1 **Title**
2 A murine model of *Trypanosoma brucei*-induced myocarditis and cardiac dysfunction
3

4 **Authors**
5 Nathan Crilly[1,2], Marcelle Dina Zita[3], Alexander Beaver[1,2], Polina Sysa-Shah[1,4], Aashik
6 Bhalodia[3], Kathy Gabrielson[1], Luigi Adamo[*3,] Monica R. Mugnier[*1,2]
7
8 *Co-Senior authors
9
Affiliations
[1] Department of Molecular and Comparative Pathobiology, School of Medicine, Johns Hopkins
University, Baltimore, Maryland, USA
[2] Department of Molecular Microbiology and Immunology, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School
of Public Health, Baltimore, Maryland, USA
[3] Division of Cardiology, Department of Medicine, School of Medicine, Johns Hopkins
University, Baltimore, Maryland, USA
[4] Molecular Imaging Service Center and Cancer Functional Imaging Core, School of Medicine,
Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland, USA
19
20

Abstract
Trypanosoma brucei is a protozoan parasite that causes human and animal African
trypanosomiases (HAT and AAT). Cardiac symptoms are commonly reported in HAT patients,
and intracardiac parasites with accompanying myocarditis have been observed in both natural
hosts and animal models of *T. brucei* infection. However, despite the importance of *T. brucei* as
a cause of cardiac dysfunction and the dramatic socioeconomic impact of African
trypanosomiases in sub-Saharan Africa, there are currently no reproducible murine models of *T.*
brucei-associated cardiomyopathy. We present the first clinically relevant, reproducible murine
model of cardiac dysfunction in chronic *T. brucei* infection. Similar to humans, mice showed
histological evidence of myocarditis and elevation of serum NT-proBNP. Serum NT-proBNP
levels were elevated prior to the development of severe ventricular dysfunction. On flow
cytometry, myocarditis was associated with an increase of most myocardial immune cell
populations, including multiple T cell and macrophage subsets, corroborating the notion that *T.*
brucei-associated cardiac damage is an immune-mediated event. This novel mouse model
represents a powerful and practical tool to investigate the pathogenesis of *T. brucei*-mediated
heart damage and support the development of therapeutic options for *T. brucei*-associated
cardiac disease.

38
39
40

Introduction

The threat of *Trypanosoma brucei* is a fact of life throughout sub-Saharan Africa. A protozoan parasite spread by the tsetse fly vector, *T. brucei* is the causative agent of two neglected tropical diseases, human and animal African trypanosomiasis (HAT and AAT) [1]. In both humans and animals, the disease is characterized by waxing and waning fever followed by chronic wasting and a coma which gives the disease its historical name, "sleeping sickness" [2,3]. Although HAT is uncommon, with fewer than 1000 cases reported in 2019 through 2020, the ubiquity of animal reservoirs and the insect vector throughout sub-Saharan Africa means that re-emergence is a constant threat [4-7]. In addition to the direct impacts on human health, AAT is a severe burden to animal agriculture throughout sub-Saharan Africa and a serious contributor to food insecurity in the region, with an estimated cost of $4.75 billion per year and an incalculable impact on individual livelihoods [8].

T. brucei is often thought of as a parasite of the hemolymphatics and central nervous system. However, both historical and recent studies have led to a renewed appreciation for *T. brucei* as a parasite of extravascular spaces [9,10]. *T. brucei* parasites invade and colonize multiple extravascular tissues, including the heart, lungs, adipose tissue, skin, eyes, gonads, pancreas, and brain [11,12]. Within these spaces, tissue-resident parasites are associated with widespread inflammation and damage, resulting in loss of organ function that contributes to mortality [9,10,13].

T. brucei colonizes the heart, and cardiac disease is a likely contributor to HAT mortality [14,15]. HAT patients exhibit elevated cardiac NT-proBNP, a biomarker which is a sensitive predictor of heart failure and 19% report at least one symptom consistent with heart failure[15]. One study found that patients in Cameroon with dilated cardiomyopathy were significantly more likely to have anti-trypanosomal antibodies than healthy controls, suggesting that even clinically inapparent *T. brucei* infection might contribute to cardiac dysfunction[16]. In agreement with these clinical findings, myocarditis has been reported in autopsies of patients who have died from HAT, suggesting that cardiac inflammation is a contributor to *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease [17,18].

Unfortunately, while there is clear evidence that cardiac disease is a consequence of African trypanosomiasis., *T. brucei*-associated heart disease remains understudied. In particular, there has been a lack of a well-established animal models to allow detailed investigation into the pathology, pathogenesis, and functional consequences of *T. brucei*-associated heart disease. Several historical studies have described the histopathology of myocarditis during *T. brucei* infection, especially in large animal models such as cattle, dogs, and nonhuman primates [19-22]. While large animal models, especially primates, accurately recapitulate human disease, the expense, difficulty, and ethical issues of working with such model species has prevented their widespread adoption by *T. brucei* researchers. More recently, researchers have published a rat model of acute cardiac disease during early *T. brucei* infection. In this acute model, infected rats exhibited myocarditis and ventricular arrhythmias at 11 days postinfection (dpi), similar to the pathological and EKG findings reported in human patients [15,18,23,24]. Although the rat model demonstrates that *T. brucei*-related cardiac disease can be recapitulated in a rodent, there are important limitations. Notably, studies in the rat have been limited to the first two weeks of infection, while clinical data suggest that cardiac symptoms and myocarditis are most prominent

87 during chronic HAT [17,18]. In addition, studies in the rat model have been limited to analyzing
88 histopathology and EKG findings, although other modalities such as echocardiography and
89 measurement of cardiac biomarkers are important for assessing the severity and progression of
90 heart disease. Finally, there are relatively few tools for genetic and immunological manipulations
91 in the rat, potentially limiting its usefulness for investigating disease pathogenesis [25].
92
A mouse model of *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease would have multiple advantages.
Compared to other animal models, mice are relatively inexpensive, safe, and simple to handle
and house, making them practical for most investigators. In addition, there are numerous well-
characterized strains and knockout lines of mice, allowing detailed investigation into disease
mechanisms [25]. Mice are also well-characterized as a model species for a variety of parasitic
diseases, including those caused by African (*T. brucei*) and New World (*Trypanosoma cruzi*)
trypanosomes [26,27]. Historical studies showed evidence of myocarditis in T. brucei-infected mice
via histopathology, further supporting the utility of the mouse as a model of *T. brucei*-associated
cardiac disease, although the consequences of this inflammation were not evaluated [28,29]. Overall,
the establishment of a robust mouse model would allow for a detailed investigation into the
mechanisms and consequences of *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease and would be instrumental
to the development of novel therapeutic options.
105
106 In this study, we present the first reproducible, clinically relevant, murine model of African
107 Trypanosomiasis optimized to characterize the functional changes and immunology of *T. brucei*-
108 associated cardiac disease.
109
110
111 **Results**
112
113 ***T. brucei* infection induces elevation in NT-ProBNP prior to a reduction in left ventricular**
114 **ejection fraction**
115
Trypanosomiasis can be induced in mice by injecting viable *T. brucei* parasites into the tail vein
of the mouse, resulting in a disease which is generally fatal within 30-40 days of infection [9,30].
To evaluate *T. brucei*-associated cardiac dysfunction, we infected adult male and female
C57Bl/6J mice intravenously with 5-25 *T. brucei* parasites. At 28 days postinfection (dpi)—a
commonly used timepoint to represent chronic *T. brucei* infection—we evaluated cardiac
biomarkers and function [30].
122
We measured cardiac NT-proBNP as a biomarker of cardiac dysfunction. Cardiac NT-proBNP is
a sensitive marker of heart failure [31]. Released from cardiomyocytes under conditions of excess
stretch due to pressure or volume overload, [NO_PRINTED_FORM]NT-proBNP is elevated in
HAT patients[15]. Plasma NT-proBNP concentrations were significantly increased in infected
mice at 28 dpi (Figure 1A). NT-proBNP levels were slightly more elevated in male than in
female mice, although this difference was not statistically significant (Supp. Fig. 2A).
129
130 We used echocardiography under sedation at 28 dpi to evaluate heart function. Infected mice
131 had significantly increased ejection fraction and fractional shortening at 28 dpi (Fig 1B). Ejection

132 fraction was slightly higher in infected males than in females, although this difference was not
133 statistically significant (Supp. Fig. 2B).
134
To further explore our observations, we repeated our functional assessments at 33 dpi, the latest
timepoint at which mice can be experimentally manipulated before they begin to succumb to
disease. Unsurprisingly, plasma NT-proBNP was again significantly elevated, with the mean
NT-proBNP concentration (173.5 pg/mL) being similar to that observed at 28 dpi (165.4 pg/mL)
(Fig. 1C). Interestingly, at 33 dpi mice exhibited a decreased ejection fraction, opposite to what
was seen at 28 dpi (Fig. 1D). This could indicate cardiac decompensation as mice approach
terminal status. It should be noted that, due to the fragility of mice at 33 dpi, echocardiography
was performed awake, a technique that typically results in higher measured ejection fraction.
Therefore, our findings indicate a significant drop in cardiac contractility between 28 dpi and 33
dpi.
145
146
147 ***T. brucei* colonizes the myocardial interstitial space and causes myocarditis**
148
Within the mammalian host, parasites live extracellularly and colonize multiple extravascular
spaces, including the heart, ultimately causing fatal disease [1212,13]. To confirm the presence of
intracardiac parasites in our model and to demonstrate that these parasites are extravascular, we
infected adult C57Bl/6J mice with genetically modified *T. brucei* parasites that constitutively
express the tdTomato fluorescent protein [3535]. This parasite line has previously been shown to
exhibit similar infection dynamics as wild-type *T. brucei* parasites [12,35]. Mice were sacrificed at
14 dpi, a timepoint when extravascular parasite populations have been established and can be
demonstrated on microscopy [9,12]. After sacrifice, we perfused mice to remove intravascular
parasites, collected the heart, and performed immunofluorescence for CD31 to visualize the
vasculature. *T. brucei* parasites were identified within the interstitial spaces of the heart.
Intracardiac parasites localized separately from CD31-lined spaces, indicating that intracardiac
parasites are extravascular (Fig 2).
161
To evaluate cardiac pathology due to *T. brucei* infection, we performed histopathology on the
hearts of 6 *T. brucei*-infected mice at 28 dpi. Of the 6 hearts evaluated, 5 met the Dallas Criteria
for lymphocytic myocarditis, while the sixth exhibited borderline myocarditis [36]. To further
characterize histopathological changes, we used an established grading system to semi-
quantitatively evaluate the severity of myocarditis (Table 1) [37]. At 28 dpi, all mice exhibited
myocarditis, with an average histological grade of 2, indicating moderate multifocal myocarditis
(Fig 3A). Inflammation affected all layers of the heart, including endocardium, myocardium, and
epicardium, and the inflammation was primarily mononuclear, with large numbers of
lymphocytes, plasma cells, and macrophages. Necrosis was not a major feature. The severity of
inflammation was most severe in the atria and at the atrioventricular (AV) junction (Fig 3B). The
pattern and severity of inflammation observed were consistent with previous histopathology
findings in humans and natural hosts [18–22,28,38,39].
174
175
176
177

178 **Immune cell populations in the heart are consistent with immune-mediated myocarditis**
179
We had identified myocarditis as a consequence of *T. brucei* infection, and previous research has
indicated that the host immune response may contribute to *T. brucei*-associated cardiac
pathology [28]. To better understand the intracardiac immune response to *T. brucei*, we performed
flow cytometry at 28 dpi to characterize the immune cell population in the heart. Numbers of
CD45+ cells/mg of tissue were markedly elevated in the hearts of all infected mice at 28 dpi,
supporting our histopathological finding of myocarditis (Fig 4A).
186
187 Examining individual cell populations, most immune cell lineages were more abundant in *T.*
188 *brucei* infected hearts than in age-matched controls (Fig 4B-C). In agreement with the functional
189 data, most immune cell populations were slightly more elevated in males than in females,
190 although the difference was not statistically significant for any cell lineage (Supp. Fig 2E-F).
191
Numbers of both CD4+ T cells and macrophages were significantly increased in infected hearts,
which is unsurprising, since these cell types are necessary for an effective immune response to
African trypanosomes (Fig 4B-C) [40]. Of the different macrophage subsets, the CCR2^{hi}MHC-II^{hi}
population experienced the largest increase. This subset represents pro-inflammatory, monocyte-
derived macrophages, indicating that *T. brucei* infection causes an influx of pro-inflammatory
macrophages into the heart [41,42]. There was also a significant elevation of both CD8+ T cells and
natural killer (NK) cells, even though cell-mediated immunity is relatively ineffective at
responding to *T. brucei,* which is an extracellular parasite [43,44][41,42].
200
201
202 **<u>Discussion</u>**
203
T. brucei-associated cardiac disease is an underappreciated and understudied aspect of African
trypanosomiasis. Here we report a reproducible murine model of *T. brucei* infection optimized to
investigate acute and chronic *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease. We demonstrate that this
model recapitulates key aspects of *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease in humans and natural
hosts, including the presence of intracardiac parasites, myocarditis, and elevated NT-proBNP.
Using this model, we learned that *T. brucei* infection results in parasite colonization of the
myocardial extracellular space and elevation of NT-proBNP (Figures 1-2). NT-proBNP elevation
was initially present in the context of a preserved ejection fraction, but the infection eventually
resulted in severe cardiac dysfunction (Figure 2). At a histological level, we found that
myocardial colonization by the parasite triggered a severe myocarditis characterized by
cardiomyocyte damage (Figure 3) and a multilineage inflammatory infiltrate (Figure 4). These
findings advance our understanding of the host-pathogen interactions in the heart, suggesting that
cardiac dysfunction associated with *T. brucei* infection is an immune-mediated event, potentially
providing valuable information to inform the development of novel targeted therapies for
animals and humans affected by African trypanosomiases.
219
Animal models have been used to study *T. brucei* infection since the early 1900s, and the first
attempts to use a murine model to investigate *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease were
published in the late 1970s [14,28,29] . In these historical murine studies, investigators demonstrated

cardiac lesions in infected mice and showed that immunosuppression was associated with a
reduction in the size and frequency of inflammatory cardiac lesions [28]. However, despite their
seminal nature, these studies were limited in the scope of their investigation, primarily focusing
on histopathology and lacking more detailed functional or immunological assessments.
Moreover the studies were performed using infection protocols and parasite lines which were not
standardized, thus making their methods difficult to replicate. Our present work expands
significantly on those historical studies as it presents a reproducible method to generate cardiac
damage and dysfunction in a murine model, demonstrably recapitulating multiple aspects of
natural disease.
232
We have found that mice infected with *T. brucei* initially exhibit elevation in NT-proBNP in the
context of a preserved left ventricular ejection fraction. At 28 dpi, when we initially assessed
BNP, the mice had clear histological evidence of myocarditis. NT-proBNP is elevated in
response to an increase in intracardiac filling pressures [31]. In the context of a normal ejection
fraction and cardiac pathology BNP elevation is highly suggestive of Heart Failure with
Preserved Ejection fraction (HFpEF), a clinical condition characterized by reduced cardiac
performance and symptoms of heart failure despite a seemingly normal cardiac contractility[32].
However, BNP elevation in the context of a normal ejection fraction has also been described in
patients with acute myocarditis, likely as a result of stiffening of cardiac walls triggered by the
intracardiac immune response [33,34]. The potential overlap between myocarditis with preserved
ejection fraction and elevated BNP and HFpEF is an area that has not been properly investigated
so far in the clinical setting. However, taken together, our findings suggest that colonization of
the cardiac interstitium by *T. brucei* might result in a stiffening of cardiac walls and elevation of
cardiac pressures compatible with HFpEF, and that the myocarditic immune response triggered
by the parasites likely plays a key role in this process.
248
We used flow cytometry to investigate the intracardiac immune milieu during *T. brucei*
infection. Previous studies in humans and large animal models have found that the major
immune effectors during *T. brucei* infection are B cells, CD4+ T cells, and macrophages, which
are all necessary for a protective anti-trypanosomal immune response [40]. On the other hand,
CD8+ T cells and natural killer (NK) cells are thought to be mediators of pathological
inflammation in *T. brucei* infection, and their activation is associated with worse clinical
outcomes [40,43,44]. In agreement with our histopathological finding of myocarditis, we found that
most intracardiac immune cell populations were elevated, especially CD4+ and CD8+ T cells,
macrophages, and NK cells. The most highly elevated macrophage subset was the CCR2^{hi}MHC-
II[hi] population, which represents pro-inflammatory, monocyte-derived macrophages [41,42]. Such
pro-inflammatory macrophages are necessary for an effective immune response to *T. brucei* [40].
However, switching to an anti-inflammatory macrophage phenotype is important for long-term
survival in experimentally infected animals, which suggests that an imbalance between pro-
inflammatory and anti-inflammatory macrophages could be a contributor to myocarditis in our
model [45]. The elevation of CD8+ T cells and NK cells in the heart are further suggestive of
immunopathology as a contributor to cardiac damage. Increases in these cell populations are
suggestive of a response to intracellular antigens, although *T. brucei* is entirely extracellular
throughout its life cycle [43]. Since CD8+ T cells are not a major feature of the immune response to

extracellular pathogens, we hypothesize that their elevation in our model indicates a response to
cardiac self-antigens, indicating an auto-immune component of the observed myocarditis.
269
This hypothesis is corroborated by other evidence suggesting that *T. brucei*-associated organ
damage has an auto-immune component. A recent study found that meningeal B cells produce
high-affinity autoantibodies during *T. brucei* infection, suggesting that autoimmune responses
may be a component of *T. brucei*-associated pathology in multiple tissues[46]. Clinically,
cardiomyopathy patients in Cameroon have been found to have high levels of both anti-
trypanosomal and anti-heart antibodies, further indicating a connection between *T. brucei*
infection and autoimmune heart disease[16].
277
Furthermore, we hypothesize that immunopathology in the heart during *T. brucei* infection
follows a similar process to the pathogenesis of Chagas cardiomyopathy, caused by the New
World trypanosome *Trypanosoma cruzi*. The leading theory to explain the pathogenesis of
Chagas disease posits that parasite colonization of the heart induces inflammation and release of
self-antigens, resulting in a breakdown of self-tolerance and immune destruction of
cardiomyocytes [47]. With chronicity, loss of cardiac muscle and replacement with scar tissue
causes a collapse in cardiac function, ultimately ending in the characteristic Chagas
cardiomyopathy [47]. Our findings suggest that similar mechanisms might be at play during *T.*
brucei infection.
287
There was no increase in the B cell population in the heart. This is somewhat surprising, since
antibodies are the major mediators of immune clearance of *T. brucei*, and B cells are crucial for
systemic anti-trypanosomal immunity [40]. However, our findings are consistent with other tissue-
specific flow cytometry experiments during *T. brucei* infection, which have identified no
changes in number of B cells in the lungs or adipose bodies of *T. brucei*-infected mice [13,48]. In
contrast, other models of myocarditis and heart failure show that intracardiac B cell populations
are increased and play a major pathologic role during viral myocarditis and myocardial infarction
[49–54]. It is possible that B cell activation plays a role in *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease, even
if there is no expansion of local populations.
297
We found limited evidence of a sex-specific difference in *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease.
Male mice exhibited higher NT-proBNP at 33 dpi, higher numbers of intracardiac immune cells,
and more severe echocardiographic changes than females, although these differences were not
statistically significant. Our findings are in agreement with evidence that HAT is more severe in
men than women and is consistent with data indicating that myocarditis is more common in men
than women [55,56]. Further work will be needed to expand on these observations and dissect the
mechanistic basis of sex differences in HAT.
305
Much about *T. brucei*-associated cardiac disease remains unknown, and there are serious gaps in
our current knowledge, which this animal model could be used to investigate. Our findings raise
concerns about long-term, post-treatment consequences of *T. brucei* infection. Most HAT
patients are identified and treated, permanently clearing infection. However, the severity of the
myocarditis reported by ourselves and others suggests that heart function could be permanently
impaired [18–22,28,38,39]. If so, anti-parasitic treatment would not fully alleviate the cardiac
symptoms of HAT, since self-directed inflammation could continue even with the removal of the

inciting stimulus. Moreover, this suggests that immunomodulatory therapies could be considered
for treatment of both humans and cattle to suppress inflammation that could contribute to
persistent heart disease. There is a necessity to investigate the long-term and post-treatment
consequences of *T. brucei*-associated myocarditis to determine whether HAT patients are at
increased lifetime risk of heart failure [29,46]
318
In summary, we describe the first reproducible, optimized, clinically relevant murine model of *T.
brucei*-associated cardiac disease, a feature of African trypanosomiasis that is often overlooked
in current textbooks and clinical resources [53,54]. In the context of this model's characterization,
we produced evidence suggesting that *T. brucei*-associated cardiac damage is an immune-
mediated event. Future studies with this model will be instrumental in identifying potential
treatments for cardiac manifestations of African trypanosomiasis, a disease which continues to
take an extensive human and economic toll in large regions of the world.
326
327
328   **Methods**
329
Mouse and parasite strains and infection
Male and female C57Bl/6J mice (WT, strain# 000664 Jackson Laboratory) between 7-10 weeks
old were each infected by intravenous tail vein injection with ∼5 pleiomorphic EATRO 1125
AnTat1.1E 90-13 *T. brucei* parasites. To quantify parasitemia, blood was collected from the tail
vein every two 2 days starting at 4 days post-infection (dpi), and parasites were counted via
hemocytometer (Supplemental Figure 1). Blood (125 uL) was collected by a submandibular
bleed at terminal endpoint (28 or 33 dpi). Unless otherwise described, mice were euthanized at
terminal endpoint by intraperitoneal injection of ketamine/xylazine and perfused with 50 mL of
PBS-Glucose (0.055M D-glucose) with heparin to remove intravascular parasites.
339
340   For immunofluorescence experiments, mice were infected intravenously with ∼5 AnTat1.1E
341   chimeric triple reporter *T. brucei* parasites which express tdTomato [35]. Parasitemia was measured
342   as previously described. At 14 dpi, mice were sacrificed as previously described.
343
344   For flow cytometry experiments, mice were infected and parasitemia was measured as
345   previously described. Mice were sacrificed at 28 dpi using CO_2 euthanasia.
346
347   **Echocardiogram**
348   At 28 dpi, sedated echocardiography was performed on sedated mice by a blinded investigator
349   using a Vevo 2100 Ultrasound System (VisualSonics Inc.) as described previously [58].
350
351   At 33 dpi, echocardiography was performed on awake mice using a 40-MHz transducer
352   (VisualSonics Inc.) as described previously [59].
353
Heart digestion
Heart digestion was performed using a technique previously [60]. Briefly, after sacrifice, mice were
perfused with 3 mL Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS). 60 mg of heart tissue was placed in
a 15 mL tube with 3 mL of HBSS. Digestion was performed for half an hour with 300 units of
DNase I (Sigma-Aldrich), 625 units of collagenase II (Sigma-Aldrich), and 50 units of

hyaluronidase II (Sigma-Aldrich). After digestion, the tubes were centrifuged at 250xg for 5
minutes at 4 °C, the supernatant was removed, and the pellet was resuspended in 5 mL ACK
lysis buffer (Invitrogen) and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature to remove red blood
cells. Suspended cells were passed through a 50 μm filter and then prepared for flow cytometry.
363

364   **Flow cytometry**
365   Flow cytometry was performed using a technique previously described [60]. Cell suspensions were
366   labeled with fluorescently conjugated antibodies (Supplemental Table 1). FACS was performed
367   on an Aurora Spectral Flow Cytometer (Cytek) and analyses were performed using FlowJo
368   version 10.8.1 (Becton Dickinson).
369

370   **NT-proBNP ELISA**
371   At 28 and 33 dpi, plasma was collected from mice via cheek-bleeding. NT-proBNP plasma
372   levels were measured using the LS-F34395 Mouse NT-proBNP Sandwich ELISA Kit (LSBio)
373   according to the manufacturer's instructions.
374

Histopathology
For histopathology experiments, animals were infected and sacrificed at 28 dpi as previously
described. Hearts were placed in 10% neutral buffered formalin and fixed at room temperature
for 48 hours. The heart was cut in half longitudinally and sectioned by the Johns Hopkins
Oncology Tissue and Imaging Services Core. To evaluate inflammation, hearts were stained with
hematoxylin and eosin and imaged with 4x, 10x, and 40x objectives using a Nikon Eclipse E400
light microscope (Nikon). Cardiac lesions were graded by a blinded veterinary pathologist using
a previously established both the Dallas Criteria and a semiquantitative scoring system for
myocarditis in rodents (Table 1) [36,37]. Briefly, the severity and extent of lesions was graded using
a five-point system from 0 to 4. A zero score indicates no infiltration. A '1' score indicates very
limited focal distribution of myocardial lesions. A '2' score indicates multiple lesions. A '3'
score indicates multiple regions with confluence and extensive necrosis. A '4' score indicates
lesions affecting most of the observed tissue. Images were captured using an Excelis 4K camera
(Unitron) and processed using ImageJ v1.53 image analysis software (NIH). All methods
followed published guidelines for experimental pathology [61].
390

Immunofluorescence
For immunofluorescence experiments, 8-week-old female C57Bl/6J mice were infected
intravenously with 5 triple marker *T. brucei* parasites [35]. At 14 dpi, mice were euthanized and
perfused as previously described. Heart was collected and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS
for 12 hours at 4 °C. Post-fixation, tissues were sectioned longitudinally, frozen embedded in
O.C.T. Compound (Tissue-Tek), and cut using cryostat microtome into 10 μm sections by the
Johns Hopkins Oncology Tissue and Imaging Services Core.
398

The following antibodies were applied to sections: rat anti-mouse CD-31 (SCBT) followed by
goat anti-rat Alexa Fluor 488 (CST). Coverslips were mounted using ProLong Gold (Life
technologies). Tissues were imaged with 4x, 10x and 20x objectives using a Nikon Eclipse 90i
fluorescence microscope (Nikon) and X-Cite 120 fluorescent lamp (Excelitas) with an ORCA-
ER digital CCD camera (Hammamatsu) and ImageJ v1.53 image analysis software (NIH). Image

collection and analysis followed published guidelines for rigor and reproducibility in
immunofluorescence [62].
406
Statistics
408 Unless otherwise described, figures were generated and statistical analyses were performed using
409 the Tidyverse package in R version 4.2.3[63].
410
411

<u>Acknowledgements</u>
413 We would like to kindly thank Brice Rotureau for providing us with the chimeric triple reporter
414 cell line.
415
416 The Aurora Flow Cytometer used in this study was funded by NIH Grant S10OD026859. We
417 acknowledge the support of the JHU Ross Flow Cytometry Core.
418
419 Echocardiograms were performed by Nadan Wang of the JHU Small Animal Cardiovascular
420 Phenotyping and Animal Model Core.
421
422 Histology support was provided by the JHU Oncology Tissue Services Core, funded by JHU
423 Cancer Center Core Grant P30 CA006973.
424
425 This project was supported by the Johns Hopkins Specialized Center for Research Excellence in
426 Sex Differences (U54AG062333) and The Foundation for Gender-Specific Medicine. NPC was
427 supported by T32 OD011089.

Figures

Figure 1. *T. brucei* infection causes elevated NT-proBNP and heart failure with preserved ejection fraction

A. Measurement of plasma NT-proBNP at 28 dpi. Plasma NT-proBNP is significantly elevated at 28 dpi (n=12) compared to age-matched uninfected controls (Student's t-test, p=0.00037).

B. Echocardiographic measurements at 28 dpi. At 28 dpi, infected mice (n=12) exhibit significantly increased ejection fraction compared to uninfected age-matched controls, as measured by sedated echocardiography (Student's t-test, p=0.0029).

C. Measurement of plasma NT-proBNP at 33 dpi. Plasma NT-proBNP is significantly elevated at 33 dpi in infected mice (n=6) compared to uninfected age-matched controls (Student's t-test, p=2.8e-05).

D. D. Measurement of ejection fraction at 33 dpi. At 33 dpi, infected mice (n=6) exhibit significantly decreased ejection fraction compared to uninfected age-matched controls, as measured by awake echocardiography (Student's t-test, p=0.011)

Hoechst (nuclei)

Fluor 488 (CD31)

TdTomato (parasites)

Merged

468 **Figure 2.** *T. brucei* parasites occupy extravascular spaces in the heart

469 Representative immunofluorescence microphotographs of the cardiac ventricle at 14 dpi at 20x

470 magnification. *T. brucei* parasites (tdTomato—red) localize separately from CD31-lined vascular

471 structures (Alexa Fluor 488—green), confirming the extravascular localization of parasites.

472 Nuclei are stained with Hoechst (blue).

Figure 3. *T. brucei* infection causes myocarditis at 28 dpi
A. Representative brightfield microphotographs of the heart of infected mice at 28 dpi,
compared to uninfected age-matched controls at 10x magnification. Inflammation is
present in all layers and regions of the heart and is composed largely of mononuclear
cells, primarily lymphocytes, plasma cells, and histiocytes. Inflammation is most severe
at the atrioventricular junction.
B. Histological grading of myocarditis (n=6) at 28 dpi, compared to equal numbers of age-
matched controls. The average grade at 28 dpi is '2', indicating multifocal moderate
myocarditis without extensive associated necrosis. Histological grade is significantly
higher in infected than uninfected mice (Student's t test, p=1.5e-8)
488

490
491
492

Figure 4. The intracardiac immune cell population during *T. brucei* infection is characteristic of
immune-mediated myocarditis
A. Flow cytometric quantification of CD45+ cells per mg. At 28 dpi, CD45+ cells are
markedly increased in the hearts of infected mice (n=12) compared to uninfected age-
matched controls, supportive of myocarditis (Student's t-test, p= 4.6e-7).
B. Flow cytometric quantification of myeloid and lymphoid cell populations. Most immune
cell populations are significantly increased in the hearts of infected mice at 28 dpi.
Statistical comparisons were made using Student's t test. *p<0.05, **p<0.01,
***p<0.001.
C. Visualization of magnitude of changes in immune cell populations using the log2-fold
change in cells/mg compared to uninfected age-matched control mice calculated based on
the average cells/mg in the hearts of uninfected control mice.

Tables
506
507 **Table 1**: Histological grading criteria
508

Grade	Description
0	No inflammatory infiltrates
1	Limited focal distribution of myocardial lesions
2	Multiple lesions with inflammatory infiltrates and some confluence
3	Multiple lesions with confluence and extensive necrosis
4	Lesions affecting most of the observed tissue

References

1. Holmes, P. Tsetse-transmitted trypanosomes - Their biology, disease impact and control. *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology* vol. 112 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jip.2012.07.014 (2013).

2. Kennedy, P. G. E. & Rodgers, J. Clinical and neuropathogenetic aspects of human African trypanosomiasis. *Frontiers in Immunology* vol. 10 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2019.00039 (2019).

3. Spickler, A. R. African Animal Trypanosomiasis. *IO State University Center for Food Security and Public Health* (2018).

4. Franco, J. R. *et al.* The elimination of human African trypanosomiasis: Achievements in relation to WHO road map targets for 2020. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **16**, (2022).

5. Funk, S., Nishiura, H., Heesterbeek, H., Edmunds, W. J. & Checchi, F. Identifying Transmission Cycles at the Human-Animal Interface: The Role of Animal Reservoirs in Maintaining Gambiense Human African Trypanosomiasis. *PLoS Comput Biol* **9**, (2013).

6. Njiokou, F. *et al.* Wild fauna as a probable animal reservoir for Trypanosoma brucei gambiense in Cameroon. *Infection, Genetics and Evolution* **6**, 147–153 (2006).

7. Njiokou, F. *et al.* Domestic animals as potential reservoir hosts of Trypanosoma brucei gambiense in sleeping sickness foci in Cameroon. *Parasite* **17**, 61–6 (2010).

8. Abro, Z. *et al.* The potential economic benefits of controlling trypanosomiasis using waterbuck repellent blend in sub-Saharan Africa. *PLoS One* **16**, (2021).

9. Trindade, S. *et al.* Trypanosoma brucei Parasites Occupy and Functionally Adapt to the Adipose Tissue in Mice. *Cell Host Microbe* **19**, 837–848 (2016).

10. Poltera, A. A. Pathology of human African trypanosomiasis with reference to experimental African trypanosomiasis and infections of the central nervous system. *Br Med Bull* **41**, 169–174 (1985).

11. Crilly, N. P. & Mugnier, M. R. Thinking outside the blood: Perspectives on tissue-resident Trypanosoma brucei. *PLoS Pathogens* vol. 17 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1009866 (2021).

12. De Niz, M. *et al.* Organotypic endothelial adhesion molecules are key for Trypanosoma brucei tropism and virulence. *Cell Rep* **36**, (2021).

13. Machado, H. *et al.* Trypanosoma brucei triggers a broad immune response in the adipose tissue. *PLoS Pathog* **17**, (2021).

14. Wolbach, S. B. & Binger, C. A. A Contribution to the Parasitology of Trypanosomiasis. *J Med Res* **27**, 83-108.13 (1912).

15. Blum, J. A. *et al.* Sleeping hearts: The role of the heart in sleeping sickness (human African trypanosomiasis). *Tropical Medicine and International Health* **12**, 1422–1432 (2007).

16. Tsala Mbala, P., Blackett, K., Mbonifor, C. L., Leke, R. & Etoundi, J. [Functional and immunologic involvement in human African trypanosomiasis caused by Trypanosoma gambiense]. *Bull Soc Pathol Exot Filiales* **81**, 490–501 (1988).

17. Hawking, F. & Greenfield, J. G. Two autopsies on rhodesiense sleeping sickness; Visceral lesions and significance of changes in cerebrospinal fluid. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* **35**, 155–156 (1941).

18. Poltera, A. A., Cox, J. N. & Owor, R. Pancarditis affecting the conducting system and all valves in human African trypanosomiasis. *Heart* **38**, 827–837 (1976).

19. Poltera, A. A., Sayer, P. D., Rudin, W. & Bovell, D. Trypanosomal cardiac valvulitis in vervet monkeys. *Tropical Medicine and Parasitology* **36**, 77–80 (1985).

20. Ikede, B. O. & Losos, G. J. Pathology of the disease in sheep produced experimentally by Trypanosoma brucei. *Vet Pathol* **9**, 278–289 (1972).

21. Ikede, B. O. & Losos, G. J. Pathological changes in cattle infected with Trypanosoma brucei. *Vet Pathol* **9**, 272–277 (1972).

22. Morrison, W. I., Murray, M., Sayer, P. D. & Preston, J. M. The pathogenesis of experimentally induced Trypanosoma brucei infection in the dog I. Tissue and organ damage. *American Journal of Pathology* **102**, 168–181 (1981).

23. McCarroll, C. S., Rossor, C. L., Morrison, L. R., Morrison, L. J. & Loughrey, C. M. A Pre-clinical Animal Model of Trypanosoma brucei Infection Demonstrating Cardiac Dysfunction. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **9**, (2015).

24. Elliott, E. B. *et al.* Trypanosoma brucei cathepsin-L increases arrhythmogenic sarcoplasmic reticulum-mediated calcium release in rat cardiomyocytes. *Cardiovasc Res* **100**, 325–335 (2013).

25. Wildner, G. Are rats more human than mice? *Immunobiology* **224**, 172–176 (2019).

26. Kennedy, P. G. E. Animal models of human African trypanosomiasis-very useful or too far removed? *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* vol. 101 1061–1062 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2007.05.001 (2007).

27. Chatelain, E. & Konar, N. Translational challenges of animal models in chagas disease drug development: A review. *Drug Design, Development and Therapy* vol. 9 4807–4823 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.2147/DDDT.S90208 (2015).

28. Poltera, A. A., Hochmann, A. & Lambert, P. H. A model for cardiopathy induced by Trypanosoma brucei brucei in mice. A histologic and immunopathologic study. *American Journal of Pathology* **99**, 325–352 (1980).

29. Galvao-Castro, B., Hochmann, A. & Lambert, P. H. The role of the host immune response in the development of tissue lesions associated with African trypanosomiasis in mice. *Clin Exp Immunol* **33**, 12–24 (1978).

30. Beaver, A. K. *et al.* Extravascular spaces are the primary reservoir of antigenic diversity in Trypanosoma brucei infection. *bioRxiv* 2022.06.27.497797 (2023) doi:10.1101/2022.06.27.497797.

31. Yancy, C. W. *et al.* 2017 ACC/AHA/HFSA Focused Update of the 2013 ACCF/AHA Guideline for the Management of Heart Failure: A Report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines and the Heart Failure Society of America. *J Am Coll Cardiol* **70**, 776–803 (2017).

32. Ranek, M. *et al.* Pathophysiology of heart failure and an overview of therapies. in *Cardiovascular Pathology* (eds. Buja, L. & Butany, J.) (Academic Press).

33. Sara, B. *et al.* Are high NT-proBNP levels more related to inflammation than to left ventricular systolic dysfunction in acute myocarditis? *Eur Heart J Acute Cardiovasc Care* **10**, (2021).

34. Moady, G., Perlmutter, S. & Atar, S. The Prognostic Value of Natriuretic Peptides in Stable Patients with Suspected Acute Myocarditis: A Retrospective Study. *J Clin Med* **11**, 2472 (2022).

35. Calvo-Alvarez, E., Cren-Travaillé, C., Crouzols, A. & Rotureau, B. A new chimeric triple reporter fusion protein as a tool for in vitro and in vivo multimodal imaging to monitor the

development of African trypanosomes and Leishmania parasites. *Infection, Genetics and*
Evolution **63**, 391–403 (2018).

36. Thomas Aretz, H. Myocarditis: The Dallas criteria. *Hum Pathol* **18**, 619–624 (1987).

37. Aly, M., Wiltshire, S., Chahrour, G., Loredo Osti, J. C. & Vidal, S. M. Complex genetic
control of host susceptibility to coxsackievirus B3-induced myocarditis. *Genes Immun* **8**,
193–204 (2007).

38. Dupont, B., Charmot, G. & Lapresle, C. [Trypanosomiasis presenting with trypanids and
complicated by myopericarditis (author's transl)]. *Nouv Presse Med* **8**, 1579–81 (1979).

39. Büngener, W. & Mehlitz, D. [Experimental Trypanosoma infections in Cameroon dwarf
goats: histopathological observations (author's transl)]. *Tropenmed Parasitol* **27**, 405–10
(1976).

40. Onyilagha, C. & Uzonna, J. E. Host Immune Responses and Immune Evasion Strategies
in African Trypanosomiasis. *Frontiers in Immunology* vol. 10 Preprint at
https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2019.02738 (2019).

41. Dick, S. A. *et al.* Self-renewing resident cardiac macrophages limit adverse remodeling
following myocardial infarction. *Nat Immunol* **20**, 29–39 (2019).

42. Cohen, C. D. *et al.* Myocardial Immune Cells: The Basis of Cardiac Immunology. *The*
Journal of Immunology **210**, 1198–1207 (2023).

43. Liu, G. *et al.* Distinct contributions of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells to pathogenesis of
trypanosoma brucei infection in the context of gamma interferon and interleukin-10. *Infect*
Immun **83**, 2785–2795 (2015).

44. Frenkel, D. *et al.* Trypanosoma brucei Co-opts NK Cells to Kill Splenic B2 B Cells. *PLoS*
Pathog **12**, (2016).

45. De Baetselier, P. *et al.* Alternative versus classical macrophage activation during
experimental African trypanosomosis. *Int J Parasitol* **31**, 575–587 (2001).

46. Quintana, J. F. *et al.* The murine meninges acquire lymphoid tissue properties and harbour
autoreactive B cells during chronic Trypanosoma brucei infection. *bioRxiv*
2023.04.30.538710 (2023) doi:10.1101/2023.04.30.538710.

47. Bonney, K. M. & Engman, D. M. Autoimmune pathogenesis of chagas heart disease:
Looking back, looking ahead. *American Journal of Pathology* vol. 185 1537–1547
Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajpath.2014.12.023 (2015).

48. Mabille, D. *et al.* Impact of pulmonary African trypanosomes on the immunology and
function of the lung. *Nat Commun* **13**, (2022).

49. Zouggari, Y. *et al.* B lymphocytes trigger monocyte mobilization and impair heart
function after acute myocardial infarction. *Nat Med* **19**, 1273–1280 (2013).

50. Tschöpe, C. *et al.* Myocarditis and inflammatory cardiomyopathy: current evidence and
future directions. *Nature Reviews Cardiology* vol. 18 169–193 Preprint at
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41569-020-00435-x (2021).

51. Tschöpe, C. *et al.* Targeting CD20+ B-lymphocytes in inflammatory dilated
cardiomyopathy with rituximab improves clinical course: a case series. *Eur Heart J Case*
Rep **3**, (2019).

52. Mo, F. *et al.* Are activated B cells involved in the process of myocardial fibrosis after
acute myocardial infarction? An in vivo experiment. *BMC Cardiovasc Disord* **21**, (2021).

53. Bermea, K., Bhalodia, A., Huff, A., Rousseau, S. & Adamo, L. The Role of B Cells in
Cardiomyopathy and Heart Failure. *Current Cardiology Reports* vol. 24 935–946 Preprint
at https://doi.org/10.1007/s11886-022-01722-4 (2022).

54.   Adamo, L. *et al.* Modulation of subsets of cardiac B lymphocytes improves cardiac
function after acute injury. *JCI Insight* **3**, (2018).

55.   Fairweather, D. L. *et al.* Sex and gender differences in myocarditis and dilated
cardiomyopathy: An update. *Frontiers in Cardiovascular Medicine* vol. 10 Preprint at
https://doi.org/10.3389/fcvm.2023.1129348 (2023).

56.   Pépin, J., Mpia, B. & Iloasebe, M. Trypanosoma brucei gambiense African
trypanosomiasis: Differences between men and women in severity of disease and response
to treatment. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* **96**, 421–426 (2002).

57.   Hoffman, K. *et al.* Alterations to the Cardiac Metabolome Induced by Chronic T. cruzi
Infection Relate to the Degree of Cardiac Pathology. *ACS Infect Dis* **7**, 1638–1649 (2021).

58.   Fitch, M. L. *et al.* Cadmium exposure induces a sex-dependent decline in left ventricular
cardiac function. *Life Sci* **324**, (2023).

59.   Sørensen, L. L. *et al.* Echocardiographic characterization of a murine model of
hypertrophic obstructive cardiomyopathy induced by cardiac-specific overexpression of
epidermal growth factor receptor 2. *Comp Med* **66**, 268–277 (2016).

60.   Bermea, K. C., Rousseau, S. T. & Adamo, L. Flow Cytometry-Based Quantification and
Analysis of Myocardial B-cells. *Journal of Visualized Experiments* **2022**, (2022).

61.   Scudamore, C. L. *et al.* Recommendations for minimum information for publication of
experimental pathology data: MINPEPA guidelines. *Journal of Pathology* vol. 238 359–
367 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1002/path.4642 (2016).

62.   Lee, J. Y. & Kitaoka, M. A beginner's guide to rigor and reproducibility in fluorescence
imaging experiments. *Molecular Biology of the Cell* vol. 29 1519–1525 Preprint at
https://doi.org/10.1091/mbc.E17-05-0276 (2018).

63.   Wickham, H. *et al.* Welcome to the Tidyverse. *J Open Source Softw* **4**, 1686 (2019).

707
708