

Detection Cell-Free DNA (cfDNA) Using Nested-PCR as a Diagnosis Tool for Human Fascioliasis Infection

*Mojgan ARYAEIPOUR ¹, Bahram KAZEMI ², Arezoo BOZORGOMID ³, Mahdi MOHEBALI ^{1,4}, Hakim AZIZI ⁵, *Mohammad Bagher ROKNI ^{1,4}

- 1. Department of Medical Parasitology and Mycology, School of Public Health, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
 - 2. Department of Medical Biotechnology, School of Medicine, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
 - 3. Infectious Diseases Research Center, Health Institute, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran
 - 4. Center for Research of Endemic Parasites of Iran (CREPI), Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
 - 5. Department of Medical Parasitology, School of Medicine, Zabol University of Medical Sciences, Zabol, Iran

*Corresponding Authors: Emails: roknimoh@tums.ac.ir; maryaiepour@gmail.com

(Received 21 Jul 2019; accepted 15 Sep 2019)

Abstract

Background: We aimed to detect *Fasciola* specific deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) by nested-PCR assay on human stool and urine samples and compare the results with the respective ELISA diagnostic assay.

Methods: Overall, 206 clinically suspected cases of fascioliasis were enrolled in the study. Blood samples were collected from all the patients, and serum samples were isolated. ELISA assay, using *Fasciola* somatic antigen (SA), was carried out to detect anti *Fasciola* antibodies for the collected sera. DNA was randomly extracted from 25 stool and 10 urine samples of seropositive individuals and was evaluated by conventional PCR and nested PCR methods. The nested-PCR results were confirmed by sequencing the 430 bp region of ribosomal ITSI gene. Stool and urine samples from patients with different parasitic diseases and 25 stool samples from healthy individuals served as controls. Urine samples were collected from 10 healthy controls as well.

Results: Fascioliasis was detected by ELISA in 24.8% of the individuals. Of these, 25 seropositive patients were randomly assigned to the study. *Fasciola* DNA was identified in the stool samples of 96% of seropositive patients by nested PCR but ova of *Fasciola* was detected by parasitology methods in only 20% of seropositive cases. *Fasciola* DNA was identified in 90% of the urine samples by nested PCR. No cross-reactions were observed with other parasites.

Conclusion: Detection of cfDNA in stool and urine samples has high accuracy and thus can be used for the diagnosis of *Fasciola* infection in human.

Keywords: Fascioliasis; Serodiagnosis; Nested-PCR; Human; Cell-free DNA

Introduction

Fascioliasis is a zoonosis parasitic disease caused by *Fasciola* spp. and is established in most regions of the world. Humans are infected by ingesting of encysted metacercaria associated with aquatic

or semi aquatic plants, or by drinking water contaminated with float metacercaria (1). Fascioliasis is a major health problem especially in north of Iran (2) and sporadic cases have been reported



from other provines (3). The sequencing of the PCR-amplified 16S rRNA gene has become a common approach to microbial community investigations in the fields of human health and environmental sciences (4). This approach, however, is difficult when the amount of DNA is too low to be amplified by standard PCR (5). Nested PCR can be employed as it can amplify samples with DNA concentration several-fold lower than standard PCR. However, potential biases of nested PCR that could affect measurement of community structure have received little attention (6). The sensitivity of conventional parasitological methods is inadequate for diagnosis of fascioliasis (7). For a definite diagnosis, it is necessary to repeatedly examine stool samples over several consecutive days. The sensitivity of serological methods has been superior respective to the parasitological methods in the diagnosis of fascioliasis (8). Nevertheless, the efficacy of the both approaches has not been 100%. Therefore, there is a need for developing new methods with higher sensitivity and specificity.

Detecting molecular biomarkers (i.e. circulated cell-free DNA (cfDNA)) in body fluids (blood,

urine, sputum, stool, etc.) is a novel strategy in biomedical research (9). The detection of cfDNA provides a non-invasive method employing basic nucleic acid amplification procedures for diagnosis of parasitic infections (10).

This study aimed to evaluate *Fasciola* specific deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) detection by nested-PCR assay in human stool and urine samples and compare the results with ELISA diagnosis assay for fascioliasis.

Materials and Methods

Sample collection

Throughout 2011–2017, 206 blood samples were collected from all the patients' referred to Helminthological Laboratory of the School of Public Health, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran. Patients referred from different parts of the country (Fig. 1).

The protocol was approved by Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Ethics Committee (No code: 31382).



Fig. 1: Distribution of fascioliasis patients in different provinces of Iran

They were referred by physicians from private clinics, or hospitals due to the occurrence of clinical symptoms or eosinophilia in peripheral blood (11).

Informed consent was taken from each patient. A questionnaire including information on location,

diet, vegetable consumption, travelling to northern Iran and clinical symptoms were filled out for each patient. Blood was taken from all patients and sera were stored in refrigerator until examination. All sera were tested using indirect ELISA established already. Patients registered positive

for fascioliasis were identified, among them, any patient whose clinical characteristics and demographic data were completely available was included in this analytical study (11). Overall, 25 fresh stool samples and 10 urine samples were randomly collected from serological positive patients. It also included 25 fresh stool samples and 10 urine samples from healthy individuals and treated fascioliasis patients as negative control. In addition, stool and urine samples were collected from patients with various parasitic diseases including strongyloidiasis, toxocariasis, trichostrongylosis, toxoplasmosis and hydatidosis. A part of stool samples stored in ethanol 70% and others stored in formalin. Urine samples were stored in -20°C until use.

Serological method

The collected serum samples were analyzed using ELISA method (12). Finally, absorbance was measured by an ELISA reader at 492 nm.

Antigen preparation

The livers infected with *Fasciola* spp. were provided from abattoir across the Tehran City and then transferred to the center of Helminthic Diseases in Tehran University of Medical Sciences. After the isolation of parasites, they were rinsed in normal saline and homogenized by PBS (pH 7.2) by an electrical device. The resultant supernatant was stored at 4 °C until use (13).

ELISA

The ELISA protocol was performed as reported previously (13). The somatic antigen with the concentration of 1 mg/ml (100 µl) was poured into 96-well plates and incubated overnight at 37 °C before mixing with gelatin 1% (200 µl). After three episodes of washing with PBS/Twin 20, diluted (1:500) serum samples (100 µl) were poured into antigen-coated wells. The mixture was then incubated in 37 °C for 30 min. Positive and negative controls were run in parallel (i.e. serum samples from *Fasciola* infected and healthy individuals respectively). After washing the mixture with PBS/Twin 20 for 3 times, the wells were incubated with diluted (1:12000) peroxi-

dase-conjugated goat anti-human IgG in 37 °C for 30 min. After another round of washing, 100 µl substrate included OPD (o-phenylene diamine dihydrochloride) was added. Finally, the reaction was ceased by using 50 µl H₂SO4 solution (12.5%) as the stopper reagent. The absorption was recorded in 492 nm

Parasitological method

All fecal samples were examined using formalin ether concentration technique and microscopic examination.

Molecular method

DNA was extracted from fecal and urine samples then subjected to conventional PCR and nested PCR.

DNA extraction from fecal

A part of each fecal sample was preserved in 70% ethanol at room temperature for DNA isolation. Stool samples were washed twice with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) to remove the ethanol followed by centrifugation at 2000 × g for 5 min. Approximately 1 g stool, diluted in 10 mL PBS, was subjected to 5 cycles of freezing (liquid nitrogen) and thawing (in boiling water) (-170 °C for 5 min and 90 °C for 5 min). Samples were mixed with 200 mg of glass beads (0.45–0.52 mm diameter) and shaken vigorously for 5 min. Total genomic DNA was extracted using a commercial kit (QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit, Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

DNA extraction from Urine

A part of each urine sample was frozen for DNA isolation. To remove supernatant, urine samples were centrifuged at 2000×g for 5 min. DNA in sediment was extracted using a commercial kit (QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit, Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Primers design

Based on alignment of different sequences related to Fasciola species, deposited in GenBank, two

sets of primer pairs were designed for nested PCR using Gene Runner software to amplify a 700 bp target in the first PCR round and a 430 bp target sequence in the second PCR round within the nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer I (ITSI) region.

For the first amplification round, we used the primers as forward (5'- ACCGGTGCTGA-GAAGACG -3') and reverse (5'- CGACGTAC-GTGCAGTCCA -3') and for the second amplification round, the primers were as forward (5'-ACCGGTGCTGAGAAGACG-3') and reverse

(5'-CGACGTACGTGCAGTCCA-3'). Primers synthesized by Bioneer Company (Korea).

A 700 bp sequence within the ITSI fragment was amplified by PCR following the protocol previously described (14). Total volume of reaction was 15µl containing 1.5µl DNA template, 5µl distilled water, 10pmol of each primers (Forward and Reverse), and 7.5µl master mix (amplicon). The negative control was the mixture reaction without any DNA template. The PCR products were separated in 1.5% agarose gel using Simply Safe (Eurx, Cat. No. E4600-01) (Fig. 2).

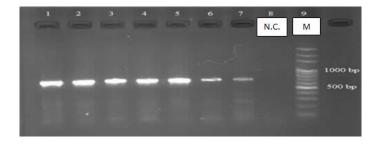


Fig. 2: Conventional PCR pattern of fascioliasis patients (positive for egg and antibody). Lane 1: Positive control, Lane 2, 3, 4, 5: Stool sample Lane 6, 7: Urine sample. Lane 8: Negative control, Lane 9: 100bp DNA ladder

Nested PCR

ITSI fragment (about 430 bp) was amplified by nested PCR. Reactions were performed in the total volume of 15µl containing 1.5µL of 1/160 diluted first-round PCR product, 5µl distilled water, 10pmol of each primers (Forward and Reverse), and 7.5µl master mix (amplicon). The negative control was the mixture reaction without any DNA template. Three negative controls and one positive control (DNA extracted from *Fasciola* sp.) were included in each round.

The temperature profile for both rounds of amplification was as follows: an initiation 95 °C for 5 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94 °C for 30 sec (denaturation), 60 °C for 30 sec (annealing), 72 °C for 30 sec (extension) and a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min followed by cooling at 4 °C. 5µL aliquot of nested PCR product was electrophoresed on 1.5% agarose gel and visualized using ultraviolet light after staining with Simply Safe (Eurx, Cat. No. E4600-01) (Fig. 3).

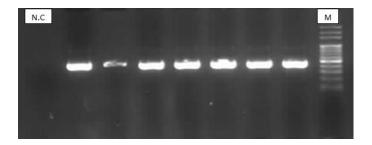


Fig. 3: Nested PCR pattern of fascioliasis patients (negative for egg, positive for antibody). Lane 1: Negative control, Lane 2,3,4: Stool sample, Lane 6,7,8: Urine sample, Lane 9: Positive control, Lane 10: 100bp DNA ladder

Available at: http://ijph.tums.ac.ir

Sequencing

To confirm the results of nested PCR, 20 positive products including 5 parasitological positive stool, 10 parasitological negative stool and 5 urine positive samples were randomly selected and prepared for sequencing. These nested PCR products were purified and sequenced unidirectional using the forward primer used in the second-round PCR. Sequence results were aligned and edited by BioEdit version 7.2.5, and compared with GenBank reference sequences from the region, related to Fasciola spp. using the BLAST query facility.

Analytical sensitivity and specificity of nested **PCR**

In order to assess the specificity of the nested PCR, genomic DNA was extracted from positive stool and urine samples for strongyloidiasis, toxocariasis, trichostrongylosis, toxoplasmosis and hydatidosis using a DNA extraction kit from Bioneer according to the manufacturer's protocol. Nested PCR of these dilutions was carried out in several runs as mentioned above.

Furthermore, the sensitivity of the designed protocol was tested by using genomic DNA extracted from 25 negative stool and 10 negative urine samples (Table 1).

Table 1: Profile of <i>Fasciola</i> spp.	sequenced in this study
---	-------------------------

Isolate	sample	Location	Serologicall method	Parasitological method	Conven- tional PCR	Nested PCR	Genus	Accession number
IR	Stool	Mianeh	+	+	+	+	F. gigantica	MF372919
IH 3	Stool	Mazandaran	+	+	+	+	F. hepatica	MF187486
IH 4	Urine	Tehran	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187487
IH 5	Stool	Behbahan	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187488
IH6	Stool	Tehran	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187489
IH7	Urine	Kermanshah	+	-	+	+	F. hepatica	MF187490
IH8	Stool	Tehran	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187491
IH 9	Stool	Mazandaran	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187492
IH 10	Urine	Khorasan	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187493
IH 11	Stool	Mazandaran	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187494
IH 12	Urine	Borujerd	+	-	+	+	F. hepatica	MF187495
IH 13	Stool	Kerman	+	+	+	+	F. hepatica	MF187496
IH 14	Stool	Mazandaran	+	+	+	+	F. hepatica	MF187494
IH 15	Stool	Khorasan	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187498
IH 16	Stool	Tehran	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187499
IH 17	Stool	Mazandaran	+	+	+	+	F. hepatica	MF187500
IH 19	Stool	Tehran	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187501
IH 20	Urine	Borujerd	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187502
IH 21	Stool	Ardabil	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187503
IH 22	Stool	Tehran	+	-	-	+	F. hepatica	MF187504

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was done using SPSS version 22 (Chicago, IL, USA). Chi-square test was used for data analyzing. Cut-off was calculated as Mean \pm 3SD.

Results

Out of 206 examined cases, 24.8% were seropositive for fascioliasis as previously reported (11). Of these patients, 25 seropositive cases were randomly assigned to the study. Among them, Fasciola eggs were found in 5 (20%) of cases by parasitological methods (formalin ether concentration technique). One of these cases reported previously (14). Conventional PCR was positive in 5(20%) of stool and 3(30%) of urine in seropositive samples for fascioliasis. Also 24(96%) and 9(90%) of stool and urine samples were positive according to Nested PCR, respectively (Table 2).

All patients had a history of eating raw vegetables or drinking unsafe water. In these patients, two patients were asymptomatic, 68.6% of patients reported liver pain, and 23.5% of patients complained of cutaneous symptoms including itching and rash. Pulmonary symptoms were recorded in 25.5% of patients. All of them showed more or

less peripheral eosinophilia, ranging from 6% to 66% (11).

Stool and urine samples of patients with strongy-loidiasis, toxocariasis, trichostrongylosis, toxoplasmosis and hydatidosis were negative for nested-PCR. The nested-PCR assay could detect the target segmented DNA of *Fasciola* spp. in stool and urine of patients.

Table 2: Comparison of the results obtained by parasitological and molecular methods for detection of *Fasciola* spp. in serological positive patients (P=Posititive, N=Negative)

	Seropositive group $(n = 25)$							Negative control group ($n = 25$)						
	Conventional PCR		Nested PCR		Parasitology		Conventional PCR		Nested PCR		Parasitology			
Stool	Р	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N		
	5	20	24	1	5	20	0	25	0	25	0	25		
	Seropositive group $(n = 10)$						Negative control group $(n = 10)$							
Urine	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N		
	3	7	9	1	-	-	0	10	0	10	-	-		

Discussion

The human fascioliasis in Iran requires constant monitoring due to its significant characteristics and habitats. In 1989 and 1999, Iran experienced two major human fascioliasis outbreaks that affected more than 15,000 individuals (3). However, the recent study showed that the prevalence of fascioliasis as 0.4% using parasitological methods and 1.2% using serological methods indicating the region as a hypoendemic (15). WHO believes that Iran has serious problems with fascioliasis (16). Some new reports more precautions to monitor disease in different regions (11, 17, 18). Fasciola hepatica has economic and public health implications, especially in subtropical regions and temperate climates. In the hepatic phase, young flukes first migrate to the liver parenchyma. After 6-7 weeks, they enter into the bile ducts and become sexually mature (19). In this study, 24.8% of patients were seropositive using serological test. Although golden standard is a fecal exam for diagnosis of fascioliasis, documented issues are less susceptible (8, 20), however, many studies have so far confirmed the outstanding role of serologic tests for detecting fascioliasis (7, 12, 21). Therefore, accurate diagnosis and treatment of fascioliasis is necessary. Conventional parasitological methods are gold standard in diagnosis of fascioliasis but are not sufficiently sensitive to detect of fascioliasis, and repeated examinations of stools over many consecutive days are necessary. The serological method has been recognized as being more sensitive than parasitological methods in the diagnosis of fascioliasis. The sensitivity of serological method is higher than parasitological methods; nevertheless, its efficacy was not 100%, implying the need for new methods with higher sensitivity. Although parasitological methods are gold standard in diagnosis of fascioliasis, they are not sensitive enough to detect fascioliasis (22, 23). Detection of biomarkers in the blood circulation like other body fluids is now widely used in medical research (10). Of the various types of diagnostic tools currently available for detection of cfDNA in a range of clinical settings (24, 25). CfDNA contains DNA fragments of extracellular in the circulation which its appeasers in the blood cfDNA as well as in saliva (26), urine (27, 28), stool (29), sputum (30), cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) (31), peritoneal fluid (32), synovial fluid (33), and lymph fluid (34). Despite the various hypotheses offered, the exact origin of the cfDNA is unknown (24). About 20 mg/ml

Available at: http://ijph.tums.ac.ir

cfDNA consisting of both mtDNA and nuclear DNA can be detected in the circulation of ordinary person (25). In circulation, cfDNA will be destroyed by nucleases (35). In primary experimental studies in animals, most of the products of cfDNA are cleared by liver and kidney (36). In addition, the parts of cfDNA available in the circulation, appear in the urine and detectable by methods of genetic analysis (28).

Therefore, it is possible to detect cfDNA components in circulation and urinary components. Nowadays, various methods for detecting host parasites are based on nucleic acid enhancement experiments (NAATs) to detect cfDNA from the parasite in host body fluids, especially acceptable clinical specimens such as urine and stool. Today, cfDNA is widely used to detect parasites such as Leishmania, Plasmodium, Trypanosoma, Schistosoma and Wuchereria spp. (37-40). These are indirect contact with the circulatory system, there is a possibility that the entire DNA of parasites in intact or in parts include cfDNA that constantly and fairly to the abundance in circulation can be poured from the blood and other body fluids extraction. The cfDNA parasite can enter the bloodstream and then distribute it in other body fluids. It can also be released directly in each body fluid depending on the location of the parasite in the host. The exact source and distribution of cfDNA in the host is still not fully understood, but can be directly active from the parasite or its products, through passive diffusion and secretion (37).

The cfDNA can detect a severe infection or an infected host in the absence of unknown parasites, which may otherwise be undetectable. Early detection of infection by using cfDNA can lead to timely treatment. This indicates an additional source of DNA in the feces and urine detectable by PCR, which could be cfDNA or parasitic fragments not detected by a microscope (40). PCR-based methods have shown variable sensitivity for detection of Fasciola in fecal samples. For detection DNA of worms in stool samples by PCR-based techniques, optimization of DNA isolation method is essential, because of existence of large amounts of PCR-inhibitory substances in

fecal samples such as bacterial proteases, nucleases, cell debris, bile acids, and so for, and also the presence of a thick and complex cuticle that covers the worms (41, 42). In this method, routine commercial DNA extraction kits from stool (Qia gen) were used. The DNA extraction process is a critical step affecting the efficacy of molecular methods. The ITSI gene was used as a conserved target for the Fasciola spp. in specific nested PCR. Nested PCR not only identified all parasitological positive samples, but also additional samples not detected by parasitological methods. Considering parasitological methods as the gold standard, diagnostic sensitivity and specificity of nested PCR was as high as parasitological methods. Nested PCR was the only method that did not miss any seropositive cases compared with other methods except one specimen.

This assay detected DNA released from *Fasciola* sp. in 24 (96%) stool samples and 9 (90%) urine samples with a specificity of 100%. Different sensitivity and specificity have been reported in other studies according to sample size, DNA extraction methods, and parasitic load of stool samples. Studies on other microorganisms including *Toxoplasma gondii* and *Histomonas meleagridis* have also reported higher sensitivity of nested PCR compared with real-time PCR (43, 44).

Conclusion

Detection of Fasciola cfDNA in stool and urine samples has high accuracy, so might be used as for the diagnosis of human Fascioliasis infection.

Ethical considerations

Ethical issues (Including plagiarism, informed consent, misconduct, data fabrication and/or falsification, double publication and/or submission, redundancy, etc.) have been completely observed by the authors.

Acknowledgements

Tehran University of Medical Sciences supported financially the project with project approved with number 31382-27-03-95.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

References

- 1. Harrington D, Lamberton PHL, McGregor A (2017). Human liver flukes. *Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol*, 2(9):680-89.
- 2. Rokni M (2008). The present status of human helminthic diseases in Iran. *Ann Trop Med Parasitol*, 102(4):283-95.
- 3. Bozorgomid A, Nazari N, Eshrat Beigom K, et al (2018). Epidemiology of fasciolosis in Kermanshah Province, western Iran. *Iran J Public Health*, 47(7): 967-72.
- Fredericks D (1996). Sequence-based identification of microbial pathogens: a reconsideration of Koch's postulates. Clin Microbiol Rev, 9(1):18-33.
- 5. Wilson IG (1997). Inhibition and facilitation of nucleic acid amplification. *Appl Emiron Microbiol* 63(10):3741-51.
- 6. Joshi M,Deshpande J (2010). Polymerase chain reaction: methods, principles and application. *Int J Biomed Res*, 2(1):81-97.
- Kajugu P-E, Hanna R, Edgar H, et al (2015).
 Fasciola hepatica: Specificity of a coproantigen
 ELISA test for diagnosis of fasciolosis in
 faecal samples from cattle and sheep
 concurrently infected with gastrointestinal
 nematodes, coccidians and/or rumen flukes
 (paramphistomes), under field conditions. *Vet Parasitol*, 212(3-4):181-87.
- 8. Arifin MI, Höglund J, Novobilský A (2016). Comparison of molecular and conventional methods for the diagnosis of *Fasciola hepatica* infection in the field. *Vet Parasitol*, 232:8-11.
- Yu J, Gu G, Ju S (2014). Recent advances in clinical applications of circulating cell-free DNA integrity. *Lab Med*, 45(1):6-12.
- 10. Wagner J (2012). Free DNA–new potential analyte in clinical laboratory diagnostics? *Biochemia medica: Biochemia medica*, 22(1):24-38.
- 11. Aryaeipour M, Eshrat Beigom K, Heidari Z, et al (2015). Serological study of human fasciolosis in patients referring to the school of public health, Tehran University of Medical

- Sciences, Tehran, Iran during 2008–2014. *Iran J Parasitol* 10(4):517-22.
- 12. Saberinasab M, Mohebali M, Molawi G, et al (2014). Seroprevalence of human fascioliasis using indirect ELISA in Isfahan district, central Iran in 2013. *Iran J Parasitol*, 9(4):461-65.
- Rokni M, Massoud J, O'Neill SM, et al (2002). Diagnosis of human fasciolosis in the Gilan province of Northern Iran: application of cathepsin L-ELISA. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*, 44(2):175-79.
- 14. Rokni M, Bozorgomid A, Heydarian P, et al (2018). Molecular evidence of human Fasciolosis due to *Fasciola gigantica* in Iran: a case report. *Iran J Public Health*, 47(5):750-54.
- 15. Ashrafi K (2015). The status of human and animal fascioliasis in Iran: A narrative review article. *Iran J Parasitol*, 10(3):306-28.
- 16. Torgerson PR, Devleesschauwer B, Praet N, et al (2015). World Health Organization estimates of the global and regional disease burden of 11 foodborne parasitic diseases, 2010: a data synthesis. *PLoS Med*, 12(12):e1001920.
- 17. Sedighe M, Dabirzadeh M, Rokni Mb, et al (2019). Identification and Phylogenetic Classification of *Fasciola* species Isolated from Sheep and Cattle by PCR-RFLP in Zabol, in Sistan and Baluchistan Province, Southeast Iran. *Iran J Public Health*, 48(5):934-42.
- 18. Aryaeipour M, Bozorgomid A, Kazemi B, et al (2017). Molecular and morphometrical characterization of *Fasciola* species isolated from domestic ruminants in Ardabil Province, Northwestern Iran. *Iran J Public Health*, 46(3):318-25.
- 19. Moazeni M, Ahmadi A (2016). Controversial aspects of the life cycle of *Fasciola hepatica*. Exp. Parasitol, 169:81-89.
- 20. Forghanparast K (2001). Comparison of the formalin-ether and Kato-Katz in the parasitological diagnosis of human fascioliasis. *J Med Fac*, 9:1-6.
- 21. Rokni M, Lesan S, Massoud J, et al (2006). Comparative evaluation of Fast enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (Fast-ELISA) and standard-ELISA for the diagnosis of human hydatidosis. *Iran J Public Health*, 35(2):29-32.
- 22. Adela Valero M, Victoria Periago M, Pérez-Crespo I, et al (2012). Assessing the validity of

Available at: http://ijph.tums.ac.ir 1155

- an ELISA test for the serological diagnosis of human fascioliasis in different epidemiological situations. *Trop Med Int Health*, 17(5):630-36.
- 23. Charlier J, De Meulemeester L, Claerebout E et al (2008). Qualitative and quantitative evaluation of coprological and serological techniques for the diagnosis of fasciolosis in cattle. *Vet Parasitol*, 153(1-2):44-51.
- 24. Gormally E, Caboux E, Vineis P, et al (2007). Circulating free DNA in plasma or serum as biomarker of carcinogenesis: practical aspects and biological significance. *Mutat Res*, 635(2-3):105-17.
- 25. Chiu RW, Chan LY, Lam NY et al (2003). Quantitative analysis of circulating mitochondrial DNA in plasma. *Clin Chem*, 49(5):719-26.
- Jiang W-W, Masayesva B, Zahurak M, et al (2005). Increased mitochondrial DNA content in saliva associated with head and neck cancer. Clin Cancer Res, 11(7):2486-91.
- 27. Su Y-H, Wang M, Brenner DE, et al (2004). Human urine contains small, 150 to 250 nucleotide-sized, soluble DNA derived from the circulation and may be useful in the detection of colorectal cancer. *J Mol Diagn*, 6(2):101-07.
- 28. Botezatu I, Serdyuk Og, Potapova G, et al (2000). Genetic analysis of DNA excreted in urine: a new approach for detecting specific genomic DNA sequences from cells dying in an organism. *Clin Chem*, 46(8):1078-84.
- 29. Diehl F, Schmidt K, Durkee KH, et al (2008). Analysis of mutations in DNA isolated from plasma and stool of colorectal cancer patients. *Gastroenterology*, 135(2):489-98.
- 30. Van der Drift M, Prinsen C, Hol B, et al (2008). Can free DNA be detected in sputum of lung cancer patients? *Lung Cancer*, 61(3):385-90.
- 31. Wang Y, Springer S, Zhang M, et al (2015). Detection of tumor-derived DNA in cerebrospinal fluid of patients with primary tumors of the brain and spinal cord. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*, 112(31):9704-09.
- 32. Pajek J, Kveder R, Guček A, et al (2010). Cellfree DNA in the Peritoneal Effluent of Peritoneal Dialysis Solutions. *Ther Apher Dial*, 14(1):20-26.
- 33. Leon SA, Revach M, Ehrlich GE, et al (1981). DNA in synovial fluid and the circulation of

- patients with arthritis. *Arthritis* Rheum, 24(9):1142-50.
- 34. Wu D, Chi H, Shao M, et al (2014). Prenatal diagnosis of Down syndrome using cell-free fetal DNA in amniotic fluid by quantitative fluorescent polymersase chain reaction. *Chin Med J*, 127(10):1897-901.
- 35. Suzuki N, Kamataki A, Yamaki J, et al (2008). Characterization of circulating DNA in healthy human plasma. *Clin Chim Acta*, 387(1-2):55-8.
- 36. Tsumita T,Iwanaga M (1963). Fate of Injected Deoxyribonucleic Acid in Mice. *Nature*, 198(4885):1088-89.
- 37. Weerakoon KG,McManus DP (2016). Cell-free DNA as a diagnostic tool for human parasitic infections. *Trends Parasitol*, 32(5):378-91.
- 38. Wichmann D, Panning M, Quack T, et al (2009). Diagnosing schistosomiasis by detection of cell-free parasite DNA in human plasma. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*, 3(4):e422.
- 39. Ximenes C, Brandão E, Oliveira P, et al (2014).

 Detection of *Wuchereria bancrofti* DNA in paired serum and urine samples using polymerase chain reaction-based systems.

 Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz, 109(8):978-83.
- 40. Akter S, Nakao R, Imasato Y, et al (2019). Potential of cell-free DNA as a screening marker for parasite infections in dog. *Genomics*, 111(4):906-912.
- 41. Repetto S, Soto CA, Cazorla SI, et al (2013). An improved DNA isolation technique for PCR detection of *Strongyloides stercoralis* in stool samples. *Acta Tropica*, 126(2):110-14.
- 42. Al-Soud WA,Rådström P (2000). Effects of amplification facilitators on diagnostic PCR in the presence of blood, feces, and meat. *J Clin Microbiol*, 38(12):4463-70.
- 43. Hierl T, Reischl U, Lang P, et al (2004).

 Preliminary evaluation of one conventional nested and two real-time PCR assays for the detection of *Toxoplasma gondii* in immunocompromised patients. *J Med Microbiol*, 53(7):629-32.
- 44. Hafez H, Hauck R, Lüschow D, et al (2005). Comparison of the specificity and sensitivity of PCR, nested PCR, and real-time PCR for the diagnosis of histomoniasis. *Avian Dis*, 49(3):366-70.