information

- 1. Kelehear C, Brown GP et al. (2013) Invasive parasites in multiple invasive hosts: the arrival of a new host revives a stalled prior parasite invasion. *Oikos*, **122**(9): 1317-1324
- 2. Kelehear C, Spratt DM et al. (2011) Using combined morphological, allometric and molecular approaches to identify species of the genus *Raillietiella* (*Pentastomida*). *PLoS ONE*, **6**(9): e24936
- 3. Overstreet RM, Self JM et al. (1985) The pentastomid *Sebekia mississippiensis* sp. n. in the American alligator and other hosts. *Proceedings of the Helminthological Society of Washington*, **52**: 266-277
- 4. Winch JM and Riley J (1986) The development of *Sebekia oxycephala* (*Pentastomida*) from a South American crocodilian (*Caiman sclerops sclerops*) in experimentally infected fish. *Zeitschrift fur Parasitenkunde*, **72**: 251-264
- 5. Boyce WM (1985) The prevalence of *Sebekia mississippiensis* (*Pentastomida*) in American alligators (*Alligator mississippiensis*) in north Florida and experimental infection of paratenic hosts. *Proceedings* of the Helminthological Society of Washington, **52**(2): 278-282
- 6. Ali JH and Riley J (1983) Experimental life-cycle studies of *Raillietiella gehyrae* Bovien, 1927 and *Raillietiella frenatus* Ali, Riley and Self, 1981: pentastomid parasites of geckos utilizing insects as intermediate hosts. *Parasitology*, **86**: 147-160
- 7. Kelehear C, Spratt DM et al. (2014) Pentastomids of wild snakes in the Australian tropics. *International Journal for Parasitology: Parasites and Wildlife*, **3**: 20-31
- 8. Junker K and Boomker J (2006) A check-list of the pentastomid parasites of crocodilians and freshwater chelonians. *Onderstepoort Journal of Veterinary Research*, **73**: 27-36
- 9. Cherry RH and Ager AL, Jr. (1982) Parasites of American alligators (*Alligator mississippiensis*) in South Florida. *Journal of Parasitology*, **68**(3): 509-510

- 10. Tellez M, Haghighi A et al. (2016) Distribution and abundance of *Sebekia mississippiensis* (*Sebekidae*) in the American alligator, *Alligator mississippiensis*. *Comparative Parasitology*, **81**(2): 232-239
- 11. Riley J and Self JT (1981) A redescription of *Waddycephalus teretiusculus* (Baird, 1862) Sambon, 1922 and a revision of the taxonomy of the genus *Waddycephalus* (Sambon, 1922), pentastomid parasites of Asian, Australian and Indonesian snakes, with descriptions of eight new species. *Systematic Parasitology*, **3**: 243-257
- 12. Keegan HL, Toshioka S et al. (1969) On a collection of pentastomids from East and Southeast Asia. *Medical Entomology and Zoology*, **20**(3): 147-157
- Riley J and Self JT (1982) A revision of the pentastomid genus *Parasambonia* Stunkard & Gandal, 1968: a new generic character, a description of the male and a new species. *Systematic Parasitology*, 4: 125-133
- 14. Buenviaje GN, Ladds PW et al. (1994) Disease-husbandry associations in farmed crocodiles in Queensland and the Northern Territory. *Australian Veterinary Journal*, **71**: 165-173
- 15. Riley J and Huchzermeyer FW (1996) A reassessment of the pentastomid genus *Leiperia* Sambon, 1922 with a description of a new species from both the Indopacific crocodile *Crocodylus porosus* and Johnston's crocodile *C. johnstoni* in Australia. *Systematic Parasitology*, **34**: 53-66
- 16. Riley J, Spratt DM et al. (1990) A revision of the genus *Sebekia* Sambon, 1922 (*Pentastomida*) from crocodilians with descriptions of five new species. *Systematic Parasitology*, **16**: 1-25
- 17. Riley J (1994) A revision of the genus *Alofia* Giglioli, 1922 and a description of a new monotypic genus, *Selfia*: two genera of pentastomid parasites (*Porocephalida: Sebekidae*) inhabiting the bronchioles of the marine crocodile *Crocodylus porosus* and other crocodilians. *Systematic Parasitology*, **29**: 23-41
- 18. Riley J, Spratt DM et al. (1985) Pentastomids (Arthropoda) parasitic in Australian reptiles and mammals. *Australian Journal of Zoology*, **33**: 39-53
- 19. Riley J and Spratt DM (1987) Further observations on pentastomids (Arthropoda) parasitic in Australian reptiles and mammals. *Records of the South Australian Museum*, **21**: 139-147
- Riley J and Self JT (1981) Some observations on the taxonomy and systematics of the pentastomid genus Armillifer (Sambon, 1922) in South East Asian and Australian snakes. Systematic Parasitology, 2: 171-179
- Storch V (1993) Pentastomida. In 'Microscopic anatomy of invertebrates. Vol. 12. Onychophora, Chilopoda, and lesser Protostomata.' (Eds F.W. Harrison and M.E. Rice) pp. 115-142. (Wiley-Liss: New York)
- 22. Self JT (2009) *Pentastomida*: tongue worms. In 'Gerald D. Schmidt & Larry S. Roberts' foundations of parasitology. 8th Edition.' (Eds L.S. Roberts and J. Janovy) pp. 561-568. (McGraw-Hill: New York)
- 23. Ladds PW and Sims LD (1990) Diseases of young captive crocodiles in Papua New Guinea. Australian Veterinary Journal, **67**: 323-330
- 24. Adams L, Isaza R et al. (2001) Fatal pentastomiasis in captive African dwarf crocodile hatchlings (Osteolaemus tetraspis). Journal of Zoo and Wildlife Medicine, **32**(4): 500-502
- 25. Boyce W, Cardeilhac P et al. (1984) Sebekiosis in captive alligator hatchlings. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, **185**(11): 1419-1420
- 26. Moreland AF, Forrester DJ et al. (1989) *Sebekia mississippiensis* (*Pentastomida*) from juvenile American alligators in north central Florida. *Proceedings of the Helminthological Society of Washington*, **56**(1): 42-43
- 27. Riley J (1986) The biology of pentastomids. Advances in Parasitology, 25: 45-128
- 28. Paré JA (2008) An overview of pentastomiasis in reptiles and other vertebrates. *Journal of Exotic Pet Medicine*, **17**(4): 285-294

- 29. Jacobson ER (2007) Parasites and parasitic diseases of reptiles. In 'Infectious diseases and pathology of reptiles.' (Ed E.R. Jacobson) pp. 590-592. (Taylor & Francis Group: Boca Raton)
- 30. Ayinmode AB, Adedokun AO et al. (2010) The zoonotic implications of pentastomiasis in the royal python (*Python regius*). *Ghana Medical Journal*, **44**(3): 115-118
- 31. Riley J and Walters LS (1980) *Porocephalus dominicana* n.sp. from the Dominican boa (*Constrictor constrictor nebulosus*). *Systematic Parasitology*, **1**(2): 123-126
- 32. Obendorf DL (1989) Snakes and lung pentastomes. Veterinary Pathology Report, 26: 31
- 33. Caballero IC, Sakla AJ et al. (2015) Physiological status drives metabolic rate in Mediterranean geckos infected with pentastomes. *PLoS ONE*, **10**(12): e0144477
- 34. Schumacher J (2011) Respiratory medicine of reptiles. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Exotic Animal Practice*, **14**: 207-224
- 35. Ladds PW, Mangunwirjo H et al. (1995) Diseases in young farmed crocodiles in Irian Jaya. *Veterinary Record*, **136**: 121-124
- 36. Ladds P (2009) Helminth, annelid and pentastome diseases in reptiles. In 'Pathology of Australian Native Wildlife.' (Ed P. Ladds) pp. 345-366. (CSIRO publishing: Collingwood)
- 37. Deakins DE (1971) Pentastomes from Blackbeard Island, Georgia, with notes on North American pentastomes. *Journal of Parasitology*, **57**(6): 1197
- 38. Hazen TC, Aho JM et al. (1978) The parasite fauna of the American alligator (*Alligator mississippiensis*) in South Carolina. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases*, **14**(4): 435-439
- 39. Brock AP, Gallagher AE et al. (2012) *Kiricephalus coarctatus* in an Eastern Indigo Snake (*Drymarchon couperi*); endoscopic removal, identification, and phylogeny. *Veterinary Quarterly*, **32**(2): 107-112
- 40. Greiner EC and Mader DR (2006) Parasitology. In 'Reptile Medicine and Surgery.' (Ed D.R. Mader) pp. 343-364. (Saunders Elsevier: St. Louis)
- 41. Drabick JJ (1987) Pentastomiasis. Reviews of Infectious Diseases, 9(6): 1087-1094
- 42. Lavarde V and Fornes P (1999) Lethal infection due to *Armillifer armillatus* (*Porocephalida*): A snakerelated parasitic disease. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, **29**(5): 1346-1347
- 43. Obafunwa JO, Busuttil A et al. (1992) Sudden death due to disseminated porocephalosis a case history. *International Journal of Legal Medicine*, **105**: 43-46
- 44. Yapo Ette H, Fanton L et al. (2003) Human pentastomiasis discovered postmortem. *Forensic Science International*, **137**: 52-54
- 45. Abadi MA, Stephney G et al. (1996) Cardiac pentastomiasis and tuberculosis: the worm-eaten heart. *Cardiovascular Pathology*, **5**(3): 169-174
- 46. Barton DP (2007) Pentastomid parasites of the introduced Asian house gecko, *Hemidactylus frenatus* (Gekkonidae), in Australia. *Comparative Parasitology*, **74**(2): 254-259
- 47. Mahon J (1953) A new species of *Raillietiella*, a pentastomid from the Bearded Lizard, *Amphibolurus barbatus* (Cuv.). *Journal of Zoology*, **124**(3): 509-516
- 48. Johnston TH (1911) A census of Australian entozoa. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of Queensland*, **28**: 233-249
- 49. Krefft G (1871) On Australian Entozoa, with description of new species. *Transactions of the Entomological Society of New South Wales*, **2**: 206-232
- 50. Bursey CR and Goldberg SR (1999) *Skrjabinodon piankai* sp. n. (Nematoda: *Pharyngodonida*e) and other helminths of geckos (Sauria: *Gekkonidae*: *Nephrurus* spp.) from Australia. *Journal of the Helminthological Society of Washington*, **66**: 175-179

- Ali JH, Riley J et al. (1984) Further observations of blunt-hooked raillietiellids (*Pentastomida: Cephalobaenida*) from lizards with descriptions of three new species. Systematic Parasitology, 6: 147-160
- 52. Heymons R (1939) Beiträge zur Systematik der Pentastomiden. II. Einige bemerkenswerte Pentastomiden aus Lacertiliern. *Zeitschrift für Parasitenkunde*, **10**: 675-690

To provide feedback on Fact Sheets

Wildlife Health Australia welcomes your feedback on Fact Sheets. Please email <u>admin@wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au</u>. We would also like to hear from you if you have a particular area of expertise and are interested in creating or updating a WHA Fact Sheet. A small amount of funding is available to facilitate this.

Disclaimer

This Fact Sheet is managed by Wildlife Health Australia for information purposes only. Information contained in it is drawn from a variety of sources external to Wildlife Health Australia. Although reasonable care was taken in its preparation, Wildlife Health Australia does not guarantee or warrant the accuracy, reliability, completeness or currency of the information or its usefulness in achieving any purpose. It should not be relied on in place of professional veterinary or medical consultation. To the fullest extent permitted by law, Wildlife Health Australia will not be liable for any loss, damage, cost or expense incurred in or arising by reason of any person relying on information in this Fact Sheet. Persons should accordingly make and rely on their own assessments and enquiries to verify the accuracy of the information provided.



Find out more at <u>www.wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au</u> Email <u>admin@wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au</u> Or call +61 2 9960 6333