

African Journal of Parasitology Research ISSN 2756-3391 Vol. 7 (9), pp. 001-011, September, 2020. Available online at www.internationalscholarsjournals.org © International Scholars Journals

Author(s) retain the copyright of this article.

Full Length Research Paper

Detection of *Leishmania* in human blood and tissue exudate ingested by *Tunga penetrans*

Elizabeth Sentongo^{1*}, Samuel Kalungi² and Jacinto Amandua³

¹Department of Microbiology, School of Biomedical Sciences, College of Health Sciences, Makerere University, P. O. Box 7072, Kampala, Uganda.

²Department of Pathology, Mulago National Referral Hospital P. O. Box 7051 Kampala, Uganda. ³Department of Clinical Services, Ministry of Health P. O. Box 7272, Kampala, Uganda.

Accepted 16 September, 2020

Abstract

Communities in Uganda are experiencing a multiparasitism, blood microscopy often reveals *Leishmania* and microfilaria in patients with anaemia, haemorrhage and splenomegaly. Many are likely asymptomatic and probably exposed to insect vectors. We examined the blood and tissue exudate ingested by *Tunga penetrans*, from relatively healthy eastern Ugandans who had been afflicted by sand fleas in 2010. Comparison was thereafter made with Giemsa-stained blood and bone marrow aspirate smears from patients admitted to Mulago National Referral Hospital. In histology preparations of formalin-preserved paraffin-embedded enucleate stained with haematoxylin and eosin, were cross sections with columnar lining containing a pink substance. Within the substance were numerous lobular and circular organelles, representing nuclei of polymorphonuclear and mononuclear white blood cells. Clustered about the nuclei were translucent spheres containing two spots; one large and dark, the other small and red. No microfilaria were seen. In patients' blood smears, where microfilaria were also demonstrable, the spheres clustered inside monocytes and in bone marrow aspirate smears they were Leishman-Donovan bodies. The findings, besides indicating an inflammatory reaction of the host, implied a cutaneous and/or systemic leishmanial infection. Persons with *Leishmania* in their body fluids can infect female sand flies or develop visceral, cutaneous or mucocutaneous disease.

Key words: Tungiasis, leishmaniasis, haematophagy, asymptomatic carriage.

INTRODUCTION

Communities in Uganda are experiencing a multiparasitism which includes leishmaniasis and filariasis. Since 2015, microscopy of peripheral blood smears from severely ill patients admitted to the medical wards at Mulago National Referral Hospital has frequently revealed *Leishmania* and microfilaria (Sentongo et al., 2020a). Most notable was blood from patients with differential diagnoses of unexplained anaemia, aplastic anaemia, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)- or azidothymidine (AZT)-induced anaemia if

Corresponding Author. E-mail: besimensi@gmail.com Tel: +256 772 697 373 they were HIV co-infected, bleeding diathesis, idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP), hyper-reactive malarial splenomegaly (HMS), haematological malignancy and lymphoma, respectively. Leishmania were also seen in patients' bone marrow aspirates and biopsies. In areas where bancroftian filariasis, mansonelliasis and loiasis are endemic, some individuals suffer mild or self-limiting disease; many of the infected remain asymptomatic despite being filaraemic or antigenaemic (Kar et al., 2017; Bouyou Akotet et al., 2015; Onapa et al., 2005). Likewise, communities where systemic or visceral leishmaniasis is endemic have asymptomatic individuals who harbour the parasite. In neighbouring countries where visceral leishmaniasis is highly endemic,

asymptomatic infection has been established using serological recombinant K39 (rK39) antigen-based strip test and direct agglutination test (DAT), the cell mediated immunity evaluating Leishmanin skin test (LST) and molecular polymerase chain reaction test (Mohamed et al., 2019; Custodio et al., 2012; Schaefer et al., 1995; Shiddo et al., 1995). The necessity to demonstrate the parasites often arose in clinical practice when serological test results were indeterminate despite high suspicion of visceral where response to antileishmanial leishmaniasis. treatment was inadequate and as a test of cure (TOC) before patient release (MoH South Sudan, 2012; FMoH Ethiopia, 2013; MoH Kenya, 2017; MoH Uganda, 2019). Leishmania amastigotes would then be sought for in spleen, bone marrow or lymph node aspirates but hardly in blood.

Leishmaniae were found in peripheral blood smears of eastern African patients with visceral disease in the then Republic of Sudan (Rohrs, 1964), in Kenya (Chulay et al., 1985), Ethiopia (Diro et al., 2017) and in a Somali patient (Clement and Li, 2017). Similar observations were made on patients in southern Asia's Bangladesh (Chandan et al., 2009; Salam et al, 2012), India (Rahman et al., 2015) and Nepal (Ghimire et al., 2019); southern Europe's France (Moniot et al., 2018) and Spain (Delgado, 1997) and South America's Brazil (Martinez et al., 1993). The asymptomatic microscopic parasitaemia was documented in India (Sharma et al., 2000) and, by use of more elaborate analyses on buffy coat and peripheral blood mononuclear cells, inferred amongst blood donors in southern France (Fichoux et al., 1999), the Balearic Islands of Spain (Riera et al., 2008) and Midwest Brazil (França et al., 2020), as well as in southern Iranian children (Gigloo et al., 2018). Other means of determining infection in human blood have used Phlebotomus and Lutzomyia vectors in xenodiagnosis (Mondal et al., 2018; Ferreira et al., 2018), sometimes involving rodent models (Sadlova et al., 2015) or animal reservoirs (Magalhães-Junior et al., 2016). In Uganda's north-eastern focus of visceral leishmaniasis. the acknowledged reservoirs are humans infected with Leishmania donovani which is transmitted by Phlebotomus martini (MoH, 2013). Presently, leishmaniasis is no longer confined to that part of the country, a multiparasitism complicates the clinical picture and, the reservoirs and mode of transmission may be different. For instance. antileishmanial antibodies were detected in domestic dogs from south-western Uganda (Millán et al., 2013). Communities in eastern Uganda had been severely afflicted by Tunga penetrans (MoH Uganda, 2010), a tissue-embedding haematophagous ectoparasite.

tissue-embedding haematophagous ectoparasite. Normally sand fleas are enucleated from the affected body parts by the infested person or their caretaker, using a thorn or safety pin. In October 2010, female sand fleas were hygienically enucleated from the feet of some residents in Jinja and Kamuli districts to relieve heavy infestation and to provide specimens for a definitive diagnosis (Sentongo et al., 2020b). The donors, eight females and seven males, ten of whom were primary school-age children, had been naturally infested. Save for the localised inflammation of the toes and soles of the feet, there was no record of systemic illness. This article presents the result of scrutinising the luminal content of the arthropod's digestive tract.

METHOD

of formalin-preserved paraffin-Histology slides embedded gravid sand fleas, stained with haematoxylin and eosin, as previously described (Sentongo et al., 2020b), were examined by light microscopy. Crosssections of the arthropod's exoskeleton and internal organs were displayed. Within the coelom the sections with lumina were identified and based on the morphology of their boundaries characterised as sections with an acellular and those with a cellular wall. Of the latter, the sections with a tortuous innermost layer were earmarked. Using high magnification including the oil-immersed objective, the luminal lining and content were scrutinised. Comparison was thereafter made with air-dried methanol-fixed Giemsastained peripheral blood and bone marrow aspirate smears from patients who had been admitted to the National Referral Hospital.

RESULTS

The external acellular and inner cellular layers of the exoskeleton enclosed the coelom of the arthropod, within which were cross-sections of the internal organs (Figure 1). Acellular eosinophilic rings enclosing clear space represented respiratory tubes and tubules that transport air. Of the sections with a cellular boundary, those with an even luminal lining contained eosinophilic anisocytic spheres representing ova within the reproductive tract. The sections with a convoluted innermost layer were of three types. One category had filamentous lining and a generally collapsed lumen containing clear space (Figure 2), likely fluid within the filtration-excretory system. The other two categories had columnar lining, characteristic of digestive epithelia, and lumina containing a pink substance, representing blood and tissue exudate that had been ingested by the sand flea. Where the lining was dense, prolific and deeply invaginated the lumen was narrower and the pink substance was relatively homogeneous (Figure 3A.) However, where the lining had short spread out cylindrical cells the lumen was spacious and the pink substance had many organelles representing nuclei of polymorphonuclear and mononuclear white blood cells (Figure 3B). About the nuclei were clusters of translucent spheres with spots inside them (Figure 4). At higher magnification the sphere was a clearness around two spots, one large and dark, the other small and red. Other spheres clustered on yellow globular particles, some were solitary. No microfilaria-like

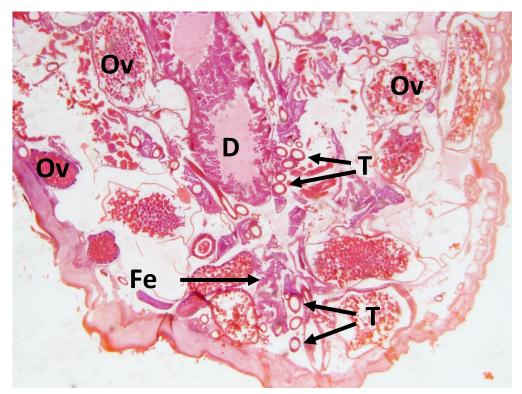


Figure 1. A section through the arthropod's coelom showing cross-sections of respiratory (T), reproductive (\mathbf{Ov}) , filtration-excretory (**Fe**) and digestive (**D**) organs (X10).

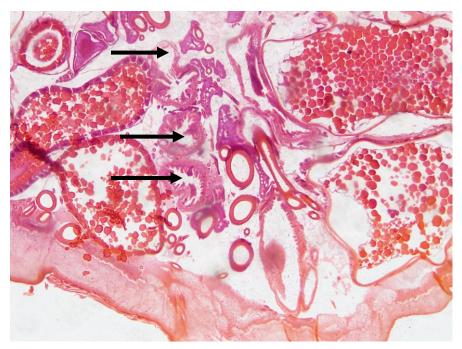


Figure 2. The filtration-excretory sections with a highly convoluted lining, arrows point to the clear content in the lumen (X40).

structures were seen within the pink substance. On cross-reference, blood smears from patients had microfilariae, sometimes found at the periphery (Figures 5A and B), as well as spheres, at times dark blue and

red and other times translucent, clustered within monocytic white blood cells (Figures 6A and B). In smears of bone marrow aspirates from patients, the spheres were clearly seen as Leishman-Donovan (LD)

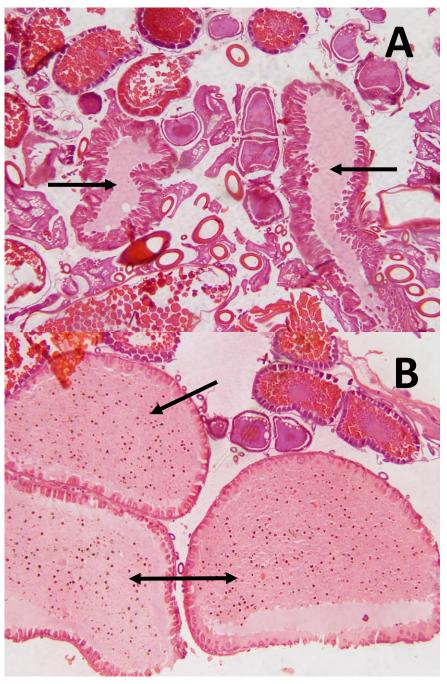


Figure 3. The digestive sections with columnar lining, arrows point to the homogeneous (**A**) and speckled (**B**) pink substance inside the lumina (X20).

bodies with a dark nucleus and red kinetoplast (Figure 7).

DISCUSSION

The various cross-sections surrounded by a multilayered exoskeleton could identify with the respective internal organs of the arthropod, based on the morphological features of their boundaries and the luminal content. At all levels, abundant respiratory and reproductive cross-sections inferred the bifurcating or winding nature of the organs. The filtration-excretory and digestive cross-sections on the other hand were conspicuous for their tortuous luminal lining, suggestive of an absorptive-excretory function. Inside digestive lumina the pink substance matched the characteristics of the blood and tissue exudate that would have been ingested by the sand flea. Usually in Giemsa-treated blood smears, red blood cells stain pale to rich pink, white blood cell cytoplasm stains pale blue to light purple and the nuclei stain dark blue to deep purple (WHO, 2003). The exudate, which in human tungiasis

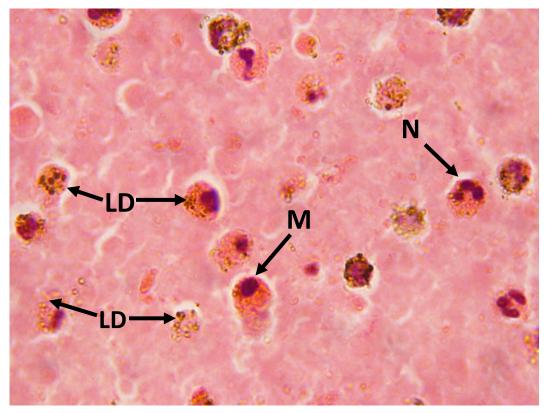


Figure 4. The pink substance containing nuclei of polymorphonuclear (N) and monocytic (M) leukocytes, about which clustered translucent spheres (LD). A nucleus and kinetoplast are seen in some spheres (x100).

ranges from serous to sanguinous, serosanguinous and purulent, consists of plasma, blood proteins and white blood cells. Because female sand fleas burrow under the skin and hypertrophy (Geigy and Herbig, 1949), a foreign body effect is created within tissue. This and the frequent secondary bacterial infections (Zziwa, 2009) provoke an influx of granulocytic neutrophils and agranular monocytes which serve antimicrobial and tissue repair purposes. In the pink substance therefore, an inflammatory reaction of the human host was suggested by the plentiful white blood cell nuclei. Both polymorphonuclear and mononuclear cells showed intracytoplasmic bodies which were suspected to be unicellular microorganisms, since two minute organelles could be identified inside them. The bodies had probably been endocytosed or released, as several others were also seen in space far from the nuclei.

The identification of translucent spheres, now recognised as LD bodies, was retrospective given that the initial intention had been to describe histological features of the sand flea. This followed observation of similar microstructures within monocytic cells first in bone marrow aspirate smears from patients suspected with haematological malignancy, then in tissue biopsies from patients suspected with lymphoma or Kaposi sarcoma and subsequently in peripheral blood smears from patients with anaemia or haemorrhagic tendency. The clustering of the spheres about cell nuclei implied

an intracellular confinement that is characteristic of Leishmania particularly in tissue macrophages (WHO, 1991). On the other hand, the solitary spheres and others adherent onto adipose-like alobules suggested an extracellular existence of the microorganism, possibly following white blood cell degeneration or rupture. That the nuclei and spheres were absent from portions of the flea's digestive tract, may have been consequent to processing in the midgut. However, the total absence of microfilaria which on light microscopy were frequently demonstrable in patients' blood, urine and faeces was more difficult to explain. It was possible that the haematophagy excluded the much larger helminths (Figure 6A) or that they were also degraded by the digestive process or even removed during the numerous staining and washing stages of tissue processing. For instance, the staining and washing of blood smears tended to displace microfilaria to the periphery (Figures 5A and B). Subsequently, they could escape recognition if microscopy focussed only on the body of the smear. Microfilaria were as well hardly seen at the tail-end of a blood smear, while multitudes of solitary LD bodies were often found at tail-ends of bone marrow aspirate smears, particularly in severely ill patients (Figure 7).

The sand flea's carriage of LD bodies had epidemiological significance, since neither leishmaniasis nor *Phlebotomus* were known in eastern

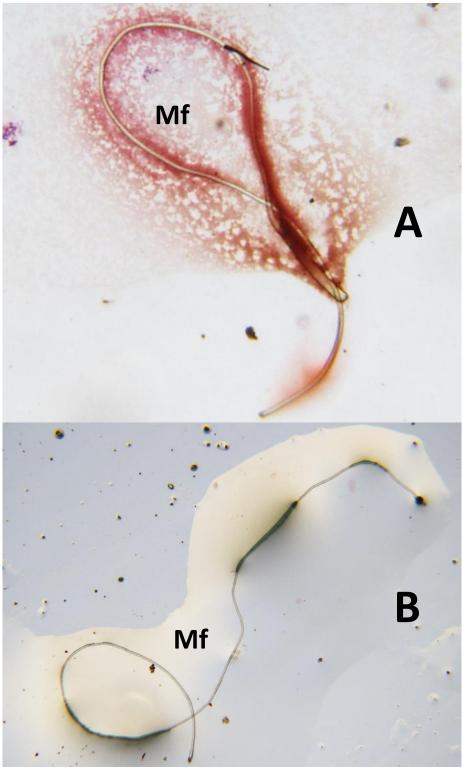


Figure 5. Microfilaria displaced (A) to the periphery (X20) and (B) beyond the body of a blood smear following the Giemsa-staining process (X10).

Uganda. Questions arose about either species involved, potential reservoirs and possible modes of transmission. The gravid sand fleas were end stages which fed exclusively on humans, hence the presence of LD bodies in their meal was diagnostic of a cutaneous and/or systemic leishmanial infection in the donors. In no way did this indicate an effective parasitisation of the sand fleas or that they and their offhost feeder counterparts could transmit the protozoa. It is within *Phlebotomus* and *Lutzomyia*, in the Old and New Worlds respectively, that *Leishmania* replicate, develop and migrate appropriately to produce a transmi-

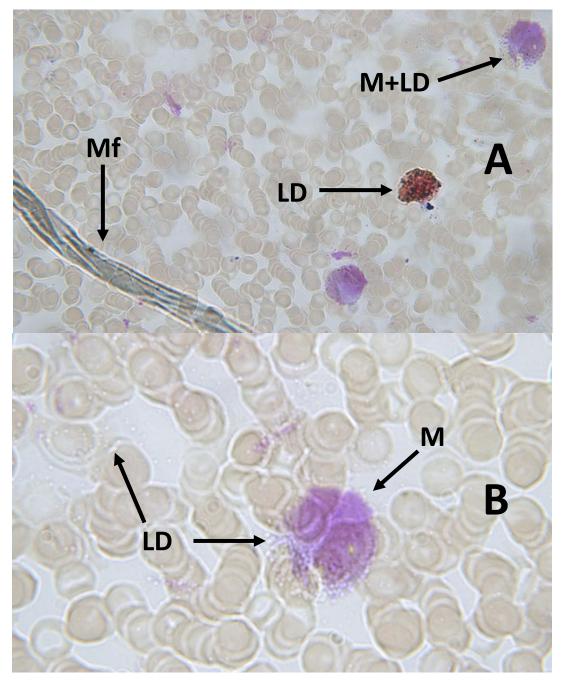


Figure 6. A: A Giemsa-stained blood smear with part of a microfilarium (**M**f), mononuclear leukocyte with clustered dark blue and red spots (**M+LD**) and the spots (**LD**) clustered onto an adipose-like globule (X40). **B:** Translucent spheres clustered within a monocyte (**M**) and several extracellular others (X100).

issible infection (WHO, 2010). In South America where human and canine leishmaniasis are endemic, ticks, lice and synanthropic fleas were found with leishmanial nucleic acids (Colombo et al., 2011; de Morais et al., 2013), making them suspects as vectors. Like the phlebotomines, the ectoparasites inhabit peridomestic environments, feed alternatively on birds, rodents and animals and can transmit other parasites. Human babesiosis for instance, has been documented (Lee et al., 1997) and *Babesia* was detected in cow and dog ticks in Uganda (Nakayima et al., 2014; Proboste, 2015). The cestodes *Hymenolepis* and *Dipylidium* which cause paediatric disease (Buzigi, 2015; Chappel et al., 1990) can be transmitted by *Ctenocephalides* dog and cat fleas, and the dog louse *Trichodectes* can transmit *Dipylidium* (Chappel et al., 1990). Still, despite a closer proximity than the phlebotomines to hosts which might be infected, the ability of the ectoparasites to transmit leishmaniae requires further evaluation (Otranto and Dantas-Torres, 2010).

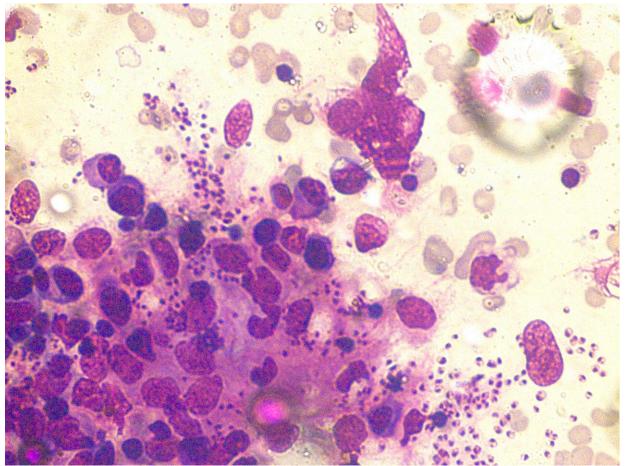


Figure 7. The tail-end of a bone marrow aspirate smear with Leishman-Donovan bodies (x100).

More significantly, the human carriage of LD bodies had clinical and epidemiological implications. The enucleate donors, most of them very young, were reasonably healthy save for the normally self-limiting tungiasis. Nonetheless, they could eventually develop full-blown cutaneous, mucocutaneous or systemic leishmaniasis. In endemic communities, asymptomatic infection has been characterised by parasite-specific immune responses or the presence of Leishmania or their nucleic acids in blood (Alvar et al., 2020). Because the donors were not in a known endemic area, they probably would not qualify as asymptomatically infected. Even then, their existence hinted that many others were similarly affected, an occurrence in our setting for which vector-borne transmission might be responsible. Such persons, besides creating foci of disease, can act as reservoirs of infection for the vectors (Sentongo et al., 2018). Because they tend to be more in numbers than those with disease, symptomfree individuals may also contribute considerably to parasite transmission. Namely, they could facilitate parenteral transmission via trans-placental (Eltoum, 1992), intravenous inoculation (Pineda et al., 2001), blood product infusion (Manthur and Samantaray, 2004) and blood transfusion (Dey and Singh, 2006) routes.

These alternative modes of parasite transmission would seriously challenge the current control strategy for visceral leishmaniasis in Uganda (MoH Uganda, 2013), which is intensified case management.

CONCLUSION

The blood and tissue exudate which had been ingested by the enucleated gravid sand fleas had numerous leukocytes, indicating an inflammatory reaction of the human host. The phagocytic neutrophils and monocytes contained Leishman-Donovan therein bodies. suggesting a cutaneous and/or systemic infection in the donors. Though the relatively healthy mostly paediatric humans were not in a known endemic area, the findings implied that many individuals were similarly affected. With Leishmania in their blood and tissue, such persons can infect female sand flies, develop visceral, cutaneous or mucocutaneous leishmaniasis and facilitate parenteral modes of parasite transmission.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We thank Ms Ruth Nakigudde of the Department of Pathology, School of Biomedical Sciences, College of

Health Sciences, Makerere University for preparing the histology slides.

REFERENCES

- Alvar J, Alves F, Bucheton B, Burrows L, Büscher P, Carrillo E, Felger I, Hübner MP, Moreno J, Pinazo MJ, Ribeiro I, Sosa-Estani S, Specht S, Tarral A, Wourgaft NS, Bilbe G (2020). Implications of asymptomatic infection for the natural history of selected parasitic tropical diseases. Semin. Immunopathol. doi.org/10.1007/s00281-020-00796y.
- Bouyou Akotet MK, Owono-Medang M, Mawili-Mboumba DP, Moussavou-Boussougou MN, Nzenze Afe`ne S, Kendjo E, Kombila M (2016). The relationship between microfilaraemic and amicrofilaraemic loiasis involving co-infection with *Mansonella perstans* and clinical symptoms in an exposed population from Gabon. J. Helminthol. 90: 469-475.
- Buzigi E (2015). Prevalence of intestinal parasites, and its association with severe acute malnutrition related diarrhoea. J. Biol. Agric. Healthcare 5 (2): ISSN 2224-3208.
- Chandan KR, Sofia AS, Ahmed AS, Ruhul AM (2009). Detection of LD body in peripheral blood buffy-coat from suspected Kala-azar cases of Bangladesh. Bangl. J. Med. Microbiol. 3(1): 27-32.
- Chappel CL, Enos JP, Penn HM (1990). *Dipylidium caninum*, an under recognized infection in infants and children. Pediatr. Inf. Dis. J. 9(10); 745-746.
- Chulay JD, Adoyo MA, Githure JI (1985). *Leishmania donovani* parasitaemia in Kenyan visceral leishmaniasis. Trans. Roy. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg. 79(2): 218-222.
- Clement PW, Li DK (2017). Peripheral blood and bone marrow involvement by visceral leishmaniasis. Blood 130(5): 692.
- Colombo FA, Odorizzi RMFN, Laurenti MD, Galati EAB, Canavez F, Pereira-Chioccola VL (2011). Detection of *Leishmania (Leishmania) infantum* RNA in fleas and ticks collected from naturally infected dogs. Parasitol. Res. 109(2): 267-274 doi: 10.1007/s00436-010-2247-6.
- Custodio E, Gadisa E, Sordo L, Cruz I, Moreno J, Nieto J, Chicharro C, Aseffa A, Abraham Z, Hailu T, Canãvate C (2012). Factors associated with *Leishmania* asymptomatic infection: Results from a cross-sectional survey in highland northern Ethiopia. PLoS. Negl. Trop. Dis. 6(9): e1813 doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0001813.
- de Morais RCS, Gonçalves-de-Albuquerque SdC, e Silva RP, Costa PL, da Silva KG, da Silva FJ, Brandão-Filho SP, Dantas-Torres F, de Paiva-Cavalcanti M (2013). Detection and quantification of *Leishmania braziliensis* in ectoparasites from dogs. Vet. Parasitol. 196(3-4): 506-508 doi: 10.1016/j.vetpar.2013.03.026.

- Delgado J, Pineda JA, Macías J, Regordán C, Gallardo JA, Leal M, Sanchez-Quijano A, Lissen E (1998). Low sensitivity of peripheral blood smear for diagnosis of subclinical visceral leishmaniasis in human immunodeficiency virus type 1-infected patients J. Clin. Microbiol. 36(1): 315-316.
- Dey A, Singh S (2006). Transfusion transmitted leishmaniasis: A case report and review of literature. Ind. J. Med. Microbiol. 24:165-70.
- Diro E, Yansouni CP, Takele Y, Mengesha B, Lynen L, Hailu A, van Griensven J, Boelaert M, Büscher P (2017). Diagnosis of visceral leishmaniasis using peripheral blood microscopy in Ethiopia: A prospective phase-III study of the diagnostic performance of different concentration techniques compared to tissue aspiration. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 96(1): 190-196 doi:10.4269/ajtmh.16-0362.
- Eltoum IA, Zijlstra EE., Ali MS, Ghalib HW, Satti MMH, Eltoum B, El-Hassan AM (1992). Congenital kalaazar and leishmaniasis in the placenta Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 46(1): 57-62.
- Ferreira GR, Ribeiro JCCB, Filho AM, Pereira TdJCF, Parente DM, Pereira HF, da Silva JC, Zacarias DA, da Silva LV, Faustino SKM, Neto WSA, Costa DL, de Mendonça IL, Costa CHN (2018). Human competence to transmit *Leishmania infantum* to *Lutzomyia longipalpis* and the influence of human immunodeficiency virus infection. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 98(1): 126-133 doi:10.4269/ajtmh.16-0883.
- FMoH Ethiopia (2013). Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and prevention of leishmaniasis in Ethiopia. Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Health www.who.int > leishmaniasis > burden> Guidelines_for.
- França AdO, Pompilio MA, Pontes ERJC, de Oliveira MP, Pereira LOR, Lima RB, Goto H, Sanchez MCA, Fujimori M, Lima-Júnior MSdC, Matos MdFC, Dorval MEMC (2018). *Leishmania* infection in blood donors: A new challenge in leishmaniasis transmission? PLoS One 13(6): e0198199 doi.org/10.1371/ journal.pone.0198199.
- Geigy R, Herbig A (1949). Die Hypertrophie der Organe beim Weibchen von *Tunga Penetrans*. Acta Tropica 6: 246-262.
- Ghimire PG, Ghimire P, Adhikari J, Chapagain A (2019). A case report of visceral leishmaniasis and malaria co-infection with pancytopenia and splenomegaly - a diagnostic challenge. BMC Infect. Dis. 19:849.
- Gigloo AL, Sarkari B, Rezaei Z, Hatam GR, Davami MH (2018). Asymptomatic *Leishmania* infected children: A seroprevalence and molecular survey in a rural area of Fars Province, southern Iran. J. Trop. Med. AID 8167247, 6 pages doi.org/10.1155/2018/8167247.
- Kar SK, Dwibedi B, Das BK, Agrawala BK, Ramachandran CP, Horton J (2017). Lymphatic pathology in asymptomatic and symptomatic children with *Wuchereria bancrofti* infection in children from

Odisha, India and its reversal with DEC and albendazole treatment. PLoS. Negl. Trop. Dis. 11(10): e0005631.

- Le Fichoux Y, Quaranta JF, Aufeuvre JP, Lelievre A, Marty P, Suffia I, Rousseau D, Kubar J (1999). Occurrence of *Leishmania infantum* parasitemia in asymptomatic blood donors living in an area of endemicity in southern France J. Clin. Microbiol. 37(6): 1953-1957.
- Lee SS, Yang SY, Cho YK, Kim E, Kim YS, Woo JH, Ryu J, Chai JY (1997). An imported case of babesiosis. Korea J. Inf. Dis. 29(1): 49-52.
- Magalhães-Junior JT, Mota TF, Porfirio-Passos G, Larangeira DF, Franke CR, Barrouin-Melo SM (2016). Xenodiagnosis on dogs with visceral leishmaniasis: Canine and sand fly aspects related to the parasite transmission. Vet. Parasitol. 223: 120-126 doi.org/10.1016/j.vetpar.2016.04.031.
- Martínez P, de la Vega E, Laguna F, Soriano V, Puente S, Moreno V, Sentchordi MJ, García-Aguado C, González-Lahoz J (1993). Diagnosis of visceral leishmaniasis in HIV-infected individuals using peripheral blood smears. AIDS 7(2): 227-230 doi: 10.1097/00002030-199302000-00011 PMID: 8466685.
- Mathur P, Samantaray JC (2004). The first probable case of platelet transfusion-transmitted visceral leishmaniasis. Transf. Med. 14: 319-321.
- Millán J, Chirife AD., Kalema-Zikusoka G, Cabezón O, Muro J, Marco I, Cliquet F, León-Vizcaíno L, Wasniewski M, Almería S, Mugisha L (2013). Serosurvey of dogs for human, livestock and wildlife pathogens, Uganda. Emerg. Inf. Dis. 19(4): dx.doi.org/10.3201/eid1904.121143.
- MoH Kenya (2017). Prevention, diagnosis and treatment of visceral leishmaniasis (Kala-Azar) in Kenya; National guidelines for health workers. Republic of Kenya Ministry of Health www.kff.org > news-summary > kenyan-government-r.
- MoH South Sudan (2012). Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and prevention of visceral leishmaniasis in South Sudan. Ministry of Health South Sudan-Juba www.who.int > leishmaniasis > burden> Guidelines_for.
- MoH Uganda (2010). Tungiasis investigation report, Busoga sub-region. Epidemiology and Surveillance Division. Ministry of Health, Plot Six Lourdel Road Wandegeya, P. O. Box 7272 Kampala Uganda.
- MoH Uganda (2013). National Masterplan for Neglected Tropical Diseases Programme 2013-2017. Ministry of Health, Plot Six Lourdel Road Wandegeya, P. O. Box 7272 Kampala Uganda.
- MoH Uganda (2019). Guidelines for the diagnosis, treatment and prevention of visceral leishmaniasis in Uganda. Ministry of Health Uganda www.who.int > leishmaniasis > burden > MOH_Uganda.
- Mohamed NS, Osman HA, Muneer MS, Samy AM, Ahmed A, Mohammed AO, Siddig EE, Abdel Hamid MM, Ali MS, Omer RA, Elaagip AH (2019).

Identifying asymptomatic *Leishmania* infections in non- endemic villages in Gedaref state, Sudan. BMC Res. Notes. 12: 566 doi.org/10.1186/s13104-019-4608-2.

- Mondal D, Bern C, Ghosh D, Rashid M, Molina R, Chowdhury R, Nath R, Ghosh P, Chapman LAC, Alim A, Bilbe G, Alvar J (2019). Quantifying the infectiousness of post-Kala-Azar dermal leishmaniasis toward sand flies. C. I. D. 69(2): 251-258.
- Moniot M, Loyens M, Mary C, L'Ollivier C (2018). Visceral leishmaniasis in acute myeloid leukemia revealed on peripheral blood smear. Clin. Case Rep. 6: 1627-1628 doi 10.1002/ccr3.1632.
- Nakayima J, Magona JW, Sugimoto C (2014). Molecular detection of tick-borne pathogens in ticks from Uganda. Research 1: 767 dx.doi.org/10.13070/rs.en.1.767.
- Onapa AW, Simonsen PE, Pedersen EM, Okello DO (2001). Lymphatic filariasis in Uganda: baseline investigations in Lira, Soroti and Katakwi Districts Trans. Roy. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg. 95: 161-167.
- Otranto D, Dantas-Torres F (2010). Fleas and ticks as vectors of Leishmania spp. to dogs: Caution is needed. Vet. Parasitol. 168: 173-174 doi: 10.1016/j.vetpar.2009.11.016.
- Proboste T, Kalema-Zikusoka G, Altet L, Solano-Gallego L, Fernández de Mera IG, Chirife AD, Muro J, Bach E, Piazza A, Cevidanes A, Blanda V, Mugisha L, de la Fuente J, Caracappa S, Millán J (2015). Infection and exposure to vector-borne pathogens in rural dogs and their ticks, Uganda. Parasites Vectors 8: 306 doi 10.1186/s13071-015-0919-x.
- Rahman KS, Singh MK, Gupta R (2015). *Leishmania donovani* bodies in neutrophils on a peripheral blood smear examination: Report of an unusual incident in a clinically unsuspected case. Ind. J. Pathol. Microbiol. 58(2): 262-263.
- Riera C, Fisa R, López-Chejade P, Serra T, Girona E, Jiménez MT, Muncunill J, Sedeño M, Mascaró M, Udina M, Gállego M, Carrió J, Forteza Al, Portús M (2008). Asymptomatic infection by *Leishmania infantum* in blood donors from the Balearic Islands (Spain) Transf. 48:1383-1389.
- Rohrs LC (1964). Leishmaniasis in the Sudan Republic. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 13(2): 265-271.
- Sadlova J, Seblova V, Votypka J, Warburg A, Volf P (2015). Xenodiagnosis of *Leishmania donovani* in BALB/c mice using *Phlebotomus orientalis*: A new laboratory model. Parasites Vectors 8: 158 doi 10.1186/s13071-015-0765-x.
- Salam MA, Khan MGM, Bhaskar KRH, Afrad MH, Huda MM, Mondal D (2012). Peripheral blood buffy coat smear: A promising tool for diagnosis of visceral leishmaniasis. J. Clin. Microbiol. 50(3): 837-840.
- Schaefer KU, Kurtzhals JA, Gachihi GS, Muller AS, Kager PA (1995). A prospective seroepidemiological study of visceral leishmaniasis in

Baringo District, Rift Valley Province, Kenya. Trans. R. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg. 89(5): 471-475.

- Sentongo E, Kalungi S, Amandua J (2018). Detection of Leishmania amastigotes in human blood ingested by Tunga penetrans. 3rd Grande Doctors Conference 16-17 November 2018. Uganda Medical Journal 3(1): 49.
- Sentongo E, Kalungi S, Mukone G (2020b). Histological demonstration of the organisms causing human tungiasis in eastern Uganda. J. Cytol. Histol. 11(1) doi: 10.37421/jch.2020.11.551.
- Sentongo E, Tusiime P, Muwanguzi D, Okiria J, Mafigiri R (2020a). Investigation of a haemorrhagic febrile illness in Nakaseke District, Central Uganda: A case series report. Afr. J. Parasitol. Res. 7(2): 01-13.
- Sharma MC, Gupta AK, Das VNR, Verma N, Kumar N, Saran R, Kar SK (2000). *Leishmania donovani* in blood smears of asymptomatic persons. Acta Tropica 76(2): 195-196.

- Shiddo SA, Mohamed AA, Akuffo HO, Mohamud KA, Herzi AA, Mohamed HH, Huldt G, Nilsson L-Å, Ouchterlony Ö, Thorstensson R (1995). Visceral leishmaniasis in Somalia: prevalence of markers of infection and disease manifestations in a village in an endemic area. Trans. Roy. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg. 89(4): 361-365.
- WHO (1991). Basic laboratory methods in medical parasitology p45.
- WHO (2003). Bench aids for the diagnosis of malaria infections Plate 12.
- WHO (2010). Control of the leishmaniases: Report of a meeting of the WHO Expert Committee on the Control of leishmaniases. Tech. Rep. Ser. 949.
- Zziwa GB (2009). Review of tetanus admissions to a rural Ugandan hospital. Health Policy and Development 7(3): 199-202.