



An appraisal of the scientific current situation and new perspectives in the treatment of cutaneous leishmaniasis

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Cutaneous leishmaniasis
Improved treatment
Current therapy
In vivo assay

ABSTRACT

Leishmaniasis is a Neglected Tropical Diseases caused by protozoan parasites of the genus *Leishmania*. It is a major health problem in many tropical and subtropical regions of the world and can produce three different clinical manifestations, among which cutaneous leishmaniasis has a higher incidence in the world than the other clinical forms. There are no recognized and reliable means of chemoprophylaxis or vaccination against infections with different forms of leishmaniasis. In addition, chemotherapy, unfortunately, remains, in many respects, unsatisfactory. Therefore, there is a continuing and urgent need for new therapies against leishmaniasis that are safe and effective in inducing a long-term cure. This review summarizes the latest advances in currently available treatments and improvements in the development of drug administration. In addition, an analysis of the *in vivo* assays was performed and the challenges facing promising strategies to treat CL are discussed. The treatment of leishmaniasis will most likely evolve into an approach that uses multiple therapies simultaneously to reduce the possibility of developing drug resistance. There is a continuous effort to discover new drugs to improve the treatment of leishmaniasis, but this is mainly at the level of individual researchers. Undoubtedly, more funding is needed in this area, as well as greater participation of the pharmaceutical industry to focus efforts on the development of chemotherapeutic agents and vaccines for this and other neglected tropical diseases.

1. Introduction

According to a conservative estimate, there are more than 65000 species of protozoa (Pelczar et al., 1993). Although only a few species cause diseases in humans, they can produce considerable damage to human health. In particular, in the low-income population, parasitic diseases are one of the main causes of human misery and death in the world. In response to this critical situation, the World Health Organization (WHO) has established a special research program on the most important parasitic diseases such as leishmaniasis, malaria, schistosomiasis, and trypanosomiasis. Regarding leishmaniasis, the main objectives of the scientific working group are strongly oriented towards epidemiology and development of vaccines, without neglecting the study of new effective drugs along with improving therapeutics with existing ones (Croft and Coombs, 2003; WHO, 1975).

Leishmaniasis is a Neglected Tropical Disease caused by kinetoplastid protozoan parasites belonging to the genus *Leishmania* (Fraga

et al., 2013; WHO, 2010), being a major health problem in many tropical and subtropical regions of the world. This disease is endemic in 98 countries and represents a serious threat to approximately 310 million people living in endemic regions of affected countries (Información general: Leishmaniasis. WHO). It is one of the main parasitic diseases in the developing world, as well as in underdeveloped countries. In the Americas, in particular, it occurs with great magnitude and wide distribution. In addition, the main risk factors, which are the result of local social, economic and environmental processes, increase exponentially the number of the population at risk of infection. As a consequence of the medical complexity of this disease, the general tools and guidelines for the management of cases of leishmaniasis, from clinical suspicion to follow-up after therapy, are scarce or incomplete, and when available, can only be applied regionally. For this reason, leishmaniasis is not recognized and prioritized at the level of public health policy, and its visibility is eventually not proportional to its true impact.

Since leishmaniasis is classified as a zoonosis, animal vectors

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actatropica.2021.105988>

Received 24 February 2021; Received in revised form 23 May 2021; Accepted 24 May 2021

Available online 28 May 2021

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transmit the parasites causing most forms of the disease, however, some have been reported to be transmitted between humans (Torres-Guerrero et al., 2017). Its complex biological cycle (Fig. 1) includes different stages of the parasite, both in reservoirs and in vectors, which cause a set of clinical syndromes in the infected human that compromise the skin, mucous membranes and viscera.

Leishmaniasis includes a group of diseases, which are often classified according to the world regions in: Old World (OW) leishmaniasis, existing in the Eastern Hemisphere and endemic in Asia, Africa, and southern Europe; and New World (NW) leishmaniasis, endemic in the Western Hemisphere, extending from south-central Texas to Central and South America (except Chile and Uruguay) (Kevric et al., 2015). *Leishmania* parasites are transmitted by infected female sandflies of the genus *Lutzomyia* in the New World, and *Phlebotomus* in the Old World. Out of 53 described species of *Leishmania* parasites, 20 are known to cause human pathogenesis (Fig. 2) and may produce three different clinical manifestations, which are cutaneous (CL), mucocutaneous (MCL), and visceral (VL) leishmaniasis that differ in their immunopathologies and degree of morbidity and mortality. It is estimated that approximately 0.7–1.2 million of new CL and 0.2–0.4 million of new VL cases occur each year in endemic countries (Tiwari et al., 2019). According to the global analysis of the burden of infectious diseases, leishmaniasis in its different clinical forms is responsible for 2.35 million years of life adjusted for disability (DALYs).

Effective, affordable and easy-to-use medications for leishmaniasis treatment are currently lacking. Until its appearance as a co-infection of HIV / AIDS, leishmaniasis was not perceived as a direct threat to industrial countries (Dujardin et al., 2008). There are no recognized and reliable means of chemoprophylaxis or vaccination against infections with different forms of leishmaniasis. In addition, chemotherapy, unfortunately, remains, in many respects, unsatisfactory (Leishmaniasis and World Health, 1990). It is necessary to emphasize that leishmaniasis have the characteristic of being a hidden problem since many patients live in remote areas with poor access to health services and urbanization.

The typical clinical presentation of CL is a localized, non-healing, often ulcerative skin lesion. Less common CL presentations include nodular, psoriasiform, and verrucous forms. Other unusual cutaneous syndromes include diffuse CL, disseminated CL, post-kala-azar dermal leishmaniasis (PKDL), and leishmaniasis recidivans (LR). In the New World, a primary cutaneous lesion that may be co-existent with or followed months to years later by destructive nasopharyngeal lesions (“espundia”) characterizes MCL. VL (Kala-azar) is classically



Fig. 2. Species of *Leishmania* parasite that cause human pathogenesis.

characterized by fever, wasting, pancytopenia, hepatosplenomegaly (especially splenomegaly), and hypergammaglobulinemia. With “incomplete,” or atypical, syndromes, in which one or more of these clinical features are missing, sub-clinical and asymptomatic VL are common (Aronson and Magill, 2020).

The process of development, progression and resolution of the lesions varies according to the species of infection and the immune status of the patient, but generally, it involves the next steps. A macula initially appears at the bite site, which then evolves into a papule. The lesion continues growing and a nodule develops, produced by dermal mass containing vacuolated macrophages with abundant *Leishmania* parasites and a lymphocytic infiltrate. The nodule grows in size and necrosis occurs at the center of the granulomatous reaction, causing ulceration. Finally, when the body eliminates parasites, because either the immune response was effective or through the action of a specific treatment, the process of resolving the lesion (scarring) involves the production of collagen and metalloproteases of the extracellular matrix. In this way, tissue regeneration occurs by the migration and proliferation of fibroblasts and keratinocytes to the affected tissue (Reithinger et al., 2007b).

Although not fatal, CL is treated to accelerate healing and reduce scarring, especially in cosmetic sites, and to prevent parasite dissemination or relapse. The WHO divides its recommendations according to OW and NW CL, and in turn subdivides them into local and systemic treatment, identifying the type of host-parasite (WHO 2010). Treatment is commonly given for persistent (>6 months' duration), multiple or large lesions, and for lesions located in joints or face. However, treatment should be considered for NW CL, since the disease has a low spontaneous cure rate and late treatment could possibly lead to an increased risk of late mucosal involvement. The main challenges in the treatment of CL are that clinical diagnosis is difficult in the absence of microscopy at the basic healthcare level and that pentavalent antimonial (PA) drugs, the first-line treatment, in addition to being very expensive, can have serious, although usually reversible, side-effects, and are of variable efficacy against MCL (Reithinger et al., 2007a). Other current therapies for CL include pentamidine (PMD), miltefosine (MLF), paromomycin (PMM), and amphotericin B (AmpB) and treatment approaches range from local therapy, including topical treatments and

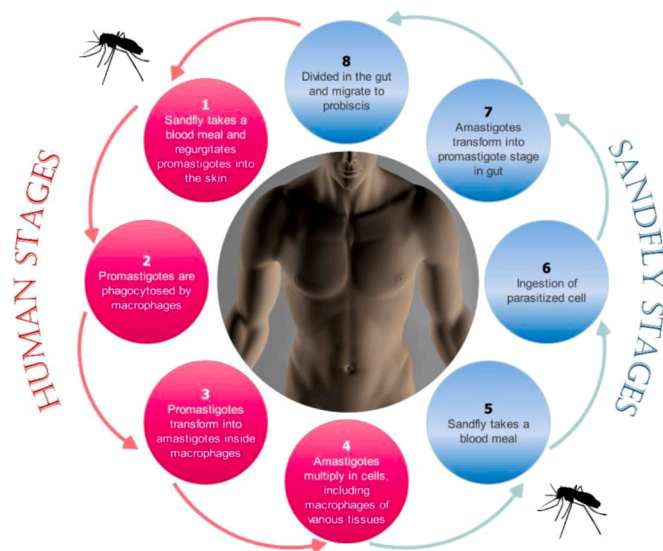


Fig. 1. The *Leishmania* life cycle.

intralesional injections, to systemic therapy. Molecular structures of some of the most common drugs used in CL treatment are shown in Fig. 3.

These drugs are associated with various shortcomings like toxicity, efficacy, side effects, drug resistance, high cost, and requirement of prolonged administration (Tiwari et al., 2019). The Table 1: Therapeutic regime, administration route and side effects of drugs currently used for CL. summarizes the drugs, their therapeutic regimen, administration route and most relevant side effects.

Although local therapy still lacks sufficient evidence to support its widespread use in public health, it is recommended in specific situations and when the treating health professional considers that benefit to the patient outweighs the risk. Local therapies, including thermotherapy or cryotherapy with or without local infiltration with antimonials, as well as PMM ointment, are options with less systemic toxicity but variable efficacy. Treatments based on local infiltration using PAs reach the highest concentrations at the lesion site, but unfortunately, they are not effective for metastatic leishmaniasis. Moreover, intralesional infiltrations are painful and can produce local irritation and inflammation. Localized methods are usually recommended for patients with *L. mexicana* or *L. major* infections, or with small and few lesions. On the other hand, systemic treatments, such as MLF, PA, PMD, or AmpB formulations, are generally recommended for more complicated cases, for those who do not respond to topical treatments, for immunosuppressed patients, and for cases in areas where progression to mucosal leishmaniasis is prevalent (Caridha et al., 2019).

Emerging resistance mechanisms in well-established key targets are affecting the use of current drug treatment options, leading to treatment failure. The reasons for the emergence of resistance may be explained by the widespread misuse of the drugs, including smaller doses at the beginning of the treatment or drug-free periods to minimize toxicity, which leads to subtherapeutic drug levels and increased tolerance of parasites (Chakravarty and Sundar, 2010). Therefore, the development of new anti-leishmanial compounds with alternative and efficient mechanisms of actions is required to eradicate this disease (Kapil et al., 2018).

In recent years' improvements have been made in the treatment of CL. New drug delivery systems and new treatment regimens have been

designed and applied. This review summarizes the latest advances in currently available treatments and improvements in the development of drug administration. In addition, an analysis of the *in vivo* assays was performed and the challenges facing promising strategies to treat CL are discussed.

2. Literature analysis and search design

An advanced literature search was performed in three of the most relevant scientific databases, ScienceDirect, Wiley and PubMed, using the search terms: "cutaneous leishmaniasis" AND "treatment" or "cutaneous leishmaniasis" AND "therapy" in the fields "Title, abstract or author-specified keywords" or "Title", according to the database. Articles in English, French and Spanish since 2015 were selected.

The scientific articles were selected by applying a three-steps procedure. Articles without abstract were excluded in the first step. After that, publications were classified into five topics: 1) Improve current drugs; 2) Photodynamic therapies; 3) Natural products; 4) Molecular targets; and 5) Others. Articles classified as "Others" and repeated publications were excluded, arriving at the summary shown in Fig. 4. Finally, all the literature was reviewed and the information was reorganized and descriptively summarized.

3. Improvements of current treatments

Treatment options for CL are selected taking into account several aspects such as clinical manifestations, number and location of lesions, *Leishmania* species, geographic location, general condition of the patient, availability of medications, among other factors that must be carefully evaluated. The treatment scheme used for these pathologies is often long and painful, which can lead to abandonment of treatment. In addition, if we consider that the cure is difficult to achieve in many cutaneous and mucocutaneous forms, the result will probably be therapeutic failure.

In this section, the improvements of the current therapies mentioned in the introduction are reviewed, such as the encapsulation of drugs, the combination of therapies, the supplementation with different complex, the combination with natural products like essential oils, or the

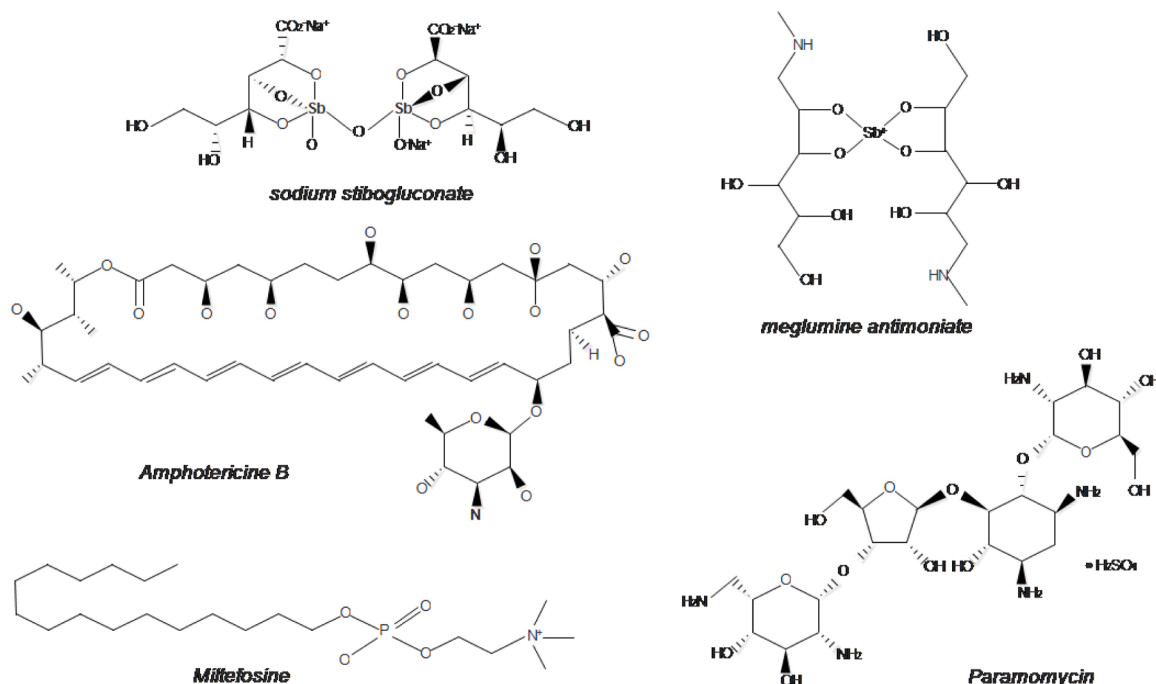


Fig. 3. Chemical structure of drugs used for the treatment of leishmaniasis

Table 1
Therapeutic regime, administration route and side effects of drugs currently used for CL.

Drug	Therapeutic regimen	Administration route	Species	Side effects
Pentavalent antimonials	Intralesional: 1–5 ml per session every 3–7 days (1–5 infiltrations). 20 mg Sb ^V /kg per day intramuscularly or intravenously for 10–20 days (for 60 days or longer to treat diffuse cutaneous leishmaniasis).	Intralesional Intravenous or intramuscular	All species. All species but <i>L. mexicana</i>	Cardiotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, pancreatitis, reversible renal failure, anemia, leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting, blood disorders and painful injection
Amphotericin B	Deoxycholate: 0.7 mg/kg per day, by infusion, for 25–30 doses Liposomal: 2–3 mg/kg per day, by infusion, up to 20–40 mg/kg total dose	Intravenous Intravenous	<i>L. braziliensis</i> <i>L. braziliensis</i>	Fever, nausea, vomiting, anemia, hypokalemia, nephrotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, cardiotoxicity, hypersensitivity and anaphylaxis
Miltefosine	2.5 mg/kg per day orally for 28 days	Oral	<i>L. mexicana</i> <i>L. guyanensis</i> <i>L. panamensis</i>	Vomiting, diarrhea, toxicity in the gastrointestinal system, toxicity in the hepatic system, toxicity in the renal system, thrombophlebitis and hemolysis
Paromomycin	15% paromomycin/12% methylbenzethonium chloride ointment twice daily for 20 days 15 mg (11 mg base)/kg per day intramuscularly for 60 days or longer to treat diffuse cutaneous leishmaniasis (together with pentavalent antimonial treatment as above)	Topical Intramuscular	All species <i>L. aethiopia</i>	Toxicity in the gastrointestinal system, ototoxicity, hepatotoxicity, vestibular instability and nephrotoxicity
Pentamidine	Pentamidine isethionate: intramuscular injections or brief infusions of 4 mg salt/kg per dose every other day for 3 doses.	Intramuscular injections or brief infusions	<i>L. guyanensis</i> <i>L. panamensis</i>	Nephrotoxicity, hypoglycaemia, arrhythmias, ventricular tachycardia, injections-site reactions, dizziness, severe hypotension, syncope, rash, gastrointestinal disturbances and abnormal liver function test

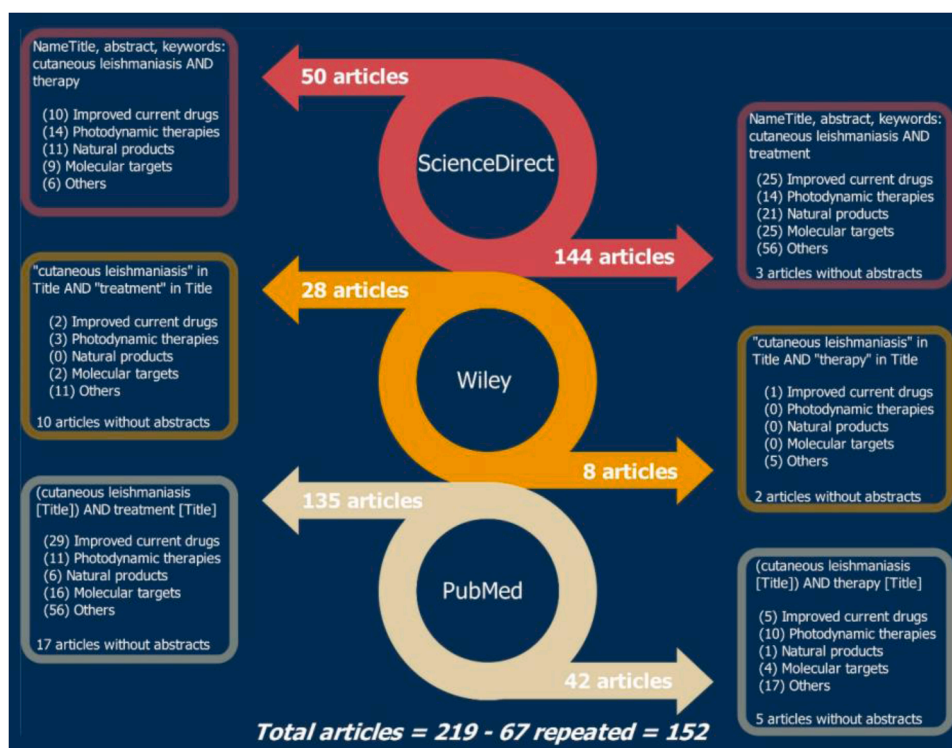


Fig. 4. Process of articles' selection.

administration using different doses and time treatments.

3.1. Pentavalent antimonials

Antimonials are considered the first-line drugs in leishmaniasis treatment and are available as brand-name products, for example Glucantime® (meglumine antimoniate) and Pentostam® (sodium stibogluconate), or in generic forms, like antimony and sodium gluconate. Their mechanism of action is not well understood, but it is probably multifactorial, acting directly on the molecular processes of the parasite, as well as influencing the parasitocidal activity of macrophages (Baiocco et al., 2009).

Glucantime® and Pentostam® are usually used alone in systemic therapy and sometimes in combination with other agents. These drugs

require long administration periods (up to 15 days) and are very toxic to human. The half-life of Sb^V in blood after Pentostam® or Glucantime® administration is only 2 hours and most of it (81–97%) is excreted within 6–8 hours. Despite the fast excretion of antimonials, there is a slight accumulation of Sb^V in tissues (Sharma and Anand, 1997).

In recent decades, an impulse to improve therapeutic results, patient compliance, and lower total cost of treatment has put technology at the service of developing new drug carrier systems. Many researchers are working in the development of carriers to improve the way of administration and lower the toxic effects of this drug, for example using colloidal systems (Aragão Horoiwa et al., 2020), gel-based formulations (Berenguer et al., 2019), hydrophobic wound dressing (Pereira et al., 2020) or liposome encapsulation (Moosavian et al., 2019) for topical treatment. In this regard, an interesting study was conducted by

Mostafavi et al., who evaluated the efficacy of Glucantime® and AmpB encapsulated in niosome against CL using *in vitro* and *in vivo* models (Mostafavi et al., 2019). They reported a synergistic effect between both drugs in niosomal form in the inhibition of intracellular and extracellular forms of *L. tropica*, and the *in vivo* results on *L. major* suggested that topical niosomal formulation could be useful in the treatment of CL.

Another interesting approach includes the use of adjuvants to help the immune system. In this regard, Guzman-Rivero et al. found that zinc supplementation improved the immune response in patients with CL treated with antimony (Guzman-Rivero et al., 2015). Farajzadeh et al. compared the efficacy of intralesional injection of zinc sulphate 2 % solution with intralesional Glucantime® in the treatment of acute CL, concluding that both treatments were equally effective (Farajzadeh et al., 2016a). Two years later, they reported that the use of Glucantime® plus niosomal zinc sulphate had the same efficacy as Glucantime® plus cryotherapy, being this option painless and without risk of skin necrosis (Farajzadeh et al., 2018).

The association of N-methyl glucamine antimoniate with photodynamic therapy with topical liposomal chloroaluminium phthalocyanine was also evaluated, showing the same efficacy as the standard treatment but with a lower Sb^V dose (Ribeiro et al., 2019).

Farajzadeh et al. observed that the use of topical terbinafine in combination with Glucantime® was clinically more effective in the treatment improvement rate, although it depended on the type of lesions (Farajzadeh et al., 2016b). In another study, higher potency and synergistic effect of methotrexate on meglumine antimoniate were reported in inhibiting the growth rate of promastigote and amastigote stages of sensitive and meglumine antimoniate-resistant *L. tropica* (Mahmoudvand et al., 2017).

Other promising results were found when combining antimonials with drugs intended for other diseases, for example, antifungals and antiparasitics, such as amiodarone and itraconazole (Anversa et al., 2017), levamisole (Bamorovat et al., 2019) and oxiranes (epoxy- α -lapachone and epoxy-methyl-lawsone) (Gonçalves-Oliveira et al., 2019), as well as the anticancer drug tamoxifen (Machado et al., 2018) (Trinconi et al., 2018). Añez et al. proposed as an alternative treatment the intralesional infiltration of a generic pentavalent antimonial compound combined with lidocaine, based on the successful results in a study including 122 lesions caused by *L. braziliensis* (Añez et al., 2018). Shanehsaz and Ishkhanian found a good response to a treatment based on a lower dose of systemic meglumine antimoniate supplemented with oral cimetidine, although it was less effective than the standard dose (Shanehsaz and Ishkhanian, 2015).

On the other hand, only three articles were found about sodium stibogluconate. Dar et al. evaluated the efficacy of sodium stibogluconate co-loaded with ketoconazole in nano-elastic liposomes, concluding that this system could be a promising approach for the topical treatment of CL (Dar et al., 2020b). An alternative treatment option for pediatric patients consisting of sodium stibogluconate after fractional ablative carbon dioxide laser was proposed by Hilerowicz et al. (Hilerowicz et al., 2018), whereas Thacker et al. reported that CpG ODN D35 improved the response to abbreviated low-dose sodium stibogluconate treatment (Thacker et al., 2020).

3.2. Amphotericin B

AmpB is a naturally occurring antifungal isolated from *Streptomyces nodosus*. Its antileishmanial activity attributed to its selective affinity for ergosterol vis-a-vis cholesterol was discovered in the early 1960s (Ramos et al., 1996).

There are currently different strategies for AmpB administration, which include the conventional AmpB deoxycholate and three lipid formulations: liposomal amphotericin (AmBisome), amphotericin lipid complex (Abelcet) and amphotericin colloidal dispersion (Amphocil) (Cifani et al., 2012). Although the side effects produced by AmpB deoxycholate are also caused by liposomal AmpB, they occur much less

frequently for the latter, allowing higher doses (Domingues Passero et al., 2013). In contrast to MLF and PA, AmpB is commercially available in most countries and is approved for use during pregnancy. The high cost and adverse effects of liposomal AmpB are the major limiting factors in its administration, in addition to its poor gastrointestinal absorption and short circulating half-life, rapidly reaching its highest concentrations in liver and spleen (Akbari et al., 2017). Both formulations of the AmpB, the deoxycholate and the liposomal, have been used clinically for leishmaniasis treatment (Barratt and Legrand, 2005).

Although AmpB and its lipid form have effectively served as the therapeutic mainstay against leishmaniasis, recent reports in their limitations have prompted the evaluation of alternative therapeutic modalities. Due to adverse effects, novel and safe dose of AmpB have been tested, ranging from nanoparticles to implants and emulsions.

Most of the research related to AmpB aims to develop effective drug carrier vehicles using different strategies. In this regard, studies were conducted to develop local therapies based on poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) nanoparticles (Abu Ammar et al., 2019) and microparticles (Souza-Batista et al., 2019) loaded with AmpB. Casa et al., investigated the antileishmanial activity of bovine serum albumin nanoparticles containing AmpB against *L. amazonensis* (Casa et al., 2018). Although commercial AmpB was more effective than nanoparticles against PM and AM, both formulations showed a significant decrease in the skin lesion, while the nanoparticles containing AmpB did not reveal tissue toxicity, making them a potential candidate for treating CL. Different authors developed and evaluated liposomal or nanoliposomal formulations containing AmpB (Eskandari et al., 2018; Jaafari et al., 2019; Perez et al., 2016; Varikuti et al., 2017; Wijnant et al., 2018) for topical treatment. Pinheiro et al. studied the therapeutic potential *in vivo* of an AmpB + oleic acid emulgel in an experimental model, concluding that it showed good prospects as an alternative therapy for CL (Pinheiro et al., 2016). Two years later, a topical emulsion of AmB was developed using readily available ingredients like canola oil, hydroxypropyl methylcellulose, carbopol and Tween 80 (Ishaq et al., 2018). An *in vitro* anti-leishmanial assay of these emulsions showed 50% killing rate at 0.2 μ g/ml of AmB and 100% mortality with emulsions containing 20 μ g/ml of AmB, showing its high potential for topical infections. Another interesting approach was made by Nguyen et al., who developed a microneedle based delivery system for AmpB and found promising results of the topical delivery in treating relatively small nodules caused by *L. mexicana*, although the microneedle showed limitations against a disseminated *L. major* infection (Nguyen et al., 2019). Hydrogels were also tested as carriers for AmpB and reported as an efficient new therapeutic approach for the topical treatment of CL (Alexandrino-Junior et al., 2019).

Other studies were focused on testing alternative formulations containing AmpB for local application, such as creams (López et al., 2018), or changing the administration regimen and dose (Goswami et al., 2019), mainly to minimize the toxicity and adverse effects.

Meanwhile, there are also reports on its combination with other compounds, including natural products like bacuri butter (Coelho et al., 2018), the antileishmanial drug MLF (Dar et al., 2020a) and novel approaches, such as chitosan platelets (Malli et al., 2019). On the other hand, it should be mentioned that despite not being the drug of first choice for the treatment of CL, there are a large number of scientific reports on its use, possibly due to its simple quantification that allows for more complete *in vitro* tests, including release profiles and determination of the pharmacokinetics during the development of new formulations. Moreover, the efficiency of pentavalents for getting rid of the parasites is only around 60%, while it is 85% for AmpB.

3.3. Miltefosine

MLF, an alkyl phospholipid compound that was originally developed as an anticancer drug, is the first effective oral treatment for VL. This drug acts by affecting the phospholipid metabolism of the plasma

membrane of the parasite or by affecting the mitochondrial membrane potential leading to apoptosis-like cell death (Kapil et al., 2018). It is the first non-parenteral drug it does not require hospitalization, and in general, clinical results using oral MLF have been satisfactory.

Misuse of MLF, its long half-life (7 days) and the inactivation of genes responsible for drug uptake are the main three reasons in resistance development against MLF. This compound should be administered IV in the patients with gastrointestinal disorders, but this route of prescription is limited, because of adverse side effects such as thrombophlebitis and hemolysis. Reports of failure in treatment and relapse in some cases treated with this drug have also been observed. Additionally, MLF is teratogenic and should not be administered in pregnant women and people of childbearing age (Akbari et al., 2017). All this can explain the low volume of researches on this drug.

The investigations are mainly oriented to the combination of MLF with other drugs. The interaction of MLF and apigenin was evaluated *in vitro* and *in vivo*, concluding that the combination therapy using low doses of these two drugs resulted in good clinical and parasitological responses (Emiliano and Almeida-Amaral, 2018). Another study on the development and evaluation of novel MLF-polyphenol co-loaded second-generation nano-transfersomes for the topical treatment of CL was carried out (Dar et al., 2020c). A synergistic interaction was observed between MLF and apigenin, among different polyphenols, with an 8.0-fold lower IC₅₀ and a 9.5-fold reduced parasitic burden in the *L. mexicana* infected BALB/c mice.

The improved anti-leishmanial efficacy of MLF and ketoconazole loaded on nanoniosomes was reported by Nazari-Vanani et al. (Nazari-Vanani et al., 2018). On the other hand, a study evaluating the use of azithromycin alone or in combination with MLF concluded that this antibiotic can be an alternative oral treatment for CL, but although the combination therapy induced dramatic clinical improvement, relapse rapidly developed after cessation of therapy (Amer et al., 2016). Trinconi et al. found that tamoxifen was able to hinder the emergence of MLF resistance (Trinconi et al., 2016). Finally, one research was aimed at developing liposomes containing the drug for topical application (Kavian et al., 2019), reporting that topical liposomes loaded with MLF showed optimal *ex vivo* penetration and *in vivo* anti-leishmanial activity against CL caused by *L. major* when compared to MLF cream and other liposomes.

3.4. Paromomycin and pentamidine

PMM is a second-line drug whose antileishmanial activity has been more recently identified. It is a broad-spectrum aminoglycoside isolated from *Streptomyces krestomuceticus*, used to treat intestinal infections, whose effective activity against a wide range of bacteria and protozoa has been demonstrated (Esfandiari et al., 2019). This pharmacologic agent has been used in various topical formulations for the treatment of CL (Laboudi et al., 2018). A possible mechanism of action is based on its ability to bind the 30S subunit of ribosome, leading to inhibition of protein synthesis. Another explanation is that it binds to the disrupted mitochondrial membrane potential that ultimately causes apoptosis-like cell death (Kapil et al., 2018). This drug is not teratogenic or mutagenic and its low cost makes it the most inexpensive available antileishmanial agent (Esfandiari et al., 2019). The main limitations of this drug are associated with its low absorbance (nearly 100% is recovered from feces) and the lack of adequate reports on its use in pregnant women (Weiner and Mason, 2019).

Intending to give an impulse to expand the reach of PMM, One World Health, the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Gland Pharma Limited, International Dispensary Association Solutions and the WHO Special Program for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases partnered to develop a PMM injection as a public health tool to be sold on a not-for-profit basis at a very low price. In phase III clinical trial, 94.6 % of patients treated with its injection were cured of VL. PMM injection was approved on August 31, 2006 for treatment of VL in India (Sundar and

Chatterjee, 2006). Despite its remarkable advantage over other drugs targeting leishmaniasis, only two PMM reports on CL were found in the last years. One study evaluated the use of PMM in combination with chloroquine (Wijnant et al., 2017). and although the coadministration of the drugs resulted in a significant reduction in the lesion in murine models, there were no differences in the parasite load compared to PMM alone, and therefore, authors concluded that this combination therapy is unlikely to be a potential candidate for further preclinical development. On the other hand, Schwartz et al. reported that the topical application of human anti-TNF- α antibodies in combination with PMM favored lesion healing without blocking parasite elimination in BALB/c mice with CL lesions (Schwartz et al., 2018), concluding that the administration of formulations with both leishmanicidal and antiinflammatory activities could benefit the process of wound healing, which is a major concern in patients to control the local inflammatory response.

PMD is an aromatic diamidine used as its isethionate salt and can be IV or IM injected for leishmaniasis treatment (Rex and Stevens, 2015). During its mechanism of action, this drug undergoes in a rapid active uptake into the protozoal cell, where it binds avidly to transfer RNA and inhibits the ribosomal synthesis of protein, with additional actions on the synthesis of nucleic acids and phospholipids. PMD is metabolized in the liver and has a very long half-life (10–14 days) (Waller and Sampson, 2018). PMD was abandoned as a second-line treatment for VL due to its toxicity and declining efficacy. Probably for this reason there are only two publications based on this drug. One of the studies is aimed at identifying the main factors associated with the PMD treatment failure in patients with *L. guyanensis* (Christen et al., 2018), while the other one evaluated the efficacy and safety of a single, two or three doses of PMD with intervals of a week between doses (Gadelha et al., 2018). These authors found that the cure rates were significantly higher when the patients received two or three PMD doses.

4. Challenges for new therapies

During the development of new drugs, it is difficult to predict their efficacy in human trials, even if they have promising preclinical activity and low toxicity. In some cases, these new formulations are designed to improve drug administration (including nanoparticles) or decrease the toxicity of compounds used in clinical practice (for example, AmpB and antimonials), which has already been developed in the previous section.

Pharmaceutical R&D difficulties have led the scientific community to propose new ways of addressing classical problems. One of the strategies consists of drugs repositioning, which can be summarized as "old drugs for new therapies". This means that agents that are used clinically for other indications are tested against leishmaniasis.

In the absence of a vaccine and taking into account the increasing resistance to pentavalent antimonial drugs, there is an urgent need for new effective drugs to replace or supplement those currently in use. Therefore, the development of new antileishmanial compounds is imperative. In this sense, one of the most interesting contributions is made by nanomedicine, which investigates therapeutics and prophylaxis of leishmaniasis using three-dimensional nanoobjects metal and oxides nanoparticles [NPs], polymeric and lipid NPs, nanocapsules, dendrimers, micelles, liposomes, and other vesicles (Morilla and Romero, 2015). Different and promising therapeutic strategies will be discussed in this section, including some active agents in the experimental phase found during the research.

4.1. Photodynamic therapy

Treatment of intracellular pathogen infections today represents a medical and economic challenge. Microorganisms that remain within cells are resistant to many mechanisms of the immune response and, because they are less exposed to the action of chemotherapeutic agents, they promote the selection of resistant variants. For this reason, other therapeutic approaches are needed, such as PDT, which appears as a

good option for the management of this type of pathogens. Infections such as CL can represent a valuable model to study the possible application of phototherapy in infectious dermatology due to the location of peripheral lesions (Taylor et al., 2011).

PDT, which is an emerging strategy involving the combination of visible light, a photosensitizer, and oxygen, is used for treating a wide variety of diseases such as cancer and infections, including CL. This therapy consists of exciting a photosensitizer with visible light in the presence of molecular oxygen, inducing the formation of reactive oxygen species, which are highly toxic to the target cells.

One of the main limitations of topical treatments arises from the fact that drug penetration and selectivity depend on its physicochemical properties. In this sense, one of the strategies to improve the performance of a photosensitizer as an antileishmanial drug for topical application is to load it in a suitable carrier. In the last five years many works related to the development of different carriers and photosensitizers against *Leishmania* spp. were published (Table 2).

As it can be seen, most research focuses on photosensitizers such as methylene blue, chloroaluminum phthalocyanine, TiO₂ nanoparticles and aminolevulinic acid derivatives, and anthraquinones as natural photosensitizers. On the other hand, different types of lasers are being studied, which not only help to eliminate parasites, but also improve the aesthetics of the skin.

4.2. Natural products

Currently, attempts are being made to search for new antiparasitic agents worldwide from plants, animals, and microorganisms. In the development of agents against any particular disease, an important feature is the identification of a possible target molecule, which should be enough to affect the fundamental biological pathway(s) to control the growth of pathogens. It is also important that the putative target should

be either absent in the host or structurally and functionally different from the host homologue. Although trypanosomatids are eukaryotes, the organization of their cellular machinery is significantly different from the mammalian cells, and therefore, it is possible to identify targets that are unique to these parasites. For this reason, novel chemotherapeutic interventions against leishmanial diseases based on the screening of natural products are under research and development. Specifically, plants are being extensively explored as a source for the discovery of new drugs (Hazra et al., 2017).

Many native plants of traditional medicine are being used to treat CL, and recent clinical trials have shown the efficacy of some of them. In 2017, Odonne et al. reviewed the geographical distribution of the use of Amazonian plants for leishmaniasis (Odonne et al., 2017). In another revision, garlic, shallots, wormwood, yarrow, walnuts, thyme, henna plant, mimosa, aloe, betonia wood, loquat, periwinkle, salty and black beans, among others, are listed as effective agents for CL (Bahmani et al., 2015). Table 3 shows natural products whose effects are scientifically proven to be effective in leishmaniasis treatment.

It can be observed that in the last 5 years many spices were tested *in vitro* and *in vivo* for leishmaniasis treatment, including lapachol, aloe, curcumin, olive oil, copaiba oil and many others, as well as different secretions of larvae, fungi and snakes.

4.3. Molecular targets

Recently, different innovative approaches are being used to discover new drug candidates against vector-borne parasitic diseases. Among them, one interesting strategy consists of new indications for existing drugs, which involves researching existing drugs developed for other indications. Some recognized examples are artemisinin, camptothecin, diospyrin, and MLF that were previously discovered against other diseases but later proved to be effective as antileishmanial agents. On the

Table 2
Latest advances in PDT to improve treatment against the CL from 2015 to 2020.

Strategy based on PDT	Specie of <i>Leishmania</i>	λ	Fluency	Ref.
TiO ₂ nanoparticles doped with Zn and hypericin	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	470 nm and 660 nm	52.8 J/cm ²	(Sepúlveda et al., 2020)
liposomes of chloroaluminum phthalocyanine of egg phosphatidylcholine		660 nm	0–95 J/cm ²	(Lopes et al., 2019)
aluminum phthalocyanine chloride, Aluminum phthalocyanine hydroxide and zinc phthalocyanine		630 nm	10 J/cm ²	(Nesi-Reis et al., 2018)
methylene blue		645±10 nm	21.2, 53.1, 106.2 and 265.4 J/cm ²	(Aureliano et al., 2018)
five natural anthraquinones		410±10 nm	36 J/cm ²	(Dimmer et al., 2019)
Pluronic® P-123 and F-127 as nanocarriers		530 nm and 593 nm	NR	(Oyama et al., 2019)
methylene blue	<i>L. major</i>	660±5 nm	10 J/cm ²	(Fagundes et al., 2019)
riboflavin derivatives of O-acyl, N-methyl, N-alkylcarboxyalkyl or N-alkyl(trialkyl)ammonium		470 nm	NR	(Silva et al., 2015)
TiO ₂ nanoparticles		200–1100 nm	NR	(Dolat et al., 2020)
methylene blue	<i>L. major</i> and <i>L. braziliensis</i>	660 nm	10 J/cm ²	(Pinto et al., 2017)
Chlorin e6		660 nm	10 J/cm ²	(Pinto et al., 2016)
5-Aminolevulinic Acid.	<i>L. braziliensis</i>	440 nm	50 J/cm ²	(Silva et al., 2019)
ultradeformable liposomes loaded with chlorine aluminum phthalocyanine		672±40 nm band-pass	17 J/cm ²	(Escobar et al., 2018)
methylene blue and light-emitting diode novel formulation with hypericin	<i>L. panamensis</i>	Light-Emitting Diode 655 nm visible light	NR	(Sbegen et al., 2015)
calcium phosphate nanostructures with photodynamic properties and support for hypericin		visible irradiation	5 J/cm ²	(Montoya et al., 2015)
fractionated illumination methylaminolevulinic based PDT	NR	NR	9 J/cm ²	(Lopera et al., 2018)
pulsed dye laser therapy		585 nm	90 J/cm ² in three fractions	(Khan et al., 2020)
non-Ablative Fractional 1540 nm		585 nm	7 J/cm ²	(Radmanesh and Omidian, 2017)
Continuous Wave CO ₂ Laser and Topical Application of trichloroacetic Acid 50%		nonablative fractional 1540 nm Er:glass laser	NR	(Taheri et al., 2020)
neodymium-Doped Yttrium aluminum Garnet (Nd:YAG) laser therapy		CO ₂ Laser 3 W	NR	(Iraji et al., 2019)
		Nd:YAG laser 1064 nm	200 mJ/cm ²	(Omidian et al., 2019)

λ : wave length, NR: not reported

Table 3

Latest advances in new therapies based on natural products to improve treatment against CL from 2015 to 2020.

Plants derivates	Specie of <i>Leishmania</i>	IC50	Ref.
lapachol extracted <i>Tabebuia</i> , <i>Bignoniaceae</i>	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	191.95 μM^{AM} 79.84 \pm 9.10 μM^{PM}	(Araújo et al., 2019)
clarified juice of <i>Euterpe oleracea Martius</i>		1:30 $^{\text{AM}}$ 1:40 $^{\text{PM}}$	(Da Silva et al., 2018)
<i>Piper angustifolium</i> essential oil	<i>L. infantum</i>	1.43 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$	(Bosquioli et al., 2015)
total phenolic fraction of extra virgin olive oil		213.8 \pm 22.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$ 335.4 \pm 24.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(Koutsoni et al., 2018)
didecyldimethylammonium bromide β -lapachone	<i>L. major</i>	0.3 \pm 0.2 μM^{AM} 1.9 \pm 0.2 μM^{PM}	(Moreno et al., 2015)
seeds of <i>C. tinctorius</i>		23.00 \pm 0.59 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(Maleki et al., 2017)
seeds of <i>P. anisum</i>		15.00 \pm 0.65 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(Maleki et al., 2017)
seeds of <i>C. cyminum</i>		31.00 \pm 0.71 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(Maleki et al., 2017)
<i>Quercus infectoria Olivier</i> extract		10.31 $\text{mg}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$ 12.65 $\text{mg}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(Kheirandish et al., 2016)
aloe-emodin powder		NR	(Dalimi et al., 2015)
cryotherapy + <i>Juniperus excelsa M. Bieb</i> cream		NT	(Parvizi and Handjani, 2017)
<i>Caryocar coriaceum</i> ethyl acetate extracts	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	5.25 \pm 0.46 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(Tomiotto-Pellissier et al., 2018)
crude extract of <i>Guatteria latifolia</i>		30.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$	Ferreira et al., 2017)
		51.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	
(-)- α -bisabolol sesquiterpene alcohol		4.15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$	(Rottini et al., 2015)
		<4.15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	
<i>Maytenus guianensis</i> bark encapsulated in microparticles of PLGA nanostructured lipid carriers loaded with curcumin	<i>L. tropica</i>	190 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$	(Aragão Macedo et al., 2019)
		105 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(Riaz et al., 2019)
TIO2-AG nanoparticles – <i>Nigella sativa</i> oil		NR	(Abamor and Allahverdiyev, 2016)
quercetin in stock solution of phosphate-buffered saline with 2% dimethylsulfoxide	<i>L. braziliensis</i>	NR	(Cataneo et al., 2019)
<i>Cleosratta serrata</i> extract	<i>L. mexicana</i>	6.11 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM,LD50}}$	(Alamilla-Fonseca et al., 2018)
		23.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM,LD50}}$	
<i>Artemisia annua L.</i> leaf powder	<i>L. panamensis</i>	48.07 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM,EC50}}$	(Mesa et al., 2017)
copaiba oil into commercial biopolymeric wound dressings	NT	NT	(Pascoal et al., 2017)
alcoholic extract from <i>Indian podophyllum</i>	NR	NT	(Sharquie et al., 2015)
Larval secretions	Specie of <i>Leishmania</i>	IC50	Ref.
<i>Calliphoridae L. sericata</i> and <i>Sarconesiopsis magellanica</i> excretions and secretions	<i>L. panamensis</i>	72.57 \pm 7.22 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM,LC50}}$ 41.44 \pm 2.87 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(Laverde-Paz et al., 2018)
therapy from <i>L. sericata</i> and <i>Sarconesiopsis magellanica</i>		NT	(Cruz-Saavedra et al., 2016)
excretions and secretions <i>L. sericata</i>	<i>L. major</i>	0.84% $^{\text{AM}}$	(Sanei-Dehkordi et al., 2016)
excretions and secretions <i>C. vicina</i>		1.36% $^{\text{AM}}$	
Other natural derivates	Specie of <i>Leishmania</i>	IC50	Ref.
phospholipase A2(Asp49-PLA2) from <i>Bothrops jararacussu</i> venom: liposomes	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	14.36 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{PM}}$	(de Barros et al., 2016) (de Barros et al., 2018)
biogenic silver nanoparticles by the nitrate reductase enzyme of <i>Fusarium oxysporium</i>		NR	(Fanti et al., 2018)
bacterial cellulose membranes containing diethyldithiocarbamate	<i>L. braziliensis</i>	284.9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2\text{AM}$	(Celes et al., 2016)

IC50: half-maximal inhibitory concentration, EC50: effective concentration 50%, LC50: lethal concentration 50%. LD50: lethal dose 50%, AM: amastigotes, PM: promastigotes, NT: not tested, NR: not reported

other hand, another important approach is de novo discovery, which consists of testing new synthetic molecules against several biological systems to determine their activity. Various classes of compounds have been synthesized, namely aryl S, N-ketene acetals, tetrazole compounds, imidazoline and chalcone, among others. Finally, research is underway to develop drugs that target important metabolic pathways. In this sense, specific antileishmanial agents take advantage of differences in the vital metabolic pathways of the host and pathogens and use parasitic enzymes as targets. For example, several tricyclic molecules have been found to inhibit leishmanial tripanothione (Hazra et al., 2017). Table 4 shows the advances made in molecular targets and new indications for existing drugs against CL since 2015.

It can be clearly seen that the tendency for de novo discovery drugs is based on imidazole compounds, quinolone and chalcone. Furthermore, the marked trend in the design and development of new molecules through bioinformatics, although outside the scope of this review, should not be lost sight of. Developing drugs that target important metabolic pathways focus primarily on different types of cell death depending on their mechanisms of action. For example, the ability of different complex metal compounds to inhibit the activity of DNA topoisomerase was described by several authors. Finally, new indications for existing drugs include a variety of compounds ranging from

dewormers, antibiotics and antifungals to antiseptics (Daie Parizi et al., 2015).

5. Analysis of *in vivo* animals' studies

The publications studied in this review include experimental trials conducted in more than 2,125 animals and 1,457 volunteer patients. Fig. 5 shows an analysis of the *in vivo* studies performed in animals, classifying them according to the animal species, the infection site, the animal sex and the specie of *Leishmania*.

It can be observed that the most widely used animal species for experimental testing is BALB/c mice, possibly for reasons already known such as availability, ease of use and standardized laboratory procedures. Remarkably, even today the footpad of the mouse continues to be chosen as the second site of infection after the base of tail, despite the fact that the injections in the footpad cause painful inflammation and swelling, unrelieved distress or progressive weakening of the animals. Rodents use the front feet to handle food and the rear feet are considered the main structures that support the ventral weight. Instead, the base of the tail is a weightless structure that does not generate unnecessary discomfort if used as an injection site.

On the other hand, there is a tendency to choose females over male

Table 4

Latest advances in the development of new molecular targets to improve treatment against the CL from 2015 to 2020.

De novo discovery drugs	Specie of <i>Leishmania</i>	IC50	Ref.
novel benzoxaborole DNDI-0690	<i>L. major</i>	4.56±1.83 $\mu\text{M}^{\text{AM,EC50}}$	(Van Bocxlaer et al., 2019)
novel nitroimidazole DNDI-6148		2.10±0.4 $\mu\text{M}^{\text{AM,EC50}}$	
novel aminopyrazoles DNDI-1047	<i>L. mexicana</i>	0.24±0.02 $\mu\text{M}^{\text{AM,EC50}}$	(Nieto-Meneses et al., 2018)
28 N-benzyl-1H-benzimidazol-2-amine derivatives: 7		0.28±0.02 μM^{AM}	
2-aryl-quinazolin-4(3H)-ones: 2h	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	5.29 $\mu\text{M}^{\text{AM,EC50}}$	(Romero et al., 2019)
seven synthetic aryl thiosemicarbazones: TS06		18.3±4.04 μM^{AM} 4.8±0.21 μM^{PM}	
quinoline derivative 4-hydranoquinoline analog	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	7.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$	(Antinarelli et al., 2018)
3-nitro-2'-hydroxy-4',6'-dimethoxychalcone radiolabelled		NT	
lipid-core nanocapsules 3-nitro-2-hydroxy-4,6-dimethoxy chalcone trans-chalcone	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	2.90±0.15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$	(Escrivani et al., 2020)
hyaluronic acid-coated liposomes with quinoxaline derivative LSPN331		10.3 μM^{PM}	
synthetic chalcones (1-3)	<i>L. braziliensis</i>	14.79±4.99 μM^{AM}	(de Oliveira et al., 2020)
cinnamic acid derivatives: s (E)-3-oxo-1,3-dihydroisobenzofuran-5-yl-(3,4,5-trimethoxy) cinnamate		34.59±0.48 μM^{PM}	
niodomethyl-N,N-dimethyl-N-(6,6-diphenylhex-5-en-1-yl) ammonium iodide	<i>L. panamensis</i>	NT	(Fernandez et al., 2018)
hydrazones having quinoline cores: 6c		0.8±0.0 $\text{mg}/\text{ml}^{\text{AM}}$	
Drugs targeting important metabolic pathways	Specie of <i>Leishmania</i>	IC50	Ref.
N-benzyl 1-(4-methoxy) phenyl-9H-beta-carboline-3-carboxamide	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	NT	(Mendes et al., 2016)
diethyldithiocarbamate in beeswax - copaiba oil nanoparticles	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	0.55 μM^{PM}	(Mazur et al., 2019)
cis-[Ru ^{II} (η^2 -O ₂ CC ₇ H ₇ O ₂)(dppm) ₂](PF ₆) ₂		NR	
binuclear cyclopalladated complex	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	10.1±2.2 μM^{AM}	(Velásquez et al., 2017)
nanoassemblies of Sb-N-octanoyl-N-methylglucamide complex		13.2 μM^{PM}	
nitric oxide-loaded chitosan nanoparticles CM11 hybrid peptide	<i>L. major</i>	31.5 μM^{PM}	(Cabral et al., 2019)
ru-clotrimazole AM162 and AM160 complexes		9.015 μM^{AM} 6.92 μM^{PM}	
	<i>L. braziliensis</i>	NT	(Iniguez et al., 2016) (Nascimento et al., 2019)

Table 4 (continued)

De novo discovery drugs	Specie of <i>Leishmania</i>	IC50	Ref.
ruthenium nitrosyl complex cis-[Ru(bpy) ₂ (SO ₃)(NO)](PF ₆)			
New indications for existing drugs	Specie of <i>Leishmania</i>	IC50	Ref.
pills of amiodarone	<i>L. major</i>	0.7 μM^{AM} 1 μM^{PM}	(Bemani et al., 2019)
topical simvastatin		NT	(Parihar et al., 2016)
systemic simvastatin		NT	(Parihar et al., 2016)
endoperoxides ascaridole	<i>L. tarentolae</i>	14.1±9.8 μM^{PM}	(Geroldinger et al., 2017)
buparvaquone	<i>L. tropica</i>	0.53±0.21 μM^{AM} 0.15±0.14 μM^{PM}	(Jamal et al., 2015)
fluconazole	<i>L. braziliensis</i>	NT	(Prates et al., 2017)
Tamoxifen	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (resistant to MLF)	12.66±1.75 $\mu\text{M}^{\text{PM,EC50}}$	(Coelho et al., 2015)
intralesional or oral chloroquine	NR	NT	(Hanif et al., 2016)
rifamycin		NT	(Al-Sudany and Ali, 2016)
liposomal azithromycin		NT	(Rajabi et al., 2016)
tincture of thioxolone + benzoxonium chloride (Thio-Ben) + cryotherapy		NT	(Daie Parizi et al., 2015)
pyrazinamide	NT	NT	(Voelkner et al., 2018)

IC50: half-maximal inhibitory concentration, EC50: effective concentration 50%, AM: amastigotes, PM: promastigotes, NT: not tested, NR: not reported

animals, although it is necessary to avoid certain trends since they generate results that are not representative of the entire population. Furthermore, data from infected human patients in the Americas published by SisLeish, report that 70% of cases were male (PAHO, 2019). Finally, the most studied species are *L. amazonensis*, *L. major*, *L. braziliensis* and *L. mexicana*, which is half-consistent with the report published in 2009 by WHO / Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) on the distribution of species in the Americas that reveals that the predominant species are *L. braziliensis*, *L. infantum*, *L. guyanensis*, *L. amazonensis* and *L. panamensis* (PAHO, 2009).

6. Conclusions

WHO treatment recommendations for CL are based on the causative species, geographical area, and the clinical features of the disease. It ranges from no treatment, mainly for infections due to *L. mexicana* or *L. major*, to topical or systemic approaches. Current chemotherapeutic treatments produce severe adverse effects and have poor compliance by the patient because in most cases a daily systemic (IV or IM) administration is required for periods ranging from 3 to 5 weeks. For these reasons, nowadays there is a marked trend for research aimed at topical applications, in addition to the fact that this therapy can decrease the risk/benefit ratio, reduce the cost of the treatment and improve patient compliance.

Although drug therapy is the most commonly used treatment for leishmaniasis, its prolonged or inefficient use has resulted, as expected, in widespread drug resistance, and today, several clinical cases do not respond to the first-line drug, the pentavalent antimony. This situation has triggered alarm signals regarding the possibility of the development of resistance to MLF, which is the new oral drug since relapses have been reported among cases treated with this drug. In addition, there are

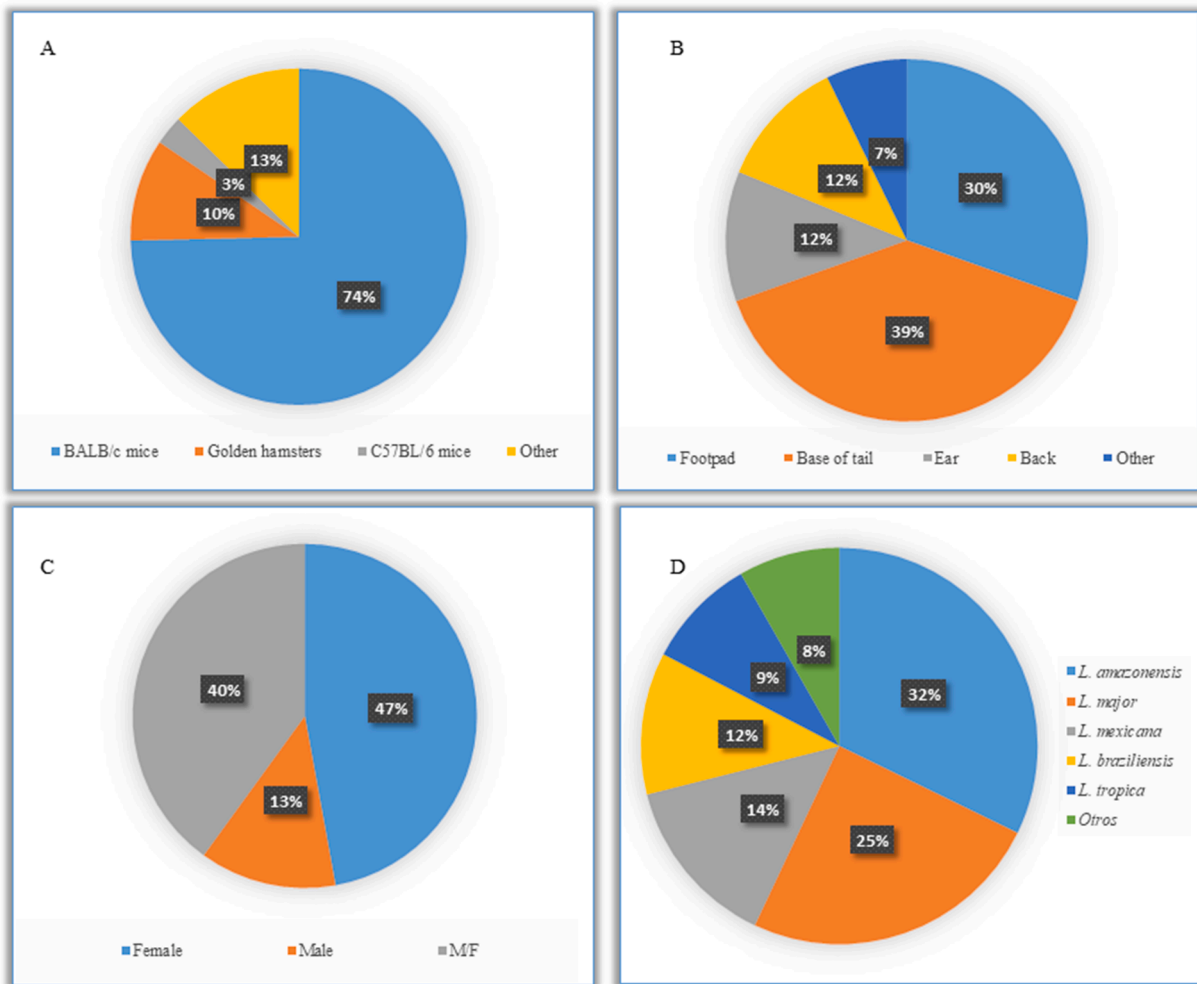


Fig. 5. Classification of articles with *in vivo* tests according to: animal specie (A), infection site (B), animal sex (C), and *Leishmania* sp. (D).

currently no vaccines available against any form of leishmaniasis. The emergence of resistant strains drives the ongoing and urgent search for new drugs against leishmaniasis that are safe and effective in inducing a long-term cure, but this is mainly at the level of individual researchers.

Many researches are focused on evaluating the combination of drugs to achieve a synergistic effect that allows reducing the dose, and therefore, minimizing side effects.

Another strategy widely explored to reduce adverse effects is the use of carriers to deliver currently used drugs, which also allows in some cases to change the administration route. In this regard, nanotechnology provides interesting tools for the development of new drug delivery systems.

The treatment of leishmaniasis will most likely evolve into an approach that uses multiple therapies simultaneously to reduce the possibility of developing drug resistance. An interesting strategy among the possible treatments is drug repositioning, that is, drugs already used for other diseases. This approach is driving many pharmaceutical researches in the last years.

Undoubtedly, more funding is needed in this area, as well as greater participation of the pharmaceutical industry to focus efforts on the development of chemotherapeutic agents and vaccines for this and other neglected tropical diseases.

Declaration of Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence

the work reported in this paper.

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