

BMJ Open is committed to open peer review. As part of this commitment we make the peer review history of every article we publish publicly available.

When an article is published we post the peer reviewers' comments and the authors' responses online. We also post the versions of the paper that were used during peer review. These are the versions that the peer review comments apply to.

The versions of the paper that follow are the versions that were submitted during the peer review process. They are not the versions of record or the final published versions. They should not be cited or distributed as the published version of this manuscript.

BMJ Open is an open access journal and the full, final, typeset and author-corrected version of record of the manuscript is available on our site with no access controls, subscription charges or pay-per-view fees (http://bmjopen.bmj.com).

If you have any questions on BMJ Open's open peer review process please email info.bmjopen@bmj.com

BMJ Open

Protocol for an observational study on the clinical features, immunological interactions and household determinants of visceral leishmaniasis and malaria co-infections in West Pokot, Kenya

Journal:	BMJ Open
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2022-068679
Article Type:	Protocol
Date Submitted by the Author:	26-Sep-2022
Complete List of Authors:	van Dijk, Norbert; Amsterdam Universitair Medische Centra, Department of Medical Microbiology and Infection Prevention, Experimental Parasitology; Amsterdam UMC Locatie AMC, Infectious Diseases Programme Carter, Jane; Amref Health Africa Omondi, Wyckliff; Kenya Ministry of Health, Division of Vector Borne and Neglected Tropical Diseases Mens, Petra; Amsterdam UMC Location AMC, Medical Microbiology and Infection Prevention; Amsterdam Institute for Infection and Immunity, Infectious Diseases Programme Schallig, Henk; Amsterdam University Medical Centres, Academic Medical Centre at the University of Amsterdam (AMC), Medical Microbiology and Infection Prevention; Amsterdam Institute for Infection and Immunity, Infectious Diseases Programme
Keywords:	PARASITOLOGY, MICROBIOLOGY, Epidemiology < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, Immunology < TROPICAL MEDICINE

SCHOLARONE™ Manuscripts

- 1 Protocol for an observational study on the clinical features,
- 2 immunological interactions and household determinants of visceral
- 3 leishmaniasis and malaria co-infections in West Pokot, Kenya
- 4 Norbert J. van Dijk^{1,2}, Jane Y. Carter³, Wyckliff P. Omondi⁴, Petra F. Mens^{1,2}, Henk D.F.H. Schallig^{1,2}
- 5 Affiliations:
- 6 ¹Amsterdam UMC location University of Amsterdam, Department of Medical Microbiology and
- 7 Infection Prevention, Experimental Parasitology.
- 8 ²Amsterdam Institute for Infection and Immunity, Infectious Diseases Programme, Amsterdam, the
- 9 Netherlands.
- 10 ³Amref Health Africa Headquarters. Langata Road, Nairobi, Kenya.
- ⁴Ministry of Health Kenya, Division of Vector Borne and Neglected Tropical Diseases. Nairobi, Kenya.
- 13 Corresponding author:
- 14 Norbert J. van Dijk
- 15 Amsterdam UMC location University of Amsterdam, Department of Medical Microbiology and
- 16 Infection Prevention, Experimental Parasitology
- 17 Meibergdreef 9, 1105 AZ Amsterdam, the Netherlands
- 18 <u>n.j.vandijk@amsterdamumc.nl</u>
- **WORD COUNT:** 4441

Introduction: Visceral leishmaniasis (VL) and malaria are two deadly parasitic diseases that co-exist in West Pokot County, Kenya. The local population is at considerable risk of co-infection with VL and malaria, however, few studies have described the clinical implications of this co-morbidity. Questions remain regarding the immune responses responsible for possible predisposing or protective effects. Moreover, characterisation of environmental and household risk factors for co-acquiring VL and malaria is warranted to increase awareness and guide implementation of targeted control strategies. This protocol intends to address these knowledge gaps concerning VL-malaria co-infections. Methods and analysis: this observational research project will have a multimethod approach, starting with a cross-sectional study at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital in West Pokot, Kenya. Patients with laboratory confirmation of a VL and/or malaria infection will be clinically assessed and symptomatology of mono- and co-infections will be compared. Secondly, a questionnaire will be addressed to all included patients and to healthy controls in local communities. This case-control study will aim to describe household and environmental determinants associated with VL-malaria coinfection. Lastly, blood samples will be collected from a small cohort of VL and malaria mono- and coinfected patients during treatment of their infection(s), and from healthy controls and asymptomatic VL and malaria cases recruited in local communities. These specimens will be used for serum cytokine measurements and molecular quantitation of *Plasmodium* and *Leishmania*. In this way, the immune response and parasite dynamics during VL-malaria co-infection will be characterised longitudinally and compared to those observed in clinical and asymptomatic mono-infections. Ethics and Dissemination: Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics and Scientific Research Committee of Amref Health Africa. The study findings will be presented at international conferences

and published in open-access, peer-reviewed journals.

- **Study Registration:** This study protocol has been registered at the ISRCTN registry (ID:
- 45 ISRCTN15023306).
- **Key Words:** Visceral Leishmaniasis, Malaria, Coinfection, Study Protocol

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Through a tripartite design, this research project will address clinical, immunological and epidemiological knowledge gaps concerning VL-malaria co-infections.
- This will be the first study to investigate individual and household risk factors for VL-malaria co-infections.
- Longitudinal characterisation of cytokine profiles in VL-malaria co-infections and comparison
 with both symptomatic and asymptomatic mono-infections will offer the opportunity to study
 associations between the immune response, parasite densities and clinical presentation.
- Given the lack of recent data on VL-malaria co-infection rates in West Pokot, the number of co-infected cases recruited in this study could potentially be low.
- Measuring cytokine levels will not reflect the full extent of the immune response induced by a VL-malaria co-infection.

 Visceral leishmaniasis (VL) and malaria (caused by Leishmania and Plasmodium species, respectively) are two vector-borne protozoan parasite infections that cause high morbidity and mortality, particularly in remote regions of low income countries. In East Africa, Kenya is one of the countries most affected by VL.[1] Here, an important focus endemic VL transmission is located in West Pokot County, which is part of the Pokot territory situated at the border region between Kenya and Uganda.[2-4] Apart from being endemic for VL, this area is also characterised by recurrent outbreaks of seasonal malaria.[5] Due to the overlapping epidemiology of VL and malaria in the Pokot region, the local population is at risk of being infected with both diseases concurrently. Indeed, it appears that coinfections with Leishmania donovani and Plasmodium falciparum are not uncommon: studies among VL patients attending the regional VL treatment hospitals of Kacheliba (Kenya) and Amudat (Uganda) have reported rates of concomitant malaria ranging from 3.8% to 34.4%.[3, 4, 6] Despite these apparently high numbers of VL-malaria co-infections, the condition is still understudied in terms of risk factors, clinical presentation and immunology. The overlap of VL and malaria transmission in West Pokot relies on the presence of favourable environmental conditions for their insect vectors, and subsequently, human exposure to these vectors. The local malaria mosquito vectors, Anopheles arabiensis and An. funestus, have a preference for dry savannah habitats where they lay eggs in small, temporary freshwater pools.[7, 8] As such, malaria incidence in West Pokot often peaks during and after seasonal rainfall. The individual malaria risk may vary from person to person due to household factors: house structure aspects have been associated with indoor Anopheles abundance in neighbouring Baringo County.[9] It is unknown whether these results are also applicable in the context of West Pokot. Like malaria, the endemicity of VL in West Pokot is partly attributable to its semi-arid climate. However, the ecology of the local VL vector is substantially different, as the sandfly *Phlebotomus martini* is believed to lay its eggs in the ventilation

shafts of termite mounds.[10-13] Some studies have therefore found living close to these mounds to

 be associated with VL infection risk.[14, 15] Considering the differences in VL and malaria vector ecology in West Pokot, a very specific combination of human behavioural, environmental and household conditions may predispose for concomitant infections with both parasites. Better understanding of this VL-malaria co-infection risk profile is crucial for increasing awareness among exposed populations, and could also guide policy makers in drafting more focused VL and malaria vector control strategies.

Despite the potentially deadly outcome of VL and malaria mono-infections, much remains unknown

about the clinical consequences when both these infections occur in one individual. Only a handful of case reports have described the symptomatology of VL-malaria co-infections, and larger scale studies have shown contradictory results.[6, 16-26] A case-control analysis of hospitalised VL patients in Amudat Hospital found that co-occurring malaria did not clearly exacerbate the clinical picture of VL, and correlated with a lower frequency of anaemia.[6] On the other hand, a study in Sudan in patients with VL-malaria co-infection revealed an increased frequency of anaemia, emaciation and jaundice, compared with their VL mono-infected counterparts.[23] As neither of these studies included a control group of malaria mono-infected patients, it was not studied how malaria symptomatology is affected by a co-occurring VL infection. Hence, additional research into the clinical interactions seen in VL-malaria co-infections is warranted to improve recognition and management of this condition.

Beneath the clinical features of a VL-malaria co-infection lie the pathophysiological processes and immune responses elicited by the infecting *Leishmania* and *Plasmodium* parasites, which have both developed mechanisms to evade host immunity and alter it to their advantage.[27-29] During a VL-malaria co-infection, *Leishmania* and *Plasmodium* parasites will simultaneously modulate the host immune response, which may have an effect on the control or progression of the concomitant disease. Such mechanisms are well known for people living with HIV, but have also been described for conditions of polyparasitism, such as helminth co-infections in malaria and *Leishmania* patients.[30-35] So far, there has been limited research into the parasitological and immunological dynamics during

VL-malaria co-infections. Results from animal models have shown both aggravating and mitigating effects of the two diseases upon each other.[36-40] To date, there has only been a single study looking at the immunology of VL-malaria co-infections in humans: Van den Bogaart *et al.* compared the cytokine profiles of VL and malaria mono- and co-infected patients in Sudan and found that the immune response during a co-infection was mainly characterised by the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and reflected features of the responses seen in both mono-infections.[41] Interestingly, high levels of the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-17A distinguished co-infected patients from both mono-infected groups, suggesting a synergistic interaction of the two diseases. The same study also found a significantly lower *Plasmodium* parasitaemia in VL-malaria co-infected patients compared to malaria mono-infections. As the interpretation of these study results is limited by their cross-sectional nature, longitudinal assessment of patients with VL-malaria co-infections and comparison with mono-infected patients (both clinical and asymptomatic) is required to unravel the associations between the immune response, parasite loads and clinical features.

To address the knowledge gaps in our understanding of VL-malaria co-infections, this paper describes the protocol of an observational research project aimed at characterising VL-malaria co-infections in West Pokot on three different levels: symptomatology, epidemiology and immunology. These aspects will be studied respectively by means of a cross-sectional study, a case-control study and a cohort study. The research project will be conducted at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital in West Pokot through a collaboration between the Amsterdam University Medical Centres, Amref Health Africa and the Kenya Ministry of Health (MoH).

Study objectives

- The following study objectives have been formulated for this research project:
 - To determine the prevalence of VL and malaria co-infections among patients suspected with either infection attending Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, West Pokot, Kenya.

- To identify and compare clinical features and parasitaemias of patients with malaria and VL mono- and co-infections and establish whether a co-infection exacerbates or alleviates symptoms of both diseases.
- To identify individual and household level determinants of VL-malaria co-infections in West Pokot, Kenya.
- To examine and compare the cytokine response in patients with VL and malaria mono- and coinfections (both clinical and asymptomatic), before, during and after treatment, and determine whether these cytokine responses can be related to the (sub)clinical presentation of the infection(s).

METHODS

Study design

To address the different study objectives, this research project will consist of three components: a prospective, hospital-based cross-sectional study among patients; a case-control study among hospital patients and healthy volunteers in local communities; and a prospective cohort study among hospital patients and healthy and asymptomatically infected household members of these patients.

For the prospective cross-sectional study, patients attending Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital in West Pokot, Kenya, with clinical suspicion of malaria and/or VL infection will be asked to participate. Laboratory diagnostic tests will be performed for both malaria and VL in consenting patients. A patient will be included in the study if positive for one or both infections. Clinical and parasitological data will be collected from these study subjects and compared between VL-malaria co-infected cases and patients with VL and malaria mono-infections.

Participants of the cross-sectional study will also serve as cases in the case-control study, to whom a structured household questionnaire will be administered. Exposure to certain individual and

household factors will be compared between mono- and co-infected patients. Additionally, per VL-infected case, two age- and sex-matched healthy controls living in the same village as the case will be recruited and administered the questionnaire as well.

Lastly, a small cohort of subjects of the cross-sectional study with confirmed VL and/or malaria infection will be followed up during standard treatment. This cohort study will entail repeated collection of venous blood samples from participating patients, to characterise their immunological profiles over time. Additionally, blood samples will also be collected from healthy individuals and asymptomatic VL/malaria cases, who will be actively recruited in the households of the patient cohort. The healthy individuals will provide immunological baseline data, whereas the immunological profiles of asymptomatic VL/malaria cases will be compared to those of patients with active clinical disease. Healthy and asymptomatic subjects will be sampled once upon inclusion into the study. In case asymptomatic cases require treatment for their VL and/or malaria infection, they will also be sampled several times during this treatment.

Study site and timing

The research will be performed in West Pokot County in Kenya, an area that is endemic for VL year-round and has seasonal transmission of malaria. Previous studies have reported that VL-malaria co-infections occur in the Pokot region.[3, 4, 6] Participants will be recruited from the catchment area of the Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, which is a government hospital located about 40 km northwest of West Pokot's county capital, Kapenguria. It is an important regional reference centre for VL diagnosis and treatment, supported by Drugs for Neglected Diseases Initiative (DNDi).[42] The study will be conducted in October and November 2022. This two-month period coincides with the short rainy season (October – December) during which malaria incidence often peaks.[43]

Study population

The population of the cross-sectional study will comprise individuals who attend the Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital and have a laboratory confirmed infection with VL and/or malaria. The study participants will be grouped according to their VL and malaria diagnosis, as determined by routine diagnostic procedures:

- Newly diagnosed patients with active primary VL, defined as patients with clinical symptoms such as prolonged fever (>2 weeks), splenomegaly, weakness or wasting, with either a positive rk39 rapid diagnostic test (RDT), positive Direct Agglutination Test (DAT titre ≥ 1:3200) and/or microscopy-positive spleen aspirate.
- Patients with uncomplicated malaria, defined as patients with fever or history of fever within the last 48 hours (with or without other symptoms) and a positive thick and thin blood film for *Plasmodium*, with a parasite count <250,000/μL of blood.
- Patients co-infected with malaria and primary VL (actively for one or both infections) defined as patients with symptoms of VL and/or malaria, with a positive *Plasmodium* blood film (parasite count <250,000/μL of blood) and positive VL diagnostic test (rk39 RDT, DAT, spleen aspirate).

All subjects of the cross-sectional study will also be included as cases in the case-control study. Two age- and sex-matched healthy controls per VL-infected case (including those co-infected with malaria) will be recruited in the case's village of residence and will be defined as individuals without current signs or symptoms of VL or malaria, no history of VL, no malaria in the preceding two weeks, and with a negative rk39 RDT and negative malaria RDT. The individual should have lived in their current house for at least one year.

Clinical subjects of the cohort study will be recruited among the mono- and co-infected participants of the cross-sectional study. Only malaria infections with *P. falciparum* will be eligible, and the patient

 must be aged between 6 and 30 years old. These age limits are set to exclude infants and children whose immune system has not yet fully developed, and patients above 30 years who are more likely to have developed a significant level of acquired immunity to malaria.[6, 44] The cohort study will also recruit healthy controls and asymptomatic cases in the households of the clinically ill participants. This recruitment strategy will minimise the variability of environmental confounders between the different study groups. Moreover, the likelihood of finding asymptomatic VL and malaria infections will be higher in households of symptomatic patients.[45-49] The healthy and asymptomatic cohorts are defined as follows:

- Healthy endemic controls, defined as individuals above the age of 6 years, without current signs or symptoms of VL or malaria, with no self-reported history of VL, no malaria in the preceding two weeks, with a negative DAT test (DAT titre ≤ 1:200) and negative malaria blood films.
- Patients with asymptomatic VL, defined as individuals above the age of 6 years, without VL-associated symptoms for at least 15 days before study inclusion and no self-reported history of active VL, with a positive DAT (DAT titre ≥ 1:3200).
- Patients with asymptomatic malaria, defined as individuals above the age of 6 years, with no symptoms suggestive of malaria at the time of inclusion and with no history of malaria in the preceding two weeks, with a positive thick and thin blood film for *P. falciparum*.

Sample size

The cross-sectional study aims to include 244 malaria infected patients, allowing to detect an odds ratio (OR) of 1.8 at a confidence level of 95% (two-sided), with an expected 20% of exposure among VL-infected cases and a power of 80%.[50] Within the two-month time frame of the study, all patients at the study hospital with a confirmed VL infection will be included. Considering that 350 VL cases were reported at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital in the first five months of 2022 (personal communication with David Kiptanui, clinical officer at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, 2022), this

pragmatic approach is expected to recruit approximately 140 VL patients. Among these subjects, approximately 5 to 30 cases are expected to be co-infected with malaria, based on previously reported co-infection rates in Kacheliba Hospital ranging from 3.8% to 21.4%.[4]

All participants of the cross-sectional study will also be included in the case-control study. Additionally, two healthy controls will be recruited per VL-infected patient, meaning that the study will aim to include approximately 280 healthy controls.

Given the explorative nature of the immunological cohort study, the population size per study group will be set at 20 to 30 subjects, depending on their availability. Based on the results of Van den Bogaart *et al.* about cytokine levels in VL-malaria co-infected patients, this group size should be sufficient to detect significant differences in immunological parameters with 80% power at 5% level of statistical significance.[41]

Clinical sample and data collection

Cross-sectional study

Patients presenting at the study hospital with clinical signs and/or symptoms indicating a potential malaria and/or VL infection will be asked to participate in the study if they meet the inclusion criteria. After giving their informed consent, their clinical features and medical history will be recorded on a case report form (CRF). Patients not willing to participate in the research will be excluded from the study and will be referred to the clinician for usual diagnosis and treatment. Included participants will be tested at the hospital for both malaria and VL according to routine procedures: a finger prick blood sample will be collected to prepare a thick and thin blood film for microscopic detection of malaria. VL diagnosis will be done by means of an rk39 RDT for detection of VL antibodies in finger prick blood. In case of a negative rk39 test, a direct agglutination test (DAT) will be performed to confirm or rule out VL. If the DAT result is borderline, a spleen aspirate will be taken for parasitological diagnosis by microscopy. All test outcomes, data on malaria parasitaemia (as determined by microscopy) and DAT

titre will be recorded. Patients who test negative for both malaria and VL will be excluded from thestudy.

The finger prick blood of each participant will also be used to measure the haemoglobin (Hb) level and to prepare dried blood spots (DBS) on a filter paper card. These will be sent to the Amref Health Laboratories in Nairobi, where they will be used for DNA extraction and confirmation of malaria and/or VL diagnosis using real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR). This will allow for detection of low density malaria/VL infections that might be missed by the point-of-care diagnostics, and for quantitation of parasite densities.

According to the diagnosis outcome at the clinic, participants will be treated for their infection(s) through the Kenyan national treatment programme for VL and malaria.[2, 51] Before treatment is initiated, some patients will be asked to participate in the cohort study as well.

Case-control study

 Directly after the participants of the cross-sectional study have received the first treatment for their infection, a trained interviewer will administer a structured household questionnaire. Information collected will include place of residence, housing conditions, house environment, occupation, sleeping habits, night time activities and travel history. Participants below the age of 15 years may be assisted in answering questions by their parent or legal guardian.

For each VL-infected patient case, two healthy controls will be recruited at the case's village of residence. At the central point of the village, a household will be randomly selected by spinning a pen. In the selected household, an individual, age- and sex-matched with the VL-infected case and meeting the eligibility criteria, will be asked to participate. If multiple household members are eligible, one will be selected by rolling a die. After providing informed consent, finger prick blood from the household member will be tested with a malaria RDT and a VL rk39 RDT to exclude both infections. In case both tests are negative, the structured household questionnaire will be administered to the healthy control,

or parent/legal guardian in case of children <15 years. Afterwards, a pen will be spun at the doorstep of the house to select the next household where the second matched control will be recruited. All procedures will be repeated until two healthy controls per VL-infected case have been recruited.

Cohort study

Subjects in the cross-sectional study with a laboratory confirmed infection with VL, *P. falciparum* malaria or both will be asked to participate in the cohort study as well. After giving informed consent, they will be monitored during the treatment of their infection(s). Treatment will be according to the national treatment guidelines for both infections: for VL, this is sodium stibogluconate (SSG) injections (20 mg/kg body weight/day) and paromomycin (PM) injections (15 mg/kg body weight/day) for 17 days;[2] for uncomplicated *P. falciparum* malaria, oral doses of 20 mg artemether and 120 mg lumefantrine tablets, twice per day for three days (dosing adjusted by weight and age).[51] In case of VL-malaria co-infection, malaria is treated first before initiation of VL treatment. From each participant, 10 mL of peripheral venous blood (5 mL in a serum isolation tube, 5 mL in an EDTA anticoagulation tube) will be collected prior to treatment initiation (day 0) and on the following time points during their treatment:

- In VL mono-infected patients, on day 7 of VL treatment and day 17 (end of VL treatment);
- In malaria mono-infected patients, on day 1 of malaria treatment and day 3 (end of malaria treatment);
- In VL-malaria co-infected patients, on day 1 and day 3 of malaria treatment, and day 7 and day
 17 of VL treatment.
- 296 At each follow-up time point, the patients' clinical features will be recorded on their CRF.
 - Healthy individuals and cases with asymptomatic VL or malaria will be recruited by a study team visiting the households of the clinically ill participants of the cohort study. When a household member has no history of VL or recent malaria and shows no symptoms of either disease, a finger prick blood sample

will be taken for microscopic detection of malaria and for VL testing with DAT at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital. Based on the results of these tests, participants will be grouped either in the healthy control cohort, the asymptomatic malaria cohort or the asymptomatic VL cohort. The study team will return to the local communities to share the results with the respective participants. Participants that complain of symptoms suggestive of VL and/or malaria at this stage will be referred for further management and excluded from the study. If still without symptoms, participants will be physically examined and 10 mL of venous blood (5 mL in a silicone-coated tube for separating the serum, 5 mL in EDTA anticoagulation tube) will be collected. Healthy controls will only be sampled at this time. Asymptomatically infected patients will be referred to Kacheliba Hospital for further management. If placed on treatment, the asymptomatic patients will be sampled during their treatment, following the same scheme as the clinically ill patients of the cohort study.

All collected venous blood samples will be processed at the Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital for isolation of serum, white blood cell (WBC) counting using an automated blood cell counter and preparation of DBS. DBS cards will be shipped to the Amref Laboratories, where they will be used for DNA isolation and subsequent qPCR for *Plasmodium* and *Leishmania* detection and quantitation. Isolated serum samples will be sent to the Amsterdam UMC and used in a Luminex-based assay, to measure levels of pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines that have been shown to play an important role in the immune response against VL and/or malaria: TNF-α, IFN-γ, IL-1β, IL-2, IL-4, IL-10, IL-12p70, IL-13, IL-17A and IL-22.[41, 52-58]

Statistical analysis

Cross-sectional study

All data collected from the cross-sectional study will be compared between VL mono-infected cases, malaria mono-infected cases and VL-malaria co-infected cases. In a univariate analysis, the association between a VL-malaria co-infection and measured characteristics will be explored using the Pearson

 Chi-square test or the Fisher Exact Probability test. Continuous variables will be categorized into predefined groups. Found associations will be quantified as prevalence odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals, determined at the 5% level. To identify independent characteristics associated with VL-malaria co-infection and adjust for confounding, a multivariate logistic regression model will be made in a backward stepwise manner with variables that have a p-value <0.10 in the univariate analyses. Only variables with a p-value <0.05 will be retained in the final model.

Case-control study

Data collected with the structured questionnaire will be used to identify household and environmental risk factors associated with VL and malaria (co-)infections in West Pokot. VL and malaria infections will be considered as two separate response variables, for which individual univariate logistic regression analyses will be applied to evaluate associations (expressed as odds ratios) with the questionnaire variables. Per predefined thematic section of the household questionnaire, variables with a p-value of <0.2 in the univariate analysis will be included in a multivariate regression model. The same variables will also be used as input for multivariate multiple response regression models, which will identify predictors that jointly contribute to both VL and malaria infections and as such, co-infections. Both the separate disease models and multiple response models of each section will be optimised through stepwise backward elimination of variables with p>0.2. The retained significant variables of each thematic section will then be merged into final multivariate regression models for VL, malaria and VL-malaria co-infections, in which only significant (p<0.05) variables will be kept.

Cohort study

Cytokine levels and clinical characteristics measured at baseline (day 0) in VL-malaria co-infected patients will be compared to those of VL or malaria mono-infected patients, either actively or asymptomatically, and of healthy controls, who will provide immunological reference data. Longitudinal comparison of cytokine levels will be performed within the separate groups that are

Ethics and dissemination

 The protocol of this study received ethical approval from the Amref Health Africa Ethics and Scientific Review Committee (ref. ESRC P1196/2022). The ESRC is accredited by the Kenyan National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). A NACOSTI research license was obtained before study initiation (ref. 791964).

Written informed consent will be collected from all participants, or their parents/legal guardians, for study participation, export of clinical samples for analysis at the Amsterdam UMC and future use of study data and samples. All collected data and clinical specimens will be anonymized and stored at the Amsterdam UMC for at least 5 years after completion of the study. Dataset will be available upon reasonable request to the corresponding author. None of the results of the study will be published with individual name identification or with identifiers of patients.

All study findings will be communicated to the national health authorities of Kenya. The research team will write scientific papers on the study results, which will be submitted to open-access, peer-reviewed international scientific journals and presented at national and international scientific meetings.

Patient and public involvement

Due to the remote setting in which this study will be conducted, it was not possible to involve the local public of West Pokot in the design phase of the study. However, during study implementation, awareness among local communities will be achieved by involvement of community leaders and the

patients recruited at the hospital. Community health workers will be approached to assist with the recruitment of asymptomatic patients and healthy controls in local villages. Patients, local health care staff and the public will be consulted to select an appropriate method for dissemination of the study findings among the community.

DISCUSSION

With a cross-sectional study, a case-control study and a cohort study, this observational research project will apply a multifaceted approach to address important knowledge gaps concerning the clinical implications, environmental risk factors and immunology of VL-malaria co-infections in West Pokot. The significance of these studies is underlined by the fact that concomitant VL and malaria infections are still largely neglected, despite the apparently high rates of this condition in West Pokot. [3, 4, 6] This research will contribute to increased awareness among the local population of West Pokot, its healthcare workers and disease control policy makers. This may lead to more timely detection and treatment of VL-malaria co-infections, thereby reducing associated morbidity and mortality.

This will be the first study to describe the parasite dynamics and cytokine responses of VL-malaria co-infection in a longitudinal fashion. This approach will allow investigating associations of the immunological profile of a VL-malaria co-infection with its clinical picture. Although cytokine levels only partly reflect the full scope of the immune response mounted against a VL-malaria co-infection, findings from this explorative study will generate an evidential basis to direct future research into co-infection immunology. Eventually, better understanding of the immunology of VL-malaria co-infections will help improve clinical management and support the development of official treatment guidelines.

The questionnaire study will generate critical data on individual, household and environmental factors that may increase the risk of co-acquiring VL and malaria. In this way, the results of the case-control study can guide a more targeted approach to control and elimination of both infections in the Pokot

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

NvD was responsible for the instigation of this research project, developed the protocol and drafted the manuscript. JC, PM and HS contributed to the study design and protocol development, and critically read the manuscript. WO provided national surveillance and healthcare data on VL and malaria in Kenya and critically read the protocol and manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

FUNDING

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-forprofit sectors.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank David Kiptanui (Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital) for providing low-level data on the current incidence and clinical epidemiology of VL, malaria and co-infections in the catchment area of Kacheliba Hospital.

DEEEDENCES

414	REFERENCES
415	1. Alvar J, den Boer M, Dagne DA. Towards the elimination of visceral leishmaniasis as a public health
416	problem in east Africa: reflections on an enhanced control strategy and a call for action.
417	Lancet Glob Health 2021;9(12):e1763-e69. doi: 10.1016/s2214-109x(21)00392-2 [published
418	Online First: 2021/11/20]
419	2. Prevention, Diagnosis and Treatment of Visceral Leishmaniasis (Kala-Azar) in Kenya: National
420	Guideline for Health Workers: Kenya Ministry of Health, 2017.
421	3. Kolaczinski JH, Reithinger R, Worku DT, et al. Risk factors of visceral leishmaniasis in East Africa: a
422	case-control study in Pokot territory of Kenya and Uganda. Int J Epidemiol 2008;37(2):344-52.
423	doi: 10.1093/ije/dym275 [published Online First: 2008/01/11]
424	4. Mueller YK, Kolaczinski JH, Koech T, et al. Clinical epidemiology, diagnosis and treatment of visceral
425	leishmaniasis in the Pokot endemic area of Uganda and Kenya. Am J Trop Med Hyg
426	2014;90(1):33-39. doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.13-0150 [published Online First: 2013/11/13]
427	5. Kenya Malaria Strategy 2019-2023. Nairobi: National Malaria Control Programme, Ministry of
428	Health, Kenya, 2019.
429	6. van den Bogaart E, Berkhout MM, Adams ER, et al. Prevalence, features and risk factors for malaria
430	co-infections amongst visceral leishmaniasis patients from Amudat Hospital, Uganda. PLoS
431	Negl Trop Dis 2012;6(4):e1617. doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0001617 [published Online First:
432	2012/04/17]
433	7. Sinka ME, Bangs MJ, Manguin S, et al. The dominant Anopheles vectors of human malaria in Africa,
434	Europe and the Middle East: occurrence data, distribution maps and bionomic precis. <i>Parasit</i>
435	Vectors 2010;3:117. doi: 10.1186/1756-3305-3-117 [published Online First: 2010/12/07]
436	8. Ondiba IM, Oyieke FA, Athinya DK, et al. Larval species diversity, seasonal occurrence and larval

habitat preference of mosquitoes transmitting Rift Valley fever and malaria in Baringo

438	County, Kenya. Parasit Vectors 2019;12(1):295. doi: 10.1186/s13071-019-3557-x [published
439	Online First: 2019/06/13]
440	9. Ondiba IM, Oyieke FA, Ong'amo GO, et al. Malaria vector abundance is associated with house
441	structures in Baringo County, Kenya. PLoS One 2018;13(6):e0198970. doi:
442	10.1371/journal.pone.0198970 [published Online First: 2018/06/12]
443	10. Gebre-Michael T, Lane RP. The roles of Phlebotomus martini and P.celiae (Diptera:
444	Phlebotominae) as vectors of visceral leishmaniasis in the Aba Roba focus, southern Ethiopia
445	Med Vet Entomol 1996;10(1):53-62. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2915.1996.tb00082.x [published
446	Online First: 1996/01/01]
447	11. Heisch RB, Wijers DJ, Minter DM. In pursuit of the vector of kala-azar in Kenya. Br Med J
448	1962;1(5290):1456-8. doi: 10.1136/bmj.1.5290.1456 [published Online First: 1962/05/26]
449	12. Minter DM. Seasonal changes in populations of phlebotomine sandflies (Diptera, Psychodidae) in
450	Kenya. Bull Entomol Res 1964;55:421–35.
451	13. Ngumbi PM, Lrungu LW, Robert LI, et al. Abundances and nocturnal activities of phlebotomine
452	sandflies (Diptera: Psychodidae) in termite hills and animal burrows in Baringo District,
453	Kenya. Afr J Health Sci 1998;5(1):28-34. [published Online First: 2007/06/22]
454	14. Southgate BA, Oriedo BV. Studies in the epidemiology of East African leishmaniasis. 1. The
455	circumstantial epidemiology of kala-azar in the Kitui District of Kenya. Trans R Soc Trop Med
456	Hyg 1962;56:30-47. doi: 10.1016/0035-9203(62)90087-1 [published Online First:
457	1962/01/01]
458	15. Southgate BA. The structure of foci of visceral leishmaniasis in north-eastern Kenya. <i>Collques</i>
459	Intern Centre Nat Recherche Scientif 1977;239:241-47.
460	16. Farooqui HAM, Aziz MA. Combination of Malaria and Visceral Leishmaniasis in a Child of Two
461	Years. <i>JPMA</i> 1984;34(138):138-40.
462	17. Singh BJ, Kumar A. Splenic infarctions in mixed infection with kala azar and falciparum malaria. J
463	Assoc Physicians India 1991;39(3):293. [published Online First: 1991/03/01]

464	18. Nandy A, Addy M, Guha SK, et al. Co-existent kala-azar and malaria in India. Trans R Soc Trop Med
465	Hyg 1995;89(5):516. doi: 10.1016/0035-9203(95)90091-8 [published Online First:
466	1995/09/01]
467	19. SAHA K, CHATTOPADHYA D, KULPATI DD. Concomitant Kala-azar, Malaria, and Progressive
468	Unstable Interminate Leprosy in an 8-Year-Old Child. Journal of Tropical Pediatrics
469	1998;44(4):247-48. doi: 10.1093/tropej/44.4.247
470	20. Sah SP, Sharma SK, Rani S. Kala Azar Associated With Malaria. Archives of Pathology & Laboratory
471	Medicine 2002;126(3):382-83. doi: 10.5858/2002-126-0382-kaawm
472	21. Woodrow JP, Hartzell JD, Czarnik J, et al. Cutaneous and presumed visceral leishmaniasis in a
473	soldier deployed to Afghanistan. MedGenMed 2006;8(4):43. [published Online First:
474	2007/04/07]
475	22. Ab Rahman AK, Abdullah FH. Visceral leishmaniasis (kala-azar) and malaria coinfection in an
476	immigrant in the state of Terengganu, Malaysia: A case report. Journal of Microbiology,
477	Immunology and Infection 2011;44(1):72-76. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmii.2011.01.014
478	23. van den Bogaart E, Berkhout MM, Nour AB, et al. Concomitant malaria among visceral
479	leishmaniasis in-patients from Gedarif and Sennar States, Sudan: a retrospective case-control
480	study. BMC Public Health 2013;13:332. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-13-332 [published Online
481	First: 2013/04/13]
482	24. Bin Mohanna MA. Leishmaniasis, malaria, and schistosomiasis concurrently in an 8-year-old boy.
483	Saudi Med J 2015;36(4):494-6. doi: 10.15537/smj.2015.4.10757 [published Online First:
484	2015/04/02]
485	25. Ghimire PG, Ghimire P, Adhikari J, et al. A case report of visceral leishmaniasis and malaria co-
486	infection with pancytopenia and splenomegaly - a diagnostic challenge. BMC Infect Dis
487	2019;19(1):849. doi: 10.1186/s12879-019-4478-1 [published Online First: 2019/10/17]

488	26. Topno RK, Kumar R, Pandey K, et al. A co-infection with malaria and visceral leishmaniasis in
489	Eastern state of India. La Presse Médicale 2019;48(3, Part 1):328-31. doi:
490	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lpm.2018.04.017
491	27. Reiner SL, Zheng S, Wang ZE, et al. Leishmania promastigotes evade interleukin 12 (IL-12)
492	induction by macrophages and stimulate a broad range of cytokines from CD4+ T cells during
493	initiation of infection. <i>J Exp Med</i> 1994;179(2):447-56. doi: 10.1084/jem.179.2.447 [published
494	Online First: 1994/02/01]
495	28. Chandra D, Naik S. Leishmania donovani infection down-regulates TLR2-stimulated IL-12p40 and
496	activates IL-10 in cells of macrophage/monocytic lineage by modulating MAPK pathways
497	through a contact-dependent mechanism. Clin Exp Immunol 2008;154(2):224-34. doi:
498	10.1111/j.1365-2249.2008.03741.x [published Online First: 2008/09/10]
499	29. Gomes PS, Bhardwaj J, Rivera-Correa J, et al. Immune Escape Strategies of Malaria Parasites.
500	Front Microbiol 2016;7:1617. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2016.01617 [published Online First:
501	2016/11/02]
502	30. Lyke KE, Dicko A, Dabo A, et al. Association of Schistosoma haematobium infection with
503	protection against acute Plasmodium falciparum malaria in Malian children. Am J Trop Med
504	Hyg 2005;73(6):1124-30. [published Online First: 2005/12/16]
505	31. Spiegel A, Tall A, Raphenon G, et al. Increased frequency of malaria attacks in subjects co-infected
506	by intestinal worms and Plasmodium falciparum malaria. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg
507	2003;97(2):198-9. doi: 10.1016/s0035-9203(03)90117-9 [published Online First: 2003/10/31]
508	32. Nacher M, Singhasivanon P, Yimsamran S, et al. Intestinal helminth infections are associated with
509	increased incidence of Plasmodium falciparum malaria in Thailand. J Parasitol 2002;88(1):55-
510	8. doi: 10.1645/0022-3395(2002)088[0055:IHIAAW]2.0.CO;2 [published Online First:
511	2002/06/11]
512	33. Lemaitre M, Watier L, Briand V, et al. Coinfection with Plasmodium falciparum and Schistosoma
513	haematohium: additional evidence of the protective effect of Schistosomiasis on malaria in

514	Senegalese children. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2014;90(2):329-34. doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.12-0431
515	[published Online First: 2013/12/11]
516	34. La Flamme AC, Scott P, Pearce EJ. Schistosomiasis delays lesion resolution during Leishmania
517	major infection by impairing parasite killing by macrophages. Parasite Immunol
518	2002;24(7):339-45. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-3024.2002.00473.x [published Online First:
519	2002/08/08]
520	35. O'Neal SE, Guimarães LH, Machado PR, et al. Influence of helminth infections on the clinical
521	course of and immune response to Leishmania braziliensis cutaneous leishmaniasis. J Infect
522	Dis 2007;195(1):142-8. doi: 10.1086/509808 [published Online First: 2006/12/08]
523	36. Adler S. The behaviour of Plasmodium berghei in the golden hamster Mesocricetus auratus
524	infected with visceral leishmaniasis. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 1954;48(5):431-40. doi:
525	10.1016/0035-9203(54)90145-5 [published Online First: 1954/09/01]
526	37. Coleman RE, Edman JD, Semprevivo LH. Interactions between Plasmodium yoelii and Leishmania
527	mexicana amazonensis in Leishmania resistant C57B1/6 mice. Am J Trop Med Hyg
528	1988;39(6):540-4. doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.1988.39.540 [published Online First: 1988/12/01]
529	38. Coleman RE, Edman JD, Semprevivo LH. Leishmania mexicana: effect of concomitant malaria on
530	cutaneous leishmaniasis. Development of lesions in a Leishmania-susceptible (BALB/c) strain
531	of mouse. Exp Parasitol 1988;65(2):269-76. doi: 10.1016/0014-4894(88)90131-2 [published
532	Online First: 1988/04/01]
533	39. Marques CS, Rolao N, Centeno-Lima S, et al. Studies in a co-infection murine model of
534	Plasmodium chabaudi chabaudi and Leishmania infantum: interferon-gamma and
535	interleukin-4 mRNA expression. Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz 2005;100(8):889-92. doi:
536	10.1590/s0074-02762005000800011 [published Online First: 2006/01/31]
537	40. Pinna RA, Silva-Dos-Santos D, Perce-da-Silva DS, et al. Malaria-Cutaneous Leishmaniasis Co-
538	infection: Influence on Disease Outcomes and Immune Response. Front Microbiol
539	2016;7:982. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2016.00982 [published Online First: 2016/07/23]

540	41. van den Bogaart E, Talha AB, Straetemans M, et al. Cytokine profiles amongst Sudanese patients
541	with visceral leishmaniasis and malaria co-infections. BMC Immunol 2014;15:16. doi:
542	10.1186/1471-2172-15-16 [published Online First: 2014/06/03]
543	42. Namulen AIK, S; Kombe, Y. Knowledge, Attitude and Practices of Guardians on Nutritional Status
544	of Children with Visceral Leishmaniasis Attending Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, West Pokot
545	County, Kenya. <i>Afr J Health Sci</i> 2021;34(3):305-28.
546	43. Kenya Malaria Indicator Survey 2020. Nairobi, Kenya and Rockville, Maryland, USA: Division of
547	National Malaria Programme (DNMP) [Kenya] and ICF, 2021.
548	44. Hay SI, Noor AM, Simba M, et al. Clinical epidemiology of malaria in the highlands of western
549	Kenya. Emerg Infect Dis 2002;8(6):543-8. doi: 10.3201/eid0806.010309 [published Online
550	First: 2002/05/25]
551	45. Custodio E, Gadisa E, Sordo L, et al. Factors associated with Leishmania asymptomatic infection:
552	results from a cross-sectional survey in highland northern Ethiopia. PLoS Negl Trop Dis
553	2012;6(9):e1813. doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0001813 [published Online First: 2012/10/03]
554	46. Nackers F, Mueller YK, Salih N, et al. Determinants of Visceral Leishmaniasis: A Case-Control Study
555	in Gedaref State, Sudan. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 2015;9(11):e0004187. doi:
556	10.1371/journal.pntd.0004187 [published Online First: 2015/11/07]
557	47. Bjorkman A, Cook J, Sturrock H, et al. Spatial Distribution of Falciparum Malaria Infections in
558	Zanzibar: Implications for Focal Drug Administration Strategies Targeting Asymptomatic
559	Parasite Carriers. Clin Infect Dis 2017;64(9):1236-43. doi: 10.1093/cid/cix136 [published
560	Online First: 2017/04/22]
561	48. Stresman GH, Kamanga A, Moono P, et al. A method of active case detection to target reservoirs
562	of asymptomatic malaria and gametocyte carriers in a rural area in Southern Province,
563	Zambia. Malar J 2010;9:265. doi: 10.1186/1475-2875-9-265 [published Online First:

2010/10/06]

565	49. Sturrock HJ, Novotny JM, Kunene S, et al. Reactive case detection for malaria elimination: real-life
566	experience from an ongoing program in Swaziland. PLoS One 2013;8(5):e63830. doi:
567	10.1371/journal.pone.0063830 [published Online First: 2013/05/24]
568	50. Fleiss JL, Levin B, Paik MC. Statistical Methods for Rates and Proportions. 3rd ed. Hoboken: Wiley
569	2003.
570	51. National Guidelines for the Diagnosis, Treatment and Prevention of Malaria in Kenya. Third
571	Edition ed. Nairobi: Ministry of Public Health and Sanitation & Ministry of Medical Services,
572	2010.
573	52. Rodrigues V, Cordeiro-da-Silva A, Laforge M, et al. Regulation of immunity during visceral
574	Leishmania infection. Parasite Vector 2016;9(1):118. doi: 10.1186/s13071-016-1412-x
575	53. Babaloo Z, Oskoei MR, Kohansal MH, et al. Serum profile of IL-1β and IL-17 cytokines in patients
576	with visceral leishmaniasis. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2020;69:101431. doi:
577	10.1016/j.cimid.2020.101431 [published Online First: 2020/02/15]
578	54. Pitta MG, Romano A, Cabantous S, et al. IL-17 and IL-22 are associated with protection against
579	human kala azar caused by Leishmania donovani. J Clin Invest 2009;119(8):2379-87. doi:
580	10.1172/jci38813 [published Online First: 2009/07/22]
581	55. Mandala WL, Msefula CL, Gondwe EN, et al. Cytokine Profiles in Malawian Children Presenting
582	with Uncomplicated Malaria, Severe Malarial Anemia, and Cerebral Malaria. Clin Vaccine
583	Immunol 2017;24(4) doi: 10.1128/CVI.00533-16 [published Online First: 2017/01/27]
584	56. Oyegue-Liabagui SL, Bouopda-Tuedom AG, Kouna LC, et al. Pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines
585	in children with malaria in Franceville, Gabon. Am J Clin Exp Immunol 2017;6(2):9-20.
586	[published Online First: 2017/03/25]
587	57. Noone C, Parkinson M, Dowling DJ, et al. Plasma cytokines, chemokines and cellular immune
588	responses in pre-school Nigerian children infected with Plasmodium falciparum. Malaria
589	Journal 2013;12(1):5. doi: 10.1186/1475-2875-12-5

590 58. Samant M, Sahu U, Pandey SC, et al. Role of Cytokines in Experimental and Human Visceral

Leishmaniasis. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 2021;11:624009. doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2021.624009

[published Online First: 2021/03/09]



	Item No	Recommendation	Pag No
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	1
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what	2
		was done and what was found	-
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	4
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	6
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	7
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of	8
C		recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	
Participants	6	(a) Cohort study—Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and	9
•		methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up	
		Case-control study—Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and	9
		methods of case ascertainment and control selection. Give the rationale	
		for the choice of cases and controls	
		Cross-sectional study—Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and	8
		methods of selection of participants	
		(b) Cohort study—For matched studies, give matching criteria and	9
		number of exposed and unexposed	
		Case-control study—For matched studies, give matching criteria and the	9
		number of controls per case	
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders,	11-
		and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	14
Data sources/	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods	11-
measurement		of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment	14
		methods if there is more than one group	
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	9-10
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	10
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If	14-
		applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	16
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for	14-
		confounding	16
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	14-
			16
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	N.A
		(d) Cohort study—If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was	N.A
		addressed	
		Case-control study—If applicable, explain how matching of cases and	12
		controls was addressed	
		Cross-sectional study—If applicable, describe analytical methods taking	14
		account of sampling strategy	

Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study,	N.A.
		completing follow-up, and analysed	NT A
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	N.A.
D : ::	1 44	(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	N.A.
Descriptive	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and	N.A.
data		information on exposures and potential confounders	N. A
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	N.A.
	4 - 0	(c) Cohort study—Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	N.A.
Outcome data	15*	Cohort study—Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	N.A.
		Case-control study—Report numbers in each exposure category, or summary measures of exposure	N.A.
		Cross-sectional study—Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures	N.A.
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and	N.A.
		their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were	
		adjusted for and why they were included	
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	N.A.
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a	N.A.
		meaningful time period	
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and	N.A.
		sensitivity analyses	
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	17
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or	17
		imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations,	N.A.
		multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	17
Other informati	on		
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if	18
		applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	

^{*}Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.

BMJ Open

Protocol for an observational study on the clinical features, immunological interactions and household determinants of visceral leishmaniasis and malaria co-infections in West Pokot, Kenya

Journal:	BMJ Open
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2022-068679.R1
Article Type:	Protocol
Date Submitted by the Author:	09-Mar-2023
Complete List of Authors:	van Dijk, Norbert; Amsterdam UMC Location AMC, Medical Microbiology and Infection Prevention; Amsterdam Institute for Infection and Immunity, Infectious Diseases Programme Carter, Jane; Amref Health Africa Omondi, Wyckliff; Kenya Ministry of Health, Division of Vector Borne and Neglected Tropical Diseases Mens, Petra; Amsterdam UMC Location AMC, Medical Microbiology and Infection Prevention; Amsterdam Institute for Infection and Immunity, Infectious Diseases Programme Schallig, Henk; Amsterdam UMC Location AMC, Medical Microbiology and Infection Prevention; Amsterdam Institute for Infection and Immunity, Infectious Diseases Programme
Primary Subject Heading :	Infectious diseases
Secondary Subject Heading:	Infectious diseases, Immunology (including allergy), Epidemiology
Keywords:	PARASITOLOGY, MICROBIOLOGY, Epidemiology < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, Immunology < TROPICAL MEDICINE

SCHOLARONE™ Manuscripts

- 1 Protocol for an observational study on the clinical features,
- 2 immunological interactions and household determinants of visceral
- 3 leishmaniasis and malaria co-infections in West Pokot, Kenya
- 4 Norbert J. van Dijk^{1,2}, Jane Y. Carter³, Wyckliff P. Omondi⁴, Petra F. Mens^{1,2}, Henk D.F.H. Schallig^{1,2}
- 5 Affiliations:
- 6 ¹Amsterdam UMC location University of Amsterdam, Department of Medical Microbiology and
- 7 Infection Prevention, Experimental Parasitology.
- 8 ²Amsterdam Institute for Infection and Immunity, Infectious Diseases Programme, Amsterdam, the
- 9 Netherlands.
- 10 ³Amref Health Africa Headquarters. Langata Road, Nairobi, Kenya.
- ⁴Ministry of Health Kenya, Division of Vector Borne and Neglected Tropical Diseases. Nairobi, Kenya.
- 13 Corresponding author:
- 14 Norbert J. van Dijk
- 15 Amsterdam UMC location University of Amsterdam, Department of Medical Microbiology and
- 16 Infection Prevention, Experimental Parasitology
- 17 Meibergdreef 9, 1105 AZ Amsterdam, the Netherlands
- 18 <u>n.j.vandijk@amsterdamumc.nl</u>
- **WORD COUNT:** 4691

Introduction: Visceral leishmaniasis (VL) and malaria are two deadly parasitic diseases that co-exist in West Pokot County, Kenya. The local population is at considerable risk of co-infection with VL and malaria, however, few studies have described the clinical implications of this co-morbidity. Questions remain regarding the immune responses responsible for possible predisposing or protective effects. Moreover, characterisation of environmental and household risk factors for co-acquiring VL and malaria is warranted to increase awareness and guide implementation of targeted control strategies. This protocol intends to address these knowledge gaps concerning VL-malaria co-infections. Methods and analysis: this observational research project will have a multimethod approach, starting with a cross-sectional study at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital in West Pokot, Kenya. Patients with laboratory confirmation of a VL and/or malaria infection will be clinically assessed and symptomatology of mono- and co-infections will be compared. Secondly, a questionnaire will be addressed to all included patients and to healthy controls in local communities. This case-control study will aim to describe household and environmental determinants associated with VL-malaria coinfection. Lastly, blood samples will be collected from a small cohort of VL and malaria mono- and coinfected patients during treatment of their infection(s), and from healthy controls and asymptomatic VL and malaria cases recruited in local communities. These specimens will be used for serum cytokine measurements and molecular quantitation of *Plasmodium* and *Leishmania*. In this way, the immune response and parasite dynamics during VL-malaria co-infection will be characterised longitudinally and compared to those observed in clinical and asymptomatic mono-infections. Ethics and Dissemination: Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics and Scientific Research Committee of Amref Health Africa. The study findings will be presented at international conferences

and published in open-access, peer-reviewed journals.

- **Study Registration:** This study protocol has been registered at the ISRCTN registry (ID:
- 45 ISRCTN15023306).
- **Key Words:** Visceral Leishmaniasis, Malaria, Coinfection, Study Protocol

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Through a tripartite design, this research project will address clinical, immunological and epidemiological knowledge gaps concerning VL-malaria co-infections.
- This will be the first study to investigate individual and household risk factors for VL-malaria co-infections in West Pokot, Kenya.
- Longitudinal characterisation of cytokine profiles in VL-malaria co-infections and comparison
 with both symptomatic and asymptomatic mono-infections will offer the opportunity to study
 associations between the immune response, parasite densities and clinical presentation.
- Given the lack of recent data on VL-malaria co-infection rates in West Pokot, the number of co-infected cases recruited in this study could potentially be low.
- Measuring cytokine levels will not reflect the full extent of the immune response induced by a VL-malaria co-infection.

INTRODUCTION

 Visceral leishmaniasis (VL) and malaria (caused by Leishmania and Plasmodium species, respectively) are two vector-borne protozoan parasite infections that cause high morbidity and mortality, particularly in remote regions of low income countries. In East Africa, Kenya is one of the countries most affected by VL.[1] Here, an important focus endemic VL transmission is located in West Pokot County, which is part of the Pokot territory situated at the border region between Kenya and Uganda.[2-4] Between 2018 and 2021, annual numbers of reported VL cases in West Pokot varied from 250 to 450, which is likely to be an underestimation of the actual incidence of this neglected disease. (unpublished data, patient records from Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, West Pokot County, Kenya) Apart from being endemic for VL, this area is also characterised by recurrent outbreaks of seasonal malaria, with 40,000 confirmed Plasmodium falciparum cases in 2020 (data from Kenya Ministry of Health, 2023).[5] Due to the overlapping epidemiology of VL and malaria in the Pokot region, the local population is at risk of being infected with both diseases concurrently. Indeed, it appears that coinfections with Leishmania donovani and P. falciparum are not uncommon: studies among VL patients attending the regional VL treatment hospitals of Kacheliba (Kenya) and Amudat (Uganda) have reported rates of concomitant malaria ranging from 3.8% to 34.4%.[3, 4, 6] Despite these apparently high numbers of VL-malaria co-infections, the condition is still understudied in terms of risk factors, clinical presentation and immunology. The overlap of VL and malaria transmission in West Pokot relies on the presence of favourable environmental conditions for their insect vectors, and subsequently, human exposure to these vectors. The local malaria mosquito vectors, Anopheles arabiensis and An. funestus, have a preference for dry savannah habitats where they lay eggs in small, temporary freshwater pools.[7, 8] As such, malaria incidence in West Pokot often peaks during and after seasonal rainfall. The individual malaria risk may vary from person to person due to household factors: house structure aspects have been associated with indoor Anopheles abundance in neighbouring Baringo County.[9] It is unknown whether these

 results are also applicable in the context of West Pokot. Like malaria, the endemicity of VL in West Pokot is partly attributable to its semi-arid climate. However, the ecology of the local VL vector is substantially different, as the sandfly *Phlebotomus martini* is believed to lay its eggs in the ventilation shafts of termite mounds.[10-13] Some studies have therefore found living close to these mounds to be associated with VL infection risk.[14, 15] Considering the differences in VL and malaria vector ecology in West Pokot, a very specific combination of human behavioural, environmental and household conditions may predispose for concomitant infections with both parasites. Better understanding of this VL-malaria co-infection risk profile is crucial for increasing awareness among exposed populations, and could also guide policy makers in drafting more focused VL and malaria vector control strategies.

Despite the potentially deadly outcome of VL and malaria mono-infections, much remains unknown

about the clinical consequences when both these infections occur in one individual. Only a handful of case reports have described the symptomatology of VL-malaria co-infections, and larger scale studies have shown contradictory results.[6, 16-26] A case-control analysis of hospitalised VL patients in Amudat Hospital found that co-occurring malaria did not clearly exacerbate the clinical picture of VL, and correlated with a lower frequency of anaemia.[6] On the other hand, a study in Sudan in patients with VL-malaria co-infection revealed an increased frequency of anaemia, emaciation and jaundice, compared with their VL mono-infected counterparts.[23] As neither of these studies included a control group of malaria mono-infected patients, it was not studied how malaria symptomatology is affected by a co-occurring VL infection. Hence, additional research into the clinical interactions seen in VL-malaria co-infections is warranted to improve recognition and management of this condition.

Beneath the clinical features of a VL-malaria co-infection lie the pathophysiological processes and immune responses elicited by the infecting *Leishmania* and *Plasmodium* parasites, which have both developed mechanisms to evade host immunity and alter it to their advantage.[27-29] During a VL-malaria co-infection, *Leishmania* and *Plasmodium* parasites will simultaneously modulate the host

immune response, which may have an effect on the control or progression of the concomitant disease. Such mechanisms are well known for people living with HIV, but have also been described for conditions of polyparasitism, such as helminth co-infections in malaria and Leishmania patients. [30-35] So far, there has been limited research into the parasitological and immunological dynamics during VL-malaria co-infections. Results from animal models have shown both aggravating and mitigating effects of the two diseases upon each other.[36-40] To date, there has only been a single study looking at the immunology of VL-malaria co-infections in humans: Van den Bogaart et al. compared the cytokine profiles of VL and malaria mono- and co-infected patients in Sudan and found that the immune response during a co-infection was mainly characterised by the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and reflected features of the responses seen in both mono-infections. [41] Interestingly, high levels of the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-17A distinguished co-infected patients from both monoinfected groups, suggesting a synergistic interaction of the two diseases. The same study also found a significantly lower Plasmodium parasitaemia in VL-malaria co-infected patients compared to malaria mono-infections. As the interpretation of these study results is limited by their cross-sectional nature, longitudinal assessment of patients with VL-malaria co-infections and comparison with mono-infected patients (both clinical and asymptomatic) is required to unravel the associations between the immune response, parasite loads and clinical features.

To address the knowledge gaps in our understanding of VL-malaria co-infections, this paper describes the protocol of an observational research project aimed at characterising VL-malaria co-infections in West Pokot on three different levels: symptomatology, epidemiology and immunology. These aspects will be studied respectively by means of a cross-sectional study, a case-control study and a cohort study. The research project will be conducted at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital in West Pokot through a collaboration between the Amsterdam University Medical Centres, Amref Health Africa and the Kenya Ministry of Health (MoH).

Study objectives

The following study objectives have been formulated for this research project:

- To determine the prevalence of VL and malaria co-infections among patients suspected with either infection attending Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, West Pokot, Kenya.
 - To identify and compare clinical features and parasitaemias of patients with malaria and VL mono- and co-infections and establish whether a co-infection exacerbates or alleviates symptoms of both diseases.
- To identify individual and household level determinants of VL-malaria co-infections in West Pokot, Kenya.
- To examine and compare the cytokine response in patients with VL and malaria mono- and coinfections (both clinical and asymptomatic), before, during and after treatment, and determine
 whether these cytokine responses can be related to the (sub)clinical presentation of the
 infection(s).

METHODS

Study design

To address the different study objectives, this research project will consist of three components: a prospective, hospital-based cross-sectional study among patients; a case-control study among hospital patients and healthy volunteers in local communities; and a prospective cohort study among hospital patients and healthy and asymptomatically infected household members of these patients.

For the prospective cross-sectional study, patients attending Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital in West Pokot, Kenya, with clinical suspicion of malaria and/or VL infection will be asked to participate. Laboratory diagnostic tests will be performed for both malaria and VL in consenting patients. A patient will remain included in the study if positive for one or both infections. Clinical and parasitological data

will be collected from these study subjects and compared between VL-malaria co-infected cases and patients with VL and malaria mono-infections.

Participants of the cross-sectional study will also serve as cases in the case-control study, to whom a structured household questionnaire will be administered. Exposure to certain individual and household factors will be compared between mono- and co-infected patients. Additionally, per VL-infected case, two age- and sex-matched healthy controls living in the same village as the case will be recruited and administered the questionnaire as well.

Lastly, a small cohort of subjects of the cross-sectional study with confirmed VL and/or malaria infection will be followed up during standard treatment. This cohort study will entail repeated collection of venous blood samples from participating patients, to characterise their immunological profiles over time. Additionally, blood samples will also be collected from healthy individuals and asymptomatic VL/malaria cases, who will be actively recruited in the households of the patient cohort. The healthy individuals will provide immunological baseline data, whereas the immunological profiles of asymptomatic VL/malaria cases will be compared to those of patients with active clinical disease. Healthy and asymptomatic subjects will be sampled once upon inclusion into the study. In case asymptomatic cases require treatment for their VL and/or malaria infection, they will also be sampled several times during this treatment.

Study site and timing

 The research will be performed in West Pokot County in Kenya (Figure 1), an area that is endemic for VL year-round and has seasonal transmission of malaria. Previous studies have reported that VL-malaria co-infections occur in the Pokot region.[3, 4, 6] Participants will be recruited from the catchment area of the Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, which is a government hospital located about 30 km northwest of West Pokot's county capital, Kapenguria. It is an important regional reference centre for VL diagnosis and treatment, supported by Drugs for Neglected Diseases Initiative (DNDi).[42]

 The study will be conducted in October and November 2022. This two-month period coincides with the short rainy season (October – December) during which malaria incidence often peaks.[43]

Study population

The population of the cross-sectional study will comprise individuals who attend the Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital and are clinically suspected of an infection with VL and/or malaria. The study participants will be grouped according to their VL and malaria diagnosis, as determined by routine diagnostic procedures:

- Newly diagnosed patients with active primary VL, defined as patients with clinical symptoms such as prolonged fever (>2 weeks), splenomegaly, weakness or wasting, with either a positive rk39 rapid diagnostic test (RDT), positive Direct Agglutination Test (DAT titre ≥ 1:3200) and/or microscopy-positive spleen aspirate.
- Patients with uncomplicated malaria, defined as patients with fever or history of fever within the last 48 hours (with or without other symptoms) and a positive thick and thin blood film for *Plasmodium*, with a parasite count <250,000/μL of blood.
- Patients co-infected with malaria and primary VL (actively for one or both infections) defined as patients with symptoms of VL and/or malaria, with a positive *Plasmodium* blood film (parasite count <250,000/μL of blood) and positive VL diagnostic test (rk39 RDT, DAT, spleen aspirate).

All subjects of the cross-sectional study with laboratory-confirmed VL and/or malaria infection will also be included as cases in the case-control study. Two age- and sex-matched healthy controls per VL-infected case (including those co-infected with malaria) will be recruited in the case's village of residence and will be defined as individuals without current signs or symptoms of VL or malaria, no history of VL, no malaria in the preceding two weeks, and with a negative rk39 RDT and negative malaria RDT. The individual should have lived in their current house for at least one year.

- the cross-sectional study. Only malaria infections with P. falciparum will be eligible, and the patient must be aged between 6 and 30 years old. These age limits are set to exclude infants and children whose immune system has not yet fully developed, and patients above 30 years who are more likely to have developed a significant level of acquired immunity to malaria. [6, 44] The cohort study will also recruit healthy controls and asymptomatic cases in the households of the clinically ill participants. This recruitment strategy will minimise the variability of environmental confounders between the different study groups. Moreover, the likelihood of finding asymptomatic VL and malaria infections will be higher in households of symptomatic patients.[45-49] The healthy and asymptomatic cohorts are
 - Healthy endemic controls, defined as individuals above the age of 6 years, without current signs or symptoms of VL or malaria, with no self-reported history of VL, no malaria in the preceding two weeks, with a negative DAT test (DAT titre ≤ 1:200) and negative malaria blood films.
 - Patients with asymptomatic VL, defined as individuals above the age of 6 years, without VLassociated symptoms for at least 15 days before study inclusion and no self-reported history of active VL, with a positive DAT (DAT titre \geq 1:3200).
 - Patients with asymptomatic malaria, defined as individuals above the age of 6 years, with no symptoms suggestive of malaria at the time of inclusion and with no history of malaria in the preceding two weeks, with a positive thick and thin blood film for P. falciparum.
- A complete overview of all eligibility criteria for the different study components can be found in Supplemental table 1.

The cross-sectional study aims to include 244 malaria infected patients, allowing to detect an odds

Sample size

ratio (OR) of 1.8 at a confidence level of 95% (two-sided), with an expected 20% of exposure among VL-infected cases and a power of 80%.[50] Within the two-month time frame of the study, all patients at the study hospital with a confirmed VL infection will be included. Considering that 350 VL cases were reported at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital in the first five months of 2022 (personal communication with David Kiptanui, clinical officer at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, 2022), this pragmatic approach is expected to recruit approximately 140 VL patients. Among these subjects, approximately 5 to 30 cases are expected to be co-infected with malaria, based on previously reported co-infection rates in Kacheliba Hospital ranging from 3.8% to 21.4%.[4] All participants of the cross-sectional study will also be included in the case-control study. Additionally, two healthy controls will be recruited per VL-infected patient, meaning that the study will aim to include approximately 280 healthy controls. Given the explorative nature of the immunological cohort study, the population size per study group will be set at 20 to 30 subjects, depending on their availability. Based on the results of Van den Bogaart et al. about cytokine levels in VL-malaria co-infected patients, this group size should be sufficient to detect significant differences in immunological parameters with 80% power at 5% level of statistical

Clinical sample and data collection

Cross-sectional study

significance.[41]

Patients presenting at the study hospital with clinical signs and/or symptoms indicating a potential malaria and/or VL infection will be asked to participate in the study if they meet the inclusion criteria (Supplemental table 1). Patients not willing to participate in the research will be excluded from the

study and will be referred to the clinician for usual diagnosis and treatment. Patients that give their informed consent will be included and tested at the hospital for both malaria and VL according to routine procedures: a finger prick blood sample will be collected to prepare a thick and thin blood film for microscopic detection of malaria. VL diagnosis will be done by means of an rk39 RDT for detection of VL antibodies in finger prick blood. In case of a negative rk39 test, a direct agglutination test (DAT) will be performed to confirm or rule out VL. If the DAT result is borderline, a spleen aspirate will be taken for parasitological diagnosis by microscopy. All test outcomes, data on malaria parasitaemia (as determined by microscopy) and DAT titre will be recorded on a case report from (CRF).

to measure the haemoglobin (Hb) level and to prepare dried blood spots (DBS) on a filter paper card. These will later be sent to the Amref Health Laboratories in Nairobi, where they will be used for DNA extraction with QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, DE). DNA isolates will be tested with real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) for malaria and VL, using an 18s rRNA gene target for *P. falciparum* and kinetoplast DNA (kDNA) target for *Leishmania*, respectively.[51, 52] This will allow for detection of low density malaria/VL infections that might be missed by the point-of-care diagnostics, and for quantitation of parasite densities.

Blood from the diagnostic finger prick of each VL and/or malaria suspected participant will also be used

recruitment hospital in Kacheliba, clinical features and medical history will be recorded on their CRF, while those who test negative for both malaria and VL will be excluded from further study procedures.

According to the diagnosis outcome at the clinic, participants will be treated for their infection(s) through the Kenyan national treatment programme for VL and malaria.[2, 53] Before treatment is initiated, some patients will be asked to participate in the cohort study as well.

For patients with a confirmed VL and/or malaria infection, according to the diagnostic testing at the

Case-control study

Directly after the participants of the cross-sectional study have received the first treatment for their infection, a trained interviewer will administer a structured household questionnaire. Information collected will include place of residence, housing conditions, house environment, occupation, sleeping habits, night time activities and travel history. Participants below the age of 15 years may be assisted in answering questions by their parent or legal guardian.

For each VL-infected patient case, two healthy controls will be recruited at the case's village of residence. At the central point of the village, a household will be randomly selected by spinning a pen. In the selected household, an individual, age- and sex-matched with the VL-infected case and meeting the eligibility criteria (Supplemental table 1), will be asked to participate. If multiple household members are eligible, one will be selected by rolling a die. After providing informed consent, finger prick blood from the household member will be tested with a malaria RDT and a VL rk39 RDT to exclude both infections. In case both tests are negative, the structured household questionnaire will be administered to the healthy control, or parent/legal guardian in case of children <15 years. Afterwards, a pen will be spun at the doorstep of the house to select the next household where the second matched control will be recruited. All procedures will be repeated until two healthy controls per VL-infected case have been recruited.

Cohort study

Subjects in the cross-sectional study with a laboratory confirmed infection with VL, *P. falciparum* malaria or both, and meeting all eligibility criteria (Supplemental table 1), will be asked to participate in the cohort study as well. After giving informed consent, they will be monitored during the treatment of their infection(s). Treatment will be according to the national treatment guidelines for both infections: for VL, this is sodium stibogluconate (SSG) injections (20 mg/kg body weight/day) and paromomycin (PM) injections (15 mg/kg body weight/day) for 17 days;[2] for uncomplicated *P*.

- In VL mono-infected patients, on day 7 of VL treatment and day 17 (end of VL treatment);
- In malaria mono-infected patients, on day 1 of malaria treatment and day 3 (end of malaria treatment);
- In VL-malaria co-infected patients, on day 1 and day 3 of malaria treatment, and day 7 and day 17 of VL treatment.

At each follow-up time point, the patients' clinical features will be recorded on their CRF.

Healthy individuals and cases with asymptomatic VL or malaria will be recruited by a study team visiting the households of the clinically ill participants of the cohort study. When a household member has no history of VL or recent malaria and shows no symptoms of either disease (see eligibility criteria in Supplemental table 1), a finger prick blood sample will be taken for microscopic detection of malaria and for VL testing with DAT at Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital. Based on the results of these tests, participants will be grouped either in the healthy control cohort, the asymptomatic malaria cohort or the asymptomatic VL cohort. The study team will return to the local communities to share the results with the respective participants. Participants that complain of symptoms suggestive of VL and/or malaria at this stage will be referred for further management and excluded from the study. If still without symptoms, participants will be physically examined and 10 mL of venous blood (5 mL in a silicone-coated tube for separating the serum, 5 mL in EDTA anticoagulation tube) will be collected. Healthy controls will only be sampled at this time. Asymptomatically infected patients will be referred to Kacheliba Hospital for further management. If placed on treatment, the asymptomatic patients will

be sampled during their treatment, following the same scheme as the clinically ill patients of the cohort study.

All collected venous blood samples will be processed at the Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital for isolation of serum, white blood cell (WBC) counting using an Ac-T diff Hematology Analyzer (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA) and preparation of DBS. DBS cards will be shipped to the Amref Laboratories, where they will be used for nucleic acid isolation and subsequent *Leishmania* and *P. falciparum* detection and quantitation, using qPCR for *Leishmania* kDNA, and real-time quantitative nucleic acid sequence-based amplification (QT-NASBA) for *P. falciparum* 18s rRNA .[52, 54] Isolated serum samples will be sent to the Amsterdam UMC and used in a Luminex-based assay, to measure levels of pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines that have been shown to play an important role in the immune response against VL and/or malaria: TNF-α, IFN-γ, IL-1β, IL-2, IL-4, IL-10, IL-12p70, IL-13, IL-17A and IL-22.[41, 55-61]

Statistical analysis

Cross-sectional study

All data collected from the cross-sectional study will be compared between VL mono-infected cases, malaria mono-infected cases and VL-malaria co-infected cases. In a univariate analysis, the association between a VL-malaria co-infection and measured characteristics will be explored using the Pearson Chi-square test or the Fisher Exact Probability test. Continuous variables will be categorized into predefined groups. Found associations will be quantified as prevalence odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals, determined at the 5% level. To identify independent characteristics associated with VL-malaria co-infection and adjust for confounding, a multivariate logistic regression model will be made in a backward stepwise manner with variables that have a p-value <0.10 in the univariate analyses. Only variables with a p-value <0.05 will be retained in the final model.

 Data collected with the structured questionnaire will be used to identify household and environmental risk factors associated with VL and malaria (co-)infections in West Pokot. VL and malaria infections will be considered as two separate response variables, for which individual univariate logistic regression analyses will be applied to evaluate associations (expressed as odds ratios) with the questionnaire variables. Per predefined thematic section of the household questionnaire, variables with a p-value of <0.2 in the univariate analysis will be included in a multivariate regression model. The same variables will also be used as input for multivariate multiple response regression models, which will identify predictors that jointly contribute to both VL and malaria infections and as such, co-infections. Both the separate disease models and multiple response models of each section will be optimised through stepwise backward elimination of variables with p>0.2. The retained significant variables of each thematic section will then be merged into final multivariate regression models for VL, malaria and VL-malaria co-infections, in which only significant (p<0.05) variables will be kept.

Cohort study

Cytokine levels and clinical characteristics measured at baseline (day 0) in VL-malaria co-infected patients will be compared to those of VL or malaria mono-infected patients, either actively or asymptomatically, and of healthy controls, who will provide immunological reference data. Longitudinal comparison of cytokine levels will be performed within the separate groups that are followed up during treatment. For both baseline and longitudinal comparisons, standard parametrical statistical tests will be used for normally distributed numeric data. Non-normal data will be analysed using non-parametric tests. Comparison of nominal data will be done with the Chi-square test or Fisher's Exact Probability test. For all statistical analyses, significance will be determined at the 5% level (p-value<0.05). Correlations between the levels of individual cytokines will be investigated with Spearman's rank correlation analysis.

Ethics and dissemination

The protocol of this study received ethical approval from the Amref Health Africa Ethics and Scientific Review Committee (ref. ESRC P1196/2022). The ESRC is accredited by the Kenyan National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). A NACOSTI research license was obtained before study initiation (ref. 791964).

Written informed consent will be collected from all participants, or their parents/legal guardians, for study participation, export of clinical samples for analysis at the Amsterdam UMC and future use of study data and samples. All collected data and clinical specimens will be anonymized and stored at the Amsterdam UMC for at least 5 years after completion of the study. Dataset will be available upon reasonable request to the corresponding author. None of the results of the study will be published with individual name identification or with identifiers of patients.

All study findings will be communicated to the national health authorities of Kenya. The research team will write scientific papers on the study results, which will be submitted to open-access, peer-reviewed international scientific journals and presented at national and international scientific meetings.

Patient and public involvement

Due to the remote setting in which this study will be conducted, it was not possible to involve the local public of West Pokot in the design phase of the study. However, during study implementation, awareness among local communities will be achieved by involvement of community leaders and the patients recruited at the hospital. Community health workers will be approached to assist with the recruitment of asymptomatic patients and healthy controls in local villages. Patients, local health care staff and the public will be consulted to select an appropriate method for dissemination of the study findings among the community.

DISCUSSION

 With a cross-sectional study, a case-control study and a cohort study, this observational research project will apply a multifaceted approach to address important knowledge gaps concerning the clinical implications, environmental risk factors and immunology of VL-malaria co-infections in West Pokot. The significance of these studies is underlined by the fact that concomitant VL and malaria infections are still largely neglected, despite the apparently high rates of this condition in West Pokot. [3, 4, 6] This research will contribute to increased awareness among the local population of West Pokot, its healthcare workers and disease control policy makers. This may lead to more timely detection and treatment of VL-malaria co-infections, thereby reducing associated morbidity and mortality.

This will be the first study to describe the parasite dynamics and cytokine responses of VL-malaria co-infection in a longitudinal fashion. This approach will allow investigating associations of the immunological profile of a VL-malaria co-infection with its clinical picture. It should be mentioned that the design of the immunological cohort study is restricted by the limited available resources in the remote setting of the study hospital. For example, participants will not be screened for other underlying (infectious) conditions, such as HIV or helminthiasis, which are known to significantly impact the host's immune response. Furthermore, this study will not isolate patient peripheral blood mononuclear cells to investigate leukocyte dynamics underlying the observed cytokine responses. Nevertheless, findings from this explorative study will generate an evidential basis to direct future research into co-infection immunology. Eventually, better understanding of the immunology of VL-malaria co-infections will help improve clinical management and support the development of official treatment guidelines.

The questionnaire study will generate critical data on individual, household and environmental factors that may increase the risk of co-acquiring VL and malaria. In this way, the results of the case-control

study can guide a more targeted approach to control and elimination of both infections in the Pokot area. This translational step will be facilitated by the involvement of the Kenyan MoH in the research project. Although this study is focusing on VL-malaria co-infections in West Pokot, its results may provide valuable insights for other co-endemic areas as well.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

418 Amsterdam UMC: Amsterdam University Medical Ce	ntres
--	-------

- **CRF**: Case report form
- **DAT**: Direct agglutination test
- **DBS:** Dried blood spot
- **DNA**: Deoxyribonucleic acid
- **DNDi**: Drugs for Neglected Diseases initiative
- EDTA: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
- **ESRC**: Ethics and Scientific Review Committee
- Hb: Haemoglobin
- HIV: Human immunodeficiency virus
- IFN: Interferon
- IL: Interleukin
- kDNA: Kinetoplast DNA
- MoH: Ministry of Health
- NACOSTI: National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
- OR: Odds ratio
- PCR: Polymerase chain reaction
- PM: Paromomycin
- qPCR: Real-time quantitative PCR
- QT-NASBA: Quantitative nucleic acid sequence-based amplification
- **RDT**: Rapid diagnostic test
- rRNA: Ribosomal ribonucleic acid
- SSG: Sodium stibogluconate

441	TNF : Tumour necrosis facto
442	VL : Visceral leishmaniasis

WBC: White blood cell

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

NvD was responsible for the instigation of this research project, developed the protocol and drafted the manuscript. JC, PM and HS contributed to the study design and protocol development, and critically read the manuscript. WO provided national surveillance and healthcare data on VL and malaria in Kenya and critically read the protocol and manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

FUNDING

- This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-for-
- 453 profit sectors.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank David Kiptanui (Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital) for providing low-level data on the current incidence and clinical epidemiology of VL, malaria and co-infections in the catchment area of Kacheliba Hospital.

REFERENCES

1. Alvar J, den Boer M, Dagne DA. Towards the elimination of visceral leishmaniasis as a public health problem in east Africa: reflections on an enhanced control strategy and a call for action.

Lancet Glob Health 2021;9(12):e1763-e69. doi: 10.1016/s2214-109x(21)00392-2 [published Online First: 2021/11/20]

- 2. Prevention, Diagnosis and Treatment of Visceral Leishmaniasis (Kala-Azar) in Kenya: National Guideline for Health Workers: Kenya Ministry of Health, 2017.
- 3. Kolaczinski JH, Reithinger R, Worku DT, et al. Risk factors of visceral leishmaniasis in East Africa: a case-control study in Pokot territory of Kenya and Uganda. *Int J Epidemiol* 2008;37(2):344-52. doi: 10.1093/ije/dym275 [published Online First: 2008/01/11]
- 4. Mueller YK, Kolaczinski JH, Koech T, et al. Clinical epidemiology, diagnosis and treatment of visceral leishmaniasis in the Pokot endemic area of Uganda and Kenya. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2014;90(1):33-39. doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.13-0150 [published Online First: 2013/11/13]
- 5. Kenya Malaria Strategy 2019-2023. Nairobi: National Malaria Control Programme, Ministry of Health, Kenya, 2019.
- 6. van den Bogaart E, Berkhout MM, Adams ER, et al. Prevalence, features and risk factors for malaria co-infections amongst visceral leishmaniasis patients from Amudat Hospital, Uganda. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2012;6(4):e1617. doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0001617 [published Online First: 2012/04/17]
- 7. Sinka ME, Bangs MJ, Manguin S, et al. The dominant Anopheles vectors of human malaria in Africa, Europe and the Middle East: occurrence data, distribution maps and bionomic precis. *Parasit Vectors* 2010;3:117. doi: 10.1186/1756-3305-3-117 [published Online First: 2010/12/07]
- Ondiba IM, Oyieke FA, Athinya DK, et al. Larval species diversity, seasonal occurrence and larval habitat preference of mosquitoes transmitting Rift Valley fever and malaria in Baringo County, Kenya. *Parasit Vectors* 2019;12(1):295. doi: 10.1186/s13071-019-3557-x [published Online First: 2019/06/13]
- 9. Ondiba IM, Oyieke FA, Ong'amo GO, et al. Malaria vector abundance is associated with house structures in Baringo County, Kenya. *PLoS One* 2018;13(6):e0198970. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0198970 [published Online First: 2018/06/12]
- 10. Gebre-Michael T, Lane RP. The roles of Phlebotomus martini and P.celiae (Diptera: Phlebotominae) as vectors of visceral leishmaniasis in the Aba Roba focus, southern Ethiopia. Med Vet Entomol 1996;10(1):53-62. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2915.1996.tb00082.x [published Online First: 1996/01/01]
- 11. Heisch RB, Wijers DJ, Minter DM. In pursuit of the vector of kala-azar in Kenya. *Br Med J* 1962;1(5290):1456-8. doi: 10.1136/bmj.1.5290.1456 [published Online First: 1962/05/26]
- 12. Minter DM. Seasonal changes in populations of phlebotomine sandflies (Diptera, Psychodidae) in Kenya. *Bull Entomol Res* 1964;55:421–35.
- 13. Ngumbi PM, Lrungu LW, Robert LI, et al. Abundances and nocturnal activities of phlebotomine sandflies (Diptera: Psychodidae) in termite hills and animal burrows in Baringo District, Kenya. *Afr J Health Sci* 1998;5(1):28-34. [published Online First: 2007/06/22]
- 14. Southgate BA, Oriedo BV. Studies in the epidemiology of East African leishmaniasis. 1. The circumstantial epidemiology of kala-azar in the Kitui District of Kenya. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 1962;56:30-47. doi: 10.1016/0035-9203(62)90087-1 [published Online First: 1962/01/01]
- 15. Southgate BA. The structure of foci of visceral leishmaniasis in north-eastern Kenya. *Collques Intern Centre Nat Recherche Scientif* 1977;239:241-47.
- 16. Farooqui HAM, Aziz MA. Combination of Malaria and Visceral Leishmaniasis in a Child of Two Years. *JPMA* 1984;34(138):138-40.

- 18. Nandy A, Addy M, Guha SK, et al. Co-existent kala-azar and malaria in India. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 1995;89(5):516. doi: 10.1016/0035-9203(95)90091-8 [published Online First: 1995/09/01]
- 19. SAHA K, CHATTOPADHYA D, KULPATI DD. Concomitant Kala-azar, Malaria, and Progressive Unstable Interminate Leprosy in an 8-Year-Old Child. *Journal of Tropical Pediatrics* 1998;44(4):247-48. doi: 10.1093/tropej/44.4.247
- 20. Sah SP, Sharma SK, Rani S. Kala Azar Associated With Malaria. *Archives of Pathology & Laboratory Medicine* 2002;126(3):382-83. doi: 10.5858/2002-126-0382-kaawm
- 21. Woodrow JP, Hartzell JD, Czarnik J, et al. Cutaneous and presumed visceral leishmaniasis in a soldier deployed to Afghanistan. *MedGenMed* 2006;8(4):43. [published Online First: 2007/04/07]
- 22. Ab Rahman AK, Abdullah FH. Visceral leishmaniasis (kala-azar) and malaria coinfection in an immigrant in the state of Terengganu, Malaysia: A case report. *Journal of Microbiology, Immunology and Infection* 2011;44(1):72-76. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmii.2011.01.014
- 23. van den Bogaart E, Berkhout MM, Nour AB, et al. Concomitant malaria among visceral leishmaniasis in-patients from Gedarif and Sennar States, Sudan: a retrospective case-control study. *BMC Public Health* 2013;13:332. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-13-332 [published Online First: 2013/04/13]
- 24. Bin Mohanna MA. Leishmaniasis, malaria, and schistosomiasis concurrently in an 8-year-old boy. Saudi Med J 2015;36(4):494-6. doi: 10.15537/smj.2015.4.10757 [published Online First: 2015/04/02]
- 25. Ghimire PG, Ghimire P, Adhikari J, et al. A case report of visceral leishmaniasis and malaria coinfection with pancytopenia and splenomegaly - a diagnostic challenge. *BMC Infect Dis* 2019;19(1):849. doi: 10.1186/s12879-019-4478-1 [published Online First: 2019/10/17]
- 26. Topno RK, Kumar R, Pandey K, et al. A co-infection with malaria and visceral leishmaniasis in Eastern state of India. *La Presse Médicale* 2019;48(3, Part 1):328-31. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lpm.2018.04.017
- 27. Reiner SL, Zheng S, Wang ZE, et al. Leishmania promastigotes evade interleukin 12 (IL-12) induction by macrophages and stimulate a broad range of cytokines from CD4+ T cells during initiation of infection. *J Exp Med* 1994;179(2):447-56. doi: 10.1084/jem.179.2.447 [published Online First: 1994/02/01]
- 28. Chandra D, Naik S. Leishmania donovani infection down-regulates TLR2-stimulated IL-12p40 and activates IL-10 in cells of macrophage/monocytic lineage by modulating MAPK pathways through a contact-dependent mechanism. *Clin Exp Immunol* 2008;154(2):224-34. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2249.2008.03741.x [published Online First: 2008/09/10]
- 29. Gomes PS, Bhardwaj J, Rivera-Correa J, et al. Immune Escape Strategies of Malaria Parasites. Front Microbiol 2016;7:1617. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2016.01617 [published Online First: 2016/11/02]
- 30. Lyke KE, Dicko A, Dabo A, et al. Association of Schistosoma haematobium infection with protection against acute Plasmodium falciparum malaria in Malian children. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2005;73(6):1124-30. [published Online First: 2005/12/16]
- 31. Spiegel A, Tall A, Raphenon G, et al. Increased frequency of malaria attacks in subjects co-infected by intestinal worms and Plasmodium falciparum malaria. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 2003;97(2):198-9. doi: 10.1016/s0035-9203(03)90117-9 [published Online First: 2003/10/31]
- 32. Nacher M, Singhasivanon P, Yimsamran S, et al. Intestinal helminth infections are associated with increased incidence of Plasmodium falciparum malaria in Thailand. *J Parasitol* 2002;88(1):55-8. doi: 10.1645/0022-3395(2002)088[0055:IHIAAW]2.0.CO;2 [published Online First: 2002/06/11]
- 33. Lemaitre M, Watier L, Briand V, et al. Coinfection with Plasmodium falciparum and Schistosoma haematobium: additional evidence of the protective effect of Schistosomiasis on malaria in

- Senegalese children. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2014;90(2):329-34. doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.12-0431 [published Online First: 2013/12/11]
 - 34. La Flamme AC, Scott P, Pearce EJ. Schistosomiasis delays lesion resolution during Leishmania major infection by impairing parasite killing by macrophages. *Parasite Immunol* 2002;24(7):339-45. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-3024.2002.00473.x [published Online First: 2002/08/08]
 - 35. O'Neal SE, Guimarães LH, Machado PR, et al. Influence of helminth infections on the clinical course of and immune response to Leishmania braziliensis cutaneous leishmaniasis. *J Infect Dis* 2007;195(1):142-8. doi: 10.1086/509808 [published Online First: 2006/12/08]
 - 36. Adler S. The behaviour of Plasmodium berghei in the golden hamster Mesocricetus auratus infected with visceral leishmaniasis. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 1954;48(5):431-40. doi: 10.1016/0035-9203(54)90145-5 [published Online First: 1954/09/01]
 - 37. Coleman RE, Edman JD, Semprevivo LH. Interactions between Plasmodium yoelii and Leishmania mexicana amazonensis in Leishmania resistant C57B1/6 mice. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 1988;39(6):540-4. doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.1988.39.540 [published Online First: 1988/12/01]
 - 38. Coleman RE, Edman JD, Semprevivo LH. Leishmania mexicana: effect of concomitant malaria on cutaneous leishmaniasis. Development of lesions in a Leishmania-susceptible (BALB/c) strain of mouse. *Exp Parasitol* 1988;65(2):269-76. doi: 10.1016/0014-4894(88)90131-2 [published Online First: 1988/04/01]
 - 39. Marques CS, Rolao N, Centeno-Lima S, et al. Studies in a co-infection murine model of Plasmodium chabaudi chabaudi and Leishmania infantum: interferon-gamma and interleukin-4 mRNA expression. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz* 2005;100(8):889-92. doi: 10.1590/s0074-02762005000800011 [published Online First: 2006/01/31]
 - Pinna RA, Silva-Dos-Santos D, Perce-da-Silva DS, et al. Malaria-Cutaneous Leishmaniasis Coinfection: Influence on Disease Outcomes and Immune Response. Front Microbiol 2016;7:982. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2016.00982 [published Online First: 2016/07/23]
 - 41. van den Bogaart E, Talha AB, Straetemans M, et al. Cytokine profiles amongst Sudanese patients with visceral leishmaniasis and malaria co-infections. *BMC Immunol* 2014;15:16. doi: 10.1186/1471-2172-15-16 [published Online First: 2014/06/03]
 - 42. Namulen AIK, S; Kombe, Y. Knowledge, Attitude and Practices of Guardians on Nutritional Status of Children with Visceral Leishmaniasis Attending Kacheliba Sub-County Hospital, West Pokot County, Kenya. *Afr J Health Sci* 2021;34(3):305-28.
 - 43. Kenya Malaria Indicator Survey 2020. Nairobi, Kenya and Rockville, Maryland, USA: Division of National Malaria Programme (DNMP) [Kenya] and ICF, 2021.
 - 44. Hay SI, Noor AM, Simba M, et al. Clinical epidemiology of malaria in the highlands of western Kenya. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2002;8(6):543-8. doi: 10.3201/eid0806.010309 [published Online First: 2002/05/25]
 - 45. Custodio E, Gadisa E, Sordo L, et al. Factors associated with Leishmania asymptomatic infection: results from a cross-sectional survey in highland northern Ethiopia. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2012;6(9):e1813. doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0001813 [published Online First: 2012/10/03]
 - 46. Nackers F, Mueller YK, Salih N, et al. Determinants of Visceral Leishmaniasis: A Case-Control Study in Gedaref State, Sudan. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2015;9(11):e0004187. doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0004187 [published Online First: 2015/11/07]
 - 47. Bjorkman A, Cook J, Sturrock H, et al. Spatial Distribution of Falciparum Malaria Infections in Zanzibar: Implications for Focal Drug Administration Strategies Targeting Asymptomatic Parasite Carriers. *Clin Infect Dis* 2017;64(9):1236-43. doi: 10.1093/cid/cix136 [published Online First: 2017/04/22]
 - 48. Stresman GH, Kamanga A, Moono P, et al. A method of active case detection to target reservoirs of asymptomatic malaria and gametocyte carriers in a rural area in Southern Province, Zambia. *Malar J* 2010;9:265. doi: 10.1186/1475-2875-9-265 [published Online First: 2010/10/06]

- 50. Fleiss JL, Levin B, Paik MC. Statistical Methods for Rates and Proportions. 3rd ed. Hoboken: Wiley 2003.
- 51. Hermsen CC, Telgt DSC, Linders EHP, et al. Detection of Plasmodium falciparum malaria parasites in vivo by real-time quantitative PCR. *Molecular and Biochemical Parasitology* 2001;118(2):247-51. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-6851(01)00379-6
- 52. de Paiva Cavalcanti M, Felinto de Brito ME, de Souza WV, et al. The development of a real-time PCR assay for the quantification of Leishmania infantum DNA in canine blood. *The Veterinary Journal* 2009;182(2):356-58. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tvjl.2008.05.018
- 53. National Guidelines for the Diagnosis, Treatment and Prevention of Malaria in Kenya. Third Edition ed. Nairobi: Ministry of Public Health and Sanitation & Ministry of Medical Services, 2010.
- 54. Schoone GJ, Oskam L, Kroon NC, et al. Detection and quantification of Plasmodium falciparum in blood samples using quantitative nucleic acid sequence-based amplification. *J Clin Microbiol* 2000;38(11):4072-5. doi: 10.1128/jcm.38.11.4072-4075.2000
- 55. Rodrigues V, Cordeiro-da-Silva A, Laforge M, et al. Regulation of immunity during visceral Leishmania infection. *Parasite Vector* 2016;9(1):118. doi: 10.1186/s13071-016-1412-x
- 56. Babaloo Z, Oskoei MR, Kohansal MH, et al. Serum profile of IL-1β and IL-17 cytokines in patients with visceral leishmaniasis. *Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis* 2020;69:101431. doi: 10.1016/j.cimid.2020.101431 [published Online First: 2020/02/15]
- 57. Pitta MG, Romano A, Cabantous S, et al. IL-17 and IL-22 are associated with protection against human kala azar caused by Leishmania donovani. *J Clin Invest* 2009;119(8):2379-87. doi: 10.1172/jci38813 [published Online First: 2009/07/22]
- 58. Mandala WL, Msefula CL, Gondwe EN, et al. Cytokine Profiles in Malawian Children Presenting with Uncomplicated Malaria, Severe Malarial Anemia, and Cerebral Malaria. *Clin Vaccine Immunol* 2017;24(4) doi: 10.1128/CVI.00533-16 [published Online First: 2017/01/27]
- 59. Oyegue-Liabagui SL, Bouopda-Tuedom AG, Kouna LC, et al. Pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines in children with malaria in Franceville, Gabon. *Am J Clin Exp Immunol* 2017;6(2):9-20. [published Online First: 2017/03/25]
- 60. Noone C, Parkinson M, Dowling DJ, et al. Plasma cytokines, chemokines and cellular immune responses in pre-school Nigerian children infected with Plasmodium falciparum. *Malaria Journal* 2013;12(1):5. doi: 10.1186/1475-2875-12-5
- 61. Samant M, Sahu U, Pandey SC, et al. Role of Cytokines in Experimental and Human Visceral Leishmaniasis. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol* 2021;11:624009. doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2021.624009 [published Online First: 2021/03/09]

FIGURE LEGENDS

- 649 Figure 1: Map of West Pokot County, Kenya, indicating the study site in Kacheliba and the county
- 650 capital Kapenguria.

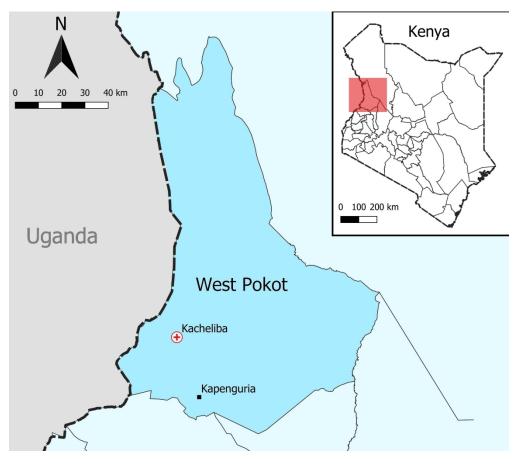


Figure 1: Map of West Pokot County, Kenya, indicating the study site in Kacheliba and the county capital Kapenguria.

597x524mm (120 x 120 DPI)

..

Cross-sectional study

Inclusion criteria

1 2 3

4 5

6 7

8

9

10 11

12

13 14

15

16 17

18 19

20

21

22 23

24

25 26

27 28

29

30

31

32

33

34 35 36

37

38

39

40

41 42

43 44

45

46

47

48

49

50 51

52 53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

Showing symptoms suggestive of malaria and/or VL

Supplemental table 1: Eligibility criteria for the different study components

- Living in the catchment area of the study hospital

Exclusion criteria

- Already under drug treatment for malaria and/or VL
 - Having a positive VL diagnosis in their medical history
- Pregnant

Case-control study: patient cases

Inclusion criteria

- Included in the cross-sectional study
- Having a laboratory-confirmed VL diagnosis and/or malaria diagnosis

Exclusion criteria

None

Case-control study: healthy controls

Inclusion criteria

- Living in the village of residence of a VL-infected participant of the cross-sectional study
- Living in the current house for at least 1 year
- Not showing symptoms suggestive of malaria and/or VL
- Negative for malaria with malaria RDT
- Negative for VL with rk39 RDT

Exclusion criteria

- A positive VL diagnosis in their medical history
- A history of clinical malaria in the preceding 2 weeks
- Already under drug treatment for malaria and/or VL
- Pregnant

Cohort study: clinically ill patients

Inclusion criteria

- Included in the cross-sectional study
- Between 6 and 30 years of age
- Having a laboratory-confirmed VL diagnosis and/or malaria diagnosis with *P. falciparum* (parasite counts between 1000 and 250,000 /μL of blood only)
- Eligible for first-line treatment for VL and/or malaria as stated in the national treatment guidelines

Exclusion criteria

- Having a haemoglobin level of ≤5 g/dL
- Being diagnosed with malaria caused by a *Plasmodium* species different than *P. falciparum*
- Suffering from any other infectious disease, acute or chronic, different from malaria and/or VL, of which the patient has knowledge
- Suffering from any immune system disorder, acute or chronic, of which the patient has knowledge

- Being under antimicrobial and/or anti-inflammatory treatment
- Being under immune-suppressive or immune-stimulatory treatment

Cohort study: healthy and asymptomatic household members

Inclusion criteria

- Living in the household of one of the clinically ill participants of the cohort study
- 6 years old and above
- Not showing any major symptoms suggestive of malaria and VL
- Having a body temperature below 37.5°C

Exclusion criteria

- A positive VL diagnosis in their medical history
- A history of clinical malaria in the preceding 2 weeks
- Already under drug treatment for malaria and/or VL
- Pregnant
- Being diagnosed with malaria caused by a *Plasmodium* species different than *P. falciparum*
- Suffering from any other infectious disease, acute or chronic, different from malaria and/or VL, of which the patient has knowledge
- Suffering from any immune system disorder, acute or chronic, of which the patient has knowledge
- Being under antimicrobial and/or anti-inflammatory treatment
- Being under immune-suppressive or immune-stimulatory treatment



	Item No	Recommendation	Page No
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or	1
		the abstract	
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what	2
		was done and what was found	
Introduction		THE GOLD WILL THE TOTAL	1
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being	4
		reported	-
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	7
Methods		1 3 / 5 / 1	
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	7
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of	8
o cum g		recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	
Participants	6	(a) Cohort study—Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and	10
articipants	O	methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up	10
		Case-control study—Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and	0
			9
		methods of case ascertainment and control selection. Give the rationale	
		for the choice of cases and controls	
		Cross-sectional study—Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and	9
		methods of selection of participants	
		(b) Cohort study—For matched studies, give matching criteria and	10
		number of exposed and unexposed	
		Case-control study—For matched studies, give matching criteria and the	9
		number of controls per case	
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders,	11-
		and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	15
Data sources/	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods	11-
measurement		of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment	15
		methods if there is more than one group	
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	9-10
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	10-
Study Size	10	Explain now the study size was arrived at	11
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If	15-
Qualititative variables	11	applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	16
G 1 . 1 . 1	10		_
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for	15-
		confounding	16
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	14-
			16
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	N.A
		(d) Cohort study—If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was	N.A
		addressed	
		Case-control study—If applicable, explain how matching of cases and	13
		controls was addressed	
		Cross-sectional study—If applicable, describe analytical methods taking	15
			1
		account of sampling strategy	

Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially	N.A.
		eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study,	
		completing follow-up, and analysed	
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	N.A.
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	N.A.
Descriptive	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and	N.A.
data		information on exposures and potential confounders	
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	N.A.
		(c) Cohort study—Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	N.A.
Outcome data	15*	Cohort study—Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	N.A.
		Case-control study—Report numbers in each exposure category, or summary	N.A.
		measures of exposure	
		Cross-sectional study—Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures	N.A.
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and	N.A.
		their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were	
		adjusted for and why they were included	
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	N.A.
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a	N.A.
		meaningful time period	
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done-eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and	N.A.
		sensitivity analyses	
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	17
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or	17
		imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations,	N.A.
		multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	17
Other informati	on		
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if	19
		applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	

^{*}Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.