



Diagnosis of Chikungunya Infection: A Narrative Review

Tarek Mahbub Khan

Article information

Received: 18.09.2025

Accepted: 01.10.2025

Cite this article:

Khan TM. Review on laboratory diagnosis of Chikungunya infection. Sir Salimullah Med Coll J 2024; 32: 46-51

Key words:

Arbovirus, Chikungunya, PCR, LAMP, MAC-ELISA

Abstract

*Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) is an arbovirus infects humans that lead to Chikungunya fever, usually characterized by intense joint pain and arthritis. The first case was identified in 1953 at Tanzania of east Africa. As of December 2024, 119 countries and territories have reported cases of Chikungunya and many cases presumed to be under reporting due to diagnostic limitations. The virus is transmitted by *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus*. Bangladesh carries a huge burden of Chikungunya virus since 2007 which is gradually increasing. Many factors influences laboratory identification of Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) includes viral strains, patient immune response, time of sample collection from the onset of infection, test sensitivity and specificity, test compliances. Most reliable test for detection of Chikungunya virus is RT-PCR. Loop-mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP) can also be used in resource limited setting but has less sensitivity. Antibody detection depends on time of collection of sample after onset of infection, patient immune response, type of tests. Anti-Chikungunya IgM antibody becomes positive between 3-8 days of onset of infection. IgM capture ELISA (MAC-ELISA) is more sensitive. A fourfold rising titer of anti-IgG antibody in 3 weeks apart often recommended for diagnosis of recent Chikungunya infection. Serology test are less sensitive to RT-PCR or LAMP. Selecting appropriate tests for laboratory diagnosis of Chikungunya is critical in terms of its timing of test, cost effectivity, resource mobilization and reliability, sensitivity. Hence a combine approach of clinical judgment and laboratory evidence is important for diagnosis of Chikungunya.*

Introduction

Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) is a mosquito-transmitted pathogen that infects humans and leads to Chikungunya fever, usually characterized by intense joint pain. The first case was identified in 1952-53 at Tanzania of east Africa¹. Serological evidence indicated that in Asia, CHIKV first emerged in 1954². The first outbreak was documented in 1958 in Thailand³. The virus is transmitted by *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* the same vectors which also transmit Dengue and Zika. Both vectors feed outdoor in addition to *Aedes aegypti* that feed indoors also⁴. World health organization reported as of December 2024, 119 countries and territories have reported cases of

Chikungunya and many cases presumed to be under reporting due to diagnostic limitations⁵. Chikungunya was epidemic from 1963-1973 followed by a huge outbreak in the Indian Ocean islands from 2004-2007. In Bangladesh Chikungunya was first reported in 2008 followed by outbreaks in 2009, 2011 and 2012⁸⁻⁹. However Bangladesh experienced the highest outbreak in 2017 affecting 17 out of 64 districts of the country¹⁰. The disease is characterized by high fever, rash, disabling arthritis and arthralgia¹¹⁻¹². Apart from these severe gastrointestinal and neurological complications like encephalitis, myelitis, Guillain-Barre syndrome may occur¹³. In the acute phase of infection the diagnostic laboratory tests includes viral isolation, RT-PCR

for viral RNA, virus specific IgM in acute or convalescence phase and a fourfold rise of IgG antibody titers in three weeks apart often used¹¹.

The virus and its genotypes:

The virus belongs to Togaviridae family having 11-12 kb positive sense RNA encoding four non-structural proteins e.g., nsP1, nsP2, nsP3 and nsP4, several structural proteins namely capsid, E3, E2, 6K and E1 and 5' and 3' untranslated regions¹⁴. CHIKV is classified into three main genotypes, namely Asian, West African and East/Central/South African (ECSA) genotypes¹⁵. It has been demonstrated that adaptive mutations in viral lineages contribute to the transmission potential and fitness of CHIKV in various hosts and vectors¹⁵. A recent study of viral phylogenetics in Bangladesh identified an E1-K211E substitution, revealing a distinct East-Central-South-African (ECSA) genotype by sequence analysis¹⁶. Viral structures and genomic diversities have an impact on laboratory diagnosis of Chikungunya.

Immunopathogenesis:

After inoculation from mosquito bites virus replicates in fibroblast, mesenchymal cells and osteoblasts. CHIKV induces local cytokine and chemokine response that leads to inflammatory infiltrate of macrophage, monocytes, NK cells, CD4+ and CD8+ T cells. Damage from virus and inflammatory reaction results in myofiber degeneration, mesenchymal damage of the synovium and periosteum and increase osteoclast generation causing bone damage¹⁷⁻¹⁸.

Role of T lymphocytes:

CHIKV infection results in the activation of CD8+ T cells (as judged by increased expression of CD69 and HLA-DR) with peak levels in peripheral blood detected soon after symptom onset¹⁹. In infected individual activated CD38+ HLA-DR+ CD8+ T cells may persist in the circulation even after 7-10 weeks post infection²⁰.

Role of B lymphocytes:

Anti-CHIKV IgM can be detected within a few days of infection and begins to wane during the second week. This coincides with the development of an IgG response, which increases through the acute phase and remains high during the chronic phase²¹. Neutralizing antibodies target the

envelope glycoproteins, which are displayed on the virion surface as trimers of E2/E1 heterodimers²².

Although acute infection generates effective immune response that eliminates circulating CHIKV but it is evident that infected perivascular macrophages, CD14+ macrophages, activated CD56+ CD69+ NK cells harbor the source of CHIKV in chronic infection²³. Immune activation from persistent viral RNA and antigen, results in continuous production of inflammatory cytokines and chemokines in synovial and muscle tissue²⁴.

Case definition:

Possible case:

A patient meeting clinical criteria (acute onset of fever > 38.5°C and severe arthralgia/arthritis not explained by other medical conditions)¹¹.

Probable case:

A patient meeting both the clinical and epidemiological criteria (residing or having visited epidemic areas, having reported transmission within 15 days before the onset of symptoms)¹¹

Confirmed case:

A patient meeting the laboratory criteria, irrespective of the clinical presentation.¹¹

Clinical manifestations

CHIV infection can be classified in 3 phases acute, post-acute or chronic phases. Incubation period is 3-7 days.

Acute phase: Starts with abrupt onset of high grade fever (> 39°C) which lasts for 3-5 days and malaise²⁶. 40-75% manifests maculopapular rash and pruritus among 25-50% cases. Acute infection is also manifested with joints symptoms which stipulated in the Table I.

Table-I: Joint manifestation of acute Chikungunya²⁷

Feature	Description
Onset	2–5 days after onset of fever
Pattern	Bilateral and symmetric
Joints Involved	- Hands : 50–76% - Wrists : 29–81% - Ankles : 41–68% - Axial skeleton : 34–52%
Severity	Pain may be intense & disabling, leading to immobilization

Post-acute phase: Most patient shows transitory improvement in their clinical condition. Relapse occurs among 50-90% cases 2-3 weeks after transitory recovery. The percentages of persistent polyarthralgia are more common among people over 40 years²⁸.

Chronic phase: About 40-80% of acute CHIKV infection progresses to chronic infection persist for months to years²⁸. Two hypotheses has been postulated for this persistence infection firstly, presence of viral RNA or antigens in the muscle and joint tissue. Second, infection triggers persistence immune response²⁹. 25% of the cases have been reported to progress to chronic inflammatory rheumatism³⁰. Joint manifestations or self discomfort among patient infected with CHIKV also vary among different genotypes. Of them who are infected with ECSA genotype or Asian strain have fewer complications or discomfort whereas ECSA-diverge/IOL and overlapping Asian genotype may produce more discomfort.

Diagnosis:

Laboratory diagnosis is principally based on three different techniques, e.g., molecular detection, serology and isolation of virus in cell culture. However use of appropriate specimen at the appropriate course of the illness is also critical in accurate diagnosis of CHIKV in the laboratory. Center for disease control (CDC), USA has developed an algorithm based on CHIKV infection and timing of specimen collection (Figer1).

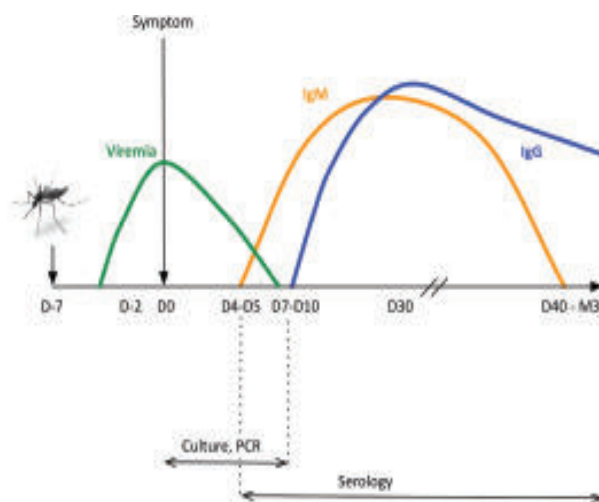


Figure 1: Infection and immune response against Chikungunya virus

The virus replicates rapidly in the first few days of infection. It also takes few days to form specific antibodies to become detectable level. So, molecular methods which particularly detects viral RNA is preferred within first week of onset of infection. While antibody particularly anti-IgM antibody is tested between 5-7 days of onset of infection³¹. Selection of a diagnostic tool depends on kinetics of viral replication and host immune response³². Several molecular tests are available which include RT-PCR, RT-LAMP, reverse transcription PCR³³. CDC, USA follows testing of a suspected Chikungunya specimen received within 6 days of onset of symptoms by RT-PCR. CDC recommends for sample received on or six days after onset of symptoms or sample which are RT-PCR negative should be confirmed by CHIKV IgM antibody capture ELISA (MAC-ELISA) or fluorescence antibody test (IFA) or plaque assay³⁴⁻³⁵.

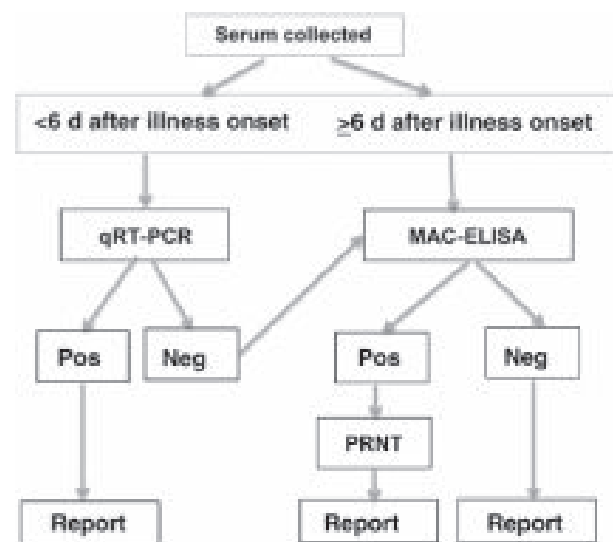


Figure 2: Center for disease control and prevention diagnostic algorithm of Chikungunya fever

Type of samples for diagnostic tests

Depends on patients (e.g, adult male or female, pregnant women, fetus), time lapses from the onset of symptoms, sites of infection e.g., CNS, GIT or cells of reticuloendothelial system. Collected sample should be sent to laboratory as soon as possible. For antibody testing blood should be collected in EDTA or heparin free tubes³⁶. The same type of tubes can be used for PCR. Blood and plasma is preferred over serum for molecular tests like PCR.

Viral replication kinetics and laboratory tests:

The replicating viruses are found in the blood, plasma or serum samples between 2-6 days of appearance of clinical symptoms³⁷. Viral load rapidly rises to 10^8 - 10^9 copies/ml at this time which rationalizes the use of viral isolation techniques in cell culture, viral RNA or antigen detection³⁸.

Viral Isolation:

Viral isolation is gold standard and it is a robust research tool³⁹. Although the viral load gradually drops down by day 5 of infection, still the method is very useful to detect viral strains. This is not commonly practice in regular CHIKV testing as it is costly, needs more time and expertise and BSL3 laboratory set up. Several cell lines are used to culture the virus, among them culture in HELA cells is more sensitive and the viral cytopathic effects are observed more earlier in that cell line than Vero cells⁴⁰.

Antigen detection:

Immunochromatography test (ICT) for viral antigen detection is a sensitive test in the early phase between 4-5 days of onset of infection. However the test sensitivity varies according to the geographical distribution of viral strains⁴¹.

Detection of viral genome:

Reverse transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR) is a highly sensitive test in the acute phase of CHIKV infection. It is performed from plasma or serum. The test detects genes encoding nsP1, nsP2 and also E3, E2, E1 viral envelope proteins⁴². Viral quantification is done by label probe or SYBR green during the process of amplification⁴³. The PCR assay can detect both positive and negative strands DNA particularly by strand-specific RT-PCR for nsP1 and nsP3 genes⁴⁴⁻⁴⁵. But the lower limit of detection (LOD) of viral copies is slightly decreased in detection of negative strand than the positive strand⁴⁶. The limitations of conventional or RT-PCR particularly lack of financial and human resource have been overcome by an alternative molecular technique Loop-mediated-isothermal amplification (LAMP) which do not need a thermal cycler, easy and convenient to performed but with less sensitivity than PCR⁴⁷. This may be effective in a resource limited set-up for molecular detection of CHIKV. Beside this a combining multiplex

molecular amplification with DNA microarray hybridization has been designed to simultaneously detect CHIKV, Dengue virus (DENV) and other arboviruses⁴⁸. Because CHIKV and DENV show serological cross-reactivity between their serocomplexes, they are difficult to distinguish using serology alone, making molecular detection methods essential for accurate differentiation⁴⁹. A one-step duplex conventional RT-PCR assay has been developed for differentiating between DENV and CHIKV⁵⁰.

Serology:

CHIKV-specific IgM and IgG antibodies can be identified in serum through enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). IgM is the earliest antibody detected in chikungunya patients, typically appearing 3–8 days after infection and remaining for several months to up to 2 years. IgG antibodies usually become detectable 4–10 days after infection onset and can persist for many years³⁸. The primary diagnostic methods for CHIKV infection are IgM antibody-capture ELISA (MAC-ELISA) and indirect ELISA (i-ELISA), which is used to detect immunoglobulin M (IgM) and immunoglobulin G (IgG), respectively⁵¹. Advancements in test design and procedures have reduced the likelihood of IgG cross-reactivity with other viruses compared to earlier methods. However, IgG seroconversion (a greater than fourfold rise) is still advised for a dependable diagnosis. However, ELISA has certain limitations: it may yield false positives due to cross-reactivity with other alphaviruses and its sensitivity drops significantly (to 4–20%) when testing serum samples collected during the acute phase⁵².

Conclusion:

Chikungunya is a mosquito borne arboviral disease primarily affects joints and muscle. It also has CNS effect which could complicate the course of illness. The viral genome characteristically gives rise different Phylogenetic lineage resulting in three major strains. Although the virus does not have any life threatening complications like other arbovirus but it complicates to chronic debilitating arthritis that leads to morbidity. Early diagnosis is important for appropriate intervention and treatment. Among several test methods most early detection could be made by RT-PCR. A multiplex PCR can detect Dengue and Chikungunya virus

simultaneously. Although RT-PCR is more sensitive but it depends on viral load and on strain specific primers. An alternate to PCR could be LAMP that is cost effective and can be utilized in a resource constraint set-up. Serology test result depends on time lapse between sample collection and onset of infection. Anti-Chikungunya IgM ELISA (MAC-ELISA) is a sensitive method to detect virus specific IgM while Anti-Chikungunya IgG need to test two times in three weeks apart to conclude as recent chikungunya infection.

References:

1. Lumsden WH. An epidemic of virus disease in Southern Province, Tanganyika Territory, in 1952-53. II. General description and epidemiology. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg.* 1955; 49: 33-57.
2. Khongwichit S, Chansaenroj J, Chirathaworn C, Poovorawan Y. Chikungunya virus infection: molecular biology, clinical characteristics, and epidemiology in Asian countries. *J Biomed Sci.* 2021; 28(1):84. doi: 10.1186/s12929-021-00778-8.
3. Robinson MC. An epidemic of virus disease in Southern Province, Tanganyika Territory, in 1952-53. I. Clinical features. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg.* 1955; 49: 28-32.
4. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/chikungunya>
5. <https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/chikungunya-epidemiology-update-june-2025>
6. Kariuki Njenga M, Nderitu L, Ledermann JP, Ndirangu A, Logue CH, Kelly CH, Sang R, Seron K, Breiman R, Powers AM. Tracking epidemic chikungunya virus into the Indian Ocean from East Africa. *J Gen Virol.* 2008; 89: 2754-2760.
7. Staples JE, Breiman RF, Powers AM. Chikungunya fever: an epidemiological review of a re-emerging infectious disease. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2009; 49: 942-948.
8. S. Khatun, A. Chakraborty, M. Rahman, N. Nasreen Banu, M.M. Rahman, S.M.M. Hasan, *et al.* An outbreak of chikungunya in rural Bangladesh. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2011; 9 (2015)
9. F. Haque, M. Rahman, N.N. Banu, A.R. Sharif, S. Jubayer, A. Shamsuzzaman, *et al.* An epidemic of chikungunya in northwestern Bangladesh in 2011. *PLoS One*, 14 (2019), Article e0212218.
10. . Kabir, M. Dhimal, R. Müller, S. Banik, U. Haque. The 2017 Dhaka chikungunya outbreak. *Lancet Infect Dis*, 17 (2017), p. 1118, 10.1016/S1473-3099(17)30564-9
11. WHO, 2008. Guidelines on Clinical Management of Chikungunya Fever. New Delhi, India: World Health Organization, Regional Office for South-East Asia, 1-26.
12. Arroyo-Avila M, Vila LM. Rheumatic manifestations in patients with chikungunya infection. *P R Health Sci J.* 2015; 34: 71-77.
13. Mehta R, Gerardin P, de Brito CAA, Soares CN, Ferreira MLB, Solomon T. The neurological complications of chikungunya virus: a systematic review. *Rev Med Virol.* 2018; 28: e1978.
14. J. Phadungsombat, H.A. Imad, E.E. Nakayama, P. Leangwutiwong, P. Ramasoota, W. Nguitrugool, *et al.* Spread of a novel Indian Ocean Lineage carrying E1-K211e/E2-V264A of chikungunya virus east/central/South African genotype across the Indian subcontinent, Southeast Asia, and eastern Africa. *Microorganisms.* 2022; 10 (2): p. 354
15. S.-Q. Liu, X. Li, Y.-N. Zhang, A.-L. Gao, C.-L. Deng, J.-H. Li, *et al.* Detection, isolation, and characterization of chikungunya viruses associated with the Pakistan outbreak of 2016-2017 *Virol Sin.* 2017; 32: 511-519
16. Nasif AO, Haider N, Muntasir I, Qayum O, Hasan M N, Hassan MR, Khan MH, Sultana S, Ferdous J, Kyaw Prince TP, Rudra M, Rahman M, Alam AN, Shirin T. The reappearance of Chikungunya virus in Bangladesh, 2024. *IJID Reg.* 2025;16:100664. doi: 10.1016/j.ijregi.2025.100664.
17. Schilte C, Couderc T, Chretien F, Sourisseau M, Gangneux N, Guivel-Benhassine F, Kraxner A, Tschopp J, Higgs S, Michault A, Arenzana-Seisdedos F, Colonna M, Peduto L, Schwartz O, Lecuit M, Albert ML. Type I IFN controls chikungunya virus via its action on nonhematopoietic cells. *The Journal of experimental medicine.* 2010; 207:429-442. doi: 10.1084/jem.20090851.
18. Noret M, Herrero L, Rulli N, Rolph M, Smith PN, Li RW, Roques P, Gras G, Mahalingam S. Interleukin 6, RANKL, and osteoprotegerin expression by chikungunya virus-infected human osteoblasts. *The Journal of infectious diseases.* 2012; 206:455-457. 457-459. doi: 10.1093/infdis/jis368.
19. Wauquier N, Becquart P, Nkoghe D, Padilla C, Ndjoyi-Mbiguino A, Leroy EM. The acute phase of Chikungunya virus infection in humans is associated with strong innate immunity and T CD8 cell activation. *The Journal of infectious diseases.* 2011; 204:115-123. doi: 10.1093/infdis/jiq006.
20. Miner JJ, Aw Yeang HX, Fox JM, Taffner S, Malkova ON, Oh ST, Kim AH, Diamond MS, Lenschow DJ, Yokoyama WM. Chikungunya viral arthritis in the United States: a mimic of seronegative rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis & rheumatology.* 2015; 67:1214-1220. doi: 10.1002/art.39027.
21. Lum FM, Teo TH, Lee WW, Kam YW, Renia L, Ng LF. An essential role of antibodies in the control of Chikungunya virus infection. *Journal of immunology.* 2013; 190:6295-6302. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.1300304.
22. Cheng RH, Kuhn RJ, Olson NH, Rossmann MG, Choi HK, Smith TJ, Baker TS. Nucleocapsid and glycoprotein organization in an enveloped virus. *Cell.* 1995; 80:621-630. doi: 10.1016/0092-8674(95)90516-2.
23. Hoarau JJ, Jaffar Bandjee MC, Krejbich Trotot P, Das T, Li-Pat-Yuen G, Dassa B, Denizot M, Guichard E, Ribera A, Henni T, Tallet F, Moiton MP, Gauzere BA, Bruniquet S, Jaffar Bandjee Z, Morbidelli P, Martigny G, Jolivet M, Gay F, Grandadam M, Tolou H, Vieillard V, Debre P, Autran B, Gasque P. Persistent chronic inflammation and infection by Chikungunya arthritogenic alphavirus in spite of a robust host immune response. *Journal of immunology.* 2010; 184:5914-5927. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.0900255.
24. Julie M Fox, Michael S Diamond. Immune-mediated protection and pathogenesis of chikungunya virus. *J Immunol.* Author manuscript; available in PMC: 2017 Dec 1.

25. Burt FJ, Rolph MS, Rulli NE, Mahalingam S, Heise MT. Chikungunya: A re-emerging virus. *Lancet*. 2012; 379:662-671. Find on PubMed Find on Google Scholar
26. Parola P, de Lamballerie X, Jourdan J, Rovey C, Vaillant V, Minodier P, et al. Novel chikungunya virus variant in travelers returning from Indian Ocean islands. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*. 2006;12:1493
27. Taubitz W, Cramer JP, Kapaun A, Pfeffer M, Drosten C, Dobler G, et al. Chikungunya fever in travelers: Clinical presentation and course. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 2007;45:e1
28. Sissoko D, Malvy D, Ezzedine K, Renault P, Moschetti F, Ledrans M, et al. Post-epidemic chikungunya disease on Reunion Island: Course of rheumatic manifestations and associated factors over a 15-month period. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases*. 2009;3(3):e389
29. Haese NN, Broeckel RM, Hawman DW, et al. Animal models of chikungunya virus infection and disease. *The Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2016; 214(suppl 5):S482-S487.
30. Rodríguez-Morales AJ, Cardona-Ospina JA, Fernanda Urbano-Garzón S, Sebastian Hurtado-Zapata J. Prevalence of post-chikungunya infection chronic inflammatory arthritis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Arthritis Care and Research*. 2016;68(12):1849-1858
31. Lanciotti RS, Kosoy OL, Laven JJ, Panella AJ, Velez JO, Lambert AJ, et al. Chikungunya virus in US travelers returning from India, 2006. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*. 2007; 13:764-767.
32. Chusri S, Siripaitoon P, Silpapojakul K, Hertiawakul T, Charernmak B, Chinnawirotpisan P, et al. Kinetics of chikungunya infections during an outbreak in Southern Thailand, 2008-2009. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*. 2014;90:410-417
33. World Health Organization. Regional Office for South-East Asia. Guidelines for prevention and control of chikungunya fever. New Delhi: WHO Regional Office for South-East Asia; 2009 2009.
34. Martin DA, Muth DA, Brown T, Johnson AJ, Karabatsos N, Roehrig JT. Standardization of immunoglobulin M capture enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays for routine diagnosis of arboviral infections. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*. 2000;38:1823-1826
35. Diagnostic Testing CDC [Internet]. 2018 [citado 10 de junio de 2019]. Disponible. <https://www.cdc.gov/chikungunya/hc/diagnostic.html>
36. Lakshmi V, Neeraja M, Subbalaxmi MV, Parida MM, Dash PK, Santhosh SR, et al. Clinical features and molecular diagnosis of chikungunya fever from South India. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 2008;46:1436
37. Burt FJ, Rolph MS, Rulli NE, Mahalingam S, Heise MT. Chikungunya: A re-emerging virus. *Lancet*. 2012;379: 662-671
38. Weaver SC, Lecuit M. Chikungunya virus and the global spread of a mosquito-borne disease. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2015;372:1231-1239
39. Lakshmi V, Neeraja M, Subbalaxmi MV, Parida MM, Dash PK, Santhosh SR, et al. Clinical features and molecular diagnosis of chikungunya fever from South India. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 2008; 46:1436.
40. Pyndiah MN, Pursem V, Meetoo G, Daby S, Ramuth V, Bhinkah P, et al. Chikungunya virus isolation using simplified cell culture technique in Mauritius. *Medecine Tropicale (Mars)*. 2012;72:63-65
41. Okabayashi T, Sasaki T, Masrinoul P, Chantawat N, Yoksan S, Nitatpattana N, et al. Detection of chikungunya virus antigen by a novel rapid immunochromatographic test. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*. 2015;53:382e8
42. de Moraes Bronzoni RV, Baleotti FG, Ribeiro Nogueira RM, Nunes M, Moraes Figueiredo LT. Duplex reverse transcription-PCR followed by nested PCR assays for detection and identification of Brazilian alphaviruses and flaviviruses. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*. 2005;43(2):696-702
43. Ho PS, Ng MM, Chu JJ. Establishment of one-step SYBR green-based real time-PCR assay for rapid detection and quantification of chikungunya virus infection. *Virology Journal*. 2010;7:13
44. Plaskon NE, Adelman ZN, Myles KM. Accurate strand-specific quantification of viral RNA. *PLoS One*. 2009;4:e7468
45. Chiam CW, Chan YF, Loong SK, Yong SS, Yong SS, Hooi PS, et al. Real-time polymerase chain reaction for diagnosis and quantitation of negative strand of chikungunya virus. *Diagnostic Microbiology and Infectious Disease*. 2013;77:133-137
46. Parida MM, Santhosh SR, Dash PK, Lakshmana Rao PV. Rapid and real-time assays for detection and quantification of chikungunya virus. *Future Virology*. 2008;3:179-192
47. Reddy V, Ravi V, Desai A, Parida M, Powers AM, Johnson BW. Utility of IgM ELISA, TaqMan real-time PCR, reverse transcription PCR, and RT-LAMP assay for the diagnosis of chikungunya fever. *Journal of Medical Virology*. 2012;84:1771-1778
48. Tan JL, Capozzoli M, Mitsuharu S, Watthanaworawit W, Ling CL, Mauduit M, et al. An integrated lab-on-chip for rapid identification and simultaneous differentiation of tropical pathogens. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases*. 2014;8:e3043
49. aha K., Firdaus R., Chakrabarti S., and Sadhukhan P. C., Development of rapid, sensitive one-tube duplex RT-PCR assay for specific and differential diagnosis of Chikungunya and dengue, *Journal of Virological Methods*. 2013 (193);2: 521–524. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jviromet.2013.07.029>, 2-s2.0-84882671526.
50. Dash P. K., Parida M., Santhosh S. R., Saxena P., Srivastava A., Neeraja M., Lakshmi V., and Rao P. V. L., Development and evaluation of a 1-step duplex reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction for differential diagnosis of chikungunya and dengue infection, *Diagnostic Microbiology and Infectious Disease*. 2008 (62);1: 52–57
51. Cavrini F, Gaibani P, Pierro AM, Rossini G, Landini MP, Sambri V. Chikungunya: An emerging and spreading arthropod-borne viral disease. *Journal of Infection in Developing Countries*. 2009;3:744-752
52. Blacksell SD, Tanganuchitcharnchai A, Jarman RG, Gibbons RV, Paris DH, Bailey MS, et al. Poor diagnostic accuracy of commercial antibody-based assays for the diagnosis of acute chikungunya infection. *Clinical and Vaccine Immunology*. 2011;18:1773-1775.