Enteric nervous system regeneration and functional cure of experimental digestive Chagas disease with trypanocidal chemotherapy Archie A. Khan¹, Harry C. Langston¹, Louis Walsh¹, Rebecca Roscoe¹, Shiromani Jayawardhana¹, Amanda Fortes Francisco¹, Martin C. Taylor¹, Conor J. McCann², John M. Kelly¹, Michael D. Lewis^{1,3*} ¹ Department of Infection Biology, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, Keppel Street, London, WC1E 7HT, U.K. ² Stem Cells and Regenerative Medicine, University College London, Great Ormond Street Institute of Child Health, London, UK ³ Division of Biomedical Sciences, Warwick Medical School, University of Warwick, Coventry, CV4 7AJ, U.K. *Corresponding author Email: michael.d.lewis@warwick.ac.uk

18 Abstract

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20 Digestive Chagas disease (DCD) is an enteric neuropathy caused by Trypanosoma cruzi infection. There 21 is a lack of evidence on the mechanism of pathogenesis and rationales for treatment. We used a 22 female C3H/HeN mouse model that recapitulates key clinical manifestations to study how infection 23 dynamics shape DCD pathology and the impact of treatment with the front-line anti-parasitic drug 24 benznidazole. Curative treatment 6 weeks post-infection resulted in sustained recovery of 25 gastrointestinal transit function, whereas treatment failure led to infection relapse and gradual return 26 of DCD symptoms. Neuro/immune gene expression patterns shifted from chronic inflammation to a 27 tissue repair profile after cure, accompanied by increased cellular proliferation, glial cell marker 28 expression and recovery of neuronal density in the myenteric plexus. Delaying treatment until 24 29 weeks post-infection led to partial reversal of DCD, suggesting the accumulation of permanent tissue 30 damage over the course of chronic infection. Our study shows that murine DCD pathogenesis is 31 sustained by chronic *T. cruzi* infection and is not an inevitable consequence of acute stage denervation. 32 The risk of irreversible enteric neuromuscular tissue damage and dysfunction developing highlights 33 the importance of prompt diagnosis and treatment. These findings support the concept of treating asymptomatic *T. cruzi* infected individuals with benznidazole to prevent DCD development. 34

35 Introduction

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37 Chagas disease (CD), or American trypanosomiasis, is a neglected tropical disease with a prevalence 38 of 6.5 million cases, a burden of 10,000 deaths per year, 275, 000 DALYs and economic costs reaching US\$7 billion per year ^{1,2}. The large majority of cases occur in endemic regions of Latin America, but 39 there is a clear long-term trend of globalisation ³⁻⁵. CD is caused by *Trypanosoma cruzi*, a protozoan 40 parasite, which is primarily transmitted to humans by blood-feeding insect vectors (triatomine bugs), 41 42 but it can also be acquired congenitally or from contaminated blood transfusions, organ transplants 43 and foodstuffs ⁶. Anti-parasitic treatment is limited to the nitroheterocyclic drugs, nifurtimox and benznidazole (BZ). Both have long dosing schedules and can cause significant toxicity ^{7,8}. Daily BZ 44 treatment for 60 days is the current standard of care because side effects are considered less severe 45 46 than for nifurtimox. Recent trial data show that reducing the duration of treatment to 2 weeks may 47 be justified ⁹.

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Upon transmission, T. cruzi invades target cells of diverse types and begins an approximately weekly 49 cycle of replication, host cell lysis and dissemination. In most cases, adaptive immunity suppresses 50 parasite numbers to very low levels; sterile clearance is considered rare ^{10,11}. Clinical manifestations 51 52 affecting the heart and/or gastrointestinal (GI) tract develop in around one third of chronically 53 infected people. Benznidazole treatment is recommended for all acute, congenital and immunosuppression-related reactivation cases, as well as chronic infections in children and women of 54 childbearing age ¹². However, the evidence for the efficacy of BZ in terms of chronic disease 55 progression and outcomes is limited. Treatment showed no significant benefit compared to placebo 56 57 in terms of preventing death or disease progression in patients who already had symptomatic cardiac 58 Chagas disease⁸. There are no clinical or pre-clinical data on the impact of treatment on digestive 59 Chagas disease (DCD) outcomes.

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DCD is an enteric neuropathy characterised by progressive dilatation and dysfunction of sections of the GI tract ^{13,14}. Symptoms include achalasia, abdominal pain, constipation and faecaloma. Eventually, in some cases, massive organ dilatation results in megasyndromes, usually of the colon and/or oesophagus. Dilatation is associated with loss of enteric neurons leading to peristaltic paralysis and smooth muscle hypertrophy. Options for DCD management are limited to palliative and surgical interventions ¹⁵, often implemented in emergency scenarios late in the disease course, with significant mortality risk ¹⁶.

69 DCD is thought to stem from collateral damage to enteric neurons caused by anti-parasitic inflammatory immune responses in the muscle wall of the affected region of the GI tract ¹⁷. Beyond 70 71 this, the mechanism and kinetics of denervation, and therefore a rationale for treatment, are poorly 72 defined. The inability to detect gut-resident parasites in chronic infections supported a model of acute phase damage unmasked by further ageing-related denervation ¹⁸. Molecular detection of *T. cruzi* DNA 73 74 and inflammatory infiltrates in post-mortem and biopsy studies of human DCD circumstantially suggests that chronic parasite persistence may contribute to disease development ¹⁹⁻²⁷. These data 75 76 from late and terminal disease states are difficult to interpret in respect of relationships between 77 pathogenesis and infection load or distribution over time. Experimental bioluminescence imaging and 78 tissue PCR studies in mice showed that the GI tract is a major long-term reservoir of infection with 79 diverse T. cruzi strains ²⁸⁻³⁶. This led to the development of a robust mouse model of DCD, which 80 features significantly delayed GI transit associated with co-localised parasite persistence and enteric neuronal lesions in the wall of the large intestine ³⁷. Here, we utilised this model to formally test the 81 82 hypothesis that BZ-mediated cure of *T. cruzi* infection can either prevent DCD, or reduce its severity.

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84 **Results**

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86 Benznidazole-mediated cure of *T. cruzi* infection in the experimental DCD model

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88 We have developed a model of chronic DCD based on female C3H/HeN mice infected with bioluminescent TcI-JR parasites ³⁷ (Figure 1). Subsets of mice were treated with BZ or vehicle at 6 weeks 89 90 post-infection (wpi) (Figure 1a, b). At this time, parasite loads are already in sharp decline as a result 91 of adaptive immunity driving the transition from acute to chronic infection. In vivo bioluminescence 92 imaging (BLI) showed that infected mice administered with the vehicle alone, hereon "untreated" 93 infected mice, transitioned to a stable, low-level chronic infection (Figure 1b, 1c, Supplementary Figure 94 1a). In contrast, parasite loads in BZ-treated mice became undetectable by *in vivo* and post-mortem *ex* 95 vivo BLI (Figure 1b, 1c, 1g, Supplementary Figure 1). This was corroborated by splenomegaly, low body 96 weight, increased caecum weight and loss of GI mesenteric tissue at 36 wpi in the untreated infected 97 group. In all cases, these read-outs reversed closer to the uninfected control baseline after curative BZ 98 treatment (Figure 1d, Supplementary Figure 2). In vivo and ex vivo BLI identified a subset of BZ-treated 99 mice (n = 13/27, 48%) in which treatment failed and the infection relapsed (Figure 1b, 1c, 1e). Of these, 100 7 (26 %) infections were only detected by post-mortem *ex vivo* imaging of internal organs (Figure 1e). 101 Retrospective comparison of body weights and parasite loads showed there was no difference at the 102 start of treatment between animals that were subsequently cured and those in which treatment failed

103 (Supplementary Figure 3a-c). Relapse infections were significantly less disseminated amongst organs 104 and tissue types than untreated infections (Figure 1f, Supplementary Data 1). The most common sites 105 of relapse were the large intestine (8/13, 62%), GI mesentery (7/13, 54%) and heart (6/13, 46%). Of 106 note, in the context of cardiac Chagas disease, relapse infections localised at a significantly lower rate 107 to the heart, which was a site of frequent, high intensity parasitism in the untreated group (17/18, 94 108 %) (Fisher's exact test *p* = 0.0041; Figure 1f, 1g, Supplementary Data 1). However, given the capacity of T. cruzi trypomastigotes to periodically traffic within and between organs, these snap-shot parasite 109 110 distribution profiles might not fully reflect the spatio-temporal dynamism of relapse infections. 111 Overall, our findings show that BZ treatment at 6 wpi achieved 51.9% sustained parasite clearance, 112 here considered as parasitological cure, with infection relapse cases most often localised to the large 113 intestine.

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115 Benznidazole treatment restores normal GI transit function

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In the DCD model there is a highly significant delay in GI transit time in infected mice compared to 117 uninfected controls (³⁷, Figure 2a, 2b). Benznidazole chemotherapy rapidly reversed the transit delay 118 119 phenotype to uninfected control baseline (Figure 2a, 2b). Immediately prior to initiation of treatment, 120 the mean GI transit time was 184 minutes in untreated infected mice compared to 103 minutes in 121 uninfected controls (Figure 2a). In the untreated infection group, the delay remained significant, 122 although it initially eased in line with immune-mediated parasite load reduction and then gradually 123 worsened as the chronic phase progressed (Figure 2a, 2b). Curative BZ treatment led to permanent 124 restoration of normal transit times. Importantly, relapse infections were associated with the return of 125 a significant transit delay, but this remained less severe than for the untreated infected group (Figure 126 2a, 2b). There was no correlation between the level of relapse and transit delay in individual mice at 127 discrete time points (Supplementary Figure 3d), but over time the average levels followed similar, worsening trajectories (Supplementary Figure 3e). At the experiment end point (36 wpi), we analysed 128 129 faecal retention in the colon after a period of fasting. This showed a clear constipation phenotype 130 associated with a significantly increased faecal pellet number and weight in both untreated and 131 relapsed infections (Figure 2c, 2d). This was alleviated in BZ cured mice to the point that they were not 132 significantly different from uninfected control mice (Figure 2c, 2d, 2e). We also observed significant normalisation of caecum weight in cured mice (Supplementary Figure 2c). 133

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To further investigate differences in colonic motility independent of connections to the CNS, we evaluated *ex vivo* basal contractility of colon tissue samples (Figure 2f). Electrophysiological data 137 showed that the contractility frequency in colons from untreated infected mice was significantly 138 reduced compared to uninfected controls (Figure 2g). Colons from BZ-treated infected mice displayed 139 restoration of basal contractile frequency in both the BZ-cured and BZ-relapsed groups, to levels 140 significantly higher than the untreated infected group and not significantly different from the healthy, 141 uninfected controls (Figure 2f, 2g). The amplitude of basal contractions was not significantly changed 142 by infection or treatment, however, a trend of reduced amplitude was observed in colons from the untreated and relapse infections (Figure 2h). Although it was only possible to assess a small subset of 143 144 samples by contractility analysis, the data were broadly consistent with the total GI transit time phenotypes and suggest that BZ-mediated suppression or cure of infection supports enteric nervous 145 146 system (ENS) functional recovery.

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GI transit recovery is associated with re-innervation of myenteric plexus ganglia

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150 Given the relevance of denervation to human DCD, we next evaluated the impact of infection and BZ-151 mediated treatment on the ENS. At 3 weeks post-infection (i.e. 3 weeks pre-treatment), we observed 152 atypical expression patterns for standard markers of enteric neurons and glial cells in the colonic 153 muscularis propria, including clear loss of discrete Hu⁺ neuronal cell bodies, hereon "Hu⁺ soma" (Figure 154 3a). TUNEL staining inside myenteric plexus ganglia indicated that acute *T. cruzi* infection led to DNA 155 damage characteristic of apoptosis in the ENS (Figure 3a). We also detected activation of the apoptotic 156 executioner caspase-3 inside myenteric ganglia (Supplementary Figure 4a). T. cruzi infected mice 157 exhibited a spectrum of ENS damage by the time BZ treatment was initiated (6 wpi) and this continued 158 in the untreated infections up to the end-point of the experiment (36 wpi). Specifically, we observed 159 further evidence of neuronal cell death in the form of denervated ganglia, loss of typical Hu⁺ soma 160 morphology and pyknotic nuclei (Figure 3b, 3c).

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At the pre-treatment baseline, 6 wpi, the number of Hu⁺ soma in the myenteric plexus of infected mice 162 163 was significantly reduced compared to uninfected controls, by 70 % and 77% in the proximal and distal 164 colon respectively (Figure 3d). At 12 wpi (3 weeks after BZ withdrawal), the neuron density remained 165 at these reduced levels in untreated infected controls, but there was evidence of a recovery trend for 166 Hu⁺ neuron morphology and numbers in mice that had been treated with BZ, which by this stage were 49% lower than the normal density (Supplementary Figure 4b, 4c). At the end of the treatment follow-167 168 up period, 36 wpi (27 weeks after BZ withdrawal), myenteric neuronal density had declined in 169 untreated infections to 85% and 71% loss in the proximal and distal colon respectively (Figure 3c, 3d). 170 Benznidazole-mediated cure of infection led to recovery of neuron morphology and numbers, with

171 only 32% and 16% less than the uninfected control mean in the proximal and distal myenteric plexus 172 respectively. Denervation in relapsed mice was significant, but of lower magnitude (69% proximal, 56% 173 distal) than for untreated infected mice (Figure 3d), in line with their intermediate transit delay 174 phenotype (Figure 2a – d). We observed a morphologically heterogeneous population of Hu⁺ myenteric 175 neuronal bodies in colon samples from BZ-cured mice (Figure 3c, Supplementary Figure 4d). A subset 176 of these neurons resembled those seen in healthy control ganglia, while another subset appeared 177 atypically smaller and rounder with weaker anti-Hu reactivity. These were commonly present in the 178 same ganglion as neurons with normal soma morphology and neighbouring healthy control-like 179 myenteric ganglia (Supplementary Figure 4d).

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Together, these data show that reversal of the DCD transit time and constipation phenotypes after cure of *T. cruzi* infection is associated with substantial recovery of myenteric neuron density, particularly in the distal colon. In mice in which treatment failed and infection relapsed, transit time delay returned, but not to the levels observed in untreated infections, with an intermediate recovery of myenteric innervation.

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187 Distinct gene expression profiles for chronic, relapsed and cured infections.

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189 To further investigate how the balance of infection and host immunity impacts on the ENS during T. 190 cruzi infection, we performed Nanostring multiplex analysis of host gene expression, focussing on 191 immune response (n = 491) and ENS (n = 17) genes. In mice with untreated chronic infections (36 wpi), 192 there were 128 significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) compared to uninfected controls in 193 colon tissue, of which 108 were up- and 20 down-regulated (Figure 4a, 4b; Supplementary Data 2). 194 These evidenced a type 1-polarised inflammatory response involving class I and class II antigen 195 presentation (e.g. Ciita, Tap1, Psmb9, B2m; H2-Aa, H2-Ab1, Cd74), cytokines/chemokines (e.g. Ifng, 196 1121, Tnf; Cxcl9, Cxcl10, Ccl5), transcription factors (e.g. Stat1,-2,-3,-6, Irf1,-8), cytotoxic lymphocyte 197 markers and effectors (Cd8a, Cd8b1, Cd226, Gzmb, Fasl, Prf1), complement factors (C2, C6, C4a, C3, C7, C1qb) and Fc receptors (Fcgr1,-4,-3, Fcer1a,-1g). There was also evidence of significant 198 199 dysregulation at the pathway level for antigen presentation, interferon signalling, apoptosis and 200 phagocytosis (Figure 4d, Supplementary Figure 5a). Consistent with the enduring capacity of T. cruzi 201 to survive in this inflammatory environment and the need to prevent excessive GI tissue damage, the 202 up-regulated DEG set included a diverse range of immuno-inhibitory mediators: Btnl1, Btnl2, Cd274 203 (PD-L1), Socs1, Lilrb4, Lilrb3, Lair1, Tnfaip3, Serping1 (Figure 4a, 4e, Supplementary Data 2).

205 Next, we evaluated the impact of BZ treatment success and failure on host gene expression. Relapsed 206 infections were associated with a larger DEG set (n = 179 vs uninfected controls) than untreated 207 infections. The majority, 58.6%, were same direction DEGs as chronic infections, but the data also 208 revealed relapse-specific changes (Figure 4b, Supplementary Figure 6). Notably, these included 209 stronger upregulation of 54 genes, including Cd8a, Cd8b1, Ccl5, Cxcl1, Gzmb and Ifng, and unique up-210 regulation of cytotoxic effectors Gzma and Fas, leukocyte markers Cd4, Cd7 and Cd27, transcription factors (*Batf3*, *Ikzf4*, *Irf5*, *Nfil3*) and the components of integrins $\alpha 4\beta 1$ (VLA-4), $\alpha 5\beta 1$ (VLA-5), $\alpha L\beta 2$ 211 212 (LFA-1), α M β 2 (MAC-1). Given the lower and less disseminated parasite loads seen in these animals 213 (Figure 1), this broader gene expression profile is consistent with enhanced control of T. cruzi, enduring 214 for months after non-curative treatment.

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216 Colon tissue from BZ cured mice had gene transcript abundances equivalent to uninfected controls for 217 119 (93%) of the 128 DEGs that were identified in untreated chronic infections, indicating near 218 complete reversion to homeostasis (Figure 4). At the pathway level, there were no significant 219 differences between cured and uninfected groups (Supplementary Figure 5a). Nevertheless, cured 220 mice did have a distinct profile compared to uninfected control mice, comprising 44 DEGs (40 up- and 221 4 down-regulated genes) (Figure 4b, 4c, 4e). Of note, the most up-regulated gene set was enriched for 222 neuronal markers (Rbfox3 (NeuN), Nefl, Tubb3), enteric glial cells (EGCs) (S100b, Gfap, Plp1), genes 223 associated with neural development (Ngf, Frmpd4) and neurotransmission (Nos1). The EGC marker 224 S100b was the only switched direction DEG, with reduced expression in chronic infections and increased expression in cured mice (Figure 4c, 4e). Furthermore, multiple genes involved in tissue 225 226 repair and regeneration were also highly significant DEGs in cured mice, including Notch2, Tgfb2, 227 Tgfbr1, Tgfb3 and Zeb1 (Figure 4a, 4e, Supplementary Data 2). Cure of T. cruzi infection therefore 228 results in dissipation of the chronic inflammatory environment in the colon and induction of a tissue 229 repair program that encompasses key components of the ENS.

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231 Neuro-glial impact of benznidazole treatment of *T. cruzi* infections

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Nitrergic neuronal inhibitory signalling is critical for homeostatic control of peristalsis and its disruption is linked to a range of enteric neuropathies, including human DCD ³⁸. Evidence for altered *Nos1* gene expression in our experimental model (³⁷; Figure 4c, 4e) led us to analyse the expression of the corresponding protein (neuronal NOS, nNOS) in myenteric neurons from the proximal and distal colon using immunofluorescence. The number of distal colon nNOS⁺ neurons was significantly reduced in untreated and relapsed infections compared to uninfected controls (Figure 5a, 5b). In BZ-cured animals, nNOS⁺ neuron density remained lower on average than uninfected controls, but the
difference was not statistically significant (Figure 5a, 5b).

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242 The RNA-based analyses strongly implicated EGCs in post-cure tissue repair (Figure 4c, 4e, Supplementary Figure 5b), so these were further analysed at the protein level. Immunofluorescence 243 244 analysis of neuro-glial network morphology (Figure 5c) clearly showed EGCs expressing glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP⁺) wrapped around neurons (neuron-specific β-tubulin, TuJ1⁺) in the myenteric 245 246 plexus for all groups. Networks of GFAP⁺ EGCs in samples from untreated infections showed the 247 weakest staining intensity and contained fragmented GFAP aggregates and patches in the plexus 248 compared to controls, cured and relapsed mice. Conversely, GFAP expression in samples from BZ 249 treated animals exhibited control-like glial morphology with a dense network, which was also 250 preserved in relapsed infections (Figure 5c).

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252 Western blot analysis of GFAP protein expression revealed bands at approximately 100 kDa, larger 253 than reference brain tissue control (50 kDa; Supplementary Figure 7), which may reflect dimer formation ³⁹. A secondary band was observed in both the untreated and relapsed infection groups at 254 255 approximately 80 kDa, indicating that altered GFAP protein structure might be a feature of DCD 256 pathology. Benznidazole treatment induced a doubling of GFAP protein abundance compared to 257 controls and disappearance of the secondary band, while the relapse infection group showed a more 258 moderate increase overall and a minor secondary band (Figure 5d, 5e). In combination, the RNA- and 259 protein-based data provide evidence that cure of T. cruzi infection is followed by increased GFAP 260 expression in EGCs and/or proliferation of GFAP⁺ EGCs in the colonic myenteric plexus, which may 261 contribute to the recovery of normal transit.

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263 Analysis of myenteric cellular proliferation after treatment of *T. cruzi* infection

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265 Our next aim was to investigate the cellular basis of ENS regeneration in our DCD model. We 266 performed pulse-chase EdU labelling experiments to identify cells that were proliferating in the weeks 267 following the end of BZ treatment, one with a short follow-up at 6 weeks post-treatment (wpt) and 268 one with a long follow-up at 27 wpt (Supplementary Figure 8a). We classified EdU⁺ cells (i.e. progeny of cells that were undergoing DNA replication during at least one of the EdU pulses) into GFAP⁺ (glial) 269 270 and Hu⁺ (neuronal) co-localising subsets inside and around myenteric plexus ganglia, as well as subsets 271 expressing neither marker (Figure 6, Supplementary Figure 8). Of 1,105 EdU⁺ cells observed, 246 272 (22.3%) were intra-ganglionic and the majority of these (191, 77.6%) expressed neither GFAP nor Hu.

273 This subset was significantly more frequent in BZ-treated mice than in uninfected controls (Figure 6c), 274 consistent with a proliferative tissue repair process in the ENS. The rarity of EdU⁺ cells co-localising 275 with GFAP or Hu expression made comparison of frequencies tentative. Nevertheless, EdU⁺ GFAP⁺ 276 observations were more frequent in BZ-treated mice, close to statistical significance for the intra-277 ganglionic site and significantly increased in the peri-ganglionic area in the long follow-up experiment 278 (Figure 6c, 6d). Only nine instances of Hu expression co-localising with EdU were observed, all of which 279 were in BZ-treated mice (Figure 6, Supplementary Figure 8). Of note, in none of these events did Hu 280 expression match the typical morphology seen for neurons in healthy control mice (Figure 6b, 281 Supplementary Figure 8d). Thus, while we found evidence of generalised cellular proliferation in the 282 ENS repair phase after anti-parasitic treatment, the frequency and arrangement of co-localising EdU 283 and Hu signals did not provide compelling evidence for proliferative neurogenesis as an explanation 284 for the observed robust recovery of neuron density (Figure 3).

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286 Delayed treatment improves GI function to a lesser extent than early treatment

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288 Most cases of human Chagas disease are associated with chronic *T. cruzi* infections. We therefore 289 investigated treatment initiated at 24 wpi, to assess the impact on DCD in the chronic stage 290 (Supplementary Figure 9a). The bioluminescence profile of the untreated infected mice followed a 291 similar pattern as previously shown (Figure 7a, 7b). Treatment with BZ at 24 wpi resulted in elimination 292 of parasite bioluminescence by 30 wpi (Figure 7a, 7b), a gradual gain of body weight (Supplementary 293 Figure 9b) and reversal of splenomegaly (Figure 7c). Relapses of infection were detected in 30% (3/10) 294 of the treated mice with reappearance of the bioluminescence signal, mostly in the abdominal area 295 (Figure 7a, 7b, 7d). The proportions of cures and relapses were not significantly different from those 296 previously observed for treatment at 6 wpi (Fisher's exact test p = 0.461). Ex vivo imaging at end-point 297 necropsy of untreated infected mice (48 wpi) showed the highest intensity and frequency of infection 298 was in the heart and GI tract (Figure 7e, 7f, Supplementary Figure 9g, Supplementary Data 1).

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As expected, there was a significantly longer GI transit time ($\bar{x} = 184$ min) in untreated infected mice at all chronic time-points compared to uninfected controls (Figure 8a, 8b). The small number of relapse cases (n = 3) limited our ability to infer the consequences of treatment failure in terms of disease development. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that the distribution of infections amongst organs and tissues appeared to have a similar profile to what was observed in the acute stage treatment experiment (Figure 7e, 7f Supplementary Figure 9g, Figure 1, Supplementary Data 1). The relapse mice initially showed strong improvements in transit time post-treatment, but by the end point, they transitioned towards an increased transit time ($\bar{x} = 174$ min), close to the delay seen in untreated infected mice (Figure 8a, 8b). There was no significant alleviation of faecal retention in mice where infection relapsed after treatment (Figure 8c, Supplementary Figure 9f). Retrospective comparison of pre-treatment body weights, parasite loads and transit times showed that there were no significant differences between BZ treated mice that were cured compared to relapsed (Supplementary Figure 10).

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314 Transit time in cured mice improved to an intermediate level (\bar{x} = 144 min), which was stable for the 315 duration of the experiment, indicating a partial recovery of function (Figure 8a, 8b). When we analysed colonic faecal retention there was stronger evidence for recovery of GI function, with this constipation 316 317 phenotype significantly alleviated after BZ-mediated cure of infection (Figure 8c and Supplementary 318 Figure 9f). Significant denervation of the ENS was again evident in untreated infections, with 77% loss 319 of Hu^+ soma from the colonic myenteric plexus compared to uninfected controls (Figure 8d, 8e). 320 Benznidazole-cured mice had qualitatively more typical soma morphologies (Figure 8d) and higher 321 average neuron density than these untreated infected mice, but at 57% of normal levels, there remained a significant deficit (Figure 8e). 322

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In summary, when treatment was delayed until the chronic phase of infection there was more modest
recovery of GI transit function and limited evidence of myenteric plexus neuron replenishment.
Therefore, the timing of anti-parasitic treatment is likely to be an important factor affecting the degree
to which GI function can be restored in DCD.

328

329 **Discussion**

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331 We investigated the impact of BZ, the front-line treatment for T. cruzi infection, in a mouse model that exhibits delayed GI transit and colon myenteric plexus denervation, key features of DCD. When 332 333 parasitological cure was achieved, this halted disease progression and reversed symptoms associated 334 with GI transit delay. This recovery was associated with partial, yet significant, restoration of myenteric 335 neuron density in the colon. Gene expression profiling and analysis of cellular proliferation post-336 treatment showed that functional cure and ENS regeneration was associated with resolution of 337 chronic inflammation and a switch to a proliferative repair response. Furthermore, our results 338 emphasise the importance of the timing of treatment initiation, showing that intervention at 6 weeks 339 had a greater impact than at 24 weeks post-infection.

341 Treatment for DCD is limited to palliative dietary adjustments and surgical interventions with significant mortality risk ¹⁶. Lack of data has prevented a consensus on whether *T. cruzi* infected adults 342 who are asymptomatic should be treated with anti-parasitic chemotherapy 4,12,40. Our findings in a pre-343 344 clinical mouse model provide evidence that prompt treatment with BZ can prevent chronic DCD. When 345 treatment was delayed until the chronic phase, sterile cure of infection only resulted in a partial GI 346 functional recovery and less evidence of ENS regeneration, indicating that some tissue pathology reaches an irreversible stage. This echoes the results of a clinical trial of BZ in late-stage chronic Chagas 347 348 cardiomyopathy patients, in which the drug performed no better than placebo in preventing disease progression or death⁸. Further work is required to determine the point at which cure of infection will 349 350 cease to yield functional improvement in DCD. Nonetheless, our findings provide a pre-clinical in vivo 351 evidence base supporting the concept that the earlier anti-parasitic chemotherapy is initiated, the 352 greater the chances of preventing or delaying the progression of digestive disease.

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354 In the context of DCD, our results provide insight into the dynamic relationships between T. cruzi 355 infection, host responses, ENS damage and tissue repair. Most denervation occurred in the acute phase of infection, yet the complete and sustained normalisation of GI transit function after BZ 356 357 treatment at 6 weeks shows that these acute losses are not sufficient to explain chronic disease symptoms, contrary to early theories of DCD aetiology ¹⁸. Transient functional improvement in 358 359 untreated control infections in the early chronic phase, between 6 and 12 weeks, further supports this conclusion (Figure 2a, ³⁷). Over time, chronic infection of the GI tract led to further neuron losses and 360 361 gradual decline in GI function. Moreover, in cases of failed treatment, relapses of T. cruzi infection 362 were associated with a return to GI dysfunction. Together, these data support the conclusion that 363 chronic infection actively drives disease, as has been circumstantially suspected from the detection of parasites in GI tissues from human DCD patients ¹⁹⁻²⁷. However, the disease aetiology is more complex 364 365 than anticipated because neither parasite load, nor the degree of denervation directly predicted the severity of functional impairment in individual animals (Supplementary Figure 2e) ³⁷. Also, the 366 367 temporary improvement in transit time at 12 weeks in untreated infections was not associated with 368 recovery of myenteric neuron density. This might be explained by compensatory plasticity of the remaining ENS and/or extrinsic circuitry in the denervated colon ⁴¹. As seen in the CNS, it is also 369 possible that the existing ENS neural circuit rewires to compensate for the neuronal loss by 370 rebalancing the excitatory and inhibitory outputs of the network ⁴². Our nervous and immune system 371 372 gene expression analysis indicated that the broader balance of inflammatory, regulatory and tissue 373 repair factors at play in the infected colon also contributes to the DCD phenotype. For example, nerve 374 growth factor was one of only five genes that were significantly upregulated in all the experimental

375 groups compared to uninfected controls, and the only one at *p* < 0.01. Some upregulated genes with 376 ENS functions were shared amongst cures and relapses e.g. *Nefl*, *Plp1*, *Nos1*, whilst others were unique 377 to the cures e.g. *Gfap*, *Rbfox3* (NeuN) (Supplementary Data 2). Thus, some tissue repair processes may 378 co-occur with chronic inflammation during active infections, likely in distinct microdomains of the 379 colon, but full engagement of a regenerative ENS repair programme appears to be dependent on 380 complete clearance of the infection.

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382 While the TcI-JR-C3H/HeN model is characterised by widely disseminated chronic infections, in several others (e.g. BALB/c, C57BL/6) T. cruzi is mainly restricted to the stomach, colon and skin ^{29,43}. Why the 383 384 GI tract serves as a long-term permissive site for T. cruzi, at least in mice, has been unclear because 385 there have been minimal data on gut-specific immune responses. At the transcriptional level, we 386 found that chronic infection of the colon is associated with a robust type 1 inflammatory response, 387 dominated by markers of CD8⁺ T cell recruitment, similar to that seen in studies of other tissue types ^{10,44-48}. The discovery that at least 9 genes with immuno-inhibitory potential were also upregulated 388 suggests that there are host-intrinsic mechanisms that limit tissue damage, yet also enable T. cruzi 389 390 persistence. We previously found that chronic *T. cruzi* infection is restricted to a few rare foci, which 391 can be widely scattered within the colonic smooth muscle layers and are regularly re-seeded in new locations by motile trypomastigotes ^{37,43}. Here, we analysed RNA from full thickness colon tissue and, 392 393 for selected markers of neurons and glia, immuno-fluorescence analysis of the myenteric plexus. 394 Therefore, a key challenge now will be to determine how infection and immune response dynamics 395 relate to specific cell types, and how these in turn shape pathology at finer spatial and temporal scales. 396

397 The extent to which the adult ENS is capable of repair and regeneration is a fundamental question, 398 with relevance across diverse enteric neuropathies. We observed a recovery of myenteric plexus 399 neuron numbers in mice several months after sterile cure of T. cruzi infection. There are several 400 potential neurogenic mechanisms that could underly this replenishment. It has been proposed that 401 enteric neurons are regularly replaced from a population of neural stem cells as part of gut homeostasis ⁴⁹, however, the majority of studies indicate that enteric neurogenesis is absent, or 402 extremely limited in the steady-state adult gut ⁵⁰⁻⁵⁵. Regeneration of the ENS involves neurogenesis 403 from EGC pre-cursors after chemical injury using benzalkonium chloride (BAC) or Dextran Sulfate 404 Sodium Salt (DSS) ^{51,52,54,55} and from extrinsic Schwann cell pre-cursors in mouse models of Hirschprung 405 disease ^{56,57}. Our approach did not enable us to define the ontogeny of new neurons, but we did 406 407 investigate whether cellular proliferation might be involved in ENS regeneration. Using EdU 408 incorporation assays, we identified abundant progeny of cells that were replicating in the weeks

409 following BZ treatment later residing within and around myenteric ganglia. Only in rare cases (<1%) 410 did EdU co-localise with the neuronal marker Hu and there were no convincing examples of typical soma morphologies with EdU⁺ nuclei. This appears incongruent with the hypothesis that proliferative 411 neurogenesis underlies the observed re-innervation after cure of *T. cruzi* infection. However, our EdU 412 exposure windows may have been insufficiently broad to capture many replicating neuronal pre-413 414 cursors - this molecule has an *in vivo* half-life of only 25 minutes ⁵⁸. Alternatively, neurogenesis may 415 more often occur though trans-differentiation without proliferation. Given recent work on the neurogenic potential of EGCs ^{52,59}, it is notable that we saw upregulation of the canonical glial markers 416 417 GFAP and S100β specifically in cured mice, as well as PLP1, which corresponds to the subset of glial cells that differentiate into neurons in the DSS colitis model ⁵². Transcriptional changes in healing colon 418 tissue also comprised up-regulation of the stem cell transcription factor Zeb1, which regulates 419 420 epithelial–mesenchymal transition ⁶⁰ and neuronal differentiation in the CNS ⁶¹, including from radial glial-like cells in the adult hippocampus ⁶². We also saw up-regulation of Ngf and Notch2, critical 421 422 regulators of neurogenesis; Notch signalling in particular has been implicated in maintenance of the neural progenitor pool and controlling glial to neuronal differentiation in the CNS ⁶³ and the gut ^{64,65}. 423 The *T. cruzi* infection and cure approach may therefore open new experimental opportunities to study 424 425 adult neurogenesis and inform the development of regenerative therapies for enteric neuropathies, 426 most especially DCD.

427 Methods

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429 Ethics Statement

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Research was conducted in compliance with all relevant legal and ethical regulations. All animal
procedures were performed under UK Home Office project license P9AEE04E, approved by the Animal
Welfare Ethical Review Board of the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, and in
accordance with the UK Animal Scientific Procedure Act (ASPA) 1986.

435

436 Parasites

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438 This study used the TcI-JR strain of *T. cruzi* parasites constitutively expressing the red-shifted firefly 439 luciferase variant PPyRE9h²⁹. Epimastigotes were cultured in vitro in supplemented RPMI-1640 440 medium at 28°C under selective drug pressure with 150 µg ml⁻¹ G418. MA104 monkey kidney epithelial 441 cell monolayers were infected with metacyclic trypomastigotes, obtained from stationary phase 442 cultures, in MEM media + 5% FBS at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After 5 to 10 days, tissue culture parasites (TCTs) 443 were harvested from the culture supernatant and aliquots from a single batch were cryopreserved in 444 10% DMSO. For in vivo infections, TCTs were thawed at room temperature, sedimented by 445 centrifugation at 10,000x g for 5 min, washed in 1 ml complete medium, sedimented again and 446 resuspended in 250 µl complete medium. After 1 h incubation at 37°C, active parasites were counted 447 and the suspension was adjusted to the required density.

448

449 Animals and Infections

450

Female C3H/HeN mice, aged 6-8 weeks, were purchased from Charles River (UK). Female CB17 SCID mice, aged 8-12 weeks were bred in-house or purchased from Charles River (UK). Mice were housed in individually ventilated cages on a 12 h light/dark cycle and habituated for 1-2 weeks before experiments. They had access to food and water available *ad libitum* unless otherwise stated. The vivarium was maintained at 22°C and 45% humidity. Mice were maintained under specific pathogenfree conditions. Humane end-points were loss of >20% body weight, reluctance to feed or drink freely for more than 4-6 hours, loss of balance or immobility.

458

459 Inocula of 1×10^5 TCTs were used to infect SCID mice via i.p. injection. After 3 weeks, motile blood 460 trypomastigotes (BTs) were derived from the supernatant of cardiac whole blood after passive sedimentation of mouse cells for 1 h at 37°C. C3H/HeN mice were infected with 1 x 10³ BTs in 0.2 ml
PBS via i.p. injection. The BZ treatment schedule was 100 mg kg⁻¹ day⁻¹ for 20 consecutive days via oral
gavage. Benznidazole was prepared from powder form at 10 mg ml⁻¹ by dissolving in vehicle solution
(0.5 % w/v hydroxypropyl methylcellulose, 0.5% v/v benzyl alcohol, 0.4% v/v Tween 80 in deionised
water).

466

At experimental end-points, mice were sacrificed by ex-sanguination under terminal anaesthesia
(Euthatal/Dolethal 60 mg kg⁻¹, i.p.) or by cervical dislocation. Selected organs and tissue samples were
cleaned with PBS and snap-frozen on dry ice, fixed in 10 % Glyofixx or transferred to ice-cold DMEM
medium to suit different downstream analysis methods.

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472 Total GI transit time assay

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474 Carmine red dye solution, 6% in 0.5% methyl cellulose (w/v) in distilled water was administered to 475 mice by oral gavage (200 μl). Mice were returned to their home cage for 75 min, after which they were 476 placed in individual containers and observed. The time of excretion of the first red-stained faecal pellet 477 was recorded and the mouse was returned to its cage. A cut off time of 4 h was employed as the 478 maximum GI transit delay for the assay for welfare reasons. Total GI transit time was calculated as the 479 time taken to expel the first red pellet from the time of gavage.

480

481 In vivo bioluminescence imaging

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Mice were injected with 150 mg kg⁻¹ D-luciferin i.p., then anaesthetised using 2.5% (v/v) gaseous 483 484 isoflurane in oxygen. Bioluminescence imaging was performed after 10-20 min using an IVIS Lumina II 485 or Spectrum system (PerkinElmer). Image acquisition settings were adjusted dependent on signal saturation (exposure time: 1 - 5 min; binning: medium to large). After imaging, mice were placed on 486 487 a heat pad for revival and returned to cages. Whole body regions of interest (ROIs) were drawn on 488 acquired images to quantify bioluminescence, expressed as total flux (photons/second), to estimate *in vivo* parasite burden in live mice ²⁸. The detection threshold was determined using uninfected 489 control mice. All bioluminescence data were collected and analysed using Living Image v4.7.3. 490

491

492 *Ex vivo* bioluminescence imaging

494 Food was withdrawn from cages 4 h prior to euthanasia. Five to seven min prior to euthanasia, mice were injected with 150 mg kg⁻¹ D-luciferin i.p.. After euthanasia, mice were perfused transcardially 495 496 with 10 ml of 0.3 mg ml⁻¹ D-luciferin in PBS. Typically, organs collected included heart, liver, spleen, 497 lungs, skin, peritoneum, the GI tract, the genito-urinary system and their associated mesenteries, 498 caudal lymph nodes, as well as samples of hindlimb skeletal muscle and visceral adipose. These were 499 soaked in PBS containing 0.3 mg ml⁻¹ D-luciferin prior to imaging, which was performed as described 500 above. Parasite load in each organ tissue was quantified as a measure of infection intensity. To do this, 501 bioluminescence per organ/tissue was calculated by outlining ROIs on each sample and expressed as radiance (photons sec⁻¹ cm⁻² sr⁻¹). Radiances from equivalent organs/tissues of age-matched, 502 503 uninfected control mice were measured and the fold change in bioluminescence for each test 504 organ/tissue was calculated.

505

506 Treatment Outcomes

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508 Each individual animal that had been infected and treated with BZ was assessed as either 509 parasitologically cured or relapsed. The limits of detection for in vivo and ex vivo bioluminescence imaging are estimated to be approximately 100 parasites and 20 parasites respectively ^{28,43}. Mice in 510 which T. cruzi was detected on any of the following criteria were assessed as relapses: (i) an in vivo 511 512 total flux signal > 6.17×10^5 p/s (uninfected mean +2SD) in any of the post-treatment imaging sessions; (ii) one or more organ or tissue samples with an ex vivo fold change in radiance greater than the 513 514 highest measurement obtained across all samples from the uninfected control group (n = 254 from 19 515 mice for 6 weeks treatment and n = 78 from 6 mice for 24 weeks treatment). The *ex vivo* images for 516 all remaining BZ-treated animals were then manually inspected for (iii) the presence of any discrete 517 bioluminescence foci for which the signal radiated from a point source as the threshold was gradually 518 reduced to noise (characteristic of an infection focus). This was necessary to distinguish them from sporadic, weak auto-luminescence signals that co-localised with food and faeces in the GI tract lumen. 519 520 Independent manual inspection calls were made by two investigators and then cross-checked. For the 521 purposes of this study, a sustained failure to detect T. cruzi using these methods was interpreted as 522 sterile cure.

523

524 Faecal analyses

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Isolated colon tissue was cleaned externally with PBS and faecal pellets were gently teased out of thelumen. Faecal pellets were counted and collected in 1.5 ml tubes. Wet weights were recorded and

then the tubes were left to dry in a laminar flow cabinet overnight; dry weights were measured thefollowing day.

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531 Histopathology

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Paraffin-embedded, fixed tissue blocks were prepared and 3-5 μm sections were stained with
 haematoxylin and eosin ²⁹. Images were acquired using a Leica DFC295 camera attached to a Leica
 DM3000 microscope. For analysis of inflammation, nuclei were counted automatically using the Leica
 Application Suite v4.5 software (Leica).

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538 Immunofluorescence analysis

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After necropsy, excised colon tissues were transferred from ice-cold DMEM to PBS. For full thickness 540 541 transverse sections of colon tissue, 1 cm colon pieces were fixed overnight in paraformaldehyde (4% 542 w/v in PBS), washed in 15% sucrose solution (15% D-sucrose w/v in PBS) and stored in 30% sucrose 543 solution (30% D-sucrose w/v, 0.01% NaN₃ w/v in PBS) at 4°C. For cryosectioning, tissues were washed 544 in PBS for 5 min at room temperature then embedded in sucrose and gelatine in PBS (10% w/v, 7.5% w/v), using peel-away moulds (Merck). Blocks were cooled for 45 min at 4°C then rapidly frozen on an 545 546 isopentane and dry ice slurry for 1 min. Blocks were mounted in a cryostat (Leica CM1950) using OCT 547 and 50 µm transverse sections were collected on Superfrost PLUS slides (Epredia). For colonic 548 muscularis whole mount preparations, tissues were cut open along the mesentery line, rinsed with 549 PBS, then stretched and pinned on Sylgard 184 plates. Under a dissection microscope, the mucosal 550 layer was carefully peeled away using forceps and the remaining muscularis wall tissue was fixed in paraformaldehyde (4% w/v in PBS) for 45 min at room temperature. 551

552

553 Fixed samples were washed with PBS for 45 min, with 3 changes, at room temperature and 554 permeabilised with PBS containing 0.5% Triton X-100 for 2 h, followed by blocking for 1 h (10% sheep 555 serum in PBS containing 0.5% Triton X-100). Tissues were incubated with combinations of the 556 following primary antibodies in PBS containing 0.5% Triton X-100 for 48 h at 4°C: mouse anti-HuC/D 557 IgG clone 16A11 at 1:200 (ThermoFisher), rabbit anti-tubulin β -3 polyclonal IgG at 1:500 (Biolegend), rat anti-GFAP monoclonal IgG clone 2.2B10 at 1:500 (ThermoFisher), rabbit anti-nNos polyclonoal IgG 558 559 at 1:500 (ThermoFisher), rabbit anti-cleaved caspase-3 (Asp175) monoclonal IgG clone 269518 (R&D 560 Systems) at 1:250, human anti-Hu sera ("ANNA-1") at 1:25,000. Tissues were washed with PBS for 30 561 min with three changes, then incubated with appropriate secondary IgG combinations: goat anti562 mouse AF546, goat anti-rabbit AF633, goat anti-rat AF546, goat anti-human AF647, donkey anti-rabbit 563 AF488, all at 1:500 (ThermoFisher) in PBS containing 0.5% Triton X-100 for 2 h. DNA was stained with 564 Hoechst 33342 (1 μg ml⁻¹) or DAPI (1.5 μg ml⁻¹) at room temperature. Tissues used to detect apoptosis 565 were incubated in a TUNEL reaction mixture for 1 h prior to immuno-labelling as per the 566 manufacturer's protocol (In Situ Cell Death Detection Kit, Roche). Control tissues were incubated with 567 only secondary antibodies (without primary antibodies) to assess antibody specificity. Tissues were 568 mounted on glass slides using FluorSave mounting medium (Merck).

569

570 Whole mounts were examined and imaged with a LSM880 confocal microscope using a 40X objective 571 (Zeiss, Germany). Images were captured as Z-stack scans of 21 digital slices with interval of 1 μ m 572 optical thickness. Five Z-stacks were acquired per region (proximal and distal colon), per animal. Cell 573 counts were performed on Z-stacks after compression into a composite image using the cell counter plug-in of FIJI software ⁶⁶. Neuronal density was calculated as the number of HuC/D⁺ or nNOS⁺ neuron 574 575 cell bodies (soma) per field of view. HuC/D signal was associated with high background outside ganglia 576 in samples from infected mice, attributed to binding of the secondary anti-mouse IgG to endogenous 577 IgG, so ENS-specific analysis was aided by anti-TuJ1 co-labelling and assessment of soma morphology. 578 GFAP expression in enteric glial cells was quantified as voxel intensity using scientific volume imaging software Huygens Essentials 22.04. Raw GFAP⁺ enteric glial cell image files (.czi) were pre-processed 579 580 with deconvolution and a time series of images of each experimental group was created. Voxel 581 intensity was obtained using the pre-set object analyser tool. Threshold value was set identical to the 582 seed value and the same settings used each time.

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584 In vivo 5-Ethynyl-deoxyuridine (EdU) labelling

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The thymidine analogue 5-Ethynyl-deoxyuridine (EdU) stock was administered via 0.2ml i.p. injections at 25 mg kg⁻¹ in 6 doses over several weeks (Supplementary Figure 8a). Incorporation of EdU was detected using Click-iT Plus EdU Imaging kits (Invitrogen) either 1 or 17 weeks after the final EdU dose. Briefly, PFA-fixed frozen colon transverse sections or whole mount colon muscularis samples were permeabilised with PBS-T (1% Triton X-100 in PBS) for 45 min, washed in PBS for 5 min and stained with the EdU labelling solution for 30 min. Samples were then washed in PBS for 5 min prior to entry at the primary antibody labelling stage of the immunofluorescence workflow described above.

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Images were captured as Z-stack volumes comprising 12 digital slices of 2 μm (frozen sections), with
10 volumes acquired per mouse at 400X magnification. For the 1 week follow-up cohort only, Z-stack

volumes comprising 15 digital slices of 1 μ m centred on the myenteric plexus (whole mounts) were also acquired with 5 volumes per mouse. EdU⁺ cell counts and co-localisation with GFAP and Hu protein expression were determined by manual inspection of each z-slice of each volume in ZEN (Zeiss) and/or FIJI ⁶⁶.

600

601 Contractility

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603 Colonic tissue samples were dissected, weighed and placed in oxygenated Krebs solution. Tissue strips 604 were suture-mounted in tissue baths (10 ml, Panlab Two Chamber Compact Organ Bath, ML0126/10-605 220; ADInstruments Ltd, UK) connected to force transducers (MLT0420, ADInstruments Ltd, UK) and 606 bridge amplifiers (FE221, ADInstruments Ltd, UK). Tissues were equilibrated in oxygenated Krebs 607 solution for 60 min at 37 °C and an initial tension of 0.5 g was maintained. During equilibration, the 608 tissues were perfused with three washes of oxygenated Krebs solution. Nerves were stimulated via 609 electric field stimulation delivered by double ring stimulating electrodes attached to either tissue ends (30s, 5Hz, 20V, 0.3 ms pulse duration; MLA0302/8, ADInstruments Ltd, UK). Basal activity was 610 recorded and collected using PowerLab 2/26 data acquisition system (PL2602/P, ADInstruments Ltd, 611 612 UK), and analysed using LabChartPro v8.

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614 Western Blot

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Frozen colon tissue samples were lysed in RIPA Buffer and the total protein concentration was 616 617 quantified using a BCA assay kit as per manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Scientific). Lysates were 618 obtained from three independent biological samples per group and pooled into a single sample for 619 analysis. Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was performed to separate proteins using 4-20% stain-620 free TGX gels (Bio-Rad). Proteins were visualised by UV-induced fluorescence using a Chemidoc 621 imaging system (Bio-Rad) to verify equal loading of samples. The most abundant protein band in each 622 loading control sample was used for quantification. Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose 623 membranes in a trans-blot turbo transfer system (Bio-Rad). Membranes were blocked for 30 min using 624 5% skimmed milk in PBST and then probed with rat anti-GFAP primary antibody (1:2000, cat # 13-625 0300, ThermoFisher) overnight at 4°C, followed by incubation with HRP-conjugated goat anti-rat secondary antibody (1:5000, cat # 31460, ThermoFisher) for 2 h at room temperature and 626 627 visualisation using enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL kit, GE Healthcare Life Sciences). Data were 628 analysed using the gel analysis package in FIJI ⁶⁶.

630 **RNA extraction**

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Frozen tissue samples were thawed in 1 ml Trizol (Invitrogen) per 30-50 mg tissue and immediately homogenised using a Precellys 24 homogeniser (Bertin). 200 µl of chloroform was added to each sample and mixed by vortex. The aqueous phase was separated by centrifugation at 13,000 g at 4°C and RNA was purified using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) with on-column DNAse digestion, as per manufacturer's protocol. A Qubit Fluorimeter (Thermofisher) and/or a Nanodrop instrument was used to assess RNA quality and quantity.

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639 RT-qPCR

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cDNA was synthesised from 1 μg of total RNA using Superscript IV VILO mastermix (Invitrogen), as per
manufacturer's protocol, in reaction volumes of 20 μl. qPCR reactions were carried out using
QuantiTect SYBR green master mix (Qiagen) with 200 nM of each primer and 4 μl of cDNA diluted 1/50
in DEPC water. Reactions were run using an Applied Biosystems Fast 7500 machine (Thermofisher) as
per manufacturer's protocol.

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A final cDNA volume of 100 μl was made by adding RNase-free DEPC water (1: 5 dilution) and stored at -20 °C until further use. qPCR reactions consisted of 10μl QuantiTect SYBR green master mix, 6 μl of forward and reverse primer mix (200 nM; Supplementary Table 1) and 4 μl of cDNA diluted 1/50 in DEPC water. For No-RT and no template control reactions, 4 μl of solution from the No-RT cDNA reaction and DEPC water were added respectively. Reactions were run using an Applied Biosystems Fast 7500 machine (Thermofisher) as per manufacturer's protocol. Data were analysed by the ΔΔCt method ⁶⁷ using murine *Oaz1* as the endogenous control gene.

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655 Nanostring gene expression analysis

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RNA was adjusted to 30-60 ng μl⁻¹ and analysed on a Nanostring nCounter system (Newcastle University, UK). We used a "PanelPlus" set of target probes comprising the standard mouse immunology nCounter codeset (XT-CSO-MIM1-12) and a custom selection of 20 probes from the mouse neuroinflammation and neuropathology codesets: *Acaa1a, Adora2a, Cck, Ch25h, Cidea, Drd1, Drd2, Gfap, MAPt, Nefl, Ngf, Nos1, NPY, P2rx7, Pla2g4a, Pla2g5, Plp1, Rbfox3, S100b* and *Tubb3*. The core immunology codeset comprised 547 protein-coding test genes, 14 house-keeping control genes, 6 positive binding control probes and 8 negative binding control probes. Fifty nine test genes were

below a detection threshold limit (mean negative control bound probe count + 3 SDs) and were excluded from the analysis. The final codeset comprised probes for 508 test genes and was analysed using nSolver v4.0. Data were normalised in the Basic Analysis module with positive control and housekeeping gene normalisation probe parameters both set to geometric mean. Normalised data were then imported to the Advanced Analysis module and used to analyse differential gene expression between groups and pathway scores using default parameters. Samples were annotated with their run number as a confounding variable.

671

672 Sample size and statistics

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A power calculation was performed using pilot data for total GI transit time (min) in infected vs 674 675 uninfected mice ($\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 = 163 - 98$, mean delay = 65, SD = 35). The primary outcome effect size was 676 \geq 70% reversal of transit time delay after BZ-mediated cure of infection (target post-treatment $\bar{x}_3 = 117$ 677 min). Calculations were carried out using the NC3Rs Experiment Design Assistant (https://eda.nc3rs.org.uk/) for power = 0.8 and α = 0.05. The inferred sample size was n = 10 per 678 experiment. An additional 5 mice were allocated to the BZ treatment group to account for a predicted 679 680 2:1 ratio of cures to relapses. For treatment at 6 wpi, data were pooled from two independent experiments. For treatment at 24 wpi, data are from one experiment. Sample sizes were reduced for 681 682 some data sets due to attrition of mice associated with progression to a humane end-point before the 683 end of an experiment (n=6) and imaging equipment faults (n=1).

684

685 Individual animals were used as the unit of analysis. No blinding or randomisation protocols were

used. Statistical differences between groups were evaluated using 2-tailed, unpaired Student's t-

687 tests, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc correction for multiple comparisons, or Fisher's exact

test. These tests were performed in nSolver 4.0, GraphPad Prism v9 or R v3.6.3. Differences of p <

689 0.05 were considered significant.

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691 Data Availability

692 Source data are provided with this paper.

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895 Author Contributions Statement

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- 898 conducted the experiments and analysed data with technical support and conceptual advice from R.R.,
- 899 S.J., A.F.F., M.C.T., C.J.M. and J.M.K. A.F.F., C.J.M. and J.M.K. provided reagents. A.A.K. and M.D.L.
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- 901

902 Competing Interests Statement

903 All authors declare they have no competing interests.

904 Figure Legends

905

906 Figure 1: Evaluation of benznidazole treatment outcomes in murine digestive Chagas disease. 907 a, Schematic representation of the experiment. b, Representative in vivo bioluminescence (BL) images 908 of female C3H/HeN mice that were uninfected (control), infected with TcI-JR and (i) vehicle-909 administered (infected), or treated with benznidazole at 6 wpi and (ii) assessed as parasitologically 910 cured (BZ-Cured), or (iii) assessed as treatment failure (BZ-Relapsed). Ex vivo images show 911 bioluminescence in liver (LV), lymph nodes (LYN) lungs (LN), gut mesenteries (MS), heart (HT), spleen (SP), skeletal muscle (SKM), visceral fat (VF), stomach (ST), small intestine (SI), large intestine (LI), skin 912 913 (SK), carcass (CAR), genitourinary system (GUS), and peritoneum (PT). BL intensity expressed using 914 radiance (p/s/cm²/sr) pseudocolour heat maps. c, In vivo BL profiles of infected (n = 18, except n = 10915 at 9 and 22 wpi, n = 47 at 6 wpi and n = 50 at 3 wpi), BZ-Cured (n = 14, except n = 15 at 12 and 18 wpi, 916 n = 7 at 9 wpi and n = 6 at 22 wpi) and BZ-Relapsed (n = 13, except n = 6 at 9 and 22 wpi) mice Dashed 917 lines show uninfected control auto-luminescence-based thresholds. Bar plots show cumulative 918 parasite burdens based on area under the curve of the line plots (control n = 20, infected n = 18, BZ-919 Cured n = 15, BZ-Relapsed n = 13). **d**, Spleen weights of control (n = 17), infected (n = 14), BZ-Cured (920 = 16) and BZ- Relapsed (*n* = 11) groups. **e**, Post-treatment *in vivo* BL infection profiles (left y axis; round 921 data points, full lines) and ex vivo bioluminescence at 36 wpi (right y axis, sum of all ROIs, square data 922 points, dashed lines) for individual BZ-Relapsed mice. Data in red indicate relapses detected during in 923 vivo infection and grey at ex vivo stage. Thresholds as in c. f, Mean tissue-specific infection intensities 924 in untreated and relapsed infections. Circle size indicates percentage of individual animals with BL-925 positive (BL+) signal for each sample type; colour indicates infection intensity (fold change in ex vivo 926 BL vs uninfected controls). Infection dissemination box plot shows number of BL⁺ tissue types per mouse. Infected n = 18 (except skin n = 17), BZ-Relapsed n = 13 mice; two independent experiments 927 928 g, Tissue-specific infection intensities for the GI tract, heart, skeletal muscle and skin of control (n =929 19; except skin n = 16), infected (n = 18; except skin n = 17), BZ-Cured (n = 14) and BZ-Relapsed (n = 16) 930 13) mice over two independent experiments. Data expressed as mean fold-change in radiance vs. 931 uninfected mean. Threshold line is the mean for an internal control (empty) region of interest. Box 932 plots show the median with minimum and maximum values as whiskers; bounds of box show IQR. All 933 other data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was tested using two-sided *t*-test or one-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD test. Only significant differences are annotated: *P < 0.05, 934 ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, **** *P* < 0.0001. 935

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938 Figure 2: Early cure of infection leads to durable restoration of normal GI transit function.

939 **a**, Line plots show total GI transit time for control (n = 20), infected (n = 18, except n = 46 at 6 wpi), 940 benznidazole (BZ) treated and cured (BZ-Cured; n = 14, except n = 15 at 12 and 18 wpi) and BZ treated 941 and relapsed (BZ-Relapsed; n = 13) C3H/HeN mice against weeks post-infection (wpi). Cream bar 942 shows the BZ treatment window (6-9 wpi). **b**, Bar plots show individual animal data for end-point (36 943 wpi) total GI transit time; control (n = 19), infected (n = 18), BZ-cured (n = 14) and BZ-relapsed (n = 13). 944 Control vs Infected p < 0.0001; Control vs BZ-Relapsed p = 0.002; Infected vs BZ-Cured p < 0.0001. c, 945 d, Bar plots show post-mortem number of faecal pellets (c) and dry faecal pellet weight (d, sum of all 946 pellets) in the colon of control (n = 20), infected (n = 18), BZ-cured (n = 14) and BZ-relapsed (n = 13) 947 mice after 4 hours' fasting. For c) Control vs Infected p < 0.0001; Control vs BZ-Relapsed p = 0.0006. 948 For d) Control vs Infected p = 0.009; Control vs BZ-Relapsed p = 0.04. e, Images of control, infected, 949 BZ-Cured and BZ-Relapsed mouse large intestine and retained faecal pellets after 4 hours' fasting at 950 36 wpi. Scale bar = 2cm. f, Representative proximal colon basal contractile traces from organ bath 951 contractility assay for each experimental group. g, h, Bar plots show basal contraction frequency and 952 amplitude respectively of control (n = 13), infected (n = 6), BZ-cured (n = 3) and BZ-relapsed (n = 3)953 mice. For g) Control vs Infected p = 0.023; Infected vs BZ-Relapsed p = 0.002; Infected vs BZ-Cured p =954 0.014. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was tested using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test (Only significant differences are annotated: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, 955 ****P* < 0.001, **** *P* < 0.0001). 956

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958 Figure 3: Enteric nervous system cellular damage, death and recovery in the colon myenteric plexus. 959 a, Representative, compressed z-stack images of transverse colon sections from C3H/HeN mice after 960 3 weeks of T. cruzi infection and age-matched uninfected controls. Immunofluorescence analysis 961 shows acute cellular damage of Hu⁺ neuronal cell bodies (soma, red) and GFAP⁺ glial cells (cyan). 962 Apoptotic DNA damage is marked by TUNEL staining (green) co-localised with Hoechst 33342 DNA 963 stain (blue), with intra-ganglionic events highlighted (white arrows). Expanded image and orthogonal 964 views of a single z-slice from the merged image of the infected colon showing co-localisation of TUNEL 965 stain with areas of diminished neuronal Hu protein expression (white arrows) in close proximity to 966 GFAP⁺ glial cells. Orthogonal view of z-planes of the image across x- and y-axis are marked in yellow 967 lines. b, c, Representative images of whole-mount colons at 6 and 36 weeks post-infection (wpi) respectively from control and infected C3H/HeN mice and additionally in c from benznidazole (BZ) 968 969 treated and cured (BZ-cured), and BZ treated and relapsed (BZ-Relapsed) infections. 970 Immunofluorescent labelling shows changes of Hu⁺ soma (red) with and without DNA stain (Hoechst 971 33348, cyan) in the myenteric plexus. White arrow indicates area of neuropathy lacking defined soma,

972 with weak Hu expression and pyknotic nuclei; filled arrowheads indicate intact soma morphology with 973 typical Hu expression and pyknotic nucleus; empty arrowheads indicate irregular soma morphology 974 with Hu expression and intact nucleus. All micrographs are representative images of two independent 975 experiments. **d**, Bar plots show number of Hu⁺ neurons in proximal (PC) and distal colon (DC) before 976 (6 wpi) and after BZ treatment (36 wpi) of control (n = 4 at 6 wpi, n = 10 at 36 wpi), infected (n = 4 at 977 6 wpi, n = 9 at 36 wpi), BZ-cured (n = 6) and BZ-relapsed (n = 9) groups. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was tested using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test (Only 978 significant differences are annotated: **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001). All confocal images were 979 980 taken at 400x magnification, scale bar = 50 μ m.

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982 Figure 4: Enteric neuro/immuno gene expression profiles associated with *T. cruzi* infection and 983 benznidazole treatment outcomes.

984 a, Volcano plots of the log₂-transformed fold change and significance (-log₁₀ P value) of differentially 985 expressed genes (DEGs) in colon tissue from infected (red/orange shades), benznidazole (BZ) treated 986 cured (BZ-Cured; blue shades) and BZ treated relapsed (BZ-Relapsed; purple shades) vs. uninfected 987 control C3H/HeN mice; and BZ-Cured vs. infected (green shades) mice. Darker coloured shaded dots 988 indicate statistical significance of P < 0.05 (above dashed horizontal line) and lighter shaded dots P < 0.001 (above dotted horizontal line). **b**, Venn diagrams show same-direction differentially 989 990 expressing genes (DEG) shared between infected, BZ-Cured and BZ-Relapsed for all genes analysed 991 (left, n shows number of genes) and transcription factors (right) (threshold of P < 0.05 vs uninfected 992 controls in at least one group). Arrows indicate up- and down-regulation. c, Relative change in neuro-993 glial genes between indicated experimental groups; colour intensity indicates fold change (log₂) 994 expression vs uninfected controls. d, Signalling pathway scores for each group. e, Comparison of 995 directionality and extent of gene expression change in chronically infected and BZ-cured mice vs 996 uninfected controls (*n* = 163 genes that are significant DEGs in at least one group). Red circles are DEGs 997 specific to the chronic, untreated infections, blue triangles are DEGs specific to the BZ-cured mice and 998 grey squares are DEGs shared by both groups. Diagonal dashed line is the line of equivalence. Vertical 999 and horizontal dashed lines indicate position for genes with identical expression levels as uninfected 1000 controls in chronic infection and BZ-cured mice respectively. Infected and uninfected controls n = 6, 1001 BZ-Cured and BZ-Relapsed n = 3. Statistical significance was determined by 2-tailed, unpaired 1002 Student's *t*-test for each gene (Only significant differences are annotated: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, **** *P* < 0.0001). 1003

Figure 5: Enteric nitrergic neuron and glial cell dynamics in chronic *T. cruzi* infections and after
 benznidazole treatment.

1007 a, Representative immunofluorescent confocal z-stack whole-mount images of nNOS⁺ neurons in the 1008 myenteric plexus of the mouse colon. **b**, Bar plots show number of nNOS⁺ neuronal cell bodies per 1009 field of view in control (n = 10), infected (n = 9), benznidazole treated cured (BZ-Cured, n = 6 in proximal 1010 [PC] and n = 7 in distal colon [DC]) and benznidazole treated relapsed (BZ-Relapsed, n = 9 in PC and n1011 = 8 in DC) in C3H/HeN mouse whole colon samples selected from proximal and distal colon regions. c, 1012 Representative immunofluorescent confocal z-stack images to display changes in anti-GFAP (gold 1013 yellow colour intensity scale) stained enteric glial cells (EGCs) co-labelled with anti-Tuj1 (blue colour 1014 intensity scale) enteric neural network across different experimental groups in the colon myenteric 1015 plexus. Top panel shows merged images of GFAP and Tuj1 labelled cells. Bottom panel shows images 1016 of morphologically diverse GFAP⁺ EGCS (red pixel colour intensity scale) in the myenteric plexus of 1017 infected and BZ-Relapsed colons compared to control and BZ-Cured. White arrows show 1018 representation of putative degraded GFAP⁺ EGC and white stars show activated GFAP⁺ EGC 1019 morphologies. All confocal images (a and c) were taken at 400x magnification, scale bar = 50 μ m. 1020 Colour heat map scale shows pixel intensity. All micrographs are representative images of two 1021 independent experiments. d, Bar plots and e, paired dot plot show western blot analysis of GFAP 1022 protein abundance in whole tissue lysates from mice colons (as a ratio of controls) from infected, BZ-1023 Cured and BZ-Relapsed (n = 3, biological samples, all groups). Representative immunoblot in **d** shows 1024 α -GFAP staining using 12 µg lysates (corresponding to the bar plot groups above). To demonstrate 1025 equal sample loading, the most abundant protein in each group is presented below as a stain-free gel 1026 image. For comparison, GFAP abundance quantified by western blotting of 12 and 21 µg lysates is 1027 indicated in plot **e**.

1028

1029 Figure 6: ENS cellular proliferation dynamics after benznidazole treatment of *T. cruzi* infections.

1030 a, Representative compressed z-stack images of transverse colon sections at 36 weeks post-infection 1031 with T. cruzi, 27 weeks post-treatment (wpt) with benznidazole (BZ), 17 weeks after EdU pulse phase. 1032 Images shown for female C3H/HeN mice that were uninfected (Control), infected with TcI-JR and (i) 1033 vehicle-administered (Infected), or treated with BZ for 20 days at 6 wpi (BZ-treated). All mice were 1034 pulsed with 6 doses of EdU between 1 and 7 weeks after withdrawal of BZ to label the progeny of cells 1035 that were proliferating during an EdU pulse (Orange). Immunofluorescence labelled Hu⁺ neuronal cell 1036 bodies (magenta) and GFAP⁺ glial cells (green). Hoechst 33342 stain shows DNA (blue). **b**, Single z-slice 1037 merged image from a BZ-treated mouse showing intra-ganglionic EdU co-localisation events with Hu 1038 or GFAP expression (white arrows; cell 1: co-localisation with Hu at z-slice 7/18; cell 2 and 3: co1039 localisation with GFAP at z-slice 13/18. Orthogonal view of z-planes of the image across x and y axes 1040 are marked in yellow lines. c, d, Frequencies of EdU⁺ cells co-localising (or not) with Hu or GFAP 1041 protein expression in myenteric ganglionic (c) and peri-ganglionic (d) locations (6wpt: control n = 6, 1042 infected n = 5 and BZ-Cured n = 4; 27 wpt: control n = 4, infected n = 4 and BZ-Cured n = 7). Data also 1043 include a shorter follow-up cohort (12 weeks post-infection, 6 weeks post-treatment (wpt), 1 week 1044 after end of EdU pulse phase). Data are expressed as mean ± SEM, data points are for individual mice. 1045 Statistical significance was tested using Kruskal-Wallis tests (P values < 0.1 are annotated). All confocal 1046 images were taken at 400x magnification, scale bar = 50 μ m.

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1048 Figure 7: Impact of chronic phase benznidazole treatment in digestive Chagas disease mice.

1049 a, Representative in vivo bioluminescence (BL) images of female C3H/HeN mice that were uninfected 1050 (Control), infected with TcI-JR and (i) vehicle-administered (Infected), or treated with benznidazole at 1051 24 weeks post-infection (wpi) and (ii) assessed as parasitologically cured (BZ-Cured), or (iii) assessed 1052 as treatment failure (BZ-Relapsed). Ex vivo images show bioluminescence in liver (LV), lungs (LU), gut 1053 mesenteries (MS), heart (HT), spleen (SP), skeletal muscle (SKM), visceral fat (VF), stomach (ST), small 1054 intestine (SI), large intestine (LI), genitourinary system (GUS), and peritoneum (PT). BL intensity 1055 expressed using radiance $(p/s/cm^2/sr)$ pseudocolour heat maps. **b**, *In vivo* BL profiles of infected (*n* = 8, except n = 19 at 6 and 12 wpi, n = 16 at 24 wpi and n = 20 at 3 wpi), BZ-Cured (n = 7) and BZ-Relapsed 1056 1057 (n = 3) mice over time. Dashed lines show uninfected control auto-luminescence-based thresholds. 1058 Bar plots show cumulative parasite burdens based on area under the curve of the line plots (control n = 5, infected n = 8, BZ-Cured n = 7 and BZ-Relapsed n = 3). **c**, Spleen weights of control (n = 6), infected 1059 1060 (n = 8), BZ-Cured (n = 6) and BZ-Relapsed (n = 3) groups. **d**, Post-treatment *in vivo* BL infection profiles 1061 for individual BZ-Relapsed mice; thresholds as in b. e, Mean tissue-specific infection intensities in 1062 untreated and relapsed infections. Circle size indicates percentage of individual animals with BL-1063 positive (BL+) signal for each sample type; colour indicates infection intensity (fold change in *ex vivo* 1064 BL vs uninfected controls). f, Tissue-specific infection intensities for gut, heart, skeletal muscle and 1065 skin of control (n = 6) infected (n = 8), BZ-cured (n = 6) and BZ-Relapsed (n = 3) mice. Data expressed 1066 as mean fold-change in radiance vs. uninfected mean. Threshold line is the mean for an internal 1067 control (empty) region of interest. Box plots show the median with minimum and maximum values as 1068 whiskers; bounds of box show IQR. All other data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance 1069 was tested using two-sided t-test or one-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD test. Only significant differences are annotated: **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, *****P* < 0.001, **** *P* < 0.0001. 1070

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1073 Figure 8: Impact of chronic phase benznidazole treatment on the ENS and GI transit function.

1074 **a**, Total GI transit times of female C3H/HeN mice that were uninfected (Control; n = 5, except n = 111075 at 24 wpi and *n* = 6 at 30 wpi), infected with TcI-JR and (i) vehicle-administered (Infected; *n* = 9, except 1076 n = 23 at 24 wpi and n = 8 at 30 wpi), or treated with benznidazole at 24 wpi and (ii) assessed as 1077 parasitologically cured (BZ-Cured; n = 7), or (iii) assessed as treatment failure (BZ-Relapsed; n = 3). 1078 Cream bar shows the BZ treatment window (24 - 29 wpi). b, Bar plot shows total GI transit times of 1079 control (n = 5), infected (n = 9), BZ-Cured (n = 7) and BZ-Relapsed (n = 3) at the 48 wpi end-point. 1080 Control vs Infected p = 0.015. c, Faecal pellet analyses show number of faecal pellets and dry faecal 1081 weight of control (n = 6), infected (n = 8), BZ-Cured (n = 6) and BZ-Relapsed (n = 3) mice after 4 hours' 1082 fasting. For pellet counts, Control vs Infected p = 0.0003; Control vs BZ-Relapsed p = 0.024; Infected vs 1083 BZ-Cured p = 0.023. For faecal weight, Control vs Infected p = 0.017; Control vs BZ-Relapsed p = 0.001. 1084 d, Representative compressed z-stack whole-mount immunofluorescence images of myenteric Hu⁺ neurons and GFAP⁺ glial cells in colon samples at 48 wpi. **e**, Bar plots show number of Hu⁺ neurons in 1085 1086 proximal colon myenteric plexus of control (n = 4), infected (n = 3), BZ-cured (n = 4) and BZ-relapsed 1087 (n = 1) groups. Control vs Infected p = 0.003; Control vs BZ-Cured p = 0.012. Data are expressed as 1088 mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was tested using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test 1089 (only significant differences are annotated: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001). All 1090 immunofluorescence images were taken at 400X magnification, scale bar = 50 μ m.







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