

1 **THE IMPORTANCE OF THE MULTIDISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO DEAL**  
2 **WITH THE NEW EPIDEMIOLOGICAL SCENARIO OF CHAGAS DISEASE**  
3 **(GLOBAL HEALTH).**

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22           There are currently two major factors that have modified the epidemiology of  
23 Chagas disease in the last decades: climate change and migration flows. In this new  
24 scenario, there are new challenges to control and prevent *T. cruzi* infection in endemic  
25 countries, such as the control of a wider distribution of triatomine vectors or the  
26 reinforcement of vertical transmission programs.. In non-endemic areas, few countries  
27 are aware of the emergence of this new disease and have established changes in their  
28 health systems. To address this new public health challenge, the priorities should be  
29 control programs to avoid new cases of *T. cruzi* infection acquired through vertical  
30 transmission, blood transfusion or organ transplant.

31           In both, endemic and non-endemic areas, the international community and all the  
32 actors involved in Chagas disease must join efforts mainly in two directions: better  
33 management of the infection in affected individuals and more research to cover the  
34 knowledge gap mainly in physiopathology, diagnosis and treatment.

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38 **KEYWORDS:** Chagas disease, *Trypanosoma cruzi*, *Triatoma infestans*, migration, oral  
39 transmission, benznidazole.

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## 44 **1.- Introduction: the keys of disease globalization in the XXI century**

45 Chagas disease, caused by *Trypanosoma cruzi* parasite, was originally described  
46 as an endemic disease focused in populations living in poor rural areas of Latin  
47 American countries.

48 From the ecological point of view, there have been two major factors that have modified  
49 the epidemiology of the disease: climate change and human migration. Even if it is  
50 difficult to quantify the impact of climate change in vector borne disease transmission,  
51 altitude levels of the traditionally defined endemic areas , the wild cycle of triatomine  
52 and the vector-parasite interaction can be modified due to global warming.[1,2]

53

54 Moreover, anthropical factor, through various initiatives of vector control, add  
55 an important element to the epidemiological issue in endemic countries.

56 Historically, migration has been the key factor in the dissemination of Chagas  
57 disease [3]. Recently, migrant flows have brought infected individuals to Latin  
58 American urban areas and beyond the borders of Latin America, changing the  
59 epidemiology of the disease [4].

60 The migratory flows between Latin American and European countries are not  
61 new. During the fifteenth century many European citizens migrated towards the  
62 Americas. This process continued until the fifties of the twentieth century, when Latin  
63 America became a region of origin of international migrants, being the United States  
64 and Europe the main receptors of Latin America migrants. This trend has continued  
65 until 2008, when due to the economic crisis the migratory flows from LA significantly  
66 decreased. United States is the main destination of Latin American migration with  
67 approximately 20.5 million Latin American immigrants living in the country, according

68 to some estimates.[5] Today, around 3.5 million people from Latin American live in  
69 Europe.[6] In Europe, the distribution by country of Latin American migrants follows a  
70 patchy pattern, where certain few countries concentrate most of the Latin American  
71 migration. Spain, with over half of these migrants, is undoubtedly the most important  
72 recipient, followed by Italy, France, and United Kingdom.[7]

73 This initial distribution is changing due to the economic crisis and currently  
74 there is a redistribution of Latin American migration, especially from Spain to other  
75 European countries. [6]

76 One of the features that affect many Latin American immigrants today is the  
77 fact that the migration process does not stop with a single shift; quite often migrants  
78 look for job opportunities in three or more countries in relatively short periods of time.  
79 These frequent changes involve European and American countries, posing a challenge  
80 to the health care of these people.

81

## 82 **2.- New characteristics of Chagas disease in endemic countries**

83 *Trypanosoma cruzi* infection is a complex entity caused by a heterogeneous  
84 species of the parasite (*T. cruzi*) that implies a wide diversity of animals in the wild  
85 cycle, playing domestic animals an important epidemiological role in some areas.[8]

86 The distribution of Chagas disease in endemic areas has been described as patchy and  
87 heterogeneous, involving different ecological niches and more than one hundred  
88 triatominae species, the vector of the disease.[9] Five triatomine vectors species (*T.*  
89 *infestans*, *R. prolixus*, *T. dimidiata*, *P. megistus*, and *T. brasiliensis*) have a major  
90 epidemiological importance,[10] and it seems that there is a close association between  
91 some triatomine vector species and some specific strains of *T.cruzi*. [11,12]

92           The transmission of *T. cruzi* in humans can occur in in well-known ways, and  
93 several approaches of control have been developed.

#### 94 Vector transmission and programs of vector control

95           The implementation of vector control programs started in the 90's through  
96 several initiatives along the endemic countries has contributed to change dramatically  
97 the epidemiology of Chagas disease in Latin America.[13,14] The goal in most of these  
98 programs was the interruption of the domestic and peridomestic cycles of transmission  
99 through insecticide spraying. These programs - only useful for domiciliary vectors -  
100 have been successful in several countries: Brazil, Uruguay and Chile have been  
101 declared free from disease transmission by *T.infestans*, as well as specific departments  
102 of several other countries. [15,16] Equally, Guatemala was certified as being free from  
103 disease transmission by *Rhodnius prolixus*, the main domiciliated vector for Chagas  
104 disease in Central America.[16] But the temporal action of insecticides is not  
105 permanent. As demonstrated by some authors, recolonisation of houses by sylvatic  
106 triatomine populations may explain some difficulties encountered in vector control.[17]

107           Triatomine re-infestation is one of the major challenges in endemic areas, which  
108 oblige to maintain active the vector control programs. The decentralization of vector  
109 control is still controversial, although it is one of the keys for a sustainable  
110 entomological surveillance. Selective control and surveillance strategies are required  
111 due to the risk of possible domiciliary re-infestations.[16]

112           Moreover, there are reports showing the emergence of insecticide resistance  
113 among triatomines.[18,19]

#### 114 Rural to urban migration

115 In endemic countries, and mainly due to economic reasons, people living in rural  
116 areas moved to urban areas, increasing urbanization in periurban areas with poor  
117 hygienic conditions and where *T. cruzi* transmission can persist.[20]

#### 118 Increasing detection of *T. cruzi* infection cases transmitted by oral transmission

119 Human oral infection is caused by ingestion of drinks or food contaminated with  
120 infected triatomine bugs or their feces. It has been rarely described up to now, but in the  
121 last years there has been an increase of new cases and outbreaks reported, mainly in  
122 wild environments [21] but also in urban areas. Several cases and outbreaks have been  
123 reported in Brazil, Venezuela, Colombia, Mexico, Argentina and Bolivia. [22-26]

#### 124 Vertical transmission: the lack of surveillance programs

125 Vertical transmission of Chagas disease is one the main challenges of health in endemic  
126 countries,[27,28] and it is not well managed yet. Due to the success of the programs of  
127 vector and blood bank control, congenital transmission has obtained increasing  
128 epidemiological importance.[29] Rates of congenital *T. cruzi* transmission range from  
129 0%-28.6%,[30] and the WHO estimated number of new cases of congenital *T. cruzi*  
130 infection is around 8.668 cases per year. [31]

131

#### 132 Successful blood banks control in Latin America countries

133 Specific screening for *T. cruzi* in blood banks has been improved successfully in  
134 all Latin-American countries in the last years, with a coverage close to 100% [32,33]

135

### 136 **3.- Chagas as emerging disease in non-endemic countries**

137 As mentioned before, in non-endemic countries new migration flows have been  
138 the key for the emergence of Chagas disease in areas where it was not previously

139 present. The importance of Chagas disease in this new scenario is directly related to the  
140 volume of migration flows received by each host country and also related to the specific  
141 origin of migrants received, since the distribution of Chagas disease is not homogeneous  
142 within endemic countries.

143 Europe and the United States have been the main recipients of Latin-American  
144 migration [3,33], and due to the current economic crisis some trends of migrant  
145 dispersion among European countries have been detected.

146 It is estimated that in Europe there are between 68.000 and 123.000 infected  
147 people with *T. cruzi*, most of them living in Spain. However, until 2009 only 4.290  
148 cases have been reported. [4,35]

149 In the United States, based on population figures from countries where Chagas  
150 disease is endemic, it is estimated that in 2011 there were about 300.000 people infected  
151 with *T.cruzi*. [34]

152 In other countries with Latin American migration (Canada, Japan, Australia,  
153 other European countries) the number of people infected by *T. cruzi* ranges from 140  
154 (Austria) to over 12000 (England). [4,35,36]

155 In non-endemic countries *T.cruzi* transmission occurs through blood transfusion  
156 and organ transplants from infected donors and from infected mothers to their children  
157 as well.

#### 158 Blood banks control strategies in non-endemic countries

159 Few studies have been conducted in blood banks in non-endemic countries to  
160 assess the risk of transmission in blood banks. In Spain, one study showed that 0.62% of  
161 the Latin American donors (N= 1172) were positive for Chagas disease, but the  
162 percentage increased (10%) when only Bolivian migrants were considered. [37] In

163 other studies between 1% and 5% of blood donors were detected to be positive for  
164 Chagas disease in the U.S., Canada and Germany [38-40]

165 Additionally, several cases of Chagas disease transmission in blood and  
166 transplants recipients have been reported in Europe and the United States [41-46] In  
167 Spain, universal blood donation screening for *T. cruzi* began in 2005 and in the U.S. in  
168 2007. In Europe only four more countries (France, Switzerland, United Kingdom and  
169 Sweden) have implemented effective measures to control risk of Chagas disease  
170 infection via blood transfusion.[47-49]

#### 171 A “new” route of transmission: organ transplantation

172 Organ transplantation is more frequent in non-endemic than in endemic  
173 countries, and the new era of organ transplantation has opened another route of  
174 transmission of the parasite. The management of this clinical condition is especially  
175 important while immunosuppression is mandatory in the context of organ transplant.  
176 Several guidelines in endemic and non-endemic countries have been published for this  
177 new scenario.[50,52]

#### 178 Non-endemic countries becoming “endemic” countries: vertical transmission

179 The risk of mother-to-child transmission is of concern in non-endemic countries.  
180 In a study performed in Spain, the rate of prevalence of *T. cruzi* in Latin American  
181 pregnant women (N= 1350) was 3.4% (27% in Bolivian mothers), with 7.3% of infected  
182 newborns.[53]

183 In Europe and the United States, respectively, it is estimated that each year  
184 between 20 to 183, and 63 to 115 of newborns are infected with *T. cruzi* [33,34]. In  
185 fact, several cases of vertical transmission have already been identified in Europe.[53-  
186 59]



187 In Spain, a study showed that doing a screening in pregnant women for early  
188 detection and treatment to children infected by *T. cruzi* was cost-effective.[60]

189 Following epidemiological and economic data, some regions of European  
190 countries, particularly Catalonia, Valencia, Galicia and more recently Andalucía (Spain)  
191 and Tuscany (Italy) have already approved official control measures in pregnant women  
192 at risk of *T.cruzi* infection and the early control of newborns from Chagas positive  
193 mothers.[61-63]

194 Also in Europe, there are some other punctual initiatives from some centers for  
195 the control of newborns whose mothers are infected with *T. cruzi*. [49] Due to the high  
196 efficacy of specific *T. cruzi* treatment in newborns (of nearly 100%), programs for the  
197 control of Chagas disease via congenital transmission should be implemented in all  
198 countries to screen pregnant women coming from endemic areas with the objective of  
199 early treating the infected newborns.

200

#### 201 **4.- Challenges on Chagas disease management in this new global scenario.**

202 Despite being globalized, Chagas disease remains one of the 17 neglected  
203 tropical diseases declared by the World Health Organization. Chagas disease has a  
204 significant economic impact. The global costs for Chagas disease have been estimated  
205 in \$7.19 billion per year, similar or even higher to those of other important diseases.  
206 [64]

207 Vector control programs and oral transmission of Chagas disease are specific  
208 challenges for endemic countries, although due to human migration the repercussion of  
209 the success or failure of such programs goes beyond the Americas. Although endemic

210 countries have direct responsibility for maintaining appropriate vector control programs,  
211 strengthening such programs is a major global challenge in which international  
212 community should be involved.

213 Other challenges on Chagas disease are universal, mainly to improve control  
214 programs of vertical transmission in endemic areas, and to develop such programs in  
215 non-endemic countries. Endemic and many of the newly affected countries are  
216 registering cases of the disease transmitted congenitally. However, few countries are  
217 aware of the emergence of this new disease and few have established changes in their  
218 health system to address this new challenge for public health.[49] Despite the clinical,  
219 economic and epidemiological data available, effective vertical transmission control  
220 programs are not in place both in most endemic and non-endemic countries. [49]

221 As a neglected disease, there are several gaps in the knowledge of crucial points  
222 in Chagas disease: the life cycle of *T.cruzi* in human hosts, the ecology of sylvatic  
223 cycle, the mechanisms of action of drugs against the parasite and the keys to improve  
224 the accessibility of the patients to the health systems. Funding for Chagas disease in  
225 2012 was 31.7 US\$ million, which represents around 1% of total R&D funding spent on  
226 neglected diseases globally.[65]

227 In this scenario, care of people with Chagas disease has been hampered by several  
228 factors. Here, we want to highlight some of them: the adverse events caused by the only  
229 two useful drugs against *T. cruzi*, the lack of early biomarkers of therapeutic efficacy  
230 and, above all, the importance given to the autoimmune theory of the disease that has  
231 prevailed for many years. For years, health professionals have been trained in the belief  
232 that Chagas disease had no treatment and in the fear of giving the specific treatment due  
233 to the high rates of adverse events. Other consequences of the lack of medical care are

234 that patients carry the social stigma and negative psychological and economic effects of  
235 having an incurable disease.

236 “The economic effects and the complexity of medical care are most evident in the more  
237 advanced stages of the disease (pacemakers, defibrillators, colon surgery ... ) , and in  
238 these cases it is not always possible to give the required care , either by economic or  
239 geographical reasons”.

240 Moreover, research for new and better drugs have been slowed or forgotten for years  
241 until very recently.[66]

242 In non-endemic countries, there are other important factors relating to the care of people  
243 affected. One of them is the lack of knowledge about the disease of many health  
244 professionals. This is aggravated by the change of migration patterns within or between  
245 countries when migrants are forced to move in search of better job opportunities and  
246 also for the wide diversity and poor specificity of symptoms of Chagas disease. Another  
247 problem relates to the policies of some governments to restrict the access of immigrants  
248 to health systems. .[6]

249 In order to overcome these limitations in patients’ treatment, it is important to consider  
250 that: a) adverse events of antiparasitic drugs against *T.cruzi* are frequent. Even most of  
251 them are minor, a considerable percentage of treated patients suffer from adverse events  
252 and there is a need for monitoring patients closely during the treatment;[67,68] b)  
253 antiparasitic treatment provided to young women prevent further cases of congenital  
254 Chagas disease;[69] c) benznidazole induce a persistent negativization of the peripheral  
255 parasitemia in around 80% of treated patients 12 months after treatment.[70-72]; d)  
256 even if evidences with good clinical outcomes are lacking, there is a clinical benefit in  
257 treating patients .[73] ; e) the training of health professionals is vital for good patient  
258 care; f) to integrate the care of patients with Chagas disease into the primary health  
259 programs is probably the most effective strategy in both, endemic and non-endemic  
260 countries.

261

262 **5.- Conclusions.**

263           The confluence of a disease influenced by changes in ecology and epidemiology,  
264 with a long asymptomatic phase, not clearly perceived as being related to infection, and  
265 affecting marginalized populations, has resulted in a silent public health crisis. [74]

266           For facing this challenging disease, the international community and all the  
267 actors that play a role against Chagas disease must join efforts. There are precedents,  
268 such as the success of vector control programs, which indicate that when various actors  
269 come together to arrange a common and clear goal, this can be achieved. [75]

270 In fact, a multidisciplinary approach is essential to address a health problem that is  
271 multifaceted, which includes the coordination of various control programs (vector ,  
272 vertical , blood banks , transplant ), and the attention to affected people (primary care,  
273 different specialists) . Moreover, the decision makers must decide priorities within their  
274 competence in face of other health problems and coordinate with professionals working  
275 in the field and with the people affected.

276           In 2012, a community of international partners endorsed the London Declaration  
277 on Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTDs).[76] This initiative, which calls to coordinate  
278 efforts to eliminate or control 10 NTDs, including Chagas disease, drew a new scenario  
279 of possibilities until 2020. However, few years after the initiative it seems that little  
280 have been done and that the defined goals need to be revised.[77]

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