

1 **Tracking animal reservoirs of pathogenic *Leptospira*: the right test**
2 **for the right claim.**

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16

17 **Abstract.**

18 Leptospirosis, caused by a pathogenic *Leptospira* bacteria, is the most prevalent zoonosis
19 worldwide and in this context has been extensively investigated through a One Health
20 framework. Diagnosis of human leptospirosis includes molecular and serological tools, with
21 serological Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT) still being considered as a gold standard.
22 Mammals considered as biological reservoirs include species or populations that are able to
23 maintain chronic infection and shed the bacteria via their urine in the environment. *Leptospira*
24 bacteria are often investigated using the same diagnosis tool, serological MAT. However,
25 MAT testing of putative animal reservoirs can lead to mis-interpretations as it can signal
26 previous infection and not necessarily bring in robust information regarding the capacity of
27 such sero-positive animals to maintain chronic infection. We use previously published data
28 and present new results on introduced and endemic small mammals to show that MAT should
29 not be used for the identification of reservoirs. By contrast, serological data are informative
30 on the level of exposure of animals occupying a specific environment. Finally, we present a
31 sequential methodology to investigate human leptospirosis in a One Health framework that
32 associates molecular detection in humans and animals, together with MAT of human samples
33 using *Leptospira* isolates obtained from reservoir animals occurring in the same environment.

34

35 **Introduction**

36 Leptospirosis is claimed as the most widespread bacterial zoonosis worldwide causing over
37 one million human cases and nearly 60,000 deaths per year (Costa *et al.* 2015a). Despite its
38 medical and veterinary importance, the burden of the disease remains underestimated in
39 numerous countries, stimulating epidemiological investigations conducted in a One Health
40 framework and aiming to identify the major drivers of the disease (Vinetz *et al.* 2005; Smythe
41 and Chappel 2012; Allan *et al.* 2015). Leptospirosis is caused by pathogenic bacteria
42 belonging to the genus *Leptospira* (family Leptospiraceae), which have been historically
43 classified using antigenic determinants through Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT)
44 (Martin and Pettit 1918) and Co-Agglutination Absorption Technique (CAAT), allowing to
45 define over 20 serogroups and 300 serovars (Levett 2001; Picardeau 2013). Molecular tools
46 have been more recently developed and have revealed a high genetic diversity of *Leptospira*
47 (Picardeau 2013; Saito *et al.* 2013; Bourhy *et al.* 2014) with several additional species later
48 uncovered by genomic approaches (Guglielmini *et al.* 2019; Vincent *et al.* 2019).

49 The main biological cycle of pathogenic *Leptospira* involves wild or domestic animals acting
50 as reservoirs through the shedding of the bacteria via their urine in the environment (Ko,
51 Goarant and Picardeau 2009). Humans get mostly (but not only, see Bulach *et al.* 2006)
52 infected through indirect contact with a contaminated environment. Although virtually all
53 mammal species can get infected by these pathogenic bacteria, some requirements are needed
54 to consider them as reservoirs (Babudieri 1958), and indeed only a limited number of species
55 have been definitively shown to support chronic maintenance of the bacteria in their kidneys.
56 Rodents are considered as the main reservoirs but other mammals such as bats (Dietrich *et al.*
57 2015), invasive (Cosson *et al.* 2014; Costa *et al.* 2015b) or endemic (Dietrich *et al.* 2014;
58 Lagadec *et al.* 2016) small terrestrial mammals as well as cattle (Barragan *et al.* 2016;
59 Guernier *et al.* 2016) have been identified as important reservoirs of *Leptospira*. The
60 multiplication of pathogenic bacteria in animal reservoirs has been examined in experimental
61 infections of mice under laboratory controlled conditions (Ratet *et al.* 2014). Using
62 bioluminescent *Leptospira*, authors showed that a systemic infection associated with weight
63 loss can occur within three days following intra peritoneal infection. Thereafter, within a
64 week, bacteria become rapidly invisible while animals return to a body weight that is hardly
65 distinguishable from that of control animals. Then, a bioluminescent signal of *Leptospira*
66 appears in two spots, corresponding to kidneys where bacteria actively divide leading to a
67 glowing signal persisting for months while systemic infection has apparently irreversibly
68 vanished (Ratet *et al.* 2014).

69 Hence, the fate of pathogenic *Leptospira* appears to be different in reservoir and incident
70 hosts, with a systemic infection followed by renal colonization in the former contrasting with
71 a general absence of renal colonization in the latter. The separation between reservoir and
72 incident hosts may be not that clear cut and depends on different parameters. Indeed,
73 experimental infections have shown that survival of infected animals and shedding of bacteria
74 depend on the bacterial strains, the infecting bacterial dose, the vertebrate species concerned,
75 as well as the routes of infection (Ratet *et al.* 2014; Matsui *et al.* 2015; Wunder *et al.* 2016;
76 Gomes-Solecki, Santecchia and Werts 2017). For instance, experimental infection of Golden
77 hamsters considered as models of acute infection may lead to chronic shedding in the few
78 animals surviving the infection (Cordonin *et al.* 2019). However, the colonization of renal
79 tubules, which is typical of animal reservoirs, has a considerable immunological consequence:
80 pathogenic *Leptospira* organized in biofilms in the lumen of renal tubules (Ristow *et al.* 2008)
81 remain hidden from the immune system. Since the duration of sero-positivity following
82 infection is not well known (Lloyd-Smith *et al.* 2007), the immunological signature detected
83 in sera may not reflect the *Leptospira* that are chronically shed by the reservoir animal.

84 Beside its use in *Leptospira* classification, MAT is considered as the reference test for
85 leptospirosis diagnosis in incident hosts (humans and domestic animals), as it allows detecting
86 host antibodies testifying to current, recent, and past infections (Levett 2001; Musso and La
87 Scola 2013). MAT has also been widely used for the investigation of animal reservoirs
88 (Roberts *et al.* 2010; Desvars *et al.* 2012; Assenga *et al.* 2015; Andersen-Ranberg, Pippert and
89 Jensen 2016; Rodrigues *et al.* 2016; Sigaud *et al.* 2009) but some studies indicate that MAT
90 does not definitively verify the carrier status of a given animal species (Ellis, O'Brien and
91 Cassells 1981; Miraglia *et al.* 2008; Libonati, Pinto and Lilenbaum 2017; Sant'anna *et al.*
92 2017). In the present work, we present further support for these latter observations and argue
93 that the use of MAT may lead to misconclusions regarding the importance of investigated
94 animal species as reservoirs.

95 To support our purposes, we focused on animal species known as pathogenic *Leptospira*
96 reservoirs on Southwestern Indian Ocean (SWIO) islands. This region is home to a wide
97 diversity of mammals, many being endemic, as well as introduced rodents (family Muridae)
98 and shrews (family Soricidae). The typing of *Leptospira* excreted by mammals in this region
99 has demonstrated high levels of *Leptospira*-host specificity (Dietrich *et al.* 2014, 2018;
100 Gomard *et al.* 2016; Lagadec *et al.* 2016). Indeed, the region is home to a large diversity of
101 bats from seven different families that represent multiple colonizations of the region and
102 endemic terrestrial mammals of the family Tenrecidae and subfamily Nesomyinae (each

103 representing separate adaptive radiations), which appear to be the exclusive reservoirs of
104 specific pathogenic *Leptospira*, providing interesting biological circumstances to address the
105 power of MAT for investigating leptospirosis epidemiology.

106 Three animal species from the SWIO region, known to host distinct bacterial lineages/species,
107 were included in the present investigation. Using published molecular and serological data
108 together with original results, we demonstrate that *Leptospira* serological signatures are not
109 necessarily connected to the *Leptospira* excreted by animal reservoirs. We demonstrate the
110 shortfalls of MAT used alone for the identification of *Leptospira* animal reservoirs and
111 discuss the utility of MAT for clarifying leptospirosis epidemiology.

112

113 **Materials and methods**

114 *Ethical considerations.*

115 Biological materials screened in the present study were sampled in the context of a research
116 program for which permits numbers and IACUC acceptance have been presented elsewhere
117 (Dietrich *et al.* 2018).

118

119 *Animal sampling, Leptospira serological, and molecular data.*

120 Three mammal species from the SWIO were included in the study: *Mormopterus*
121 *acetabulosus* (Molossidae), an insectivorous bat species endemic to Mauritius Island; *Tenrec*
122 *ecaudatus* (Tenrecidae), an omnivorous terrestrial mammal species endemic to Madagascar
123 and introduced to several SWIO islands, including Reunion Island and Mayotte; an invasive
124 rodent species, *R. rattus* (Muridae) sampled both on Reunion Island and on Mayotte (Table
125 1). Most of these species were previously investigated for *Leptospira* infection through
126 molecular and/or serological methods by different researcher groups (Desvars *et al.* 2012,
127 2013; Pagès *et al.* 2015; Guernier *et al.* 2016; Lagadec *et al.* 2016; Dietrich *et al.* 2018). In
128 addition, we produced serological data through MAT for the *M. acetabulosus* samples. The
129 same individual specimens were previously investigated for *Leptospira* infection through
130 molecular methods (Dietrich *et al.* 2018). MAT was performed essentially as previously
131 described (Biscornet *et al.* 2017) using 18 *Leptospira* strains and screening most serogroups
132 reported in both human cases and animals on SWIO islands (Table S1). A serum was
133 considered as positive when the MAT titer was $\geq 1:100$.

134

135 **Results**

136 *Bats*

137 Serotyping of *Mormopterus acetabulosus* samples through MAT indicates that 20.0% (6/30)
138 of specimens were seropositive, with sera agglutinating Panama and Pyrogenes serogroups
139 (Table 2 and S2). Using nucleic acids extracted from the kidneys of the same individual
140 specimens, Dietrich et al. (2018) reported that 73.3% (22/30) of the animals tested positive
141 through Real-Time Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR), showing poor agreement between
142 MAT and RT-PCR (Kappa test = 0.17). More specifically, the six MAT-positive bats were
143 also positive by RT-PCR while, most importantly, 66.6% of the remaining MAT-negative
144 bats (16/24) tested positive by RT-PCR. The sequencing of RT-PCR-positives specimens
145 (also positive in MAT) confirmed that *M. acetabulosus* harbors a *Leptospira* bacterial
146 sequence falling within the *Mormopterus*-borne *Leptospira* monophyletic clade embedded in
147 *L. borgpetersenii* (Dietrich et al. 2018) (Table 2).

148

149 *Rats*

150 Introduced populations of *Rattus rattus* are present on both Mayotte and Reunion Island, but
151 molecular and serological screenings highlight striking differences between these two islands
152 (Table 2). On Mayotte, three serogroups have been previously reported, namely Mini,
153 Pyrogenes, and Grippytyphosa, whereas on Reunion Island the main detected serogroups
154 correspond to Icterohaemorrhagiae, Canicola, Sejroe, Mini, and Cynopteri (Desvars et al.
155 2012, 2013). The molecular investigations of *R. rattus* on both islands confirms sharp inter
156 island differences, with Reunion Island animals harboring strictly *L. interrogans* (Guernier et
157 al. 2016), while on Mayotte this rodent may harbor either of three distinct *Leptospira* species
158 (*L. interrogans*, *L. borgpetersenii*, and *L. kirschneri*) (Lagadec et al. 2016).

159 On Reunion Island, a study investigated an outbreak of human leptospirosis after a triathlon
160 and included 10 *R. rattus* that were incidentally trapped at the site where the sporting event
161 took place a few weeks before the event. Five out of the 10 sampled rats tested positive by
162 PCR based on kidney samples. The sequencing of the positive samples revealed only *L.*
163 *interrogans* (Pagès et al. 2015; Guernier et al. 2016). Of note, two of the PCR-positive
164 specimens were positive through MAT, whereas the remaining PCR-positive rats were sero-
165 negative.

166

167 *Tenrecs*

168 On Reunion Island, three serogroups have been reported in *Tenrec ecaudatus*:
169 Icterohaemorrhagiae usually detected with high titers, while Canicola and Bataviae

170 serogroups are agglutinated with low titers (Desvars *et al.* 2013a; Sigaud *et al.* 2009) (Table
171 2). Although these serogroups have been detected with moderate to high prevalence on
172 Reunion Island, *T. ecaudatus* is not considered as a *Leptospira* reservoir on that island since
173 renal carriage could not be demonstrated through two independent studies (Desvars *et al.*
174 2013; Guernier *et al.* 2016) (Table 2). This absence of infection on Reunion Island contrasts
175 with the situation on Mayotte, where *T. ecaudatus* was identified as the exclusive reservoir of
176 *L. mayottensis*, a pathogenic species commonly associated with human leptospirosis on that
177 island (Lagadec *et al.* 2016) (Table 2).

178

179 **Discussion**

180 Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT) has been, and still is, considered the gold standard for
181 leptospirosis diagnosis in humans. A meta-analysis has calculated the mean prevalence in
182 reservoir mammals using the data published in 300 papers including eight different
183 taxonomic orders (Andersen-Ranberg, Pipper and Jensen 2016). MAT and PCR were given
184 an equivalent weight in that analysis, and the nature of the screened samples, *i.e.* blood (for
185 MAT and PCR) or kidney/urine (for PCR only) was not taken into consideration. Hence,
186 acute/passed infections and chronic kidney carriage were not distinguished in that study, as
187 has been done in several others. In the bat samples screened in the present study, we
188 demonstrate a poor agreement between data from serological and molecular analyses. Similar
189 findings were also reported on a fruit bat species, *Pteropus alecto* (Pteropodidae), from
190 Australia (Cox, Smythe and Leung 2005), which indicated poor agreement between PCR
191 (detection on kidneys) and serological data; these results underlined that a carrier status for
192 this species could not be shown based on serology. In Brazil, studies have reported limited or
193 absence of agreement between PCR (detection in urine) and serological results in livestock
194 animals or asymptomatic dogs (Hamond *et al.* 2014; Sant'anna *et al.* 2017).

195 The bat species investigated herein belongs to the genus *Mormopterus*, which includes within
196 the SWIO region two other species, *M. francoismoutoui* and *M. jugularis*, endemic to
197 Reunion Island and Madagascar, respectively. Recently, the research on these three molossid
198 bats has shown that they shelter pathogenic *Leptospira* clustering into a single monophyletic
199 *L. borgpetersenii* clade (Gomard *et al.* 2016; Dietrich *et al.* 2018). Interestingly, the screening
200 of *M. acetabulosus* specimens through MAT reveals that sera agglutinate two distinct
201 serogroups, *i.e.* Panama, and Pyrogenes. Although there is poor congruence between

202 serogroups and genomospecies, members of Panama serogroup can be found in two species,
203 *L. noguchii* and *L. inadai* (Levett 2001), but not in *L. borgpetersenii*. This suggests that the
204 Panama serogroup signature results from independent systemic infections, which have cleared
205 out without leading to renal colonization.

206 Although the molecular and serological analyses from *Rattus* and *Tenrec* were not all
207 obtained from the same specimens, the results presented herein hardly support any agreement
208 of data obtained from molecular and serological work. Interestingly, the investigation of these
209 two mammal genera on Mayotte and Reunion Island highlight the importance of
210 independently evaluating the reservoir status of a given mammal species on different islands,
211 as *Rattus* do not shelter the same *Leptospira* species. The investigation of *Tenrec* is more
212 compelling. While on Mayotte *T. ecaudatus* is the exclusive carrier of the recently described
213 *L. mayottensis*, investigations on Reunion Island showed that up to 81% of individual *Tenrec*
214 were seropositive (mostly reacting against Icterohaemorrhagiae) but not one individual showed
215 evidence for chronic kidney infection (Desvars *et al.* 2013; Guernier *et al.* 2016). On Reunion
216 Island, *T. ecaudatus* is therefore not a reservoir of *Leptospira* and Icterohaemorrhagiae
217 serogroup revealed through MAT should be considered as evidence of animal exposure to the
218 *Leptospira* actually present in the environment.

219 In our tested samples, some individuals were positive through PCR but negative through
220 MAT. These discrepancies may result from past infections and subsequent kidney
221 colonization followed by titer decay and eventually seronegativation, as previously reported
222 in animal reservoirs (Lloyd-Smith *et al.* 2007) and incidental hosts (Blackmore, Schollum and
223 Moriarty 1984; Lupidi *et al.* 1991; Cumberland *et al.* 2001). We propose that conflicting
224 results of known reservoirs, such as bats testing positive through MAT but negative through
225 PCR using kidney tissues and/or urine, are best explained by animals that experienced past
226 infections in which *Leptospira* did not colonize the kidneys. This absence of colonization
227 might be related to a low infecting dose and/or from an infecting bacterial genomospecies that
228 is unable to establish persistent renal colonization in a specific vertebrate species. This
229 assumption is based on the existence of host-*Leptospira* molecular determinants required for
230 renal colonization, an hypothesis substantiated by experimental infections in which bat-borne
231 and Tenrec-borne *Leptospira* were not able to lead to chronic infection in rats (Cordonin *et al.*
232 2020).

233 Finally, the biological setting of SWIO islands brings further evidence of problems using
234 MAT for the identification of *Leptospira* reservoirs. Several studies have used MAT on
235 samples of wild animals to address their role in the epidemiology of leptospirosis. As
236 demonstrated here, this serological technique is very useful as it opens a window on
237 environmental exposure to *Leptospira*. However, even though it is clearly important to
238 address the diversity and intensity of *Leptospira* exposure in an environmental setting, we
239 emphasize that MAT data from investigated animals cannot lead to any robust conclusion
240 regarding their role as a reservoir. Such investigations, carried out in a One Health framework
241 require bacterial genotyping using kidney or urine samples so that bacteria excreted by
242 mammal reservoirs can be compared to those identified in acute human cases. Ultimately, a
243 thorough investigation of leptospirosis following a One Health framework would require (i)
244 PCR screening of urine or kidney tissues from putative animal reservoirs, (ii) isolation of
245 *Leptospira* from identified reservoirs, and (iii) the inclusion of these isolates in a MAT panel
246 used to screen human sera collected from persons living or having a professional/recreational
247 activity in the investigated environment. Such investigations would allow not only identifying
248 animal reservoirs in a specific environmental setting, but highlighting those bacterial
249 species/lineages of major medical concern.

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Table 1. Animal species used in the present study and the associated publications for *Leptospira* investigations.

Animal species	Islands	Serological data	Molecular data
<i>Mormopterus acetabulosus</i>	Mauritius	Present study	Dietrich <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Tenrec ecaudatus</i>	Mayotte	NA	Lagadec <i>et al.</i> (2016)
	La Réunion	Desvars <i>et al.</i> (2013a)	Desvars <i>et al.</i> (2013a); Guernier <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>Rattus rattus</i>	Mayotte	Desvars <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Desvars <i>et al.</i> (2012)
	La Réunion	Desvars <i>et al.</i> (2012, 2013a)	Desvars <i>et al.</i> (2012, 2013a); Guernier <i>et al.</i> (2016)

NA: not available.

Table 2. Comparison of serological and molecular *Leptospira* data obtained from the investigated animal species.

Animal species	Islands	Serological data (MAT)		Molecular data (RT PCR)	
		Positive animals (%)	Detected serogroups (titer)	Positive animals (%)	<i>Leptospira</i> spp.
<i>Mormopterus acetabulosus</i>	Mauritius	20.0% (6/30)	Panama (1:100 – 400) (n=5) Pyrogenes (1:200) (n=1)	73.3% (22/30)	<i>Lb</i> (n=8)
	Mayotte	NA	NA	27.0% (10/37)	<i>Lm</i> (n=8)
<i>Tenrec ecaudatus</i>	Reunion	13.2% (5/38)	Icterohaemorrhagiae (1:200 – 800) (n=3) Canicola (1:100) (n=1) Bataviae (1:100) (n=1)	0.0% (0/35) 0.0% (0/35)	- -
	Mayotte	11.2% (14/125)	Mini (1:100 – 400) (n=7) Pyrogenes (1:200) (n=1) Grippotyphosa (1:100 – 1,600) (n=3) Co-agglutinations (n=3)	29.8% (42/121) 15.9% (46/289)	<i>Lb</i> (n=9), <i>Li</i> (n=7), <i>Lk</i> (n=2), <i>Lm</i> (n=2) <i>Lb</i> (n=13), <i>Li</i> (n=3), <i>Lk</i> (n=5)
<i>Rattus rattus</i>	Reunion	78.8% (52/66)	Icterohaemorrhagiae (1:100 – 3,200) (n=22) Canicola (1:100 – 400) (n=7) Sejroe (1:100 – 1:200) (n=2) Mini (1:100) (n=1) Cynopteri (1:3,200) (n=1) Co-agglutinations (n=19)	65.8% (50/76) 38.5% (214/562)	NA <i>Li</i> (n=201)

Lb: *L. borgpetersenii*, *Li*: *L. interrogans*, *Lk*: *L. kirschneri*, *Lm*: *L. mayottensis*.

MAT: Microscopic Agglutination Test, RT PCR: Real-Time Polymerase Chain Reaction.

NA: not available

Table S1. Details of *Leptospira* strains used for the Microscopic Agglutination Test on *Mormopterus acetabulosus*.

Species	Serogroup	Serovar	Strain
<i>L. biflexa</i>	Semarang	Patoc	Patoc I (Paris)
<i>L. borgpetersenii</i>	Ballum	Castellonis	Castellon 3
	Sejroe	Hardjobovis	Sponselee
	Sejroe	Sejroe	M 84
<i>L. interrogans</i>	Tarassovi	Tarassovi	Perepelicin
	Australis	Australis	Ballico
	Autumnalis	Autumnalis	Akiyami A
	Bataviae	Bataviae	Van Tienen
	Canicola	Canicola	Hond Utrecht IV
	Hebdomadis	Hebdomadis	Hebdomadis
	Icterohaemorrhagiae	Copenhageni	Wijiberg
	Icterohaemorrhagiae	Icterohaemorrhagiae	-
	Pomona	Pomona	-
	Pyrogenes	Pyrogenes	Salinem
<i>L. kirschneri</i>	Cynopteri	Cynopteri	3522C
	Grippotyphosa	Grippotyphosa	Moskva V
	Mini	undertermined	200803703
<i>L. noguchii</i>	Panama	Panama	CZ 214K

Table S2. Details of bat samples, *Mormopterus acetabulosus* from Mauritius, used in the present study. The table includes the (a) Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT) results and *Leptospira* molecular data obtained from the present study and the work of Dietrich et al. (2018) respectively. *RT-PCR*: Real-Time Polymerase Chain Reaction, *CT*: Cycle Threshold, *FMNH*: specimen deposited in the Field Museum of Natural History

Specimen ID No.	ID extraction	Sex	Age	Date (day/month/year)	Site	Serology results		Molecular results		
						MAT	<i>Leptospira</i> serogroup (MAT titer)	RT - PCR	CT	<i>Leptospira</i> species
FMNH 213456	152	F	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(+)		<i>L. borgpetersenii</i> related
FMNH 213457	153	F	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(-)	-	
FMNH 213458	154	F	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(+)		
FMNH 213459	155	M	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(-)	-	
FMNH 213461	157	M	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(-)	-	
FMNH 213463	159	M	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(+)		
FMNH 213465	161	M	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(+)		<i>L. borgpetersenii</i> related
FMNH 213466	162	M	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(+)	Pyrogenes (1:200)	(+)		<i>L. borgpetersenii</i> related
FMNH 213467	163	F	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(+)		
FMNH 213470	166	M	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(+)		
FMNH 213471	167	M	A	14/12/10	Palma Cave (Palma)	(-)	-	(+)		
FMNH 213472	168	F	A	15/12/10	Twilight Cave (Roches Noires)	(-)	-	(-)	-	
FMNH 213475	171	F	A	15/12/10	Twilight Cave (Roches Noires)	(-)	-	(-)	-	
FMNH 213477	173	M	A	15/12/10	Twilight Cave (Roches Noires)	(-)	-	(-)	-	

FMNH 213474	170	F	A	15/12/10	Twilight Cave (Roches Noires)	(-)	-	(+)	
FMNH 213479	175	F	A	15/12/10	Twilight Cave (Roches Noires)	(-)	-	(+)	
FMNH 213481	176	F	A	15/12/10	Twilight Cave (Roches Noires)	(-)	-	(+)	
FMNH 213483	179	M	A	15/12/10	Twilight Cave (Roches Noires)	(-)	-	(-)	-
FMNH 213485	181	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(+)	Panama (1:100)	(+)	42,00
FMNH 213486	182	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(-)	-	(-)	-
FMNH 213487	183	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(-)	-	(+)	34,00 <i>L. borgpetersenii</i> related
FMNH 213489	185	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(-)	-	(+)	37,00
FMNH 213490	186	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(-)	-	(+)	35,00
FMNH 213491	187	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(-)	-	(+)	38,00
FMNH 213493	189	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(+)	Panama (1:200)	(+)	34,00
FMNH 213494	190	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(+)	Panama (1:400)	(+)	35,00
FMNH 213495	191	F	A	15/12/10	Caverne Trois Bras (Moulin à Vent)	(-)	-	(+)	
FMNH 213503	199	F	A	16/12/10	Camp Thorel Cave (Camp Thorel)	(+)	Panama (1:400)	(+)	40,00
FMNH 213504	200	M	A	16/12/10	Camp Thorel Cave (Camp Thorel)	(-)	-	(+)	34,00
FMNH 213508	204	M	A	16/12/10	Camp Thorel Cave (Camp Thorel)	(+)	Panama (1:400)	(+)	37,00