

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

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

HEV*			•	
3 _{JPa} (swJB-N2)	3 _{US} (swJB-M5)	3 _{SP} (swJB-E10)	3 _{SP} (cultured HEV ^d)	4 _{se} (swJB-H1)
(6·1/4·8) ^b 1·3 ^c	(6·9/< 3·3) ≥ 3·6	(6-4/3-8) 2-6	(6·0/< 3·2) ≥ 2·8	(5-6/4-5) 1-1
(6·1/< 2·3) ≥ 3·8	(6·9/< 3·3) ≥ 3·6	(6·4/< 3·2) ≥ 3·2	(6·0/< 3·2) ≥ 2·8	(5·6/< 3·0) ≥ 2·6
(6·1/< 2·3) ≥ 3·8	(6.9/< 3·3) ≥ 3·6	(6·4/< 3·2) ≥ 3·2	(6·0/< 3·2) ≥ 2·8	(5-6/< 3-0) ≥ 2-6
	$3_{JP\alpha}$ (swJB-N2) (6·1/4·8) ^b 1·3 ^c (6·1/< 2·3) \geq 3·8	$3_{JF\alpha}$ (swJB-N2) 3_{US} (swJB-M5) (6·1/4·8) ^b ·1·3 ^c (6·9/< 3·3) \geq 3·6 (6·9/< 3·3) \geq 3·6	$3_{JF\alpha}$ (swJB-N2) 3_{US} (swJB-M5) 3_{SP} (swJB-E10) (6·1/4·8) ^b ·1·3 ^c (6·9/< 3·3) ≥ 3·6 (6·4/3·8) 2·6 (6·1/< 2·3) ≥ 3·8 (6·9/< 3·3) ≥ 3·6 (6·4/< 3·2) ≥ 3·2	$3_{JF\alpha}$ (swJB-N2) 3_{US} (swJB-M5) 3_{SP} (swJB-E10) 3_{SP} (cultured HEV ⁶) $(6\cdot1/4\cdot8)^b$ $1\cdot3^c$ $(6\cdot9/<3\cdot3) \ge 3\cdot6$ $(6\cdot4/3\cdot8)$ $2\cdot6$ $(6\cdot0/<3\cdot2) \ge 2\cdot8$ $(6\cdot1/<2\cdot3) \ge 3\cdot8$ $(6\cdot9/<3\cdot3) \ge 3\cdot6$ $(6\cdot4/<3\cdot2) \ge 3\cdot2$ $(6\cdot0/<3\cdot2) \ge 2\cdot8$

^aHFV is in PRS.

≥ 4.0 after treatment at 80°C for 24 h in any samples. However, although the infectivity of HEV was reduced at an LRF of 2.0 and 3.0, respectively, residual infectivity was detected in all samples that were treated at 60°C for 72 h (Fig. 2). These results indicated that the heat sensitivity is different not by genotype or cluster, but by the composition of the sample.

Filtration of HEV

The putative particle size was also evaluated using Planova filtres. All purified HEV isolates were removed to below the detection limit using Planova-15N and -20N, whereas significant amounts of HEV were detected after filtration using Planova-35N. In particular, the removability by Planova-35N was variable for the HEV isolates (Table 2). The result also showed a similar log reduction of viral removal between viruses derived from faeces and cell cultures of genotype 3_{SP}, and suggested that the diameter of viral particles in the purified sample derived from faeces was not affected by contaminants derived from faeces. These results may suggest that the particle size of HEV is around 35 nm, as previously reported [1].

Discussion

Several reports suggested that some industrial swine farms and commercial swine livers in industrial as well as developing countries could be contaminated by HEV [4,9]. Yazaki et al. detected HEV genomes in commercial swine livers that had been eaten by a hepatitis E-infected patient, as shown by the identical sequences of HEV in the liver and patient's sample by genome analysis. They reported that the patient became infected by eating uncooked liver [4]. Our infection studies using piglets demonstrated that HEV was mainly detected in liver, intestines, serum and faeces, but not detected in muscles [17]. Current epidemiological studies revealed that the prevalence of HEV RNA or anti-HEV IgG-positive blood donors in Hokkaido and Tokyo was 0.01% (56/432,167) of RNA and 3.9% of IgG, and 0.01% (3/44,322) of RNA and 8.6% of lgG, respectively. In addition, the prevalence of anti-HEV IgG in Japan varies according to locality, 1-0-8-6% [11]. These results also suggest that although the possibility of transmission is not considered to be high at the moment, some patients who have HEV in their blood may donate blood and this could lead to a transfusion-transmitted infection. Consequently, a monitoring study for donated blood has been initiated in Hokkaido, Japan.

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

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

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

^dDerived from cultured media of HEV-infected A549 cells.

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

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

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

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背景:ラテンアメリ 染症)などの新たる	カ人のヨーロッパ(特にスペ な病原体が認められるように	こおける <i>Trypanosomà cruzi</i> 愿 イン)移入が増加するにつれ こなった。媒介生物サシガメが	、シャーガス病(中国			使用上の注意記載状況・ その他参考事項等
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騰 結論:本試験の結 要 住経験のある(必 が重要な知見とし	果は、非流行国の高リスク(ずしも当該地域で誕生する	共血者に <i>T. cruziス</i> クリーニン ことを意味するわけではない リーニングが全供血者に対し	ノグ検査を実施する。)高リスクに分類され	必要性を強調する。流 る人々を、検査対象と	こ含めること	
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報告企業の意見	今後の対応
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感染の抗体陽性率は0.62パーセントであったとの報告である。	無を確認し、帰国(入国)後4週間は献血不適としている。
	ガス病の既往がある場合には献血不適としている。日本
,	米出身献血者については、厚生労働科学研究「献血血液
	確保と安定供給のための新興感染症等に対する検査スク
	法等の開発と献血制限に関する研究」班と共同して検討

(b)

BLOOD DONORS AND BLOOD COLLECTION

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

Maria Piron, Mireia Vergés, José Muñoz, Natàlia Casamitjana, Sergi Sanz, Rosa María Maymó, José Manuel Hernández, Lluís Puig, Montserrat Portús, Joaquim Gascón, and Sílvia Sauleda

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

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

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

merican trypanosomiasis or Chagas disease is a zoonotic infection endemic to Latin America. In endemic countries, approximately 8 million people are carriers of the disease, approximately 50,000 new cases are diagnosed every year, and fatal cases are estimated at 14,000 per year.¹

Trypanosoma cruzi, the causal agent of Chagas disease, can be detected in blood during the initial acute phase, which lasts from 6 to 8 weeks. Most patients are asymptomatic or oligosymptomatic, but when symptoms manifest, the acute stage of the illness may be characterized by fever, lymphadenopathy, mild splenomegaly, and edema, sometimes involving the myocardial tissue and producing acute myocarditis or encephalomyelitis. If they remain untreated, 5 to 10 percent of these patients die.2 After this phase, the infection usually progresses to the chronic stage, in which the parasite is rarely detected in blood. When it is clinically silent, the chronic phase is called the indeterminate form of the disease. Many patients remain in this clinical situation for the rest of their lives, but 15 to 30 percent will progressively develop symptomatic disease.^{2,3} Cardiologic manifestations are

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the hallmark of the chronic stage. The most threatening complications are heart failure and excitability and conductivity disorders leading to cardiac arrhythmia and sudden death. These conditions often require recurrent hospitalization, surgery, or more expensive cardiologic procedures such as pacemakers, implantable automatic defibrillators, and even heart transplants.^{2,4} Less frequently, Chagas disease involves the digestive tract.^{2,3}

In endemic areas, Chagas disease is commonly transmitted by a triatomid vector that releases parasite-infected excreta into lacerated skin or mucosa. Congenital and transfusion-related transmission are the other principal modes of acquiring *T. cruzi* infection.^{2,5} Transmission of Chagas disease via blood transfusion has been recognized since 1952,⁶ but it was only with the advent of the HIV pandemic in the 1980s that blood control programs began to be implemented in most Latin American countries. Legislation requiring blood transfusion screening has decreased the incidence of transfusion-related Chagas disease. There are varying degrees of success, however, in implementing these control measures in some endemic regions.⁷

In countries where it is not endemic, such as Spain, Chagas disease is considered an emerging infection because of the increasing number of immigrants coming from Latin America. Spain houses approximately 4 million immigrants, and 1.5 million of them were born in a country endemic for Chagas disease.⁸

Transmission of *T. cruzi* in countries where the vector does not exist occurs mainly through maternal-fetal transmission, organ transplantation, and blood transfusion.⁹ Despite this knowledge and confirmed reports of *T. cruzi* infection through congenital transmission!^{0,11} and blood transfusion in nonendemic countries, ¹² little attention has been paid to assuring optimal screening and control measures.

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

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Donor selection and study design

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

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

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

Detection methods

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

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

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

Furthermore, all initially positive samples were assessed for the presence of parasite DNA in blood, using in-house real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR).¹⁴

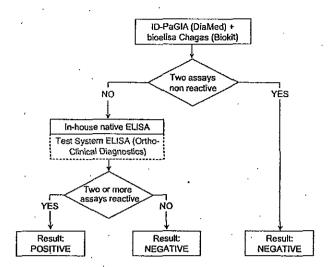


Fig. 1. Algorithm for T. cruzi serology interpretation.

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

RESULTS

Epidemiologic data

Between September 2005 and September 2006, a total of 1770 donors were enrolled in the prevalence study and were screened for *T. cruzi* antibodies. These individuals accounted for 1.1 percent of all blood donors in the first 3 months of the study (Table 1).

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

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

The most highly represented country of origin was Colombia, accounting for 22.3 percent of at-risk donors included in the study, followed by Argentina and Ecuador, accounting for 19.5 and 14.6 percent, respectively

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

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

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

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

DISCUSSION

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

In nonendemic countries, blood transfusion is one of the main modes of acquiring the infection, and cases of transmission before screening for *T. cruzi* infection became mandatory in blood donors have been reported in Spain.^{17,18} European legislation requires permanent rejec-

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

ı	TABLE 2. Living cond	itions in endemic area	
Group 1: donors born in ende	emic region	Group 3: resider	nt in endemic region
Has lived in rural area	Has lived in adobe house	Has lived in rural area	Has lived in adobe house
315/1524 (20.7%)	137/1524 (9.0%)	139/209 (66.5%)	46/209 (22.0%)

		Percentage of official immigrant		Anti-T. cruzi-positive donor
Country	Tested for anti-T. cruzi*	population in Catalonia	Number	Rate by country (%)
Colombia .	340 (22.3)	13.8		,
Argentina	298 (19.5)	· 11.7	2	. 2/298 (0.67)
Ecuador	223 (14.6)	29.2	1	1/223 (0.45)
Uruguay	127 (8.3)	4.4		` ,
Peru	123 (8.1)	8.9		
Brazil	113 (7.4)	3.9		
Venezuela	86 (5.6)	. 2.4		
Ćhile	77 (5.0)	4.2		
Bolivia	59 (3.9)	8	-6	6/59 (10.2)
Mexico	40 (2.6)	2.6	•	
Paraguay	15 (1.0)	4.1	1	1/15 (6.7)
Honduras	10 (0.7)	1.3		
El Salvador	6 (0.4)	. 0.4		•
Nicaragua [*]	3 (0.2)	0.1		•
Costa Rica	2 (0.1)	0.1		
Guatemala	1 (<0.1)	0.1		
Panama	1 (<0.1)	Ö.1		
Total ·	1524		10	

tion of persons with a history of Chagas disease for blood donation. ¹⁹ Nevertheless, most people do not present any health problem until many years after acquiring the infection. Because of the increasing number of people from Latin America residing in Europe, and European people who reside for a time in an endemic area, implementation of screening programs for this disease in at-risk donors may be advisable in all European blood banks.

† Data are reported as mean (SD).

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

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

		sult with sa Chagas
Initial result with ID-PaGIA	Positive	Negative
Positive	. 11†	10‡
Negative	14‡	1735

- All initially reactive results were confirmed as positive or negative by in-house native ELISA. Cohen's kappa index, 0.471.31
- † In-house native ELISA result positive.
- ‡ In-house native ELISA result negative.

					1 7 7			1		
		Age at			ng yon	na you		_	Have you	ranstusion
Positive donor	. Sex	donation			ive in a	live in an	Вош	arrival	returned recently	in an endemic
number	. (male/female)	(years)	Country	Town, State	rural area?	adobe house?	In Spain	in Spain	to your country?	country
-	ŧL,	34	Ecuador	Machala, El Oro	Š	No	Š	2000	Yes	Š
2	LL	34	Bolivia	Cochabamba, San Benito	Yes	Yes	Š	2002	2	8
ღ	Σ	42	Argentina	Guaymallen, Mendoza	Yes	Yes	Š	2002	ş	<u>8</u>
	1L	36	Bolivia	Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz	2	2	8 N	2005	Yes	Š
Ω.	≨	38	Bolivia	Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz	ş	S	ŝ	2004	Š	Š
9	×	45	Bolivia	Santa Oruz, Santa Cruz	Š	2	g	2003	No	Š
7	u.	e	Venezuela	Caracas	Yes		Yes	2003		S
ED	u.	36	Bolivia	Cochabamba, Cochabamba	2	2	Š	2003	Š	8
φı	ட	4	Bolivia	Santa Cruz	2	% %	S	2003	Š	2
0	×	49	Argentina	San Juan	Š	Yes	Š	1988	S	
-	ш.	23	Paraduay	San Estanislas, San Pedro	Š	N N	ş	1978	Yes	Š

Argentina, and Ecuador, and these were also the countries of origin of the largest percentages of immigrants in Catalonia in 2005 (Table 3).8

Overall seroprevalence was 0.62 percent in the 1770 at-risk donors included, and positive donors were mainly from Bolivia, with a 10.2 percent prevalence among donors from this country. The seroprevalence of *T. cruzi* infection in Bolivian donors is very high and is in keeping with the 9.9 percent reported in 2001 in that country (86.1% screening coverage at the time of the study), which is the most highly affected by Chagas disease. ¹⁵ The remaining positive donors born in endemic areas were from Argentina, Paraguay, and Ecuador. The seroprevalence of *T. cruzi* infection in blood donors reported in 2001 or 2002 for these countries was 4.5 percent (second most highly affected country), 2.8 percent (third most highly affected country), and 0.4 percent, respectively. ¹⁵

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

Various studies have reported seroprevalence data in the immigrant population and in blood donors in countries that are not endemic for Chagas disease. In Canada and Germany, for example, seroprevalences of 1 and 2 percent have been described, respectively, in cohorts of asymptomatic immigrants coming from Latin America. 20,21

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

In Spain, some blood banks have implemented Chagas' disease screening in at-risk donors and sero-prevalence data have been described, although some of the results are preliminary. *T. cruzi* infection seroprevalence varies from 0.05 to 1.38 percent in the available studies. ^{17,25-27} A mean seroprevalence of 0.65 percent can be calculated from data proceeding from all Spanish blood centers that have performed (or initiated) a survey, including, as a whole, 10,388 blood donors at risk for *T. cruzi* infection. The results obtained in Catalonia are consistent with these data.

The epidemiologic questionnaire provided some interesting information. First, the mean age of the at-risk donors proceeding from an endemic area (Group 1 donors) is lower than the general no-risk population (35 years vs. 42 years), as would be expected in immigrants who generally come to Spain to work and improve their