

Revista da Sociedade Brasileira de Medicina Tropical

Journal of the Brazilian Society of Tropical Medicine

Vol.:56 | (e0341-2022) | 2023





Major Article

Subclinical signs of podocyte injury associated with Circulating Anodic Antigen (CAA) in *Schistosoma mansoni*-infected patients in Brazil

Mariana Silva Sousa^{[1],[2], ©}, Gdayllon Cavalcante Meneses^{[2], ©}, Govert Jan van Dam^{[3], ©}, Paul Leo Albert Maria Corstjens^{[4], ©}, Rosangela Lima de Freitas Galvão^{[1],[5], ©}, Marta Cristhiany Cunha Pinheiro^{[1], ©}, Alice Maria Costa Martins^{[6], ©}, Elizabeth de Francesco Daher^{[2], ©} and Fernando Schemelzer de Moraes Bezerra^{[1],[2],[5], ©}

[1]. Universidade Federal do Ceará, Departamento de Análises Clínicas e Toxicológicas, Laboratório de Pesquisa em Parasitologia e Biologia de Moluscos, Fortaleza, CE, Brasil.

[2]. Universidade Federal do Ceará, Programa de Pós-graduação stricto senso em Ciências Médicas, Fortaleza, CE, Brasil.

[3]. Leiden University Medical Centre, Department of Parasitology, Leiden, The Netherlands.

[4]. Leiden University Medical Centre, Department of Cell and Chemical Biology, Leiden, The Netherlands.

[5]. Universidade Federal do Ceará, Programa de Pós-graduação stricto senso em Patologia, Fortaleza, CE, Brasil.

[6]. Universidade Federal do Ceará, Programa de Pós-graduação stricto senso em Ciências Farmacêuticas, Fortaleza, CE, Brasil.

ABSTRACT

Background: The long-term effects of schistosomiasis on the glomerulus may contribute to the development of chronic kidney disease. This study aimed to investigate baseline *Schistosoma mansoni*-Circulating Anodic Antigen (CAA) levels and their association with kidney biomarkers related to podocyte injury and inflammation in long-term follow-up after praziguantel (PZQ) treatment.

Methods: *Schistosoma* infection was diagnosed by detecting CAA in urine using a quantitative assay based on lateral flow using luminescent up-converting phosphor reporter particles. A cutoff threshold of 0.1 pg/mL CAA was used to diagnose *Schistosoma* infection (baseline) in a low-prevalence area in Ceará, Northeast, Brazil. Two groups were included: CAA-positive and CAA-negative individuals, both of which received a single dose of PZQ at baseline. Urinary samples from 55 individuals were evaluated before (baseline) and at 1, 2, and 3 years after PZQ treatment. At all time points, kidney biomarkers were quantified in urine and adjusted for urinary creatinine levels.

Results: CAA-positive patients had increased baseline albuminuria and proteinuria and showed greater associations between kidney biomarkers. CAA levels correlated only with Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF) (podocyte injury) levels. Increasing trends were observed for malondialdehyde (oxidative stress), monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (inflammation marker), and VEGF. In the follow-up analysis, no relevant differences were observed in kidney biomarkers between the groups and different periods.

Conclusions: *S. mansoni*-infected individuals presented subclinical signs of glomerular damage that may reflect podocyte injury. However, no causal effect on long-term renal function was observed after PZQ treatment.

Keywords: Schistosomiasis. Kidney disease. Up-Converting Phosphor Reporter Particle. Lateral Flow Circulating Anodic Antigen (UCP-LF CAA) assay, biomarkers. Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF).

Corresponding author: Fernando Schemelzer Moraes Bezerra. e-mail: bezerra@ufc.br

Authors' contribution: FB, MS, ED, GM, GD and MP: Conceived and designed the experiments; MS, RG, GM, GD, MP and AM: Performed the experiments; MS, GM, GD, PC, FB and RG: Analyzed the data; FB, ED, AM, GD and PC: Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools; MS: Wrote the first draft of the manuscript; MS, GM, GD, PC, FB and ED: Wrote sections and revising it critically. All the authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest related to this research.

Financial Support: This study was supported by The National Council for Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq) – Brazil – MCTI (Ministério da Ciência, Tecnologia e Inovação): Finance Code CNPq Proc. 402112/2016-4. It had financial support from the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) – Brazil – Finance Code 001. Moreover, the University of Georgia Research Foundation, Inc., funded by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation through the Consortium for Operations Research and Assessment of Schistosomiasis (SCORE), provided technical support for this project.

Received 2 August 2022 | Accepted 22 November 2022







INTRODUCTION

Despite the reduction in mortality and morbidity, schistosomiasis was reported in 8,756 deaths between 2000 and 2011 in Brazil and remains an important public health issue¹. According to a national prevalence survey (2010-2015), an estimated 1.5 million people are infected with this disease in Brazil². Severe clinical forms of schistosomiasis may be present even in low-endemic areas³, and a spatiotemporal analysis identified high-risk clusters of death, mainly in areas along the coast of Brazil's Northeast Region⁴.

Renal involvement in schistosomiasis mansoni is characterized by glomerular changes^{5,6}, although renal tubular damage has been reported⁷. Recently, a case report described *S. mansoni* infection as a trigger for the development of collapsing glomerulopathy in a patient with a high-risk APOL1 genotype⁸.

Therapeutic interventions performed in endemic areas of Brazil do not seem to have reduced the prevalence of *S. mansoni* glomerulopathy, although credible and reliable evidence is lacking⁹⁻¹⁰. The incidence of renal involvement in schistosomiasis varies from 5% to 6% in patients with schistosomiasis, whereas it increases by up to 15% in the hepatosplenic form¹¹.

The diagnosis of *S. mansoni* infections is routinely performed through microscopic detection of parasite eggs in stool¹² using the Kato-Katz technique. However, this diagnostic technique has lower sensitivity in areas of low endemicity, which results in an underestimation of infection prevalence¹³.

Assays for the detection of *Schistosoma* circulating antigens (gut-associated antigens of adult worm) have been extensively described and are considered promising. Circulating cathodic antigen (CCA) and circulating anodic antigen (CAA) are both used to diagnose ongoing worm infections^{14,15,16}. The CAA assay applies sensitive and quantitative up-converting reporter particle (UCP) technology in combination with a user-friendly lateral flow test platform (UCP-LF CAA assay) and can be applied to serum and urine¹⁴.

The test has been successfully applied in low-transmission settings in the People's Republic of China, Tanzania, and Burundi for the diagnosis of *S. japonicum*¹⁷ *S. haematobium*¹⁸ and *S. mansoni* infections, respectively¹⁹, and was applied in Brazil, as reported in an accompanying previous article²⁰, which evaluated the performance of the UCP-LF CAA assay to determine *S. mansoni* infections in the same study area.

Schistosomal glomerulopathy is an example of immune complex-induced parasitic nephropathy²¹. Kidney biopsies from individuals with active *S. mansoni* showed deposits of circulating antigens (CAA and CCA). In renal glomeruli, these antigens are major contributors to the pathogenesis of schistosomal glomerulonephritis²².

New kidney biomarkers have been studied in different clinical contexts, showing greater specificity and sensitivity than classic clinical kidney markers²³. Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) is one of the most widely studied biomarkers of glomerulopathies and is associated with glomerular inflammation and interstitial nephritis²⁴. Studies have shown that MCP-1 plays a central role in tubulointerstitial and glomerular lesions in membranoproliferative glomerulonephritis²⁵, lupus nephritis²⁶, crescentic glomerulonephritis²⁷, diabetic nephropathy²⁸, and IgA

nephropathy²⁹. Elevated urinary MCP-1 levels have also been reported in patients with visceral leishmaniasis³⁰. In the chronic intestinal form of schistosomiasis, high urinary MCP-1 levels showed subclinical glomerular kidney injury in *S. mansoni*-infected patients residing in an area of low endemicity³¹.

Another new biomarker is Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF), which is essential for the maintenance of the glomerular filtration barrier³². The serum levels of VEGF are increased in patients with active lupus nephritis³³, and its urinary levels reflect podocyte damage in diabetic nephropathy³⁴. This growth factor plays an important role in the pathogenesis of several diseases, including cancer and coronavirus disease³⁵. Regarding infectious and parasitic diseases, a recent study showed that patients infected with *S. mansoni* and without clinical kidney disease had significantly higher urinary VEGF levels than the schistosomiasis-negative group³⁶.

The long-term impacts of the initial infection have not yet been investigated, and glomerular involvement may be critical for the development of chronic kidney disease (CKD). Hence, the present study aimed to evaluate the involvement of glomerular damage biomarkers in patients diagnosed with *S. mansoni* infection from an area of low endemicity in Brazil. Additionally, a long-term study was conducted to evaluate the causal effect of *S. mansoni* infection on renal function.

METHODS

Ethics, recruitment, and treatment

The study protocol was approved by the Federal University of Ceará (UFC) Ethical Committee (Opinion N. 3.706.472) and was conducted with adherence to the Resolution N. 466/12 of the Brazilian Health Council and to the Declaration of Helsinki, as revised in 1975, 1983, 1989, 1996, and 2000.

Treatment with praziquantel (PZQ) (Farmanguinhos, Ministry of Health, Brazil) was offered to all individuals free of charge, regardless of infection status at baseline. It was performed with a single dose of 60 mg/kg for children (≤15 years old) and 50 mg/kg for adults, as recommended by the Brazilian Ministry of Health³⁷.

Study area and population

The study used a longitudinal design and was carried out in the community of Bananeiras, a rural locality that belongs to the Capistrano municipality in Ceará state, Northeast Brazil (geographical coordinates: 4° 28' 20" S latitude, 38° 54' 14" W longitude). The KK technique revealed only four positive stool samples (1.6%) in this community²⁰.

Inclusion criteria

To be included, the individuals had to meet the following criteria at baseline: 1) age \geq 15 years at recruitment; 2) informed consent; 3) no recent treatment for schistosomiasis (at least within the past two years); and 4) no kidney disease, diabetes, and/or hypertension.

The study consisted of two groups based on the detection of *S. mansoni* CAA at baseline: a group of *S. mansoni*-infected individuals, CAA-positive (PG), and a group of individuals not infected by *S. mansoni*, CAA-negative (NG). All individuals in both groups received PZQ treatment and underwent long-term evaluation- one, two, and three years after treatment.

Sample collection

At baseline, one day before the collection day, plastic containers labeled with specific identification numbers were delivered to each study participant. The following day, the community was invited to return the containers filled with a fresh morning urine sample to fieldworkers stationed at Bananeiras Health Center. Aliquots of urine (5 mL) were frozen and stored at -20°C at the Parasitology and Mollusks Biology Research Laboratory at UFC in Brazil, prior to their transfer to the Leiden University Medical Center (LUMC) in the Netherlands for CAA testing. Smaller aliquots (1mL) remained in Brazil for the measurement of urinary kidney biomarkers. Urine samples were collected again at one, two, and three years post-treatment using the same procedures. Only one urine sample was collected at each time point.

S. mansoni infection diagnosis by UCP-LF CAA assays at baseline

Baseline urine samples were frozen and transported on dry ice to LUMC, where they were stored at -20°C. Urine samples were analyzed using a highly sensitive concentration-based assay (UCAA2000 format of the UCP-LF CAA test)¹⁴. Briefly, 2 mL urine samples were diluted with an equal volume of 4% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid and centrifuged, and then the clear supernatants were reduced to 20–30 µL amounts using an Amicon Ultra-4 device (EMD Millipore; Billerica, MA, USA) with a 10 kDa molecular weight cutoff. After incubation with the UCP-antibody conjugate, LF was initiated¹⁴. Strips were scanned for bound UCP using a Packard FluoroCount microtiter plate reader adapted with an IR laser (980 nm) modified to scan LF strips³⁸.

Moreover, standard curves of CAA spiked in negative urine samples were used to quantify CAA levels in the clinical samples¹⁵. The assay cutoff of 0.1 pg/mL was confirmed by Corstjens et al³⁹.

Urinary kidney biomarkers

Urinary creatinine and albumin levels were quantified by immunoturbidimetry (COBAS C111, Roche®). Proteinuria was quantified using a colorimetric method through a reaction with pyrogallol red (Labtest® MG, Brazil). Urinary oxidative stress was assessed using urinary malondialdehyde (MDA) levels, which react with thiobarbituric acid. MCP-1/CCL2 and VEGF were quantified by ELISA according to the manufacturer's standards (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA).

The ASYS Expert Plus model was used for colorimetric reading based on the detection limits of the kits. The detection limits were 15.6 pg/mL and 31.3 pg/mL for MCP-1 and VEGF, respectively.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software version 20 (IBM Corp., Armonk, USA). Descriptive statistics are expressed as means and standard deviations or medians with interquartile ranges for continuous variables and frequency counts (percentages) for categorical data. CAA and kidney biomarkers were expressed based on the urinary creatinine ratio⁴⁰. Normal distribution was verified using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test. Levene's test was used to compare variability between groups. Continuous variables were compared using Student's T or Mann–Whitney test. Paired analysis aimed at comparing biomarkers during the participants' post-treatment follow-up was performed using Friedman's test, followed

by pairwise comparisons with Wilcoxon's test. To avoid type I error, the critical p value was adjusted according to the number of groups: 0.05/4 = 0.0125. Thus, for pairwise comparisons, $p \le 0.0125$ among the groups was considered statistically significant. Categorical variables were compared using the chi-squared test. Spearman's rho coefficient was used to determine correlations between the analyzed variables. Univariate regression analysis was used to determine the association between kidney biomarkers and antigens and unfavorable renal outcomes. All tests were two-tailed, and a 5% level of significance was adopted for all inferential procedures.

RESULTS

Study group characteristics and adherence

A total of 55 patients were analyzed: 38 *S. mansoni*-infected patients (PG) and 17 uninfected patients (NG). The patients had no clinically relevant kidney diseases. The study included 27 men (49.1%). The median CAA level in the PG was 1.8 pg/mL (0.7–4.1) and 1.6 pg/mL (0.6–3.6) for uncorrected and corrected for urinary creatinine levels, respectively. The patients' characteristics are shown in **Table 1**.

Renal parameters at baseline

There was a significant increase in albuminuria and proteinuria in the PG group before treatment, as shown in **Table 2**.

Increasing trends were observed for MDA, MCP-1, and VEGF, but these were not statistically significant (**Table 2**). Nonetheless, by performing a correlation analysis within each group, significant associations between the biomarkers were observed in PG (**Figure 1**).

Correlation of *S. mansoni* urine CAA levels with renal parameters at baseline

CAA levels correlated only with VEGF levels, showing an association at baseline between antigen concentration and podocyte injury biomarkers (**Table 3**). However, the correlation coefficient was 0.43, which represents a low association, and its clinical relevance should be evaluated.

Post-treatment follow-up analysis

Figure 2 shows the concentrations of each kidney biomarker at the four cross-sectional time points in PG and NG. In relation to the NG group, no statistical significance was observed for all biomarkers, except for urinary MDA regarding comparison between "baseline" and "Second year" (p=0.009).

The PG group showed no statistically significant differences in albuminuria (p=0.098), MCP-1 (p=0.139), and VEGF (p=0.457) biomarkers. However, regarding proteinuria, statistical significance was detected for "baseline" vs "First year"; "baseline" vs "Second year"; "First year" vs "Third year"; and "Second year" vs "Third year" (p<0.001). After baseline, proteinuria decreased in the first and second years and increased again in the third year of follow-up.

Moreover, for urinary MDA, "baseline" vs "Second year" and "First year" vs "second year" also showed significant differences (p<0.001). Similar to proteinuria, MDA levels decreased in the two years following the baseline.

Due to the detection of associations between biomarkers in the PG at baseline (**Figure 1**), correlation analyses of baseline VEGF and CAA with renal outcome in the post-treatment prospective follow-up were performed in this group.

TABLE 1: Characteristics of CAA-positive and CAA-negative S. mansoni patient groups at baseline, Brazila.

	PG (n=38)	NG (n=17)	p value
Male sex, nº (%)	17 (45)	10 (59)	0.334
Age	39.4 [15.7]	38.7 [12]	0.873
Glycemia, mg/dL	107.6 [22.3]	103.3 [12.6]	0.489
SBP, mmHg	12.9 [2]	12.4 [1.4]	0.399
DBP, mmHg	8.4 [1.4]	8.1 [1]	0.341
UCAA2000-,pg/mg-Crb	1.6 (0.6 - 3.6)	-	

^aData are expressed as mean, with standard deviation in brackets or as median and interquartile range in parentheses except as indicated. Chi-square test was applied for categorical data; Student's t and Mann–Whitney tests were used for normally and non-normally distributed data, respectively. Urine CAA levels were corrected for urinary creatinine (Cr) levels. CAA: Circulating Anodic Antigen; PG: CAA-Positive Group; NG: CAA-Negative Group; SBP: Systolic Blood Pressure; DBP: Diastolic Blood Pressure. ^bUCAA 2000-: UpConverting reporter Particle Lateral Flow Circulating Anodic Antigen (UCP-LF CAA) assay prepared with 2 mL of urine, indecisive results were considered negative.

TABLE 2: Renal parameters of CAA-positive and CAA-negative S. mansoni patient groups at baseline, Brazila.

	PG (no. patients =38)	NG (no. patients =17)	p value
Albuminuria, mg/g-Cr	3.82 (2.18 - 7.58)	1.74 (1.25 - 2.77)	0.005
Proteinuria, mg/g-Cr	79.28 (64.73 - 119.70)	57.68 (53.58 - 75.93)	0.025
VEGF, pg/mg-Cr	31.19 (14.38 - 50.04)	23.78 (9.55 - 53.41)	0.346
MDA, µmol/mg-Cr	5.89 (5.08 - 6.97)	5.12 (4.56 - 6.04)	0.103
MCP-1, pg/mg-Cr	82.70 (58.01 - 127.97)	63.11 (52.79 - 93.32)	0.171

^aData are expressed as median and interquartile range in parentheses. Mann–Whitney test was used for non-normally distributed data. All kidney biomarkers were corrected for urinary creatinine (Cr) levels. **CAA**: Circulating Anodic Antigen; **PG**: CAA-Positive Group; **NG**: CAA-Negative Group; **VEGF**: Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor; **MDA**: Malonaldehyde; **MCP-1**: Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1.

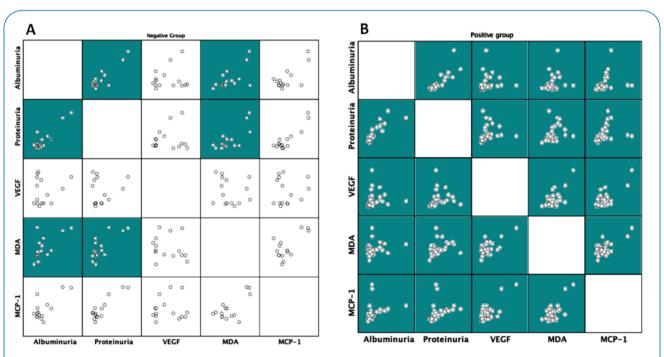


FIGURE 1: Matrix scatter plots of the baseline renal parameters in CAA-negative and CAA-positive groups. The green squares represent a significant correlation (p <0.05). VEGF: Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor; MDA: Malondialdehyde; MCP-1: Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1.

TABLE 3: Correlation of urine CAA with renal parameters in the PG at baseline, Brazila.

PG (no. patients =38)	UCAA2000-, pg/mg-Cr ^b	
	Rho	p value
Albuminuria, mg/g-Cr	0.042	0.809
Proteinuria, mg/g-Cr	0.009	0.959
VEGF, pg/mg-Cr	0.425	0.012
MDA, umol/g-Cr	0.149	0.393
MCP-1, pg/mg-Cr	-0.010	0.954

^aSpearman's correlation analysis; Rho coefficient. CAA and kidney biomarkers were corrected for urinary creatinine (Cr) levels. **CAA**: Circulating Anodic Antigen; **PG**: CAA-Positive Group; **VEGF**: Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor; **MDA**: Malonaldehyde; **MCP-1**: Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1. ^bUCAA 2000-: UpConverting reporter Particle Lateral Flow Circulating Anodic Antigen (UCP-LF CAA) assay prepared with 2 mL of urine, indecisive results were considered negative.

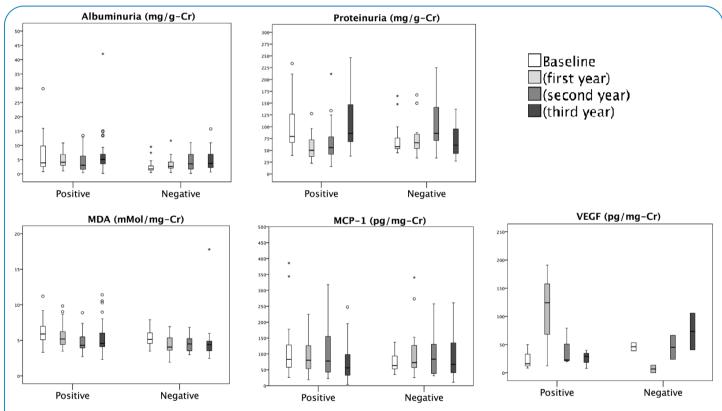


FIGURE 2: The levels of renal parameters at post-treatment prospective follow-up in CAA-positive and CAA-negative groups. The four cross-sectional study time points are shown: baseline (T = 0) and 1, 2, and 3 years after treatment. Albuminuria; MDA: Malonaldehyde; MCP-1: Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1, Proteinuria; VEGF: Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor.

An increase in albuminuria at 1, 2, or 3 years after treatment was considered an unfavorable outcome, since increased albuminuria is, according to the Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) criteria, a diagnostic parameter for CKD. Nevertheless, baseline VEGF and CAA levels for PG were not predictors of albuminuria increase at 1, 2, or 3 years post-treatment in the Spearman's correlation analysis. Similar negative results were obtained on linear regression analyses for both markers.

DISCUSSION

This was the first study to investigate the association between *S. mansoni* infection based on the CAA assay and biomarkers of renal injury, and to show a correlation between urine CAA levels and urinary VEGF levels, a biomarker associated with podocyte injury.

CAA and CCA are the main antigens implicated in schistosomal glomerulonephritis pathogenesis. In this study, the patients were asymptomatic, although they showed increased signs

of glomerular damage, corroborating the findings of other *S. mansoni* experimental and clinical studies in which renal injury was attributed to mechanisms that lead to glomerular alterations^{22,41,42}.

In the current study, the increased signs of glomerular damage observed in *S. mansoni*-infected patients were demonstrated before treatment and thus were due to the parasitic infection itself. In fact, schistosomiasis glomerular damage is characterized by tissue damage from the deposition of immune complexes of parasite-circulating antigens, which may lead to proliferative glomerulonephritis⁴³.

In the present study, comparison of general characteristics did not identify any differences between the CAA-positive and CAA-negative groups. However, a correlation between the urinary levels of CAA and VEGF was also observed. In a recent cross-sectional study that investigated the association between parasite loads of *S. mansoni* and biomarkers of kidney injury, patients residing in areas of high endemicity for schistosomiasis mansoni, diagnosed using the Kato-Katz technique, presented with urinary albumin levels within the normal range. However, urinary VEGF levels were significantly higher than those in the control group³⁶.

The difficulty in diagnosing S. mansoni infection using the Kato-Katz technique due to its low sensitivity in areas of low endemicity has been previously demonstrated in the literature¹³ and equally verified in previous articles that evaluated the performance of the POC-CCA test 44 and the UCP-LF CAA assay²⁰. The latter assay was used to detect and quantify CAA as a diagnostic tool for the stratification of this study's analysis groups. Unfortunately, it would not be possible to stratify the groups using the Kato-Katz technique, as only four patients were diagnosed using this approach in the assessed community, as described previously²⁰. Subsequent studies in moderate to high endemicity areas for schistosomiasis, where the individuals have a higher worm load (with consequently higher CAA concentrations) and the parasitological technique is satisfactory, are needed to better elucidate the findings of this study. Investigations of parasitic load and its relationship with glomerular injury are important. A study carried out using an experimental model of S. mansoni reported a significant correlation between kidney damage and parasite burden⁴⁵. However, in their study among residents of a high endemicity area, Galvão et al.³⁶ demonstrated that renal damage seems to occur regardless of the parasitic load of S. mansoni.

During the two years following baseline, the PG group showed a significant decrease in proteinuria and urinary MDA. Proteinuria levels increased again in the third year. Moreover, when a correlation analysis was performed within each group (CAA-positive and CAA-negative), greater associations were observed between the biomarkers in the PG, indicating that possible glomerular alterations may have occurred in the PG, reflecting the aforementioned increase in albuminuria and proteinuria. The presence of proteinuria in these patients is an important factor, and when elevated, it can accelerate the progression of renal disease through the induction of chemokines and activation of the complement system, which leads to infiltration of inflammatory cells into the renal interstitium⁴⁶. However, in the present study, none of the patients had proteinuria at nephrotic levels, suggesting an insult at baseline, which explains the higher levels of proteinuria in comparison with the subsequent two years. In contrast to visceral leishmaniasis patients, in which elevated proteinuria may result from the presence of hypergammaglobulinemia⁴⁷, a mechanism hypothesis here would be the presence of podocyte

injury, with consequent glomerular filtration process impairment. The correlation between CAA and VEGF at baseline in this study suggests an association between the levels of this antigen responsible for schistosomiasis-associated kidney injury and the podocyte injury biomarker, which may aid in explaining the mechanism of kidney pathogenesis in these patients.

Podocyte injury occurs through the reduction of its primary and secondary processes, causing a rupture in the barrier, resulting in the passage of molecules of clinical importance, such as albumin, and consequently, the appearance of these molecules in the urine. Therefore, podocyte loss cannot be compensated by the remaining healthy cells⁴⁸. Urinary VEGF is an important factor in podocyte survival and is responsible for maintaining the integrity of the glomerular filtration barrier.

Excess or decreased levels of urinary VEGF can alter the development or maturation of podocytes, causing defects in their integrity. The decrease in its cytoplasmic processes and the deregulation of nephrin, an important protein for the maintenance of the cytoplasmic extension structures of podocytes, results in changes in the glomerulus and disruption of its filtration barrier^{32,49}. In fact, other studies have shown that urinary VEGF reflects podocyte damage^{34,50}.

It is possible that the urine sample concentration step applied in the UCP-LF CAA assay was critical for the association of CAA with VEGF, as a large amount of CAA is retained in the glomerulus^{5,41,42}. However, we believe that the deposition of immune complexes containing CAA in the kidney could also mediate the leakage of CAA into the urine, but it is difficult to establish a direct relationship. Moreover, little is known about the humoral antibodies against CAA, which may be absent. The pathophysiological mechanisms are still poorly understood in schistosomal glomerulopathy²¹.

Clinical evidence and experimental models have demonstrated that MCP-1 plays a critical role in the development of kidney disease⁵¹. It plays a central role in membranoproliferative glomerulonephritis⁵², lupus nephritis⁵³, crescentic glomerulonephritis²⁷, diabetic nephropathy²⁸, and immunoglobulin IgA nephropathy²⁹. Studies on intestinal³¹ and hepatosplenic⁷ schistosomiasis, visceral leishmaniasis⁵⁴, and leprosy⁵⁵ have shown higher urinary MCP-1 levels, including urinary oxidative stress. In another study among patients infected with S. mansoni living in a high endemicity area, the median levels of urinary MCP-1 were higher than those of the control group, with no statistically significant difference³⁶. In contrast, in the present study, PG only showed increasing trends in MCP-1 levels. However, MCP-1 and VEGF in the PG correlated with traditionally investigated kidney markers, corroborating the findings of Hanemann et al.³¹, who observed a correlation between urinary MCP-1 and albuminuria levels in a study of S. mansoniinfected patients. This was also observed in visceral leishmaniasis patients by Oliveira et al³⁰, who found that the correlation among albuminuria, elevated urinary MCP-1 levels, and inflammation could represent the presence of macrophages in renal tissues. Similarly, Bezerra et al.44 reported a correlation between urinary MCP-1 levels and creatinine, urea, and albuminuria and an inverse correlation with glomerular filtration rate during hospital admission. Moreover, urinary MCP-1 is associated with increased albuminuria in kidney diseases, such as diabetic nephropathy⁵⁵.

Of note, other factors, in addition to worm antigens, seem to contribute to the genesis of glomerular disease in schistosomiasis. Experimental studies have shown that portal vein clamping in rats

favors immune complex deposits in the kidneys⁵⁶. Liver disease impacts kidney damage⁴⁵. Portal hypertension with collateral circulation and liver damage with an inefficient macrophage system seen in patients with the hepatosplenic form of the disease allows schistosomal antigens to escape hepatic clearance and bind to antibodies in the liver circulation and subsequently deposit in the glomeruli⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹. This explains the higher prevalence of glomerulopathy in the hepatosplenic form, although renal involvement may also be observed in the hepatointestinal form³¹.

A biomarker panel assessment in the same clinical context is important, as it can complement each other's pathophysiological mechanisms and improve not only the understanding of nephropathy but also its clinical diagnosis⁶⁰.

Although CAA was associated with VEGF and CAA-based stratification showed differences in albuminuria at baseline, PG showed no association with kidney injury progression in the long term. One hypothesis is that the extremely low parasitic load observed may not have decisively affected the renal tissue in any patient. Another issue is the possibility of treatment failure with PZQ⁶¹, resulting in the persistence of some CAA-positive patients even after treatment, although at a very low load. Another point to be considered is that parasitic treatment could possibly protect against further kidney injury and kidney disease progression. A limitation of our study is that blood VEGF was not measured to rule out the possibility that urinary VEGF could be of systemic origin. Another limitation was the small sample size of the analyzed participants. In addition, CAA levels were only collected at baseline. Thus, further prospective studies with good protocols are needed to elucidate the long-term renal impacts.

In summary, the observed correlation between urinary CAA and uVEGF levels may reflect podocyte injury, specifying the mechanisms of kidney injury and dysfunction in these patients. New kidney biomarkers that can detect subclinical alterations through non-invasive urinary examinations may be useful for the early diagnosis of renal involvement in schistosomiasis and for the prevention of renal disease progression in asymptomatic individuals.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank the Health Secretariat of the State Government of Ceará and the Health Secretariat of Capistrano municipality for their technical support. Our special thanks to the population of Bananeiras. We appreciate the financial support from The National Council for Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq), from the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior–Brazil (CAPES) and for technical support from the University of Georgia Research Foundation.

REFERENCES

- Pinheiro MCC, Ferreira AF, Silva Filho JDD, Lima MDS, Martins-Melo FR, Bezerra FSM, et al. Burden of schistosomiasis-related mortality in Brazil: epidemiological patterns and spatial-temporal distribution, 2003-2018. Trop Med Int Health. 2020;25(11):1395-407.
- Katz N. Inquérito Nacional de Prevalência da Esquistossomose mansoni e Geo-helmintoses. 2018. 22th ed. Belo Horizonte: CPqRR FIOCRUZ.
- 3. Ferreira FT, Fidelis TA, Pereira TA, Otoni A, Queiroz LC, Amâncio FF, et al. Sensitivity and specificity of the circulating cathodic antigen rapid urine test in the diagnosis of Schistosomiasis mansoni infection and evaluation of morbidity in a low- endemic area in Brazil. Rev Soc Bras Med Trop. 2017;50(3):358-64.

- Martins-Melo FR, Pinheiro MC, Ramos AN Jr, Alencar CH, Bezerra FS, Heukelbach J. Spatiotemporal Patterns of Schistosomiasis-Related Deaths, Brazil, 2000-2011. Emerg Infect Dis. 2015;21(10):1820–23.
- Barsoum R. The changing face of schistosomal glomerulopathy. Kidney Int. 2004;66(6):2472-84.
- Neves PDMM, Jorge LB, Cavalcante LB, Malheiros D, Woronik V, Dias CB. Schistosomiasis-associated glomerulopathy: Clinical aspects, pathological characteristics, and renal outcomes. Clin Nephrol. 2020;93(5):251-61.
- Duarte DB, Vanderlei LA, Bispo RK, Pinheiro ME, da Silva GB Jr, Martins AM, et al. Renal function in hepatosplenic schistosomiasis--an assessment of renal tubular disorders. PLoS One. 2014;9(12):e115197.
- Neves PD, Bridi RA, Ramalho JA, Jorge LB, Watanabe EH, Watanabe A, et al. Schistosoma mansoni infection as a trigger to collapsing glomerulopathy in a patient with high-risk APOL1 genotype. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2020b;14(10):e0008582.
- 9. Andrade ZA. The situation of hepatosplenic schistosomiasis in Brazil today. Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz. 1998;93(Suppl 1):313-6.
- Duarte DB, Vanderlei LA, de Azevêdo Bispo RK, Pinheiro ME, da Silva Junior GB, De Francesco Daher E. Acute kidney injury in schistosomiasis: a retrospective cohort of 60 patients in Brazil. J Parasitol. 2015;101(2):244-7.
- Brito TD, Nussenzveig I, Carneiro CR, Silva AM. Schistosoma mansoni associated glomerulopathy. Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo. 1999;41(5):269-72.
- Colley DG, Bustinduy AL, Secor WE, King CH. Human schistosomiasis. Lancet. 2014;383(9936):2253-64.
- 13. Colley DG, Andros TS, Campbell CH Jr. Schistosomiasis is more prevalent than previously thought: what does it mean for public health goals, policies, strategies, guidelines and intervention programs? Infect Dis Poverty. 2017;6(1):63.
- 14. Corstjens PL, De Dood CJ, Kornelis D, Fat EM, Wilson RA, Kariuki TM, et al. Tools for diagnosis, monitoring and screening of *Schistosoma* infections utilizing lateral-flow based assays and upconverting phosphor labels. Parasitology. 2014;141(14):1841-55.
- Corstjens PL, Nyakundi RK, de Dood CJ, Kariuki TM, Ochola EA, Karanja DM, et al. Improved sensitivity of the urine CAA lateral-flow assay for diagnosing active *Schistosoma* infections by using larger sample volumes. Parasit Vectors. 2015;8:241.
- de Dood CJ, Hoekstra PT, Mngara J, Kalluvya SE, van Dam GJ, Downs JA, et al. Refining diagnosis of Schistosoma haematobium infections: antigen and antibody detection in urine. Front Immunol. 2018;9:2635.
- 17. van Dam GJ, Xu J, Bergquist R, de Dood CJ, Utzinger J, Qin ZQ, et al. An ultra-sensitive assay targeting the circulating anodic antigen for the diagnosis of Schistosoma japonicum in a low-endemic area, People's Republic of China. Acta Trop. 2015;141(Pt B):190–7.
- Knopp S, Corstjens PL, Koukounari A, Cercamondi CI, Ame SM, Ali SM, et al. Sensitivity and Specificity of a Urine Circulating Anodic Antigen Test for the Diagnosis of Schistosoma haematobium in Low Endemic Settings. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2015;9(5):e0003752.
- Clements MN, Corstjens PLAM, Binder S, Campbell CH Jr, de Dood CJ, Fenwick A, et al. Latent class analysis to evaluate performance of point-of-care CCA for low-intensity *Schistosoma mansoni* infections in Burundi. Parasit Vectors. 2018;11(1):111.
- Sousa MS, van Dam GJ, Pinheiro MCC, de Dood CJ, Peralta JM, Peralta RHS, et al. Performance of an Ultra-Sensitive Assay Targeting the Circulating Anodic Antigen (CAA) for Detection of *Schistosoma* mansoni Infection in a Low Endemic Area in Brazil. Front Immunol. 2019;10:682.

- 21. da Silva GB Junior, Duarte DB, Barros EJG, Daher EDF. Schistosomiasisassociated kidney disease: A review. Asian Pac J Trop Dis. 2013;3(1):79–84.
- 22. Barsoum RS. Schistosomal glomerulopathies. Kidney Int. 1993;44(1):1-
- 23. Kashani K, Cheungpasitporn W, Ronco C. Biomarkers of acute kidney injury: the pathway from discovery to clinical adoption. Clin Chem Lab Med. 2017;55(8):1074-89.
- 24. Kim MJ, Tam FW. Urinary monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 in renal disease. Clin Chim Acta. 2011;412(23-24):2022-30.
- Grandaliano G, Gesualdo L, Ranieri E, Monno R, Stallone G, Schena FP. Monocyte chemotactic peptide-1 expression and monocyte infiltration in acute renal transplant rejection. Transplantation. 1997;63(3):414–20.
- Zoja C, Liu XH, Donadelli R, Abbate M, Testa D, Corna D, et al. Renal expression of monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 in lupus autoimmune mice. J Am Soc Nephrol. 1997;8(5):720-9.
- 27. Viedt C, Orth SR. Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) in the kidney: does it more than simply attract monocytes? Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2002;17(12):2043-7.
- Tesch GH. MCP-1/CCL2: a new diagnostic marker and therapeutic target for progressive renal injury in diabetic nephropathy. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol. 2008;294(4):F697-701.
- Stangou M, Alexopoulos E, Papagianni A, Pantzaki A, Bantis C, Dovas S, et al. Urinary levels of epidermal growth factor, interleukin-6 and monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 may act as predictor markers of renal function outcome in immunoglobulin A nephropathy. Nephrology. 2009;14(6):613-20.
- 30. Oliveira MJC, Silva GB Jr, Sampaio AM, Montenegro BL, Alves MP, Henn GA, et al. Preliminary Study on Tubuloglomerular Dysfunction and Evidence of Renal Inflammation in Patients with Visceral Leishmaniasis. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2014;91 (5):908–11.
- 31. Hanemann AL, Libório AB, Daher EF, Martins AM, Pinheiro MC, Sousa MS, et al. Monocyte chemotactic protein-1 (MCP-1) in patients with chronic schistosomiasis mansoni: evidences of subclinical renal inflammation. PLoS One. 2013;8(11):e80421.
- 32. Bartlett CS, Jeansson M, Quaggin SE. Vascular Growth Factors and Glomerular Disease. Annu Rev Physiol. 2016;78:437-61.
- Edelbauer M, Kshirsagar S, Ried M, Billing H, Tönshoff B, Haffner D, et al. Soluble VEGF receptor 1 promotes endothelial injury in children and adolescents with lupus nephritis. Pediatr Nephrol. 2012;27(5):793-800.
- 34. Brosius FC, Coward RJ. Podocytes, signaling pathways, and vascular factors in diabetic kidney disease. Adv Chronic Kidney Dis. 2014;21(3):304-10.
- 35. Young BE, Ong SWX, Ng LFP, Anderson DE, Chia WN, Chia PY, et al. Singapore 2019 Novel Coronavirus Outbreak Research team. Viral dynamics and immune correlates of COVID-19 disease severity. Clin Infect Dis. 2021;73(9):e2932-e2942.
- Galvão RLF, Meneses GC, Pinheiro MCC, Martins AMC, Daher EF, Bezerra FSM. Kidney injury biomarkers and parasitic loads of Schistosoma mansoni in a highly endemic area in northeastern Brazil. Acta Trop. 2022;228:106311.
- 37. Brazil, Ministry of Health, 2014. Vigilância da esquistossomose mansoni: diretrizes técnicas. 4th ed. Brasília: Ministry of Health.
- 38. Corstjens P, Zuiderwijk M, Brink A, Li S, Feindt H, Niedbala RS, et al. Use of up-converting phosphor reporters in lateral-flow assays to detect specific nucleic acid sequences: a rapid, sensitive DNA test to identify human papillomavirus type 16 infection. Clin Chem. 2001;47(10):1885-93.

- 39. Corstjens PL, van Lieshout L, Zuiderwijk M, Kornelis D, Tanke HJ, Deelder AM, et al. Up-converting phosphor technology-based lateral flow assay for detection of *Schistosoma* circulating anodic antigen in serum. J Clin Microbiol. 2008;46(1):171-6.
- 40. Waikar SS, Sabbisetti VS, Bonventre JV. Normalization of urinary biomarkers to creatinine during changes in glomerular filtration rate. Kidney Int. 2010;78(5):486-94.
- 41. Sobh MA, Moustafa FE, El Housseini F, Basta MT, Deelder AM, Ghoneim MA. Schistosomal specific nephropathy leading to endstage renal failure. Kidney Int. 1987;31(4):1006 -11.
- 42. Sobh MA, Moustafa FE, Sally SM, Deelder AM, Ghoniem MA. Characterisation of kidney lesions in early schistosomal-specific nephropathy. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 1988;3(4):392-8.
- 43. Barsoum RS, Esmat G, El-Baz T. Human schistosomiasis: clinical perspective: review. J Adv Res. 2013;4(5):433-44.
- 44. Bezerra FSM, Leal JKF, Sousa MS, Pinheiro MCC, Ramos AN Jr, Silva-Moraes V, et al. Evaluating a point-of-care circulating cathodic antigen test (POC-CCA) to detect *Schistosoma mansoni* infections in a low endemic area in north-eastern Brazil. Acta Trop. 2018;182:264-70.
- 45. Sobh M, Moustafa F, Ramzy R, Saad M, Deelder A, Ghoneim M. *Schistosoma mansoni* nephropathy in Syrian golden hamsters: effect of dose and duration of infection. Nephron. 1991;59(1):121-30.
- 46. Gorriz JL, Martinez-Castelao A. Proteinuria: detection and role in native renal disease progression. Transplant Rev. 2012;26(1):3-13.
- 47. Daher EF, Soares DS, Filho SL, Meneses GC, Freitas TV, Leite TT, et al. Hyponatremia and risk factors for death in human visceral leishmaniasis: new insights from a cross-sectional study in Brazil. BMC Infect Dis. 2017;17(1):168.
- 48. Mukhi D, Nishad R, Menon RK, Pasupulati AK. Novel Actions of Growth Hormone in Podocytes: Implications for Diabetic Nephropathy. Front Med. 2017;4:102.
- 49. Tarabra E, Giunti S, Barutta F, Salvidio G, Burt D, Deferrari G, et al. Effect of the Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1/CC Chemokine Receptor 2 System on Nephrin Expression in streptozotocin-treated mice and human cultured podocytes. Diabetes. 2009;58(9):2109–18.
- dos Santos M, Bringhenti RN, Rodrigues PG, do Nascimento JF, Pereira SV, Zancan R, et al. Podocyte-associated mRNA profiles in kidney tissue and in urine of patients with active lupus nephritis. Int J Clin Exp Pathol. 2015;8(5):4600-13.
- 51. Haller H, Bertram A, Nadrowitz F, Menne J. Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 and the kidney. Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens. 2016;25(1):42-9.
- 52. Rovin BH, Doe N, Tan LC. Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 levels in patients with glomerular disease. Am J Kidney Dis. 1996;27(5):640-6.
- 53. Zoja C, Liu XH, Donadelli R, Abbate M, Testa D, Corna D, et al. Renal expression of monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 in lupus autoimmune mice. J Am Soc Nephrol. 1997;8(5):720-9.
- 54. Meneses GC, De Francesco Daher E, da Silva Junior GB, Bezerra GF, da Rocha TP, de Azevedo IEP, et al. Visceral leishmaniasis-associated nephropathy in hospitalised Brazilian patients: new insights based on kidney injury biomarkers. Trop Med Int Health. 2018;23(10):1046-57.
- 55. Meneses GC, Libório AB, de Daher EF, da Silva GB Jr, da Costa MF, Pontes MA, et al. Urinary monocyte chemotactic protein-1 (MCP-1) in leprosy patients: increased risk for kidney damage. BMC Infect Dis. 2014;14:451.
- 56. van Marck EA, Deelder AM, Gigase PL. Effect of partial portal vein ligation on immune glomerular deposits in *Schistosoma mansoni*-infected mice. Br J Exp Pathol. 1977;58(4):412-7. PMID: 911669.

- 57. dos Santos WLC, Sweet GMM, Bahiense-Oliveira M, Rocha PN. Schistosomal glomerulopathy and changes in the distribution of histological patterns of glomerular diseases in Bahia, Brazil. Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz. 2011;106(7):901-04.
- 58. Barsoum RS. Schistosomal glomerulopathy: selection factors. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 1987;2(6):488-97.
- 59. Digeon M, Droz D, Noel LH, Riza J, Rieumailhol C, Bach JF, et al. The role of circulating immune complexes in the glomerular disease
- of experimental hepatosplenic schistosomiasis. Clin Exp Immunol. 1979;35(3):329-37.
- 60. Ronco C, Rizo-Topete L, Serrano-Soto M, Kashani K. Pro: Prevention of acute kidney injury: time for teamwork and new biomarkers. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2017;32(3):408–13.
- Bergquist R, Elmorshedy H. Artemether and Praziquantel: Origin, Mode of Action, Impact, and Suggested Application for Effective Control of Human Schistosomiasis. Trop Med Infect Dis. 2018;3(4):125.