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Advancements of Diagnosing the River Blindness

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ABSTRACT

River blindness is also called onchocerciasis. It has historically been one of the leading causes of infectious blindness worldwide. It is endemic to tropical regions both in Africa and Latin America and in the Yemen. Onchocerciasis is caused by infection with the filarial parasite *Onchocerca volvulus*. The infection is spread through the bites of an insect vector, black flies of the genus *Simulium*. In Africa, the major vectors are members of the *simulium* complex, while numerous species serve as vectors of the parasite in Latin America. It is a neglected tropical disease which is in desperate need of a therapeutic revolution. Its pathology, whose symptoms are onchodermatitis, musculoskeletal pain and various stages of blindness, is a result of the death of the microfilariae in the skin and eyes, the emergence of ivermectin resistance justifies the crucial need to identify new drug targets and agents that can effectively treat onchocerciasis.

Key words: Neglected tropical diseases, Onchocerciasis, *Onchocerca volvulus*, Ivermectin, Chitinase, Scaffold hopping.

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CONTENTS

1. Introduction	63
2. Clinical Presentation and Pathogenesis	65
3. Treatment	66
4. New Directions in Therapy	67
5. Conclusion	67
6. References	67

1. Introduction

Onchocerciasis is a disease produced by the infection with the parasitic nematode *Onchocerca volvulus* and transmitted through the bite of the black flies of the genus *Simulium*. In Latin America, the earliest programmes used a strategy of surgical removal of the adult parasites lodged in undetectable and inaccessible areas of the body, the overall effect of this strategy on the prevalence of

infection was relatively minor. The filarial cause of dermatitis, subcutaneous nodules due to encapsulation of parasites in fibrous tissue and eye disease. The disease is transmitted by an insect of genus *Simulium* at which breed in fast-flowing rivers and streams, leading to the name river blindness. The infected blackflies i.e.,

simulium genus transmit larvae to humans by bring them.



Figure 1

Eye Infections:

Larvae migrate to subcutaneous tissues where they become mature adults. Gravid females produce large numbers of microfilariae which migrate into the ocular tissues and die, causing small inflammatory lesions which leave scars. The accumulation of small scars in the cornea and the retina cause blindness. The drugs which kill microfilariae cause a marked inflammatory response known as the Mazzotti reaction and concurrent treatment with anti-inflammatory drugs is required to reduce the severity of this reaction. In contrast, dead microfilariae evoke punctate keratitis, small lesions which consist of dead microfilariae surrounded by lymphocytes, eosinophils and local edema. Ivermectin is currently being tested on patients and it has significant advantages.

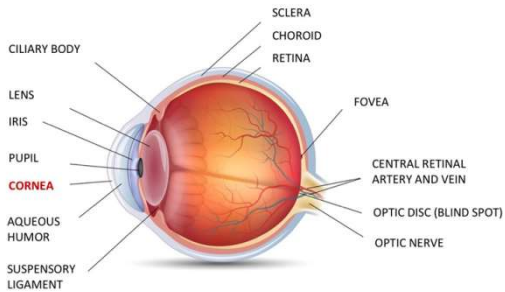


Fig 2 : Structure of Eye

Filarial Dermatitis:

Onchocerciasis is a filarial dermatitis principally affecting horses. Adult parasites are located in nodules in connective tissue and can be asymptomatic, microfilariae are located in the dermis. Particularly of the ventral midline, are the source of the major lesions. Intermediate hosts, such as the simuliidae (blackflies, gnats) and ceratopogonidae (biting midges), transmit the microfilariae. In those horses with warts cutaneous inflammation attributed to microfilariae, dead or dying microfilariae induce the most intense inflammation and inflammation can be enhanced by microfilaricidal therapy. Ochengi in cattle has been studied as a model of human onchocerciasis in which it has been shown that selective antibiotic therapy against Wolbachia results in reduced numbers of Wolbachia sp., reduced numbers of adult ochengi and reduced numbers of

microfilariae, in equine onchocerciasis, clinical lesions related to microfilariae develop on the head, neck, medial forelimbs, ventral thorax, and abdomen and consist of patchy to diffuse alopecia, erythema, scaling, crusting and pigmented changes.

Distribution of Onchocerciasis:

The distribution of onchocerciasis is linked to the location of blackflies which are naturally found close to the fast running streams and rivers in the intertropical zones. Therefore, about 90% of the disease occurs in Africa. Onchocerciasis is also found in 6 countries in Latin America and in Yemen in the Arabian Peninsula, where the disease is believed to be exported by the slave trade.



Fig 3: Schematic representation of River blindness

Consequences:

The death of microfilariae is very toxic to the skin and the eye, producing terrible itching and various eye manifestations. After repeated years of exposure, these lesions may lead to irreversible blindness and disfiguring skin diseases sometimes named "leopard" skin, and "lizard" skin.

Current Global Status & Impact:

A combination of vector control in West Africa, the use of ivermectin, large-scale community Directed Treatment (DOT) and the use of onchocerciasis transmission has allowed the continuous annual treatment of more than 30 million people. Interruption of transmission of *O. volvulus* and reduction of the burden of visual impairment and blindness has been achieved in most of the West African region and in some Latin American countries affected by this parasite, and in these areas onchocerciasis is no longer a disease of public health importance. However, the skin disease, with its adverse psycho-social and socio-economic effects, continues to be a problem in the Rest of Africa.

Life Cycle:

Humans are the sole definitive host. Infection occurs when a blackfly introduces an *O. volvulus* stage 3 larva into the host during a blood meal. The female nematode develops to adulthood and permanently confined in a fibrous capsule, whereas male adults move freely throughout the skin and subcutaneous spaces. During adulthood the female worm migrates through the skin of the human host, with particular affinity for the eyes since it sheds hundreds of thousands of microfilariae measuring 220-360 micrometres. By undergoing autoimmune mechanisms, the inflammatory response against dying microfilariae over years

of repeated infection causes the gradual and eventually blinding sclerosal opacification of the anterior eye by local inflammation. And of the posterior eye. During a blood meal, the o. volvulus life cycle continues on uptake of microfilariae by the blackfly. Once inside, the microfilariae penetrate the fly gut and migrate to the thoracic flight muscles, where they develop to 3rd stage larvae and then find their way to the blackfly feeding apparatus. They then enter another human host during a blood meal, thus completing the cycle. Microfilariae persist in the human host for 3-5 years in contrast to the adult female worm life span, which is 2-15 yrs.

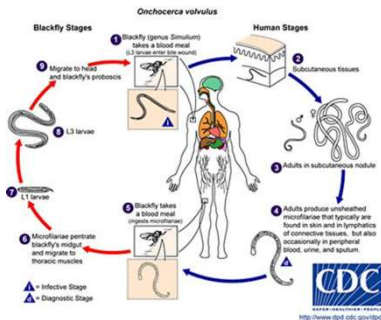


Fig 4: Life cycle of River blindness

Diagnosis and clinical management of Onchocerciasis: Diagnosing onchocerciasis relies on demonstration of characteristic eye pathology or demonstration of microfilariae within the skin. PCR examination of skin snips improves this situation, although sensitivity is still low in such persons, making this tool less useful in endemic areas where ivermectin has been asked to treat this disease for years. Skin patch testing with diethylcarbamazine has been shown as a good alternative to skin snip evaluations in Africa. Advantages over skin snip evaluation, although can be operationally difficult. Fall off, patients must return in 24h. The sensitivity and specificity of the DEC patch test is not yet clear although recent studies using newer formulations suggest its utility in monitoring for infection within mass onchocerciasis treatment programs in Africa. A highly specific antigen detection test capable of diagnosing active infection has been reported in the literature, but to date, has received little evaluation. The development of a highly specific and sensitive test capable of determining active onchocercal infection remains an imperative for public health campaigns seeking to control and eliminate this parasite.

2. Clinical Presentation and Pathogenesis

Onchocerciasis most commonly presents as a diffuse papular dermatitis, often with intense pruritus. These recently infected patients tend to demonstrate a strong TH¹ type immune response. In patients with chronic disease, however, the cutaneous

manifestations can be differentiated across a spectrum, from pruritic lichenification associated with strong helper lymphocyte (TH²) response, whereas depigmentation has been shown to correlate with a wider TH² reactivity. Exposure to microfilariae breakdown products induces a strong eosinophilic response as well. Subdermal nodules called "onchocercomata" which are most easily seen over bony prominences, are another commonly reported manifestation of onchocerciasis. The value and reliability of verbal diagnosis by eliciting a history of nodules in areas where the disease is highly endemic have been described elsewhere. In Africa, onchocercomata are often found over the bony prominences of the torso and hips, whereas in South America, where it is sometimes called "robies disease", the predominant strains typically produce nodules in the head and shoulders. The presence of onchocercomata does not correlate with microfilarial load. This is not thought to result from vertical transmission but, rather, from stimulation of a fetal shift towards a TH² response to onchocercal infection that, an exposure later in life, favours tolerance of the presence of o. volvulus and paradoxically, more severe dermatological symptoms.

Onchocerciasis and HIV Infection:

Of exposed to HIV, especially the macrophage-tropic, HIV-1, patients with onchocerciasis have a greater likelihood of converting to HIV positivity than do those without onchocerciasis. HIV infection may worsen the severity of onchodermatitis, although this aspect of the relationship has not been well studied. Recent work by reaffirms that it is safe to include HIV-infected patients in mass treatment populations.

Differential Diagnosis:

The differential diagnosis of the diffuse papular dermatitis seen in acute onchocerciasis is exclusive and may include food allergies, leprosy, pinta, syphilis, vitamin A deficiency, and yaws. Also, certain parasitic infestations can resemble onchocerciasis. Other onchocerca species-onchocerca gutturosa, in most cases, have been found to infect humans, but only 6 cases of infection have been reported, without evidence of transmission. Rarely, o. volvulus infection can mimic dracunculiasis. The subcutaneous filaria emerging at the skin in 3 documented cases.

Lateral Flow Immunoassay Stick Diagnostic:

Janda says onchocerciasis monitoring and evaluation are especially necessary steps for people leading elimination efforts. The current gold standard for detecting the parasitic worms is a "skinsnip" biopsy. However, snips are generally insensitive indicators of infection, and the sensitivity of the skinsnip decreases and the density of microfilaria in between past and current infections. The key to the assay success was in the making of designer antibodies to detect a

unique biomarker that only shows up when a human host has metabolized a worm Neurotransmitter called tyramine. Humans then secrete this biomarker in unique. A negative on the 'Dipstick' test shows a colored line in the test. Unlike the skin snip biopsy, Janda says this non-invasive test is the first to use a metabolite produced by adult worms.

Hapten and testline conjugate synthesis:

Production of mAbs for NATOG detection requires the synthesis of a small molecule hapten. Due to the number and variety of glucuronidated compounds present in urine, it was vital to obtain mAbs with highly selectivity for NATOG. However, mAbs raised against small molecule carbohydrates often have low affinity. In addition, the selection of an 'immunologically silent' linker becomes increasingly more difficult to achieve as the size of the carbohydrate epitope becomes smaller, resulting in immune dominant responses directed toward the tether and not the compound of interest. For preferential binding of the test line, limiting the sensitivity of the LFJA. The hapten was designed with a simple modification to the amide to append a thiol linking site while maintaining the core NATOG structure.

Health Care Professionals Diagnose Onchocerciasis in this Way: Clinical presumptive diagnosis is made if the patient lives or visits areas where the disease is endemic and has characteristic skin or eye changes described above. Definitive diagnosis is simply done by seeing adult worms in excised skin nodules, eye lesions, or by finding microfilariae in skin shavings or punch biopsies of the skin. In addition, an immunological test for antibodies developed against the parasites early in the infection is useful to determine if a person is infected before microfilariae are detectable. This test is available from the CDC. It is important to obtain a definitive diagnosis so that appropriate treatment can be started (see treatment section below). Onchocerciasis is a type of filariasis that does not respond well to some other drugs used to treat other similar filarial diseases. Diethylcarbamazine, a commonly used drug that is a derivative of piperazine, actually has been linked to severe and sometimes fatal patient reactions when used to treat onchocerciasis. A new drug capable of killing the adult worms of onchocerciasis is under study for use in humans. It's named moxidectin but has not yet been approved for use in humans for treatment of onchocerciasis.

3. Treatment

Treatment is done by giving the patient ivermectin, an antiparasitic drug once or twice per year for about 10-15 years (the life span of adult worms). This antiparasite drug is effective in killing the microfilariae but does not kill the adult worms. The mature worms may remain alive for 10-15 years in the patient. Most clinicians recommend that subcutaneous nodules should be excised, if possible, thereby removing the adult worms that may reproduce more microfilariae over time. Some clinicians recommend that

after ivermectin treatment, patients may benefit from a six-week dose of doxycycline antibiotic. Doxycycline damages and kills *Wolbachia* bacteria that are inside the microfilariae and adult worms, resulting in the death of microfilariae and ineffective microfilariae produced by the surviving adult worms. This may slow or halt further disease development.

The use of diethylcarbamazine (a treatment used before ivermectin became available) is contraindicated. It may cause severe or fatal patient reactions in individuals with onchocerciasis. The standard treatment for onchocerciasis is ivermectin (150- μ g/kg given orally every 6 to 12 months). Ivermectin is a highly lipophilic, 16-membered macrocyclic lactone from *Streptomyces avermitilis*. Single-dose ivermectin effectively kills microfilariae by blocking postsynaptic, glutamate-gated chloride ion channels, inhibiting transmission, and paralyzing the nematode. It also appears to enhance immune responses against *O. volvulus* in the treated host. Other than a significant oncogenic effect on adult female worms, ivermectin has little macrofilaricidal effect; therefore, it controls but does not cure the disease. One year after receipt of ivermectin treatment, skin microfilarial densities regain at least 20% of pretreatment levels, requiring repeated treatments for the lifespan of the adult worm. A 15-month study showed that ivermectin is actually more effective at preventing further reactive onchocercal skin lesions than at clearing extant lesions. Effective ivermectin treatment apparently requires a robust immune response. Administration of single doses of 150 μ g/kg every 3 months has been recommended on the basis of evidence of decreased rates of posttreatment reactions (e.g., edema, pruritis, and backache) over time, compared with yearly dosing. This is thought to be due to decreased numbers of microfilariae dying and releasing their antigens after more frequent treatments.

High-dose ivermectin (800 μ g/kg) was shown to be no more effective than administration of the 150 μ g/kg dose, and high doses may be harmful. In 2003, Awadzi et al. reported that coadministration of ivermectin and albendazole, although apparently safe, did not lead to prolonged or enhanced microfilaridemia.

Presently, the only approved medication with a significant effect against adult worms is suramin, but toxicity, inconvenience (twice-daily injections administered for several weeks), and availability only through the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (in the United States) virtually eliminate its clinical utility for treatment of onchocerciasis. A promising new drug, moxidectin, has been shown to have significant macrofilaricidal activity in animal studies, is safe for use in humans, and has already undergone phase II trials.

Adverse Effects of Ivermectin:

Skin reactions after receipt of ivermectin treatment are commonly reported in persons with high microfilarial densities. After receipt of ivermectin treatment, circulating eosinophil counts decrease, and IL-5 and eosinophil-derived neurotoxin levels increase, showing a statistically significant correlation with clinical reaction scores. The physiologic enzyme tryptase, released from mast cells, can be used as a marker of degranulation. Cooper et al showed that plasma tryptase levels increase 12 h after microfilarial

killing with ivermectin, preceding adverse symptoms, which start 24 h and peak 36 h after receipt of ivermectin treatment. This increase correlated with clinical reaction scores, markers of eosinophilic sequestration (decreased peripheral blood eosinophilia and increased plasma IL-5 levels), and activation of degranulation (increased plasma eosinophil-derived neurotoxin levels). Reactions could be associated with lipopolysaccharide-like endotoxins released by *Wolbachia* symbionts or by hypersensitivity to true parasite antigen.

Burchard et al found a statistically significant correlation between ivermectin treatment and protein-leaking glomerular disturbances 5 days after administration of treatment. Total urinary protein excretion was significantly higher in patients with high microfilarial densities (>80 microfilariae per mg of skin). However, the change was minor and deemed to be clinically negligible. No statistically significant association between onchocerciasis and autoimmune glomerular or tubular disorders was demonstrated.

Ivermectin is a potent P-glycoprotein inhibitor, and as such, it has been shown to be very safe in mammals, whose γ -amino butyric acid (GABA) receptors and neurons lay behind a blood-brain barrier. Care should be taken in patients with active meningoencephalitis or other states associated with a weakened blood-brain barrier. Seizure associated with ivermectin treatment, which was been rarely reported, may be due to the drug passing the blood-brain barrier in susceptible individuals, but it should be noted that epilepsy need not be a contraindication to mass treatment programs. Over the course of large-scale, international treatment programs, there have been no reports of worsened epilepsy after receipt of ivermectin treatment. In addition to epilepsy, some experts believe that onchocerciasis can also cause ≥ 1 of a loosely defined group of growth retardation syndromes. This has not been thoroughly disputed or validated. Because of the rarity of growth retardation syndromes among populations from areas where onchocerciasis is endemic, the safety of ivermectin therapy for patients with growth retardation syndromes cannot be assumed, and such patients are referred to clinics for proper diagnosis and treatment.

Ivermectin Resistance:

As ivermectin continues to be used in both animals and humans, resistance presents another challenge to global eradication efforts. Keddie et al. maintained there may not be preexisting resistance genes among *O. volvulus* populations, slowing the development of ivermectin resistance. However, a study by Ardelli et al. suggests that the genetic heterogeneity of *O. volvulus* is higher than previously thought. They believe that resistance alleles do preexist, that mass ivermectin treatment is rapidly transforming the population genetics of *O. volvulus*, and that clinical resistance is imminent. Indeed, parasites from ivermectin-treated patients demonstrate decreased diversity at many genetic loci for P-glycoprotein, suggesting changes in allelic patterns that may lead to resistance. Although ivermectin resistance has been reported in 4 species of

nematode parasites that generally do not affect humans, it has not yet been unequivocally demonstrated in *O. volvulus*.

4. New Directions in Therapy

A new approach to therapy targets endosymbiotic *Wolbachia* bacteria. In 2000, a landmark study first showed that doxycycline cleared *Wolbachia* bacterial endosymbionts from the endodermis and uteri of adult female worms, leading to unusually extensive worm sterility not seen in other antifilarial treatments. In a nonrandomized, placebo-controlled trial involving humans, doxycycline (100 mg per day for 6 weeks), followed by a single 150- μ g/kg dose of ivermectin, resulted in up to 19 months of amicrofilaridemia, as well as 100% elimination of *Wolbachia* species from worms that were isolated and tested immune histologically. The effect on microfilaridemia is thought to result from a complete block of embryogenesis for at least 18 months. In contrast, ivermectin only works against late-stage developing microfilariae still in the uterus, and it has little or no effect on early-stage embryos. The authors suggest that infected patients who permanently leave areas of endemicity should be offered, in addition to ivermectin, a 4–6-week course of doxycycline (100–200 mg per day) to achieve long-term amicrofilaridemia. PCR-detectable presence of *Wolbachia* species may remain and could signify the presence of dormant but viable bacteria, but these bacteria appear unable to repopulate the worms up to 18 months after treatment. More research is needed to secure this conclusion.

Hoerauf et al recommend concurrent administration of ivermectin with doxycycline therapy, as well as administration of another ivermectin dose 6–8 months later to eradicate microfilariae too immature to be sensitive to the initial microfilaricidal treatment. However, caution should accompany the concurrent use of ivermectin and doxycycline, because these agents have not been formally studied for interactions. An easy way to circumvent the potential for interactions is to delay doxycycline therapy until several days after administration of an ivermectin dose.

5. Conclusion

Onchocerciasis continues to be a problem in Africa and Latin America. With the recent discoveries in doxycycline-mediated eradication of *Wolbachia* species, health care providers now have another option for treating this historically devastating disease. As research and development in DNA-based and antigen-based means of diagnosis continues, physicians will soon have an array of effective and convenient tests at their disposal to diagnose the disease and test for cure. Still, global efforts and further research are needed to control the disease worldwide.

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