Implications of co-infection of *Leptomonas* in visceral leishmaniasis in India

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SUMMARY

Protozoan parasites *Leishmania donovani* (family: Trypanosomatidae) cause fatal visceral leishmaniasis (VL) and the infection relapses in apparently cured population as post kala-azar dermal leishmaniasis (PKDL) in the Indian subcontinent. In recent years co-infection of another Trypanosomatid parasite *Leptomonas* with *L. donovani* during VL/PKDL in this region has become prominent. The observation of clinically lesser-known insect parasite, *Leptomonas* in leishmaniasis is intriguing to researchers. The presence of Leishmania look alike *Leptomonas* in the cultures of clinical isolates of *Leishmania* has been worrisome to those, who prefer to work with pure *Leishmania* cultures for drug and vaccine development or immune response studies. The exact implications of such a co-habitation, which might lead to a delay in the diagnostics of VL and elevate mortality, need a thorough investigation. Also whether *Leptomonas* is involved in leishmaniasis manifestation needs to be ascertained. Thus we are currently witnessing a new paradigm of a parasitic co-infection in VL/PKDL cases in India and this review outlines various opportunities for further research in understanding such emerging co-infection.

Key words: Leishmania, Leptomonas, co-infection, visceral leishmaniasis, post kala-azar leishmaniasis, sandfly.

INTRODUCTION

The causative organism of the fatal visceral leishmaniasis (VL; kala-azar) is Leishmania donovani and a sequel of VL after its treatment in certain cases in the Indian subcontinent is post kala-azar dermal leishmaniasis (PKDL) (Singh et al. 2006; Kumar et al. 2009; Ganguly et al. 2010). Infection of L. donovani simultaneously with other pathogens is not uncommon and in most cases leads to health deterioration (van den Bogaart et al. 2013; Patole et al. 2014; Singh, 2014). The secondary infection of VL mostly due to a compromised immunity of the host caused by different primary infections (Medrano et al. 1992; van Griensven et al. 2014). HIV, malaria and tuberculosis co-infections with Leishmania spp. has been reported. In recent years among the parasitic diseases, leishmaniasis has been increasingly displaying positivity to co-infection with both Leishmania and Leptomonas (Srivastava et al. 2010; Ghosh et al. 2012; Singh et al. 2013). Both are Trypanosomatid protozoan parasites. Leptomonas spp., until recently believed to be only an insect parasite, has been observed as a co-infectant with L. donovani in both VL and PKDL cases. To our knowledge there is no report

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of such co-infection in either cutaneous leishmaniasis (CL) or in mucocutaneous leishmaniasis (MCL). Since reports of such co-infection in VL in India are very recent, the relevance or clinical implications need to be investigated. The review here attempts to address/understand such issues by looking at the behavioural, epidemiological and genetic comparisons of *Leishmania* and *Leptomonas* parasites and the host immune status during co-infection.

LEISHMANIA

The genus *Leishmania* is a protozoan parasite of the family Trypanosomatidae of the order Kinetoplastida. It is the causative agent of leishmaniasis in mammals in the tropical countries (Alvar et al. 2012). The three major forms of leishmaniases are visceral (VL), cutaneous (CS) and mucocutaneous (MCS) leishmaniases. Of these, VL is fatal if not treated. The typical symptoms of VL are chronic fever and enlargement of spleen and liver due to the parasite's survival and replication in these organs. Due to its endemicity more than 90% of deaths occur in the Indian sub-continent and in Sudan (Africa). About 10-15% and >50% of the treated populations in India and Sudan, respectively, develop PKDL. The migration of the residual parasites from infected visceral organs to the dermal site causes PKDL with macular and papular type of

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lesions (Kumar *et al.* 2009). PKDL patients are considered to be as human reservoirs to the continuing VL in these regions. It is transmitted by insect vector sandfly. The parasite is digenic with flagellated promastigote form that multiplies in the vector gut and the other non-motile amastigote form that replicates in the mammalian macrophages. Medications for leishmaniasis are available but expensive, take long time to cure and are threatened by development of drug resistance due to prolonged use (Sundar and Chatterjee, 2006). Although few licensed canine VL vaccines are in use, no vaccine is yet available for human leishmaniasis (Selvapandiyan *et al.* 2014; Jain and Jain, 2015).

LEPTOMONAS

Leptomonas is another Trypanosomatidae member known mostly as a monogenic form (promastigotes) living in the gut of certain insects (Yurchenko et al. 2006). Unlike Leishmania, Leptomonas was not a known habitant in vertebrates and hence not considered economically important. Its co-infection in the VL and PKDL cases in India through recent reports is a major concern. Presence of flagellated non-Leishmania Trypanosomatid parasites, most likely Leptomonas, has also been reported in the sandfly (vector in leishmaniasis) population in certain regions in Nepal (Bhattarai et al. 2009).

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PARASITES

Except for minor differences, Leishmania and Leptomonas share many features like, most of the genome sequences, physiology and antigenicity (Tyzzer and Walker, 1919; Bacchi et al. 1975; Singh et al. 2013; Ferreira et al. 2014). In their promastigote stages, both the parasites have a single set of organelles, viz., flagellum, nucleus, kinetoplast (mitochondrium), Golgi apparatus and basal bodies etc. placed in the cells in identical polarity (McGhee and Cosgrove, 1980). Leptomonas promastigotes show optimal growth, gene transfection and clonal selection in Leishmania specific culture conditions in vitro (Bellofatto et al. 1991; Ahuja et al. 2015). Susceptibility of Leptomonas is known to many established anti-trypanosomatid agents. (Bacchi et al. 1974; Goldberg et al. 1974). The absence of drugs that can selectively eliminate Leptomonas renders it impossible to get rid of Leptomonas from the mixed cultures with Leishmania. This makes more challenging to develop drugs or vaccines against VL (Singh et al. 2013). Although *in vivo* in mammals the multiplication rate of Leptomonas has not been ascertained, in the in vitro cultures, this parasite's promastigote stage grows faster than that of L. donovani (Srivastava et al. 2010; Ahuja et al. 2015). Hence it became necessary for us to recognize the presence of Leptomonas in the L. donovani cultures originating from the clinical samples and eliminate it to have pure populations of Leishmania for downstream immunological and genetic studies. We and others after careful observation of the cultured Leishmania and Leptomonas promastigotes under bright field microscope reported the minor differences in their morphology (Tyzzer and Walker, 1919; Ahuja et al. 2015). In the *in vitro* cultures, *Leishmania* promastigotes were seen as heteromorphic cell population (rounded, ovoid or tadpole shaped), whereas Leishmania seymouri promastigotes were all uniform in shape (long ovoid). In the in vitro culture, L. seymouri promastigotes displayed faster (3.4-fold more) mobility than L. donovani promastigotes (Ahuja et al. 2015). We have also recently devised a simple procedure to selectively eliminate Leptomonas from the in vitro co-culture with Leishmania based on its differential growth at 37° C (Ahuja et al. 2015). At this temperature optimal growth of axenic amastigotes and reduced growth of promastigotes of Leishmania and a complete growth inhibition and death of Leptomonas were observed. This corroborates with the earlier obserby others where promastigotes vation of Leptomonas costoris infecting cultured macrophages were found to differentiate into amastigote like structures but failed to further replicate. Leishmania donovani on the other hand thrives in cultured macrophages and is even able to inhibit their capacity to digest this parasite (Kutish and Janovy, 1981). One report has also revealed the isolation of Leptomonas from the spleen of mice previously infected with Leptomonas spp. (Srivastava et al. 2010). These observations suggest the possible existence of Leptomonas in vivo in the macrophages even though it did not replicate in the vertebrate host free macrophages in culture. Both the parasites' promastigotes otherwise are grown optimally at 26 ° C in culture. The differences between these two parasites have been briefly summarized in Fig. 1.

There are several reports comparing the genomes of these two parasites. Complete genome sequence of several species of *Leishmania* (at: tritrypdb.org) including for L. donovani and L. seymouri (at: sanger.ac.uk) is available. Both Leishmania and Leptomonas reside in the common Trypanosomatid family cluster along with Crithidia and Trypanosoma in the phylogenetic analysis comparing several kinetoplast-bearing organisms based either on 18S rRNA or small subunit rRNA sequences (Moreira et al. 2004; Lukes et al. 2014). While comparing the DNA sequences of both ITS1 and GP63 of Leishmania infantum, L. donovani (both cause VL) and Leptomonas, the latter was found to be closer to L. donovani than L. infantum via unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) based phylogenetic analysis (Singh et al. 2013). However, close monitoring of DNA sequences of

S. No.	Features	Leptomonas seymouri	Leishmania donovani	References
1	Type of hosts prior to knowledge of co-infection in leishmaniasis	Monoxenous in only invertebrates	Dixenous in invertebrates & vertebrates	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 2013, Yurchenko <i>et al.</i> , 2006
2	Promastigotes shape	monomorphic	heteromorphic	Ahuja <i>et al.</i> , 2015
3	Promastigotes cell doubling time <i>in vitro</i> culture	Less	High	Srivastava et al., 2010, Ahuja <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> , 2015
4	Promastigotes mobility in vitro culture	Fast	Slow	Ahuja <i>et al.</i> , 2015
5	Growth at 37°C <i>in vitro</i> culture	No	Yes	Ahuja <i>et al.</i> , 2015
6	PCR-RFLP of HSP70 gene Lane 1: Marker Lane 2: <i>L. seymouri</i> <i>Hae</i> III cut Lane 3: <i>L. donovani</i> <i>Hae</i> III cut	1 2	1 3	Srivastava et al., 2010, Singh <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> , 2013, Ahuja <i>et al.</i> , 2015
7	Infection in macrophages in vitro	No	Yes	Kutish <i>et al.</i> , 1981

Fig. 1. Differences between Leishmania donovani and Leptomonas seymouri.

heat shock protein-70 (HSP70) and internal transcribed spacer 1 (ITS1) genes of these parasites yielded genus specific polymerase chain reaction -restriction fragment length polymorphism (PCR-RFLP) patterns, by which researchers now could differentiate between Leishmania and Leptomonas in their cultures (Fig. 1) (Srivastava et al. 2010; Ghosh et al. 2012; Singh et al. 2013). Leptomonas miniexon 1gene targeting Taqman real-time PCR also suggested to specifically identify was Leptomonas spp. in the clinical samples (Weirather et al. 2011). All such DNA based and microscopic methods are now useful tools to recognize Leptomonas when it appears as a contaminant with other intracellular pathogens in clinical samples.

The general perception among researchers is that the individuals once cured of leishmaniasis are protected thereafter. This is due to cellular (and humoral) immunological memory response generated against the primary infection of parasite (Selvapandiyan et al. 2012). Similarly immunity generated by either freeze-thaw-killed Leptomonas collosoma or live cultured Leptomonas pessoai cells was shown to protect the animals (including albino mice) from challenge against Trypanosoma cruzi (Johnson et al. 1963; Souza Mdo et al. 1974). These studies confirm that both the species of Leptomonas, which were not parasitic in vertebrates displayed stronger protective antigenicity against other trypanosomatids. In addition, comparison of cross-reactive epitopes of 6 different genera of Trypanosomatidae confirmed that the antigenicity of Leptomonas seymouri was similar to Leishmania

chagasi (Ferreira et al. 2014). Otherwise detailed immune responses by either resistant or susceptible host during infection with different species of Leishmania in the animal models as well as in humans have been studied extensively (Selvapandiyan et al. 2009; Nylen and Gautam, 2010; Kedzierski and Evans, 2014). To our knowledge detailed immune responses due to Leptomonas infections have so far not been studied. With occurrence of Leptomonas co-infection in leishmaniasis, it becomes necessary now to know individually and in co-infection condition the responses generated by Leptomonas in the host during infection and how that will affect the disease outcome.

CO-INFECTION OF *LEPTOMONAS* WITH *LEISHMANIA* IN LEISHMANIASIS

Co-infection with other pathogens in leishmaniasis is on the rise in India and other countries. This poses an additional challenge to control VL. Leishmania (VL/PKDL)-HIV co-infection is known (Shah et al. 2010; Diro et al. 2014; Singh, 2014). Several cases of Leishmania co-infection with malaria, chagas, schistosomiasis and tuberculosis were also reported (Griemberg et al. 2006; Rathnayake et al. 2010; Gil et al. 2011; Cota et al. 2012; van den Bogaart et al. 2013; Vega Benedetti et al. 2013). Domestic cats and a dog showing co-infection with Leishmania spp. and Toxoplasma gondii were reported (Braga et al. 2014; da Silva et al. 2015). Although Leptomonas has been thought to be inhabitant in insects, recent reports revealed

unusual 7-17% cases of VL and PKDL with clinical isolates of L. donovani showing co-infection with Leptomonas in India (Srivastava et al. 2010; Ghosh et al. 2012). The first such cases of VL were the splenic aspirates that yielded Leptomonas in addition to Leishmania in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, India. The co-infection was confirmed by the sequencing of its HSP70 and 18S rRNA genes (Srivastava et al. 2010). Further confirmation of such co-infection in the Indian leishmaniasis was observed from a report revealing the presence of L. seymouri in 4 out of 29 VL and 2 out of 7 PKDL cases by aberrant internal transcribed spacer 1 (ITS1) RFLP (Ghosh et al. 2012). Further a next generation sequencing of oligonucleotide ligation and detection (SOLID)[™] platform recognized the same non-Leishmania Trypanosomatid parasite during sequencing of clinical isolates of VL in India (Singh et al. 2013). Leptomonas contamination in the clinical isolates of Leishmania from Nepal and Sri Lanka has also been observed recently. Sandfly population from distinct regions in Nepal harbouring Leptomonas like non-Leishmania parasites in their body has also been confirmed using rRNA gene targeted PCR (Bhattarai et al. 2009). Such reports along with the clinical incidents of co-infection in VL in the Indian subcontinent indicate that the sandfly population itself might be harbouring Leptomonas. To its support a very recent report suggests that, L. seymouri stayed with L. donovani for several days in the Leishmania transmission vectors (sandflies), Phlebotomus spp. (Phlebotomus orientalis and Phlebotomus argentipes) under experimental condition (Kraeva et al. 2015).

CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS OF CO-INFECTION

The occurrence of co-infection of *Leptomonas* in the VL/PKDL cases has been inferred only after the observation of fast replicating *Leishmania* look alike *Leptomonas* in the culture of some of the clinical isolates. Such cultures were confirmed to be mixed cultures of *Leishmania* (slow moving) and *Leptomonas* [fast moving (Ahuja *et al.* 2015)] initially and after a few subcultures contained only *Leptomonas*. This was confirmed by RFLP analysis of either HSP70 or ITS1 genes with distinct patterns in *Leptomonas* and *Leishmania* (Srivastava *et al.* 2010; Ghosh *et al.* 2012).

Since such co-infection came into light only in recent years, its implications in the VL or PKDL disease severity, delay in the potential diagnostics and thereby increase in mortality in VL, when compared with patients infected only with *L. donovani* are yet to be determined. Since most of the leishmaniacides also kill *Leptomonas* (Singh *et al.* 2013) appropriate common drug treatment that could eliminate both the parasites together need to be established. Sandflies carrying either of these two

parasites have been reported (Bhattarai et al. 2009) but there is no report as yet of a sandfly vector carrying both the parasites simultaneously, but such a scenario is possible. Hence at the moment it is not clear whether the entry and habitation of Leptomonas in humans is primary or secondary to Leishmania infection or it is a simultaneous infection due to bite by sandflies infected with both the parasites. An exclusive secondary infection due to immune suppressed state of VL/PKDL patients cannot be ruled out due to the fact that as an opportunistic infection *Leptomonas* amastigotes have also been noticed in the in vitro culture from bone marrow aspirate of a HIV patient (Pacheco et al. 1998). This patient had VL, but Leishmania promastigotes were not detected in the cultures. It is also possible that Leishmania parasites were also indeed present initially in the in vitro culture from bone marrow, not noticed and subsequently got eliminated due to rapid growth of Leptomonas. Upon VL cure, presumed residual L. donovani parasites in the body causing PKDL in certain cases are known. The observed co-infection also in the PKDL cases leads to the question whether Leptomonas too coexisted as residual parasites in the body before participating in the PKDL. In other occasions presumed monoxenous non-Leishmania trypanosomatid was noticed in HIV patients (Dedet et al. 1995; Jimenez et al. 1996; Morio et al. 2008). Especially Dedet et al. (1995) revealed that such an apparent lower trypanosomatid member (Leptomonas?) isoenzymatically different from Leishmania also developed a diffuse cutaneous nodular syndrome in those HIV patients. These cases lead to speculation that those parasites were indeed Leptomonas, which can infect immune compromised humans independently without association with Leishmania. The observation of Leishmania-Leptomonas co-infection occurring so far only in the Indian subcontinent raises the question, whether it is due to new adaptation of Leptomonas into the sandflies that so far harboured only Leishmania in this region. In addition we do not know if there is an increase of VL disease outcome in case of such co-infection.

In conclusion recently discovered incidents of *Leptomonas* co-infection in VL in the Indian subcontinent are a cause of concern and require further investigation. Both *Leishmania* and *Leptomonas* are mostly similar in their structures and antigenicity. These two have also been found to be genetically very close to each other based on several phylogenetic analyses. The reason for the monoxenous (in single host) parasite *Leptomonas* in the insect invertebrates, shifting to dixenous (in two hosts) parasite like *Leishmania* living in both invertebrates (insects) and vertebrates (mammals), is yet to be understood. Is it because of *Leptomonas*'s shifting its extracellular habitat into

another insect, sandfly vector which also feeds on mammals is a moot point. In addition, it is not clear whether Leptomonas is seen as co-infectant only in recent years or it also existed in the past and was never explored. The reason for Leptomonas's inability to grow in the in vitro media at 37 °C and in the cultured macrophages, although showing growth in the spleen of VL and skin of PKDL patients is not clear. Moreover, whether such co-infection is also observed in other parts of the world, where VL is endemic; whether Leptomonas infection is primary, secondary or simultaneous infection with Leishmania; whether there is any sandfly population that harbours both Leishmania and Leptomonas together; whether Leptomonas is involved in leishmaniasis outcome or exasperating the disease along with Leishmania; whether Leptomonas has its own host immune modulation or shares the same with *Leishmania* are worth exploring. Such knowledge will help researchers and clinicians to develop appropriate therapeutic strategies for combined elimination of the co-infecting parasites.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

None of the authors has any conflict of interest to disclose.

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