

Case Report

Evaluation of *Trypanosoma cruzi* parasitic load by real-time PCR and blood culture in long-term kidney transplant recipients

Juliana de Jesus Guimarães Ferreira¹, Eros Antonio de Almeida¹, Gláucia Elisete Barbosa Marcon², Rodrigo Gonçalves Lima¹, Mariane Barroso Pereira¹, Fernanda Ramos Gadelha³, Marilda Mazzali⁴, Luiz Cláudio Martins¹, Jamiro Silva Wanderley¹, Sandra Cecília Botelho Costa¹

¹ Department of Medical Clinic, School of Medical Sciences, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas, Brazil

² Oswaldo Cruz Foundation Mato Grosso do Sul (FIOCRUZ MS), Campo Grande, Brazil

³ Department of Biochemistry and Tissue Biology, Biology Institute, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas, Brazil

⁴ Department of Nephrology, School of Medical Sciences, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas, Brazil

Abstract

Introduction: Acute Chagas disease involving reactivation can occur after organ transplant, and follow-up by direct parasitological or molecular methods is essential for monitoring the parasitic load in such patients. In contrast, there is a little data on the parasitic load in long-term organ recipients. In this study, we examined the parasitic load in long-term kidney transplant patients and assessed the possibility of late Chagas disease reactivation.

Methodology: Blood cultures and real-time PCR were used to assess the parasitic load in four immunosuppressed patients who underwent kidney transplants (between 1996 and 2014) and were also treated for parasites.

Results: There were no positive blood culture or real-time PCR results in Chagas disease patients who received kidney transplants. The real-time PCR presented detection limit of 0.1 parasite equivalent/mL. The time interval between the transplant and sample collection varied from one to 19 years.

Conclusions: No parasites were detected in the evaluated patients. The use of benznidazole and immunosuppressive therapy may have contributed to control the *T. cruzi* infection. In transplanted patients with Chagas disease, the use of methods such real-time PCR and blood culture can monitor the parasitic load and prevent disease reactivation.

Key words: Chagas disease; Kidney transplant; real-time PCR.

J Infect Dev Ctries 2021; 15(11):1774-1781. doi:10.3855/jidc.13973

(Received 21 September 2020 – Accepted 22 February 2021)

Copyright © 2021 Jesus Guimarães Ferreira *et al.* This is an open-access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Introduction

Chagas disease is a neglected disease that affects 6-8 million people worldwide and is considered endemic in 21 countries of Central and South America [1]. Chagas disease is caused by the flagellate protozoan *Trypanosoma cruzi* and is transmitted by contaminated feces of triatomine bugs. Other forms of transmission currently recognized include congenital transmission, blood transfusions, organ transplants, infected food, and accidental infection in laboratories [2]. The transmission of Chagas disease through the donation of infected organs (liver, heart, lung, and kidney) had been described in various countries and is apparently associated with the migration of people from endemic to non-endemic areas.[3–8]. In Brazil, mandatory pre-transplant screening of organ donors and recipients has been implemented to minimize such transmission and reactivation of the disease [9].

An additional complication involves the reactivation of Chagas disease in individuals on immunosuppressive therapy that is commonly used to avoid transplant rejection. The reactivation of Chagas disease is usually more serious than the primary acute phase of the disease since it can cause the resurgence or worsening of cardiological and/or neurological symptoms.

Most cases of reactivation involve subjects HIV-seropositive subjects or heart transplant recipients and reports of Chagas disease reactivation have been reported in kidney transplant recipients, with most of them involving case reports. This reduced number of reports may reflect the fact that kidney injury is a comorbidity that is not generally associated with the pathology of Chagas disease. The most extensive study of Chagas disease patients who underwent kidney transplants detected *T. cruzi* infection in 17.22% of

donors and recipients in a series of 238 patients in Argentina; Chagas disease reactivation was observed in 21.7% of organ recipients [10]. Specialists recommend that organ recipients be monitored for Chagas disease reactivation for at least two years after transplants and at any interval after the intensification of immunosuppressive therapy [11,12].

In Brazil, there are approximately 5,700 kidney transplants each year [13], with a progressive increase for this intervention in elderly patients because of renal disease [14]. This scenario favors reactivation of the disease since most patients with chronic Chagas disease are elderly and present a variety of comorbidities [15–17].

Since the use of immunosuppressive therapy decreases with the length of time since organ transplant, it is expected that the parasitic load will also decrease correspondingly. However, factors such as age and other comorbidities may increase the parasitic load. In view of the limited amount of data available in the relationship between Chagas disease, parasitic load, and the length of time since renal transplants, in this study we used real-time PCR and blood culture to assess the parasitic load in these patients.

Methodology

This study involved a retrospective analysis of the medical records from the Nephrology Clinic at the University Hospital of the State University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas São Paulo state, southeastern Brazil. The criteria for inclusion were: having had a kidney transplant, having a positive Chagas disease serology, having received immunosuppressive therapy, and remaining a patient of the Nephrology Clinic. The patients' physical and/or electronic medical records were reviewed to collect personal and epidemiological data related to kidney transplants and Chagas disease. Thirty milliliters of venous blood was collected from each participant for blood cultures (24 mL) and real-time PCR (6 mL).

This study was approved by an institutional Ethics Committee (approval number CAAE 45940515.5.0000.5404). All patients enrolled in this investigation were informed about the study prior to participation and provided informed consent form that allowed access to their data.

Blood Culture

Blood cultures were obtained as described by Chiari *et al.* [18] and Luz *et al.* [19]. Twenty-four milliliters of venous blood was collected in four vacuum tubes with EDTA followed by centrifugation (1,903 g, 10 minutes,

4 °C). The plasma was removed and the erythrocyte pellet was washed with liver infusion tryptose (LIT) culture medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum and 10% penicillin/streptomycin. The supernatant was discarded and the erythrocyte pellet was resuspended in 6 mL of LIT followed by incubation at 28 °C. The cultures were examined microscopically (40× magnification) every 15 days until a positive result was obtained or until 120 days had elapsed.

Isolation of genomic DNA

Genomic DNA was isolated from leukocytes immediately after collecting blood into EDTA-containing vacuum tubes. The blood was centrifuged twice (752 g, 4 °C, 10 minutes each) with 12 mL of red cell lysis buffer (0.0114 M NH₄Cl and 0.01 M NH₄HCO₃). After the second centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was resuspended in 5 mL of TKM1 buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6, 10 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, and 20 mM EDTA) and 1 mL of Triton X-100[®]. After further centrifugation (52 g, 15 minutes, 4° C), the supernatant was again discarded, and the pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of TKM1 buffer and centrifuged a final time (8,000 g, 5 minutes, room temperature). The supernatant was discarded, leaving the leucocyte pellet. After cell lysis, DNA was extracted using a High Pure PCR template preparation (Roche[®], Basel, Switzerland), according to the manufacturer's recommendations, followed by elution in 200 µL of elution buffer. Aliquots were stored at -20 °C.

Quantitative PCR

Standard curve

Epimastigote forms of *T. cruzi* (DTU TCII) were obtained from positive blood culture of a patient with Chagas disease and cultured in LIT medium. When the culture was in the logarithmic phase, the parasite number was determined in a Neubauer chamber and found to be 1.25×10⁵ parasite equivalents/mL. DNA was extracted from this culture, and serial dilutions were prepared in water (1.25×10⁵ to 1.25×10⁻³ parasite equivalents/mL). Using these dilutions, the standard curve was built and used as a basis to compare the results obtained from patients.

real-time PCR

Sample quantification was done as described by Piron *et al.* [20]. Primers *Cruzi* 1 forward (5' ASTCGGCTGATCGTTTTTCGA 3') and *Cruzi* 2 reverse (3' AATTCCTCCAAGCAGCGGATA 5') amplified a 166 base pair sequence of *T. cruzi* satellite

DNA. The sequence *Cruzi 3* (FAM-CACACACTGGACACCAA) was used as the probe. Each reaction consisted of 1x Taqman Universal Master Mix with UNG (Applied Biosystems), RNase P 0.1x (Applied Biosystems), 500 nM of each primer (*Cruzi 1* and *Cruzi 2*), 200 nM of probe (*Cruzi 3*), 3 μ L of DNA and deionized water to complete 30 μ L. The RNase P gene (Applied Biosystems®) was used to confirm DNA intactness, monitor the reproducibility and yield of DNA, and confirm the absence of PCR inhibitors. A Rotor-Gene 6000 real-time PCR cycler (Corbett® Life Science, Australia) was used for quantification. The cycle of reactions consisted of one cycle at 50 °C for 2 minutes, one at 95 °C for 10 minutes, and 45 cycles at 95 °C for 15 seconds and 58 °C for 1 minutes. The results were quantified using Rotor-Gene software v.1.7.87 and were considered valid when the samples showed RNase P gene amplification and were positive when the cycle threshold (CT) was < 40. Samples with amplification signals ≥ 0.1 parasite equivalents/mL were considered quantifiable. Samples without DNA (no template control) were included in each run to confirm the absence of contaminants during sample preparation. Samples that showed no amplification signal were considered negative.

Results

Four subjects who were carriers of Chagas disease and underwent kidney transplants were evaluated from August 2015 to August 2016. The patients were analyzed individually, with the small total number ($n = 4$) precluding statistical analysis of the results. The mean age was 55.2 years (range: 35-66 years), with three of the patients being female; all patients were born in areas endemic for Chagas disease. Three patients had the cardiac form and one an undetermined form of the disease. Analysis of these clinical parameters were

based on II Brazilian Consensus on Chagas disease [2]. The earliest transplant was done in 1996 ($n = 1$), with the remainder being done in 2010 (1), 2011 (1), and 2014 (1). Antiparasitic treatment was administered in all cases, before or at the time of the transplant. The time interval between the transplant and sample collection varied from one to 19 years. No parasitic load was detected in any of the patients, whether by blood culture or real-time PCR (Table 1). The real-time PCR runs showed good parameters up to 1.25×10^{-1} parasite equivalent/mL (Efficiency = 0.96; $R^2 = 0.99$; Slope = -3.42).

Case 1

A female patient, 66 years old, from the state of Paraíba in northeastern Brazil, was diagnosed with indeterminate Chagas disease in May 1995, based on Machado-Guerreiro reaction (1/4) and indirect immunofluorescence (IFI - 1/40). In January 1996 the patient had positive xenodiagnoses. The mode of Chagas disease transmission was uncertain because even though the patient was from a region where the disease was endemic, she had also received five blood transfusions during her life. The basal disease was chronic renal failure secondary to pyelonephritis. In June 1996, the patient received benznidazole for 60 days followed by a kidney transplant from a live donor the following July, there were no complications. Immunosuppressive therapy at the time of transplant consisted of cyclosporine 350 mg, azathioprine 150 mg, and prednisone 100 mg. Despite the absence of symptoms associated with acute Chagas disease after the transplant, there was an increase in serum titers for Chagas disease so antiparasitic treatment was restarted for an additional two months. Blood samples for blood culture and real-time PCR were obtained in December 2015. Immunosuppressive therapy at this point

Table 1. Profile of patients enrolled in this study.

Characteristics	P01	P02	P03	P04	Range / Mean
Sex	Female	Female	Male	Female	
Age	71	39	67	44	39-71 / 55.2
Clinical form of CD	Und	Cardiac	Cardiac	Cardiac	
Geographic region	Paraíba	Minas Gerais	Minas Gerais	Minas Gerais	
Underlying disease	CRI - Pyelonephritis	Chronic GN	Chronic GN	Und CRI	
Transplant date	1996	2010	2011	2014	
Donor type	Related living	Deceased	Deceased	Deceased	
Antiparasitic treatment (year)	1996	2013	2010	2011	
Period between transplant and sample collect (years)	19	6	5	1	1-19
Blood culture	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative	
Real-time PCR	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative	

CRI: Chronic Renal Insufficiency; GN: Glomerulonephritis; Und: Undetermined, Mycophenolate precursors.

consisted of cyclosporine 100 mg, prednisone 5 mg, and allopurinol 100 mg. The last medical evaluation was in March 2020, and the medicines in use were cyclosporine 100 mg, prednisone 5 mg, omeprazole 40 mg, folic acid 5 mg, simvastatin 20 mg, and vitamin D 20,000 U/week. The patient had comorbidities that included hypertension, hepatitis C, thalassemia trait, repetitive urinary tract infections, gastric neoplasm, and condylomatosis.

Case 2

A female patient, 40 years old, from the state of Minas Gerais in southeastern Brazil, had a chronic renal failure of undetermined cause and received a kidney from a deceased donor in May 2010. Chagas disease was detected after the transplant, based on the results of routine tests, by ELISA and IFI (1/640) tests. Blood forms trypomastigotes were not detected in direct tests. At that time, immunosuppressive therapy consisted of tacrolimus 10 mg, sodium mycophenolate 1080 mg, basiliximab 20 mg, and methylprednisolone 500 mg. The patient received antiparasitic treatment in June 2013, because she showed progression from the undetermined form of Chagas disease to the cardiac form, developing block of the anterosuperior division of the left bundle branch. Blood samples for blood culture and real-time PCR were collected in January 2016. At that time, immunosuppressive therapy consisted of tacrolimus 2 mg, sodium mycophenolate 1,440 mg, and prednisone 2.5 mg. The last medical evaluation was in January 2020, when the patient present the following comorbidities: hypertension, persistent hyperparathyroidism, dyslipidemia, and repetitive urinary tract infections. The medications in use were tacrolimus 2 mg, sodium mycophenolate 1,440 mg, prednisone 2.5 mg, omeprazole 40 mg, nitrofurantoin 100 mg, atorvastatin 20 mg, furosemide 40 mg, cinacalcet 60 mg, atenolol 50 mg, and amiodarone 200 mg.

Case 3

A male patient, 63 years old, from the state of Paraná in southern Brazil, was diagnosed with the undetermined form of Chagas disease in 2010 based on immunological results (ELISA and IFI 1/1280), he later developed the cardiac form with left branch block and received benznidazole for 60 days starting in February 2010. His basal disease was diabetic nephropathy he received a kidney from a deceased donor in June 2011. At the time, immunosuppressive therapy consisted of tacrolimus 10 mg, sodium mycophenolate 360 mg, methylprednisolone 500 mg, and basiliximab 20 mg.

There where no symptoms of Chagas disease reactivation and *T. cruzi* blood forms were not detected after transplantation. Blood samples were collected for blood culture and real-time PCR in January 2016. At this point, immunosuppressive therapy was consisted of azathioprine 100 mg and prednisone 10 mg. The patient had several comorbidities that included diabetes mellitus type 2, hypertension, osteoporosis, urethra stenosis, repetitive urinary tract infections, and subclinical hypothyroidism. The last medical evaluation occurred in January 2020, at which time the medicines in use were azathioprine 50 mg, prednisone 5 mg, losartan 50 mg, clonidine 0.15 mg, metformin 500 mg, hydralazine 50 mg, furosemide 40 mg, alendronate 70 mg/week, folic acid 5 mg, ferrous sulfate 40 mg, omeprazole 20 mg, aspirin 100 mg, simvastatin 20 mg, calcium carbonate 500 mg, cephalexin 500 mg, nitrofurantoin 100 mg and regular insulin.

Case 4

A female patient, 34 years old, from the state of Minas Gerais State in southeastern Brazil. She was diagnosed with the undetermined form of Chagas disease in 2010 (ELISA and IFI 1/160). Approximately one year later, the disease evolved to the cardiac form with a block of the anterosuperior division of the left bundle branch. In 2011, she received benznidazole for 60 days. The patient had chronic glomerulonephritis and received a kidney from a deceased donor in January 2014. The immunosuppressive therapy at the time consisted of tacrolimus 5 mg, methylprednisone 500 mg, sodium mycophenolate 360 mg and anti-thymocyte immunoglobulin 5 mg. Blood samples were collected for blood culture and real-time PCR in December 2015. At this point, immunosuppressive therapy consisted of tacrolimus 5 mg, sodium mycophenolate 720 mg and prednisone 10 mg. The patient underwent a medical evaluation in January 2020 and presented comorbidities that included hypertension, hypothyroidism, hepatic steatosis and discrete cholelithiasis. The medicines in use were prednisone 5 mg, tacrolimus 2 mg, sodium mycophenolate 360 mg, atorvastatin 20 mg, aspirin 100 mg, omeprazole 20 mg, carvedilol 12.5 mg, puran 62.5 mg and nortriptyline 25 mg.

Discussion

Serological screening before blood transfusion and organ transplants is an efficient means for minimizing the transmission of Chagas disease. According to the II Brazilian Consensus for Chagas disease [2], transplant recipients who test positive for the disease must be

followed-up to monitor any increase in parasitic load. Screening tests should be performed weekly for the first two months post-transplant, every two weeks in the third month, and then monthly for at least six months [21]. The methods commonly used in these cases comprise direct methods, such as blood smear or concentration techniques, e.g., microhematocrit or the Strout method [2].

Patients who undergo kidney transplants receive immunosuppressive drugs to minimize rejection of the new organ. However, immunosuppression may result in the reactivation of latent infections such as Chagas disease. Immunological tests to detect anti-*T. cruzi* antibodies are usually applied for identifying chronic Chagas disease. Since kidney transplant patients on immunosuppressive therapy commonly have low levels of IgG isotypes, serology should not be used to assess Chagas disease reactivation during immunosuppression [2]. Approximately 22% of Chagas disease patients who undergo kidney transplants without prior antiparasitic treatment show reactivation of the disease [10]. However, the rate of reactivation may vary among different centers and in relation to the organ received [11,22]; this rate may also be influenced by undiagnosed and unpublished cases, especially from non-endemic countries [23].

In this work, we examined the parasitic load in four long-term kidney recipients, several years after the transplant, based on screening with real-time PCR and blood culture tests. Blood culture provides an indirect, semi-quantitative assessment of parasitic load. This test, which has high specificity low sensitivity, allows the genotyping of *T. cruzi*, although the parasite lineage may interfere with the sensitivity of the test [24,25]. None of the patients screened here had a blood culture positive for *T. cruzi*.

Although direct methods provide a well-standardized means of detecting Chagas disease reactivation, conventional PCR has been used for the early detection of such reactivation in heart transplant patients [26]. PCR has also been used as a confirmatory method after kidney transplants [27–31]. In one case, an inconclusive diagnosis of Chagas disease was reached in a kidney recipient with cardiac manifestations considered to be indicative of disease reactivation; in this case, direct and indirect parasitological test results were negative whereas the nested-PCR was positive [32]. Although conventional PCR is more sensitive than direct methods, this test still has some limitations [33].

Quantitative PCR is a useful tool for analyzing the parasitic load during *T. cruzi* infection because of its ability to quantify DNA. This method has been widely

used to monitor the parasitic load in HIV subjects and was also used to analyze a case of Chagas disease reactivation in a patient with follicular lymphoma [34,35]. In the present study, the detection limit for the parasitic load was 0.1 parasite equivalents/mL, a level similar to that obtained by Ramirez *et al.* (0.2 parasite equivalents/mL) [36].

The lack of a standardized protocol for real-time PCR among laboratories, led Schijman *et al.* (2011) [37] to analyze the real-time PCR protocols used to detect chronic infection; the parameters examined included the type of biologic samples, the method and efficiency of DNA extraction, the *T. cruzi* molecular target used, and reaction conditions. Two of the various protocols examined showed better sensitivity, one of which (described by Piron *et al.* [20] was used in the present study. Although the real-time PCR was able to detect 0.1 parasite equivalents/mL, none of the four patients examined showed any parasites DNA.

Immunosuppression is generally induced with high drug doses, while maintenance of the immunosuppression state involves the use of decreasing doses over time and a good outcome of the graft in the host [38]. The intensification of immunosuppression increases the risk of reactivation [22,39]. The type of organ transplanted may also influence the rate of reactivation. For example, few studies have examined Chagas disease reactivation after liver transplants, possibly because of the drug doses used in immunosuppressive therapy in such cases [11,12].

In this study, all patients were on maintenance immunosuppressive therapy at the time of sample collection. Despite variation in the triple therapy and doses used by the patients, all of them followed the recommendations of the Brazilian Ministry of Health [38]. Whereas the use of mycophenolate mofetil has been reported to increase the reactivation of Chagas disease in heart transplant patients [40,41], such reactivation was not seen here after renal transplants .

Antiparasitic treatment with benznidazole is more effective in the acute phase of Chagas disease compared to the chronic phase [2]. Although no randomized clinical trials have assessed the use of benznidazole in immunocompromised subjects [12], some authors have reported satisfactory outcomes with this drug in the long-term survival of patients [22,23,42]. In the present investigation, no symptoms of Chagas disease reactivation were observed immediately after transplantation, nor were there any side effects related to the use of benznidazole.

Several factors may influence the real-time PCR results in immunosuppressed subjects. A low parasitic

load is usually found in chronic Chagas patients > 50 years old [15] and was also observed in the patients in this study. Fluctuations in the sensitivity of the method may reflect transitory and intermittent parasitemia of *T. cruzi* in the host. Factors such as blood volume, sampling frequency and the time interval between sample collection and processing may also affect the sensitivity of the method [43]. One limitation of the present observational study was the small number of the patients analyzed, which precluded rigorous statistical analysis. This limitation could be overcome by undertaking a multicentric study.

Conclusions

No parasites were detected in the patients screened by blood culture or real-time PCR methods. The lack of detection of *T. cruzi* in this study may reflect the fact that the patients were evaluated in the chronic phase of Chagas disease. In addition, the prior use of benznidazole combined with maintenance immunosuppressive therapy may have contributed to control of the *T. cruzi* infection since the function of the immune system is close to normal in this condition. However, a follow-up of at least once a year must be used to avoid late reactivation of the disease.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the patients who participated in this study, the hospital staff and laboratory colleagues who helped with the investigation, Irene Côrrea for helping to schedule the patients, James Welch and Stephen Hyslop for revising English grammar. J.J.G.F. was supported by an MSc scholarship from Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES, Finance code 001). This research received funding from Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP, grant no. 2016/08737-0).

Funding

Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP grant no. 2016/08737-0 Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES, Finance code 001).

References

1. World Health Organization (WHO) (2017) Chagas disease (American trypanosomiasis). Available: <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs340/en/> Accessed 13 May 2020.
2. Dias JCP, Ramos Jr AN, Gontijo ED, Luquetti A, Shikanai-Yasuda MA, Coura JR, Torres RM, Melo JRC, Almeida EA, Oliveira Jr W, Silveira AC, Rezende JM, Pinto FS, Ferreira AW, Rassi A, Fragata Filho AA, Sousa AS, Correia Filho D, Jansen AM, Andrade GMQ, Brito CFPC, Pinto AYN, Rassi Jr A, Campos DE, Abad-Franch F, Santos SE, Chiari E, Hasslocher-Moreno AM, Moreira EF, Marques, DSO, Silva EL, Marin-Neto JA, Galvão LMC, Xavier SS, Valente SAS, Carvalho NB, Cardoso AV, Albuquerque e Silva R, Costa VM, Vivaldini SM, Oliveira SM, Valente VC, Lima MM, Alves RV (2016) 2nd Brazilian Consensus on Chagas Disease, 2015. *Rev Soc Bras Med Trop* 49 Suppl 1: 3-60.
3. Barcán L, Lunaó C, Clara L, Sinagra A, Valledor A, de Rissioí AM, Gadanoá A, García MM, Santibañes E, Riarte A (2005) Transmission of *T. cruzi* infection via liver transplantation to a nonreactive recipient for Chagas' disease. *Liver Transplant* 11: 1112–1116.
4. Salvador F, Len O, Molina I, Sulleiro E, Saudela S, Bilbao I, Castelis L, Pont T, Gavaldá J, Pahissa A (2011) Safety of liver transplantation with Chagas disease-seropositive donors for seronegative recipients. *Liver Transplant* 17: 1304–1308.
5. McCormack L, Quiñónez E, Goldaracena N, Anders M, Rodríguez V, Ganem FO, Mastai RC (2012) Liver transplantation using chagas-infected donors in uninfected recipients: a single-center experience without prophylactic therapy. *Am J Transplant* 12: 2832–2837.
6. Kun H, Moore A, Mascola L, Steurer F, Lawrence G, Kubak B, Radhakrishna S, Leiby D, Herron R, Mone T, Hunter R, Kuehnert M (2009) Transmission of *Trypanosoma cruzi* by heart transplantation. *Clin Infect Dis* 48: 1534–1540.
7. Ferraz A, Figueiredo J (1993) Transmission of Chagas' disease through transplanted kidney: occurrence of the acute form of the disease in two recipients from the same donor. *Rev Inst Med Trop S Paulo* 35: 461–463.
8. Corey AB, Sonetti D, Maloney JD, Montgomery SP, Rademacher BL, Taylor LJ, Smith JA, Striker R (2017) Case report transmission of donor-derived *Trypanosoma cruzi* and subsequent development of Chagas disease in a lung transplant recipient. *Case reports Infect Dis* 2017: 5381072.
9. Brazilian Ministry of Health (2009) Legislation number 2600, 21 October 2009. Available: http://bvsms.saude.gov.br/bvs/saudelegis/gm/2009/prt2600_21_10_2009.htm Accessed 23 March 2020 [Article in Portuguese].
10. Riarte A, Luna C, Sabatiello R, Sinagra A, Schiavelli R, De Rissio A, Maiolo E, Garcia MM, Jacob N, Pattin M, Lauricella M, Segura EL, Vázquez M (1999) Chagas' disease in patients with Kidney transplants: 7 years of experience. *Clin Infect Dis* 29: 561–567.
11. Pinazo MJ, Miranda B, Rodríguez-Villar C, Altclas J, Serra MB, García-Otero EC, Almeida EA, García MM, Gascon J, Rodríguez MG, Manito N, Camacho AM, Oppenheimer F, Puente SP, Riarte A, Coromas JS, Lletí MS, Sanz GF, Torrico F, Tendero DT, Ussetti P, Shikanai-Yasuda MA (2011) Recommendations for management of Chagas disease in organ and hematopoietic tissue transplantation programs in nonendemic areas. *Transplant Rev* 25: 91–101.

12. Pierrotti LC, Carvalho NB, Amorim JP, Pascual J, Kotton CN, López-Vélez R (2018) Chagas disease recommendations for solid-organ transplant recipients and donors. *Transplantation* 102: S1–S7.
13. Piovesan A, Nahas W (2018) Renal transplantation in Brazil and its insertion in the global context. *Rev Med (São Paulo)* 97: 334–339. Available: [Article in Portuguese].
14. Orlandi PF, Cristelli MP, Aldworth CAR, Freitas TVS, Felipe CR, Silva Junior HT, Pestana JOMA (2015) Long-term outcomes of elderly kidney transplant recipients. *J Bras Nefrol* 37: 212–220.
15. Pereira MB, Batista AM, Aguiar C, Marcon GEB, Martins LC, Guariento ME, Costa SCB, Almeida EA (2016) The detection of *Trypanosoma cruzi* by nested-PCR in elderly patients: relationship to the clinical and epidemiological profile. *Pathog Glob Health* 110: 228-232.
16. Pereira LS, Freitas EC, Fidalgo ASOB, Andrade MC, Cândido DS, Silva Filho JD, Michailowsky V, Oliveira MF, Queiroz JAN (2015) Clinical and epidemiological profile of elderly patients with Chagas disease followed between 2005-2013 by pharmaceutical care service in Ceará State, Northeastern Brazil. *Rev Inst Med Trop São Paulo* 57: 145–152.
17. Alves R, Thomaz R, Almeida E, Wanderley J, Guariento M (2009) Chagas' disease and ageing: the coexistence of other chronic diseases with Chagas' disease in elderly patients. *Rev Soc Bras Med Trop* 42: 622–628.
18. Chiari E, Dias JC, Lana M, Chiari C (1989) Hemocultures for the parasitological diagnosis of human chronic Chagas' disease. *Rev Soc Bras Med Trop* 22: 19–23.
19. Luz ZMP (1999) Changes in the hemoculture methodology improve the test positivity. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz* 94: 295–298.
20. Piron M, Fisa R, Casamitjana N, López-Chejade P, Puig L, Vergés M, Gascon J, Gómez i Prat J, Portús M, Saudela S (2007) Development of a real-time PCR assay for *Trypanosoma cruzi* detection in blood samples. *Acta Trop* 103: 195–200.
21. La Hoz RM, Morris MI (2019) Tissue and blood protozoa including toxoplasmosis, Chagas disease, leishmaniasis, Babesia, Acanthamoeba, Balamuthia, and Naegleria in solid organ transplant recipients— Guidelines from the American Society of Transplantation Infectious Diseases Community. *Clin Transplant* 33: e13546.
22. Lattes R, Lasala MB (2014) Chagas disease in the immunosuppressed patient. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 20: 300–309.
23. Lattes R, Nagel C, Diez M, Schijman A, Vigliano C (2010) Chagas' disease and solid organ transplantation. *Transplant Proc* 42: 3354–3359.
24. Lewis M, Ma J, Yeo M, Carrasco HJ, Llewellyn MS, Miles MA (2009) Genotyping of *Trypanosoma cruzi*: systematic selection of assays allowing rapid and accurate discrimination of all known lineages. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 81: 1041–1049.
25. Leiby DA, Nguyen ML, Proctor MC, Townsend RL, Stramer SL (2017) Frequency of *Trypanosoma cruzi* parasitemia among infected blood donors with a potential association between parasite lineage and transfusion transmission. *Transfusion* 57: 1426–1432.
26. Schijman AG, Vigliano C, Burgos J, Favaloro R, Perrone S, Laguens R, Levin MJ (2000) Early diagnosis of recurrence of *Trypanosoma cruzi* infection by polymerase chain reaction after heart transplantation of a chronic chagas' heart disease patient. *J Hear Lung Transplant* 19: 1114–1117.
27. Kocher C, Seegerer S, Schleich A, Caduff R, Wyler LG, Müller V, Beck B, Blum J, Kamarachev J, Mueller NJ (2012) Skin lesions, malaise, and heart failure in a renal transplant recipient. *Transpl Infect Dis* 14: 391–397.
28. Gómez-P CF, Mantilla-H JC, Rodríguez-Morales AJ (2014) Fatal Chagas disease among solid-organ transplant recipients in Colombia. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 1: ofu032.
29. Cicora F, Escurra V, Bibolini J, Petroni J, González I, Roberti J (2014) Cerebral trypanosomiasis in a renal transplant recipient. *Transpl Infect Dis* 16: 813–817.
30. Ortiz AM, Troncoso P, Sainz M, Vilches S (2010) Prophylaxis and treatment of Chagas disease in renal transplant donor and recipient: case report. *Transplant Proc* 42: 393–394.
31. Gallerano V, Consigli J, Pereyra S, Zanni SG, Danielo C, Gallerano RH, Guidi A (2007) Chagas' disease reactivation with skin symptoms in a patient with kidney transplant. *Int J Dermatol* 46: 607–610.
32. Ferreira JJG, Marcon GB, Martins LC, Costa SCB, Almeida EA (2017) Kidney transplantation patient with discordant diagnostic tests for Chagas disease: case report. *JSM Atheroscler* 2: 1028.
33. Duffy T, Bisio M, Altchek J, Burgos JM, Diez M, Levin MJ, Favaloro RR, Freilij H, Schijman AG (2009) Accurate real-time PCR strategy for monitoring bloodstream parasitic loads in chagas disease patients. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 3: e419.
34. Freitas VLT, Silva SCV, Sartori AM, Bezerra RC, Westphalen EVN, Molina TD, Teixeira ARL, Ibrahim KY, Shikanai-Yasuda MA (2011) Real-Time PCR in HIV/*Trypanosoma cruzi* coinfection with and without Chagas disease reactivation: association with HIV viral load and CD4. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 5: e1277.
35. Garzón MI, Sánchez AG, Goy MC, Alvarellos T, Zarate AH, Basquiera AL, Garcia JJ, Caeiro JP (2015) Reactivation of Chagas disease in a patient with follicular lymphoma diagnosed by means of quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 2: ofv060.
36. Ramírez JC, Cura CI, Moreira OC, Lages-Silva E, Juiz N, Velázquez E, Ramírez JD, Alberti A, Pavia P, Flores-Chávez MD, Muñoz-Calderón A, Pérez-Morales D, Santalla J, Guedes PMM, Peneau J, Marcet P, Padilla C, Cruz-Robles D, Valencia E, Crisante GE, Greif G, Zulantay I, Costales JA, Alvarez-Martínez M, Martínez NE, Villarreal R, Villarreal S, Sánchez Z, Bisio M, Parrado R, Galvão LMC, Câmara ACJ, Espinoza B, Noya BA, Puerta C, Riart A, Diosque P, Sosa-Estani S, Guhl F, Ribeiro I, Aznar C, Britto C, Yadón ZE, Schijman AG (2015) Analytical validation of quantitative Real-Time PCR methods for quantification of *Trypanosoma cruzi* DNA in blood samples from Chagas disease patients. *J Mol Diagn* 17: 605–615.
37. Schijman AG, Bisio M, Orellana L, Sued M, Duffy T, Jaramillo AMM, Cura C, Auter F, Veron V, Qvarnstrom Y, Deborggraeve S, Hajar G, Zulantay I, Lucero RH, Velazquez E, Tellez T, Leon ZS, Galvão L, Nolder D, Rumi MM, Levi JE, Ramirez JD, Zorrilla P, Flores M, Jercic MI, Crisante G, Añez N, Castro AM, Gonzalez CI, Viana KA, Yachelini P, Torrico F, Robello C, Dioque P, Chavez OT, Aznar C, Russomando G, Büscher P, Assal A, Guhl F, Estani SS, DaSilva A, Britto C, Luquetti A, Ladzins J (2011) International study to evaluate PCR methods for detection of *Trypanosoma cruzi* DNA in blood samples from Chagas disease patients. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 5: e931.
38. Brazilian Ministry of Health (2014) Clinical protocol and therapeutic guidelines: immunosuppression in Kidney

transplantation. Available:
http://conitec.gov.br/images/Protocolos/Imunossupressao_TransplanteRenal.pdf. Accessed 15 June 2020 [Article in Portuguese].

39. Gascon J, Bern C, Pinazo M-J (2010) Chagas disease in Spain, the United States and other non-endemic countries. *Acta Trop* 115: 22–27.
40. Bacal F, Silva CP, Bocchi EA, Pires PV, Moreira LFP, Issa VS, Moreira SA, Cruz FD, Strabelli T, Stolf NAG, Ramires JAF (2005) Mycophenolate mofetil increased Chagas disease reactivation in heart transplanted patients: Comparison between two different protocols. *Am J Transplant* 5: 2017–2021.
41. Bestetti R, Souza T, Lima M, Theodoropoulos T, Cordeiro J (2007) Effects of a mycophenolate mofetil-based immunosuppressive regimen in Chagas' heart transplant recipients. *Transplantation* 84: 440–441.
42. Pinazo MJ, Espinosa G, Cortes-Lletget C, Posada EJ, Aldasoro E, Oliveira I, Muñoz J, Gállego M, Gascon J (2013)

Immunosuppression and Chagas disease: a management challenge. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 7: e1965.

43. Parrado R, Ramirez JC, De La Barra A, Alonso-Vega C, Juiz N, Ortiz L, Illanes D, Torrico F, Gascon J, Alves F, Flevaud L, Garcia L, Schijman AG. (2019) Usefulness of serial blood sampling and PCR replicates for treatment monitoring of patients with chronic Chagas disease. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 63: e01191-18.

Corresponding author

Juliana de Jesus Guimarães Ferreira, MD
Department of Medical Clinic, School of Medical Sciences,
University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Tessália Vieira de Camargo
Stree, 126, Cidade Universitária Zeferino Vaz, Campinas, 13083-
887, SP, Brazil.

Phone: +55 19 35217096

E-mail: julianaajgf@gmail.com

Conflict of interests: No conflict of interests is declared.