**Gurltia paralysans: a neglected parasite of domestic cats**

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**ABSTRACT.** *Gurltia paralysans* (order Strongylida; family Angiostrongylidae) is a metastrongyloid parasite that causes chronic meningo(myelitis in domestic cats in South America. The geographic distribution of *G. paralysans* includes rural and peri-urban areas of Chile and Argentina. However, feline gurltiosis has recently been reported in other South American countries, including Uruguay, Colombia, and Brazil, and was also recently reported in Tenerife, Canary Islands (Spain). Feline gurltiosis is increasingly detected in domestic cats in southern Chile and its apparent geographic range is also increasing, together with an awareness of the disease among veterinarians. The life cycle of the parasite is unknown, but is probably indirect, involving gastropods as the intermediate host, as in other metastrongyloid nematode species. The clinical signs of *G. paralysans* infection include progressive pelvic limb ataxia, paraparesis, paraplegia, faecal or urinary incontinence, and/or tail paralysis. A definitive diagnosis of feline gurltiosis is still challenging and only possible with necropsy, when adult *G. paralysans* nematodes are detected within the spinal cord vasculature, together with macroscopic lesions, and characteristic morphological features. A semi-nested PCR method was recently developed for the in vivo diagnosis of this neglected parasite. Current treatment options include macrocyclic lactones and mylbemicn oxime, but the prognosis is poor in severe cases. In this article, we review *G. paralysans* infection in cats, focusing on the diagnosis shortcomings and the future directions of research into its biology and the associated neurological disease. Comprehensive updates on the epidemiology and clinical features, diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of feline gurltiosis are provided.

Key words: Gurltia, feline, nematode, spinal cord.

**INTRODUCTION**

*Gurltia paralysans* (Nematoda; order Strongylida; superfamily Metastrongyloidea; family Angiostrongylidae) is a metastrongyloid parasite that causes chronic meningo(myelitis in domestic cats (Wolffhügel 1933, Levin 1968, Bowman et al 2002, Gómez et al 2010, Moroni et al 2012). The geographic distribution of *G. paralysans* includes areas of Chile, Argentina, Uruguay, Colombia, and Brazil (Guerrero et al 2011, Gómez-Alzate et al 2011, Rivero et al 2011, Moroni et al 2012, Melo Neto et al 2019) (figure 1), but recently has been isolated in the Canary Islands, Spain (Udiz-Rodríguez et al 2018). The nematode can be found in the leptomeningeal veins and the parenchyma of the spinal cord of the feline host, and the infection has been associated to progressive paraparesis, paraplegia, faecal or urinary incontinence, and/or tail paralysis (Gómez et al 2010, Moroni et al 2012, Mieres et al 2013). The life cycle of the parasite is unknown, but is likely to be heteroxenous, as other metastrongyloid nematodes. The diagnosis of feline gurltiosis is challenging and, so far, only possible by necropsy (Wolffhügel 1933, Wolffhügel 1934, Moroni et al 2012, Muñoz et al 2017).

**HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

*Gurltia paralysans* was first reported in the early 1930s in Chile by Kurt Wolfgang Wolffhügel (1869-1951), a German scientist, naturalist, and parasitologist (Wolffhügel 1934, Bowman et al 2002). Wolffhügel diagnosed eleven cases of domestic cats, studying their pathological lesions and extracting adult nematodes from their spinal cords. All affected animals came from the Provinces of Llanquihue and Puerto Varas, Southern Chile (latitude 41° south). The genus *Gurltia* was named after Ernst Friedrich Gurlt (1794-1882), a German veterinary anatomist and teratologist. Wolffhügel called the disease “paraplejia cruralis parasitaria felis” and initially placed the nematode as genus *Hemostrongylus*, later called *Angiostrongylus*.

**MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS**

The measurements of male and female specimens reported in the literature are summarised in table 1. Males of *G. paralysans* have a body length of 12-18 mm and are 0.072 mm wide just anterior to the bursa, with a 0.026-0.032 mm wide in the cephalic region (Wolffhügel 1934, Moroni et al 2012, Rodríguez 2013, Muñoz et al 2017). The oesophagus is 0.368-0.0392 mm long, and the oesophageo-intestinal junction is 0.008 mm long. The nerve ring is 0.148-0.164 mm in diameter and the excretory pore occurs 0.232-0.240 mm from the anterior end (Muñoz et al 2017) (figure 2, table 1). No cervical papillae are reported. The spicules are 0.65-0.902 mm long, curved in lateral view, and the tip has a main stem and a single-pointed branch surrounded by a bluntly rounded membrane (Wolffhügel 1934, Moroni...
Table 1. Measurements of morphological characters of male and female *Gurltia paralysans* reported in the literature.

| Characters                  | Male                  | Female                |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
|                            | Wolffhügel 1934       | Moroni *et al* 2012   | Rodríguez 2013       | Muñoz *et al* 2017       | Wolffhügel 1934 | Moroni *et al* 2012 | Rodríguez 2013 | Muñoz *et al* 2017 |
| Total length               | 12                    | 13-18                 | 10.20-16.35          | 14-15                   | 20.5-23.0       | 23-30                 | 23.55-36.06     | 27-28            |
| Maximum width              | 0.07                  | 0.1                   | 0.075-0.078          | 0.072                   |                  | 0.1                   | 0.113-0.150      | 0.082-0.088      |
| Oesophagus length          | 0.360-0.432           | 0.4                   | 0.225-0.338          | 0.036-0.039             |                  | 0.6                   | 0.226-0.338      | 0.444-0.468      |
| Nerve ring                 |                       |                       | 0.148-0.164          |                       |                  |                       | 0.132             |                  |
| Nerve ring/anterior end    |                       |                       | 0.075-0.114          |                       |                  |                       |                  |                  |
| Excretory pore             |                       |                       | 0.232-0.240          | 0.236                  |                  |                       |                  |                  |
| Anal/end distance          |                       |                       |                       | 0.03                   | 0.001-0.038       |                       |                  |                  |
| Anal/vulva distance        |                       |                       |                       |                       | 0.13             |                       |                  |                  |
| Vulva/end distance         |                       |                       |                       | 0.150                  | 0.112-0.171       | 0.102-0.112        |                  |                  |
| Spicules length            | 0.65                  | 0.8                   | 0.756-0.902          | 0.722-0.816            | 0.05-0.065       | 0.040-0.072          | 0.026-0.048      |                  |
| Spicule width              |                       | 0.003                 |                       |                       |                  |                       |                  |                  |
| Gubernaculum length        |                       |                       | 0.037-0.039          | 0.062                  |                  |                       |                  |                  |
| Bursa width                |                       | 0.13                  | 0.076-0.150          |                       |                  |                       |                  |                  |
| Bursa length               |                       | 0.066                 | 0.038-0.039          |                       |                  |                       |                  |                  |
| Egg length                 |                       |                       | 0.039-0.054          | 0.040-0.72             |                  |                       |                  |                  |
| Egg width                  |                       |                       | 0.039-0.054          | 0.026-0.048            |                  |                       |                  |                  |

All measurements are given in millimetres (mm).

*et al* 2012, Rodríguez 2013, Muñoz *et al* 2017). The male gubernaculum is 0.062 mm long, slender, curved, and tapering distally in lateral view (Moroni *et al* 2012, Rodríguez 2013, Muñoz *et al* 2017). The bursal lobes are symmetrical and the bursal rays are arranged with the ventral rays, rays 2 and 3, fused to a common stem and only separated distally. The lateral rays have a common stem and the anterolateral ray (ray 4) branches off first and is longer than the other 2 laterals (rays 5 and 6), which share a common stem. The external dorsal ray (ray 8) is shorter than the lateral rays and appears segmented in mature specimens; the dorsal rays (rays 9 and 10) have thick stems, with some variation in length between the 2 male specimens examined, and only divide into 2 small branches at the distal tip. The genital cone has a ventral cone-shaped membrane (Muñoz *et al* 2017). Females have a body length of 20.5-36.06 mm and a width of 0.082-0.088 mm just anterior to the vulva (Wolffhügel 1934, Moroni *et al* 2012, Rodríguez 2013, Muñoz *et al* 2017). The cephalic region is 0.032-0.036 mm wide. The oesophagus is 0.444-0.468 mm long and the oesophago-intestinal valve is 0.008-0.012 mm in diameter. The nerve ring is 0.132 mm in diameter and the excretory pore occurs 0.236 mm from the anterior end. The vulva opens 0.102-0.112 mm from the tail tip, and the posterior margin of the vulva has a folded flap in mature specimens (figure 2). No didelphic or prodelphic infundibula or sphincters are visible. The uteri join to form a vagina 1.44 mm from the vulval opening. The eggs in the uterus and vagina are 0.040-0.072 mm × 0.026-0.048 mm in size, depending on maturity. Scanning electron microscopic images have revealed the presence of double submedian cephalic papillae, amphids, and a lip with a tooth at the anterior end of the parasite (Muñoz *et al* 2017).
LIFE CYCLE OF *G. PARALYSANS*

The transmission or life cycle of *G. paralysans* is mostly unknown. Adult males and females and eggs have been found in the veins from the subarachnoid space of the host spinal cord (Moroni *et al* 2012). No eggs or larvae were found in the faeces, blood, bronchial lavage, or other body fluids of eight infected cats (Peña 2014). As other closely related metastrongyloid species infecting felines, terrestrial gastropods as intermediate hosts (IH) and/or paratenic hosts (PH) have been hypothesised in the life cycle of *G. paralysans*. Thus, cats may become infected by consuming *G. paralysans*-carrying gastropods (i.e., slugs and snails) or a PH with an infective third-stage larvae (L3), including insects, frogs, toads, lizards, birds, and rodents (Moroni *et al* 2012, Melo Neto *et al* 2019) (figure 3). In a recent study, 835 terrestrial gastropods, including members of the Fam. Arionidae, Limacidae, Helicidae, and Milacida, were collected during August 2015 and November 2016 in Valdivia, Southern Chile, close to reported cases of gurltiosis (Sepúlveda 2018).

All gastropods were subjected to enzymatic digestion to isolate *G. paralysans* larvae. Ten per cent of the gastropod samples were analysed with semi-nested PCR targeting the 18S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene, and 2.6% were analysed with histopathology (Sepúlveda 2018). However, the results of the study indicated the absence of *G. paralysans* by the three methods used. Thus, the molluscan species analysed may not act as IH, and further studies are required to evaluate the role of other species of aquatic gastropods in this geographic area (Sepúlveda 2018).

In a hypothetical migration route, a mollusc or PH is ingested by a cat. The infective larvae (L3) migrate via the mucosae of the digestive system to the veins or lymphatic system of the abdominal viscera and then via connections of the azygos or caval venous system to reach the vertebral venous plexus (VVP) (figure 3). The VVP is in direct communication with the cranial venous system, and because no valves exist in either of them, the blood may flow cranially or caudally, depending on the pressure relationship (Gómez & Freeman 2004). The valveless VVP...
is probably used by *G. paralysans* to reach the spinal sub-arachnoid space or even the brain (Katchanov and Nawa 2010, Moroni et al. 2012). In spinal schistosomiasis in humans, the dissemination of the parasite occurs via the intestinal veins to the VVP (Shahlaie et al. 2005). Spinal schistosomiasis usually involves the lower thoracic and lumbosacral spine, probably because the VVP connects the intra-abdominal veins with those of the lower spine (Paz et al. 2002). Consistent with this, the presence of adult specimens or eggs of *G. paralysans* within the ventral VVP (video 1)\(^1\) and the basivertebral veins located in the vertebral bodies (figure 4) has been observed (unpublished data). These venous connections could also explain the presence of eggs and adult *G. paralysans* in distant places, such as the cerebrum and the anterior chamber of the eye, in more recent reports (Figueroa 2017, Udiz-Rodríguez et al. 2018, Melo Neto et al. 2019). The adaptation of this nematode to migrate exclusively into the venous system may be associated with abiotic factors in the vein environment, such as chemical (CO\(_2\) concentration, O\(_2\) concentration) and physical factors (temperature, mechanics), nutrients, etc (Read & Sharping 1995). Critical gaps for future research in the migratory pathway of *G. paralysans* include the vein tropism of adults and the neuroanatomical localisation to the subarachnoid veins of the spinal cord.

To date, all reports of feline gurltiosis have shown that domestic cats are predominantly affected. However, recent reports from Brazil have described the isolation of *G. paralysans* from the lumbar spinal cord segments of adult wild cats, including the northern tiger cat (*Leopardus triginus*) and a female margay (*L. wieddi*) (Oliveira 2015, Dazzi et al. 2020). Although the huiña or kodkod (*L. guigna*) and Geoffroy’s cat (*L. geoffroyi*) have been

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\(^1\) Available at www.australjvs.cl/ajvs
suggested as possible definitive hosts, neither larval stages nor clinical cases have been diagnosed yet in these wild felids (Muñoz et al. 2017). Further molecular studies are necessary to determine the role of wild cats as hosts and the transmission to other species.

EPIDEMIOLOGY

The first cases of feline gurltiosis were reported in domestic cats from areas of the Valdivian rainforest in southern Chile (Wolffhügel 1933). In Chile, cases have been reported in the La Araucanía, Los Ríos, and Los Lagos regions (Gómez et al. 2010, Moroni et al. 2012). Since then, cases have been reported in Argentina (Guerrero et al. 2011, Bono et al. 2016), Uruguay (Rivero et al. 2011), Colombia (Gómez et al. 2011), and Brazil (Togni et al. 2013, Melo Neto et al. 2019) (figure 1). In Chile, cases of feline gurltiosis have predominantly been diagnosed in rural areas, but more specific spatial distribution in this environment is poorly known (Wolffhügel 1933, Gómez et al. 2010).
et al. 2010, Moroni et al. 2012, Mieres et al. 2013). The disease has been diagnosed in three different regions in the southern part of Chile: the Araucanía region (e.g., Lastarria), the Los Ríos region (e.g., Pumucapa, Niebla, Paillaco, and Futrono), and the Los Lagos region (e.g., Futrono, Pichirropulli, and Ancud) (Moroni et al. 2012). In Colombia, six cases of gurltiosis in domestic cats were reported in Antioquia (municipalities Tarso and Amagá) with signs of pelvic limb weakness and spinal hyperesthesia (Alzate et al. 2011). In Argentina, in 2011, one cat with G. paralysans was reported in the Baradero area of the province of Buenos Aires and three cases in rural areas of the Santa Fé province, in the districts of Las Colonias, San Cristobal, and Castellanos (Guerrero et al. 2011, Bono et al. 2016). In Uruguay, two cases of feline parasitic meningomyelitis due to G. paralysans were described between 2008 and 2009 in the rural area of Fray Bentos (Rivero et al. 2011). This parasitosis has been recognised in Brazil since the mid-1990s, under the local name “bambeirá”, “derrengado”, or “renga” (Togni et al. 2013). In 2013, four cats with G. paralysans infections were reported in the state of Rio Grande do Sul (Togni et al. 2013), and eleven cases were recently found in the state of Pernambuco (municipalities of Caetés and Capoeiras), northeast Brazil (Melo Neto et al. 2019). Also in Brazil, two wild cats (L. wiedi and L. triguinus) were found in the state of Parana (Chapecó) with classical post-mortem spinal cord lesions of feline gurltiosis (Oliveira 2015, Dazzi et al. 2020). More recently, the first case outside of America was reported in Tenerife (Canary Islands, Spain) (Udiz-Rodriguez et al. 2018). In 1993, a cat with neurological and necropsy findings in the lumbar spine compatible with feline gurltiosis was reported in the United States (Bowman et al. 2002). Both cases of G. paralysans, in the Canary Islands and in the US, may have resulted from the introduction of G. paralysans-infected domestic cats from endemic areas of South America or the importation of infected IH, as...
reported for *Angiostrongylus cantonensis* introduced to Canary island (Foronda et al. 2010), although further research is still required.

The disease has been associated with rural settings and forest areas, with humid ecosystems and abundant vegetation (Wolffhügel 1933, Gómez et al. 2009, Rivero et al. 2011, Togni et al. 2013, Melo Neto et al. 2019). The prevalence of the nematode in South America is unknown, but is likely to be underestimated and the disease under-diagnosed (Muñoz et al. 2017). Modelling studies have indicated that southern Chile and Argentina, and the areas in Brazil, Uruguay, and Colombia, where gurltiosis has been diagnosed, are regions at clear risk of the spread of angiostrongyloid nematodes based on their climatic suitability (Morgan et al. 2009). No seasonal occurrence pattern has yet been reported for feline gurltiosis, which is detected in all seasons of the year (Gómez et al. 2010, Moroni et al. 2011, Rivero et al. 2011). In one report, cats with gurltiosis were all co-infected with *Aelurostrongylus abstrusus*, despite none of them showing respiratory symptoms (Mieras et al. 2013). This could indicate that cats infected with *G. paralysans* and *A. abstrusus* could share IH or PH. Factors affecting the distribution of gastropod species are important in determining whether the life cycle of *G. paralysans* can be completed and the potential contact with suitable hosts. Previous studies have indicated that the range of metastrongyloid parasites (i.e., *Angiostrongylus vasorum*) has expanded into new countries and regions (Traversa et al. 2010, Maksimov et al. 2017, Lange et al. 2018). Models have been used to predict the distribution of *A. vasorum* and the risk of infection based on climatic variables and their effects on the survival rates of the intermediate hosts (Maksimov et al. 2017). Similar modeling information is required for *G. paralysans* to predict the distribution range. The causes of the apparent re-emergence of metastrongyloid parasites in domestic animals are still unknown, but several factors may explain the recent increases in reports of feline gurltiosis in several countries (Traversa et al. 2010, Melo Neto et al. 2019). These include global warming, changes in the seasonal population dynamics of vectors, and massive movement of animals (Traversa et al. 2010, Maksimov et al. 2017). Further investigations on this neglected field are needed, including identifying the exposure by serological/molecular prevalence investigations, specific local and global geographic ranges of feline gurltiosis and determining the epidemiological and climatic factors that allow the establishment of *G. paralysans* infection.

**PATHOLOGICAL LESIONS**

The necropsy findings in infected domestic cats include diffuse submeningeal congestion of the lumbar, sacral, and coccygeal spinal cord segments (Gómez et al. 2010, Moroni et al. 2012). Several intravascular nematode larvae and pre-adult stages can be identified histologically in the meningeal veins of the spinal cord, associated with congestion, thrombosis, and thickening of the subarachnoidal vessels (Gómez et al. 2010, Moroni et al. 2012, Mieres et al. 2013, Togni et al. 2013, Moroni et al. 2017). Studies have reported mild smooth-muscle hypertrophy, moderate adventitial fibroplasia, and marked subintimal fibrosis of the spinal cord venules (phlebosclerosis) (Togni et al. 2013). In some specimens, concentric thickening of the venule wall may produce stenosis of the vessel lumen (Togni et al. 2013). Intraluminal papillary projections with an arboriform appearance to the interior of the diluted venules have been interpreted as varicose lesions (venular varices) (Moroni et al. 2012, Togni et al. 2013). Sections of normal or dilated and tortuous varicose venules may contain thrombi with various levels of organisation (Togni et al. 2013). The spinal cord parenchyma may show multiple haemorrhages and extensive foci of malacia, with gitter cells and adjacent gliosis (Togni et al. 2013). Lymphocytes, intermingled with fewer macrophages, primarily infiltrate the meninges, forming a perivascular pattern. Mature eosinophils scattered randomly within the leptomeninges have also been observed, which are consistent with extensive spinal leptomeningitis and thrombophlebitis (Moroni et al. 2012, Togni et al. 2013). Some animals may also show granulomatous leptomeningitis or suppurrative leptomeningitis (Togni et al. 2013). White-matter lesions in the spinal cord segments may have variable degrees of Wallerian degeneration, characterised by the distension of the myelin sheath diameter, irregular axons, axonal swelling, bulbous axonal fragmentation (caused by the presence of axonal spheroids), microcavitation, and focal areas of mineralisation (Moroni et al. 2012, Togni et al. 2013, Moroni et al. 2017). Varicose venules can also be observed in the white matter of the spinal cord, but are associated with recesses in the meninges (Togni et al. 2013). The activation of glial and endothelial cells and immune cell infiltration, visualised with immunohistochemical markers (i.e. GFAP, CNPase, factor VIII, CD3, and CD45R) in affected spinal cord samples, indicate gliosis and chronic inflammatory spinal cord lesions subsequent to the ischemia caused by parasitic vascular injury (Vienenkotter et al. 2015, Jara 2018). The predominant cellular infiltrate in the affected spinal cord is of the mononuclear type, indicating the chronic nature of the lesions (Jara 2018). A recent study analysed the presence of histopathological lesions in the cerebrum, cerebellum, and brainstem in 13 feline patients with post-mortem spinal lesions due to *G. paralysans* (Figueroa 2017). Congestion and hyperaemia were observed in the peripheral blood vessels of both the dorsal and ventral zones of the cerebrum in the 13 cats. In 7 cases, mononuclear cell infiltrate was observed around the choroid plexus, the third and fourth ventricles, and associated blood vessels. Six cats showed thickening of the meninges and 2 showed perivascular neutrophilic inflammatory infiltrate at the level of the cerebral subarachnoid space (Figueroa 2017). Similar findings of leptomeningeal vascular congestion, varices,
and perivascular cellular infiltrate were observed in the encephalons (frontal, temporal, and occipital cortices) of 11 cats infected with *G. paralysans* in Brazil (Melo Neto et al 2019). However, no clinical cases of feline gurltiosis have been observed with clinical cerebral, cerebellar, or brainstem syndromes.

Histological samples from ten *G. paralysans*-infected cats were analysed at the hepatic level. All samples showed signs of periportal hepatic degeneration, perportal inflammatory infiltration, comprising neutrophilic and mononuclear infiltration, indicating direct injury to the liver (Verscheure 2014). However, the possible mechanisms by which intravascular parasites could cause this type of injury pattern in the liver remains unclear. *Angiostrongylus vasorum* can induce moderate liver parenchymal parasitic hepatitis and lesions such as interstitial hemorrhage disseminated inflammatory cells in the portobilhar space or around centrolobular veins attributable to larval nematode migration (Rinaldi et al 2014, Cook et al 2015). In kidneys, gurltiosis has been associated to the presence of hyaline protein deposits inside Bowman’s capsule (in 8 of 10 cases), the thickening of Bowman’s capsule in five cases, and the presence of interstitial inflammatory infiltrate, consisting of neutrophils and eosinophils (in 4 out of 10 cases) (Verscheure 2014). These findings are compatible with glomerulonephritis, which could have been immune-mediated by the deposition of immune complexes of the host (Verscheure 2014).

Further studies are required to understand the role of the immune pathogenesis of the disease, such as interleukins, cytokines, and host cells (e.g., eosinophils, neutrophils, plasma cells, T cells) and how *G. paralysans* regulates feline endothelial functions (e.g. via excretory or secretary antigens) allowing the parasite to use intravascular habitat.

**CLINICAL SIGNS**

The most common clinical manifestation of feline gurltiosis is chronic and progressive ambulatory paraplegia (Gómez et al 2010, Gómez et al 2011, Rivero et al 2011, Mieres et al 2013, Togni et al 2013). Based on 19 cases, the duration of the clinical signs ranges from 2 weeks to 48 months (Mieres et al 2013, Rivero et al 2011, Togni et al 2013, Bono et al 2016, Moroni et al 2016). Other clinical signs include pelvic limb ataxia, pelvic limb proprioceptive deficit, pelvic limb tremor, pelvic limb muscle atrophy, tail trembling, tail atony, and faecal and urinary incontinence (Gómez et al 2010, 2011, Gómez et al 2011, Guerrero et al 2011, Rivero et al 2011, Moroni et al 2012, Mieres et al 2013, Togni et al 2013, MeloNeto et al 2019). The neurological signs are associated with the neuroanatomical lesions observed at necropsy and in histopathological specimens (Mieres et al 2013). The associated haematological abnormalities included non-regenerative anaemia and low mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentrations (hypochromia) (Rojas 2011, Mieres et al 2013) indicating chronic inflammatory disease or chronic blood loss (Gredal 2011). The eosinophilia associated with parasitism has commonly been reported in domestic animals, but is not a common finding in cats with gurltiosis (Mieres et al 2013), which has also been reported in dogs with neural angiostrongylosis (Bourque 2002).

No signs of coagulopathy have been observed in naturally infected cats. However, high levels of urea in the blood have been reported, probably arising from neurogenic urinary dysfunction (Mieres et al 2013). A bronchial lavage analysis of five naturally *G. paralysans*-infected cats, showed the absence of larval stages and eggs (Peña 2014). Ocular lesions (uveitis, chorioretinitis, posterior synechiae, corneal oedema) have recently been reported to be associated with the presence of a motile adult specimen of *G. paralysans* in the anterior chamber of the eye in a domestic cat (Údiz-Rodríguez et al 2018).

**DIAGNOSIS**

Imaging studies by computed tomography, myelography, and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), indicate that *G. paralysans* induce lesions in the thoracolumbar, lumbar, and sacral regions, suggesting diffuse inflammatory spinal cord lesions (Gómez et al 2010, Mieres et al 2013, Togni et al 2013). Myelograms show the retention of columns of contrast medium in the thoracolumbar region (Mieres et al 2013). The intramedullary accumulation of contrast medium, similar to the pattern for myelomalacia, in the thoracolumbar spinal cord segment has been reported in infected cats (Guerrero et al 2011), similar to myelographic examinations of dogs with *A. vasorum* infections (Lun et al 2012). However, the myelographic evaluations in dogs with intramedullary parasitic infections attributed to *Spirocerca lupi* are normal (Chai et al 2008). MRI images of affected cats show multiple nodular areas of hyperintensity in the periphery of the spinal cord, which could also represent slow venous flow within the perimedullary veins (Mieres et al 2013) (figure 5). Spinal cord lesions with nodular or granular aspects have also been detected in *S. mansoni* infections in humans (Nobre et al 2001). Isointensity on T1-weighted images and hyperintensity on T2-weighted images, associated with acute haemorrhagic spinal cord lesions, have been described in dogs infected with *A. vasorum* and *Schistosoma* (Nobre et al 2001, Wessmann et al 2006). Spinal cord enlargement on T1-weighted and T2-weighted images is a common finding in dogs and humans with nematode-associated myelopathy (Kanpittaya et al 2000, Jabbour et al 2011).

A definitive diagnosis of feline gurltiosis can only be made by post-mortem examination, demonstrating the presence of nematodes in the spinal cord vasculature (Gómez et al 2010, Guerrero et al 2011). A clinical history of chronic paraparesis or paraplegia (including signs of symmetric or asymmetric pelvic limb ataxia, tail paralysis and faecal or urinary incontinence) in potentially
endemic areas, laboratory findings (cerebrospinal fluid [CSF], haemography, faecal examination), and imaging findings are necessary to exclude other myelopathies and to establish a presumptive diagnosis of feline gurltiosis (Mieres et al 2013).

A cross-reactivity of *G. paralysans* and *A. vasorum* using a commercial serological test developed for the diagnosis of canine angiostrongylosis in domestic dogs has been recently evaluated for the use in domestic cats with gurltiosis. Preliminary results showed that the Angio Detect Test™ (IDEXX Laboratories), a rapid test designed to detect circulating antigen based on *A. vasorum*-specific antibodies, can be used as an effective test for cats displaying clinical signs of *G. paralysans* infection (Gómez et al 2020).

Novel molecular techniques for *G. paralysans* have been recently developed that could facilitate the clinical diagnosis of this nematode in infected animals (see below).

**MOLECULAR CHARACTERISATION OF *G. PARALYSANS***

Members of the genus *Gurltia* are morphologically similar to those of the closely related genera of the Family Angiostrongylidae (Moroni et al 2012). Using sequences of the 28S rRNA D2–D3 region, the complete internal transcribed spacer 1 (ITS1) and ITS2 of the 5.8S rRNA, and the partial 18S rRNA gene (Gómez et al 2013, Hermosilla et al 2013, Muñoz et al 2017), confirmed that *G. paralysans* is a member of the family Angiostrongylidae and are a distinct taxonomic genus in the superfamily Metastrongyloidea (Muñoz et al 2017). A phylogenetic analysis showed that *G. paralysans* is most closely related to *A. vasorum* and *Filaroides martis* (figure 6).

Targeting a 717 bp conserved nucleotide sequences of the D2-D3 region of the 28S rRNA gene, a semi-nested PCR method to detect *G. paralysans* and differentiate from these other nematodes has been developed (Hermosilla...
et al. 2013, Muñoz et al. 2017) (figure 7). The D2-D3 region of the parasite can be used as a molecular marker, and that this PCR is an effective diagnostic method for the identification of infected cats using serum and blood samples (Hermosilla et al. 2013, Muñoz et al. 2017). This PCR method also allows the detection of the larval stages of G. paralysans in potential IH, and can be used in epidemiological prevalence studies in domestic cats. Using CSF samples, DNA fragments of G. paralysans has been successfully detected in 4 out of 6 CSF samples (figure 7) (López et al. 2020).

**TREATMENT, PREVENTION, AND CONTROL**

The administration of four doses of ivermectin (0.2-0.4 mg/kg) at 1-weekly intervals have satisfactory outcomes in mild or moderate cases (Gómez et al. 2012). Ricobendazole (20 mg/kg) and ivermectin has been also used combined in four adult cats with suspected feline gurtiosis (chronic ambulatory paraparesis) in an endemic area in Argentina (Guerrero et al. 2011). The cats were observed for 5 weeks after their treatment to assess their clinical evolution. The preliminary results indicated no progression of the clinical condition, suggesting that some antiparasitic effect was achieved. However, no randomised trials of antihelmintics have been conducted for feline gurtiosis. Fenbendazole, milbemycin oxime, or moxidectin combined with imidacloprid may reduce the risk of G. paralysans infection, as they do for other related nematode species, such as A. vasorum, but further research is required.

No prepatent period has been observed for G. paralysans in vivo, and the monthly administration of drugs
containing macrocyclic lactone (i.e. ivermectin, selamectin, or milbemycin) might be considered a suitable prophylactic treatment for the prevention of *G. paralysans* infection in known endemic areas. The prevention of the infection by limiting access to PH or IH by maintaining cats indoor should be considered in endemic areas.

**CONCLUSIONS**

*Gurltia paralysans* is a metastrongyloid parasite that may cause chronic meningomyelitis in domestic cats in South America. The geographic distribution of *G. paralysans* includes rural and peri-urban areas. The life cycle of the parasite is still unknown, but is probably indirect, as in other metastrongyloid nematodes. Further research is required to clarify the infection of IH and the transmission to PH. The clinical signs of *G. paralysans* infection include progressive pelvic limb ataxia, paraparesis, paraplegia, faecal or urinary incontinence, and/or tail paralysis. The definitive *in vivo* diagnosis remains challenging, but the disease could be tentatively identified by clinical signs, haemography, CSF analysis, and imaging studies (CT and

*Gurltia, FELINE, NEMATODE, SPINAL CORD*
MRI). The PCR is currently a complementary diagnostic method, using serum and/or CSF samples. The definitive diagnosis still remains post-mortem based on the presence of larvae in the spinal cord. Preliminary reports suggest that the administration of macrocyclic lactones drugs may be useful in treating mild cases. Veterinarians and owners should be warned of the environmental control of definitive and intermediate hosts as an effective approach to reducing the likelihood of infection.

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