

Fig. 2 Inactivation kinetics of the two HEV isolates during dry-heating. Solid lines: at 80°C. Broken lines: at 60°C. Arrow: infectious virus not detected.

Table 2 Viral removal by nanofiltration using filtres of various pore sizes

	HEV"				
BMM filtre	3 _{3Fit} (swJB-N2)	3 _{us} (swJB-M5)	3 ₅₉ (sw.J8-E10)	3 _{SP} (cultured HEV ^d)	4 _{JP} (swJB-H1)
BMM-35N (35 ± 2 nm)	(6·1/4·8)* 1·3°	(6.9/< 3.3) ≥ 3.6	(6-4/3-B) 2-6	(6-0/< 3-2) ≥ 2-8	(5-6/4-5) 1-1
BMM-20N (19 ± 2 nm)	(6·1/< 2·3) ≥ 3·8	(6-9/< 3-3) ≥ 3-6	(6.4/< 3.2) ≥ 3.2	(6·0/< 3·2) ≥ 2·8	(5-6/< 3-0) ≥ 2-6
BMM-15N (15 ± 2 nm)	(6·1/< 2·3) ≥ 3·8	(6.9/< 3.3) ≥ 3.6	(6-4/< 3-2) ≥ 3-2	(6·0/< 3·2) ≥ 2·8	(5-6/< 3-0) ≥ 2-6

^{*}HEV is in PBS.

Genome amount is indicated as total log copies. Left: before filtration; right: after filtration.

**Cog reduction factor. Log reduction factor was calculated from the genome amount in the samples before and after filtration.

Derived from cultured media of HEV-infected AS49 cells.

2.4.0 after treatment at 80°C for 24 h in any samples. However, although the infectivity of HEV was reduced at an LRF of 2.0 and 3.0, respectively, residual infectivity was detected in all samples that were treated at 60°C for 72 h (Fig. 2). These results indicated that the heat sensitivity is different not by genotype or cluster, but by the composition of the sample.

Filtration of HEV

The putative particle size was also evaluated using Planova filtres. All purified HEV isolates were removed to below the detection limit using Planova-15N and -20N, whereas significant amounts of HEV were detected after filtration using Planova-35N. In particular, the removability by Planova-35N was variable for the HEV isolates (Table 2). The result also showed a similar log reduction of viral removable between viruses derived from faeces and cell cultures of genotype 3_{SP}, and suggested that the diameter of viral particles in the purified sample derived from faeces. These results may suggest that the particle size of HEV is around 35 nm, as previously reported [1].

Discussion

Several reports suggested that some industrial swine farms and commercial swine livers in industrial as well as developing

countries could be contaminated by HEV [4.9]. Yazaki et al. detected HEV genomes in commercial swine livers that had been eaten by a hepatitis E-infected patient, as shown by the identical sequences of HEV in the liver and patient's sample by genome analysis. They reported that the patient became infected by eating uncooked liver [4]. Our infection studies using piglets demonstrated that HEV was mainly detected in liver, intestines, serum and faeces, but not detected in muscles [17]. Current epidemiological studies revealed that the prevalence of HEV RNA or anti-HEV IgG-positive blood donors in Hokkaido and Tokyo was 0 01% (56/432,167) of RNA and 3.9% of IgG, and 0.01% (3/44,322) of RNA and 8 6% of IgG, respectively. In addition, the prevalence of anti-HEV IgG in Japan varies according to locality, 1-0 - 8-6% [11]. These results also suggest that although the possibility of transmission is not considered to be high at the moment, some patients who have HEV in their blood may donate blood and this could lead to a transfusion-transmitted infection. Consequently, a monitoring study for donated blood has been initiated in Hokkaido, Japan.

Huang et al., Emerson et al., and Takahasi et al. reported on the heat sensitivity of HEV [13-15]. Several strains heated at 56°C for 1 h were sensitive. Some strains were inactivated to below the detection limit whereas in others, ~< 196 of the virus was still infectious. Unfortunately, these results were not shown with log reduction, time kinetics and effect by stabilizer at 60°C. Furthermore, there has been no report of heat inactivation of freeze-dried samples containing HEV. In

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this study, we investigated the heat sensitivity in liquid and dry conditions over longer periods of time using several HEV isolates belonging to genotypes 3 and 4. The results suggest that the inactivation could be gready influenced by the conditions. In addition, HEV was inactivated gradually at 60°C during dry-heating, whereas it was inactivated to below the detection limit within 24 h at 80°C. This result suggests dry-heating at 80°C to be effective for the inactivation of HEV [18]. The inactivation patterns of HEV at 60°C with albumin and fibrinogen were similar to those of canine parvovirus, which is used as a model of heat-resistant viruses (data not shown). This result suggests that HEV is a heat-resistant virus.

We also evaluated particle size using nanofilters that have a nominal pore size of 15, 19 and 35 nm using isolates from infected swine faeces and from medium cultured with the infected cells. The viral particle size is consistent with a diameter of around 35 nm as reported previously in an electronic microscopic analysis [1].

We reported that the heat sensitivity of parvovirus B19 is also influenced and subsequently varied its inactivation patterns, using different compositions of the inactivation matrix [19]. In addition, although the mechanism of viral particle removal by nanofiltration is size-exclusion, the removal capabilities of these virus-removal filters are also influenced by viral load and the condition/composition of the filtre [20–23]. Therefore, a safety evaluation for HEV contaminants, especially inactivation by beating and removal using, for example, nanofilters, should be performed using validated manufacturing conditions.

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研究報告の概要

スペイン、カタグー感染の抗体陽性

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BLOOD DONORS AND BLOOD COLLECTION

Seroprevalence of *Trypanosoma cruzi* infection in at-risk blood donors in Catalonia (Spain)

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BACKGROUND: The increasing arrival of Latin Americans to Europe and, particularly, to Spain has led to the appearance of new pathologies, such as Chagas disease, a zoonotic infection endemic to rural areas of Central and South America. In the absence of the triatomid vector, one of the main modes of transmission of Chagas disease in nonendemic regions is through blood transfusion.

STUDY DESIGN AND METHODS: The Catalonian Blood Bank has implemented a screening program for Chagas disease in at-risk blood donors and has performed a study to determine the seroprevalence of Trypanosoma cruzi infection in the donor population. The two commercial tests used in all samples were the ID-PaGIA Chagas antibody test (DIaMed) and the blobits. Chagas assay (Blokit).

RESULTS: Overall seroprevalence was 0.62 percent, with 11 donors confirmed positive among the 1770 at-risk donors studied; the highest rate (10.2%) was in Bolivian donors. Interestingly, 1 of the 11 positive donors was a Spaniard who had resided various years in a Chagas disease endemic area. Furthermore, 1 of the positive donors presented detectable parasitemia. CONCLUSION: The results of this study emphasize the need for T. cruzi screening in at-risk blood donors in nonendemic countries. An important finding is the relevance of including in the at-risk category persons who have resided in, but were not necessarily born in, an endemic region. If T. cruzi screening is not routinely. performed in all donations, it remains highly dependent on proper identification of at-risk donors during the predonation interview.

merican trypanosomiasis or Chagas disease is a zoonotic infection endemic to Latin America. In endemic countries, approximately 8 million mately 50,000 new cases are diagnosed every year, and fatal cases are estimated at 14,000 per year.

Trypanosoma cruzi, the causal agent of Chagas disease, can be detected in blood during the initial acute phase, which lasts from 6 to 8 weeks. Most patients are asymptomatic or oligosymptomatic, but when symptoms manifest, the acute stage of the illness may be characterized by fever, lymphadenopathy, mild splenomegaly, and edema, sometimes involving the myocardial tissue and producing acute myocarditis or encephalomyelitis. If they remain untreated, 5 to 10 percent of these patients die.2 After this phase, the infection usually progresses to the chronic stage, in which the parasite is rarely detected in blood. When it is clinically silent, the chronic phase is. called the indeterminate form of the disease. Many patients remain in this clinical situation for the rest of their lives, but 15 to 30 percent will progressively develop symptomatic disease.23 Cardiologic manifestations are

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the hallmark of the chronic stage. The most threatening complications are heart failure and excitability and conductivity disorders leading to cardiac arrhythmia and sudden death. These conditions often require recurrent hospitalization, surgery, or more expensive cardiologic procedures such as pacemakers, implantable automatic defibrillators, and even heart transplants.²⁴ Less frequently, Chagas disease involves the digestive tract.²³

In endemic areas, Chagas disease is commonly transmitted by a triatomid vector that releases parasite-infected excreta into lacerated skin or mucosa. Congenital and transfusion-related transmission are the other principal modes of acquiring T-cruzi infection. Transmission of Chagas disease via blood transfusion has been recognized since 1952. But it was only with the advent of the HIV pandemic in the 1980s that blood control programs began to be implemented in most Latin American countries. Legislation requiring blood transfusion screening has decreased the incidence of transfusion-related Chagas disease. There are varying degrees of success, however, in implementing these control measures in some endemic regions?

In countries where it is not endemic, such as Spain, Chagas disease is considered an emerging infection because of the increasing number of immigrants coming from Latin America. Spain houses approximately 4 million immigrants, and 1.5 million of them were born in a country endemic for Chagas disease.

Transmission of T. cruzi in countries where the vector does not exist occurs mainly through maternal-fetal transmission, organ transplantation, and blood transfusion. Despite this knowledge and confirmed reports of T. cruzi infection through congenital transmission^[a,1] and blood transfusion in nonendemic countries, ¹² little attention has been paid to assuring optimal screening and control measures.

Since September 2005, Spanish regulatory law requires that all at-risk donors be screened for Chagas disease or otherwise be excluded from donation. Donors considered at risk by the Spanish Ministry of Health include persons born in an endemic area, those born of a mother native to an endemic area, and those who have undergone transfusion in an endemic area. The main objective of this article is to estimate the prevalence of T cruzi infection in blood donors in Catalonia through implementation of a T cruzi antibody screening test in donors considered at risk by the Spanish Ministry of Health, as well as all residents for more than 1 month in an endemic area.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Donor selection and study design

Individuals included in the study belonged to one of the following risk groups: Group 1, donors born or transfused

in an endemic area; Group 2, donors born of a mother native to an endemic area; and Group 3, residents in an endemic area for more than 1 month. For the first group, which was expected to contain the largest number of individuals, we calculated a sample size of 1500 subjects for an estimated prevalence of 0.6 percent of *T. cruzi* infection (95% CI, 0.2%-1%). Blood donation was accepted if there was no other reason for rejection (e.g., malaria). In patients who had grounds for rejection, a blood sample was requested only for *T. cruzi* determination.

Each donor answered an epidemiologic questionnaire to obtain information on age, sex, birth place, date of arrival in Spain, visits to endemic regions in Latin America, and living conditions in the endemic area (rural environment, adobe house). The donors signed an informed consent form and the study design was approved by the Ethics Committee for Research of our center. Clinical assessment and follow-up was offered to all positive donors.

Detection methods

Serum samples from at-risk donors were processed for the presence of *T. cruzi* antibodies by two EC-approved tests, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Each of these tests claimed 100 percent sensitivity based on various performance evaluation studies presented in the insert. Screening was performed with a commercially available Chagas antibody test (ID-PaGIA, DiaMed, Cressier sur Morat, Switzerland), a particle gel immunoassay that contains two recombinant antigens: Ag2 and TcE. All blood donations with an initially reactive result in the screening test were rejected. It should be noted that independently of the result of Chagas determination, platelet concentrates were not made from at-risk donors.

The second test used in all samples was the Chagas bioelisa assay (Biokit, Llicá d'Amunt, Spain), which also contains a recombinant antigen, TcF antigen (T. cruzi fusion protein), and consists of a linear assembly of four serologically active peptides PEP-II, TcD, TcB, and TcLoE1.2. When a positive result was obtained in at least one of these tests, a conventional in-house enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) test utilizing whole T. cruzi antigens from Maracay strain epimastigotes was also performed. Samples were confirmed positive when at least two tests gave a positive result (Fig. 1).

All initially positive samples by ID-PaGIA Chagas antibody test and/or Chagas bioelisa assay were retrospectively tested with the *T. cruzi* ELISA test system (Ortho-Clinical Diagnostics, Raritan, NJ), which was FDA-and EC-approved after the beginning of this study. This last test uses epimastigote lysate antigens.

Furthermore, all initially positive samples were assessed for the presence of parasite DNA in blood, using in-house real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR).¹¹

Volume 48, September 2008 TRANSFUSION 1863

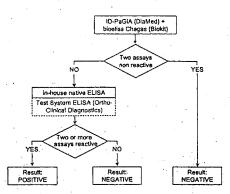


Fig. 1. Algorithm for T. cruzi serology interpretation.

The PCR technique is designed to amplify a highly represented fragment of 166 bp in the satellite DNA of *T. cruzi*, it contains an internal control for DNA extraction and amplification (human RNase P gene), and has an estimated sensitivity of 2 parasites per mL (95% positive hit rate).

RESULTS

Epidemiologic data

Between September 2005 and September 2006, a total of 1770 donors were enrolled in the prevalence study and were screened for *T. cruzi* antibodies. These individuals accounted for 1:1 percent of all blood donors in the first 3 months of the study (Table 1).

Sex distribution (51% men) was similar to that of the general Catalonian donor population (53% men), whereas the mean age was lower than that of the general donor population (35 \pm 11 years vs. 42 \pm 12 years). Approximately half the donors included in the study arrived to Spain after 2000, 5 years before the beginning of recruitment for the study.

According to risk groups, 1524 (86.1%) individuals were born in an endemic area (Group 1), 37 (2.1%) were born of a mother from an endemic area (Group 2), and 209 (11.8%) were temporary residents in an endemic country (Group 3; Table 1). Twenty-one donors (1.2%) stated that they had undergone transfusion in a country endemic for Chagas disease. Only 20.7 percent of donors born in an endemic area stated that they had lived in a rural environment and only 9 percent declared to have lived in an adobe house. For temporary residents, the proportions were 66.5 and 22 percent, respectively (Table 2).

The most highly represented country of origin was Colombia, accounting for 22,3 percent of at-risk donors included in the study, followed by Argentina and Ecuador, accounting for 19.5 and 14.6 percent, respectively

(Table 3). The majority of mothers of the 37 donors in Group 2 came from Argentina (10), followed by Colombia (7), Chile (7), and Peru (3). Most donors from Group 3 (n = 209) had visited various endemic countries during one or several trips.

Prevalence of *T. cruzi* infection in blood donors in Catalonia

In the serologic screening, 21 donors presented an initially reactive result by ID-PaGIA Chagas and 25 by bioelisa Chagas. Samples showing faint agglutination with the use of ID-PaGIA or an inconclusive result with bioelisa (ratio absorbance:cutoff between 0.9 and 1) were considered initially reactive. Only 11 donors were reactive in both tests. The third test (in-house ELISA) was only positive in the 11 serum samples that resulted positive by the two commercial tests used in the screening (Table 4). The results obtained with the *T. cruzi* ELISA test system (Ortho-Clinical Diagnostics) agreed with those obtained with the in-house ELISA (35/35), also based on whole parasite lysate antigens. In addition, 1 of the 11 donors had detectable parasitemia by PCR analysis.

Overall prevalence was 0.62 percent in the at-risk population. Ten of the eleven positive donors were from Group 1 (0.66%), and one was from Group 3 (0.48%) (Table 5). The countries of origin of positive donors were Bolivia (6 cases), Argentina (2), Ecuador (1), and Paraguay (1), and there was one Spaniard who had been living in Venezuela for 27 years. We should emphasize that the number of positive subjects among Bolivians (6 out of 59 Bolivian donors) represents a prevalence of 10.2 percent for this country. None of the 37 donors born of a mother native to an endemic area and none of the donors transfused in an endemic area (n = 21) were positive for T. cruzi antibodies. Only 3 of the 11 positive donors declared that they had been living in a rural area or an adobe house (Table 5).

DISCUSSION

In endemic countries, blood transfusion is the second most important way to acquire Chagas disease. Screening coverage in blood banks has reached 100 percent in-many countries, and this has reduced the risk of transmitting the infection by transfusion. Nevertheless, cases of T. cruzi transmission by blood transfusion have been recently described in Mexico where screening coverage, which is not mandatory at this time, is one of the lowest of all Chagas disease endemic countries. 15:16

In nonendemic countries, blood transfusion is one of the main modes of acquiring the infection, and cases of transmission before screening for *T. cruzi* infection became mandatory in blood donors have been reported in Spain. ^{1,10} European legislation requires permanent rejec-

Donors included by group of risk		Transfused in	Se	x	Delened before	
Group	Number (%)	endemic area*	Male*	Female*	donation*	Age (years)
Bom in an endemic area Bom of a mother native to an endemic area Temporary resident in an endemic area	1524 (86.1) 37 (2.1) 209 (11.8)	21 (1.4) 0 0	758 (49.7) 18 (48.6) 119 (56.9)	766 (50.3) 19 (51.4) 90 (43.1)	95 (6.2) 1 (2.7) 19 (9.0)	35 (10.7) 28 (10.0) 38 (10.7)
Total	1770	21 (1.2)	895 (50.6)	875 (49.4)	115 (6.5)	35 (10.8)

	TABLE 2. Living	conditions	in endemic area	
Group 1: donors born in endem				nt In endernic region
Has lived in rural area	Has lived in adobe house		Has Ived in rural area	Has lived in adobe house
315/1524 (20.7%)	137/1524 (9.0%)		139/209 (66.5%)	46/209 (22.0%)

Country	Tested for anti-T. cruzi	n in an endemic region and of po Percentage of official immigrant population in Catalonia	Number	Anti-T. cruzi-positive donors Rate by country (%)
Colombia Argentina Ecuador	340 (22.3) 298 (19.5) 223 (14.6)	13.8 11.7 29.2 4.4	2	2/298 (0.67) 1/223 (0.45)
Uruguay Peru Brazil	127 (8.3) 123 (8.1) 113 (7.4)	8.9 3.9		
Vénezuela Chile Bolivia	86 (5,6) 77 (5.0) 59 (3.9)	2.4 4.2 8	6	8/59 (10.2)
Mexico Paraguay Honduras	40 (2.6) 15 (1.0) 10 (0.7)	2.6 1.1 1.3	1	1/15 (6.7)
El Salvador Nicaragua	6 (0.4) 3 (0.2)	0.4 0.1 0.1		
Costa Rica Guatemala Panama	2 (0.1) 1 (<0.1) 1 (<0.1)	0.1 0.1		
Total	1524	and the second s	10	

tion of persons with a history of Chagas disease for blood donation. Nevertheless, most people do not present any health problem until many years after acquiring the infection. Because of the increasing number of people from Latin America residing in Europe, and European people who reside for a time in an endemic area, implementation of screening programs for this disease in at-risk donors may be advisable in all European blood banks.

† Data are reported as mean (SD). .

The Catalonian Blood Bank implemented a screening program for Chagas disease in all at-risk donors and simultaneously initiated a study to determine the sero-prevalence of *T. cruzi* infection in its blood donor population. The countries of origin of the largest percentages of at-risk donors in the present study were Colombia.

TABLE 4. Distribution of results obtained with the two commercial kits ID-PaGIA (DiaMed) and bioelisa Chagas (Blokit)

	٠.	Initial res	
Initial result with ID-PaGIA		Positive:	Negative
Positive Negative	1 /	11† 14‡	10‡ 1735

- All Initially reactive results were confirmed as positive or negative by in-house native ELISA. Cohen's kappa Index, 0.471.31
- † In-house native ELISA result positive.
- ± In-house native EUSA result negative.

1864 TRANSFUSION Volume 48, September 2008

Volume 48, September 2008 TRANSFUSION 1865

				TABLE 5. Epidemiologic data of the 11 positive donors	ta of the 11	positive donors				
					Did vou	nov pig		Date of	Наче уол	Transfusion
	1	Age all			e cl ove	live in an		arrival	returned recently	in an endemic
Positive donor	Sex	donation	Country	Town State	nral area?	adobe house?	5	in Spaln	to your country?	country
	(materiemale)	(yaars)	,		4	200		2000	Yes	Š
	u. I	\$	Echador	Macriala, El Olo	, ,	X Y	2	2002	Q	Š
	ш	8	Bolivia	Cochabarnoa, San Bermo	8 s	200	Ž	2002	2	No
	Σ	4	Argentina	GUBYMBIIBIN, MBRIDUZA	2 5	2 5	2	2005	Yes	Š
	IL	ఇ	Bolivia	Santa Chiz, Santa Chiz	2 :	2 2	2 2	2006	S	N
	Σ	8	Bolivia	Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz	2	2 .	2 :	500	2	2
		46	Rollyda	Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz	2	o Z	2	3	2	2
		? ;	Montanal	000000	Yes		Yes	2003		2
	L	5	A STIPLING	Cancas Cartatombo Cartatomba	2		e N	2003	<u>8</u>	Š
	L.	9	BOIIVIZ	Cochabarriua, Cochabarriua	2 2	2	Š	2003	2	No
	u.	40	Bolivia	Santa Cruz	2 2	200	ž	1988	2	
	Σu	6 .	Argentina	San Estanísias, San Pedro	2 2	S oN	2	1978	Yes	°Z

Argentina, and Ecuador, and these were also the countries of origin of the largest percentages of immigrants in Catalonia in 2005 (Table 3).

Overall seroprevalence was 0.62 percent in the 1770 at-risk donors included, and positive donors were mainly from Bolivia, with a 10.2 percent prevalence among donors from this country. The seroprevalence of *T. cruzi* infection in Bolivian donors is very high and is in keeping with the 9.9 percent reported in 2001 in that country (86.1% screening coverage at the time of the study), which is the most highly affected by Chagas disease. The remaining positive donors born in endemic areas were from Argentina, Paraguay, and Ecuador. The seroprevalence of *T. cruzi* infection in blood donors reported in 2001 or 2002 for these countries was 4.5 percent (second most highly affected country), 2.8 percent (third most highly affected country), and 0.4 percent, respectively.

One important finding of this study is the relevance of including persons who have resided in, but were not necessarily born in, an endemic area as an at-risk donor group for *T. cruzi* infection. This population is not considered at risk in the current Spanish regulations. ¹³ One of the 11 positive donors described herein was born in Spain and had resided for many years in Venezuela.

Various studies have reported seroprevalence data in the immigrant population and in blood donors in countries that are not endemic for Chagas disease. In Canada and Germany, for example, seroprevalences of 1 and 2 percent have been described, respectively, in cohorts of asymptomatic immigrants coming from Latin America. 26.21

As to blood donors, two recent surveys in the United States reported a seroprevalence of 0.02 to 0.03 percent among all donors in blood centers in California, Arizona, ²² and Texas. ²³ A previous study carried out in Los Angeles and Miami blood centers identified 7.3 and 14.3 percent of donors as at risk for Chagas disease, with a 0.2 and 0.1 percent seroprevalence of *T. cruzi* infection, respectively, in these at-risk populations. ²⁴

In Spain, some blood banks have implemented Chagas' disease screening in at-risk donors and sero-prevalence data have been described, although some of the results are preliminary. T. cruzi infection seroprevalence varies from 0.05 to 1.38 percent in the available studies. 17.25-27 A mean seroprevalence of 0.65 percent can be calculated from data proceeding from all Spanish blood centers that have performed (or initiated) a survey, including, as a whole, 10.388 blood donors at risk for T. cruzi infection. The results obtained in Catalonia are consistent with these data.

The epidemiologic questionnaire provided some interesting information. First, the mean age of the at-risk donors proceeding from an endemic area (Group I donors) is lower than the general no-risk population (35 years vs. 42 years), as would be expected in immigrants who generally come to Spain to work and improve their

living conditions. Half the population included arrived in Spain after 2000, a fact that illustrates the increasing immigration rates from Latin America observed over the past years. Another interesting result from the questionnaire was that the information obtained about living conditions in the Chagas disease endemic area (rural area, adobe house) did not correlate with the presence or absence of antibodies to T. cruzi. People born in endemic regions (7 of 11 positive donors) generally declared that they had never lived in a rural environment or an adobe house (Table 2), as is commonly assumed. Hence, this question is not useful for differentiation purposes. Interestingly, the same conclusion was drawn from the Berlin study, in which 95 of 100 immigrants declared that they came from an urban area, including the 5 cases of confirmed Chagas disease.21

The two serologic assays used in this study were chosen because at the beginning of the study they were commercially available and EC-marketed. Both are based on recombinant antigens, whereas the third conventional in-house ELISA is based on whole parasite lysate. All samples confirmed as positive had been initially reactive with both recombinant antigens assays, and all samples initially reactive with only one assay presented a nonreactive result in the in-house ELISA and were considered false-positive samples. It is worth noting that many discrepant results observed between both assays corresponded to low 0.9 to 1 signal-to-cutoff rates for bioelisa Chagas (Biokit) or doubtful reactions with ID-PaGIA (DiaMed), which were all considered as initially reactive in this study. Additionally, it should be mentioned that the T. cruzi ELISA test system performed on all initially reactive samples (with one or two tests) confirmed the results obtained with the conventional in-house ELISA. The high rate of inconclusive or false-positive results obtained when one diagnostic test is used underscores the need to confirm all initially positive results with a second serologic technique. In any case, there is still a need for a real confirmatory test to overcome the issues of discrepancies and false results (positive or negative). The ID-PaGIA assay allows testing of a small number of samples at a time. Although this system has the drawback of rather subjective reading, it could be useful in blood centers with a small volume of donations and is now even more reliable since a third antigen has been recently added to increase the sensitivity of the test. The ELISA format, which allows for automation and objective reading, should be indicated in other blood centers. An even more appropriate strategy would be the use of two screening tests, one based on recombinant antigens and the other on crude antigens.28

In summary, this study reports a seroprevalence of T. cruzi infection of 0.62 percent among at-risk donors in Catalonia and emphasizes the need to include individuals who have resided in, but were not necessarily born in

endemic areas as at-risk donors. The difficulty of this type of selective screening is proper identification of the risk population, which essentially depends on the predonation interview. Latin Americans accounted for more than 1 percent of the total of donors in our study, and this substantial contribution underscores the need to accept them as donors.

In the future, techniques to inactivate or reduce the parasite load, which are currently under development or evaluation. **Job might be applicable to blood components. At this time, however, detection of *T. cruzi* infection is the only preventive measure available to accept at-risk blood donors.

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研究報告の概要

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1868 TRANSFUSION Volume 48, September 2008



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Compiled by the Government Communication and Information System Date: 13 Oct 2008
Title: Unknown illness identified as Arenavirus

By Luyanda Makapela

Johannesburg - The virus which has caused the death of three people has been provisionally identified as the rodentborne Arenavirus.

The Arenavirus, related to the Lassa Fever Virus of West Africa, causes chronic infections in multimammate mice. Infected mice's excretion contains the virus which can contaminate human food or house dust.

A joint statement by the National Institute for Communicable Disease (NICD) and the Department of Health explained that the Arenavirus is a disease spread from human to human through the contact of body fluids:

"Special precautions are required in nursing patients," a statement said.

The finding follows blood samples being sent to Atlanta, in the United States to determine the cause of the deaths of three people who had been suspected of contracting Viral Haemorrhagic Fever.

The virus is similar to Lassa Fever, the department said. It has previously been found in rodents elsewhere in Africa, but has not been found to cause disease in humans other than in West Africa:

Further tests are needed to confirm the diagnosis by growing the virus in culture;

"It needs to be determined whether it is a previously unrecognised member of the Areaviruses, and what its distribution is. There is no indication as yet that Arenaviruses which cause disease in humans are present in South African rodents," the NICO said.

The first victim, who had to be flown in from Zambia in a critical condition, was admitted to the Morningside Medi-Clinic in mid September. She died two days later.

About two weeks later, the paramedic who had flown in with the first victim, was admitted at the same clinic presenting the same symptoms.

A nurse, Gladys Mihembu died shortly afterwards. According to certain reports Ms Mithembu's family has been given a go-ahead to continue with the funeral arrangements as her bedroom had been cordoned off by health officials

Maria Mokubung, a cleaner at the Momingside Medi-Clinic, who also died last weekend has since been ruled out as a possible victim of the virus

Meanwhile the Gauteng Health Department has confirmed that the three other patients, including nurse's female supervisor, who had been under observation for showing symptoms of the virus have been discharged.

They had been in contact with the nurse who died.

However, departmental spokesperson-Phumelele-Kaunda said there were two contacts that were still under active surveillance after being admitted for observation.

The one patient is a paramedic who had contact with the first patient and developed fever and flu-like symptoms. He was admitted initially in Flora Clinic and then transferred to Morningside Medi-Clinic with a diagnosis of kidney stones.

The other patient is a nurse who attended to the second patient and developed signs and symptoms similar to the first three patients. She is being treated in isolation and received the anti-viral medication, ribavirin. The patient is presently stable

Gauteng Health MEC Brian Hlongwa meanwhile has sent condolences to the families of those that were killed by the viral infection, particularly families of health professionals who died in the line of duty.

"This illustrates the dedication of our health professionals and the need to society to respect and honour the work that they do," said MEC Hlongwa.

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RSS...RSS....RSS..... What is RSS feed? Click here to find out He also thanked the NICD, the National Health Laboratory Service, Centre for Disease Control in Atlanta and the World Health Organisation for ensuring that the results were made available soon. - BuaNews

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56