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1 ORIGINALARTICLE

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3 **Intracellular amastigote replication may not be required for successful**
4 ***in vitro* selection of miltefosine resistance in *Leishmania infantum***

5 Hendrickx S¹, Mondelaers A¹, Eberhardt E¹, Lachaud L², Delputte P¹, Cos P¹, Maes L^{1*}

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7 ¹ Laboratory of Microbiology, Parasitology and Hygiene, University of Antwerp, Antwerp, Belgium

8 ² Laboratoire de Parasitologie-Mycologie et Centre National de Référence des Leishmanioses, Centre Hospitalier
9 Universitaire et Université de Montpellier, France.

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12 *Corresponding Author's Address

13 Prof. Dr. Louis Maes

14 University of Antwerp

15 Faculty of Pharmaceutical, Biomedical and Veterinary Sciences

16 Laboratory of Microbiology, Parasitology and Hygiene (LMPH)

17 Universiteitsplein 1 –building S 7.27, B-2610 Antwerp, Wilrijk (Belgium)

18 Tel: (32)3/265.26.27 - Fax: (32)3/265.26.81

19 *E-mail: louis.maes@uantwerpen.be

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21 **Abstract**

22 Although miltefosine (MIL) has only recently been positioned as a first-line therapeutic option for
23 visceral leishmaniasis, field reports note an increasing trend in treatment failures. Study of laboratory
24 selected MIL-resistant strains is needed in the absence of confirmed resistant clinical isolates. In
25 contrast to promastigotes, experimental *in vitro* selection of MIL-resistance on intracellular amastigotes
26 has not yet been documented. This study reports for the first time the selection of MIL-resistance in
27 *Leishmania infantum* LEM3323, a strain which clearly shows active intracellular replication. Starting from
28 the hypothesis that active multiplication may be essential in the resistance selection process, several
29 other *L. infantum* strains were evaluated. Although strain LEM5269 showed only marginally lower
30 intracellular multiplication, selection for resistance failed, as was also the case for several other strains
31 showing poor or no intracellular replication. These results suggest that intracellular multiplication may
32 not be an absolute prerequisite for the outcome of experimental *in vitro* MIL-resistance selection in
33 clinical field isolates.

34

35 Introduction

36 Miltefosine (MIL) has been positioned in 2005 as first-line treatment for visceral leishmaniasis (VL) as
37 part of the Kala-azar elimination program, launched to tackle the widespread antimony-resistance in the
38 Indian subcontinent and to reduce the number of VL cases to less than 1/10,000 by 2015 (Dhillon et al.
39 2008). Since MIL has a long elimination half-life and requires a long treatment regimen, development of
40 drug resistance appears unavoidable (Dorlo et al. 2012). MIL is now roughly one decade in widespread
41 use and treatment failures have indeed started to appear in the Indian subcontinent (Rijal et al. 2013).
42 However, despite the trend towards a decreasing MIL-susceptibility, Indian *L. donovani* isolates from
43 MIL-relapse patients do not display a clear MIL-resistant phenotype in the laboratory, raising questions
44 on the true nature of these relapses (Bhandari et al. 2012; Rijal et al. 2013). In other parts of the world
45 where VL infection is generally caused by *L. infantum*, emergence of MIL-resistance is even more
46 probable due to the substantial number of HIV co-infected patients receiving MIL-treatment and
47 because of its veterinary use to treat canine leishmaniasis, known to be zoonotic (Noli and
48 Saridomichelakis 2014; van Griesven et al. 2014). Since both HIV co-infected patients and dogs have
49 difficulties clearing all parasites upon drug treatment, they actually may harbor a huge parasite reservoir
50 under potential continuous drug selection pressure linked to multiple treatment courses, hence
51 facilitating emergence of drug resistance. Most relapse isolates from Brazil where treatment of dogs is
52 not uncommon actually display a decreased MIL-susceptibility (Carnielli et al. 2014), in contrast to the
53 Indian *L. donovani* isolates mentioned earlier. Of particular interest are two laboratory confirmed MIL-
54 resistant *L. infantum* isolates isolated from HIV co-infected patients in Europe (Cojean et al. 2012;
55 Hendrickx et al. 2014).

56 Experimental selection of MIL-resistance in the laboratory may offer insights into putative resistance
57 mechanisms and contribute in designing strategies that cope with emergence and spread of resistance.
58 Previously, we reported an *in vitro* drug resistance selection protocol using intracellular amastigotes
59 whereby several paromomycin (PMM) resistant *L. donovani* strains could relatively easily be generated
60 (Hendrickx et al. 2012). Quite surprisingly, implementation of this protocol for the experimental
61 selection of MIL-resistance did not result in a susceptibility drop (Hendrickx et al. 2014). Considering a
62 possibly enhanced likelihood of MIL-resistance in *L. infantum*, this laboratory study specifically aimed to
63 explore the experimental selection of MIL-resistance in several *L. infantum* field isolates (Table 1). Here,
64 we report for the first time the successful selection of MIL-resistance in a *L. infantum* field isolate
65 (LEM3323) adopting our *in vitro* selection protocol on intracellular amastigotes. In an attempt to explain
66 the discrepancy in resistance-selection efficiency between MIL (poor) and PMM (high), it became clear

67 that LEM3323 was the only strain that displayed high intracellular replication while other strains lacking
68 obvious intracellular multiplication failed to develop MIL-resistance. Evaluation of the role of
69 intracellular multiplication for the successful selection of MIL-resistance was subsequently checked in
70 another *L. infantum* isolate (LEM5269) displaying moderate intracellular growth, however, no resistance
71 could be demonstrated.

72

73 **Materials and methods**

74 Strain selection

75 The selection of *L. infantum* strains showing various backgrounds of resistance for antimony (Sb),
76 miltefosine (MIL) and paromomycin (PMM) is summarized in Table 1. Being aware of the loss of
77 virulence in promastigotes after long-term *in vitro* cultivation, *ex vivo* amastigotes were used for
78 infection with our reference laboratory strain (MHOM/MA/67/ITMAP263) that had already been
79 established in Balb/c mice and hamsters. All other isolates were only available as axenic promastigotes.
80 The field isolates for experimental selection of MIL-resistance were obtained from 'Centre National de
81 Référence des Leishmania (CNRL)' (Dr. L. Lachaud). MHOM/FR/96/LEM3323 originated from a French
82 HIV-positive patient whereas MCAN/DZ/2006/ENV1 (LEM5269) was isolated from an Algerian dog.
83 MCAN/BR/2002/BH402/60 was part of a large efficacy trial with a liposomal meglumine-antimonate
84 formulation (Costa Val 2004) and was isolated from an infected Brazilian mongrel dog. MCAN/ES/--
85 /MILT-200 and MCAN/ES/--/MILT-153 were isolated from infected dogs in Spain (kindly provided by
86 Carmen Cañavate, Centro Nacional de Microbiología, Instituto de Salud Carlos III, Spain). Isolates
87 MHOM/BR/2007/WC (L3015) and MHOM/BR/2007/AS-8 (L3034) were obtained from Brazilian HIV-
88 positive patients from the FIOCRUZ *Leishmania* collection (Inocencio da Luz et al. 2011). Species
89 identification was done previously using isoenzyme electrophoresis and pteridine-reductase 1 (PTR1)
90 sequencing (Inocencio da Luz et al. 2011). Promastigotes of all strains were grown in HOMEM medium
91 (Gibco®, Life technologies, Ghent, Belgium) at 25°C and further cryopreserved until use.

92

93 Microscopic assessment of intracellular amastigote multiplication

94 Primary peritoneal mouse macrophages were collected from female Swiss mice, seeded in 96-well
95 plates at 30,000 macrophages/well in 100 µl of RPMI-1640 (Invitrogen, UK) (da Luz et al. 2009) and
96 infected 24 hours later with metacyclic promastigotes adopting an infection level of 15 promastigotes
97 per macrophage. Metacyclogenesis was carried out by spontaneous acidification of the culture medium

98 as described earlier (Vermeersch et al. 2009). Metacyclic promastigotes were enumerated based on
99 their morphological changes (elongation of the flagellum and shortening of the cell body). Non-
100 internalized promastigotes were removed by successive washing with PBS. Amastigote growth was
101 evaluated by staining infected macrophages every 24h with Giemsa. A minimum of a hundred at random
102 macrophages was evaluated in ten independent microscopic fields to assess the total number of
103 macrophages, the number of infected macrophages (infection rate) and the number of intracellular
104 amastigotes. The infection index was determined according to the formula:

$$\text{Infection index} = \frac{\# \text{ amastigotes counted}}{\text{total} \# \text{ macrophages counted}}$$

105 A correction for differences in baseline infectivity was made to allow comparison between different
106 strains. The infectivity 24h post-infection was used as an internal baseline control (T0). Amastigote
107 multiplication ratios were calculated using the formula:

$$\text{Amastigote multiplication ratio} = \frac{\text{infection ratio at Tx}}{\text{infection ratio at T0}}$$

108

109 Resistance selection

110 Resistance was experimentally induced on intracellular amastigotes, as previously described (Hendrickx
111 et al. 2014) and terminated after five successive selection cycles. Only the two field strains showing
112 increasing intracellular amastigote burdens (LEM3323 and LEM5269) were included for resistance
113 selection.

114

115 Amastigote and promastigote susceptibility testing

116 After subsequent MIL-selection cycles, the susceptibility of both promastigotes and amastigotes was
117 determined as described earlier (Vermeersch et al. 2009). Briefly, amastigote susceptibility was
118 determined by exposing infected primary peritoneal mouse macrophages to two-fold drug dilutions for
119 96h and microscopic evaluation of intracellular amastigote burdens upon Giemsa staining for calculation
120 of IC₅₀-values. Promastigote susceptibility was determined by exposing procyclic promastigotes to two-
121 fold drug dilutions for 72h and adding resazurin for fluorimetric reading and calculation of IC₅₀-values.

122

123 **Results**

124 Microscopic assessment of intracellular amastigote multiplication

125 Results of the microscopic assessment of the intracellular parasite burden upon infection of primary
126 macrophages with metacyclic promastigotes or *ex vivo* amastigotes are presented in Figure 1 and
127 corresponding macrophage infection rates are shown in Table 3. While infection of macrophages with *ex*
128 *vivo* amastigotes from our laboratory reference strain (ITMAP263) resulted in an increasing intracellular
129 parasite burden over time, infection with metacyclic promastigotes consistently resulted in decreasing
130 burdens compared to the initial (24h) intracellular burden, with the exception of two strains, i.e.
131 LEM3323 and LEM5269.

132

133 Resistance selection

134 A previous study from our research group already reported particular difficulties for successfully
135 establishing a MIL-resistant phenotype of *L. donovani* when using intracellular amastigotes during
136 successive selection cycles (Hendrickx et al. 2014). The two *L. infantum* field isolates showing increasing
137 intracellular amastigote burdens in primary peritoneal macrophages (Fig. 1) were selected to check the
138 role of replication in the selection outcome of MIL-resistance. Both strains were exposed to five
139 successive *in vitro* selection cycles (Table 2) and remarkably only resulted in the generation of MIL-
140 resistant LEM3323 (amastigote IC₅₀ >20 µM; promastigote IC₅₀ >40 µM). Strain LEM5269, showing
141 intracellular multiplication only to a slightly lower extend compared to LEM3323, remained fully MIL-
142 susceptible both at promastigote and amastigote level.

143

144 **Discussion**

145 Within about one decade of its use as first-line therapy, miltefosine (MIL) is confronted with an increase
146 in treatment failure rates in the Indian subcontinent (Rijal et al. 2013). However, while isolation of
147 *L. donovani* strains with laboratory confirmed MIL-resistance has failed up till now, two MIL-resistant
148 field isolates of *L. infantum* were obtained from HIV co-infected patients in Europe (Cojean et al. 2012;
149 Hendrickx et al. 2014). The fact that its pharmacokinetic profile favors the selection of MIL-resistance
150 (Dorlo et al. 2012) in addition to its regular use in HIV co-infected patients and in veterinary practice to
151 treat canine leishmaniasis, is an argument to monitor the emergence and spread of MIL-resistance even
152 more. After all, both dogs and HIV-patients may function as parasite reservoirs as complete parasite
153 clearance is difficult to achieve upon drug treatment (Noli and Saridomichelakis 2014; van Griesven et al.
154 2014). So far, research on MIL-resistance has mainly focused on the identification of resistance
155 mechanisms in laboratory-induced strains using *in vitro* selection protocols on axenic promastigotes

156 (Pérez-Victoria et al. 2006; Seifert et al. 2007). However, promastigotes cannot be regarded as the
157 relevant parasite stage for infection in mammals, hereby underlining the need to focus on intracellular
158 amastigotes for *in vitro* resistance selection (Hendrickx et al. 2012). Moreover, previous research already
159 demonstrated that in contrast to the straightforward selection of MIL-resistance on promastigotes,
160 selection of MIL-resistance on intracellular amastigotes could not be achieved for a variety of
161 *L. donovani* and *L. infantum* isolates (Pérez-Victoria et al., 2003; Hendrickx et al. 2014). This study now
162 reports for the first time experimental selection of actual MIL-resistance in an *L. infantum* field isolate
163 (LEM3323), resulting in a MIL-resistant phenotype both on promastigote and amastigote level, with
164 susceptibility levels reaching macrophage cytotoxic concentrations (Table 1).

165 In-depth characterization of strain-specific traits revealed an unexpected decline in initial (24h)
166 intracellular amastigote burdens for most *L. infantum* field isolates, except for LEM3323 and LEM5269
167 which both displayed increasing intracellular parasite burdens (Fig. 1). Since strain LEM3323 had been
168 the only isolate to acquire a MIL-resistant phenotype so far, intracellular amastigote replication was
169 assumed to be a decisive feature for selection of MIL-resistance in our *in vitro* selection protocol. To
170 challenge this hypothesis, LEM5269 was also subjected to successive MIL-selection cycles. However, no
171 shift in MIL-susceptibility could be observed, which strongly contrasts with the complete MIL-resistant
172 phenotype of LEM3323 within 5 selection cycles. Failure to select for resistance occurred with
173 *L. infantum* L3015 and various *L. donovani* isolates that also displayed decreasing amastigote burdens
174 (Fig. 1) (Hendrickx et al. 2014; unpublished data). As such, no formal causal relationship between *in vitro*
175 intracellular amastigote replication and successful selection of MIL-resistance could be identified. The
176 findings with LEM3323 still remain unique and deserve further investigation both at genomic and
177 phenotypic level. Since infection with *ex vivo* amastigotes also results in *in vitro* amastigote replication
178 (Fig. 1), follow-up research will include this as well, together with the dynamics of resistance selection in
179 MIL-treated laboratory animals. Above all, it is encouraging to learn that development of full-blown MIL-
180 resistance may be much less probable than originally assumed, and actually may explain the current
181 inability to isolate resistant parasites from MIL-treated relapse patients. However, seeing the limited
182 number of alternatives in the drug discovery pipeline, additional research to understand the increasing
183 treatment failure rates remains pivotal to safeguard MIL-treatment for future use.

184

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239 **Tables**

240 **Table 1: Overall susceptibility profile of the clinical isolates to evaluate intracellular amastigote replication potential.** The
 241 a mastigote susceptibility profile based on the routine intracellular susceptibility assay of the selected strains is shown for
 242 pentavalent antimonials (Sb^V), trivalent antimonials (Sb^{III}), miltefosine (MIL) and paromomycin (PMM). Actual MIL IC₅₀-values
 243 (shown right) are the result of at least three independent replicates (SEM: standard error of mean; isolates were typed R:
 244 resistant; S: sensitive or I: intermediate resistant, as described previously (Inocência da Luz et al. 2011)).
 245

Strain	Country	Origin	Sb ^V	Sb ^{III}	MIL	PMM	Amastigote		
							IC ₅₀	±	SEM
MHOM/MA/67/ITMAP263	Marocco	reference lab strain	S	S	S	S	1.0	±	0.1
BH 402/60	Brazil	dog isolate	S	S	S	S	1.4	±	0.6
L3034	Paraguay	HIV-pos patient	R	I	S	S	1.6	±	0.3
MILT200	Spain	dog isolate	S	S	S	S	0.6	±	0.3
LEM4023	France	HIV-pos patient	R	S	S	S	1.2	±	0.7
LEM5269	Algeria	dog isolate	R	R	S	S	1.4	±	0.1
L3015	Brazil	HIV-pos patient	R	I	S	S	0.8	±	0.1
MILT153	Spain	dog isolate	R	S	S	S	0.4	±	0.2
LEM3323	France	HIV-pos patient, failure AmB	R	R	S	S	2.3	±	0.5

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Table 2: Amastigote and promastigote susceptibility data of two strains before and after five successive MIL-resistance selection cycles (MIL). IC₅₀-values for both amastigotes and promastigotes are presented. All assays were run in triplicate. (mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM), 3 replicates).

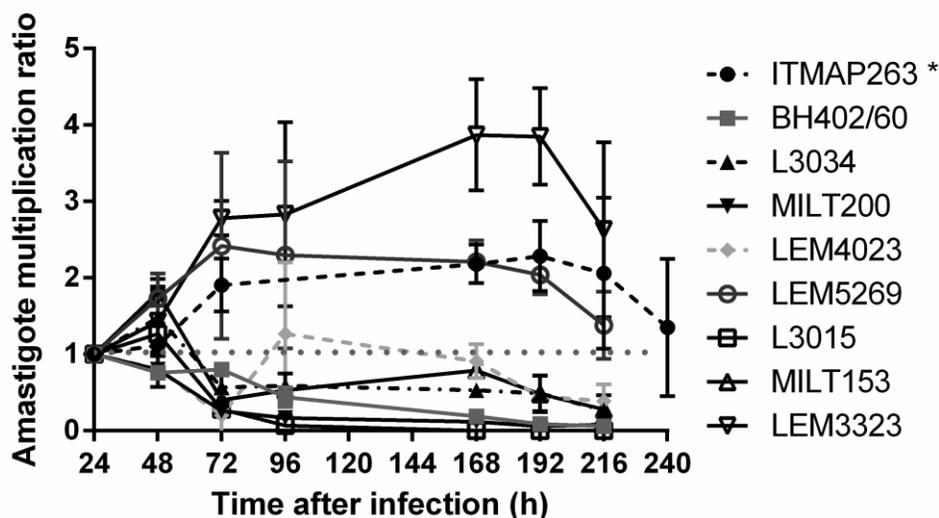
Strain	Amastigote			Promastigote		
	IC ₅₀	±	SEM	IC ₅₀	±	SEM
LEM3323	2.3	±	0.5	5.3	±	0.3
LEM5269	1.4	±	0.1	11.8	±	1.0
LEM3323 MIL		>20			>40	
LEM5269 MIL	1.1	±	0.1	11.5	±	1.1

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255 **Table 3: Mean macrophage infection rates of different *L. infantum* clinical isolates.** Infection rates are the percentage of
 256 infected macrophages in two independent repeats and are presented as the mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM).
 257

Strain	Infection rate (%)		
	Mean	\pm	SEM
ITMAP263	97.8	\pm	2.2
BHU402/60	92.2	\pm	7.8
L3034	82.2	\pm	0.9
MILT200	60.1	\pm	13.0
LEM4023	87.5	\pm	2.5
LEM5269	77.5	\pm	9.5
L3015	59.0	\pm	2.8
MILT153	81.5	\pm	8.5
LEM3323	87.5	\pm	3.3

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 261 **Figure 1. Intracellular growth curves of *L. infantum* field isolates and a reference lab strain.** A decline in intracellular
 262 amastigote burden was observed for most *L. infantum* strains, except for LEM3323 and initially also for LEM5269. When *ex vivo*
 263 amastigotes* of the lab strain (ITMAP263) were used to infect host cells, increasing parasite burdens were observed.
 264 Amastigote multiplication ratios were the result of at least two independent replicates and are presented as mean \pm standard
 265 deviation.