



Human saliva can be a diagnostic tool for Zika virus detection

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 9 January 2018

Received in revised form

21 September 2018

Accepted 5 May 2019

Keywords:

Saliva

Proteins

Zika infection

Biomarkers

ABSTRACT

Zika virus (ZIKV), an *Aedes* mosquito-borne flavivirus, has captured public health attention worldwide. Initially, the virus was reported in Africa and Asia. However, the outbreak of ZIKV in Brazil and the United States of America demonstrated the global health risk. Symptoms of ZIKV infection vary from mild fever, rash, and joint pain to an apparent increase in microcephaly in infants and severe manifestations including Guillain–Barré syndrome in adults. Such consequences led to enormous health challenges, and consequently the World Health Organization declared a global health emergency. This review incorporates all aspects of ZIKV that could significantly impact human health, including epidemiology, clinical presentation, possible complications, cutting-edge therapeutic management of ZIKV infection, and latest developments in ZIKV diagnosis, particularly the value of human saliva as a diagnostic fluid.

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Introduction

During the last few decades, human saliva has been identified as having significant characteristics to assist in evaluating systemic and oral health. Notably, human saliva has been called a “mirror of the body’s health.” [1] Human whole-mouth saliva (WMS) is a complex mixture of desquamated oral epithelial cells, salivary

gland secretions (major/minor), gingival crevicular fluid (GCF), and microorganisms, including viruses, bacteria, and fungi [1]. Furthermore, it contains proteinases, proline-rich proteins (PRPs), amylase, IgA, lactoferrin, mucins, statherin, glycoproteins, matrix metalloproteases (MMPs), cathelicidins, histatins, and defensins [2]. Due to non-invasive sampling, ease of use, cost-effectiveness, and relatively minimal risk of cross-infection, saliva is an ideal diagnostic bio-fluid [3].

Saliva is an exocrine solution which communicates with the oral cavity through both intracellular and extracellular pathways. Interestingly, small molecules may enter the saliva from serum by passing through the capillary barriers, interstitial spaces, and the membranes of the acinar/ductal cells until the saliva is excreted through excretory tubules. These complex routes and the dynamic

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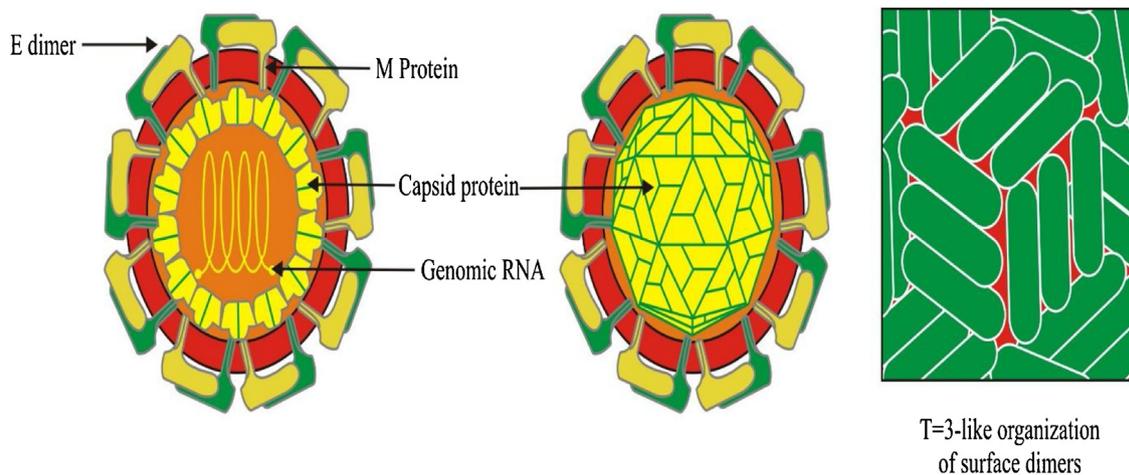


Fig. 1. Representation of the 3-D microscopic structure of Zika virus.

composition of saliva contribute to the value of WMS as an active diagnostic medium [4]. Human WMS contains numerous proteins and peptides of clinical relevance. Khan et al. [5] reported that up to 30% of blood proteins are also present in saliva. Human WMS is a significant factor in determining the prevalence of dental caries [6]. Other oral lesions, including periodontitis, implantitis, oral submucous fibrosis, oral cancer, and lichen planus, are detected in early stages through salivary biomarkers [7]. Speicher et al. [8] used OMNIgene™ (DNA Genotek) to identify human herpesvirus-8 (HHV-8) from human WMS. Likewise, TT virus (an un-enveloped single-stranded DNA virus), hepatitis G virus (blood-borne), Kaposi's sarcoma (KS)-associated herpesvirus (KSHV), and dengue virus have been found in WMS [9–11].

ZIKV is a flavivirus, one of the family of viruses that includes those for yellow fever, dengue fever, West Nile, and Japanese encephalitis. It was first isolated from rhesus monkeys and *Aedes africanus* mosquitoes from the Zika Forest of Uganda in 1947 [12]. Initially, ZIKV infections were limited to sporadic cases in Asia and Africa [13], but in 2007, after the first major ZIKV outbreak in Yap (Federated States of Micronesia, Pacific), the pattern of infection changed dramatically [12,14]. The most substantial outbreak took place in the French Polynesia and Pacific between October 2013 and March 2014 [15,16]. The World Health Organization (WHO) confirmed ZIKV transmission for the first time in the United States and Brazil in May 2015. Following this, the spread was recorded widely in 22 more areas, including Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands in January 2016 [17]. More recently, travel-associated cases of ZIKV infection have been reported [18]. In October 2017, Brazil reported 1.5 million cases of ZIKV infection, which included approximately 4000 suspected cases of microcephaly.

Considering these facts, WHO's International Health Regulations Emergency Committee declared ZIKV infection as a public health emergency of international concern and affirmed the likely associations of microcephaly and neurological disorders with ZIKV infections [19]. At 264 designated entry clearance points in China, procedures were implemented for monitoring travelers through verbal and temperature inspections; suspected ZIKV cases with fever, rashes, and conjunctivitis were further monitored [20]. Moreover, in August 2016, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) released travel notices for certain countries, including the Caribbean states, regarding the ZIKV infections.

ZIKV is a mosquito-borne flavivirus that is closely related to the Spondweni virus [21]. Zika virions are enveloped, 18–45 nm in diameter, icosahedral shaped, and their genome is 11-kb single-positive-strand (sense) ribonucleic acid (RNA) enclosed in a capsid, surrounded by a 3-D membrane (Fig. 1) [22].

The RNA consists of 10,794 nucleotides encoding 3419 amino acids, and virus replication occurs in the cellular cytoplasm [23]. Cryo-electron microscopy (CEM) of ZIKV structure at 3.7 Å resolution revealed a small surface that helps the virus to survive in the harsh conditions of semen, saliva, and urine [22,24].

Transmission and clinical manifestations

Mosquito species *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* are well-known potential vectors for yellow fever, dengue, and chikungunya, and nations endemic with these fevers are at high risk for ZIKV as well [25]. In addition to the daytime urban dwelling spread of ZIKV by mosquito bites [26], it has recently been revealed that ZIKV can be rapidly transmitted through human-to-human intimate contact during kissing and sexual intercourse [27], through blood transfusions, and by vertical transmission, including the trans-placentally, during breastfeeding, while giving birth, and through close contact between the mother and the newborn child [28]. The occurrence of ZIKV outbreaks regardless of the presence of *Aedes species* mosquitoes has contributed to the severe threat to the public health with serious consequences.

After an incubation period (3–7 days), ZIKV in up to 80% of cases seems to be asymptomatic or subclinical. These cases have mild symptoms—low grade fever (37.8°–38.5 °C), headache, non-purulent conjunctivitis, myalgia, arthralgia, peripheral edema, widespread maculopapular and pruritic rash, and gastro-intestinal disturbances [26,29], which usually resolve on their own. However, severe clinical sequelae of ZIKV include infants born with microcephaly due to infection during the mother's pregnancy, and central nervous system malformations including meningoencephalitis, meningitis, and Guillain-Barré syndrome (GBS) in adults [12]. The latest data from the Ministry of Health in Brazil provide evidence of 4180 cases of microcephaly, out of which 270 cases were positively correlated with ZIKV among only 732 classified cases altogether [30]. Moreover, the National IHR Focal Point of El Salvador reported an average of 169 cases per year of GBS, which increased 20-fold between December 01, 2015 and January 06, 2016, while ZIKV was epidemic in French Polynesia [31].

Although there are similarities between the symptoms of Chikungunya virus, dengue virus, and ZIKV infections [32], a number of differences (such as high-grade fever, shock, and hemorrhage) can differentiate ZIKV infection from others (Chikungunya and dengue). ZIKV can be differentially diagnosed from rubella, HIV seroconversion, scarlet fever, rickettsia infection, secondary syphilis, leptospirosis, measles, parvovirus, and enterovirus [26].

Hence, diagnostic guidelines are contingent on laboratory testing only as clinical evaluation alone remains unreliable.

Laboratory diagnosis with human whole mouth saliva (WMS)

Detection of ZIKV was initially limited to serum and cerebrospinal fluid. Later the focus turned to other fluids, including urine, saliva, and amniotic fluid, and tissue for diagnostic testing [33]. Serological analysis and detection of ZIKV IgM and IgG antibodies are compromised due to low viremia and cross-reactivity with other flaviviruses, which causes a higher likelihood of false positive results [34]. Viral culture has not been commonly pursued, and therefore detection of antigen is unavailable. There are currently a limited number of commercial tests available to detect ZIKV. Most of the available tests, such as prototype multiplex molecular assays, are still in the development phase [30]. At present, the reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assay is considered a sensitive diagnostic assay with a high specificity for ZIKV [33]. One study [13] reported identifying ZIKV from a WMS sample from an infected one-year-old child by using the NucliSENS® easyMAG® system (BioMérieux). In this study, quantification of the ZIKV was greater from the WMS sample than from a blood sample from the same child. This demonstrated the ability to detect only acute phase ZIKV infection. Hence, saliva has the potential to act as a diagnostic medium for ZIKV in the first week of symptom onset. Corstjens et al. [35] also reviewed the use of saliva in virus detection and detailed a comprehensive literature that described the systematic correlation of saliva with virus activity. They concluded that saliva may be useful for the detection of viruses. Shedding of ZIKV RNA in saliva and urine was reported in Italy in January 2016 from a female patient until 29 days after the onset of symptoms [36]. This study also noted that, based on a phylogenetic analysis, the virus belonged to the Asian pedigree and clustered to the ZIKV strains of Latin American origin. The high viral load was identified through isolated saliva instead of from the emergence of antibodies. The saliva emerged as a significant diagnostic tool for the nucleic acid detection.

To confirm that an illness is caused by ZIKV and not by another flavivirus, RNA of ZIKV in a clinical specimen is essential. Bingham et al. [37] conducted an experiment for validation of diagnostic approaches using serum, urine, and saliva among travel-associated ZIKV cases in Florida in 2016. Samples were collected initially from 66 individuals and later from 53 other individuals for comparison of urine, serum, and saliva collected from each individual on the same day. This study revealed a higher rate of ZIKV RNA detection in saliva and urine (ranging from 81% to 92%, respectively) compared to the RNA level detected in the serum (51%).

Similarly, Nicastri et al. [38] published a case report in January 2016 of a man with non-vector-borne ZIKV infection, probably sexually transmitted, on his return to Italy from Haiti. ZIKV RNA was detected in the patient's urine and saliva 91 days after the first onset of his symptoms, and in his semen six months later [38]. A groundbreaking discovery in the diagnosis of the ZIKV was reported by the University of Western Ontario (UWO) [39]. The protein and peptide fingerprints from the WMS of a ZIKV-infected pregnant mother and her twins (one born with microcephaly and one without) were investigated, and nine significant peptides were identified from their saliva.

To detect ZIKV, the real-time RT-PCR Viral RNA Mini Kit (QIAamp) and One-Step RT-PCR Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) are available. They work by targeting partial sequences of the envelope genes, ZIKVENF and ZIKVENVR, from saliva, urine, and serum samples [20]. Recently, one group from the USA [40] performed experiments on the detection of ZIKV RNA in saliva samples by optimizing a serological assay using a microfluidic device

and point-of-care technology. An optimized reverse transcription loop-mediated isothermal amplification (RT-LAMP) assay and an isothermal amplification device were used to detect ZIKV RNA. This study evidenced a protocol to modify the current loop-mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP) assay to be useful in detecting ZIKV RNA.

Conclusion

Overall, molecular biologists, biomedical engineers, protein chemists, immunologists, oral practitioners, and health policy specialists must work as a team to control the medical emergency of ZIKV infections. Mass gatherings, for example, the Umrah and Hajj in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the FIFA football world cup 2022 in Qatar, the ICC World Twenty20 in Australia, and EXPO 2020 in Dubai, are open occasions to explore the potential of ZIKV transmission and its prevention [19]. The use of human body glandular secretions, particularly saliva, as diagnostic tools provides us with an opportunity for simpler and more efficient molecular and proteomic analysis/diagnosis of ZIKV. These outcomes will be beneficial for studying point-of-care (POC) technology and biosensor development.

Funding

No funding sources.

Competing interests

None declared.

Ethical approval

Not required

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