# Cytochrome *b* Gene Quantitative PCR for Diagnosing *Plasmodium falciparum* Infection in Travelers $^{\triangledown}$

Cécile Farrugia, 1,2 Odile Cabaret, 1,2 Françoise Botterel, 1,2 Christian Bories, 1 Françoise Foulet, 1 Jean-Marc Costa, 1,3 and Stéphane Bretagne 1,2\*

Laboratoire de Parasitologie-Mycologie, groupe hospitalier Chenevier-Mondor, AP-HP, Créteil, France<sup>1</sup>; Université UPEC, UMR BIPAR 956, Créteil, France<sup>2</sup>; and Laboratoire Cerba, Cergy-Pontoise, France<sup>3</sup>

Received 25 October 2010/Returned for modification 7 December 2010/Accepted 12 April 2011

A cytochrome b (cytb) gene quantitative PCR (qPCR) assay was developed to diagnose malaria in travelers. First, manual and automated DNA extractions were compared and automated DNA extraction of 400 µl of blood was found to be more efficient. Sensitivity was estimated using the WHO international standard for Plasmodium falciparum DNA and compared to that of a previously published qPCR targeting the 18S rRNA coding gene (18S qPCR). The limit of detection of the cytb qPCR assay was 20 DNA copies (i.e., 1 parasite equivalent) per 400 µl of extracted whole blood and was comparable for the two qPCR assays. Both qPCR assays were used on blood samples from 265 consecutive patients seen for suspicion of malaria. There were no microscopy-positive and qPCR-negative samples. Positive cytb qPCR results were observed for 51 samples, and all but 1 were also 18S qPCR positive. Eight (16%) of these 51 samples were negative by microscopic examination. The 8 cytb qPCR-positive and microscopy-negative samples were from African patients, 3 of whom had received antimalarial drugs. Three non-P. falciparum infections were correctly identified using an additional qPCR assay. The absence of PCR inhibitors was tested for by the use of an internal control of mouse DNA to allow reliable quantification of circulating DNA. The high analytical sensitivity of both qPCR assays combined with automated DNA extraction supports its use as a laboratory tool for diagnosis and parasitemia determination in emergencies. Whether to treat qPCR-positive and microscopy-negative patients remains to be determined.

In countries where malaria is not endemic, a significant rise in imported malaria cases has been observed in recent years due to the development of travel, tourism, and migration from areas in which malaria is endemic. Microscopic examination of stained blood films is still considered the gold standard for diagnosis. The main strengths of this method are that it can identify both the species and the stage of infection, as well as quantify parasite density. However, microscopy remains laborintensive and time-consuming. Moreover, diversity in protocols and in the results obtained by different observers has been documented for both species identification and quantification (21). These problems are exacerbated in regions where malaria microscopy is performed infrequently to maintain expertise (14). Immunochromatographic tests (ICT) based on the detection of Plasmodium antigens in blood can be performed by nonskilled technicians within half an hour but are not more sensitive than microscopy, quantification of parasitemia is not possible, species other than P. falciparum species may not be detected, and negative results require microscopic confirmation (12, 20).

DNA amplification for malaria diagnosis began to attract attention as a possible alternative to microscopy as early as the early 1990s. Nested and other open-tube PCR methods are very prone to contamination with previously amplified prod-

ucts and require long turnaround times and are therefore not suitable for routine use (4). Moreover, these techniques do not allow parasitemia to be quantified. In contrast, real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) technology has the potential to overcome these limitations and offers a simple, time-effective, and quantitative diagnostic option. With the use of specific fluorescently labeled probes in a closed system, amplicon formation can be detected, monitored, and quantified throughout the reaction with no risk of contamination of the environment with amplicons. Additionally, since the copurification of trace PCR inhibitors may reduce amplification efficiency, leading to erroneous quantification of the parasitic load or false-negative results, the use of an internal control (IC) is compulsory. This necessity is linked to the need for high-quality DNA extraction from blood samples by a rapid DNA extraction technique. Finally, the availability of results within 2 h allows a possible application in an emergency context to be envisaged (12).

We have therefore developed a strategy including (i) a commercial and automated DNA extraction protocol, (ii) a heterologous IC incorporated into each sample to monitor the yield of DNA amplification and to allow quantification, (iii) a positive diagnosis based on a qPCR assay, and (iv) differentiation between *Plasmodium falciparum* and non-*P. falciparum* species based not on melting curve analysis but on an additional qPCR assay. We developed a qPCR assay targeting the mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene and compared our results to those of an already published qPCR method targeting the 18S rRNA-encoding gene (17). The 18S rRNA gene is one of the most often reported targets in qPCR (1, 3). However, there are some reports suggesting that mitochondrial targets could be more

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Mailing address: Laboratoire de Parasitologie-Mycologie, Hôpital Henri Mondor-APHP, Créteil, France. Phone: 33 1 49 81 36 41. Fax: 33 1 49 81 36 01. E-mail: bretagne@univ-paris12.fr.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>∇</sup> Published ahead of print on 20 April 2011.

2192 FARRUGIA ET AL. J. CLIN. MICROBIOL.

<b>TABLE</b>	1	Primers	and	probes	used	in	this	study
IADLE	1.	1 1111111111513	anu	proucs	uscu	1111	ums	stuuv

Primer purpose and name	Sequence <sup>b</sup>	Modification(s) <sup>a</sup>	Amplicon length (bp)
Plasmodium sp. diagnosis			
by real-time qPCR			
MACH60	5'-ACATGGCTATGACGGGTAACG-3'	None	84
MACH61	5'-TGCCTTCCTTAGATGTGGTAGCTA-3'	None	
MACH62	5'-TCAGGCTCCCTCTCCGGAATCGA-3'	5' FAM, 3' TAMRA	
cvt b 5	5'-TGGWTATGTGGAGGATATACTGT-3'	None	203
cyt b 2	5'-CCTTTAACATCAAGACTTAATAGATTTGGA-3'	None	
cyt b Probe	5'-G+TGC+TAC+CAT+GTA+AAT+GTAA-3'	5' FAM-3', TAMRA	
P. falciparum identification			
cyt <i>b</i> falciparum	5'-TACTAACTTGTTATCCTCTATTCCAGTAGC-3'	None	240
cyt b 2	5'-CCTTTAACATCAAGACTTAATAGATTTGGA-3'	None	
cyt b Probe	5'-G+TGC+TAC+CAT+GTA+AAT+GTAA-3'	5' FAM, 3' TAMRA	
IC			
IC 1	5'-GCGCTTCCCGAGGTACACTAT-3'	None	135
IC 2	5'-ATGTCACATCTGCCCGAACTCC-3'	None	
IC 3	5'-TGGTGATCCTGCCGTTTCCTTGTCTT-3'	5' LCRed670, 3' Ph	
IC 4	5'-GCCCTGATGTGGTCACAGTCAAGCA-3'	3' FITC	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> FITC, fluorescein isothiocyanate; Ph, phosphate; FAM, 6-carboxyfluorescein; TAMRA, 6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine.

sensitive than ribosomal ones (11, 28). Finally, we applied this qPCR strategy to a collection of 294 EDTA blood samples from 265 patients for which microscopy, quantification, and antigen detection had been performed.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Validation of the *cytb* qPCR assay using the *Plasmodium* standard. To calibrate and compare our results, the WHO international standard for *P. falciparum* DNA nucleic acid amplification technology assays was obtained from the National Institute for Biological Standards and Control (NIBSC; Hertfordshire, United Kingdom). This standard consists of a freeze-dried preparation of whole blood collected from a patient infected with *P. falciparum* by exchange transfusion. According to NIBSC recommendations, this lyophilized material was suspended in 0.5 ml of sterile, nuclease-free water. The concentration of this standard is 10<sup>9</sup> IU/ml, corresponding to a parasitemia of 9.79 parasites/100 red blood cells (David Padley, NIBSC, personal communication).

For the cytochrome *b* gene (*cytb*) qPCR assay, the primers and probe (Table 1) were designed with the aid of Oligo v6.71 software (National Biosciences, Inc., Plymouth, MN) after the alignment of available GenBank sequences for the cytochrome *b* gene (*P. falciparum*, accession number AY910014; *P. vivax*, accession number AY598140; *P. ovale*, accession number AB182496; *P. malariae*, accession number AF69624). Since mutations responsible for *P. falciparum* atovaquone resistance had been described in the cytochrome *b* gene, primers and probes were chosen to avoid these polymorphic loci (16). We compared the present *cytb* qPCR assay to a previously published qPCR aimed to diagnose the main four *Plasmodium* species and targeting the 18S rRNA-encoding gene, hereafter 18S qPCR (17). All oligonucleotides were synthesized by Sigma-Aldrich (Lyon, France). All the samples, including the serial dilutions for establishing standard curves and the clinical samples, were tested with both qPCR assays.

Amplification, detection, and quantification of *Plasmodium* sp. DNA were carried out using a LightCycler 480 instrument (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Mannheim, Germany). PCR was set up in a final volume of 20  $\mu$ l with the Probe Master 2X (Roche Molecular Biochemicals); primers and probes were used at concentrations of 0.5  $\mu$ M and 0.25  $\mu$ M, respectively, with 0.25  $\mu$ l of uracil-DNA-glycosylase (New England BioLabs, Ozyme, Saint Quentin en Yvelines, France) and 5  $\mu$ l of extracted DNA. The reaction mixture was initially subjected to incubation for 2 min at 50°C; this was followed by a 10-min step at 95°C. For both qPCR assays, the 50 cycles of amplification consisted of a step of denaturation (95°C for 15 s; ramping rate, 4.4°C/s) followed by a single step of annealing and extension (60°C for 1 min; ramping rate, 4.4°C/s). A single fluorescence reading for each sample was taken (annealing step for both qPCRs). Each sample was tested in duplicate. Each experiment included sterile water as a negative control

and a positive control with a known parasitemia of  $9.79. \times 10^{-4}$  parasites/100 red blood cells, corresponding to a concentration of  $10^5$  IU/ml, obtained from the *Plasmodium* standard. The result was considered positive when a significant fluorescent signal above the baseline was detected as determined by the second-derivative algorithm method and was expressed as the quantification cycle (Cq) as recently proposed (5).

The linear range, the efficiency, and the limit of detection of the *cytb* qPCR were determined by analyzing 10-fold serial dilutions of the NIBSC standard in fresh, parasite-free blood from a healthy donor ( $6\times10^3$  white blood cells/µl;  $5\times10^6$  red blood cells/µl; 13.1 g hemoglobin/dl) with parasite loads ranging from 10 parasites/100 red blood cells to  $1\times10^{-9}$  parasites/100 red blood cells. Each dilution was tested in duplicate in five independent runs. Accuracy was measured as the percentage difference between the observed and expected parasitemia for a known quantity dilution of the NIBSC standard. One sample's titer (parasitemia of  $9.79\times10^{-4}$  parasites/100 red blood cells) was determined by qPCR 10 times in the same run to assess repeatability expressed as the standard deviation of the Cq variance. One sample's titer was determined by qPCR 15 times in 15 independent runs to assess reproducibility expressed as the coefficient of variation of parasitemia.

To estimate the analytical specificity of the two PCR assays, DNA was obtained from various reference species of Trypanosoma (T. brucei brucei, T. cruzi Brener, T. cruzi Y, T. musculi) and Leishmania (L. infantum, L. chagasi, L. donovani, L. amazonensis, L. peruviana, L. pifanoi, L. guyanensis, L. aethiopica, L. lainsoni, L. braziliensis, L. tropica, L. major, L. garnhami, L. mexicana, L. panamensis) and from Toxoplasma gondii (RH strain) and processed. Additionally, 10-fold serial dilutions of the NIBSC standard in water were tested to look for any impact of human DNA.

DNA extraction. In order to choose the best DNA extraction protocol, we first compared a manual (QIAamp DNA Blood Mini Kits; Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France) and an automated (MagNA Pure compact instrument; Roche Diagnostics, Meylan, France) DNA extraction method using 5 positive samples with different parasitemia levels with 400  $\mu l$  of whole blood eluted in 100  $\mu l$  for both methods. We also compared the automated extraction kits using 400  $\mu l$  of blood (MagNA Pure Compact Nucleic Acid Isolation Kit I; Roche Diagnostics) with a final elution volume of 100  $\mu l$  versus the one using 1 ml (MagNA Pure Compact Nucleic Acid Isolation Kit I Large volume; Roche Diagnostics) with a final elution volume of 200  $\mu l$ , according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The impact of freezing and thawing was studied by processing the extraction of 5 samples (the same ones as above) before and after storage at  $-20^{\circ} \text{C}$ . After extraction, the DNA concentration and the ratio of absorbance at 260 nm/280 nm was determined by a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE).

IC. The copurification of PCR inhibitors was tested for by using an IC as previously described (8). Briefly, mouse DNA (Sigma-Aldrich, Lyon, France)

b +, locked nucleic acid base.

was added at 0.31 pg/ $\mu$ l in a reaction volume of 20  $\mu$ l containing 5  $\mu$ l of extracted DNA. Each PCR was tested in duplicate.

**Species identification.** To distinguish between P. falciparum and non-P. falciparum species, we designed a P. falciparum-specific primer in the cytochrome b gene (Table 1) that we used instead of the forward primer in the cytb qPCR assay. Amplification was achieved as for the cytb qPCR and gave negative results for non-P. falciparum species. Species identification was carried out by nucleotide sequencing of the amplified cytochrome b fragment with a Big Dye terminator sequencing kit on an ABI Prism 3130 capillary sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Courtaboeuf, France) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Alignment of the sequences was performed using the single-stranded mitochondrial cytochrome b sequences deposited in the GenBank database (see above).

Patients and sample collection. We studied 294 whole-blood samples collected in EDTA tubes from 265 travelers or migrants with clinical signs suggestive of malaria consecutively admitted to the emergency ward from 1 January 2007 to 31 December 2008; the samples were kept at -40°C until DNA analysis. Giemsastained thick and thin blood films were examined by different experienced microbiologists and were considered negative if no parasite was seen in at least 100 fields of the slide (20-min reading). When blood films were positive, species identification was made and parasitemia was calculated by determining the number of parasitized red blood cells seen per 10,000 red blood cells and expressing the number of parasitized cells as a percentage (19). All blood films were retrospectively reexamined by a single experienced microbiologist to confirm the results. The immunochromatographic BinaxNOW malaria test (Inverness Medical International, Bedford, United Kingdom) was performed to detect circulating Plasmodium antigens according to the manufacturer's instructions. In parallel, an aliquot of 1 ml of EDTA blood was stored at -20°C until use for PCR diagnosis. All clinical and epidemiological data were collected for patients with negative microscopy results and positive PCR results.

**Statistical analysis.** Statistical significance was tested using the Wilcoxon matched-pair signed-rank test. The level of significance was a P value of <0.05. Linear regression and a Bland-Altman plot were used to determine agreement between parasitemia measured by qPCR and parasitemia determined by blood film (XLSTAT software).

### **RESULTS**

Validation of qPCR assays using the international standard. Linear regression analysis indicated that the cytb qPCR assay has a reproducible linearity over a  $10^6$ -fold range with a coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) of 0.998. The results of the cytb qPCR assays using serial dilutions of the P. falciparum NIBSC standard in fresh, parasite-free blood and in water are shown in Fig. 1. Based on the slope, the efficiency of amplification was calculated to be 94.5%. The accuracy of the cytb qPCR assay was 2.5%, the repeatability was 0.10, and the reproducibility was 6.8% for a concentration of 9.79.  $\times$  10<sup>-4</sup> parasites/100 red blood cells. No positive test results were observed for any of the non-Plasmodium protozoan species (Leishmania spp., Trypanosoma spp., and Toxoplasma gondii), and no amplification products were visible in negative controls (no DNA template).

The last consistently positive dilution corresponded to 1 parasite equivalent/PCR, or 20 parasites in the initial 400 µl of whole blood. The limit of detection of the *cytb* qPCR assay was around 20 copies of the cytochrome *b* gene, assuming that there are 20 copies in one *P. falciparum* parasite (23, 27) with low variability (16, 27). The limit of detection of the *cytb* qPCR assay determined on positive clinical specimens with known parasitemia was 0.67, 0.35, 0.53, and 0.3 parasites/PCR for *P. falciparum*, *P. ovale*, *P. vivax*, and *P. malariae*, respectively. Similar results were obtained with the 18S qPCR assay.

**Comparison of the extraction methods.** The impact of one freezing-thawing cycle was tested with 40 samples (5 positive samples with 8 different DNA extractions). Fresh samples pro-

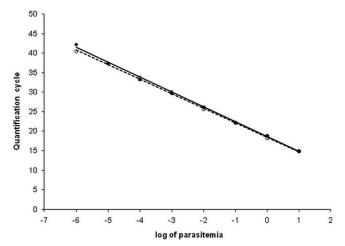


FIG. 1. Sensitivity of *cytb* qPCR assay calculated from serial dilutions of a *P. falciparum* standard (NIBSC) at 9.79 parasites/100 red blood cells in blood (plain line) and in water (dashed line). Cq values are plotted against the quantity of parasites expressed as the logarithm of the parasitemia level. The plot of the mean Cq values against quantity fits a linear function  $(R^2, >0.998)$ .

vided a lower Cq than thawed samples (median, -0.15; range, -0.79 to 0.68; P = 0.02).

Using 20 positive samples with different parasitemia levels, there was no statistically significant difference either between the Cq obtained by manual or automated DNA extraction (P = 0.28) or the Cq obtained with the two volumes tested with automated DNA extraction (P = 0.23). This last result was obtained despite the fact that the 1-ml protocol yielded significantly more DNA than the 400- $\mu$ l one (median, 143 ng/ $\mu$ l; range, 66 to 302 ng/ $\mu$ l; P = 0.005). There was no significant difference between the 260-nm/280-nm absorbance ratios of the two automated protocols (P = 0.11).

Analysis of clinical samples. We obtained DNA using the 400-µl blood volume automated DNA extraction for the clinical samples from 265 patients with a suspected diagnosis of imported malaria. A microscopic diagnosis was established for 43 of them (16.2%), 36 on thin films and 7 on thick blood films only. All of them were positive in both qPCR assays. All of them were also ICT positive but one, and that one showed a *P. malariae* infection. Eight patients were *cytb* qPCR positive (Cq range, 29.5 to 40.5) and microscopy negative, and two of them were also ICT positive. Only one of these 8 *cytb* qPCR-positive patients was 18S qPCR negative.

Among the 43 microscopy-positive patients, there were 40 *P. falciparum* infections and 3 non-*P. falciparum* infections (1 *P. vivax* infection [parasitemia, 0.53/100 red cells]; 1 *P. ovale* infection [parasitemia, 0.35/100 red cells]; and 1 *P. malariae* infection [parasitemia, 0.03/100 red cells]). No mixed infection was observed. The complementary qPCR for species identification correctly identified these 3 non-*P. falciparum* cases. Sequencing correctly identified the three species.

We tested 29 additional samples from 20 patients. For 7 patients, despite a negative first microscopy result, a second was required 1 to 30 days after the first one. Microscopy and qPCR results were again negative. For one patient, 3 additional samples were tested because of persistent ICT positivity

2194 FARRUGIA ET AL. J. CLIN. MICROBIOL.

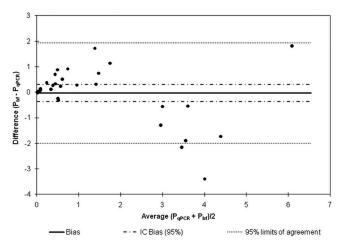


FIG. 2. Bland-Altman plot for comparison of the use of thin blood film (bf) and that of the *cytb* qPCR assay (qPCR) for the quantification of parasitemia (P).

and were shown to be both microscopy and qPCR negative. The result was interpreted as a false-positive ICT result. For 12 patients, 19 further samples were obtained as part of the normal follow-up of microscopy-positive patients, which recommends retesting at 3 and 7 days. The increase in Cq values was around 9, i.e., a decrease of 1  $\log_{10}$  in 3 days after therapy. Gametocytes were observed for three samples, which were also positive by both qPCRs.

Quantification of parasitemia. For *cytb* qPCR, a Cq value of <25 correlated with >0.01% parasitemia, between 25 and 29, the Cq value corresponded to negative thin and positive thick blood smears. When the Cq value was >29, the microscopy was negative and corresponded to  $<10^{-3}$  parasites/100 red blood cells when using the NIBSC standard.

The IC was amplified for all the samples tested, showing the absence of PCR inhibitors after the extraction procedure (mean IC Cq value,  $37.16 \pm 0.60$ ). Therefore, we calculated parasitemia using the cytb qPCR results and the calibration curve with the P. falciparum standard for the clinical specimens with positive thin blood films. Linear regression between parasitemia checked by a single microbiologist and the cytb qPCR parasitemia showed an  $R^2$  value of 0.88. The Bland-Altman plot exhibited a bias of 0.032 (95% confidence interval, -0.336to 0.302) (Fig. 2). The trend was to observe the highest divergences with high parasitemia, with microscopy usually giving a parasitemia level higher than that obtained by cytb qPCR. When the linear regression was performed with parasitemia obtained by different microbiologists on a routine basis, the coefficient of determination was lower ( $R^2 = 0.76$ ) and the Bland-Altman plot exhibited a higher bias of -0.315 (95%) confidence interval, -0.787 to 0.158).

## DISCUSSION

Our results show that our *cytb* qPCR assay combined with automatic DNA extraction is a reliable tool for the diagnosis of malaria infection. The sensitivity of microscopy, about 5 to 100 parasites/µl of blood (12, 19), is surpassed by that of the *cytb* PCR assay, with a limit of detection of around 20 parasites/400

μl. Many qPCR assays have been described; most of them target the 18S rRNA-encoding gene of *Plasmodium* spp. (3, 9, 13, 17, 22, 25, 26, 29). The mitochondrial genes have been less frequently studied (3, 11, 26). We show here that our *cytb* qPCR and the 18S qPCR published by Lee et al. (17) have similar sensitivities. Rather than choose between two DNA targets, it could be useful to combine them to overcome possible sequence variation in oligomer targets (2).

If a qPCR assay is to be recommended as a routine test, the preanalytical step is important. DNA extraction should be convenient and rapid. In our experience, automated DNA extraction is as efficient as manual extraction. The time required for DNA extraction is around 40 min for both methods. Therefore, automation provides reduced hands-on time and better safety and applicability in routine clinical diagnosis. We also found that a freeze-thaw cycle reduces the quantification of the parasite, which suggests that qPCR assays would be more sensitive on a routine basis when dealing with fresh samples. Additionally, no gain in the detection of *P. falciparum* DNA is achieved by increasing the blood volume, probably because the increase in the DNA concentration is attributable mainly to human DNA.

Quantification of the parasites in blood is an important element of the prognosis of *Plasmodium* infection and therapeutic management. Quantification is usually achieved by microscopy, with variation depending on the examiner (21). For qPCR, an IC of the amplification is mandatory to avoid erroneous quantification of the parasitic load. In the absence of qPCR inhibitors, we obtained an  $R^2$  value of 0.88 for the correlation between the parasitemia calculated by one single microbiologist and the *cytb* qPCR quantification. However, divergences appear when dealing with high parasitemias. As expected, the correlation was worse when using the routine values obtained by different microbiologists. With regular quality controls using international standards, quantification of parasitemia by qPCR should be more reproducible than that by visual reading.

Since qPCR is more sensitive than microscopy, this raises the issue of the clinical relevance of positive qPCR and negative microscopy results. We observed negative microscopy and positive qPCR results after treatment with a dramatic decrease in the parasite load evaluated by the Cq values, as already reported (10, 25). However, we also observed microscopy-negative and qPCR-positive African patients who had recently traveled to their native country, as already described (18). This finding can be misleading if fever is due to other infectious diseases. To our knowledge, these patients were not treated and did not return to our emergency ward. Whether this finding warrants any medication should be addressed by clinical studies. In countries where malaria is endemic, epidemiological studies suggest that these patients can increase malaria transmission (21, 28).

For *Plasmodium* identification, we opted for a second amplification to exclude non-*P. falciparum* species. This step adds about 40 min to the time required to reach a final diagnosis. In an emergency, this second qPCR should not delay a therapeutic decision targeting the most virulent *Plasmodium* species. Once the diagnosis of non-*P. falciparum* species has been made, there is time to confirm the identification by microscopy or by sequencing. With the present qPCR, no discordance

between microscopy and molecular identification was observed, in contrast to other studies, especially for non-P. falciparum species (3). However, we observed only three non-P. falciparum species (one isolate each of P. ovale, P. malariae, and P. vivax). In mixed infections, molecular identification could be impossible, but we have not observed such cases. We have not encountered any P. knowlesi infection either, but the homologies between the P. knowlesi sequences available in GenBank and the primers and probes used in this study suggest that such an infection would not have been missed.

Other strategies for *Plasmodium* identification are possible, such as the use of multiplex PCR (7, 25, 29) and/or the analyses of melting curves (3, 9, 26). The use of several primer sets and probes could potentially lead to competitive amplifications with variable yields. This could hamper the efficiency of the most important analysis, that is, *P. falciparum* detection in mixed infections (2). It could also lead to unreliable quantification since it is difficult to monitor the amplification yield of simultaneous qPCR assays. Analyzing melting curves to differentiate between species is another possibility, but this needs special technician skill and raises the question of the transferability of results between different laboratories.

The use of qPCR does not eliminate the need for confirmatory diagnosis using microscopy to prevent false-negative results due to molecular variants (6, 15) or newly described species (24) and to identify the parasitic stage. However, in the face of the predictable shortage of skilled people for emergency diagnosis, the present study strongly supports the use of qPCR for the diagnosis of *Plasmodium* infection in travelers, since it can be performed within a clinically relevant time frame. Additionally, qPCR can address the issue of quantification, which cannot be done with antigen detection, and for which qPCR should be more reproducible than microscopic determination. From a financial point of view, the cost of equipment and reagents should be compared with the cost of a 24/24 7/7 specialized microbiologist.

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Gillian Barrat for her critical reading of the manuscript. We have no conflicts of interest.

#### REFERENCES

- Berry, A., F. Benoit-Vical, R. Fabre, S. Cassaing, and J. F. Magnaval. 2008. PCR-based methods to the diagnosis of imported malaria. Parasite 15:484–488
- Bialasiewicz, S., D. M. Whiley, M. D. Nissen, and T. P. Sloots. 2007. Impact
  of competitive inhibition and sequence variation upon the sensitivity of
  malaria PCR. J. Clin. Microbiol. 45:1621–1623.
- Bourgeois, N., et al. 2010. Comparison of three real-time PCR methods with blood smears and rapid diagnostic test in Plasmodium sp. infection. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. 16:1305–1311.
- Bretagne, S., and J. M. Costa. 2006. Towards a nucleic acid-based diagnosis in clinical parasitology and mycology. Clin. Chim. Acta 363:221–228.
- 5. Bustin, S. A., et al. 2009. The MIQE guidelines: minimum information for

- publication of quantitative real-time PCR experiments. Clin. Chem. **55:**611–622
- Calderaro, A., et al. 2007. Genetic polymorphisms influence *Plasmodium ovale PCR* detection accuracy. J. Clin. Microbiol. 45:1624–1627.
- Cnops, L., J. Jacobs, and M. Van Esbroeck. 11 November 2010, posting date. Validation of a four-primer real-time PCR as a diagnostic tool for single and mixed *Plasmodium* infections. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. [Epub ahead of print.] doi:10.1111/j.1469-0691.2010.03344.x.
- Costa, J. M., P. Ernault, E. Gautier, and S. Bretagne. 2001. Prenatal diagnosis of congenital toxoplasmosis by duplex real-time PCR using fluorescence resonance energy transfer hybridization probes. Prenat. Diagn. 21:85–88.
- de Monbrison, F., C. Angei, A. Staal, K. Kaiser, and S. Picot. 2003. Simultaneous identification of the four human *Plasmodium* species and quantification of *Plasmodium* DNA load in human blood by real-time polymerase chain reaction. Trans. R. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg. 97:387–390.
- Dormond, L., et al. 2011. Multiplex real-time PCR for the diagnosis of malaria: correlation with microscopy. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. 17:469–475.
- Elsayed, S., K. Plewes, D. Church, B. Chow, and K. Zhang. 2006. Use of molecular beacon probes for real-time PCR detection of *Plasmodium falcip-arum* and other *Plasmodium* species in peripheral blood specimens. J. Clin. Microbiol. 44:622–624.
- Erdman, L. K., and K. C. Kain. 2008. Molecular diagnostic and surveillance tools for global malaria control. Travel Med. Infect. Dis. 6:82–99.
- Farcas, G. A., K. J. Zhong, T. Mazzulli, and K. C. Kain. 2004. Evaluation of the RealArt Malaria LC real-time PCR assay for malaria diagnosis. J. Clin. Microbiol. 42:636–638.
- Kain, K. C., M. A. Harrington, S. Tennyson, and J. S. Keystone. 1998. Imported malaria: prospective analysis of problems in diagnosis and management. Clin. Infect. Dis. 27:142–149.
- Kawamoto, F., et al. 2002. Unusual Plasmodium malariae-like parasites in Southeast Asia. J. Parasitol. 88:350–357.
- 16. Korsinczky, M., et al. 2000. Mutations in *Plasmodium falciparum* cytochrome b that are associated with atovaquone resistance are located at a putative drug-binding site. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 44:2100–2108.
- Lee, M. A., et al. 2002. Real-time fluorescence-based PCR for detection of malaria parasites. J. Clin. Microbiol. 40:4343–4345.
- Marangi, M., et al. 2009. Prevalence of *Plasmodium* spp. in malaria asymptomatic African migrants assessed by nucleic acid sequence based amplification. Malar. J. 8:12.
- Moody, A. 2002. Rapid diagnostic tests for malaria parasites. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 15:66–78.
- Murray, C. K., R. A. Gasser, Jr., A. J. Magill, and R. S. Miller. 2008. Update on rapid diagnostic testing for malaria. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 21:97–110.
- Okell, L. C., A. C. Ghani, E. Lyons, and C. J. Drakeley. 2009. Submicroscopic infection in *Plasmodium falciparum*-endemic populations: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J. Infect. Dis. 200:1509–1517.
- Perandin, F., et al. 2004. Development of a real-time PCR assay for detection of *Plasmodium falciparum*, *Plasmodium vivax*, and *Plasmodium ovale* for routine clinical diagnosis. J. Clin. Microbiol. 42:1214–1219.
- Preiser, P. R., et al. 1996. Recombination associated with replication of malarial mitochondrial DNA. EMBO J. 15:684–693.
- Putaporntip, C., et al. 2009. Differential prevalence of *Plasmodium* infections and cryptic *Plasmodium knowlesi* malaria in humans in Thailand. J. Infect. Dis. 199:1143–1150.
- Rougemont, M., et al. 2004. Detection of four *Plasmodium* species in blood from humans by 18S rRNA gene subunit-based and species-specific real-time PCR assays. J. Clin. Microbiol. 42:5636–5643.
- Safeukui, I., et al. 2008. Evaluation of FRET real-time PCR assay for rapid detection and differentiation of *Plasmodium* species in returning travellers and migrants. Malar. J. 7:70.
- Sharma, I., D. S. Rawat, S. T. Pasha, S. Biswas, and Y. D. Sharma. 2001.
   Complete nucleotide sequence of the 6 kb element and conserved cytochrome b gene sequences among Indian isolates of Plasmodium falciparum. Int. J. Parasitol. 31:1107–1113.
- Steenkeste, N., et al. 2009. Towards high-throughput molecular detection of Plasmodium: new approaches and molecular markers. Malar. J. 8:86.
- Veron, V., S. Simon, and B. Carme. 2009. Multiplex real-time PCR detection of *P. falciparum*, *P. vivax* and *P. malariae* in human blood samples. Exp. Parasitol. 121:346–351.