ORIGINAL PAPER



Seroprevalence of *Trypanosoma cruzi* Infection in Pregnant Women Suggests a High Risk for Congenital Transmission in Central Veracruz, Mexico

Aracely López-Monteon¹ · Hilda Montero² · Ruth Sarahi González-Constantino^{1,3} · Alberto Yair Limón-Flores⁴ · Miguel Varela-Cardoso⁵ · Gerardo Luna-Hernández⁵ · Eric Dumonteil⁶ · Angel Ramos-Ligonio¹

Received: 9 October 2019 / Accepted: 11 March 2020 / Published online: 16 April 2020 © Witold Stefański Institute of Parasitology, Polish Academy of Sciences 2020

Abstract

Purpose The state of Veracruz, Mexico, is a well-recognized endemic region for Chagas disease, but congenital transmission has not been extensively studied. We estimated here the prevalence and the risk of congenital transmission of *Trypanosoma cruzi* in pregnant women from 27 municipalities of central Veracruz.

Methods 528 sera from pregnant women were analyzed by ELISA and IFA assays for the detection of IgG antibodies against *T. cruzi*.

Results The presence of anti-*T. cruzi* antibodies was identified in women from 17 municipalities, obtaining an overall seroprevalence of 17.0%. A higher seropositivity was observed in the municipalities of Orizaba (25.2%), Nogales (13.6%), and Río Blanco (10.5%). The results suggest that there is a high risk of congenital transmission of *T. cruzi* in the region.

Conclusion There are currently limited actions for the surveillance and control of congenital transmission of Chagas disease in Veracruz.

Keywords Trypanosoma cruzi · Seroprevalence · Congenital transmission · Pregnant woman

Angel Ramos-Ligonio angramos@uv.mx

- ¹ LADISER Inmunología y Biología Molecular, Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Universidad Veracruzana, Prolongación Oriente 6, No. 1009, Col. Rafael Alvarado, Orizaba, Mexico
- ² Instituto de Salud Pública, Universidad Veracruzana, Av. Luis Castelazo Ayala, s/n., Col. Industrial Ánimas, 91190 Xalapa, Veracruz, Mexico
- ³ Maestria en Procesos Biológicos, Universidad Veracruzana, Prolongación Oriente 6, No.1009, Col. Rafael Alvarado, 94340 Orizaba, Veracruz, Mexico
- ⁴ Facultad de Medicina y Hospital Universitario, Servicio de Inmunología, Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León, Monterrey, Nuevo León, Mexico
- ⁵ Facultad de Medicina, Universidad Veracruzana, Hidalgo y Carrillo s/n, Camerino Z., 94740 Mendoza, Veracruz, Mexico
- ⁶ Department of Tropical Medicine, School of Public Health and Tropical Medicine, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA, USA

Introduction

Chagas disease is a zoonosis caused by Trypanosoma *cruzi*, and is a major parasitic infection in the Americas [1], endemic in South, and Central America as well as Mexico and the southern United States [2-4]. It is estimated that there are about 6 million people infected by T. cruzi in Latin America [5]. It has been traditionally considered a disease of rural areas where triatomine vectors are the most common source of infection [1]. However, congenital Chagas disease is becoming a growing global health problem which is still often underdiagnosed in many regions. Indeed, vertical transmission from an infected mother to her newborn is an important mode of transmission of T. cruzi infection in both endemic and non-endemic areas [6]. Also, large human migrations from rural to urban areas have led to the urbanization of Chagas disease, as well as its globalization [7–9]. According to recent WHO estimates, Mexico is one of the countries with the highest number of people infected by T. cruzi, after Argentina and Brazil, and ranked first in Latin America for the number of cases of infection by T. cruzi due to congenital transmission, with 1788 annual cases

[5]. However, very few studies have focused on congenital transmission or on *T. cruzi* infection in pregnant women in Mexico [8]. Recent studies have reported the presence of triatomines and vectorial transmission in localities of the central part of the state of Veracruz, with a very high sero-prevalence of *T. cruzi* infection in humans, reaching 16.8% [10, 11]. The objective of this study was to measure the prevalence of *T. cruzi* infection in pregnant women attending prenatal care in a regional hospital in central Veracruz, and estimate the risk of congenital transmission of *T. cruzi*.

Materials and Methods

Study Population and Serum Samples

The study was conducted in a tertiary care hospital in Veracruz, Mexico (Hospital Río Blanco), which provides prenatal care to pregnant women and attends over 4500 deliveries per year. Study participants were women attending routine prenatal care during their second trimester of pregnancy, with no preeclampsia or other complications/risks (vaginal bleeding, placental abruption, abdominal pain, vaginal infections, lack of fetal movement, gestational diabetes among others).

During the period from March 2013 to January 2015, 728 women were screened, and a total of 528 serum samples were collected from pregnant women by venipuncture, after obtaining informed consent (Fig. 1) according to the WHO safety protocols, as well as basic sociodemographic data through a short questionnaire. Blood samples were collected in vacutainer tubes. Serum was separated by centrifugation at $1200 \times g$ for 10 min and samples were stored at -70 °C until used. Samples were analyzed for *T. cruzi* infection using two different assays: an in-house enzyme-linked

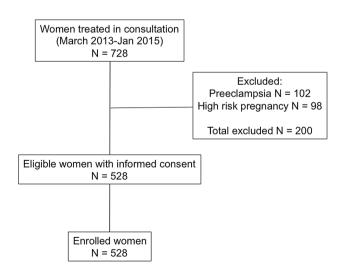


Fig. 1 Sampling design

immunosorbent assay (ELISA) based on crude parasite extract and an indirect immunofluorescence (IIF) assay for the detection of IgG antibodies against *T. cruzi*. The sera that showed hemolysis were not included in the study.

In-house ELISA

An in-house ELISA test was used [10], based on an epimastigote crude extract of the LJ01 strain (TDIM/MEX/2014/ LJ01/T. cruzi, a mixture of TcI and non-TcI DTUs, isolated from Triatoma dimidiata collected in the village of Las Josefinas, Veracruz, Mexico) [12]. The strain was cultured in liver infusion tryptose medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum. Briefly [10], logarithmic phase parasites were harvested by centrifugation at $1000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4 °C. The parasite pellet was suspended in 500 µL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 4.3 mM Na2HPO4, and 1.4 mM KH2PO4, pH 7.4) and lysed by cycles of freezing (-70 °C) and thawing (25 °C). The suspension was centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4 °C. The resulting supernatant (extract) was used as crude antigen extract. Protein concentration was determined by the Bradford method. Polystyrene plates (Costar Corporation, Cambridge, MA) were coated with the T. cruzi crude antigen extract (10 µg/mL) in carbonate buffer, pH 9.6, and incubated overnight at 4 °C. Unbound antigen was removed and plates were blocked with 200 µL of PBS containing 5% non-fat milk for 2 h at 37 °C. After washing, the plates were incubated with 50 µL of serum samples (1:200 dilution). Each plate also included positive and negative control serum samples. Further, washing steps were performed and a peroxidase-labeled goat anti-human IgG antibody (Pierce, Rockford, IL) was added at a 1:5,000 dilution in PBS/0.05% Tween 20 and incubated for 1 h at room temperature. After eight washes, 100 µL of 2,2,-azinobis (3-ethylbenzthiazoline)-6-sulphonic acid (Zymed, San Francisco, CA) was added as substrate and the reaction was allowed to proceed for 20 min at room temperature. The reaction was stopped with 2% sulfuric acid, and absorbance was read at 415 nm with an ELISA microplate reader (Multiskan MS; Labsystems, Vantaa, Finland). The use of a local strain was previously found to increase the sensitivity of the detection of *T. cruzi* infection [12].

Immunofluorescence Assay

The sera that gave positive results by ELISA were processed by IIF. Briefly [10], a suspension of 10^5 epimastigotes of the Y strain were placed on a slide, fixed and blocked with PBS containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) for 1 h at 37 °C in a humid chamber. Sera of donors and controls were diluted 1:50 in PBS and incubated for 30 min in humid chamber, subsequently, the slides were washed and incubated with the second anti-human IgG antibody conjugated to FITC at a 1:20 dilution for 30 min at 37 °C. After incubation, the slides were observed in a fluorescence microscope. The presence of a green fluorescence on parasites was considered a positive test using as a benchmark a positive control. In all serological assays, a positive control consisting of a pool of sera from chagasic patients was used, as well as, and a negative control consisting of a pool from healthy volunteers. Only samples reactive to both tests were considered as positive for *T. cruzi* infection.

Data and Statistical Analysis

Seroprevalence data were compared using χ^2 or Fisher's exact tests, and the kappa index was calculated when applicable. Also when relevant, 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated. Sociodemographic data were similarly compared by χ^2 tests, to assess potential associations with the serological data, and a multivariate logistic regression and a multiple regression analyses were performed with the variable that resulted significantly associated with *T. cruzi* seropositivity. A spatial database of serologic results for each municipality was also created in the program QGis (2.6.1-Brighton) to produce seroprevalence maps, and spatial analysis (Kernel density) was conducted using the program JMP (Version 9.0.1).

Ethical Aspects

The project was reviewed and approved by the Ethical Committee of the Faculty of Chemical Sciences (FCQ/067/01/2013), and by the research committee of the regional hospital of Rio Blanco (JSVII/ HRRioBlanco/2013/004).

Results

Characteristics of Trainees

A total of 528 pregnant women were enrolled in the study, with an average age of 25 years old, ranging from 13 to 43 years old (Table 1). About one-third were in their first pregnancy, the others had had from one to ten previous pregnancies. Nearly two-thirds were from rural areas. The majority had reached primary or secondary school education. Most had domestic animals (63%), and lived in houses with cement floor (68%), laminated metal roof (55%), and cement walls (62%). The majority were familiar with triatomines, and 20% reported previous contact with these bugs (Table 1).

Table 1 Demographic characteristics of the study population

| | 25±6 (13–43) | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| Age | | |
| <20 years | 153/528 (30.0%) | |
| 21–30 years | 253/528 (47.9%) | |
| 31–40 years | 111/528 (21.0%) | |
| >40 years | 11/528 (2.1%) | |
| Previous pregnancies | | |
| None | 194/528 (36.7%) | |
| 1 or more | 334/528 (63.2%) | |
| Environment | | |
| Urban | 222/528 (42.0%) | |
| Rural | 306/528 (57.9%) | |
| Education | | |
| Primary | 193/528 (36.5%) | |
| Secondary | 201/528 (38.1%) | |
| High | 88/528 (16.6%) | |
| University | 46/528 (6.8%) | |
| Socioeconomic level ^a | | |
| Low | 169/528 (32.0%) | |
| Medium | 359/528 (68.0%) | |
| Domestic animals | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | |
| Yes | 333/528 (63.0%) | |
| No | 195/528 (36.9%) | |
| Floor | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | |
| Cement | 360/528 (68.2%) | |
| Tiles | 95/528 (18.0%) | |
| Dirt | 73/528 (13.8%) | |
| Roof | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | |
| Cement | 143/528 (27.1% | |
| Tiles | 92/528 (17.4%) | |
| Laminated metal | 293/528 (55.5%) | |
| Walls | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | |
| Cement/plaster | 328/528 (62.1%) | |
| Blocks | 43/528 (8.1%) | |
| Wood | 153/528 (29.0%) | |
| Other | 4/528 (0.8%) | |
| Know triatomines | | |
| Yes | 306/528 (58.0%) | |
| No | 209/528 (40.0%) | |
| No answer | 13/258(2.0%) | |
| Previous contact | | |
| Yes | 115/528 (21.8%) | |
| No | 385/528 (72.9%) | |
| No answer | 28/528 (5.3%) | |
| Previous transfusion | (| |
| Yes | 35/528 (6.6%) | |
| | | |

Age is given as mean \pm SD and range

^aEconomic and sociological parameter that combines a person's job preparation based on your income, education, and employment

Analysis of Seroprevalence and Sociodemographic Data

All 528 samples were tested for antibodies against *T. cruzi* by ELISA and IIF using a local parasite strain as antigen¹² corresponding to an overall seroprevalence of 17.0% (90/527, 95%CI=9.91–24.1\%). It is worth mentioning that the serum

was not included in the serological study for presenting hemolysis. The agreement between the ELISA assay and the IIF was excellent ($\kappa = 0.96 \pm 0.01$). Although seroprevalence of *T. cruzi* infection varied with age, ranging from 4% for women less that 16 years old to 28% in 26–30 years old, there was no significant association of infection with age (P = 0.86, Table 2). Previous parity was also not

Table 2Characteristics ofseropositive pregnant women

| | Seronegatives ($N=437$) | Seropositives $(N=90)$ | Р |
|----------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|---------|
| Age | | | |
| < 20 years | 126 (28.9%) | 27 (30.0%) | 0.86 |
| 21-30 years | 207 (47.4%) | 46 (51.1%) | |
| 31-40 years | 96 (21.9%) | 15 (16.7%) | |
| >40 years | 8 (1.8%) | 2 (2.2%) | |
| Previous pregnancies | | | |
| 0 | 278 (63.6%) | 55 (61.1%) | |
| 1 or more | 159 (36.4%) | 35 (38.9%) | |
| Environment: | | | |
| Urban | 158 (36.1%) | 63 (70.0%)* | < 0.001 |
| Rural | 279 (63.8%) | 27 (30.0%) | |
| Education | | | |
| None | 18 (4.1%) | 1 (1.1%)* | 0.01 |
| Primary school | 154 (35.2%) | 19 (21.1%) | |
| Secondary school | 164 (37.5%) | 37 (41.1%) | |
| High school | 68 (15.6%) | 20 (22.2%) | |
| University | 33 (7.6%) | 13 (14.4%) | |
| Socioecon. level | | | |
| Low | 152 (34.8%) | 16 (17.8%)* | 0.001 |
| Medium | 285 (65.2%) | 74 (82.2%) | |
| Floor | | | |
| Tiles | 68 (15.1%) | 27 (30.0%)* | 0.002 |
| Cement | 303 (69.3%) | 57 (63.3%) | |
| Dirt | 66 (15.1%) | 6 (6.7%) | |
| Roof | | | |
| Tiles | 70 (16.1%) | 21 (23.3%)* | 0.01 |
| Cement | 111 (25.5%) | 32 (35.6%) | |
| Laminated sheets | 254 (58.4%) | 37 (41.1%) | |
| Walls | | | |
| Cement/plaster | 265 (60.6%) | 64 (71.1%) | 0.13 |
| Block | 36 (8.3%) | 4 (4.4%) | |
| Wood | 136 (31.1%) | 22 (24.4%) | |
| Know triatomines | | | |
| Yes | 255 (58.3%) | 51 (56.7%) | 0.43 |
| No | 174 (39.8%) | 35 (38.8%) | |
| No answer | 8 (1.8%) | 4 (4.4%) | |
| Previous contact | | | |
| Yes | 101 (23.1%) | 14 (15.6%) | 0.24 |
| No | 314 (71.8%) | 70 (77.8%) | |
| No answer | 22 (5.0%) | 6 (6.7%) | |

Bold values indicate p < 0.05

*statistically significant

associated with T. cruzi infection (P = 0.65). Similarly, having domestic animals (P = 0.68), knowing triatomine bugs (P=0.43) and self-reporting of triatomine bites (P=0.24)were not associated with infection. On the other hand, living in urban area (P < 0.0001), higher socioeconomic level (P=0.001) and higher education level (P=0.01) were significantly associated with T. cruzi seropositivity (Table 2). Floor (P = 0.002) and roof (P = 0.011) building materials were also associated with infection (Table 2). Nonetheless, none of these associations remained significant in a multivariate logistic regression model, with the exception of living in urban/rural area, and the resulting model fitted very poorly to the serological data (R2 = 0.08). However, when performing the multiple regression analysis, an association with age was found, mainly in the population of less than 20 years (P = 0.005), followed by the age group between 21 and 30 years (P = 0.004). An association was also found with the level of education (high school, P = 0.01), and with the high socioeconomic level (P = 0.03), the association of seroprevalence with the housing construction material was maintained, floor and roof: cement (P=0.01), walls (cement and wood P=0.02), on the other hand, knowledge of the vector and previous contact with it showed an association with the presence of seroprevalence, suggesting that these variables contribute to the distribution of seropositivity of *T. cruzi* in the population studied.

Geographical Distribution of Positive Cases

The presence of anti-*T. cruzi* antibodies was identified in women from 17 municipalities (Fig. 2), and a higher seropositivity was observed in the municipalities of Orizaba with a seropositivity of 25.2% (95% CI=21.07–27.7), Nogales and Río Blanco with a seropositivity of 13.6% (95% CI=10.3–16.9), and 10.5% (95% CI=6.7–14.3), respectively (Fig. 3a). The analysis of the spatial distribution of the women with anti-*T. cruzi* antibodies, by nonparametric Kernel test allowed us to establish the points of greatest

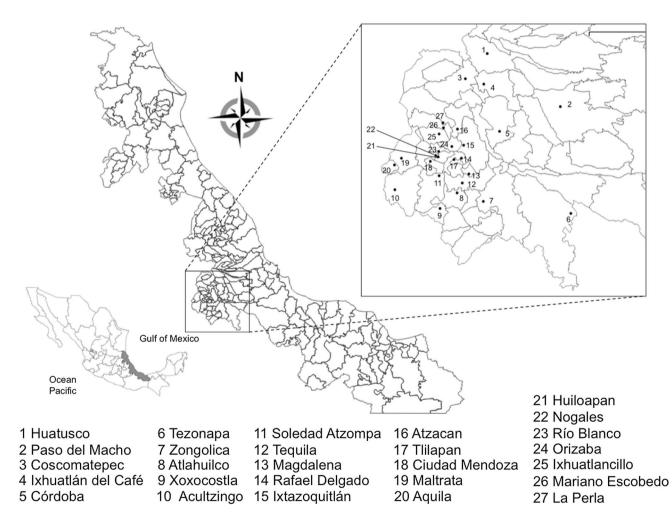
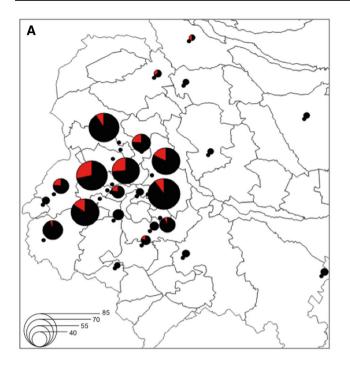


Fig. 2 Study area. Mexico (bottom left), the state of Veracruz (center), and the study area (inset). Black circles indicate the position of the indicated municipalities



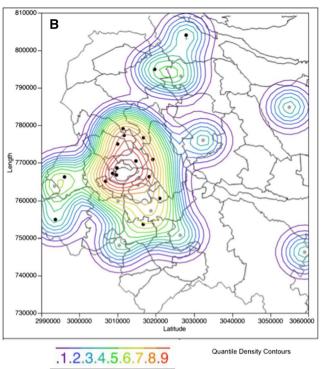


Fig. 3 Cases of positive serology for *T. cruzi* in pregnant women in central Veracruz, Mexico. **a** Geographic distribution of cases. Circles are proportional to the number of serum samples analyzed in each municipality as indicated on the bottom left scale. Red areas in the

pie charts represent the proportion of *T. cruzi*-seropositive patients. **b** Nonparametric density estimation (Kernel), fit to ordered by abscissa for Chagas disease indicating the presence of antibodies to *T. cruzi* in the municipalities (black points) (color figure online)

concentration or density, corresponding to areas with the greatest risk. Thus, the density curves confirmed that the municipalities of Orizaba, Nogales, Río Blanco, Ixtazoquitlán, Mariano Escobedo, Ciudad Mendoza, Ixhuatlancillo, and Rafael Delgado concentrated most of the seropositive cases (coordinates: length 771,608, latitude 3,016,084) (Fig. 3b).

Discussion

Mother-to-child transmission of *T. cruzi* is becoming a major public health priority in both endemic and non-endemic regions. Therefore, it is urgent to better understand the epidemiology of mother-to-child transmission and to develop effective prevention programs [13]. In Mexico, accurate information on the prevalence of Chagas disease is scarce and the importance of the disease in public health is still being debated, despite many punctual studies reporting local cases since many years [14]. Here we found a seroprevalence of *T. cruzi* infection of 17.0% in pregnant women in a major hospital in central Veracruz, who's newborns are thus at risk of congenital transmission. This seroprevalence is in complete agreement with our previous seroepidemiological study in the region, reporting a seroprevalence of 16.8% in the general population [10]. The seroprevalence of T. cruzi infection in pregnant women varies between different countries, geographical areas, and rural and urban localities from < 1 to 70.5% [15], and in some states of Mexico, it fluctuates between 4.0 [16] and 12.0% [17]. Although it is well known that the state of Veracruz is endemic for Chagas disease, the geographical distribution and extent of the disease are not yet well documented [10]. The very high seroprevalence of T. cruzi infection we detected in pregnant women in this population suggests a very high risk of congenital transmission. While no follow-up of the seropositive pregnant women could be performed by the research team, all were referred to the Ministry of Health for confirmation of diagnostic and care. It is, however, unclear how many of them did transmit to their newborns. Based on an average congenital transmission rate of 5% [18], 4-5 cases of congenitally infected newborns can be expected from our cohort of pregnant women. Importantly, current guidelines for prenatal care in Mexico include screening for several infectious diseases, but not for Chagas disease, which should thus be urgently considered in updated public health policies based on our and other's data on congenital transmission [5]. Our short questionnaire failed to clearly identify factors associated with T. cruzi infection in pregnant women in this region. The higher proportion of seropositive women from urban areas may be related to migrations of women and mothers from rural areas with high *T. cruzi* transmission to urban centers, which drives the urbanization of Chagas disease [19–22]. This phenomenon of migration of both endemic and non-endemic areas may be mainly motivated by the extreme poverty in which these families live. However, this condition is influenced by several more specific factors, including: lack of employment, lack of access to social protection, lack of access to infrastructure and services such as health care and schooling, and the demand for domestic workers among others [23].

Finally, it is worth mentioning that this study had some limitations, for example, the presence of infection in pregnant women was not confirmed, so neither an assessment of the clinical status was performed to evaluate the form of the disease. On the other hand, the mothers' umbilical cord blood was not analyzed when giving birth, and the newborn was not followed up.

In conclusion, the spatial cluster of *T. cruzi* infection we detected may reflect this migration to more urbanized municipalities, although the presence of vectorial transmission in many of these areas also seems likely based on the rather widespread knowledge of triatomine bugs reported by the pregnant women. Further studies should focus on a much wider exploration of potential risk factors for *T. cruzi* infection in these pregnant women, which may help in their identification during prenatal care. Understanding the frequency of congenital *T. cruzi* transmission is important for the implementation of appropriate screening strategies for pregnant women and early treatment programmes for infected newborns.

Acknowledgements The authors appreciate the support provided by the department of gynecology and obstetrics of the "Rio Blanco" Hospital for obtaining samples.

Funding RSGC was recipient of a Ph.D. fellowship from CONACyT, Mexico (No. 286884). This work was supported by grant FOMIX CON-ACyT-Gobierno del Estado de Veracruz (VER-2008-C02-108783).

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

- Schmunis GA (2007) Epidemiology of Chagas disease in nonendemic countries: the role of international migration. Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz 102:75–85
- Moncayo A, Ortiz Yanine MI (2006) An update on Chagas disease (human American trypanosomiasis). Ann Trop Med Parasitol 100:663–677

- Bern C, Kjos S, Yabsley et al (2011) Trypanosoma cruzi and Chagas' Disease in the United States. Clin Microbiol Rev 24:655–681
- Gascon J, Bern C, Pinazo MJ (2010) Chagas disease in Spain, the United States and other non-endemic countries. Acta Trop 115:22–27
- WHO (2015) Chagas disease in Latin America: an epidemiological update based on 2010 estimates. Wkly Epidemiol Rec 90(6):33–43
- Norman FF, López-Vélez R (2014) Mother-to-child transmission of Trypanosoma cruzi infection (Chagas disease): a neglected problem. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 108:388–390
- Gebrekristos HT, Buekens P (2014) Mother-to-child transmission of *Trypanosoma cruzi*. J Pediatric Infect Dis Soc. 3(Suppl 1):S36–40
- Buekens P, Almendares O, Carlier Y, Dumonteil E, Eberhard M, Gamboa-Leon R, James M, Padilla N, Wesson D, Xiong X (2008) Mother-to-child transmission of Chagas' disease in North America: why don't we do more? Matern Child Health J 12:283–286
- Sesti-Costa R, Silva JS, Gutierrez FR (2012) Congenital Chagas disease: time to screen pregnant women? Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 10:1279–1282
- Ramos-Ligonio A, López-Monteon A, Guzmán-Gómez D, Rosales-Encina JL, Limón-Flores Y, Dumonteil E (2010) Identification of a hyperendemic area for *Trypanosoma cruzi* infection in central Veracruz. Mexico Am J Trop Med Hyg 83:164–170
- Torres-Montero J, López-Monteon A, Dumonteil E, Ramos-Ligonio A (2012) House infestation dynamics and feeding sources of *Triatoma dimidiata* in central Veracruz, Mexico. Am J Trop Med Hyg 86:677–682
- 12. Guzmán-Gómez D, López-Monteon A, de la Soledad L-C, Álvarez-Martínez C, Hernández-Lutzon MJ, Dumonteil E, Ramos-Ligonio A (2015) Highly discordant serology against *Trypanosoma cruzi* in central Veracruz, Mexico: role of the antigen used for diagnostic. Parasit Vectors 17:466–476
- Buekens P, Cafferata ML, Alger J, Althabe F, Belizán JM, Carlier Y, Ciganda A, Dumonteil E, Gamboa-Leon R, Howard E, Matute ML, Sosa-Estani S, Truyens C, Wesson D, Zuniga C (2013) Congenital transmission of Trypanosoma cruzi in Argentina, Honduras, and Mexico: study protocol. Reprod Health 10:55–65
- Dumonteil E (1999) Update on Chagas' disease in Mexico. Salud Publica Mex 41(4):322–327
- Oliveira I, Torrico F, Muñoz J, Gascon J (2010) Congenital transmission of Chagas disease: a clinical approach. Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 8(8):945–956
- Montes-Rincón LM, Galaviz-Silva L, González-Bravo FE, Molina-Garza ZJ (2016) Trypanosoma cruzi seroprevalence in pregnant women and screening by PCR and microhaematocrit in newborns from Guanajuato, Mexico. Acta Trop 164:100–106
- Cardoso EJ, Valdéz GC, Campos AC, de la Luz SR, Mendoza CR, Hernández AP, Ramírez MH, Habana JR, González EB, Matzumura PD, Carlier Y (2012) Maternal fetal transmission of *Trypanosoma cruzi*: a problem of public health little studied in Mexico. Exp Parasitol 131:425–432
- Howard EJ, Xiong X, Carlier Y, Sosa-Estani S, Buekens P (2014) Frequency of the congenital transmission of *Trypa*nosoma cruzi: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BJOG 121:22–33
- Cevallos AM, Hernández R (2014) Chagas' disease: pregnancy and congenital transmission. Biomed Res Int 2014:401864
- Zaida EY, Schmunis GA (2009) Congenital Chagas disease: estimating the potential risk in the United States. Am J Trop Med Hyg 81:927–933

- Apt W, Zulantay I, Arnello M, Oddó D, González S, Rodríguez J, Kemmerling U, Truyens C, Carlier Y (2013) Congenital infection by *Trypanosoma cruzi* in an endemic area of Chile: a multidisciplinary study. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 107:98–104
- 22. Cucunubá ZM, Flórez AC, Cárdenas A, Pavía P, Montilla M, Aldana R, Villamizar K, Ríos LC, Nicholls RS, Puerta CJ (2012) Prevalence and risk factors for Chagas disease in pregnant women in Casanare, Colombia. Am J Trop Med Hyg 87:837–842
- 23. Pérez-Campuzano E, Santos-Cerquera C (2013) Recent trends in internal migration in Mexico. Pap Pob 19(76):53–88

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.