

1 **“Recent advances in Genetics and Molecular Diagnosis of Parasitic Protozoa”.**

2 **Molecular diagnosis of *Trypanosoma cruzi*,**

3 **Review Article**

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9 **Abstract:** Chagas disease, caused by the kinetoplastid protozoan *Trypanosoma cruzi*, affects millions
10 of people, most of them neglected populations. The different phases of the disease, the transmission
11 mode and the high genetic variability of the parasite determine that molecular detection methods
12 display different degree of success. Molecular diagnostic tests may be employed during
13 epidemiological surveys of transmission, blood bank screening, for early diagnosis of congenital
14 transmission and acute infection due to oral transmission, transfusion or transplantation routes,
15 reactivation due to immunosuppression and monitoring of treatment response in chronically infected
16 patients receiving trypanomicidal chemotherapy. This manuscript summarizes the most widely used
17 molecular tools to detect *T. cruzi* infection in different epidemiological and clinical scenarios.

18 **Keywords:** Chagas disease, *Trypanosoma cruzi*, quantitative Real Time PCR,

19 loop-mediated amplification, molecular diagnosis.

20 **1.Introduction** Chagas disease (CD), caused by *Trypanosoma cruzi* is most likely “the most neglected of the
21 neglected diseases” [WHO, 2012]. It has been treated as an endemic disease in tropical and subtropical areas
22 of Southern and Central America, Mexico and Southern United States [Garcia MN et al., 2017], and is an

23 emerging global distress in non-endemic areas [Schmunis and Yadon, 2010]. Once vectorial and
24 transfusional control have been achieved, perpetuation of infection occurs mainly through congenital
25 transmission in endemic and non-endemic areas whereas in rural zones, outbreaks of oral infection are more
26 significant [Alarcon de Noya et al., 2010; Shikanai-Yasuda, 2012]. The infection traverses an acute phase,
27 evolving to an asymptomatic or symptomatic chronic phase, with different degrees of severity [Rassi A Jr et
28 al. 2010].

29 Clinical molecular diagnosis of CD is important for: (i) early diagnosis of congenital transmission in
30 newborns when presence of maternal anti-*T.cruzi* antibodies may deliver false positive results and
31 microscopic observation lacks sensitivity, (ii) diagnosis of oral infections, (iii) early detection of infection in
32 receptors of organs from CD donors, (iii) monitoring of reactivation in chronically infected patients immune-
33 suppressed due to transplantation or AIDS and (iv) evaluation of treatment response, because detection of
34 serological negative conversion in treated patients with a favorable outcome may take many years to occur.

35 **2. Molecular detection and *T. cruzi* gene diversity.** The genetic structure of *T. cruzi* populations is mainly
36 a consequence of clonal propagation with rare events of genomic exchange [Tibayrenc M et al. 1986;
37 Buscaglia and Di Noia, 2003; Sturm and Campbell, 2010]. Biological, biochemical and molecular markers
38 demonstrated genetic polymorphism [Macedo et al. 2004; Miles et al. 2009]. Nowadays, natural populations
39 are classified into six discrete typing units (DTUs TcI to TcVI), composed of sets of stocks genetically closer
40 to one another than to any other one [Zingales et al. 2009; 2013]. In addition, Tcbat has been recently
41 proposed as an independent DTU [Lima et al. 2015]. DTUs are identifiable by specific molecular markers,
42 they depict particular geographical distribution, harbor different DNA content and gene dosage and may
43 have preferential tropism for vector and reservoir species as well as tissue tropism within an infected host
44 [Burgos et al. 2010; 2008; Miles et al. 2009; Lewis et al. 2009; Telleria et al. 2006; Vargas et al., 2004].
45 DTUs I to VI are all causative of CD [Zingales et al. 2013]. This genetic diversity must be taken into account
46 when developing molecular diagnostic tests for worldwide applications.

47 **3. Nucleic Acid amplification methods.**

48 **3.1. Polymerase Chain Reaction.** Since the nineties, the Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) was proposed
49 as the molecular tool of choice for sensitive detection of *T. cruzi* infection and monitoring of trypanocidal
50 chemotherapy [Avila et al. 1993; Britto et al. 1995; Moser et al. 1989]. Later on, Real Time PCR was
51 developed with the possibility of parasitic load quantification [Piron et al. 2007; Duffy et al. 2009, 2013].
52 Upon standardization, analytical and clinical validation, duplex TaqMan qPCR procedures directed to
53 parasite highly repetitive sequences - the nuclear satellite DNA (SatDNA) or the minicircle molecule
54 (kDNA) - plus an internal amplification control are being widely used for treatment monitoring [Ramirez et
55 al. 2015; Duffy et al. 2013; Schijman et al. 2011]. Analytical sensitivity of kDNA qPCR is somewhat higher
56 than that of SatDNA qPCR, with limits of detection of 0.234 and 0.698 parasite equivalents/mL,
57 respectively. High concordance was observed between both methods in proficiency panels and clinical
58 specimens [Ramirez et al., 2015]. Analytical sensitivity was more uniform among different DTUs for kDNA
59 qPCR than for SatDNA qPCR, being the latter less sensitive for some TcI and TcIV strains, indicative of a
60 lower gene dosage in their genomes [Ramirez et al., 2015; Duffy et al., 2009]. In regions where *T. rangeli*
61 might be the cause of confounding diagnosis with *T. cruzi* [Guhl and Vallejo, 2003], kDNA qPCR could
62 lead to false positive results due to *T. rangeli* because the minicircle region annealing with primers and probe
63 is highly conserved and repeated in both trypanosomatid species. In fact, *T. rangeli* has been detected in
64 infants in endemic areas for CD [Saldana et al. 2005]. Therefore, in these regions, a standardized qPCR
65 assays based on SatDNA sequences should be indicated, because *T. rangeli* presents very low copy numbers
66 of this sequence.

67 **3.2. Loop mediated amplification.** Thanks to a complex design of primers, auto-strand displacement DNA
68 synthesis and Bst DNA polymerase, LAMP is able to amplify large amounts of DNA within 30–60 minutes
69 of incubation. The reaction occurs between 60 and 65°C, so it can be done without the use of a thermocycler
70 [Mori et al. 2001; Notomi et al. 2010]. Visualization of amplification can be addressed by the naked eye and
71 followed in real-time by measuring turbidity or fluorescence using intercalating dyes. In-tube visualization
72 may be achieved using manganese loaded calcein which starts fluorescing upon complexation of manganese
73 by pyrophosphate during DNA synthesis. LAMP reagents are stable at room temperatures up to 37°C,
74 avoiding the need of a cold chain [Njiru et al. 2003; Poon et al. 2006]. A first LAMP procedure was based on

75 the 18s rDNA gene with an analytical sensitivity of 100fg of DNA per test and cross reactivity with
76 *Leishmania* sp and was evaluated in triatomine feces [Thekiso et al. 2010]. The use of this target in a LAMP
77 protocol tested in human blood reached a detection level of 50 parasites/mL, which allowed detection of
78 congenitally infected patients [Rivero et al. 2017]. A novel prototype kit for detection of *T. cruzi* satDNA in
79 human blood samples developed by Eiken Company containing dried reagents on the inside of the caps in
80 microtubes reached high analytical accuracy, without cross-reactivity with *Leishmania* sp or *T. rangeli*
81 [Besuschio et al. 2017]. Analytical sensitivity was 1×10^{-2} fg/ μ L of CL Brener (Tc VI) and Sylvio X10 (Tc I)
82 DNAs and detected all DTUs, with some variations in the “time to threshold”, due to the heterogeneity in
83 copy numbers of satellite repeats [Duffy et al. 2009]. It also detected 1×10^{-2} parasite equivalents/mL in
84 spiked EDTA blood extracted with commercial columns or rapid Boil& Spin method and 1×10^{-1} par.eq/mL
85 in spiked heparinized blood using fiberglass columns for DNA extraction. It rendered high sensitivity in
86 acute, congenital and reactivated patients and less sensitivity in chronic Chagas disease, in high concordance
87 with qPCR performed in the same samples [Besuschio et al., 2017; Flores, M et al. personal communication].

88 **4. Clinical specimens used for molecular diagnosis of CD.** The type of clinical sample for diagnosis
89 depends on the clinical setting. Although most nucleic acid amplification SOPs were developed for whole
90 peripheral blood samples treated with Guanidine hydrochloride-EDTA stabilizing buffer, PCR based on frozen
91 EDTA blood alone or mixed with different stabilizing agents, PAXgene Blood DNA tubes, blood spots in
92 filter paper have been reported [Moreira et al. 2016, Sanchez et al. 2016; Wei et al; 2016; Braz et al. 2008]. In
93 addition, heparinized blood was evaluated for LAMP [Besuschio et al, 2017]. Blood clots and serum samples
94 showed adequate sensitivity in some settings [Moreira et al. 2016; Russomando et al., 1992;]. Umbilical cord
95 blood and tissue and heel prick blood are also candidate specimens for early diagnosis of congenital
96 transmission [Mora et al., 2005]. Clinical samples other than blood have been tested too. In the acute
97 experimental model of Guinea pigs, DNA was detected in urine, suggesting it could be valuable for acute
98 human detection [Yagashira et al. 2003]. PCR detected parasite DNA in amniotic fluid from an infected
99 mother with a premature delivery [Nilo et al. 2000]. In chronic CD, *T. cruzi* DNA was amplified using
100 different PCR methods in a proportion of gum samples from cases with diverse degrees of gingival
101 inflammation [Añez et al. 2011]. In HIV coinfection, reactivation can be detected in cerebral spinal fluid or

102 brain biopsies [Burgos et al. 2005; Bern 2012] and in transplanted patients reactivation can be detected in
103 endomyocardial biopsies or skin chagomas [Diez et al., 2007; Burgos et al. 2010]. Nevertheless, for diagnostic
104 purposes, whole blood persists as the sample of choice.

105

106 **5. Quality control assurance in molecular diagnosis of CD.** Quality controls are fundamental for reliable
107 molecular diagnosis. False negative results can arise because of PCR inhibitors in the samples, which require
108 the use of internal controls to detect inhibition and enable discriminating true from false negative results. On
109 the other side, inadequate laboratory conditions may favor carry-over contamination leading to false positive
110 results. A first External Quality Assurance system has been recently implemented to evaluate the performance
111 of molecular biology laboratories involved in qPCR based follow-up in clinical trials of chronic Chagas
112 disease cohorts [Ramirez et al. 2017]. Proficiency testing panels containing seronegative blood samples spiked
113 with 1, 10 and 100 par. eq./mL of four *T. cruzi* stocks, belonging to different DTUs, as well as negative
114 controls were analyzed simultaneously, blinded to sample distribution, at 4-month intervals in different
115 laboratories. Moreover, randomly selected blood samples from patients were sent to the reference laboratory
116 for retesting analysis. Laboratories applied a same SOP [Duffy et al. 2013] with a high degree of agreement,
117 within and between laboratories, of qualitative results of proficiency testing panels for all *T. cruzi* stocks. No
118 significant differences were found between qualitative and quantitative qPCR results, when clinical samples
119 were retested [Ramirez et al. 2017].

120 **6. Application of Nucleic Acid amplification in epidemiological and clinical scenarios.**

121 **6.1. Oral infection.** Oral transmission is the most important route of infection in Brazilian Amazon and
122 Venezuela [Shikanai-Yasuda and Carvalho, 2012; Alarcón de Noya et al. 2010]. Other South American
123 countries have also reported outbreaks associated with food consumption [Ramirez JD et al. 2013; Blanchet
124 et al. 2014]. In most outbreaks molecular methods were fundamental for specific diagnosis. A real-time PCR
125 method has been also developed for detection of *T. cruzi* in açai pulp, to determine innocuity of this food
126 regarding oral transmission [De Souza et al. 2017].

127 **6.2. Congenital infection:** Current assays for early detection of congenital cases fail to diagnose more than
128 half of infected neonates and 10 month follow-up for serological diagnosis is poor. Molecular strategies in

129 newborns/neonates could enable earlier diagnosis and circumvent loss to follow-up [Besuschio et al. 2017;
130 Cura et al. 2017; Bua et al. 2013; Schijman et al. 2003; Mora et al. 2005]. A recent study carried out in
131 Bolivia showed a good cumulative sensitivity of qPCR done in cord blood and peripheral blood at one month
132 of age and revealed that infants with clinical signs had higher parasite loads [Messenger et al. 2017]. It is still
133 necessary to test standardized real-time procedures using lower volumes of peripheral blood or using cord or
134 heel prick blood, ideally collected in solid supports such as filter paper. A kit prototype based on duplex
135 TaqMan Real-Time PCR (qPCR) that starts from 1 mL of cord or peripheral blood mixed with a DNA
136 stabilizer solution has been built and is currently under field validation [Schijman et al. unpublished results].

137 **6.3. Prediction of congenital transmission in chronically infected pregnant women:** Treating infected
138 women of childbearing age prevents congenital Chagas disease [Sosa-Estani et al. 2009; Fabbro et al. 2014;
139 Moscatelli et al., 2015; Alvarez et al., 2017]. A prospective study involving 144 seropositive pregnant
140 women demonstrated that 18.8% of mothers with a positive PCR result transmitted the infection (16 infected
141 children out of 85 pregnancies), while uninfected children were detected among 74 pregnancies
142 when maternal PCR was negative [Murcia et al. 2017]. Out of a cohort of treated mothers, 92.1% had
143 negative PCR results, compared with 32.2% of untreated ones. No infected children were detected from
144 previously treated mothers, compared with 13.2% among untreated ones. Thus, PCR screening of *T. cruzi*-
145 infected pregnant women is a useful tool for predicting the risk of congenital transmission.

146 **6.4. Acute infection by organ transplantation.** Early detection of *T. cruzi* transmission allows prompt
147 treatment of donor-derived infections [McCormack et al. 2012; Cura et al. 2013]. The use of organs from
148 seropositive donors could potentially be expanded if nucleic acid amplification-based monitoring of
149 recipients is established in organ transplant units, with a substantial impact in shortening the waiting period
150 on the transplant lists. PCR was able to detect acute infection in transplanted recipients between 13 and 224
151 days earlier than conventional serological assays and between 28 and 47 days earlier than the “Strout”
152 method [Cura et al. 2013]. LAMP also detected parasite DNA in samples from transplanted patients
153 [Besuschio et al, 2017].

154 **6.5. Chronic Chagas disease.** In the chronic phase, nucleic acid amplification based techniques are less
155 sensitive than serological tests due to the low and intermittent burden of bloodstream parasites, then
156 serological methods dictate diagnosis.

157 **6.6 Treatment monitoring.** Molecular methods are useful tools for treatment monitoring [Pinazo et al.,
158 2015; Padilla et al, 2017; Viotti et al, 2015; Schijman et al. 2017]. Blood based qPCR techniques are being
159 consistently used to detect therapeutic response or failure in clinical trials with traditional and novel drugs,
160 that were administered with different regimens and combinations [Moreira et al. 2016; Molina et al. 2014;
161 Morillo et al., 2015; Alvarez et al., 2016; Riarte et al.,]. Most trials in chronic CD have shown a lower
162 efficacy of ravuconazole and posaconazole in comparison to benznidazole [Morillo et al.2017; Torrico et al.,
163 2017]. Nevertheless, conclusions regarding the efficacy of these novel drugs could be somewhat biased
164 because of pharmacodynamical issues, rather than due to a truly defficient trypanomicidal action [Urbina,
165 2017]. Bloodstream levels of these drugs in patients appear below those required to eradicate intracelular
166 parasites in experimental models [Urbina, 2015]. Besides, clearance of parasitic loads exerted by drugs can
167 be transient and lead to misleading conclusions when follow-up is performed at the short term, such it has
168 been observed in some studies [Santos et al., 2016; Torrico et al., 2017]. Ideally, molecular methods used
169 for monitoring of chronic patients should be performed for several years after treatment to confirm or discard
170 available data.

171 **6.7. Chagas disease reactivation due to organ transplantation** The use of immunosuppressive drugs in
172 organ transplantation has increased clinical significance and predispose patients to reactivation of chronic
173 infection [Bern, 2012]. Among transplanted organs, heart transplantation leads to a higher proportion of
174 reactivation cases than other ones. Molecular methods performed in peripheral blood and endomiocardial
175 biopsies allow anticipating clinical signs of CD reactivation by several months [Diez et al. 2007; Burgos et al.
176 2010; Da Costa et al., 2016].

177 **6.8. Chagas disease reactivation due to HIV coinfection.** Quantitative PCR distinguished groups of HIV/*T.*
178 *cruzi* coinfecting patients with and without Chagas reactivation. Indeed the highest parasitemia was observed in
179 coinfecting patients with clinical reactivation (median 1428.90 *T. cruzi*/mL), followed by coinfecting patients
180 without reactivation (median 1.57 *T. cruzi*/mL) and patients with Chagas disease without HIV (median 0.00 *T.*

181 *cruzi*/mL) [De Freitas et al. 2011]. Therefore, this strategy could be used as a criterion for recommending pre-
182 emptive therapy in patients with chronic CD with HIV infection or immunosuppression [Perez Molina et al.
183 2011; Almeida E. et al. 2010].

184 **7. *T. cruzi* DNA persistence and clinical implications** In situ polymerase chain reaction analysis was used in
185 the murine model to disclose a correlation between the persistence of parasites and the presence of disease in
186 muscle tissue [Zhang and Tarleton, 1999; Schijman et al. 2004]. Recently, molecular amplification of parasitic
187 mRNAs was set up to address persistence of active parasites in tissues, which may aid in unraveling parasitic
188 tissue tropism and efficacy of trypanocidal drugs [Juiz et al. 2017].

189 **8. Final Remarks** Estimation of the biological significance of molecular based outcomes, in particular
190 showing clearance of bloodstream parasitic loads after treatment has been seldom explored. Due to the
191 intracellular live forms of the parasite, the predictive value of a negative bloodstream-based PCR or LAMP
192 outcome to assess cure remains to be determined. Although trypanocidal treatment aim should be pathogen
193 eradication, it is difficult to assert if in CD, particularly in the adult chronic phase, this will be the case.
194 Although posttreatment reduction of the pathogen burden in the chronic phase could not yet be associated to
195 a better clinical outcome, it is clear that it prevents vertical transmission.

196 Target product profiles (TPPs) for molecular diagnosis of CD have been proposed and focused to acute and
197 congenital transmission, chronic phase and assessment of response to anti-parasitic treatment [Pinazo et al.
198 2014; Porras et al. 2015]. These TPPs considered minimal and optimal needs related to
199 patients' epidemiological and clinical groups, assay clinical sensitivity and specificity, sampling volume and
200 types of clinical specimens, conservation, shipping and storage conditions, infrastructure needed and
201 operators' technical skills, usefulness of qualitative or quantitative reports and genotyping.

202 The need of point-of-care diagnostic tests has been highlighted; POC assays should contain stable materials
203 for sample collection and the ability to perform the assays in prevailing climatic conditions. For public health
204 applications, diagnostic assays should include low cost, simple manufacturing and distribution procedures,
205 sustainable production and supply requirements. Disposal should be in conformity with biosafety standards
206 and suitability by health care and target populations.

207 **9. Conclusions**

208 Standardized and validated PCR and LAMP methodologies are now available laboratory tools with high
209 sensitivity and specificity that can improve current diagnosis of CD, specially in the following scenarios: (i)
210 early diagnosis of congenital, transfusional, oral infections, monitoring of reactivation in immunosuppressed
211 *T. cruzi* infected patients and follow-up of treatment response. The development of commercial kits based on
212 these standardized methods is in progress; their evaluation in prospective field studies will allow predict their
213 potential in improving diagnosis in the clinical practice and benefit public health diagnostics polices.

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