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Genetic Diversity of Sudanese Leishmania Parasite and Possible Correlation to Clinical Signs

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DEDICATION

To the soul of my mother who would have been proud of this degree.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Leishmaniasis forced itself upon medical attention as an increasingly significant problem over the last decade hence it is associated with poverty in developing countries and considered as imported or re-emerging diseases in Europe. Leishmaniasis which is a globally widespread group of diseases is caused by obligatory, Intracellular pathogen of the immune system targeting macrophages and dendritic cells. In humans the infection is transmitted through the bites of female sand flies. The symptoms ranging from disfiguring cutaneous and muco-cutaneous lesions that can cause widespread destruction of mucous membranes to fatal visceral disease affecting the haemopoetic organs. It is endemic in the tropical and subtropical regions of 88 countries, sixteen are developed countries, 72 are developing countries, 13 of them are among the least developed. Sudan is one of the greatest foci worldwide where Leishmaniasis represents a serious health problem causing high number of fatalities. *Leishmania donovani complex* and *L.major* are known to be the etiologic agents, however, the *Leishmania donovani complex* parasites that causes different clinical forms, i.e. visceral (VL), cutaneous (CL), muco-cutaneous (ML) and post kala-azar dermal Leishmaniasis (PKDL) are genetically considered as a homogenous group.

Objectives: To understand the correlation between the genetic diversity and the clinical manifestations.

Specific Objectives **1)** To genetically characterize isolates from Sudanese patients diagnosed with different types of leishmaniasis to understand the correlation between different clinical manifestations and the genetic profile of *Leishmania*. **2)** Investigate presence or absence of mixed infections and/ or hybrids. **3)** To build up a reliable picture of the various phylogenetic subdivisions with relation to virulence, using the Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) gene, the Lyshmanolysin (GP63) and the cytochrome Oxidase sub- unit II gene.

Materials and Methods: Comparative genome based approach was used to analyse the three genes, Cytochrome Oxidase II (COII) gene, the Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) and the GP63 (both gp63 3/4 and MSPC). 111 samples from 72 Sudanese patients suspected of different Leishmaniasis were used. Firstly a Real Time PCR was developed to pick up positive samples. Secondly, to detect the interspecific polymorphism at species level, Cytochrome Oxidase II (COII) gene was amplified for all Real Time PCR positive samples. The methodology encompasses the use of direct sequencing and cloning techniques. Thirdly, to detect the intraspecific polymorphism at strain level and the under types of some positive isolates, (ITS) and the GP63 (both gp63 3/4 and MSPC) genes were amplified , The methodology encompasses the use of cloning techniques.

Results and Discussion: 40 patients out of 72 (55.6%) and 58 samples out of 111 (52.3%) were confirmed by the Real Time PCR as *Leishmania* positive. Five CL samples from five patients have been examined, three of them have been concomitantly infected with both *L.donovani* and *L.major* as confirmed by the cloned COII and ITS genes. The ITS sequence data analysis of *L. major* related colonies in the three CL samples revealed the presence of more than one strain /hybrid of *L. major* as different polymorphic sites were detected within and between patients. The other two CL samples were found to be caused merely by *L.donovani*, but different sequence patterns have been detected by the ITS gene.

One patient possessed *L. infantum* similar COII sequence, the GP63 sequence data analysis of the same patient confirmed some colonies as *L. infantum*, while two out of the six identified polymorphic sites in the ITS gene were similar to those characteristic for *L.infantum* different zymodemes.

The number of PKDL and ML samples was not sufficient to draw a conclusion., However, COII and ITS data pointed *L.donovani* as the causative agent. ITS data showed considerable different sequence patterns between colonies from the two samples. The same results were found regarding other samples attributed to VL.

Gp63 sequence data analysis of some colonies attributed to VL samples (namely 10 HBM, 3HBM and 11HBM) has identified two genetic groups, both within the *L. donovani complex* but different from *L. infantum* and *L. donovani* .

Conclusions: The study concludes that **1)** affirmed the presence of mixed infection with *L. donovani* and *L. major* from a single cutaneous aspirate in CL patients. To the best of our knowledge this is the first report of *L. donovani* and *L. major* mixed-infection in Sudan. Additionally no other cases of such mixed-infection from the same cutaneous sample were reported elsewhere. **2)** the study assessed the circulation of more than one strain/hybrid of *L. major* and *L. donovani* between Sudanese patients. **3)** the presence of *L. infantum* as an etiological agent of VL in Sudan has been affirmed by CO II and ITS genes. **4)** *Leishmania* isolates with mixed species or strains might be subjected to selective pressure upon parasite culture, so direct extraction from biological materials is important for characterization.

These findings have important implications regarding the diagnosis, the choice of the most appropriate therapy and the possibility of developing drug resistance and at the same time set the stage for future studies as the prevalence of different species and vectors and the competence of *Phlebotomus spp.* in transmitting different *Leishmania*.

ABSTRACT

Introduzione: Negli ultimi anni Leishmaniosi si imposta all'attenzione medica come un problema sempre più rilevante. Le malattie sono associate con la povertà nei paesi in via di sviluppo e considerate importati o riemergenti in Europa. Leishmaniosi è un gruppo di malattie globalmente diffusa causata da un patogeno intracellulare del sistema immunitario targeting i macrofagi e le cellule dendritiche. Nell'uomo l'infezione si trasmette attraverso le punture dei flebotomi. I sintomi variano dalle lesioni cutanea e muco-cutanea che possono causare vasta distruzione delle membrane mucose alle malattie mortale viscerale che colpisce gli organi haemopoetici. leishmaniosi è endemica nelle regioni tropicali e subtropicali di 88 paesi, sedici sono paesi sviluppati, 72 sono in via di sviluppo, 13 di loro sono tra i meno sviluppati.

Il Sudan è conosciuto fra i più grandi focolai a livello mondiale dove Leishmaniosi rappresenta un grave problema di salute causando elevato numero di vittime. *Leishmania donovani complex* e *Leishmania major* sono noti per essere gli agenti eziologici, tuttavia, i parassiti della *Leishmania donovani complex* che causano diverse forme cliniche, i.e viscerale (VL), cutanee (CL), muco-cutanea (ML) e post kala-azar Leishmaniosi (PKDL) sono considerati geneticamente un gruppo omogeneo.

Obiettivi: Per comprendere la correlazione tra la diversità genetica e le manifestazioni cliniche.

Obiettivi specifici: **1)** geneticamente caratterizzare isolati da pazienti Sudanesi di diversi tipi di leishmaniosi per capire la correlazione tra diverse manifestazioni cliniche e il profilo genetico di *Leishmania*. **2)** Indagare sulla presenza o assenza di infezioni miste e / o ibridi. **3)** Per costruire un quadro attendibile delle varie suddivisioni filogenetiche in relazione alla virulenza, utilizzando i gene Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) *Leishmanolysin* (GP63) e il citocromo ossidasi II

Materiali e metodi: è stato utilizzato un'approccio basato sul genoma comparativo per analizzare i tre geni, citocromo ossidasi II (COII), Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) e il GP63 (sia gp63 3/4 che il MSPC). Sono stati utilizzati 111 campioni provenienti da 72 pazienti sudanese sospettati di diversi Leishmaniosi. In primo luogo, un real time PCR è stato sviluppato per raccogliere campioni positivi. In secondo luogo, per rilevare il polimorfismo interspecifico al livello di specie, citocromo ossidasi II (COII) gene è stato amplificato per tutti i campioni positivi nel real time PCR. Il metodo comprende l'uso di sequenziamento diretto e tecniche di clonazione. In terzo ed ultimo luogo, per rilevare il polimorfismo intraspecifico al livello del ceppo e dei sotto tipi di alcuni isolati positivi, (ITS) e il GP63 (entrambi gp63 3/4 e MSPC) geni sono stati amplificati. Il metodo comprende l'uso di tecniche di clonazione

Risultati e Discussione: 40 pazienti su 72 (55,6%) e 58 campioni su 111 (52,3%) sono state confermate dal Real Time PCR come *Leishmania* positivi. Cinque campioni cutanei provenienti da cinque pazienti sono stati esaminati, tre di loro sono stati infettati in concomitanza sia con *L.donovani* che con *L.major* come è confermato dal clonaggio del COII e ITS geni.

L'analisi dei dati ITS delle colonie correlate a *L. major* nei tre campioni cutanei ha rivelato la presenza di più di un ceppo / ibrido di *L.major* come è stato dimostrato dai siti polimorfici rilevati all'interno dei pazienti e tra di loro. Gli altri due campioni cutanei sono stati causati soltanto da *L.donovani*, ma differenti tipi di sequenza sono stati rilevati dal ITS gene.

Un paziente possedeva sequenza simile di *L. infantum* COII, il GP63 analisi di sequenza dallo stesso paziente ha confermato alcune colonie come *L. infantum*, mentre, due dei sei siti polimorfici individuati nel ITS gene erano simili a quelli caratteristici per *L.infantum* diversi zymodemi.

Il numero di campioni PKDL e ML non era sufficiente per trarre una conclusione. Tuttavia, COII e ITS dati hanno indicato *L.donovani* come l'agente causale, ITS dati ha mostrato notevoli tipi di diverse sequenze tra le colonie dei due campioni. Gli stessi risultati sono stati trovati per quanto riguarda altri campioni attribuiti al VL.

Gp63 analisi dei dati di sequenza di alcune colonie attribuite ai campioni VL (ossia 10 HBM, 3HBM e 11HBM) ha individuato due gruppi genetici all'interno della *L. donovani complex*, ma diversi da *L. infantum* e *L. donovani*.

Conclusioni: Lo studio conclude che **1)** ha affermato la presenza di infezione mista con *L. donovani* e *L. major* da un unico aspirato cutaneo. a nostra conoscenza questo è il primo rapporto di *L. donovani* e *L. maggiore* mista-infezione in Sudan. In aggiunta altri casi di tale infezione mista dallo stesso campione cutaneo non sono stati riportati altrove. **2)** lo studio ha valutato la circolazione di più di un ceppo / ibrido di *L. major* e *L. donovani* tra pazienti sudanesi. **3)** la presenza di *L. infantum* come agente eziologico di VL in Sudan è stato affermato da CO II e ITS geni. **4)** *Leishmania* isolati con le specie o ceppi misti potrebbero essere sottoposti a pressione selettiva durante la cultura, l'estrazione diretta da materiali biologici è importante per la caratterizzazione.

Questi risultati hanno implicazioni importanti per quanto riguarda la diagnosi, la scelta della terapia più appropriata e la possibilità di sviluppare resistenza ai farmaci e allo stesso tempo, porre le basi per futuri studi come la prevalenza delle diverse specie e vettori e la competenza del *Phlebotomus spp.* nel trasmettere diversi *Leishmania*.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Abbreviation	Significance
AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
CL	Cutaneous Leishmaniasis
DALY	Disability- Adjusted Life-years
DCL	Diffused Cutaneous Leishmaniasis
FCS	Fetal Calf Serum
HAART	Highly Active Antiretroviral Therapy
HEPES	hydroxyl-ethyl piperazine-ethane sulfonic acid
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
IFN	Interferon
IL	Interleukin
LmjF	L.major strain Friedlin
LPG	Lipophosphoglycan
MCL	Muco-Cutaneous Leishmaniasis
MCL	Marcov Cluster algorithm
NO	Nitric Oxide
PBS	Phosphate Buffer Saline
PCR	Polymerase chain Reaction
SDS	Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate
SML	Sudanese Mucosal Leishmaniasis
SSG	Sodium Stibogluconate
TAMRA	tetra-methyl carboxyrhodamine
TEMED	N,N,N',N'-Tetramethylethylenediamine
Th	T helper cells
TNF	Tumor Necrosis Factor
WHO	World Health Organization
ZCL	Zoonotic Cutaneous Leishmaniasis
ZVL	Zoonotic Visceral Leishmaniasis

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Taxonomy of Leishmania (WHO, 2010).

Figure 2: The Life Cycle of the Leishmania Parasite.

Figure 3: Cutaneous Leishmaniasis patients.

Figure 4: Muco-cutaneous Leishmaniasis patients.

Figure 5: Visceral leishmaniasis Patients.

Figure 6: PKDL patients.

Figure 7: The study area.

Figure 8: The DNA segments of the selected minicircle kDNA class used for amplification.

Figure 9: The two DNA segments of the GP63 gene selected for amplification.

Figure 10: four amplicates obtained by the primers AJS3/R1 and F2/DBY.

Figure 11: schematic demonstration of kDNA sequences obtained by direct sequencing of four CL isolates showing nucleotide's.

Figure 12: schematic demonstration of kDNA sequences obtained by direct sequencing of ten HBM isolates and *L.infantum* reference.

Figure 13: showing thirteen amplicates obtained by the primers COII F and COII R.

Figure 14: Phylogenetic tree of COII sequences.

Figure 15 : Genetic differences of nine COII sequences.

Figure 16: schematic demonstration of COII sequence obtained by direct sequencing of one CL isolate.

Figure 17: Phylogenetic tree of COII cloning sequences.

Figure 18: Genetic differences of three COII cloned sequences.

Figure 19: ITS amplicates obtained by the primers LITSR and LITSRR.

Figure 20: ITS sequence types found for strains of *L.donovani* complex (Kuhls et al 2005).

Figure 21: 3HBM ITS polymorphic .

Figure 22: 14 HBM ITS polymorphic sites.

Figure 23: 17 HBM polymorphic sites.

Figure 24: 105 PKDL polymorphic sites.

Figure 25: 106ML polymorphic sites.

Figure 26: 106 ML: the three different patterns of nucleotides.

Figure 27:106 ML, poly CT, position 816 of the 850 nucleotide: the three different patterns of nucleotides.

Figure 28: 107CL polymorphic sites.

Figure 29: 107 CL polymorphic sites at position 15, 60, 122, 153 and 768 .

Figure 30: 111 CL polymorphic sites.

Figure 31: partial segment of two sequence patterns obtained from the cloning of 108 CL sample

Figure 32: 108 CL polymorphic sites.

Figure 33: 109 CL polymorphic sites.

Figure 34: the structure of a hybrid sequence obtained from cloning of sample 109.

Figure 35: The hybrid strain of the sample 109 compared to the L.donovani and L.major sequence patterns obtained from different clones of sample 109.

Figure 36: 110 CL polymorphic sites.

Figure 37: Phylogenetic tree of ITS cloning sequence of cutaneous samples.

Figure 38: some amplicates obtained by the primers gp63 1/2 primers gp63 3/4.

Figure 39: schematic demonstration of gp63 3/4 sequences obtained by direct sequencing of some VL isolates showing nucleotide's overlapping.

Figure 40: Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences obtained from cloning of five samples from five VL patients and the gp63^{SHORT} (Mauricio *et al* 2007) reference sequences.

Figure 41: Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences obtained from cloning of sample 14 HBM and the gp63^{EXT} published sequences (Mauricio *et al* 2007).

Figure 42: Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences obtained from cloning of sample 11 HBM and the gp63^{EXT} published sequences (Mauricio *et al* 2007).

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Proven and suspected sand-fly vector species.

Table 2: Summary of the *L. major*, *L. infantum* and *L. braziliensis* genomes (Peacock et al., 2007).

Table 3: Provenance, numbers and types of samples collected included in the study

Table 4: sequences of primers used for detection and characterization of *Leishmania*

Table 5: Types and number of colonies obtained from each ITS cloned sample

Table 6: the between groups mean distance of the ten representative sequences of clade 1, 14HBM sequences and *L. donovani*

Table 7: number of the sequence patterns obtained from each patient compared to the gp63^{SHORT} sequences Mauricio et al, 2007.

Table 8: gp63 between groups mean distance

LIST OF MAPS

- Map 1:** The Distribution of Old and New World Cutaneous Leishmaniasis (*WHO 2003, Public Health Mapping Group. Communicable Diseases (CDS)*)
- Map 2:** Distribution of Old and New World Visceral Leishmaniasis(*WHO 2003, Public Health Mapping Group. Communicable Diseases (CDS)*).
- Map 3:** Global distribution of leishmaniasis and leishmania/HIV co-infection (*Report of the Scientific Working Group on Leishmaniasis WHO, 2004*).
- Map 4:** Approximate distribution in Europe of Visceral Leishmaniasis and its vector(*WHO Report of the Scientific Working Group on Leishmaniasis 2004*).
- Map 5:** **Approximate** distribution in Europe of Cutaneous Leishmaniasis and its vector (*WHO Report of the Scientific Working Group on Leishmaniasis 2004*).
- Map 6:** Distribution of visceral and cutaneous leishmaniasis in Sudan and South Sudan (Zijlstra and el-Hassan, 2001)
- Map 7:** Distribution of CL due to *L.major* in Sudan: (el-Hassan and Zijlstra, 2001)
- Map 8:** Distribution of known cases of mucosal leishmaniasis in Sudan (el-Hassan *et al.*, 1995).
- Map 9:** Sand Flies in Sudan and South Sudan (el-Hassan and Zijlstra, 2001).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	II
ABSTRACT	III
ABSTRACT	V
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	VII
LIST OF FIGURES	VII
LIST OF TABLES	X
LIST OF MAPS	XI
CHAPTER ONE: PART ONE INTRODUCTION	
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Leishmania Epidemiology	1
1.2 Diagnosis of Leishmania Infections	3
1.3 Leishmania Taxonomy	4
1.4 Leishmania Biology	5
The life cycle	5
1.5 Leishmania Species and Clinical Manifestations	7
Subclinical Infection	7
Cutaneous Leishmaniasis	7
Mucocutaneous Leishmaniasis	9
Visceral Leishmaniasis	10
Post Kalazar Dermal Leishmaniasis	10
Leishmania-HIV/AIDS Co-infection	11
1.6 Treatment	12
1.7 Vectors of Leishmania	13
Vector Taxonomy	13
Vector Distribution	14
Vector Biology	15
Species-restricted Vector competence	16
1.8 The Reservoir	18
Humans as Reservoir Hosts	18
Reservoir of Zoonotic Cutaneous and Mucocutaneous Leishmaniasis	18
Reservoir of Zoonotic Visceral Leishmaniasis	19
1.9 Immunopathology of Leishmania	19
1.9.1 Immune Response of Leishmaniasis Patients	20
1.9.2 Factors Involved in Pathogenicity and Virulence	20
Parasite factors	20
Host Factors	21
Host genetic variation and susceptibility to Leishmania infection:	21
Vector Factors	22
PART TWO	
Molecular Genetic approach in Leishmania	24
2.1 Leishmania Genome	24
2.2 Gene Organization and Genome Content	24
2.3 Genes and Leishmania Parasite Tropism and Virulence	25
Gene Families	26
RNA Genes	26
Repetitive Sequences	26

Species- Specific Differences	26
PART THREE	
Leishmaniasis in Sudan	31
Sand Flies in Sudan and South Sudan	32
The Leishmania Reservoir in Sudan	32
Control, Diagnosis and Treatment of Leishmaniasis in Sudan	33
Rationale of the Study	34
Hypotheses	35
Objectives of the Study	35
General Objectives	35
Specific Objectives	
Materials and Methods	36
2.1 Ethical Consideration	36
2.1 Study area	36
2.2 Samples Collection	37
VL Biological Samples	37
CL Samples	37
Extracted DNA	38
Leishmania Reference strain	38
2.3 Molecular Assay	39
Parasite Isolation and Culture Condition	39
2.3.2 DNA Extraction	39
DNA extraction from culture	39
DNA Extraction From Clinical Samples Spotted on Filter Papers	40
2.3.3 Real Time PCR Assay	41
2.3.4 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)	41
kDNA PCR	41
Cytochrome Oxidase II gene PCR	42
Internal transcribed Spacer (ITS) PCR	42
GP63 PCR	43
MSPC PCR	44
2.3.5 PCR Product Analysis	45
Acrylamide Gel Electrophoresis	45
Acrylamide Gel Staining and visualization	45
Sequencing Techinques and Sequence Analysis	45
2.3.6 Molecular Cloning Assay	46
RESULTS	49
3.1 Parasite Culture Results	49
3.2 Real Time PCR Results	49
3.3 kDNA Results	49
kDNA PCR Results	49
kDNA Sequences Results	49
3.4 Cytochrome Oxidase II gene Results	51
COII PCR Results	51
COII Direct Sequence Analysis Results	52
COII Cloning Results	54
3.5 Internal transcribed Spacer (ITS) Results	55
PCR Results	55
ITS Cloning Results	55
3.6 GP63 Results	69

PCR Results	70
GP63 cloning Results	71
3.7 MSPC Results	74
DISCUSSIO	76
CONCLUSION	81
REFERENCES	82

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

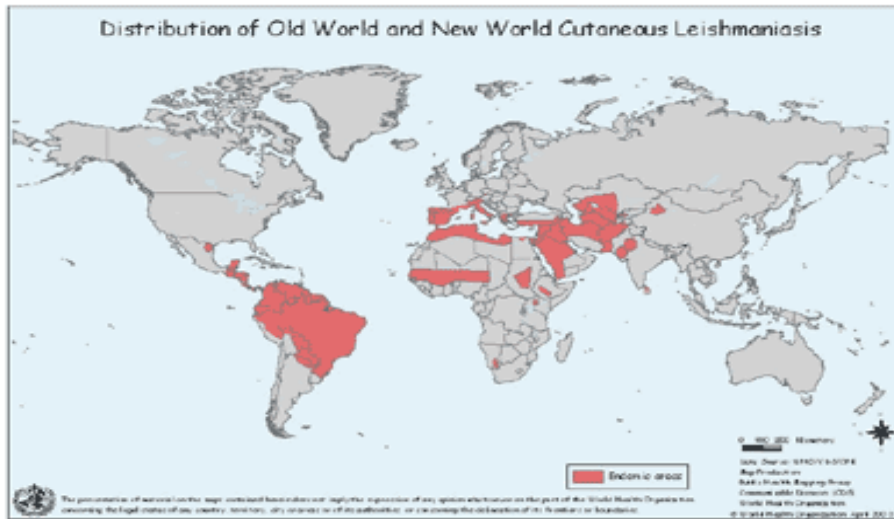
1.1 *Leishmania* Epidemiology

The Leishmaniasis are a globally widespread group of diseases caused by obligatory, intracellular haemoflagellate protozoan parasites of the genus *Leishmania* (family *Trypanosomatidae*). The disease is transmitted generally by at least 30 species of sand flies (either *Phlebotomus* or *Lutzomyia* genera) and rarely by congenital and parenteral routes (Magill, 1995; Herwaldt, 2001). The protozoan was first discovered by William Leishman in 1901 in India, and confirmed in 1903 by Charles Donovan.

The disease is endemic in the tropical and subtropical regions of 88 countries, including 16 developed countries and 72 developing countries, 13 of them among the least developed but its public health impact remains neglected (Desjeux, 2004). Population displacements and increasing cases of *Leishmania/HIV* co-infection brought new dramatic concerns to the disease (Alvar *et al.*, 2008). Leishmaniasis affected individuals are estimated to be around 12-13 millions worldwide. Annually, 0.7-1.3 millions new cases of cutaneous leishmaniasis (CL) occur, about 95% of CL cases occur in the Americas, the Mediterranean basin, and the Middle East and Central Asia. Over two-third of CL new cases occur in six countries: Afghanistan, Algeria, Brazil, Colombia, Iran and Syria.

Regarding Visceral Leishmaniasis (VL), there are 200,000-400,000 new cases occurring annually, 90% of these cases are reported from six countries: Bangladesh, Brazil, Ethiopia, India, South Sudan and Sudan (WHO, 2014) and about 90% of Mucocutaneous Leishmaniasis (ML) form is reported in Bolivia, Brazil, Ethiopia and Peru (WHO, 2014). However, the real burden of leishmaniasis is greatly underestimated because substantial number of cases remains unrecorded and misdiagnosed (Guerin *et al.*, 2002; Murray *et al.*, 2005). The burden of leishmaniasis expressed in disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) is estimated to be from 946,000 to 2,357,000 for males and 1,410,000 for females (Desjeux, 2004).

Map 1: The Distribution of Old and New World Cutaneous Leishmaniasis



WHO 2003, Public Health Mapping Group. Communicable Diseases (CDS)

Map 2: Distribution of Old and New World Visceral Leishmaniasis



WHO 2003, Public Health Mapping Group. Communicable Diseases (CDS)

1.2 Diagnosis of Leishmania Infections

Correct clinical diagnosis is vital before starting treatment for prompt initiation of proper therapy and to shorten the treatment schedule. Diagnosis of *leishmania* infections is based on:

1. Direct demonstration of the parasite on stained smears (mainly Giemsa or *Leishmania* stain)

has been considered as gold standard for diagnosis. Smears can be made from lymphoid aspiration, bone marrow aspirate, splenic aspirate (Siddig *et al.*, 1988; Zijlstra *et al.*, 1992), blood (Martinez *et al.*, 1993) cutaneous skin aspirates and skin biopsies (Ghosh *et al.*, 1995).

2. Culture-based diagnosis is also a tool for parasite demonstration (Lightner *et al.*, 1983; Sinha *et al.*, 1993). Micro-culture method (MCM) which utilized micro capillary has also been introduced for diagnosis of CL (Allahverdiyev *et al.*, 2004).

3. Immunodiagnosis

(i) Detection of parasite antigen in tissue, blood, or urine samples such as latex agglutination test (KATEX) (De Colmenares *et al.*, 1995; Attar *et al.*, 2001)

(ii) Detection of non-specific or specific anti-leishmanial antibodies (immunoglobulin) (Vinayak *et al.*, 1994; De Colmenares *et al.*, 1995). Other Conventional methods for antibody detection included Gel Diffusion, Complement Fixation, Indirect Hemagglutination Test, IFA, and Countercurrent Immunelectrophoresis Test (Haldar *et al.*, 1981; Hockmeyer *et al.*, 1984; Sinha and Sehgal, 1994; Sundar and Rai, 2002). Serodiagnostic method such as (ELISA) is also widely used (Bray *et al.*, 1973; Sundar and Rai, 2002). Other widely used methods under field condition include the Direct Agglutination Test (DAT) (el Harith *et al.*, 1988) and the user-friendly Immune-Chromatographic (ICT) rk39 strip test which is used in antibodies detection against VL (rk39 antibodies are absent in CL and ML). rk39 strip test has shown to be less reliable in East Africa compared to the Indian subcontinent (Ritmeijer *et al.*, 2006; Srivastava *et al.*, 2011). However, newly developed assay based on the detection of the k28 fusion protein has been evaluated in studies performed in Sudan and Bangladesh. This method could be implemented as a first-line point-of-care test after its confirmation in large-scale field evaluations (Pattabhi *et al.*, 2010). No data has been gathered and made available thereafter.

4. Cellular Immunity Test

- (i) Intradermal skin test: it measures delayed type hypersensitivity in reaction to intradermal injection of *Leishmania* antigen. It relies on the strong T-cell responses usually accompanying CL, ML or cured VL (Haldar *et al.*, 1983; Sundar and Rai, 2002).
- (ii) Lymphocyte proliferation test: in this assay, patient's peripheral blood lymphocytes are cultured in presence of *Leishmania* antigen for five days, proliferation can be recorded either by the diagnosis of radioactive thymidine incorporation into the DNA of dividing cells, or by the measurement of the cytokine levels produced by the proliferating lymphocytes and comparisons with cytokines level from cultures where no antigen is added. This test is used in patients with ML, CL, sub-clinical or cured VL (Reed *et al.*, 1990). The application of this assay in routine diagnosis is limited.

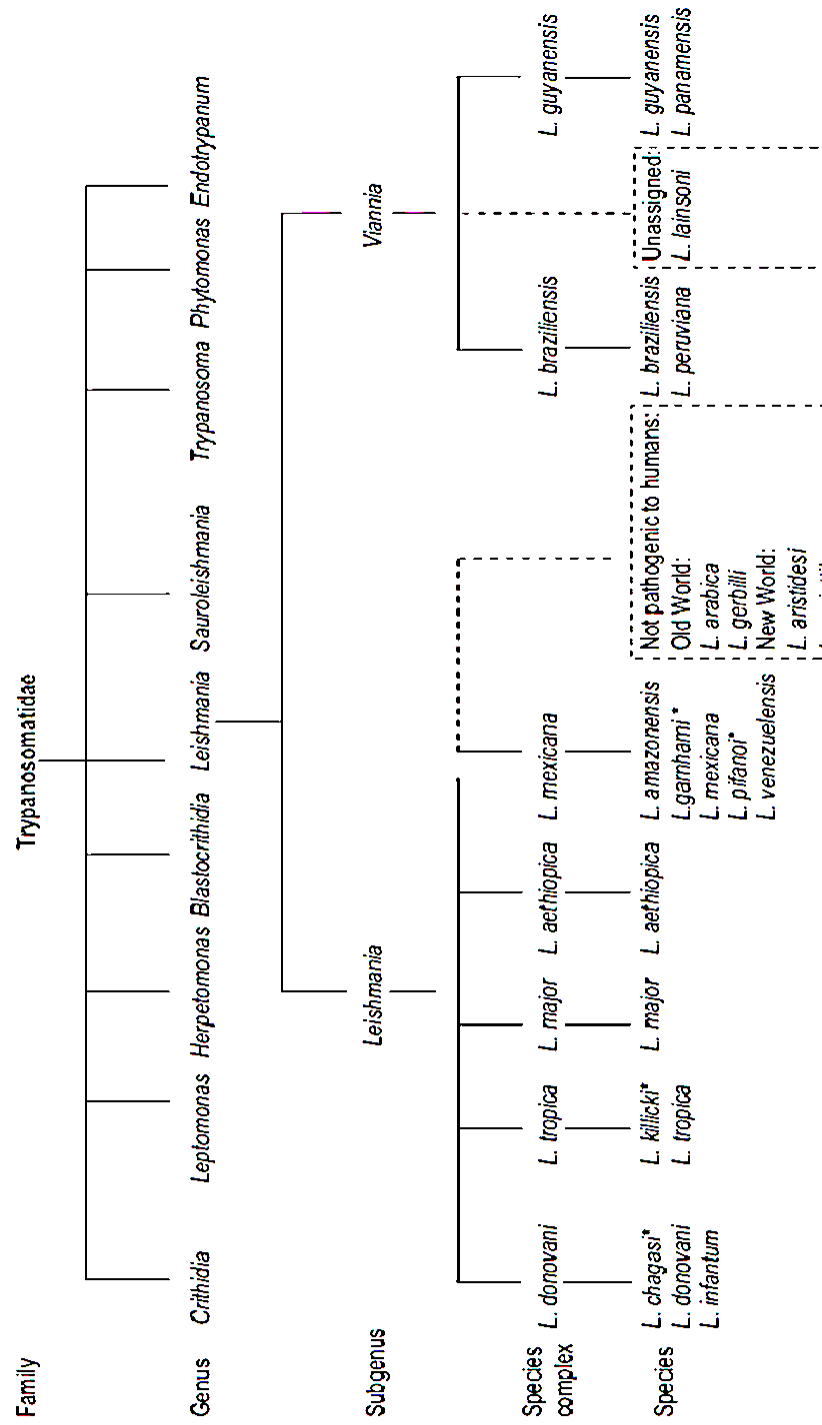
5. **Nucleic acid based detection:** PCR amplification of parasite DNA and Real-time PCR techniques are widely used for diagnosis and species identification (Andresen *et al.*, 1997; Osman *et al.*, 1997; Lachaud *et al.*, 2001).

1.3 *Leishmania* Taxonomy

Classification of *Leishmania* organism was initially based on ecobiological criteria such as geographical and epidemiological distribution, vector, tropism and clinical manifestations (Bray, 1974; Lainson *et al.*, 1987) and later on biochemical data (Arnot DE and Barker DC., 1981; Miles *et al.*, 1981) and immunological data (de Ibarra *et al.*, 1982; Wirth and Pratt, 1982). Presently, classification is based on the isoenzyme characterization (Rioux *et al.*, 1990). However, the isoenzyme classification has been questioned after the wide *Leishmania* genetic evolution. Revision of the taxonomic status of *Leishmania* species has been proposed by different researchers (Schonian *et al.*, 2010; Van der Auwera *et al.*, 2011).

The genus *Leishmania* belongs to the family Trypanosomatidae, order Kinetoplastida, class Zoomastigophora, Subphylum Mastigophora, Phylum Sarcomastigophora, Subkingdom Protozoa, Kingdom Protista. Depending on the site of parasite development within the female sandfly vector, the genus *Leishmania* is divided into two sub genera, *Leishmania* (*Leishmania*) and *Leishmania* (*vianna*) (Lainson *et al.*, 1987). The two subgenera are divided into complexes and species as shown in Figure 1

Figure 1.
Taxonomy of *Leishmania*



Source: (WHO, 2010)

1.4 Leishmania Biology

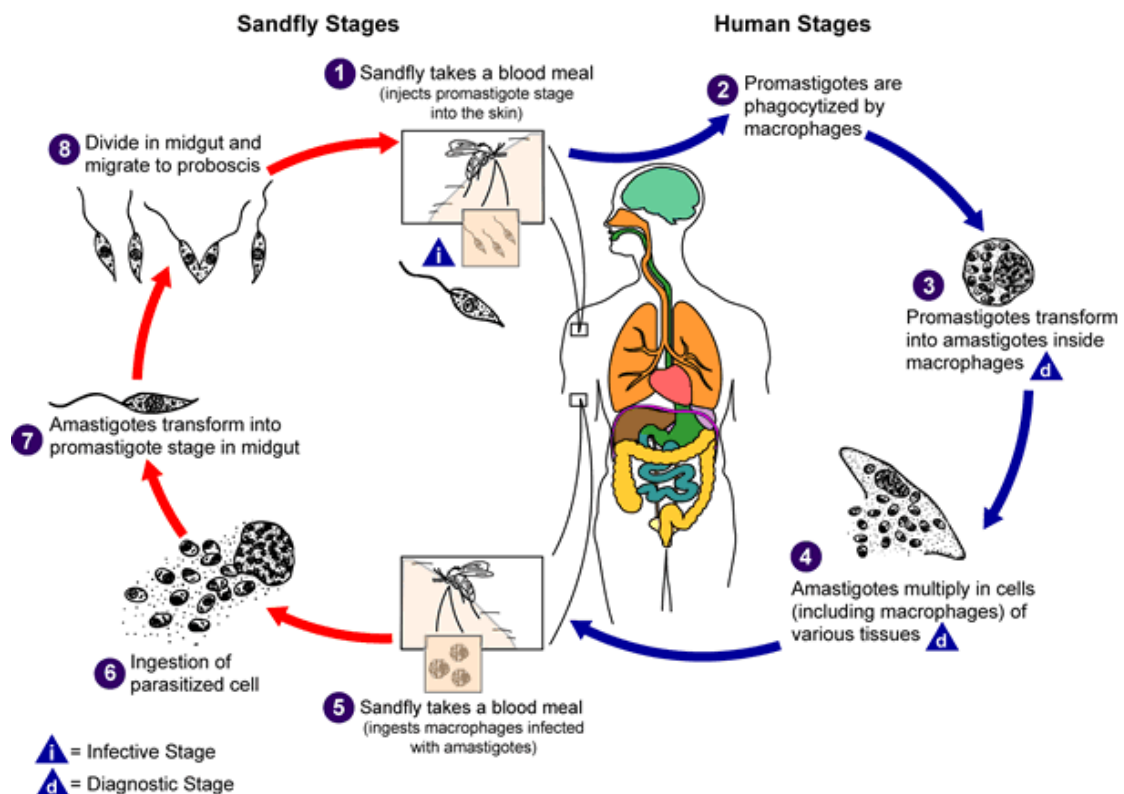
Leishmania parasite has a digenic life cycle that alternates between intracellular amastigote in a vertebrate host and extracellular promastigote in the vector sandfly host.

The life cycle

When an infective sand fly feeds in a vertebrate host, metacyclic promastigotes enter the vertebrate host via the insect's proboscis. The promastigotes are then phagocytosed by host macrophages where they metamorphose into amastigote forms after they are exposed to the acidic pH of the phagolysosomes (Chang and Dwyer, 1976; Berman *et al.*, 1979); they then reproduce by binary fission and increase in number until the cell eventually bursts and then infects other phagocytic cells (Figure 2).

When a female sand fly takes a blood meal from an infected vertebrate host, the ingested blood that contains amastigotes passes through the food canal to the midgut. Parasites of the subgenus *Vianna* establish an initial infection in the hindgut, where those of the subgenus *Leishmania* develop in the midgut (Lainson, 1984).

Figure 2: The Life Cycle of the Leishmania Parasite



Source: Centre of Disease Control and prevention (CDC)

Sand fly midgut cells secrete peritrophic matrix (PM) that completely envelops the fresh blood meal in protein and glycoprotein sac and at the same time protect the midgut epithelial cells from damages by blood contents (Sacks, 1997).

In the sand fly midgut, two developmental stages of promastigotes were recognized, the procyclic and the metacyclic stages (Sacks and Perkins, 1985). The procyclic attaches to the epithelial cells of the midgut via binding to the lipophosphoglycan (LPG) (Sacks and Kamhawi, 2001). Metacyclic parasites undergo changes in the LPG structure reducing the ability of binding to midgut and allow the release of the parasite and its migration to the salivary glands of the vector and thus the sand fly becomes competent to transmit the infection (Sacks *et al.*, 2000).

1.5 Leishmania Species and Clinical Manifestations

In Human, both children and adults, leishmaniasis disease is caused by nearly two-dozen distinct *Leishmania* species. It manifests itself in several diverse clinical forms including ulcerative skin lesions, destructive mucosal inflammation, and disseminated visceral infection (Kala azar) (Herwaldt, 1999; Desjeux, 2001; Desjeux, 2004). Diseases outcome are similarly diverse. Variable disease expressions have also been shown in naturally infected animals (Lainson *et al.*, 2002) and, especially, experimentally infected ones (Alvar *et al.*, 2004; Murray *et al.*, 2005). Disease expression and manifestations vary depending on parasite species, endemic region, host factors and host responses (Weigle and Saravia, 1996; Murray *et al.*, 2005).

Subclinical Infection

Viscerotropic *Leishmania* species can cause asymptomatic infection (Badaro *et al.*, 1986; Follador *et al.*, 2002; Gama *et al.*, 2004; Riera *et al.*, 2004). Diverse predisposing factors have been reported and attributed to the sub-clinical infection such as host immunogenetic polymorphisms (Davies and Mazloumi Gavvani, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2004) and the host nutritional status (Cerf *et al.*, 1987).

Cutaneous Leishmaniasis

The causative organisms of CL are *L. tropica*, *L. major*, *L. aethiopica*, *L. donovani* and *L. infantum* in the Old World. In the New World CL is caused by multiple species of both the *Leishmania* subgenera [*L.(Leishmania)*]: *L. amazonensis*, *L. infantum*, *L. mexicana*, *L.*

venezuelensis] and the *Viannia* subgenera [*L.(Viannia): L. braziliensis, L. guyanensis, L. panamensis, L. peruviana*] (Monge-Maillo and Lopez-Velez, 2013a). CL is frequently self-healing unless secondary bacterial infection develops. Usually, it affects exposed parts of the body with incubation period that varies from 1 week to several months depending mainly on the *Leishmania* species involved and the size of the inoculum. (Grevelink and Lerner, 1996; Salman *et al.*, 1999). The fully mature lesion remains stable for several weeks before healing starts (Kubba *et al.*, 1987). Differential diagnosis should be made to exclude other diseases.

Diffused Cutaneous Leishmaniasis (DCL) is another form of the CL which is caused either by *L. aethiopica* or *L. amazonensis* (Salman *et al.*, 1999). It is characterized by lack of *Leishmania*-specific cellular immune response and thus limited inflammatory reaction (Bañuls *et al.*, 2007). DCL usually starts with a primary lesion that progresses to numerous ulcerated nodules and plaques that disseminate to other skin area (Salman *et al.*, 1999). Infections persisting for more than 1–2 years are regarded as chronic CL (Dowlati., 1996).

Leishmania Recidiva Cutis is a rare form associated with *L. tropica* in the Old World and *L. braziliensis* in the New World. This form of the disease refers to the development of new lesions within the scar of a healed acute lesion (Salman *et al.*, 1999), incubation period ranges 1–15 years and in some cases different *Leishmania* strains from the primary eziology were found suggesting either change in the immune status of the host or an exogenous reinfection (Saravia *et al.*, 1990).



Figure 3: *CL patients*

Affected patients have a vigorous cellular immune response but low antibody titer (Salman *et al.*, 1999).

Mucocutaneous Leishmaniasis

MCL involves the mucous membranes of the upper respiratory tract. It occurs when cutaneous lesions expand to the mucosal region or through metastasis. It is not self-healing and if left untreated it develops to mutilation or tissue destruction (Reithinger *et al.*, 2007; Strazzulla *et al.*, 2013). Treatment failure and relapses are common

(Amato *et al.*, 2008; David and Craft, 2009). MCL it is a typical Leishmaniasis disease in the New World. Ninety per cent of the cases occur in Brazil, Bolivia, Ethiopia, and Peru (WHO., 2014) It is mostly related to *Leishmania* species of the New World such as *L. braziliensis*, *L. panamensis* and *L. guyanensis* (Guerra *et al.*, 2011). Nonetheless, mucosal lesions have been reported in the Old World due to *L. donovani* (el-Hassan *et al.*, 1994; el-Hassan *et al.*, 1995; Pulimood *et al.*, 2012), to *L. major* (Alborzi *et al.*, 2013) and to *L. infantum* in immunosuppressed patients (Ehlert *et al.*, 2013).



Figure 4: *ML patients*

Unlike South American ML, Sudanese Mucosal Leishmaniasis (SML) is not preceded or accompanied by a cutaneous lesion (el-Hassan *et al.*, 1995). Few sporadic cases of SML have been reported in Sudan, most of which were from endemic areas of VL. Isoenzyme characterization identified that *L. donovani zymodeme MON 18* isolated from ML patients is the same that causes VL in the western Upper Nile Province and among the Misairriya tribe in Kordofan (el-Hassan *et al.*, 1994; el-Hassan *et al.*, 1995)

Visceral Leishmaniasis

Also known in Asia as 'black fever' or 'kala-azar', VL is the most severe form of the disease. The



Figure 5: VL patient

parasite invades internal organs (spleen, liver and bone marrow) and the consequences are usually with an almost 100% mortality rate if left untreated (Desjeux, 2004). It is characterized by irregular fever, loss of weight, splenomegaly, hepatomegaly and/or lymphadenopathy and anaemia (Zijlstra and el-Hassan, 2001a). Among the 200,000 to 400,000 new cases of VL, which occur annually, 90% are concentrated in 6 countries, Bangladesh, Brazil, India, Ethiopia, South Sudan and Sudan (WHO., 2014).

VL is caused by *L. donovani* in the Indian subcontinent and in East Africa, by *L. infantum* in the Mediterranean region and by *L. chagasi*, which is closely related or undistinguishable from *L. infantum* in the New World, mainly in Brazil, Peru and Paraguay (Berman, 1997; Herwaldt, 1999). However, *L. tropica* and *L. major* have been isolated from bone marrow cultures of patients with systemic leishmanial infection in Kenya, Iraq, the Middle East and India (Mebrahtu *et al.*, 1991; Al-Diwany *et al.*, 1995; Magill, 1995). Occasionally, *L. amazonensis* in South America can produce VL (van Griensven and Diro, 2012).

Post Kalazar Dermal Leishmaniasis

Post-kala-azar Dermal Leishmaniasis (PKDL) is a dermatosis that usually occurs in VL patients who have been successfully treated and rarely, in individuals who have no previous history of symptomatic VL (Gasim *et al.*, 2000; Zijlstra *et al.*, 2003). The disease is mainly caused by *L. donovani* in Indian sub continent and East Africa, however, few cases have been reported to be caused by *L. infantum*, *L. chagasi*, or *L. tropica*. (Sacks *et al.*, 1995; Singh *et al.*., 2011). Disease pathogenesis is thought to be immunologically mediated (Singh *et al.*, 2011).

It has been estimated that after successful treatment of VL, about 10–20% cases in India and 50–60% cases in Sudan develop PKDL (Ramesh and Mukherjee, 1995; Zijlstra and el-Hassan, 2001b). PKDL patients are thought to act as human reservoir for the parasite (El Hassan and Khalil, 2001).

PKDL usually develops within months to several year (2–7 years) after apparent cure of kala-azar.

Leishmania parasites were detected in lymph node and/or bone marrow aspirates of the PKDL cases. Clinically, the PKDL is characterized by the appearance of macules, papules or nodules in the skin especially on the face but other parts of the body may also be infected (Zijlstra and el-Hassan, 2001b). The disease may develop particularly severe and generalized skin lesions especially in children (el Hassan et al., 1992; Zijlstra et al., 2003).



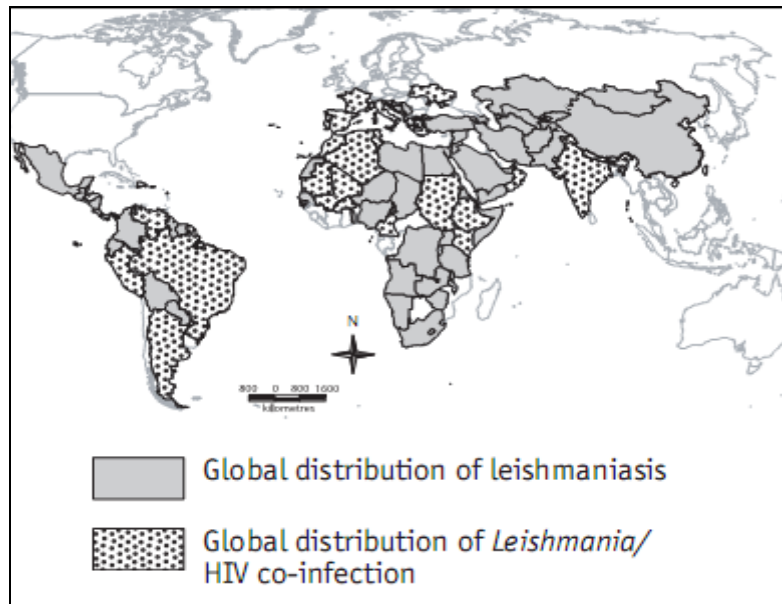
Figure 6: *PKDL patients*

Leishmania-HIV/AIDS Co-infection

The first case of leishmaniasis associated with *HIV* infection was reported in 1985, and the numbers of cases have subsequently increased rapidly in Southern Europe. Thirty-five countries have since then reported cases of co-infection. After the introduction of the HAART (Highly Active Anti-Retroviral Treatment), the numbers of co-infected cases in European countries where the disease is endemic fell sharply. However, the problem has expanded to other major foci of leishmaniasis in the world due to the increased overlap of the two diseases (Tremblay *et al.*, 1996; Alvar *et al.*, 2008).

Both *Leishmania* and *HIV* disease exert a synergistic detrimental effect on the cellular immune response because they target similar immune cells (Tremblay *et al.*, 1996). *HIV* increases the risk of developing VL leishmaniasis by 100 to 2,320 times in areas of endemicity, reduces the likelihood of a therapeutic response and greatly increases the probability of relapse (Pintado *et al.*, 2001; Alvar *et al.*, 2008) and at the same time VL promotes the clinical progression of *HIV* disease and the development of the AIDS- defining conditions. In South Europe, France, Italy, Portugal and Spain were mainly involved in *Leishmania HIV* co-infection, while in South Asia the co-infection was found in Bangladesh, India and Nepal. Brazil is the epicentre of the *HIV/AIDS* epidemic in South America, and in sub Saharan Africa the disease is well reported in Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Somalia, Sudan and Kenya. (Alvar *et al.*, 2008).

Map 3: Global distribution of leishmaniasis and leishmania/HIV co-infection



Report of the Scientific Working Group on Leishmaniasis WHO, 2004

1.6 Treatment

Cutaneous disease is usually self-healing (Murray *et al.*, 2005), the treatment options are used to accelerate cure, reduce scarring especially at cosmetic sites and to prevent dissemination or relapse (Murray *et al.*, 2005). Drug efficacy is based on the *Leishmania* species involved, the geographical regions and the clinical presentations. CL treatment can follow topical or systemic regime (Monge-Maillo and Lopez-Velez, 2013a). Local therapies offer less systemic toxicity, and include thermotherapy, cryotherapy, paromomycin ointment and local infiltration with antimonials, whilst systemic treatment with azole drugs, miltefosine, antimonials or amphotericin B formulations are reserved for complex cases (Monge-Maillo and Lopez-Velez, 2013a). Combinations of local therapies and parenteral pentavalent antimonials are also common and showed to have an additional therapeutic effect (Monge-Maillo and Lopez-Velez, 2013a).

Mucosal diseases must be treated as it can produce potentially life threatening inflammatory disease. Parenteral antimony is the drug of choice. Amphotericin B can be used as rescue therapy (Murray *et al.*, 2005).

PKDL disease is not routinely treated hence the majority of cases heal spontaneously within one year. Treatment is limited to patients with severe, disfiguring or long persisting lesions and to

young children with oral lesions that interfere with their feeding. Sodium stibogluconate (SSG) and liposomal amphotericin B are the drugs of choice (Murray *et al.*, 2005).

Visceral disease expression varies from sub-clinical to fatal systemic. Active VL may also represent relapse or late reactivation of subclinical or previously treated infection (Murray *et al.*, 2005). Factors as development of drug resistance, malnourishment, geographical location and concomitant infections should be considered upon choice of the proper treatment (Monge-Maillo and Lopez-Velez, 2013b).

Since the late 1940s, the traditional treatment for VL has been the use of pentavalent antimonials. However, in the 1980s, conventional amphotericin B deoxycholate was introduced, followed by lipid formulations of amphotericin B (liposomal amphotericin B) (Monge-Maillo and Lopez-Velez, 2013b), which is considered to be the drug of choice in high-income countries (Desjeux, 1996), the intramuscular Paromomycin and later, the oral miltefosine were developed as drug option for VL. In East Africa, the combination of sodium stibogluconate and paromomycin is common (Murray *et al.*, 2005).

1.7 Vectors of Leishmania

Phlebotomine sand flies are the only known natural vector of *Leishmania* (Ready, 2013), however, recently other haematophagous arthropods such as ticks (*Rhipicephalus sanguineus*) (Dantas-Torres *et al.*, 2010; Dantas-Torres, 2011) and the day-feeding midges (*Diptera: Ceratopogonidae*) (Dougall *et al.*, 2011) have been incriminated. Table 1 shows proven and suspected vectors of *Leishmania*.

Vector Taxonomy

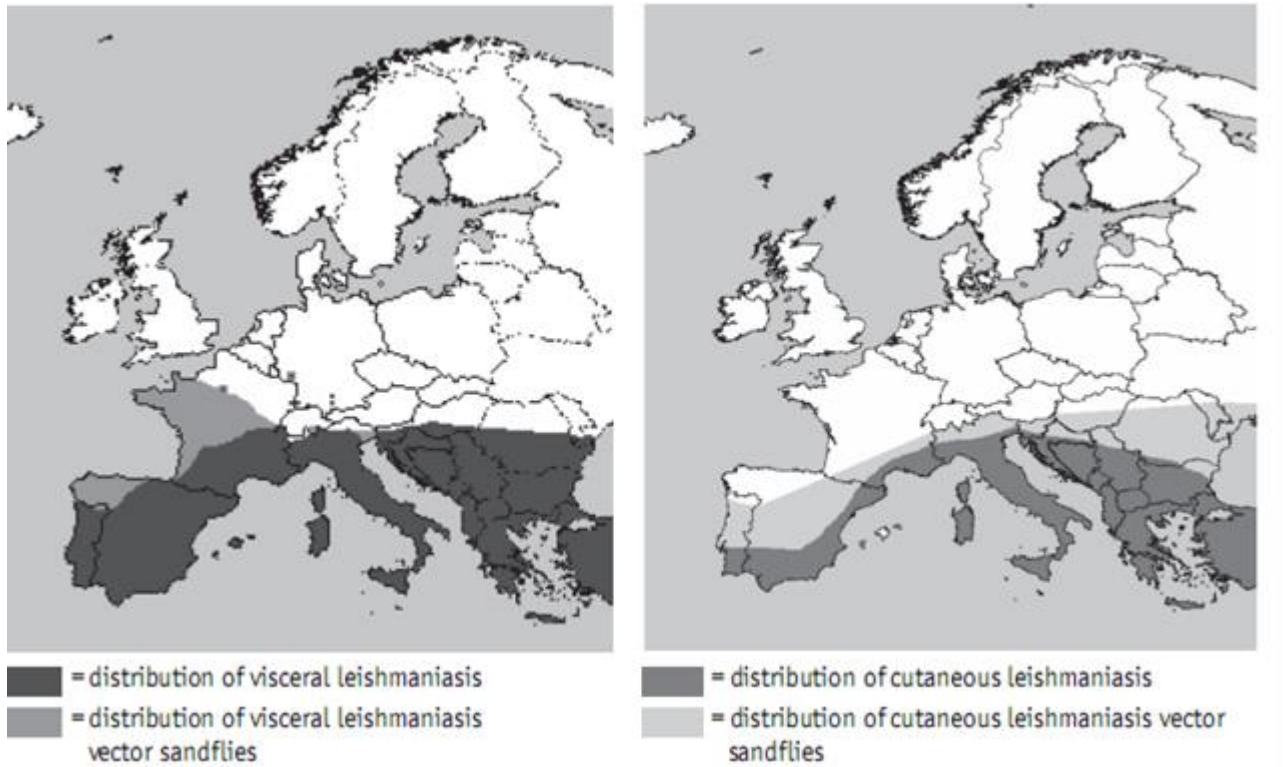
There is no universal agreement on the generic and higher classification of sand-flies. *Phlebotomus*, *Sergentomyia* and *Chinius* are the three Old World genera recognized and widely accepted, however, others have been named but they are of unknown medical importance (WHO, 2010). For Neotropical sand-flies, three genera, 15 subgenera and 11 species groups have been recognized for decades, but this classification has been strongly criticized because it failed in revealing the evolutionary relations between specie belonging to the genus *Lutzomyia* (WHO, 2010). Several revisions have been proposed, but none has been universally accepted (WHO, 2010). A most recent and comprehensive taxonomy classifies the 464 species of Neotropical sand-flies into 22 genera, 20 subgenera, 3 species groups and 28 series but yet it has not been fully accepted and further changes are expected (WHO, 2010).

The phlebotomine sand flies that are known as natural vector of *Leishmania* belong to the Family *Psychodidae*, Subfamily *Phlebotominae* of the genus *Phlebotomus* (Old World), and *Lutzomyia* (New World) (Killick-Kendrick, 1990). Sand-flies transmit many zoonotic diseases (*Arboviruses*, *Bartonelloses* and especially *Leishmaniasis*) of importance to human health. Among over 800 species of sand-fly recorded, 98 are proven or suspected vectors of human Leishmaniasis (42 *Phlebotomus* species in the Old World and 56 *Lutzomyia* species in the New World) (Maroli *et al.*, 2013).

Vector Distribution

Altitudinal distribution of sand-flies extends from below sea level to 3300 m above sea level in Afghanistan (Lane and Crosskey, 1993; Maroli *et al.*, 2013). Usually they are limited to areas where daytime temperature is above 15.6 C° for at least three months of the year (Lane and Crosskey, 1993) in Asia, Africa, Australia, Southern Europe and the Americas (Killick-Kendrick, 1999). Sand-fly population densities change in areas characterized with seasonal fluctuations in temperature. They are absent from New Zealand and the Pacific islands (Lane and Crosskey, 1993). Population density reaches its peak towards the end of the rainy season in arid and semi-arid zones and reflow at the end of the dry season. Adults of some species disappear during the driest and / or coldest seasons (Sacks, 2001). Maps 4 and 5 demonstrate the approximate distribution in Europe of VL and its vector compared to CL and its vector.

Map 4 and Map 5: Approximate distribution in Europe of Visceral Leishmaniasis and its vector compared to Cutaneous leishmaniasis and its vector



WHO Report of the Scientific Working Group on Leishmaniasis 2004

Vector Biology

The biology of each species of sand-fly is unique and complex and the preferences of vectors for different vertebrates vary according to species and to the availability of hosts (WHO, 2010). The time from an infecting blood-meal until a female can transmit leishmaniasis by bite is probably 1–3 weeks, although the precise period is not known for any species of *Leishmania* and undoubtedly varies according to the gonotrophic cycles of the different vector species, the ambient temperature and, perhaps, the sugars taken by the females (WHO 2010). Phlebotomine sand-flies undergo four developmental stages: egg, larva, pupa, and adult (WHO, 2010). The immature stages need high relatively moist and warm habitats. The eggs are laid by adult females in sheltered habitat rich in organic content, such as animal excreta and soil. Eggs (0.3–0.5 mm in length) are initially white or light grey in colour but often turn dark brown or black within a few hours of oviposition (Maroli *et al.*, 2013). Egg hatching is highly temperature-dependent while larval development is generally slow. First-instar larvae emerge in 12–19 days, pupae in 25–59 days, and adults in 35–69

days (Volf and Volfova, 2011). Both male and female require carbohydrate for energy, supplied by sugar secretions from plants and from honeydew (Killick-Kendrick and Killick-Kendrick, 1987; Molyneux *et al.*, 1991). With the exception of few species, female phlebotomine sand-fly requires at least one blood meal in order to complete development of egg batches. Unlike mosquitoes, their attack on the host is silent. Adults are usually dormant during the day resting in cool humid sites that vary according to species such as animal burrows, bird nests, human dwellings and caves (Killick-Kendrick, 1999; Maroli *et al.*, 2013). Adults are mainly active in the evening, at night and in the early morning, although they can bite during the day if disturbed. The flight range of adult sand-fly is very short (about 300 m) and thus adult activities are usually restricted to the vicinity of larval breeding sites. However, peridomestic species disperse at longer distances than forest one (WHO, 2010). The flight speed is less than that of mosquitoes and in the order of 1 m/s (WHO, 2010) and they are unable to fly at wind speeds above this rate, which limits their distance of dispersal (WHO, 2010).

Species-restricted Vector competence

Species-restricted vector competence comes from laboratory based studies. Vectors can be divided into specific vectors, which support the growth of only one species of *Leishmania*, and permissive vectors, which support the growth of more than one species (WHO, 2010).

Different factors determine the ability of a given sand-fly species to act as specific or permissive vectors, these factors include:

- (i) The ability of the *Leishmania* parasite species to resist the digestive action of the enzymes produced in the midgut of the fly.
- (ii) The lipophosphoglycan-binding sites on the inner surface of the fly gut should match the lipophosphoglycan on the surface of the promastigotes.
- (iii) Successful establishment, growth, differentiation, migration and transmission of the parasite to the vertebrate host.

Despite its wide distribution, *P. papatasi* is known as specific vector of *L. major* in natural transmission, however, an experimental evidence of *P. papatasi* infection with hybrid strains of *L. infantum* / *L. major* causing visceral disease in HIV-positive patients (Volf *et al.*, 2007) has been documented. Based on these results *P. papatasi* has been suggested as vector of this hybrid in nature (Volf *et al.*, 2007)

Leishmania species	Proven or suspected vector sand fly species	Place of known or suspected transmission
<i>L.donovani</i>	<i>P. (E)argentipes</i>	India,Bangladesh, Nepal
	<i>P.(P.).alexandri</i>	West China and north Africa
	<i>P.(La.)orientalis</i>	Sudan and Ethiopia
	<i>P.(S.)martini</i>	Kenya, Ethipoia
	<i>P.(S.)celiae</i>	Kenya, Ethipoia
<i>L. infantum</i>	<i>P.(La) perniciosus</i>	
	<i>P.(La) ariasi</i>	Mediterranean
	<i>P.(La)perfiliewi</i>	
<i>L.major</i>	<i>P P.(La)neglectus.</i>	
	<i>alexandri</i>	Iran and Middle East
	<i>P.(A.).brevis</i>	Iran
	<i>P.(Ph.)papatasi</i>	Norht Africa and middle East
	<i>P.(Ph.)duboscqi</i>	Sahelian Africa
<i>L.tropica</i>	<i>P.(La.)acleatus</i>	Kenya
	<i>P.(La.)guggisbergi</i>	Kenya
	<i>P.(P.)sergenti</i>	Asia, Middle East and north Africa
<i>L.aethiopica</i>	<i>P.(La.)longipes</i>	Kenya, Ethipoia
	<i>and P.(La.)pedifer</i>	Kenya, Ethipoia
	<i>NewWorld species</i>	
<i>L.braziliensis</i>	<i>Lu.(Ps.)carrerrai</i>	Western Amazon Basin
	<i>Lu.(Ps.)compexa Lu.(N.)intermedia</i>	
	<i>Lu.(Ps.)wellcomei Lu.(N.)Whitmani</i>	Brazil
	<i>Lu.ovallesi</i>	Venezuela, Guatemala
<i>L.chagasi</i>	<i>Lu.(lu.)longipalpis</i>	Central America, Brazil, Venezuela
<i>L.colombiensis</i>	<i>Lu.(H.) hartmanni</i>	Colombia
	<i>Lu.(N.) anduzei</i>	Northern, South America, Brazil
<i>L.guyanensis</i>	<i>Lu.(N.) umbratilis</i>	Amazon Basin, Brazil, French Guiana
<i>L.lainsoni</i>	<i>Lu.(T.) ubiquitalis</i>	Brazil, Peru
	<i>Lu.(D) anthophora</i>	Texas USA
	<i>Lu.(lu) diabolica</i>	
<i>L.mexicana</i>	<i>Lu.(H.) ayacchensis</i>	Ecuador, Peru
	<i>Lu.(N) olmeca</i>	
	<i>Lu.(V) ovallesi</i>	Panama, Venezuela
<i>L.panamensis</i>	<i>Lu.(N.) trapidoi</i>	Central America, Colombia
<i>L.peruviana</i>	<i>Lu.(H.) peruensis</i>	Peru
	<i>Lu.(V) verrucarum</i>	
<i>L.venezuelensis</i>	<i>Lu.(N) olmeca</i>	Northern South America

Table 1: Proven and suspected sand-fly vector species (*The Biology of Leishmania - Sandfly Interaction- book. Page 20*)

1.8 The Reservoir

In zoonotic leishmaniasis the relationship between the parasite, the sand-fly, and the mammalian host(s) is complex and considered as a self-sustaining, independent system (Ashford, 1996). Ashford *et al* established three types of reservoir host:

- (i) The primary reservoir hosts which is responsible for the long-term maintenance of the infectious agents and are basically mammals.
- (ii) The incidental hosts which are irrelevant to the long-term persistence of the disease.
- (iii) Liaison hosts which bring the infectious agents to the vicinity of man and facilitate their transmission.

Various species of animals may become infected with *Leishmania* parasites and develop lesions but their roles as reservoirs need to be determined. A reservoir host needs an intense-fly contact, long-relatively non-pathogenic course of infection and an identical genotype of the parasite as that in human (WHO, 2010).

Humans as Reservoir Hosts

The two *Leishmania* species that are thought normally to be transmitted between humans are *L. donovani* and *L. tropica*, both tend to occur in unstable epidemics and may depend on people displacements from endemic foci where most people are immune, to new foci (Ashford, 1996). PKDL infected individuals are thought to be source of infection (El Hassan and Khalil, 2001), whilst HIV-coinfected patients are known to be highly infectious to sand flies, the role of asymptotically infected individuals in the transmission cycle is currently unknown (WHO, 2010). Humans have also thought to play a reservoir role in some outbreaks caused by *L. braziliensis*, *L. guyanensis* and *L. panamensis* (WHO, 2010).

Reservoir of Zoonotic Cutaneous and Mucocutaneous Leishmaniasis

Humans play minimal role in the transmission of ZCL caused by *L. major* (Schlein and Jacobson, 1996). In arid regions the main reservoir host of *L. majoris* is the great gerbil *Rhombomysopimus spp.* (Ashford, 1996; Yaghoobi-Ershadi and Javadian, 1996), while in Middle East and North Africa, the sand fat jird (*Psammomysobesus*), *Merionesshawi*, *Merionessacramenti* and *Gerbilluspyramidum* are the primary reservoirs (Ashford *et al.*, 1977; Schlein *et al.*, 1984;

Morsy *et al.*, 1993; Saliba *et al.*, 1994; Fichet-Calvet *et al.*, 2003). *Meriones libycus*, *M. crassus*, *Mastomys natalensis* and *Arvicanthusspp* are suspected reservoir rodents for *L. major* (Saliba and Oumeish, 1999). *Proechimysguyanensis* and *Proechimyscuvieri* are primary reservoir hosts of *L. amazonensi*, while *Oryzomys*, *Nectomys* and *Dasyprocta* are secondary hosts. Many species of ground rodents are involved in the transmission cycle of *L. mexicana* (WHO, 2010).

Two species of hyrax, *Procaviacapensis* and *Heterohyraxbrucei*, are the reservoir hosts of *L. aethiopica* in East Africa (WHO, 2010).

Several species of sloth are important reservoir hosts of various *Leishmania* species in New World. *Choloepusdidactylus* is a major reservoir host of *L. guyanensis* in Brazil and *L. shawi* in the Amazon region (WHO, 2010). While the *Choloepushoffmani* and *Bradypusgriseus* are primary reservoir host of *L. panamensis*. *B. infuscatus* has also been reported to be infected by *L. panamensis*, but its importance in the zoonotic cycle is not clear (WHO, 2010). The Lesser anteater (*Tamanduatetradactyla*) is the principal reservoir of *L. guyanensis* in Brazil. The *Opossums* (*Didelphismarsupialis*) is considered as a secondary reservoir host for *L. guyanensis* and *L. brazielienses* (Arias *et al.*, 1981).

Reservoir of Zoonotic Visceral Leishmaniasis

The reservoir of *L. donovani* is mainly humans (El Hassan and Khalil, 2001; Zijlstra and el-Hassan, 2001b). However, in Sudan other species are incriminated as the *Arvicanthis niloticus* (el-Hassan *et al.*, 1995).

The reservoir of *L. infantum/L. chagasi* is usually the dog. Naturally infected asymptomatic dogs are believed to play an important role in the transmission cycle as they are easily infective to sand-flies under experimental conditions (WHO, 2010). However, wild *Canidae* such as fox (*Vulpes spp.*), jackal (*Canisaureus*), wolf (*Canis lupus*) and the raccoon dog (*Nyctereutes procyonoides*) have been found to be infected with *L. infantum* in both Old World and New World, but their role as reservoir has not been fully established (WHO, 2010). Domestic cat (*Felis catus*) may act as secondary reservoir for *L. infantum /chagasi* (Poli *et al.*, 2002; Savani *et al.*, 2004).

1.9 Immunopathology of Leishmania

In humans, different patterns of immunological response are observed according to the clinical manifestation and exposure to different *Leishmania* species. Nevertheless, how different *Leishmania spp* cause human diseases and why the clinical symptoms are so variable remain enigmatic (Bañuls *et al.*, 2007).

The majority of *Leishmania* species are adapted to a large range of hosts. In human and other less adapted animals *Leishmania* infections can produce a wide range of diversified

pathologies ranging from asymptomatic carriers to benign cutaneous lesions to more serious life threatening disease such as the visceral form. In well-adapted animals infections remain asymptomatic (Lainson *et al.*, 1987). However, the rate of asymptomatic carriers is not accurately known, but it has been suggested that it is higher than expected (Sharma *et al.*, 2000; Gama *et al.*, 2004; Riera *et al.*, 2004).

1.9.1 Immune Response of Leishmaniasis Patients

In asymptomatic individuals, the natural immune response can eliminate or control the parasites. Macrophages are key cells in the host immune defense, they are the first host cells to contact and be parasitized by *Leishmania* (Basu and Ray, 2005). Together with dendritic cells, macrophages present the parasite antigens to T cell receptors via the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) molecules (Zinkernagel and Hengartner, 2001) forming acquired immune response which could be influenced by the cytokine context and the *Leishmania* peptides presented (Bañuls *et al.*, 2007).

During infection, *Leishmania* parasites resist the T cell mediated immune responses through complex and various strategies and mechanisms (Antoine *et al.*, 2004). In humans, different patterns of immunological response are observed according to the clinical manifestation and exposure to different *Leishmania* species. As example: Th1 response is present in patients with self-healing cutaneous lesions and absent in those with diffuse cutaneous Leishmaniasis (Kemp *et al.*, 1994; Ajdary *et al.*, 2000), while in patients with Mucocutaneous Leishmaniasis a mixed Th1/Th2 response with high interferon- γ (IFN- γ) levels were present (Carvalho *et al.*, 1985; Bacellar *et al.*, 2002). In VL mixed Th1/Th2 response is observed with production of IFN- γ with interleukin-10 (IL-10)(Ghalib *et al.*, 1993) and in individuals with asymptomatic or subclinical infections of visceralizing species of *Leishmania*, peripheral blood mono nuclear cell (PBMC) proliferation and production of IL-2, IFN-g and IL-12 were observed.

In cured patients, both Th1 and Th2 clones producing IFN- γ and IL-4 have been isolated (Kemp *et al.*, 1993).

1.9.2 Factors Involved in Pathogenicity and Virulence

Parasite factors

Although *Leishmania* virulence may be modulated by the environmental and genetic factors of their mammalian hosts and sand fly vectors, molecular determinants of parasite remains the key elements hence there is no Leishmaniasis without intact living *Leishmania* parasite (Chang and McGwire, 2002).

Chang et al (2002) identified two different groups of parasite molecules that thought to be involved in leishmanial mechanisms of virulence, these are:

(i) Invasive/Evasive determinants:

Infection-related parasite cell surface and secreted molecules allow to establish successful intracellular parasitism in phagolysosomes or parasitophorous vacuoles of macrophages (Chang and McGwire, 2002). They enhance evasion of humoral factors, attachment of parasites to macrophages followed by the intracellular entry into phagocytes, the intracellular survival of the endocytized parasites, differentiation of promastigotes to amastigote and amastigote replication (Chang and McGwire, 2002). They protect not only the parasite its self, but also the infected host cell from premature cytolysis. These determinants are crucial for infection but they produce no pathology of the host (Chang and McGwire, 2002). Invasive/evasive determinants include among others phosphoglycans (PG), lipophosphoglycans (LPG), glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GP1), proteophosphoglycan (PPG), Leishmanolysin (GP63) and cysteine protease (CPs) (Chang and McGwire, 2002).

(ii) Pathoantigens

Are all molecules that are capable of inducing host immunopathology as the principal cause of clinical symptoms, are conserved structural or soluble cytoplasmic proteins which are often complexed with other molecules to form sub-cellular particles (Chang and McGwire, 2002). They produce high antibodies titers and include among others Cytoskeleton (as kinesin and tubulins), ribosomes (PO, P2a and b), nucleosomes (as H2A/B, H3 and H4) and glycosomes such as TPI. The molecules listed have been found to contain immunogenic B-cell pitopes (Chang and McGwire, 2002).

Host Factors

Host genetic variation and susceptibility to Leishmania infection:

Evidence from animal models and humans indicates that host factors play an important role in determining both disease severity and resolution (Cabello *et al.*, 1995; Mohamed *et al.*, 2003). Despite the differences between the human disease and the mouse models, much of the knowledge gained from studies in mice has found to be applicable to human *Leishmaniasis* (Sakthianandeswaren *et al.*, 2009). Candidate genes identified in mice as important in host response to infection, showed to be useful in identifying genetic polymorphisms involved in the human response to *Leishmaniasis* (Sakthianandeswaren *et al.*, 2009). Researches using candidate gene association analysis and genome-wide linkage studies in selected families from Sudan, Brazil and

India, identified number of genes/regions related not only to environmental risk factors but also to genes responsible for determining type 1 vs type 2 cellular immune responses (Blackwell *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, VL development has been demonstrated to be associated with two loci on chromosomes 22q12 and 2q23-q24 among Aringa ethnic group in Sudan (Bucheton *et al.*, 2003), also IL-2 receptor b (IL2RB) was identified as the candidate gene for the 22q12 locus (Bucheton *et al.*, 2007).

In Iranian CL patients, it has been suggested that the risk of developing CL could be influenced by functional genetic variants in the IL-4 promoter while the polymorphism in the first intron of the IFN-gamma gene might influence the progression of disease towards Chronic CL (Kamali-Sarvestani *et al.*, 2006). Similar role of L-10 has been found in humans infected with *L. braziliensis* (Salhi *et al.*, 2008).

Vector Factors

Sand-fly saliva consists of roughly thirty different salivary proteins, some are linked to blood feeding facilitation and several have been shown to be immunogenic (Gomes and Oliveira, 2012). The saliva modulates both the innate and the acquired host immune responses (Rohousova and Volf, 2006) and induce positive macrophage chemotaxis (Zer *et al.*, 2001)

Hosts including humans repeatedly exposed to uninfected sand fly bites develop antibodies against the sand fly saliva as well as cellular response (Barral *et al.*, 2000; Rohousova *et al.*, 2005; Gomes and Oliveira 2012). High levels of anti-saliva IgG, specific to the local sand fly species has been documented in people living in endemic areas of Leishmaniasis in Brazil and Turkey. However, the frequency and intensity of salivary proteins recognitions varied among individuals (Rohousova *et al.*, 2005). The presence of antibodies to salivary proteins from sand fly vectors of VL has been correlated with protection in humans (Gomes *et al.*, 2008; Aquino *et al.*, 2010) and in dogs (Vlkova *et al.*, 2011).

Two sand fly species have been studied for their salivary immunomodulatory properties, the *Lutzomyia longipalpis* and *Phlebotomus papatasi* (Rohousova and Volf, 2006). Studies demonstrated that these two genera could stimulate common as well as specific host immune responses (Rohousova and Volf, 2006). *L. longipalpis* saliva / maxadilan (vasodilator peptide) modulates the secretion of various cytokines and alters the expression of co-stimulatory molecules. In human it decreases the secretion of TNF- α and IL-10 and increases the levels of IL-6, IL-8, and IL-12p40 (Rogers and Titus, 2003; Costa *et al.*, 2004). Changes in the expression of co-stimulatory molecules can alter the T-cell activation and response (Qureshi *et al.*, 1996; Costa *et al.*, 2004), however, the intensity of the stimulatory and inhibitory effects varies depending on the individuals (Costa *et al.*, 2004). Similarly to *L. longipalpis*, the saliva of *P. papatasi* has an inhibitory effect on

lymphocyte proliferation. It suppresses early production of IL-2, IL-4, and IFN- γ (Rohousova and Volf, 2006) and increases production of IL-6 (Rogers and Titus, 2003) and differently from *L. longipalpis*, *P. papatasi* saliva shows three important species-specific modulations: it has no effect on TNF- α production by LPS-stimulated human monocytes (Rogers and Titus, 2003), it down-regulates the expression of inducible NO synthase (iNOS) and subsequent production of NO in LPS- or IFN- γ -activated murine macrophages and thirdly, it up-regulates the expression of the Th2 cytokine IL-4 (Mbow *et al.*, 1998), thus preventing the development of inflammatory response.

PART TWO

Molecular Genetic approach in *Leishmania*

2.1 *Leishmania* Genome

The *Leishmania* genome is composed of the nuclear genome and the kDNA, which is the mitochondrial DNA of the *Kinetoplastida*. kDNA constitutes 10–20% of the total DNA of *Leishmania* and can be divided into two classes: the heterogeneous minicircles and the homogenous maxicircles. The minicircles have been shown to encode guide RNA (gRNA) molecules involved in the RNA editing of maxicircle cryptogenes (Simpson, 1987; Sturm and Simpson, 1990).

The *L.major* nuclear genome which sequenced in 2005 (Ivens *et al.*, 2005), has provided a framework for future comparative genomic studies of other two *Leishmania* species, *L.braziliensis* and *L.infantum*, in 2007 (Peacock *et al.*, 2007). Comparative genomic studies of these three species identified more than 8,300 protein-coding genes and 900 RNA genes (Peacock *et al.*, 2007). Many genes remain unclassified (approximately 69%), with 40% of these being potentially *Leishmania*- (or *kinetoplastid*) specific (Myler and Stuart, 2000). Summary of the three *Leishmania* species genomes shown in table 2

Leishmania conserves about 6,200 trypanosomatid genes and has more than 1,000 *Leishmania*-specific genes, most of them uncharacterized (Peacock *et al.*, 2007). Unlike *Trypanosomes*, *Leishmania* chromosomes have not extended subtelomeric regions containing species-specific genes (Peacock *et al.*, 2007).

2.2 Gene Organization and Genome Content

Genome plasticity, variation in chromosomal content and of chromosome size even between homologous chromosomes is characteristic for each *Leishmania* species (Blaineau *et al.*, 1991; Sterkers *et al.*, 2012).

Leishmania is considered to be a diploid organism (Iovannisci *et al.*, 1984), however, evidences suggest that all *Leishmania* species are naturally aneuploidy (Rogers *et al.*, 2011; Mannaert *et al.*, 2012). Aneuploidy is often associated with drug pressure and with parasite adaptability to the host environment (Mannaert *et al.*, 2012). Drug pressure due to the treatment of

infected patients between whom the parasites are transmitted may be the cause of the extreme chromosome copy number variations in *L. donovani* (Mannaert *et al.*, 2012).

Genes are organized into directional clusters, which are either polycistrons (PGCs) or groups of genes sharing uncharacterized regulatory elements (Peacock *et al.*, 2007). Old World *Leishmania* species (*L. donovani/infantum*, *L. major* and *L. tarentolae*) have 36 chromosomes. Due to unique chromosome fusion events, *L. braziliensis* has 35 chromosomes and *L. mexicana* has only 34 chromosomes (Table 2).

	<i>L. major</i>	<i>L. infantum</i>	<i>L. braziliensis</i>
Chromosome number	36	36	35
Size (bp)	32,816,678	32,134,935	32,005,207
Contigs	36	562	1,041
Overall G+C content (%)	59,7	59,30	57.76
Coding genes	8,298	8,154	8,153
Pseudogenes	97	41	161
Coding G+C content (%)	62,5	62,45	60,38

Table 2: Summary of the *L. major*, *L. infantum* and *L. braziliensis* genomes (Peacock *et al.*, 2007).

2.3 Genes and Leishmania Parasite Tropism and Virulence

The comparative genomic studies of the three *leishmania* species (*L. major*, *L. braziliensis* and *L. infantum*) revealed that only few species-specific parasite genes are important in pathogenesis and that parasite gene expression levels differ considerably between species. This may be attributed to the variation in gene copy number (Peacock *et al.*, 2007). Beside the two groups of parasite molecules that are thought to be involved in Leishmanial mechanisms of virulence, i.e. the invasive/evasive determinant and the pathoantigens (Chang *et al.* 2002) which have been mentioned previously in section 1.9.2, other genes and loci associated with clinical polymorphism but not directly involved in virulence or pathogenicity were explored and known as the Indirect Genetic Markers (Bañuls *et al.*, 2007). Few of the Indirect Genetic Markers were found to be associated with clinical phenotypes at the intraspecific level, however, they are able to distinguish the different species and reveal intraspecific polymorphism (Bañuls *et al.*, 2007).

Gene Families

Trible “Marcov Cluster algorithm (MCL) of the *L. major* strain Friedlin (LmjF) predicted protein sequences “which is an algorithm used to assignment of proteins into families basing on pre-computed sequences similarity information” (Enright, *et al.*, 2002) revealed 662 gene families

containing 3,083 sequence (Ivens *et al.*, 2005). Smaller gene families consist of tandem arrays of one to three genes including large number of gene duplications particularly for ribosomal proteins and translation initiation factors. Members of the large gene families may be found in tandem arrays as well as dispersed throughout the genome. The largest protein families include among others 198 kinesin-related proteins, 60 protein kinases, 46 amastins, 32 GP64 and 29 RNA helicases (Myler P J, Fasel N, 2008).

RNA Genes

In LmjF genome 1,000 genes encoding structural RNAs were identified. The presence of approximately 24 copies of the rRNA unit per diploid genome in LmjF has been suggested (Martinez-Calvillo *et al.*, 2001). There is a tandem array of 18S, 5.8S and 28S ribosomal RNA genes on chromosome 27 while the 5.8S rRNA are found as dispersed single copies in different loci on different chromosomes. LmjF genome contains 83 tRNA genes and six snRNAs. The rRNA genes of *L. donovani* are organized on chromosome 27 as tandem repeats (Yan *et al.*, 1999).

Repetitive Sequences

Unlike other *trypanosomatids*, *Leishmania* genome contains relatively little repetitive sequences (< 10%) composed of tandem arrays of protein-coding and RNA genes (Myler P J, Fasel N, 2008).

Species- Specific Differences

Genome wide comparison studies of the three *Leishmania* species (*L.major*, *L.braziliensis* and *L.infantum*) revealed that sequence preservation between species is high (Peacock *et al.*, 2007). Only few species-specific parasite genes are found, 5 in *L.major*, 26 in *L.infantum* and 47 in *L.braziliensis*. Another 32, 6 and 98 genes respectively are absent from *L.major*, *L.infantum* and *L.braziliensis*, in the last case species- specific differences attributable to pseudogene formation (Myler P J, Fasel N, 2008).

Leishmaniasis in Sudan

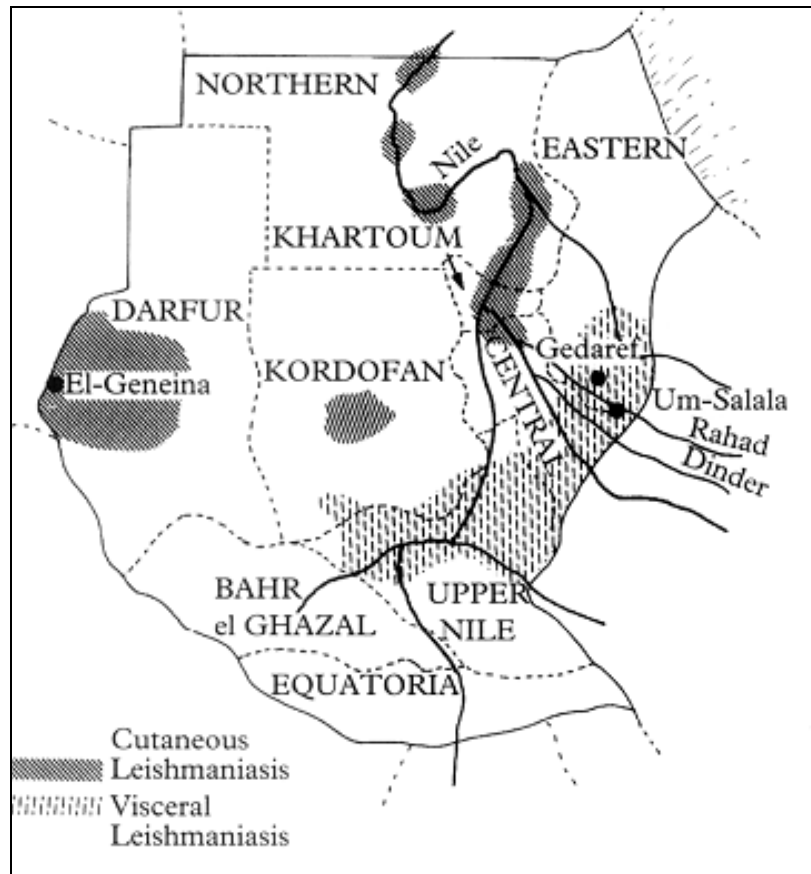
3.1 Introduction

Sudan is known as one of the most endemic areas of leishmaniasis in the world. The disease represents a serious health problem and outbreaks occur periodically causing high number of victims (Zijlstra *et al.*, 1994; Osman *et al.*, 2000; Khalil *et al.*, 2008). Worth to mention that Sudan has splitted into two independent states which are the Republic of Sudan (RoS) and the Republic of South Sudan (RoSS). Leishmaniasis is endemic in both states. The RoSS witnesses ongoing VL outbreak.

Many different clinical forms of leishmaniasis co-exist. The most serious VL is caused by *Leishmania donovani complex* and transmitted by *Phlebotomus orientalis* (Elnaiem *et al.*, 1998a; Zijlstra and el-Hassan, 2001a). VL is endemic in the Eastern part of the country (el-Hassan *et al.*, 1995; Khalil *et al.*, 2002) (map 9), however scattered cases have been reported from areas not known to be endemic in the Southern, Northern and Western parts (Osman *et al.*, 2000). Both anthroponotic and zoonotic transmission are thought to occur (Zijlstra *et al.*, 1994; Zijlstra, el-Hassan, Ismael, 1995; Elnaiem *et al.*, 2001; Dereure *et al.*, 2003; Hassan *et al.*, 2004).

CL in Sudan is caused by *L.major* and transmitted by *P.papatasi*. However, CL due to *L. donovani* has been well documented (Elamin *et al.*, 2008). The disease is endemic in the central and northern part (el-Safi and Peters, 1991; el-Hassan and Zijlstra, 2001) (map 10). Generally, the CL in Sudan is believed to be zoonotic as in other endemic areas in the world where the CL is due to *L. major*. The Nile rat *Arvicanthis niloticus* has been suggested as reservoir (Salah Eldin., 1997). Knowledge on the sandflies fauna and the animal reservoir host of CL due to *L.donovani* is still lacking.

Map 6: *Distribution of visceral and cutaneous leishmaniasis in Sudan and South Sudan*
(Zijlstra and el-Hassan, 2001)



Map 7: *Distribution of CL due to L.major in Sudan: (el-Hassan and Zijlstra, 2001)*

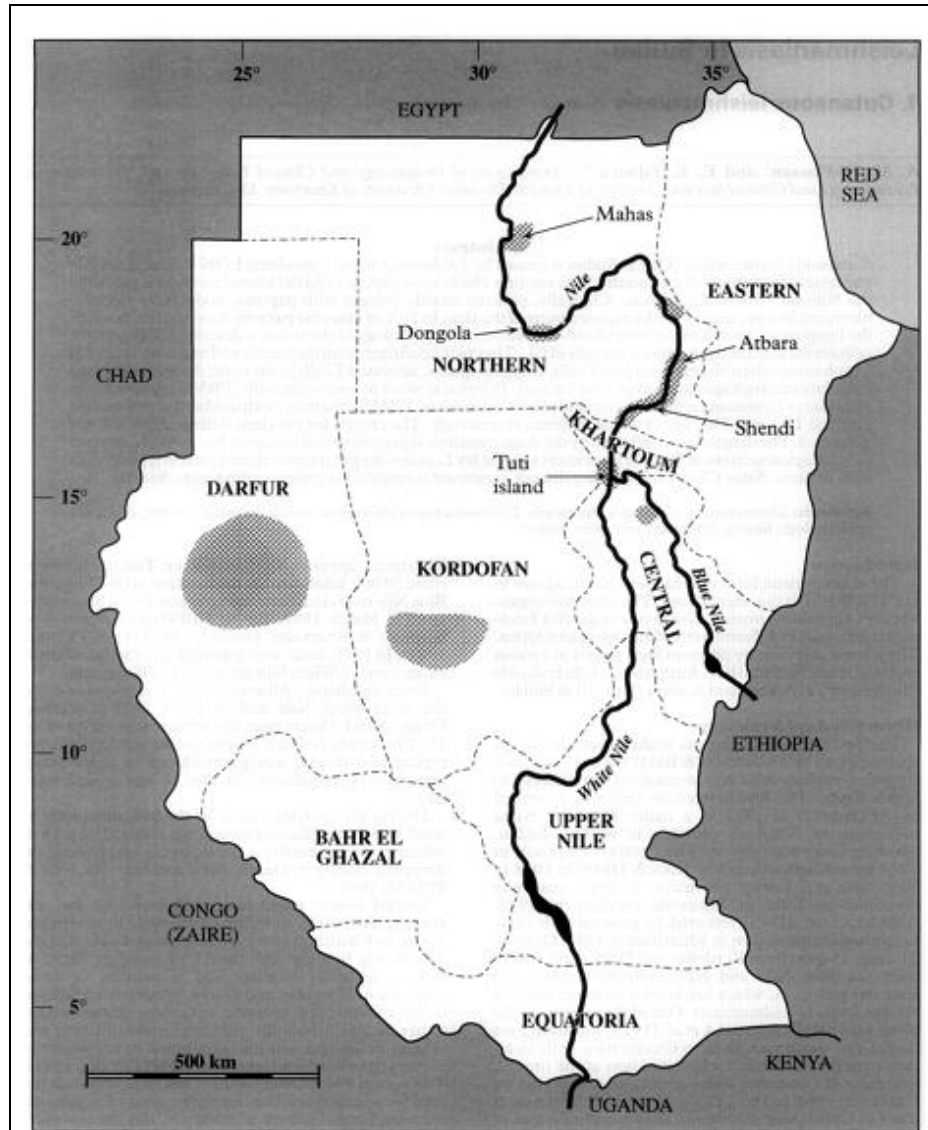
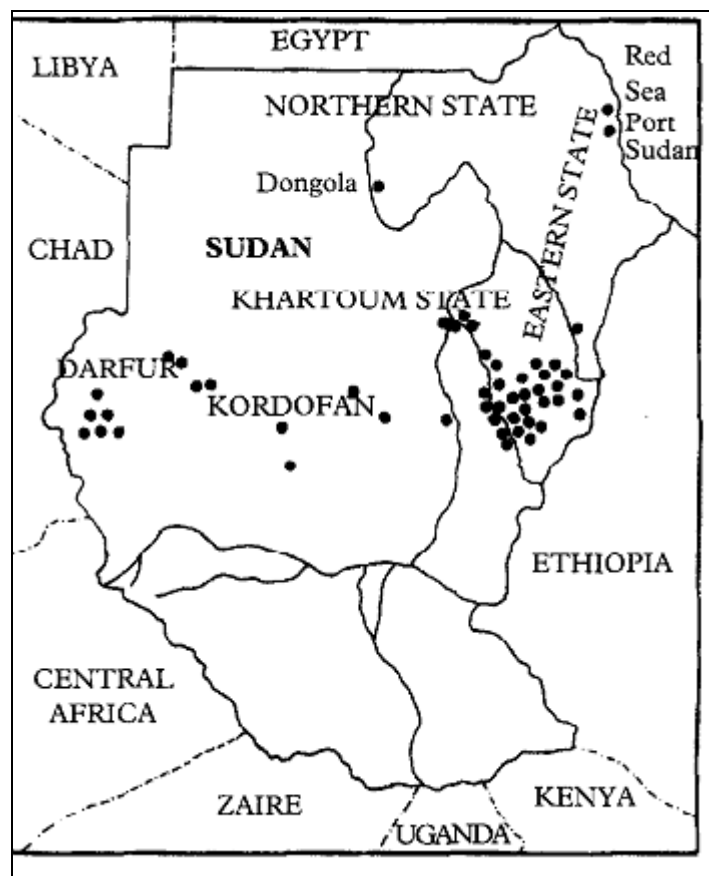


Fig. 1. Distribution of cutaneous leishmaniasis (cross-hatched) in Sudan. Provincial boundaries are shown as broken lines.

PKDL occurs in high rate during or shortly after treatment. At least 50% of VL patients develop PKDL, and this percentage is higher than in any other VL endemic area (WHO, 2010) (Zijlstra *et al.*, 1995; Zijlstra *et al.*, 2003). PKDL patients are thought to act as human reservoir for the parasite (El Hassan and Khalil, 2001).

Sudanese Mucosal Leishmaniasis (SML) is a rare and particular form of ML. Unlike ML, SML starts usually as primary mucosal disease, without being preceded or accompanied by cutaneous lesions. SML occurs in areas endemic for VL (el-Hassan *et al.*, 1995). Few sporadic cases of ML have been reported in Sudan (map 11). Most of these cases were from endemic areas of VL. Isoenzyme characterization identified that *L.donovani* zymodeme MON 18 isolated from ML patients is the same that causes VL in the Western Upper Nile Province and among the Misairriya tribe in Kordofan (el-Hassan *et al.*, 1994; el-Hassan *et al.*, 1995).

Map 8: *Distribution of known cases of mucosal leishmaniasis in Sudan (el-Hassan et al., 1995).*



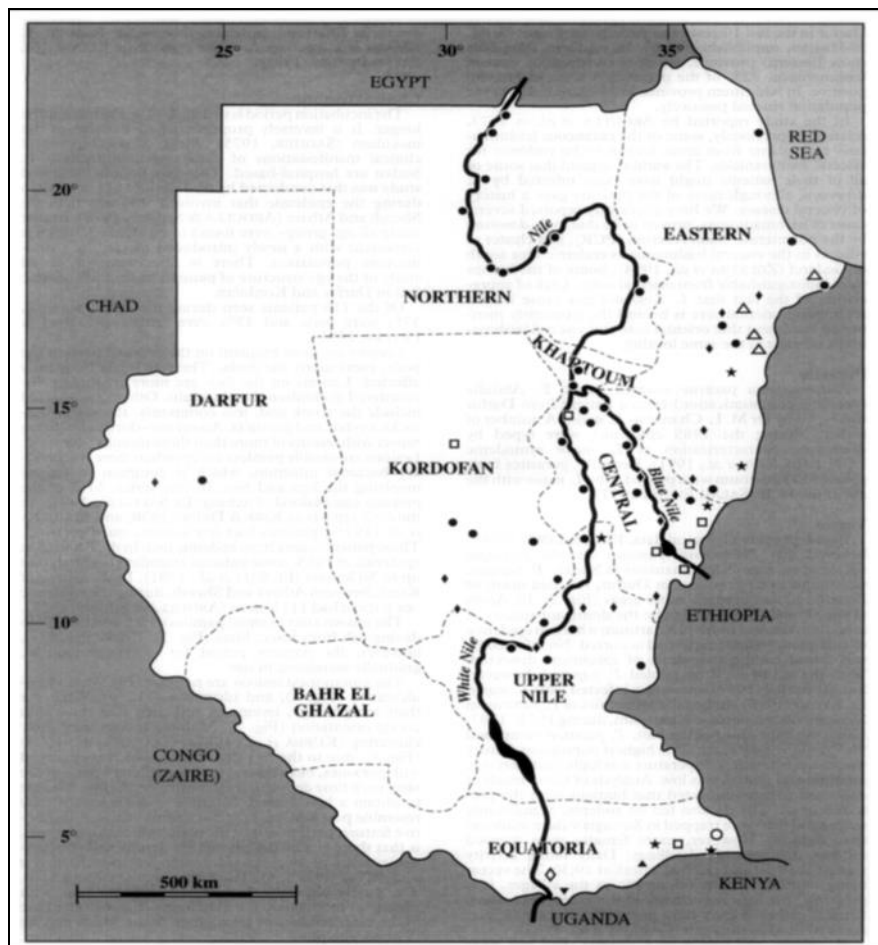
Leishmania/HIV co-infection is a growing concern particularly in the East (Alvar *et al.*, 2008). The first case of AIDS was reported in 1986, and in December 2006 the adult national prevalence rate was 1.6 %, indicating that Sudan is in a generalized epidemic (Alvar *et al.*, 2008). The transmission is mainly heterosexual, however vertical transmission from mother to child also play a role.

The most affected areas are Khartoum and the Eastern and Southern states, likely due to population movements (refugees and internally displaced populations) (Alvar *et al.*, 2008).

3.2 Sand Flies in Sudan and South Sudan

Nine *Phlebotomus* species and 37 *Sergentomyia* species have been identified (map 12). *Phlebotomus* sandflies in the Sudan include *P. orientalis*, *P. papatasi*, *P. martini*, *P. rodhaini*, *P. pedifer*, *P. alexandri*, *P. saevus*, *P. bergeroti* and *P. duboscqi* (Elnaiem, Hassan, Ward, 1997; Lambert *et al.*, 2002).

Map 9: Sand Flies in Sudan and South Sudan (el-Hassan and Zijlstra, 2001)



Out of these species only two are thought to play a major role in disease transmission in Sudan, *P. orientalis*, the proven vector of VL (Elnaiem *et al.*, 1998b; Jamjoom *et al.*, 2004), and *P. papatasi*, the proven vector of CL (Desjeux P, 1991; El-Sayed S M. 1990). *P. martini* has been incriminated as a vector of VL in Southern Sudan (Ashford *et al.*, 1992). *P. rodhaini* is not known as a vector, but it was found infected with *L. donovani* in woodland of Dindir National Park. Later, this sandfly has been found in the Northern part of Sudan (Hassan *et al.*, 2007) and was thought to play a role in maintaining the zoonotic cycle among reservoirs (Hassan *et al.*, 2007).

P. orientalis and *P. papatasi* are known as seasonal species (Hoogstraal *et al.*, 1962; Hoogstraal and Dietlein., 1964). The two species start to appear immediately after the rainy season (late October) and disappear during the rainy season (July-October) (Elnaiem *et al.*, 1998b; Elnaiem *et al.*, 2003). *P. orientalis* is mainly associated with *Acacia seyal* / *Balanites aegyptiaca*, vegetation that grows on black cracking clay soil in Eastern and Southern Sudan (Elnaiem *et al.*, 1998b). Unexpectedly, it was found in semi-arid areas in Northern Sudan (Hassan *et al.*, 2007). Its distribution is influenced by certain climatic and ecological determinants (Elnaiem *et al.*, 1998b). *P. orientalis* was found to be attracted more to dog baited traps than Mongoose, Genet and Nile rat (Hassan *et al.*, 2009). In endemic areas in the Eastern Sudan, in-village transmission is highly suggested because infected *P. orientalis* were reported from these villages (Hassan *et al.*, 2004).

P. papatasi occupies arid areas of semi-desert, desert and Savannah region. It was collected up to the north. *P. papatasi* is collected from woodland of Dindir National Park, 45 km from a nearest village. Also, it was collected from Savannah area in the south and eastern Sudan (El-Sayed S M. 1990).

3.3 The Leishmania Reservoir in Sudan

The Nile rat *Arvicanthis niloticus* is the probable reservoir of CL (el-Hassan and Zijlstra, 2001), while rodents and dogs were initially selected as the most probable reservoir hosts of a zoonotic *L. donovani* cycle (Elnaiem *et al.*, 2001; Hassan *et al.*, 2009). Rodents were particularly suspected, as they are the most abundant and widely dispersed animals of the local mammal fauna (Hoogstraal and Dietlein., 1964). Few further studies and researches have been conducted to update the state, but incrimination of rodents remains inconclusive.

Infected carnivores were found, i.e. the Senegal genet (*Genetta g. senegalensis*) and the Sudanese serval (*Felis serval phillipsi*) of the cat family (*Felidae*) (Hoogstraal and Dietlein., 1964). The wild jackal *Canis adustus* was the most common wild carnivore in the area, but these animals were not found infected. Infection of wild carnivores may have been acquired by consuming infected rodents or through bites of sand flies (Hoogstraal and Dietlein., 1964).

Domestic dogs are abundant, Dereure *et al* suggested that dog may play the role of the reservoir of VL in Sudan or it may acts as a bridge host between a possible sylvatic cycle and the anthroponotic cycle (Dereure *et al.*, 2000; Dereure *et al.*, 2003). More extensive studies are needed to assess the transmission cycle of VL in Sudan.

The zoonotic transmission of both CL and VL remain inconclusive, however different animals were suggested to act as reservoir such as the Nile rat (*Arvicanthis niloticus*), the common african rat (*Mastomys natalensis*), the egyptian mongoose (*Herpestes ichneumon*), the domestic dog (*Canis familiaris*), the genet (*Genetta genetta*), the jackal and serval cat (Hoogstraal and Dietlein., 1964; Elnaiem *et al.*, 2001; Hassan *et al.*, 2009).

3.4 Control, Diagnosis and Treatment of Leishmaniasis in Sudan

Since 2001, the leishmaniasis control program has been merged with the *Malaria* and *Schistosomiasis* control program under the National Malaria, Schistosomiasis and Leishmaniasis administration within the Division of the Endemic Disease Control created by the Federal Ministry of Health. The organization *Médecins Sans Frontières* Holland (MSF-H) has been involved in the VL control program since its first response to an outbreak in Gedarif state in eastern Sudan in 1996. From 2001 to 2004, MSF–H supported five hospitals in Gedarif state and two hospitals in Sennar State to improve diagnosis and treatment and to introduce a surveillance system for HIV/VL co-infection. In 2010 *Médecins Sans Frontières* Suisse (MSF CH) has started to support Tabarak Allah hospital in Gedarif state through diagnosis, treatment and medical follow up (WHO, 2010).

The national diagnosis guidelines recommend the use of rK39 and DAT for VL diagnosis in the field. Parasitological confirmation via a lymph node or bone marrow aspirate is recommended. MSF CH uses the rK39 and DAT for diagnosis of primary VL, and lymph node aspirates in cases of relapse and for test of cure (WHO, 2010).

The first line treatment of VL is the SSG for 30 days or Glucantime (meglumine antimoniate) for 21 days. Second line treatment is AmBisome (liposomal amphotericin B) (WHO, 2010). Combination therapy of SSG/ paromomycin has also been used as an alternative second line treatment (WHO, 2010). Amphotericin B is not recommended due to possible side effects while Miltefosine is planned to be included (WHO, 2010). SSG is used for treatment of long persisting PKDL (more than 6 months) or sever cases (WHO, 2010).

3.5 Rationale of the Study

The genus *Leishmania* includes many pathogenic species which have the ability to adapt and survive in very diverse environments encountering strong selection pressures (biotic as well as environmental) and infecting a large range of mammalian hosts and sand fly species (Bañuls et al., 2007). *Leishmania* species revealed a high degree of genetic diversity resulting in different phenotypes and pathogenic potentiality (Cupolillo *et al.*, 1998; Herwaldt, 1999; Cunningham, 2002). Paradoxically, different types of diseases are sometimes caused by the same *Leishmania* species group while the same phenotype of the disease may be caused by different *Leishmania* species. The mechanisms by which *Leishmania* parasite cause different pathologies are largely unknown.

Experimental studies demonstrated that different strains of different *Leishmania* species are attributable to differences in disease expression and immune responses (Bañuls et al., 2007) and that differential degrees of polymorphism exist within a single species among geographical location or host (vector or reservoir) (Bañuls *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, the considerable overlap in clinical manifestations and the uncommon disease phenotypes (Elamin et al., 2005), the mixed infection with different strains or species of *Leishmania* and its impact on disease diagnosis, prognosis and the consequent drug resistance (Antoniou *et al.*, 2004) highlight the need to unravel the genetic diversity at the inter- and intra-specific level and strain typing. In parasitic diseases, strain typing becomes a basic tool for taxonomic, epidemiologic as well as medical studies (Nadler, 1995).

To build up a reliable picture of the various phylogenetic subdivisions with relation to virulence, genes such as the ribosomal ribonucleic acid genes, the Lyshmanolysin (GP63) and the cytochrome Oxidase become indispensable.

3.6 Hypotheses

Genetic polymorphism at the Inter and intra specific level might be associated with disease phenotype.

3.7 Objectives of the Study

General Objectives

- To understand the correlation between the genetic diversity and the clinical manifestations.

Specific Objectives

- To genetically characterize isolates from Sudanese patients diagnosed with different types of leishmaniasis to understand the correlation between different clinical manifestations and the genetic profile of Leishmania.
- Investigate presence or absence of mixed infections and/ or hybrids.
- To build up a reliable picture of the various phylogenetic subdivisions with relation to virulence, using the Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) gene, the Lyshmanolysin (GP63) and the cytochrome Oxidase sub- unit II gene.

CHAPTER TWO

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials and Methods

2.1 Ethical Consideration

This study was approved by the ethical committee of the Institute of the Endemic Diseases, University of Khartoum and by the Ethical review Board at the Federal Ministry of Health, Sudan. The biological human samples were taken during a routine diagnostic service and no additional samples were required for this study.

2.1 Study area

This study was carried out in an endemic focus of visceral leishmaniasis (VL) in Gedarif State, Eastern Sudan (411 km from Khartoum). The study area is composed of clusters of villages where the disease is well known among inhabitants as kala-azar (Figure 7). The area is flat and composed of cracked alluvial clay soil characterized by tropical climate, i.e. a dry hot summer (March-June) with average temperature range of 28-44°C, warm wet autumn (July-October) and moderately warm winter (November-February) with average temperature range of 18-34 °C. The annual rainfall is about 600mm. Large scale rain fed sorghum and sesame fields surround the villages. Inhabitants mainly work as farmers, woodcutters and shepherds. Many nomadic tribes roam the area.



Figure 7: *the Study area*

2.2 Samples Collection

One hundred and eleven samples composed of blood (HB), bone marrow (HBM), lymph node aspirates (HLN), extracted DNA and cultured parasites were obtained from 72 patients clinically suspected of Leishmaniasis. Samples collection occurred in periods between 14-25 December 2010 and 10 -20 January 2012.

VL Biological Samples

From 21 patients, HBM, HB and HLN aspirates were available. Seven HB samples and one HLN were collected from eight symptomatic VL patients at MSF-CH Leishmaniasis clinic inside the local Tabarak Allah hospital (Gedarif, Sudan). Other 20 HB and 5 HMB were collected from south Gedarif outpatient clinic (Table 3). Clinical samples were spotted on Whatman filter paper #3; each filter paper sample was stored in a separate polyethylene bag at room temperature till further analysis.

CL Samples

Eight samples were taken from eight patients presented at IEND with typical CL ulcers and attempted for culture (Table 3).

Extracted DNA

Ten extracted genomic DNA of seven VL, one CL, one ML and one PKDL were kindly provided by the IEND (Table 3).

Leishmania Reference strain

L.major MON 25, *L.tropica* MON 30 kindly provided by the *Leishmania* Reference Centre, Italy and *L.infantum* MON 1 MHOM/TN/80/IPT1 kindly provided by the IZS Ve were included in this study.

Geographic origin	Sample Type	Number of samples	Leishmaniasis diagnosis	Clinical Manifestation
Central Gedarif city	HBM*	21	symptomatic	VL
	HB*	21	symptomatic	VL
	HLN*	18	symptomatic	VL
TabarakaAllah H	HB	7	serological	VL
	HLN	1	serological	VL
South Gedarif city	HBM	5	symptomatic	VL
	HB	20	symptomatic	VL
Khartoum-IEND	DNA	7	culture	VL
	DNA	1	culture	PKDL
	DNA	1	culture	ML
	DNA	8	culture	CL

Table 3: Provenance, numbers and types of samples collected included in the study. HBM : Human Bone Marrow, HB: Human Blood, HLN: Human Lymph Node. IEND: Institute of Endemic Diseases.

*: samples from same patients

2.3 Molecular Assay

Parasite Isolation and Culture Condition

Leishmania parasites were isolated as described by Evans (1989) using a modified biphasic NNN media consisting of solid and liquid phases. The solid phase was prepared by dissolving 2.5 gm blood agar base into 100 ml distilled water, the mixture was then boiled, autoclaved and cooled to 50 °C. Defibrinated rabbit blood was then added in a concentration of 10%. The media were melted in sterile glass tubes that laid in a slope position till the agar solidification. The tubes were incubated at 4°C for 24 hours. The liquid phase composed of 10% FCS and 90% RPMI 1640 was added just before use. Penicillin / Streptomycin mix (5 U/ ml) or Gentamycin (25ug/ml) were added to the media.

Cutaneous Isolates : A single cutaneous aspirate from the edges of the ulcer of each CL suspected patient was inoculated into the bottles containing biphasic media (NNN) and incubated at 24°C . Cultures were examined microscopically for parasite growth or contamination on the third day. DNA of successfully cultured isolates was extracted. No mass cultures was done.

Other IEND Isolates: The parasite isolation of the ten extracted genomic DNA (seven VL, one CL, one ML and one PKDL) was performed as in cutaneous isolates mentioned above but mass cultures were carried out. When parasite growth was established, the isolates were sub-cultured into a sterile RPMI 1640 containing 25 HEPES (pH 7.4), 10% heat inactivated FCS, streptomycin and penicillin at 5U/ml (complete media). Cultures were grown in sterile 25 ml flasks and incubated at 26°C. About 200 µl of growing *Leishmania* isolates were sub-cultured into 10 ml of complete

media and incubated at 26°C for one week when the stationary growth phase reached. The cultures were transferred into 15 ml sterile tubes and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes, the pellets were used for DNA extraction.

2.3.2 DNA Extraction

DNA extraction from culture

DNA of the cultured parasites was extracted in the IEND laboratory using phenol/chloroform method as described elsewhere (Maniatis *et al.*, 1986) with few modifications. Briefly, promastigotes were collected by centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 15 minutes. The Pellets were washed three times with 1× PBS buffer, detached and incubated at 55°C overnight with 5ml lysis buffer (NaCl 50mM, EDTA 10 mM, tris HCl 50 mM), 25 µl of 10 % SDS (w/v) and 100 µl of proteinase K. On the second day, 5ml of phenol were added, mixed gently and centrifuged for 15 minutes at 3000 rpm at 4°C, the upper layer was transferred into a new clean 50 ml tube, 2.5ml phenol and 2.5 ml chloroform- isoamyl alcohol were added, mixed well then centrifuged as above, again the upper layer was transferred into a new clean 50 ml tube, 100 µl RNase (29 ug/ml) was added, mixed and then incubated for 2 hours at 37°C. 2.5ml phenol and 2.5 ml chloroform- isoamyl alcohol were added, mixed and centrifuged and treated as previously (this step could be repeated until the interphase disappears), thereafter, 10 ml of absolute ethanol was added and mixed. The tubes were then incubated at -20°C for one hour, after that the tubes were centrifuged as previously and the supernatants were discarded. The volume was brought to 10 ml with 70% cold ethanol, mixed gently and centrifuged for 10 minutes. The supernatants were discarded and the tubes were allowed to dry for about 40 minutes, 300 µl of TE buffer or distilled water were added, mixed gently and incubated overnight at room temperature. The next day the DNA was transferred to a sterile 1.5 ml eppendorf tube and stored in - 20°C till transferred to the parasitology laboratory in the IZSVe premises.

DNA Extraction From Clinical Samples Spotted on Filter Papers

Extraction took place at the parasitology laboratory in the IZSVe premises. Filter papers with spotted biological material (Lymph node and bone marrow aspirates or blood) were punched out with a paper puncher. To prevent DNA contamination among samples, clean sheet of paper sprayed with MicroSol 3+™ solution was punched several times. DNA extraction was performed using QIAamp DNA Mini Kit according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 3 to 6 punched-out circles (about 3mm diameter) from a dried biological spot were placed into a 1.5 ml micro-centrifuge tube, 180 µl of Buffer ATL was added, the mixture was then incubated at 85°C for 10

minutes then centrifuged to remove drops from inside the lid, 20 µl proteinase K stock solution was added, mixed by vortexing, and thereafter incubate at 56°C for one hour. 200 µl Buffer AL were added to the sample, mixed thoroughly and incubated at 70°C for 10 min. After that 200 µl ethanol (96–100%) were added to the sample, mixed thoroughly. The mixture thereafter was applied to the kit Mini spin column (in a 2 ml collection tube), centrifuged at 8000 rpm for one minute, the Mini spin column was then placed in a clean 2 ml collection tube while the filtrate was discarded, after that 500 µl Buffer AW1 were added, centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 1 minute, again the Mini spin column was placed in a clean 2 ml collection tube and the filtrate was discarded. 500 µl Buffer AW2 were added and the mixture was centrifuged at maximum speed for three minutes, the Mini spin column was then placed in a clean 1.5 ml micro-centrifuge tube and the collection tube containing the filtrate was discarded. 150 µl Buffer AE was added, incubated at room temperature for 1 minute, and then centrifuge at 8000 rpm for another minute.

2.3.3 Real Time PCR Assay

As an initial screening, a real time PCR was conducted to investigate the presence of *Leishmania complexes* (*L. viannia*, *L. mexicana*, *L. donovani/infantum*, and *L. major*) in all samples. The primers Lid-f and Lid-r which generate a 80bp fragment of the GPI gene (Wortmann, *et al.*, 2005) were used with the probe TaqMan MGB Lid-probe labelled with the fluorescent reporter dye FAM (6-carboxyfluorescein) at the 5'end and with the fluorescent quencher dye TAMRA (tetra-methyl carboxyrhodamine) (Primers and probe sequences are shown in Table 4). Real time PCRs were performed in a final volume of 20 µl containing 3 µl of DNA, 10 µl of FastStart TaqMan Probe Master (Rox)1X (Roche Mannheim, Germany), 0.4 µM of both primers and 0.3 µM of the probe. The thermal cycling profile consisted of an initial activation at 95°C for 10 min, followed by 45 cycles each consisting of denaturation at 95°C for 15sec and annealing/extension at 60°C for 30sec. Negative (sterile water) and positive (*L. infantum* MON-1, MHOM/TN/80/IPT1, IZSVe-Italy) controls were included in each run of real time PCR reaction. Real time PCR was carried out on a 7900HT fast Real-time PCR system (Applied biosystems).

2.3.4 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

kDNA PCR

Fifty Real Time PCR positive samples were tested by two PCRs, using the two couple of primers AJS3/R1 and F2/DBY (Lambson *et al*, 2002) which amplify respectively a 620 bp and 250 bp fragments of the kDNA gene

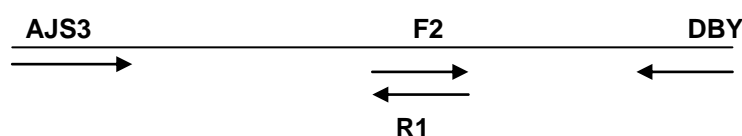


Figure 8: The DNA segments of the selected minicircle kDNA class used for amplification.

The two PCRs had the same amplification conditions. The reactions were performed in a final volume of 50 μ l containing 5 μ l of DNA, 5 μ l of PCR buffer 1X (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2 mM of MgCl₂ (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 0.5 μ M of each primer, 0.2 mM of dNTPs (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2 U of AmpliTaq Gold DNA polymerase (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Amplifications were carried out in a GeneAmp®PCR System 9700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with the following thermal cycling profile: denaturation for 10 min at 95°C, followed by 35 cycles each consisting of 30 sec at 94°C, 30 sec at 63°C, 30 sec at 72°C and a final extension step for 7 min at 72°C. Negative and positive controls were included in each run of PCR. PCR products were analysed on acrylamide gel, visualized and subsequently subjected to sequencing.

Cytochrome Oxidase II gene PCR

PCR was performed as described previously for the targeted Cytochrome Oxidase II (Abdalla Hassan Sharief *et al*, 2011) for all Leishmaniasis Real Time PCR positive samples. (Primers sequences were shown in table 2). The reaction was performed in a final volume of 50 μ l containing 5 μ l of DNA, 5 μ l of PCR buffer 1X (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2 mM of MgCl₂ (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 0.4 μ M of each primer, 0.2 mM of dNTPs (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2 U of AmpliTaq Gold DNA polymerase (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Amplifications were carried out in a GeneAmp®PCR System 9700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with the following thermal cycling profile: denaturation for 10 min at 95°C, followed by 35 cycles each consisting of 30 sec at 94°C, 30 sec at 50°C, 45 sec at 72°C and a final extension step for 7 min at 72°C. Negative and positive controls were included in each run of PCR as described above. PCR products were analysed on acrylamide gel, visualized and

subsequently subjected to sequencing. Three sequences associated with cutaneous samples showed overlapping nucleotides peaks. These samples had been subjected to cloning.

Internal transcribed Spacer (ITS) PCR

The ITS PCR was performed in 10 samples. The ITS region (1044pb nucleotides) was amplified with the *Leishmania* specific primers: LITSR (El Tai *et al.*, 2000) and a new designed primer LITSRR (Table 4). The new primer was necessary to include *L. donovani complex* and *L. major*. Multiple alignments of GenBank related DNA sequences of different *L. donovani complex* and *L. major* species were gathered using the database search tool developed by the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI: ([http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/))). Sequences were aligned using the ClustalW alignment program implemented in Mega 5. The reverse primer was designed in a conserved region among sequences that preceded a variable region respecting the melting temperature of the existing forward primer.

The reaction was performed in a final volume of 50 µl containing 0.5 µl of DNA, 5 µl of PCR buffer 1X (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2 mM of MgCl₂ (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 0.4 µM of each primer, 0.2 mM of dNTPs (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2.5 U of AmpliTaq Gold DNA polimerase (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Amplifications were carried out in a GeneAmp®PCR System 9700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with the following thermal cycling profile: denaturation for 10 min at 95°C, followed by 35 cycles each consisting of 30 sec at 94°C, 30 sec at 50°C, 1 minute at 72°C and a final extension step for 10 min at 72°C. Negative and positive controls were included in each run of PCR as described above. The PCR products were cloned after being analysed on acrylamide gel and visualized.

GP63 PCR

Twenty five Real Time PCR positive samples were tested using the two couple of primers gp63-1/gp63-2 and gp63-3/gp63-4 (El Tai *et al*, 2001), which amplify respectively a 442 bp and 374 bp fragments of the gp63 gene

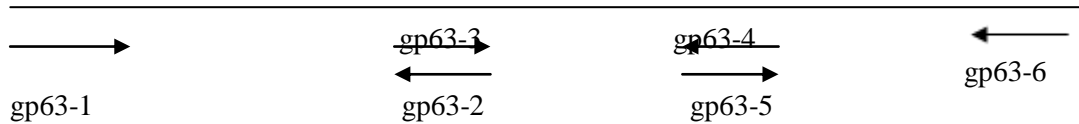


Figure 9: The two DNA segments of the GP63 gene selected for amplification.

The same amplification conditions were used for the two PCRs. The reactions were performed in a final volume of 50 μ l containing 5 μ l of DNA, 5 μ l of PCR buffer 1X (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2 mM of MgCl₂ (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 0.4 μ M of each primer, 0.2 mM of dNTPs (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2.5 U of AmpliTaq Gold DNA polymerase (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Amplifications were carried out in a GeneAmp®PCR System 9700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with the following thermal cycling profile: denaturation for 10 min at 95°C, followed by 35 cycles each consisting of 30 sec at 94°C, 30 sec at 64°C, 1 min at 72°C and a final extension step for 7 min at 72°C. Negative and positive controls were included in each run of PCR, PCR products were analysed, visualized and subsequently subjected to sequencing as will be described. Some sequences showed overlapping nucleotides peaks, six were subjected to cloning. Unfortunately, gp63-5/gp63-6 PCR gave bad results, only fewer samples were amplified, these primers were later on abandoned.

MSPC PCR

PCR was performed in 4 samples. The ext region (1044pb nucleotides) (Mauricio *et al*, 2007) was amplified with the forward primer gp63-3 (El Tai *et al.*, 2001) and a new designed primer gp63-7 (Ttable 4). The new primer was necessary to include longer sequences in the gp63 EXT region, which is a single copy gene in *L.infantum*. As in the ITS reverse primer, the new primer was designed in a conserved region among different related GenBank sequences after multiple alignments using the ClastalW alignment program implemented in Mega 5. respecting the melting temperature of the existing forward primer. The reaction was performed in a final volume

of 50 µl containing 5 µl of DNA, 5 µl of PCR buffer 1X (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2 mM of MgCl₂ (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 0.4 µM of each primer, 0.2 mM of dNTPs (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 2.5 U of AmpliTaq Gold DNA polymerase (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Amplifications were carried out in a GeneAmp®PCR System 9700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with the following thermal cycling profile: denaturation for 10 min at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles each consisting of 40 sec at 94°, 45 sec at 62 °C, 2 minute at 72°C and a final extension step for 10 min at 72°C. Negative (water) and positive controls (*L.major*) were included in each run of PCR. Two PCR products that showed nucleotide overlapping were subjected to cloning.

2.3.5 PCR Product Analysis

Acrylamide Gel Electrophoresis

20 µl of APS 10% were added to 5 ml of 7% Acrylamide in 15ml clean tube, 10 µl of TEMED were added, the mix was then poured into the previously prepared vertical electrophoresis cell and a comb of 10 or 15 wells was inserted into the cell and left 15-20 minutes for polymerization at room temperature. The assembled gel was placed in the electrophoretic chamber and overlaid with the running buffer (1× TBE), the comb was then removed and wells were washed by the aid of a syringe, PCR products were loaded into wells by capillary tips after being mixed with loading dye in microtiter plate (2 -4 µl loading dye and 6-8 µl amplificate), suitable DNA marker (molecular ruler) was loaded also. The run was performed at 200V and 400mA for about 50 minutes.

Acrylamide Gel Staining and visualization

After the end of the run, the gel was stained by Silver Nitrate. The staining process consist of adding the fixing solution (100 ml absolute ethanol and 15 ml of 65% nitric acid/1liter distilled water) for ten minutes followed by washing in distilled water for 5 minutes, after that 0.4% AgNO₃ solution was added for 7 minutes and washed for 3 minutes, developing solution (Na₂CO₃ activated by the addition of 750 µl of 36% formaldehyde) was added to visualize the band for maximum time of 3 minutes, after the development of the bands 5 % acetic acid solution was added for 5 minutes to stop the reaction. Gels were then washed by distilled water and closed into transparent plastic envelopes.

Sequencing Techniques and Sequence Analysis

PCR products were sequenced using the Big Dye Terminator v3.1 cycle sequencing kit (Applied Biosystem, Foster City, CA, USA). The products of the sequencing reactions were purified using PERFORMA DTR Ultra 96-Well kit (Edge BioSystems, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) and sequenced in a 16-capillary ABI PRISM 3130xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystem, Foster City, CA, USA). Sequence data were assembled and edited with SeqScape software v2.5 (Applied Biosystem, Foster City, CA, USA). PCR products were sequenced at the IZSVe.

The homology analysis was performed using the NCBI BLAST program (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) and the software Mega 5 via alignment with sequences deposited in GenBank database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>).

Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences was conducted using MEGA 5 software program that enables to establish the robustness of the analysis through phylogenetic bootstrap test. The bootstrap test estimates the reliability and the topology of the created phylogenetic tree, determining the proportion of all possible trees that support each node. This ratio is expressed as a percentage and are considered statistically significant values greater than 70%. neighbor-joining method with 1000 bootstrap replicates were used in the Phylogenetic analysis (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences was conducted by using the neighbor-joining method with 1000 bootstrap replicates implemented in MEGA 5 software (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). Only sequences with more than 750 bp were used for the phylogenetic analyses.

Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences was conducted using MEGA 5 software program that enables to establish the robustness of the analysis through phylogenetic bootstrap test. The bootstrap test estimates the reliability and the topology of the created phylogenetic tree, determining the proportion of all possible trees that support each node. This ratio is expressed as a percentage and are considered statistically significant values greater than 70%. neighbor-joining method with 1000 bootstrap replicates were used in the Phylogenetic analysis (Tamura *et al.*, 2011).

2.3.6 Molecular Cloning Assay

The PCR products of three COII, 10 ITS, 6 gp63 short and 4 gp63 ext genes were cloned separately into the PCR-II vector using a dual-promoter TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Neb Turbo *E. coli* competent cells and S.O.C. Medium (New England biolabs) were used in the assay for increased flexibility. At least 20 randomly selected colonies from each PCR product were sequenced using the sequencing procedure described above.

Solid LB agar medium was prepared by adding 25 LB medium capsules (MP Biomedicals, LLC, France) to 15grams Bacto™ Agar (Becton, Dickinson and Company, France) in 1 liter of distilled water, the mixture was then Autoclaved at 121 °C for 30 minutes in liquid cycle, cooled down to 60 °C and stored in 4 °C upon use, the solid medium was first liquefied in microwave for few minutes, then 50 µl (100mg /ml) ampicillin was added to 50 ml of the medium, the mixture was then divided into 3 sterile Petri plates and allowed re-solidification. 80ul of X-gal (2%) was poured into each plate and spread evenly using a spatula, the plates were allowed to dry. The LB liquid media were prepared as the solid media but without the addition of the Bacto™ Agar, they autoclaved, cooled and stored the same way. The assay was composed of the following steps:

Legation: The PCR products to be cloned were quantified by nanodrop 1000 3.7 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to estimate the amount to be used in the ligation mix. 3 insert : 1 vector ratio was maintained. The legation mix was made by adding 1µl of salt to the due µl of insert and of vector, the volume was then brought to 6 µl by adding distilled water. The legation mix was then left 5 minutes at room temperature.

Transformation: 5 µl of the legation mix were added to an iced- thawed NEB TURBO cell, the mixture was then left in ice for 30 minutes, thereafter the thermal shock was done by immersing the tube into a hot water bath at 42 ° C for 30 seconds then again allowed 5 minutes in ice. The mixture was then added to 950 µl S.O.C contained in 15 ml tube and incubated at 37 ° C for one hour with light agitation.

Plating: 100 µl, 300 µl and 600 µl of the incubated ligation mixture and the S.O.C medium were poured out onto the three prepared Petri plates containing the solid agar, X-gal and the antibiotics. The plates were incubated at 37 ° C for overnight.

Colonies selection and preservation: Plasmids with the desired inserts (white colored colonies) were selected and put into 15 ml tubes containing 3 ml liquid LB and 3 µl ampicillin (100mg/ ml), the tubes were then incubated at 37 ° C for overnight. The day after, 800 µl of the culture were preserved into 200 µl of Glycerol and stored at -80 for future use, while the rest of the culture (about 1.2ml) was transferred into 2ml Eppendorf tubes.

Extraction: Plasmids with the desired inserts were isolated from positive *Escherichia coli* colonies by using a GenElute plasmid miniprep kit (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). The final elution for some colonies was done with distilled water, in such cases the extracts were sent directly for sequencing. In the other colonies where the final elution was done with the kit elution solution, the extracts were first amplified by PCR and then sent for sequencing. Sequencing and sequence analysis were carried out as mentioned above.

Gene	Primer Name	Sequence
GP1	Lid F	5'CCAGATGCCGACCAAAGC-3'
	Lid R	5'CGCGCACGTGATGGATAAC-3'
	TaqMan MGB Lid-probe	5'TCGGCAGGTTCT-3'
kDNA	AJ3	5'GGGTTGGTGTA AAAATAGGG-3'
	R1	5'TGCAGTATG CGCAA CCTATA-3'
	F2	5'ATAGGTTGG CGCATA CTGCAG-3'
	DBY	5'CCAGTTTCCCGCCCCGGAG-3'
Cytochrome Oxidase II	COII F	5'GGCATAAATCCATGTAAGA-3'
	COII R	5'TGGCTTTTATATTATCATTTT-3'
ITS	LITSR (FOR)	5'CTGGATCATTTTCCGATG-3'
	LITSRR (REV)	5'AGAGTGAGGGCGCGGATA-3'
GP63	Gp63-1	5'-TCCACCGAGGACCTCACCGA- 3'
	Gp63-2	5'-GTCGTACCGCGACGCAATGT- 3'
	Gp63-3	5-ACATTGCGTTCGCGGTACGAC-3'
	Gp63-4	5'-GTAGAAGCCGAGGTCCTGGA- 3'
	Gp63-5	5'TCCAGGACCTCGGCTTCTAC-3
	Gp63-6	5'CTGGCACACCTCCACGTACG-3'
	Gp63-7	5'AGAGTGAGGGCGCGGATA-3'

Table 4: sequences of primers used for detection and characterization of *Leishmania*

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

RESULTS

3.1 Parasite Culture Results

Parasite culture was succeeded in five out of the eight cutaneous samples.

3.2 Real Time PCR Results

Overall, the diagnosis of leishmaniasis was confirmed by real time PCR in 40 patients out of 72 (55.6%). The real time PCR confirmed 58 samples out of 111 (52.3%) as Leishmania positive. The positivity in real time PCR was higher for HLN samples (66%) compared to HBM (57%) and HB (29%).

3.3 kDNA Results

kDNA PCR Results

The PCRs targeting the kDNA produced the expected amplicates (Figure 10) in nearly 90% of the real time PCR positive samples, only few blood samples gave negative results.

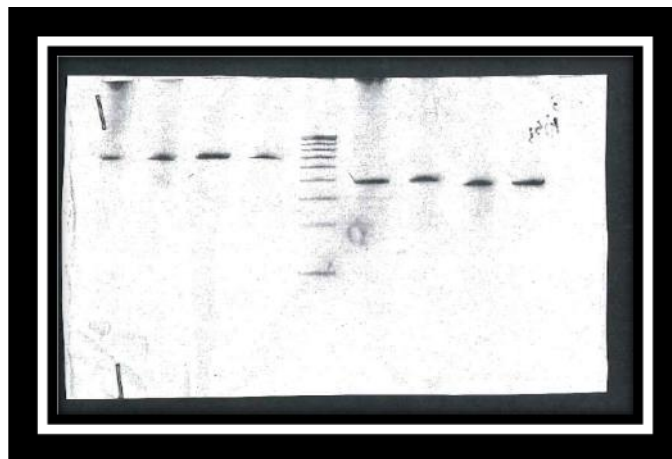


Figure 10: *four amplicates obtained by the primers AJS3/R1 to the left of the molecular ruler and primers F2/DBY to the right of the molecular ruler. Amplicates were loaded in acrylamide gel and stained by silver staining. Positive control occupy positions N° 1 and 6, molecular ruler position N° 5.*

kDNA Sequences Results

Although the gel showed an assertive band for each PCR product, kDNA sequences of CL samples (samples 108, 109 110 and 111) attributed to cutaneous cultures gave doubtful results, and were different from the other cutaneous samples (sample 107 and 111) (Figure 11). On the other

hand Sequences analysis of bone marrow samples (HBM), blood and Lymph node showed very different and unexpected results (Figure12) and as kDNA is not a single copy gene, it has been forsaken and used for confirmation purposes only.

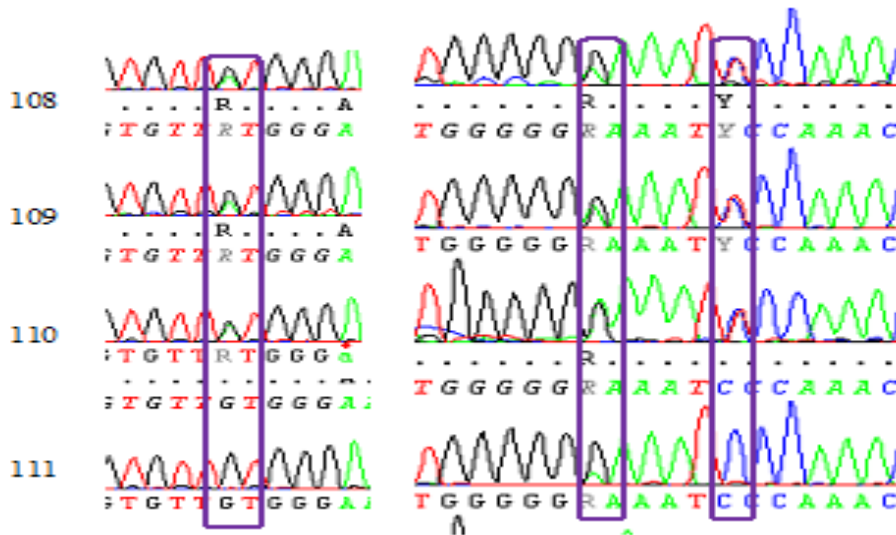


Figure 11: schematic demonstration of kDNA sequences obtained by direct sequencing of four CL isolates (samples number 108, 109, 110 and 111) showing an example of nucleotide's overlapping in positions 633, 687 and 692, (position according to *L.donovani* GenBank™ accession number AF103737).

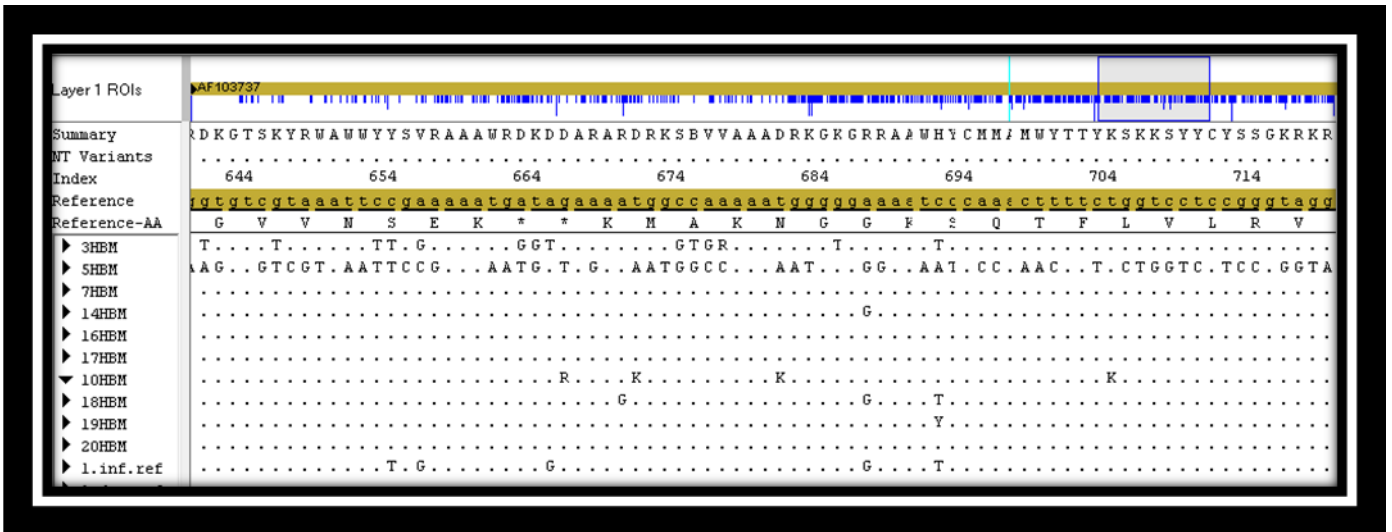


Figure 12: schematic demonstration of kDNA sequences obtained by direct sequencing of ten HBM isolates and *L.infantum* reference strain used in this study.

3.4 Cytochrome Oxidase II gene Results

COII PCR Results

The PCR targeting the COII gene produced the expected amplicates (Figure 13) in all the real time PCR positive samples.

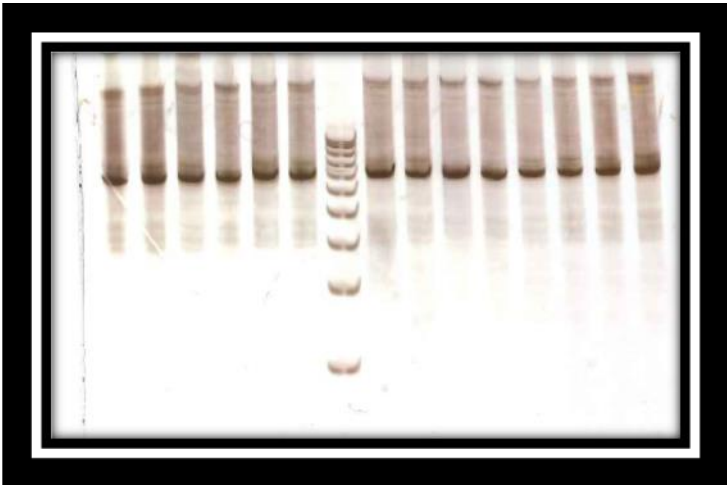


Figure 13: showing thirteen amplicates obtained by the primers COII F and COII R. The positive control *L.infantum* is the last to the right. Amplicates were loaded in acrylamide gel and stained by silver staining. Molecular ruler in position N° 7.

COII Direct Sequence Analysis Results

All samples associated with VL (except 14HBM), PKDL and ML clinical forms, together with two samples associated with CL cultures (samples 107 and 111) showed a unique sequence pattern and gave 100% genetic homology to *L. donovani* AY660023.1 reference sequences deposited in GenBank™ (Figure 14 and Figure 15). Three CL sequences showed overlapping nucleotides peaks and these sequences were compared to *L. major* MON 25 and to our above mentioned sequences (Figure 16).

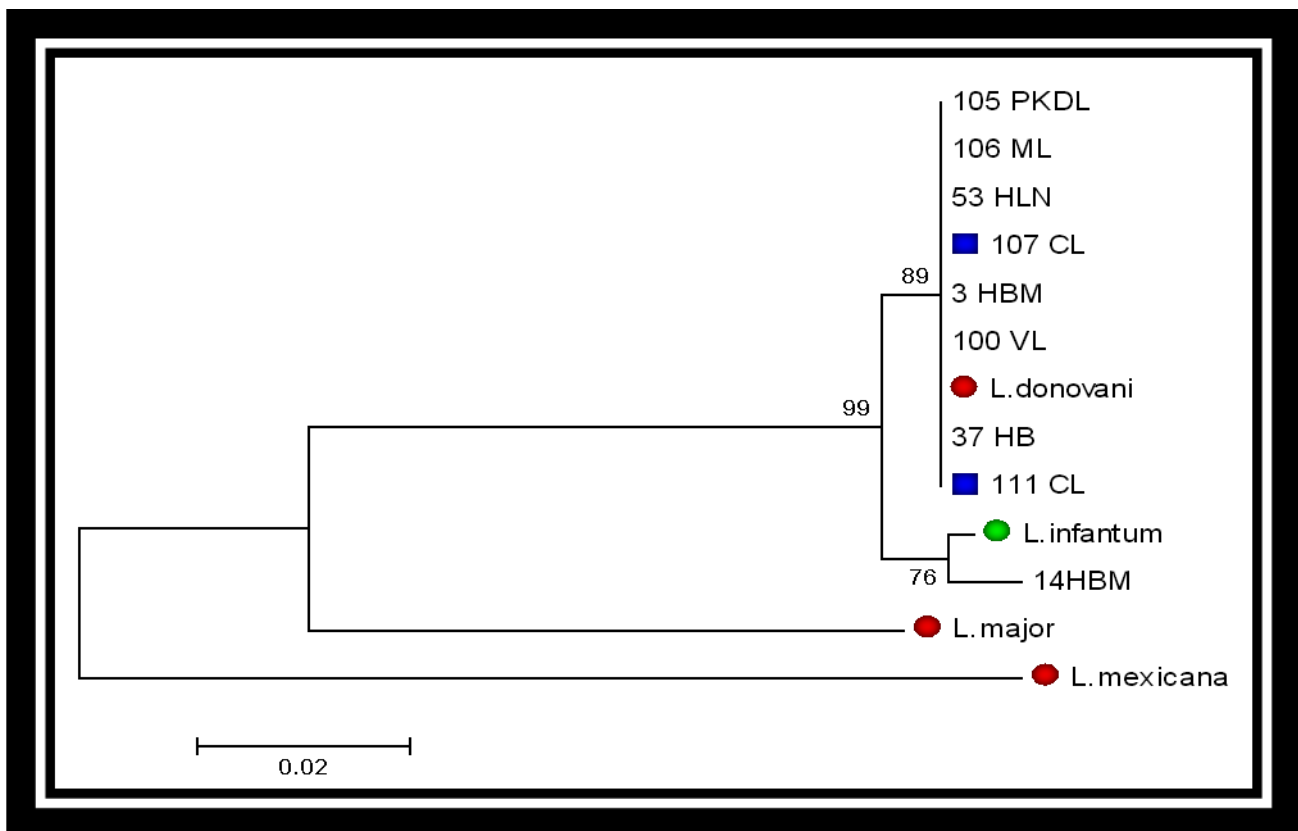


Figure 14: Phylogenetic tree of COII sequences. Phylogenetic tree based on a fragment of 600 bp of COII gene of *Leishmania* parasite. Sequence dataset was analyzed using MEGA 5, the neighbour-joining (NJ) method, and bootstrap analysis (1,000 replicates) based on the ClustalW algorithm. Significant bootstrapping values (>70%) are shown on the nodes. Only representative sequences were shown.

Number indicates the sample number, HBM indicates Human Blood Marrow origin sequence, HLN indicates lymph node origin sequence and HB indicates Human Blood origin sequence used in this study. (■) sequences number 107 and 111 originated from skin culture amplicates and associated with CL patients, (●) *Leishmania* GenBank™ reference sequence (*L. donovani* GenBank™ accession number AY660023; *L. major* GenBank™ accession number AF63316; (●) *L. major* MON 25 and our positive control *L. infantum* MHOM/TN/80/IPT1 used in this study.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. 105 PKDL												
2. 106 ML	0.000											
3. 53 HLN	0.000	0.000										
4. 107 CL	0.000	0.000	0.000									
5. 3 HBM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000								
6. 100 VL	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000							
7. 37 HB	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000						
8. 111 CL	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000					
9. 14HBM	0.019	0.019	0.019	0.019	0.019	0.019	0.019	0.019				
10. <i>L. donovani</i>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.019			
11. <i>L. major</i> AF6331E	0.103	0.103	0.103	0.103	0.103	0.103	0.103	0.103	0.104	0.103		
12. <i>L. infantum</i>	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.009	0.014	0.110	

Figure15 : Genetic differences of nine COII sequences. Genetic differences based on a 600 bp fragment of the COII gene of Leishmania parasite. Sequence dataset was analyzed using MEGA 5. Leishmania GenBank™ reference sequence used here are *L. donovani* GenBank™ accession number AY660023; *L. major* GenBank™ accession number EF633106; and our positive control *L. infantum* MHOM/TN/80/IPT1.

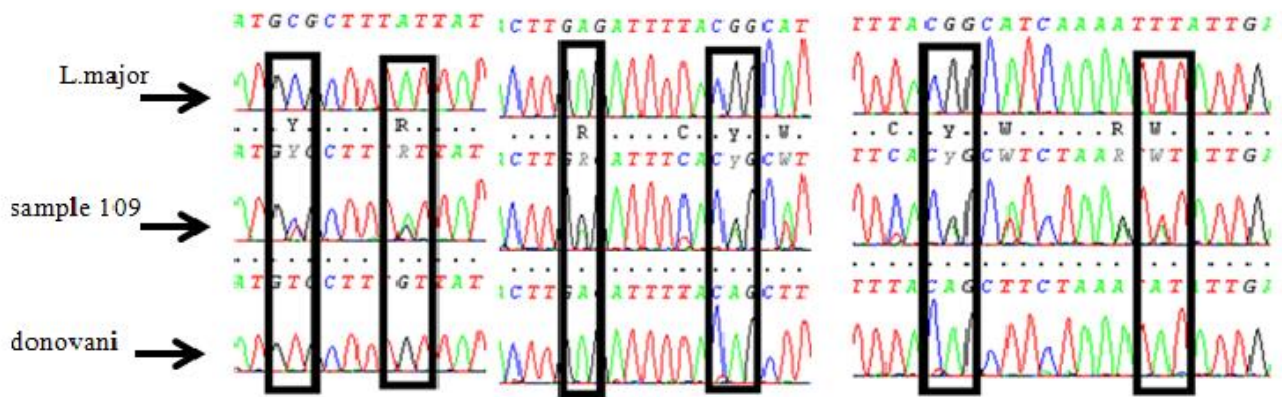


Figure 16: schematic demonstration of COII sequence obtained by direct sequencing of one CL isolate (sample number 109) showing overlapping of nucleotides in position 93, 99, 153, 159, 162 and 173 (position according to *L. donovani* GenBank™ accession number AY660023), CL sequence compared to *L. major* MON 25 and to our 3HBM sequence that gave 100% identity to *L. donovani* (GenBank™ accession number AY660023).

COII Cloning Results

Thirty-four, twenty nine and thirty six sequences were obtained from cloning of CL samples number 108, 109 and 110, respectively. Sequence data from colonies were assembled and edited with SeqScape software v2.5 and analyzed in MEGA 5 software as mentioned previously. Two different sequence patterns have been revealed corresponding to *L. donovani* with genetic similarity range between 99.5%-100% to *L. donovani* AY660023 GenBank™ reference sequence and to *L. major* with genetic similarity ranging between 98.9-99.3% % to *L. major* EF633106 GenBank™ reference sequence. The genetic similarity between the two GenBank™ reference sequences used here was 89.4%. (Figure17. and Figure 18)

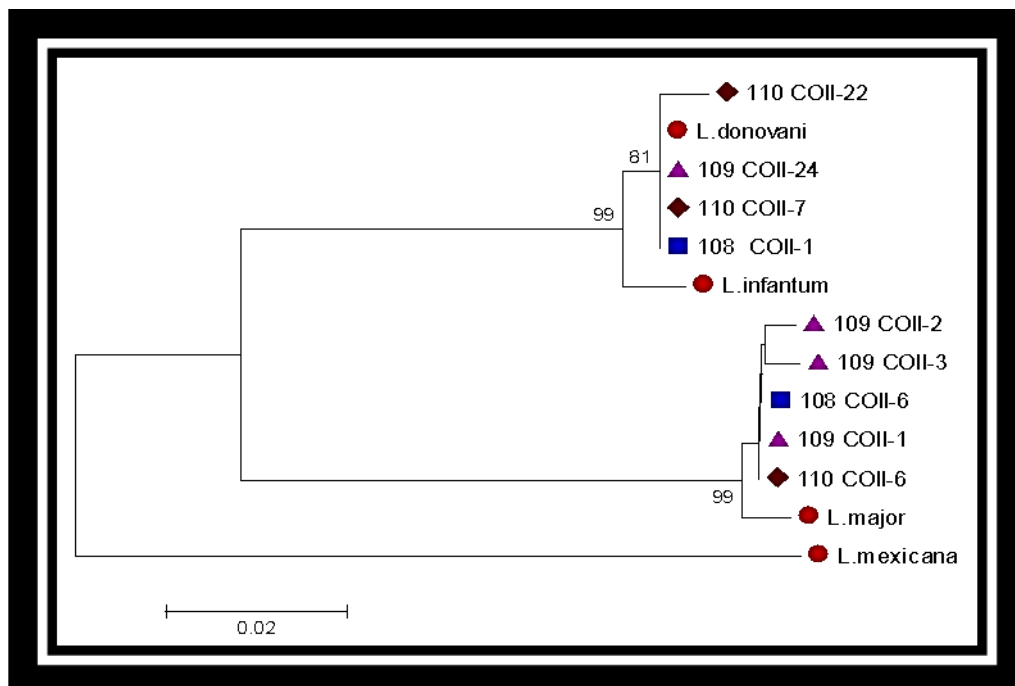


Figure 17: Phylogenetic tree of COII cloning sequences. Phylogenetic tree based on a fragment of 600bp of COII gene of Leishmania parasite. Sequence dataset was analyzed using MEGA 5, the neighbour-joining (NJ) method, and bootstrap analysis (1,000 replicates) based on the ClustalW algorithm. Significant bootstrapping values (>70%) are shown on the nodes. Only representative sequences from each cloned sample were used, the same structure coloured icon indicates sequences from the same patient. (●) Leishmania GenBank™ reference sequence (*L. donovani* GenBank™ accession number AY660023; *L. major* GenBank™ accession number EF633106; *L. mexicana* GenBank™ accession number HQ586845.1 and our positive control *L. infantum* MHOM/TN/80/IPT1).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. 110 COII-22												
2. 109 COII-24	0.003											
3. 110 COII-7	0.003	0.000										
4. 108 COII-1	0.003	0.000	0.000									
5. 109 COII-2	0.053	0.052	0.052	0.052								
6. 109 COII-3	0.053	0.052	0.052	0.052	0.004							
7. 108 COII-6	0.051	0.050	0.050	0.050	0.002	0.002						
8. 109 COII-1	0.051	0.050	0.050	0.050	0.002	0.002	0.000					
9. 110 COII-6	0.051	0.050	0.050	0.050	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.000				
10. L.donovan	0.005	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.055	0.055	0.053	0.053	0.053			
11. L.major	0.052	0.051	0.051	0.051	0.006	0.006	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.054		
12. L.infantum	0.008	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.055	0.055	0.053	0.053	0.053	0.007	0.054	

Figure 18: Genetic differences of the three COII cloned sequences. Genetic differences based on a 600 bp fragment of the COII gene of Leishmania parasite. Sequence dataset was analyzed using MEGA 5. only representative sequences from each cloned sample were included. the Leishmania GenBank™ reference sequence used here are L.donovani GenBank™ accession number AY660023; L.major GenBank™ accession number EF633106; and our positive control L.infantum MHOM/TN/80/IPT1.

3.5 Internal transcribed Spacer (ITS) Results

PCR Results

The PCR targeting the ITS gene produced the expected amplicates (Figure19) . Ten samples were subjected to cloning.

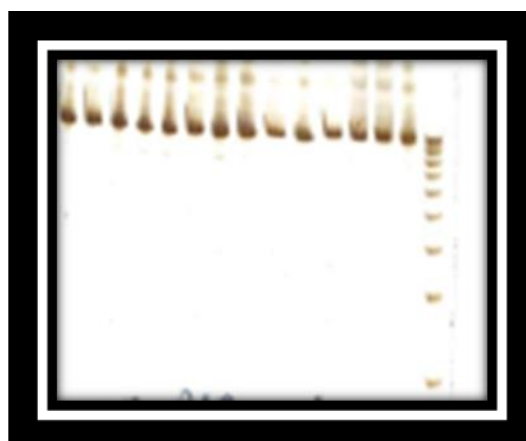


Figure 19: showing ITS amplicates obtained by the primers LITSR and LITSRR.. Amplicates were loaded in acrylamide gel and stained by silver staining. positive control in position N°1 and molecular ruler in the last position

Samples cloned and sequences obtained from colonies are shown in Table 5

Sample Identification	Clinical Manifestation	N° of successfully sequenced colonies	Length of sequences pb
3HBM	VL	26	930
14HBM	VL	27	830
17HBM	VL	27	843
105	PKDL	38	845
106	ML	45	845
107	CL	40	836
108	CL	23	900
109	CL	13	900
110	CL	14	751
111	CL	38	850

Table 5: Types and number of colonies obtained from each ITS cloned sample

ITS Cloning Results

Polymorphism of the sequences obtained from colonies is based on different microsatellite repeat numbers. We compared our polymorphic sites to those identified by Kuhls *et al* 2005, (Figure 20) who analyzed the ITS sequences of *L.donovani complex* members including 27 *L. infantum*, 2 *L. chagasi*, 18 *L. donovani* and 5 *L. archibaldi* strains of different zymodemes and geographical origin (Kuhls *et al* 2005). Our sequences lies between nucleotides position number 61 and 937 in figure (17) .we have identified two other loci after poly (G₂) named poly “CT” and poly “GT.... Poly TA”.

	ITS1 poly(TA)	ITS1 poly(A)		
Type A	GTATATATATAT----GT (...)	TAAAAAAAAGG (...)		
Type B	GTATATATATAT----GT (...)	TAAAAAAAAGG (...)		
Type C	GTATATATATAT----GT (...)	TAAAAAAA-GG (...)		
Type D	GTATATATATAT----GT (...)	TAAAAAAA-GG (...)		
Type E	GTATATATATATATGT (...)	TAAAAAAAAGG (...)		
Type F	GTATATATATAT--GT (...)	TAAAAAAA-GG (...)		
Type G	GTATATATATAT--GT (...)	TAAAAAAA-GG (...)		
Type H	GTATATATATAT--GT (...)	TAAAAAAA-GG (...)		
	61	76	124	134
	ITS2 poly(AT)	ITS2 poly(TA)	ITS2 poly G	
Type A	(...)ACATATATATAT----TATACCATACACAGTATATATATAATT (...)	AGGGGGGG--TC (...)		
Type B	(...)ACATATATATAT----TATACCATACACAGTATATATATAATT (...)	AGGGGGGGGGTC (...)		
Type C	(...)ACATATATATAT----TATACCATACACAGTATATATA--ATT (...)	AGGGGG----TC (...)		
Type D	(...)ACATATATATAT----TATACCATACACAGTATATATA--ATT (...)	AGGGGG----TC (...)		
Type E	(...)ACATATATATAT----TATACCATACACAGTATATATATAATT (...)	AGGGGG----TC (...)		
Type F	(...)ACATATATATAT----TATACCATACACAGTATATATATAATT (...)	AGGGGG----TC (...)		
Type G	(...)ACATATATATAT----TATACCATACACAGTATATATATAATT (...)	AGGTGG----TC (...)		
Type H	(...)ACATATATATATATATTATACCATACACAGTATATATATAATT (...)	AGGTGG----TC (...)		
	453	495	740	751
	ITS2 poly G + poly(TGG)	ITS2 poly(GT)	ITS2 poly(AT)	
Type A	T-GGGGGGAGGTGG---GT (...)	TTGTGTGTGTGTGTA (...)	CATATATATATC	
Type B	T-GGGGGGAGGTGG---GT (...)	TTGTGTGTGTGTGTA (...)	CATATATATATC	
Type C	T-GGGGGGAGGTGG---GT (...)	TTGTGTGTGTGTGTA (...)	CATATAT----C	
Type D	T-GGGGGGAGGTGG---GT (...)	TTGTGTGTGTGT--A (...)	CATATAT----C	
Type E	TGGGGGGGAGGTGG---GT (...)	TTGTGTGTGTGTGTA (...)	CATATATATATC	
Type F	TGGGGGGGAGGTGG---GT (...)	TTGTGTGTGTGTGTA (...)	CATATATATATC	
Type G	T-GGGGGGAGGTGGTGGGT (...)	TTGTGTGTGTGTGTA (...)	CATATATATATC	
Type H	T-GGGGGGAGGTGG---GT (...)	TTGTGTGTGTGTGTA (...)	CATATATATATC	
	834	852	911	925 937

Figure 20: ITS sequence types found for strains of *L.donovani* complex (Kuhls et al 2005)

ITS 3HBM

Thirteen colonies of the 3 HBM sample were studied. Five sequences were found to be type E, one type F and five sequences type D (Figure 21). One sequence possessed mixed type E/F (at poly TA type E while at poly A type F), another sequence was found to be mixed type D/F(at poly TA type D while at the other polymorphic sites type F). In addition one modified type E sequence possess 8 G at poly G₂ instead of seven . (Figure 21) No polymorphism was detected at sites poly G₁

Type	Poly TA	Poly A	Poly AT poly TA	Poly G ₂	Poly GT.... Poly TA
E	TG <u>TATATATATATAT</u> ATGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG	GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	T <u>TGTGTGTGTGTGT</u> ATGT CACAT <u>TATATATAT</u> TCC
Modified E	TG <u>TATATATATATAT</u> ATGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG	GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	T <u>TGTGTGTGTGTGT</u> ATGT CACAT <u>TATATATAT</u> TCC
F	TG <u>TATATATATA</u> -- TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> --GG	GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	T <u>TGTGTGTGTGTGT</u> ATGT CACAT <u>TATATATAT</u> TCC
Mixed E/F	TG <u>TATATATATATAT</u> ATGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> --GG	GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	T <u>TGTGTGTGTGTGT</u> ATGT CACAT <u>TATATATAT</u> TCC
D	TG <u>TATATATA</u> -- TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> --GG	GT <u>TATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	T <u>TGTGTGTGTGTGT</u> ATGT CACAT <u>TATATATAT</u> TCC
Mixed D/ F	TG <u>TATATATA</u> -- TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> --GG	GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	T <u>TGTGTGTGTGTGT</u> ATGT CACAT <u>TATATATAT</u> TCC

Figure 21: 3HBM ITS polymorphic sites among 930 nucleotides

ITS 14HBM

Twenty colonies of the 14 HBM sample were studied. Four polymorphic sites similar to those of the Kuhls et al (2005) (Figure 22) were found, these sites are: poly TA, poly A, poly “AT + TA”, in addition to other two new polymorphic sites which have not been identified before. The first site is poly CT which consist of 4, 5 or 6 repeats of CT, this site lies between poly “G₂ and poly TGG”, in our aligned sequences of the 14 HBM it took position from 824 to 837. The second site is the poly AT which consist of 4 or 5 repeats of AT at position from 843 to 852 in our 14 HBM aligned sequences.

Type F is the dominant type, but it get modifications at some sequences, as example, two sequences of this type had 9 and 8 G at poly G₂, another sequence is type F sequence but at poly G₂ possess 6G which are characteristic of types A, B, C, D. Another type F sequence at poly A and Poly “AT poly TA” possessed types A, B, C or D at poly TA . mixed F/ “Cor D” sequence was found (type F

sequence that possess type C or D at “Poly AT poly TA”). Four sequences possessed mixed E/F type, at the poly TA, poly A they follow type E, while at Poly “AT poly TA” they follow type F and they showed no polymorphism at the other sites.

Type	Poly TA	Poly A	Poly AT poly TA	Poly G2	Poly CT 1
Mixed E /F	TGT <u>TATATATATATA</u> TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG	AC <u>TATATATATAT</u> TATACC(--) GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	GCTCTC
F	TGT <u>TATATATATA</u> .TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAA</u> -GG	AC <u>TATATATATAT</u> TATACC(--) GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	GCTCTC
MixedF/E	TGT <u>TATATATATA</u> .TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> -GG	ACATATATA—TTATA GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	GCTCTC
Mixed F/ C or D	TGT <u>TATATATATA</u> .TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAA</u> -GG	AC <u>TATATATATAT</u> TATACC(--) GT <u>TATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	GCTCTC
ABCD	TGT <u>TATATATAT</u> -- GTA	GT <u>AAAAAAA</u> -GG	AC <u>TATATATATAT</u> TATACC(--) GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	GCTCTC
Seq N° 2	TGT <u>TATATATATA</u> .TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAA</u> -GG	AC <u>TATATATATAT</u> TATACC(--) GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	GCTCTC
Seq N° 45	TGT <u>TATATATATA</u> .TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAA</u> -GG	AC <u>TATATATATAT</u> TATACC(--) GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGAGG	GCTCTC
Seq N° 54 51	TGT <u>TATATATATA</u> .TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAA</u> -GG	AC <u>TATATATATAT</u> TATACC(--) GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGGGGGAGG TGGGGGGGGGAGG	GCTCTC
Mixed F/ABCD	TGTATATATATA.TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAA</u> -GG	AC <u>TATATATATAT</u> TATACC(--) GT <u>TATATATATA</u> AATT	TGGGGGG-AGG	GCTCTC

Figure 22: 14 HBM ITS polymorphic sites among 854 nucleotides

ITS 17 HBM

Twenty six colonies of the 17HBM sample were studied. The majority of the sequences were type F. Only four sequences were found to be type E. Two sequences possessed modified type F (at Poly “AT + TA” possess type C or D and at poly G₂ possess 9 G instead of 7). Three sequences possessed mixed type F/E hence at poly TA, they possessed type F and in poly A type E. (Figure 23). No polymorphysim was found at site poly G₁.

Type	Poly TA	Poly A	Poly AT poly TA	Poly G ₂
E	TGTATATATATATATGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG	ACATATATATATTATACC(...)	TGGGGGGGAGG
F	TGTATATATATA-- TGTA	GTAAAAAAAA--GG	ACATATATATATTATACC(...)	TGGGGGGGAGG
Modified	TGTATATATATA-- TGTA	GTAAAAAAAA--GG	ACATATATAT--TATACC(..)	TGGGGGGGAGG
F	TGTATATATATA-- TGTA	GTAAAAAAAA--GG	ACATATATATATTATACC(...)	TGGGGGGGGGAGG
Mixed F/E	TGTATATATATA-- TGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG	ACATATATATATTATACC(...)	TGGGGGGGAGG

Figure 23: 17 HBM polymorphic sites among 843 nucleotides

105 PKDL

Twenty nine colonies of the 105 PKDL sample were studied. Ten sequences were found to be type E, three type F. One sequence possessed mixed types, at the poly TA and poly A it gives type E, while in poly G₂ it becomes type C. Four sequences possessed 8 G in poly G₂, two were found to be type E and two type F in both previous polymorphic sites. Modified type E was also found in 8 other sequences that possess 10 A in the polymorphic site A and in one sequence with 9 A and 9 G respectively at the polymorphic sites A and G₂. Modified type F was found in two sequences with 10 and 9 A at the polymorphic sites A. (Figure 24). No polymorphysim was found at sites Poly “AT + TA” nor at poly G₁.

Type	Poly TA	Poly A	Poly G ₂
E	TGTATATATATATATGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG	TGGGGGGGAGG
F	TGTATATATATA-- TGTA	GTAAAAAAAA--GG	TGGGGGGGAGG
Modified E/F	TGTATATATATATATGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG	TGGGGGGGGGAGG
Mixed E/C	TGTATATATATATA-- TGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG	TGGGGGGGAGG

Figure 24: 105 PKDL polymorphic sites among 843 nucleotides.

106 ML

Forty colonies of the 106 ML sample were studied. The majority of the sequences were type E . Two sequences were found to be type F. One sequence possessed mixed type E and F (at poly TA seemed type E and in poly A seemed type F) (Figure 25).

For all sequences, no polymorphism was found at sites Poly “AT +TA”, poly G₁ and poly G₂. (Figure 25)

Figure 25

Type	Poly TA	Poly A
E	TGT <u>ATATATATATAT</u> TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG
F	TGT <u>ATATATATA</u> -- TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG
Mixed E/F	TGT <u>ATATATATATAT</u> TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG

Figure 25: 106ML polymorphic sites.

The new identified polymorphic site “CT” showed different patterns with 4, 5 or 6 repeats, figure 26 explains Poly CT .

Figure

26

One sequence (N°13)	GCTCTCTCTC	T	CT	GTG
Thirty six sequences	GCTCTCTCTC	T	--	GTG
One sequence (N°31)	GCTCTCTCTC	C	--	GTG
Two sequences (N°9, 44)	GCTCTCTCTC		--	GTG

Figure 26: 106 ML, poly CT, position 816 of the 850 nucleotide: the three different patterns of nucleotides

Six sequences belonging to type E, showed two different sequence patterns at position 63 (850 nucleotide) (Figure 27).

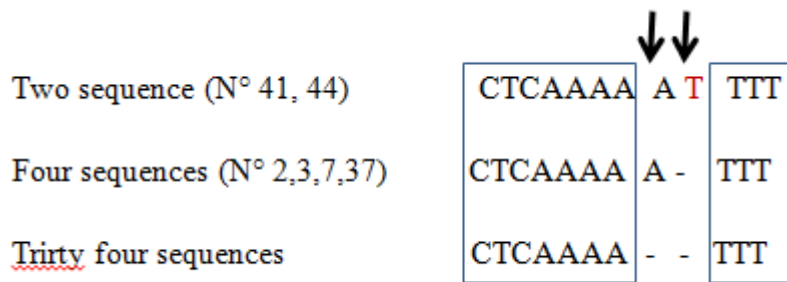


Figure 27: 106 ML, position 63 of the 850 nucleotide: the three different patterns of nucleotides

ITS 107 CL

Thirty four colonies of the 107CL sample were studied. Type E is the dominant with eighteen sequences. Modified type E that contain 9 G and 8 G at poly G₂ is found in ten and three sequences respectively. Type F was absent but mixed type E/F is found in three sequences (Figure 28). At poly CT only one sequence possessed 6 CT repeats while all the other possessed 5 repeats, while at “Poly GT+TA”, all sequences have 5 TA repeats with the exception of two sequences with 4 repeats (Figure 28). No polymorphism was detected at “Poly AT + TA” or poly G₁. Interestingly, two sequences (both type E, but one sequence possess 9G at poly G₂ instead of 7) showed a unique pattern, their poly TA contains 7 repeats. Positions 60 and position 768 showed additional polymorphism (Figure 29)

Type	Poly TA	Poly A	Poly G ₂	Poly CT	Poly GT.... Poly TA
E	TGT <u>TATATATATATAT</u> TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG	TGGGGGGGAGG	GG <u>CTCTCTCTCT</u> —GT	TGGTATATATATATGT
Modified E	TGT <u>TATATATATATAT</u> TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> AGG	TGGGGGGGAGG TGGGGGGGGGAGG TGGGGGGGGGAGG	GG <u>CTCTCTCTCTCT</u> GT GG <u>CTCTCTCTCT</u> —GT	TGGTATATATATATGT TGGTATATATAT—GT
Mixed E/F	TGT <u>TATATATATA</u> -- TGTA TGT <u>TATATATATATAT</u> TGTA	GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> —GG GT <u>AAAAAAAA</u> —GG	TGGGGGGGAGG	GG <u>CTCTCTCTCT</u> —GT	TGGTATATATATATGT

Figure 28: 107CL polymorphic sites, among 836 pb nucleotides

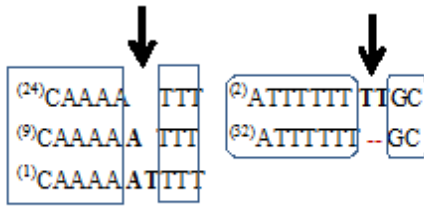


Figure 29: 107 CL polymorphic sites at position 60, and 768 respectively

ITS 111 CL

Thirty colonies of the 111CL sample were studied. Type E and type F were fairly divided between colonies. Two sequences were found to be of mixed types E/F with poly TA similar to type E and poly A similar to type E. Modified type F was detected in two sequences, one with 9 A at poly A and 9 G at poly G₂, and the other with 6 A at poly A. Also modified type E exists in four sequences, two with 9 A at poly A, while the other two with 9 G at poly G₂. (Figure 30) No polymorphism was detected at site G₁, CT (all sequences with 5 CT) or poly TA (all sequences with 5 AT).

Type	Poly TA	Poly A	Poly G ₂
E	TGTATATATATATATGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG	TGGGGGGGAGG
F	TGTATATATATATGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG	TGGGGGGGAGG
Modified E	TGTATATATATATATGTA TGTATATATATATATGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG GTAAAAAAAAAGG	TGGGGGGGAGG TGGGGGGGGGAGG
Modified F	TGTATATATATATGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG GTAAAAAGG	TGGGGGGGGGGAGG TGGGGGGGAGG
Mixed F/E	TGTATATATATA-- TGTA	GTAAAAAAAAAGG	TGGGGGGGAGG

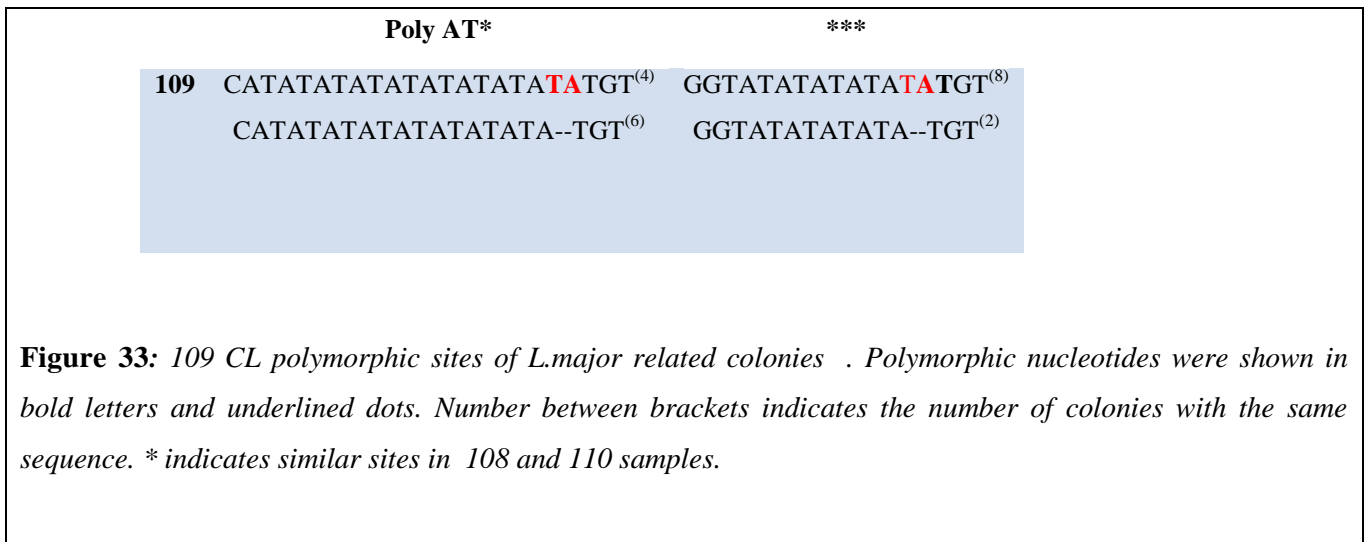
Figure 30: 111 CL polymorphic sites, among 848 pb nucleotides

ITS 108 CL

Twenty two colonies were studied. Two very distinct sequence patterns were detected. In BLAST homology analysis, one pattern corresponds to *L. donovani* and the other to *L. major*. (Figure 31) demonstrates the two sequence types.

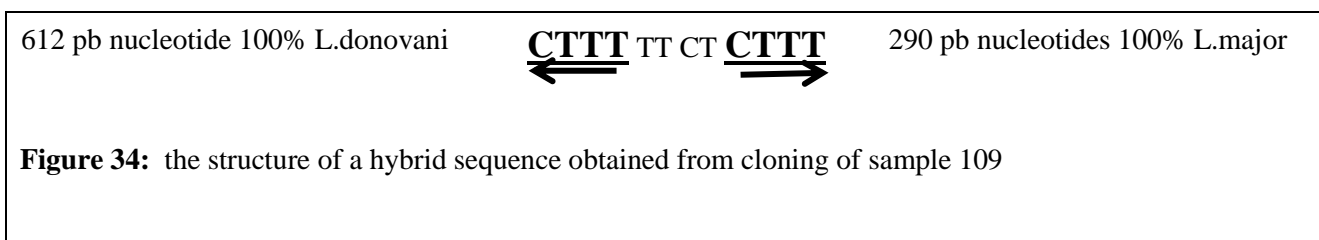
ITS 109 CL

Thirteen colonies were studied, and as in 108, *L. major* and *L. donovani* sequence patterns were detected. Ten sequences correspond to *L. major* with two polymorphic sites (Figure 33)



Two of the three remaining sequences (109-25 and 109-28) were found to be modified type E and modified type F, respectively. The two sequences have poly TA similar to type C or D, i.e. contains 3 TA repeats instead of 4. The third sequence (109- 4) seemed to be a hybrid strain between *L. donovani* and *L. major*, it contains two genetic blocks, the first consist of 612 nucleotides identical to *L. donovani*, and the second block of 290 nucleotides identical to that of *L. major* (Figure34 and Figure 35)

Figure 34



ITS 110 CL

Fourteen colonies were studied, one sequence corresponds to *L. donovani* and thirteen to *L. major*. Three polymorphic sites of the *L. major* group were detected.

Figure 36

	Poly AT*	**	PolyA ₁ Poly A ₂
110	CATATATATATATATATATGT ⁽⁵⁾	AGAAGACA ⁽⁷⁾	ACAAAAAAAAACCAAAAACG ⁽¹⁾
	CATATATATATATATAT—GT ⁽⁷⁾	AGA—CA ⁽⁶⁾	ACAAAAAAAA_CCAAAA_CG ⁽¹⁾
	CATATATATATATAT—GT ⁽¹⁾		ACAAAAAAAA_CCAAAA_CG ⁽²⁾
			ACAAAAAAAA_CCAAAA_CG ⁽⁹⁾

Figure 36: 110CL polymorphic sites of *L. major* related colonies. Polymorphic sites were shown in bold letters and underlined dots. Number between brackets indicates the number of colonies with the same sequence. * indicates similar sites in 108 and 109 samples

The sequence related to *L. donovani* (110-2) was found to be modified type E. It has poly TA similar to type C or D (i.e., contains 3 TA repeats instead of 4).

Phylogeny of Cutaneous Samples

The phylogenetic analysis of the ITS cloning sequences (samples 108, 109 and 110) revealed two different sequence patterns, corresponding to *L. donovani* with 99.5-100% genetic similarity to *L. donovani* AJ634357 GenBank™ reference sequences and 99.8-100% to *L. major* FJ753391 GenBank™ reference sequences. The genetic similarity between *L. major* and *L. donovani* used in this study was 93.5% (Figure 37).

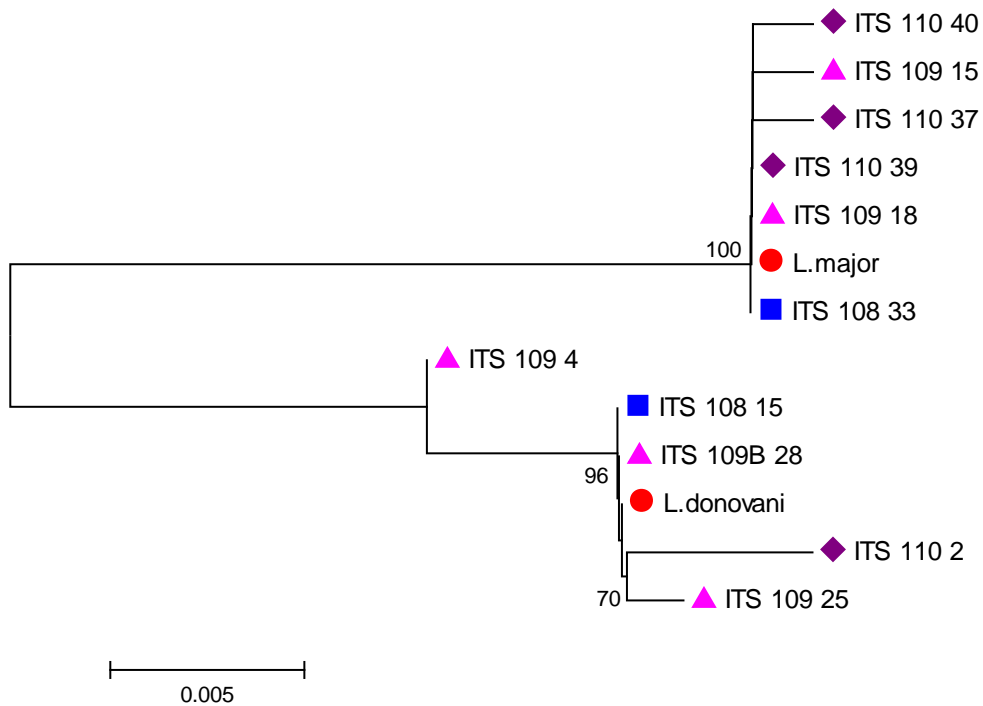


Figure 37: Phylogenetic tree of ITS cloning sequence of cutaneous samples. Phylogenetic tree (unrouted) based on a fragment of 970 bp of ITS gene of *Leishmania* parasite. Sequence dataset was analyzed using MEGA 5, the neighbour-joining (NJ) method, and bootstrap analysis (1,000 replicates) based on the ClustalW algorithm. Significant bootstrapping values (>70%) are shown on the nodes. Only representative sequences from each cloned sample were used, the same structure colored icon indicates sequences from the same patient. (●) *Leishmania* GenBank™ reference sequence (*L. donovani* GenBank™ accession number AJ634357; *L. major* GenBank™ accession number FJ753391)

3.6 GP63 Results

PCR Results

The PCRs targeting the Gp63 produced the expected amplicates (Figure 39) in all tested samples.

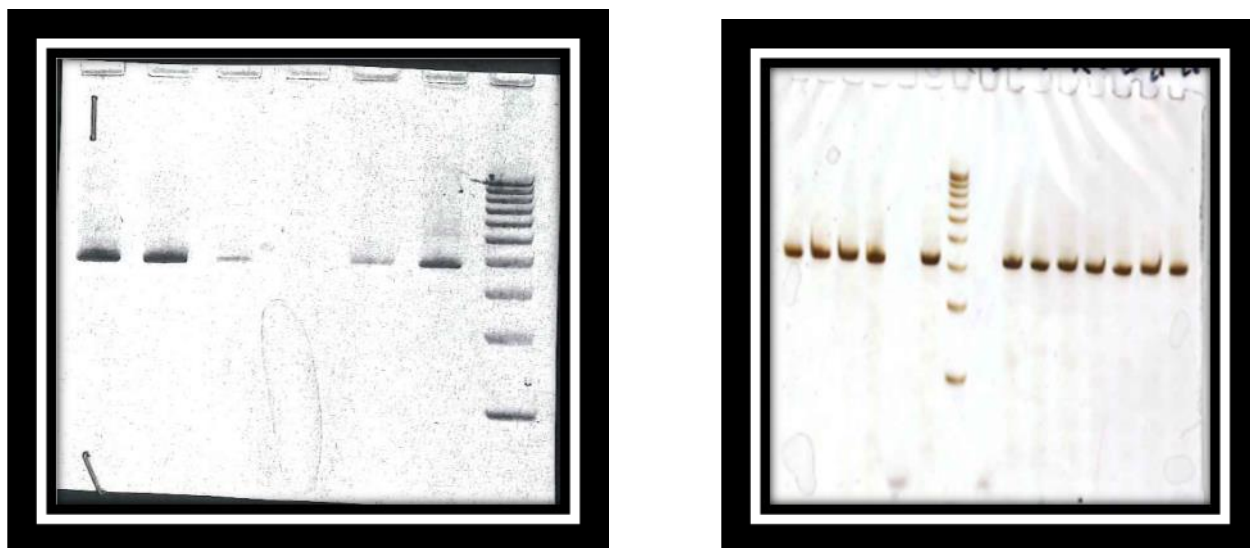


Figure 38: showing some of the amplicates obtained by the primers gp63 1/2 to the left and primers gp63 3/4 to the right. Amplicates were loaded in acrylamide gel and stained by silver staining. Positive control in position N° 1 and the molecular ruler in position N° 7 in both gels.

GP63 Sequence Results

Seventeen sequences were found to possess multi nucleotidic superposition (from position 810 to position 895 on the gp63 nucleotidic sequence, positions given according to the GenBank gp63 sequence accession number GQ301544) (Figure 40).

Index	820	830	839	849	859	869	87																			
Reference	c g g c t t c t t c g a a g g c g c c c g c a t c c - t g g a g a a c a t t t c g a a c g t t c g g c a c a a a g g a c t t c - g a t g																									
Reference-AA	V	G	F	F	E	G	A	R	I	L	E	N	I	S	N	V	R	H	K	D	F	D				
▶ 7HBM	. .	W	RR	. .	RMR	. .	M	M	. .	M	. SMR	K	. Y	R	SRM	Y	. .	Y	. R	. . .
▶ 5HBM	. .	KT	Cg	. .	A	a	a	. .	C	. Bc	. Gg	. g
▶ 3HBM	. .	a	c	. .	A	M	-	. VC	. TC	. R	. .	k	. S	R	dGgM	ygMS	. .	tY	. RAY	. . .
▶ 11HBM	. .	T	CG	. .	A	-	. S	. .	cR
▶ 17HBM	. .	T	CG	. .	A	-	G
▶ 18HBM	. .	kT	CG	. .	A	nc	Mr	. .	K
▶ 19HBM	. .	T	Cg	. .	A	M	M	. .	S	. MR	K
▶ 20HBM	. .	Kt	Cg	. .	A	-	. C	. .	M	K
▶ 21HBM	. .	rY	Cv	. .	A	M	R	MR	. .	K	. S	R	g
▶ 14HBM	. .	A	Y	C	A	A	S	. SC	. KCRM	. KYS	. RRMS	WGGA	SMSYNW	R	. Y
▶ 10HBM	. .	AACA	AC	. .	AAATT	. .	TTC	. TG	-	. A	. C	. C	. A	. .	GAT	A	TGGA

Figure 39: schematic demonstration of gp63 3/4 sequences obtained by direct sequencing of some VL isolates showing an example of nucleotide's overlapping from position 810 to position 895 on the gp63 nucleotidic sequence, positions given according to the GenBankTM gp63 sequence accession number GQ301544).

GP63 cloning Results

A total of 149 sequences were successfully obtained from colonies of the DNA from the six patients. The number of the sequence patterns obtained from each patient is shown in Table 7

	patient code	N° of sequences from cloning
Patient 1	3HBM	28
Patient 2	7HBM	19
Patient 3	10HBM	12
Patient 4	11HBM	29
Patient 5	14 HBM	26
Patient 6	17 HBM	35

Table 7: number of the sequence patterns obtained from each patient

GP63 Analysis

As, we aligned our sequences with those of the gp63^{SHORT} (Mauricio et al, 2007). Mauricio et al (2007) have determined the two groups of the GP63, i.e the gp63^{SHORT} and the gp63^{EXT} of the Old World Leishmania, using thirty-three strains of the *L. donovani* complex of diverse origins and zymodemes, thirty seven reference strains of other OW Leishmania and published sequences for gp63^{EXT} of *L. major* and *L. mexicana*). Our GP63 sequences belonged to six different clusters, one cluster associated with *L. infantum* genetic group while three clusters associated with *L. donovani* genetic groups. The remaining two clusters (group 1 and group 2) remains within the *L. donovani* complex, but differ from both *L. donovani* and *L. infantum* (Figure 40). The GP63 between group mean distance is shown in Table 8

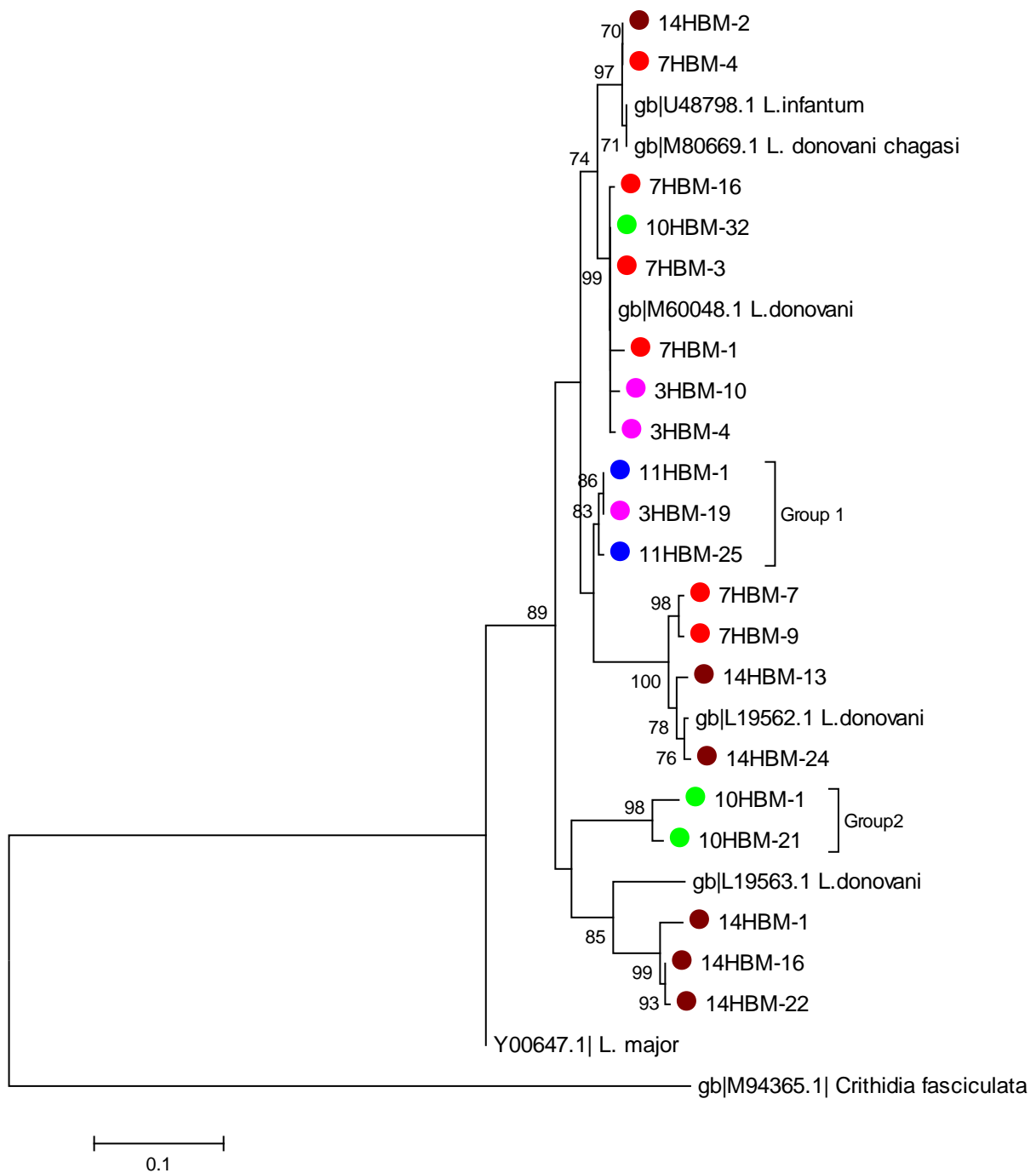


Figure 40: Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences obtained from cloning of five samples from five VL patients and the *gp63^{SHORT}* (Mauricio et al 2007) published sequences. The same colour indicates sequences obtained from the same patient. Phylogenetic tree based on a fragment of 370 bp of *gp63^{SHORT}* gene of *Leishmania* parasite. Sequence dataset was analyzed using MEGA 5, the neighbour-joining (NJ) method, and bootstrap analysis (1,000 replicates) based on the ClustalW algorithm. Significant bootstrapping values (>70%) are shown on the nodes.

gp63 ^{SHORT} groups	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.L.infantum cluster						
2.L.donovani M60048 cluster	3.6					
3.L.donovani 19562.1 cluster	12.7	11.1				
4.L.donovani 19563.1 cluster	14.0	13.4	14.5			
5.Group1	7.2	4.3	7.7	13.2		
6.Group2	14.1	14.3	18.5	19.1	14.2	

Table 8: gp63 between groups mean distance

3.7 MSPC Results

Twenty nine and nineteen sequences were obtained from the colonies of the 14 HBM and 11HBM samples, respectively. Sequences were aligned with the the GP63^{EXT} published sequences (Mauricio et al, 2007) (Figure 41 and Figure 42).

All 14 HBM sequences were clustered into one group, GP63^{EXT} MON 31and MON 83 (Mauricio et al, 2007). The within group mean distance is 0.9 for both, and all 11 HBM sequences

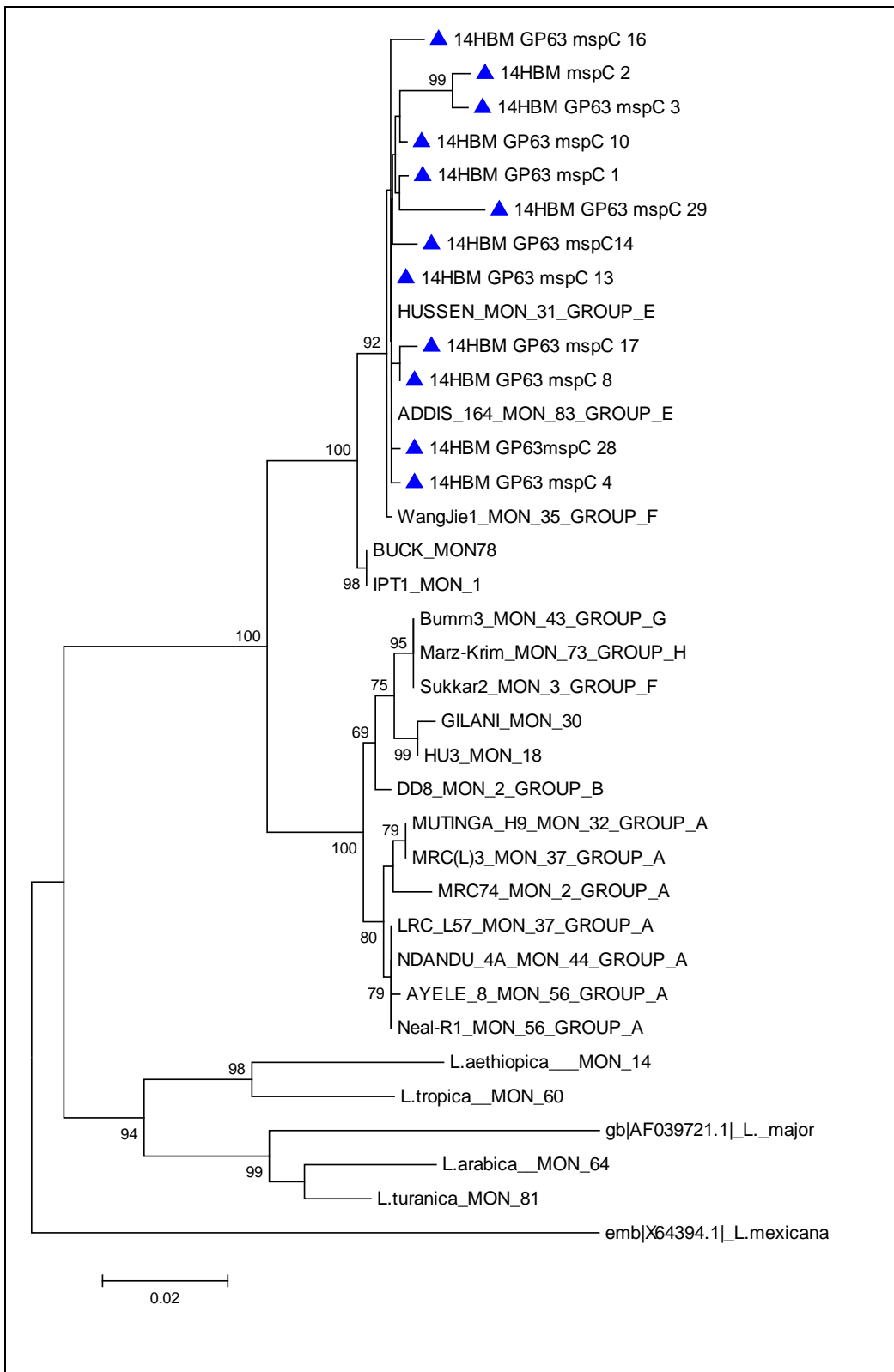


Figure 41: Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences obtained from cloning of sample 14 HBM and the gp63^{EXT} published sequences (Mauricio et al 2007). MON *Zymodemes* are shown., gp63 ext groups are shown in letters

from A-H. Phylogenetic tree based on a fragment of 1044 bp of gp63 gene of *Leishmania* parasite. Sequence dataset was analyzed using MEGA 5, the neighbour-joining (NJ) method, and bootstrap analysis (1,000 replicates) based on the ClustalW algorithm. Significant bootstrapping values (>70%) are shown on the nodes.

Figure 42

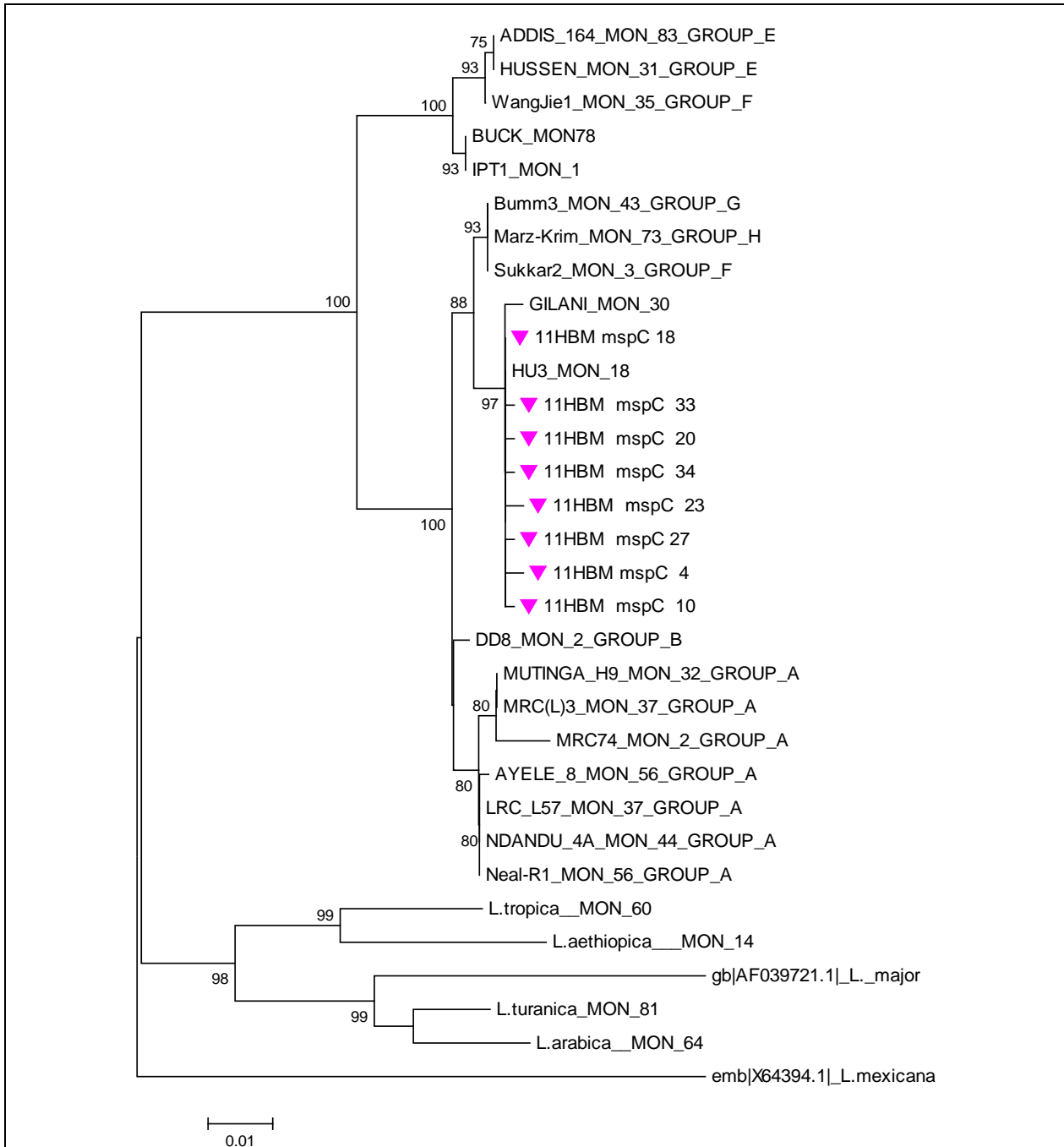


Figure 42: Phylogenetic analysis of the sequences obtained from cloning of sample 11 HBM and the gp63^{EXT} published sequences (Mauricio et al 2007). MON Zymodemes are shown., gp63 ext groups are shown in letters from A-H. Phylogenetic tree based on a fragment of 1044 bp of gp63 gene of *Leishmania* parasite. Sequence dataset was analyzed using MEGA 5, the neighbour-joining (NJ) method, and bootstrap analysis (1,000 replicates) based on the ClustalW algorithm. Significant bootstrapping values (>70%) are shown on the nodes.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

This chapter will summarize findings of this study and will discuss issues raised as the presence of mixed infection, the frequency and the transmission route in nature of such infections, the role of the culture media and other selection pressures in Leishmaniasis and the robustness of the present taxonomy.

In the present study, five CL samples from five patients have been examined, three of them have been cloned for COII and ITS genes. The five patients were presented with typical localized cutaneous ulcers with neither evident signs of systemic illness or immunosuppression nor VL. All patients originated from a VL non-endemic areas and had no history of travelling to a known VL endemic area. However, even if visceral involvement or immunosuppression were not clinically suspected, no other clinical or laboratory examinations were carried out.

COII and ITS analysis of two CL samples (107CL and 111CL) confirmed *L. donovani* as the merely etiological agent, findings concordant with other's results (El Amin *et al.*, 2004). moreover, the ITS analysis showed that at least two different strains / hybrids of *L. donovani* co-exist within the same patient..

ITS sequence data of these samples (107CL and 111CL) showed different ITS results

The 107 sample which has been extracted after being mass cultured, showed dominant *L. donovani* type E and absence of type F (type E is characteristic of *L. infantum*, MON 30, MON81 and *L. archibaldi* MON 82, while type F is characteristic of *L. infantum* MON 30 and MON 267 and *L. donovani* MON 18 according to Kuhls et al 2005 characetrization). GG and GGG insertions were intensively present at poly G₂ and some sequences showed a unique poly TA pattern.

Regarding Sample 111CL that has been extracted at the primary phase of culture, both type E and type F were fairly presented among colonies. Also GGG insertion at poly G₂ was detected. Polymorphisms at poly A witnessed both insertions and deletions of A in some uncharacterized sequences. We can conclude that the ITS sequence data support the presence of more than one strain of *L. donovani* in some CL patients.

We also assessed the presence of mixed infection with two *Leishmania* species from a single cutaneous aspirate in the other three CL patients (samples 108, 109 and 110). The COII and the ITS genes analysis gave concordant results and confirmed -for the first time- naturally mixed infection

with *L. major* and *L. donovani*. (Figure 17 and Figure 38). The ITS sequence data analysis of *L. major* related colonies in the three CL samples revealed the presence of more than one strain /hybrid of *L. major* as different polymorphic sites were detected within and between patients (five polymorphic sites in 108, two in 109 and three in 110 samples) (Figures 32, 33 and 36). Only few *L. donovani* related colonies were detected possessing polymorphic sites belonging in some sites to type E, while in other sites to type D or C (type D is characteristic of *L. archibaldi* MON 82, MON 258, MON 257, *L. donovani* MON 274 while type C is characteristic of *L. donovani* MON 35).

Most interestingly, one hybrid strain containing *L. donovani* sequence at the initial part and *L. major* at the last part was detected in one CL patient (sample 109 Figure 34).

L. infantum similar COII sequence has been found in one VL sample (14 HBM), regarding the same sample, the GP63 sequence data analysis confirmed some colonies as *L. infantum* (Figure 40). At the same time, two out of the six identified polymorphic sites (poly G₂ and poly TA) in the ITS were similar to those of types A, B, (types A and B were characteristic for *L. infantum* different zymodemes) (Figure 22). On the other hand, the MSPC gene put this sample (14HBM) within one group belonging to *L. donovani* MON 31 and MON 83. As the 14HBM, another VL sample, namely 7HBM, shared some colonies with *L. infantum* genetic group in the GP63 (Figure 40).

Although COII gene analysis identified *L. donovani* as the merely causative agent of the PKDL (sample 105) and ML (sample 106) the number of samples from these forms was not sufficient to draw a conclusion., However, ITS data analysis pointed type E as the dominant type in both samples, but considerable different sequence patterns were detected between colonies from the two samples, poly G₂ in sample 105 witnessed insertion of G,GG and deletion of G while positions 63 and 850 witnessed insertions of AT, A in the first sample and TCT, T and C at the second sample (Figure 26)

For other two samples (3HBM and 17HBM) attributed to VL identified by the COII gene as *L. donovani*, ITS data pointed in the first sample types E and D as the dominant types, while in the second sample type F. Insertion of G at poly G₂ was present in both samples (Figures 21, 23).

Two genetic groups, both within the *L. donovani* complex but different from *L. infantum* and *L. donovani* in the Gp63 sequence data analysis of some colonies attributed to VL samples (namely 10 HBM, 3HBM and 11HBM) have been identified (Figure 40). In the MSPC gene, sample 11 HBM colonies clustered within *L. donovani* MON 30 and MON 18 (Figure 42)

It has been generally accepted that Leishmaniasis in Sudan is caused by *L. major* and by the members of *L. donovani complex*, even if the presence of *L. infantum* has been denied by some authors (Jamjoom et al., 2004). No other species were reported. *L. major* and *L. donovani* have different transmission vectors and distinct biologic properties and epidemiologic features, both have been reported as etiologic agents of CL in Sudan. CL due to *L. major* LON1 is transmitted by *P. papatasi* in arid and semi-arid areas and circulates among rodents (el-Hassan& Zijlstra, 2001), while the vector that transmit CL due to *L. donovani* has not been established yet. On the other hand, Sudanese *L. donovani complex* are considered to be genetically homogenous group regardless the wide differences in clinical manifestations.

Co-infection with different *Leishmania* has been reported in closely related *Leishmania* species such as *L. braziliensis* and *L. panamensis* (Belli et al., 1994) and *L. major* and *L. arabica* (Shirian et al., 2012). The only two reports on concomitant natural infection with *L. donovani* and *L. major* were reported in Iraq where the two species were isolated from two different sites, the bone marrow and cutaneous lesions of a Kala azar suffering patients (Al-Diwany J. et al; 1995) and in Kenya where isolation succeeded from spleen aspirate culture from a clinically relapsed Kala azar suffering patient (Mebrahtu et al., 1991). Concomitant infection with divergent *Leishmania* species has also been reported. The two species *L. infantum* and *L. major* have been isolated from the spleen of VL/HIV immune-compromised patient (Ravel et al., 2006).

Most laboratories in practice rely on culture for *Leishmania* isolation, diagnosis and DNA extraction for genetic typing. However, it has been demonstrated that in culture some strains overgrow and tend to eliminate other strains (Ibrahim et al., 1994). Previous studies carried out on the gp63 gene in Sudanese patients from the same area resulted on genetic homogeneity of the *Leishmania* isolates (PhD thesis, Khartoum University, unpublished data). Differently, in our study DNA was extracted directly from biological material, likely maintaining intact the different strains composition of the samples. The selection of a single strain in culture, if corroborated by other evidences, could also make necessary to reconsider the association of *Leishmania* species with clinical manifestations, such as *L. donovani* causing CL (Elamin et al, 2008) or *L. infantum* and PKDL (Dereure et al, 2003)

In the present study, the two species were likely maintained because the cultured parasites were harvested and extracted during early growth at the third day of culture. However, after cloning, the number of colonies related to *L. major* genetic group was higher compared to that related to *L. donovani* genetic group in both COII and ITS genes. This may suggest the dominance

of *L. major* species in the co-culture; however, it is also possible that the PCR conditions were more efficient towards *L. major* genome.

The occurrence and frequency of natural infection with more than one *Leishmania*, especially where foci of two species overlap, is believed to be more prevalent than reported and it has been demonstrated that in co-cultivation of more than one *Leishmania*, the dominant species tend to inhibit the growth of the other; as a consequence, the degree of laboratory detection of such phenomenon remains unclear and likely underestimated (Pacheco *et al.*, 1987; Ibrahim *et al.*; 1994).

The transmission route of naturally mixed infection remains debated. However, the presence of genetically different populations of *P. papatasi* in Sudan has been recently reported (Khalid NM *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, high polymorphism has been attributed to *L. major* causing cutaneous diseases in Iran (Oryan A *et al.*, 2013).

P. papatasi is not a vector of visceral leishmaniasis and is refractory to the infection by *L. infantum* and *L. donovani* (Pimenta *et al.*, 1994; Myskova *et al.*; 2007). However, an experimental evidence of *P. papatasi* infection with hybrid strains of *L. infantum/L. major* causing visceral disease in HIV-positive patients (Volf *et al.*, 2007) has been documented. Based on these results *P. papatasi* has been suggested as vector of this hybrid in nature (Volf *et al.*, 2007).

In our study several different strains of *L. donovani* and of *L. major* were simultaneously found within the same patient and for most of them it was not possible the identification at the species level. This in one hand confirms that some genes can provide the basis for genotyping of strains within the *L. donovani* complex, but also highlights the internationally recognized need for a revision of the taxonomic status of *Leishmania* species (Schonian *et al.*, 2010; Van der Auwera *et al.*, 2011; Boitè *et al.*, 2012; Almeida and Araujo, 2012).

High percentage of VL Sudanese patients develop PKDL shortly after treatment. However, the responsibility of some strains to the subsequent onset of PKDL or other clinical manifestations remains an open question and need further insights.

GP63^{SHORT} and MSPC (also known as Gp63^{EXT}) are the two classes of the GP63 gene family in the subgenus L. (*Leishmania*) (Medina-Acosta *et al.*, 1993). In the *L. infantum* genome, four identical copies of the GP63^{SHORT} were identified while the MSPC seems to be single copy gene (Ramamoorthy *et al.*, 1992). In the present study, the GP63^{SHORT} phylogenetic analysis of the 14 HBM samples gave different sequence patterns grouped into three main groups, while the MSPC analysis gave only one group. This could be explained by either that the 14HBM sample contains

more than one genome with much similar MSPC sequence or that the same genome contained non identical GP63^{SHORT} copies, even though finding of other genes supported the hypothesis that this sample could contain more than one genome, at least one of them contain non identical copies.

Biomolecular Discussion

The modified real time PCR used in this study revealed to be a useful tool for the screening of a large number of samples. The Cytochrome Oxidase gene used in this study for differentiating the positive isolates at species level and it was not able to reveal the intraspecific polymorphism. While the GP63^{SHORT} and the ITS genes are suitable genes for intraspecific polymorphism and strains detection. The MSPC gene showed gene conservation in the two tested VL samples. However, the data obtained from the kDNA gene that has been abandoned seemed to support finding of this study, even if no cloning technique was done

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

CONCLUSION

This study attempted to understand the correlation between different clinical manifestations and the genetic profile of *Leishmania* positive isolates from Sudanese patients diagnosed with different types of leishmaniasis using the COII, the ITS and the GP63 (gp63 3-4 and MSPC) genes as targets for characterization and identification of intraspecific polymorphisms using direct sequencing and cloning techniques. From the results we can in summary conclude:

- The study affirmed the presence of mixed infection with *L. donovani* and *L. major* from a single cutaneous aspirate in CL patients. To the best of our knowledge this is the first report of *L. donovani* and *L. major* mixed-infection in Sudan. Additionally no other cases of such mixed-infection from the same cutaneous sample were reported elsewhere.
- The study assessed the circulation of more than one strain/hybrid of *L. major* and *L. donovani* between Sudanese patients.
- The presence of *L. infantum* as an etiological agent of VL in Sudan was confirmed by CO II and ITS genes.
- Leishmania* isolates with mixed species or strains might be subjected to selective pressure upon parasite culture, so direct extraction from biological materials is important for characterization.

These findings have important implications regarding the diagnosis, the choice of the most appropriate therapy and the possibility of developing drug resistance. The presence of *L. donovani* in all the five cutaneous samples examined suggests caution in the follow up of CL patients who could later develop VL symptoms.

Many aspects of leishmaniasis in Sudan still need to be explored. However, these findings have also set the stage for future studies such as the prevalence of different species and vectors and the competence of *Phlebotomus* spp. in transmitting different *Leishmania*.

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