cambridge.org/pao

Review

*These authors equally contributed as the first author.

Cite this article: Abdoli A, Maspi N, Ghaffarifar F, Nasiri V (2018). Viscerotropic leishmaniasis: a systematic review of the case reports to highlight spectrum of the infection in endemic countries. *Parasitology Open* **4**, e11, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1017/pao.2018.9

Received: 26 December 2017 Revised: 1 March 2018 Accepted: 2 March 2018

Key words:

Case reports; cutaneous leishmaniasis; *Leishmania tropica*; systematic review; visceral leishmaniasis; viscerotropic leishmaniasis

Author for correspondence:

Amir Abdoli, E-mail: a.abdoli@modares.ac.ir; a.abdoli25@gmail.com and Nahid Maspi, E-mail: n.maspi@modares.ac.ir; nmaspi82@gmail.com

© Cambridge University Press 2018. This is an Open Access article, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution licence (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited



Viscerotropic leishmaniasis: a systematic review of the case reports to highlight spectrum of the infection in endemic countries

Amir Abdoli^{1*}, Nahid Maspi^{2*}, Fatemeh Ghaffarifar¹ and Vahid Nasiri³

¹Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Medical Sciences, Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran; ²Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Paramedicine, Ilam University of Medical Sciences, Ilam, Iran and ³Department of Parasitology, Razi Vaccine and Serum Research Institute, Karaj, Alborz, Iran

Abstract

Visceral leishmaniasis is an important neglected parasitic disease that is generally caused by Leishmania infantum, Leishmania donovani and Leishmania chagasi. However, several causative species of cutaneous leishmaniasis (CL) causes an interstitial form of leishmaniasis which known viscerotropic leishmaniasis. The aim of this paper is a systematic review of the cases of viscerotropic leishmaniasis to present the main causative agents, clinical manifestations, treatment and outcomes of the cases. An electronic search (any date to August 2017) without language restrictions was performed using Medline, PubMed, Scopus and Google Scholar. The searches identified 19 articles with total 30 case reports. Of them, old world Leishmania species was reported from 23 (76.7%) cases, including 20 cases of L. tropica and three cases of L. major; whereas new world Leishmania species were reported in seven (23.4%) cases. The infection was more prevalent in male (24/30, 80%) than female (5/30, 16.7%) patients. Co-morbidity/co-infection was observed in 13 out of 30 cases (43.4%), which the most of them was HIV/AIDS (10 out of 13 cases, 76.9%). The results suggested that viscerotropic leishmaniasis should be more attended in the endemic countries of CL and in immunocompromised patients in order to exact discrimination from other endemic infectious diseases.

Introduction

Leishmaniasis is a neglected tropical disease with a broad global distribution (Murray et al. 2005). The main clinical forms of leishmaniasis are visceral leishmaniasis (VL), cutaneous leishmaniasis (CL) and mucocutaneous leishmaniasis (MCL) (Murray et al. 2005). The disease has infected 12 million people worldwide and is endemic in 88 countries (Alvar et al. 2012). According to estimation, the annual incidence of CL and VL are 0.7–1.2 and 0.2–0.4 million new cases, respectively, with mortality rates of 20 000–40 000 cases (Alvar et al. 2012).

The causative agents of VL are four species of the genus *Leishmania*, including *L. infantum*, L. donovani and L. archibaldi in the old world (i.e. Europe, Asia and Africa) and L. chagasi in the New World (i.e. the American) (Guerin et al. 2002; Quinnell and Courtenay, 2009). However, in the new classification, clinically and epidemiologically VL is divided into two main forms: (1) zoonotic visceral leishmaniasis (ZVL) caused by L. infantum that occurs in Asia, North Africa, Europe, South and Central America. ZVL affects mainly young children and the domestic dogs are its principal reservoirs. (2) Anthroponotic visceral leishmaniasis (AVL) caused by L. donovani exists in India, parts of the Middle East and East Africa. AVL affects people of all ages and transmits from human to human by infected sand fly bite (Choi and Lerner, 2001; Lukeš et al. 2007; Quinnell and Courtenay, 2009). CL is caused by L. tropica, L. major and L. aethiopica in the old world and L. braziliensis, L. mexicana, L. amazonensis, L. guyanensis and L. panamensis in the new world (Murray et al. 2005; Alvar et al. 2012; McGwire and Satoskar, 2014). Also, L. braziliensis is a causative agent of MCL in the new world (McGwire and Satoskar, 2014). However, an interstitial form of leishmaniasis, which known as viscerotropic leishmaniasis is caused by main causative agents of CL, in particular L. tropica and L. mexicana (Barral et al. 1986; Sacks et al. 1995; Monroy-Ostria et al. 2000; Choi and Lerner, 2001; Weiss et al. 2009). Viscerotropic leishmaniasis clinically differs from VL. VL causes signs and symptoms including fever, splenomegaly, lymphadenopathy, emaciation, pancytopenia and hyperglobulinaemia, while viscerotropic leishmaniasis causes non-specific symptoms including high fever, malaise, intermittent diarrhoea and abdominal pain without the classic signs or symptoms of VL (Barral et al. 1986; Sacks et al. 1995; Monroy-Ostria et al. 2000; Choi and Lerner, 2001; Weiss et al. 2009). Hence, we performed a systematic review of the cases of viscerotropic leishmaniasis to present the main causative agents and clinical appearance of the diseases.

Materials and methods

An electronic search without language restrictions was performed using Medline, PubMed, Scopus and Google Scholar (any date to August 2017). The search was conducted according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA)

2 Amir Abdoli *et al.*

Table 1. Search strategy and terms used to identify studies on visceral leishmaniasis due to different *Leishmania* species

| Term | 1. Leishmania tropica, 2. Leishmania major, 3. Leishmania braziliensis, 4. Leishmania mexicana, 5. Leishmania amazonensis 6. Visceral, 7. Viscerotropic, 8. Disseminated, 9. Systemic, 10. HIV, 11. AIDS, 12. Immunodeficiency, 13. Immunocompromised. |
|----------|--|
| Strategy | 1 OR 2 OR 3 OR 4 OR 5 AND 6 OR 7 OR 8 OR 9 OR 10 OR 11 OR 12 OR 13 |

statement (Moher et al. 2015). The terms and search strategy are described in Table 1. All titles, abstracts and full texts from each of the searches were examined and reviewed. The search was limited to literatures on humans. Moreover, all selected references were hand-searched for other relevant articles or their citations in Google Scholar. Data selection was also performed after removing duplications by Endnote software (Kwon et al. 2015). Articles were considered eligible for inclusion if they involved case reports or case series of patients with VL who infected with one of *Leishmania* species that regularly causing CL. Also, an article was selected if it reports details of diagnostic tests (e.g. molecular methods or isoenzyme identification) or relevant evidence to confirm the species of *Leishmania* parasite.

Results

The search identified 52 relevant studies after removing duplicates. Finally, 19 out of the 52 articles met the inclusion criteria (Fig. 1). (Mebrahtu et al. 1989; Hernández et al. 1993, 1995a, b; Magill et al. 1993; Sacks et al. 1995; Hanly et al. 1998; Ramos-Santos et al. 2000; Gontijo et al. 2002; Silva et al. 2002; Alborzi et al. 2006, 2008; Aleixo et al. 2006; Karamian et al. 2007; Weiss et al. 2009; Jafari et al. 2010; Mestra et al. 2011; Shafiei et al. 2014; Bamorovat et al. 2015).

The articles describing the history of 30 human cases (Tables 2–5). One article was excluded because the study was retrospectively

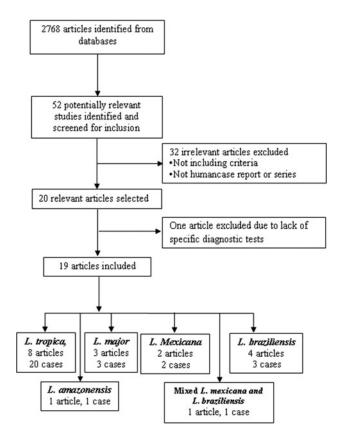


Fig. 1. Flow of diagram through the different phases of the review.

Total 20 30 Mexico Colombia Venezuela Brazil **Burkina Faso** Afghanistan Kenya 7 India Saudi Arabia 8_a 7 mexicana Mixed L. braziliensis and L. L. amazonensis L. braziliensis L. mexicana L. tropica L. major New world Old world Total

Table 2. The number of cases that reported from endemic regions

Table 3. Visceral leishmaniasis caused by Leishmania tropica in human

| Sex, age, country, year of case report and ref | Co-morbidity or co-infection | Symptoms | Cutaneous lesion | Diagnostic method | Treatment | Outcome |
|--|------------------------------|--|---------------------|---|---|---|
| Male, age was not reported American soldier who returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia, 1990—1992 (Dillon et al. 1995; Magill et al. 1993) | No | Adenopathy Fever Abdominal pain++ Malaise+ Fatigue++ Hepatosplenomegaly Headache Non-productive cough | No | -Positive antibody to Leishmania by IFA assay Amastigote in bone-marrow (BM) aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspirates Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) with recombinant L. tropica antigens Isoenzyme analysis | Responded to sodium antimony gluconate | Signs and symptoms resolved after treatment |
| Male, 39 years American soldier who returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia, 1990—1992 (Dillon et al. 1995; Magill et al. 1993) | No | Fever Abdominal pain+ Malaise++ Fatigue+ Headache Non-productive cough | No | Positive antibody to Leishmania by IFA assay Amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspirates Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) with recombinant L. tropica antigens Isoenzyme analysis | Responded to sodium antimony gluconate | Signs and symptoms resolved after treatment |
| Male, 20 years American soldier who returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia, 1990–1992 (Dillon et al. 1995; Magill et al. 1993) | No | Gastroenteritis Without fever Abdominal pain+++ Malaise+++ Fatigue+ Splenomegaly | No | Positive antibody to Leishmania by IFA assay Amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspirates Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) with recombinant L. tropica antigens Isoenzyme analysis | Responded to sodium antimony gluconate | Signs and symptoms resolved after treatment |
| Male, age was not reported American soldier who returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia, 1990–1992 (Dillon et al. 1995; Magill et al. 1993) | No | Without symptoms | No | Positive antibody to Leishmania by IFA assay Amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspirates Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) with recombinant L. tropica antigens Isoenzyme analysis | No treatment was recommended | No symptoms after 18 months of follow-up |

| Sex, age, country, year of case report and ref | Co-morbidity or co-infection | Symptoms | Cutaneous lesion | Diagnostic method | Treatment | Outcome |
|---|------------------------------|---|---------------------|---|--|--|
| Male, age was not reported American soldier who returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia, 1990–1992 (Dillon et al. 1995; Magill et al. 1993) | No | Chronic fatigue Hepatosplenomegaly Fever Abdominal pain+ Malaise+ Fatigue+++ Headache Non-productive cough | No | Positive antibody to Leishmania by IFA assay Amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspirates Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) with recombinant L. tropica antigens Isoenzyme analysis | Responded to sodium antimony gluconate | Sever thrombocytopenia developed after treatment and the drug was discontinued after 18 days. Signs and symptoms resolved after treatment |
| Male, 35 years American soldier who returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia, 1990–1992 (Magill et al. 1993; Dillon et al. 1995) | No | Chronic fatigue Hepatosplenomegaly Adenopathy Without fever Abdominal pain+ Malaise+ Fatigue+++ Headache Non-productive cough | No | Positive antibody to Leishmania by IFA assay Absence of amastigote in BM and liver biopsy Detection of amastigote in lymph node biopsy Positive promastigote in lymph node culture Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) with recombinant L. tropica antigens Isoenzyme analysis | Not responded to sodium antimony gluconate | Remained symptomatic |
| Male, age was not reported American soldier who returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia, 1990–1992 (Magill et al. 1993; Dillon et al. 1995) | HIV | Mononucleosis like symptoms Fever Abdominal pain+/— Malaise+++ Fatigue+ Headache Non-productive cough | No | Positive antibody to Leishmania by IFA assay Amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspirates Positive antibody to Leishmania by IFA assay Amastigote in BM aspiration Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) with recombinant L. tropica antigens Isoenzyme analysis | Responded to sodium antimony gluconate | Sever thrombocytopenia developed after treatment and the drug was discontinued after 8 days. Signs and symptoms resolved after treatment |
| Male, age was not reported American soldier who returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia, 1990–1992 (Magill et al. 1993) | Renal carcinoma | FeverAbdominal pain+Malaise++Fatigue++Hepatosplenomegaly | No | | Not treated with sodium antimony gluconate | Remained symptomatic with fatigue, malaise, non-productive cough and low-grade fever 14 months after nephrectomy |

| Male, 32 years Iran, 2003 (Jafari et al. 2010) | HIV (CD4 count was 180/mm³) Intravenous drug user HCV Pulmonary tuberculosis | Disseminated leishmaniasis with BM involvement Many non-ulcerative leproid nodules | Leproid nodules | Negative serological tests (DAT, IFA, rK39 dipstick) Negative blood culture Positive amastigote in BM aspiration Positive promastigote in BM culture Positive amastigote in skin lesions by direct microscopic examination L. tropica identified by PCR-RFLP and RAPD-PCR | Glucantime Antiretroviral drugs (zidovudine, lamivudine, nelfinavir) plus an antituberculosis regimen | Improvement of skin lesions CD4 count increased 300/mm ³ after treatment |
|--|--|---|--------------------------|--|--|---|
| Male, 49 years Iran, 2006 (Jafari et al. 2010) | HIV (CD4 count was 180/mm³) Intravenous drug user | Disseminated leishmaniasis with BM involvement Multiple, small, mobile lymph nodes Mild splenomegaly A few small lymph nodes in the liver hilum and paraceliac area | Multiple skin lesions | Positive anti -Leishmania antibodies (DAT, IFA, rK39 dipstick) Positive amastigote in BM aspiration and skin biopsy Positive promastigote culture of BM Abdominal sonography L. tropica identified by PCR-RFLP and RAPD-PCR | Glucantime Antiretroviral drugs (zidovudine, lamivudine, nelfinavir) plus an antituberculosis regimen | Improvement of skin lesions CD4 count increased 210/mm ³ after treatment |
| Female, 15 years Southern Iran, 2005 (Alborzi et al. 2008) | No | Multiple papulonodular lesions Hepatosplenomegaly Multiple intra-abdominal lymph nodes | Papulonodular lesions | Amastigote in skin lesions Promastigote in culture of skin lesion biopsy Positive anti-Leishmania antibody in IFA Positive leishmanin skin test (LST) Positive PCR on BM aspirate, skin lesions and whole blood L. tropica identified by isoenzyme analysis | Treatment failure with meglumine antimoniate Unresponse to amphotericin B Unresponse to a 4-month course of meglumine antimoniate and IFN-γ Response to miltefosine after 28 days | Significant decrease in the size of liver and spleen Improvement of skin lesions |
| Sex and age were not reported. Southern Iran, 2006 (Alborzi et al. 2006) | Not reported | Not reported | Not reported | Amastigote in spleen puncture by direct microscopy L. tropica identified by PCR | Not reported | Not reported |
| | | | | | | (Continued) |

(Continued)

| Sex, age, country, year of case report and ref | Co-morbidity or co-infection | Symptoms | Cutaneous lesion | Diagnostic method | Treatment | Outcome |
|---|------------------------------|--|---------------------|--|---|---|
| Male, 50 years Southwest of Iran (Kohgiluyeh va Boyer-Ahmad) 2015 (Sarkari et al. 2016). | No | FeverSpelenomegaly | No | Amastigote in spleen biopsy Serological tests L. tropica identified by PCR | Sodium stibogluconate | Complete resolution of symptoms |
| Male, 8 years India (Vaishali), 1984 (Sacks et al. 1995) | No | MalaiseFeverWeight lossHepatosplenomegalyAnaemiaLeucopenia | No | Positive amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspiration L. tropica identified by PCR, isoenzymes AND monoclonal antibody | Unresponsiveness to sodium antimony gluconate Responded to intramuscular pentamidine for 15–20 days | Improvement in symptoms Decrease in splenomegaly Absence of parasites in repeat BM aspirates |
| Male, 13 years India (Vaishali), 1990–92 (Sacks et al. 1995) | No | MalaiseFeverWeight lossHepatosplenomegalyAnaemiaLeucopenia | No | Positive amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspiration L. tropica identified by PCR, isoenzymes AND monoclonal antibody | Responded to sodium antimony gluconate after 40 days | Improvement in symptoms Decrease in splenomegaly, Absence of parasites in repeat BM aspirates |
| M, 13 years India (Vaishali), 1990–92 (Sacks et al. 1995) | No | Malaise Fever Weight loss Hepatosplenomegaly Anaemia Leucopenia | PKDL | Positive amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspiration L. tropica identified by PCR, isoenzymes AND monoclonal antibody | Responded to sodium antimony gluconate after 90 days | Required three courses of treatment to improve symptoms Decrease in splenomegaly Absence of parasites in repeat BM aspirates |
| Male, 8 years India (Samastipur), 1990–92 (Sacks et al. 1995) | No | MalaiseFeverWeight lossHepatosplenomegalyAnaemiaLeucopenia | No | Positive amastigote in BM aspiration Promastigote in culture of BM aspiration L. tropica identified by PCR, isoenzymes AND monoclonal antibody | Responded to sodium antimony gluconate after 40 days | Improvement in symptoms Decrease in splenomegaly, Absence of parasites in repeat BM aspirates |
| Female, 2 years Kenya, 1981–82 (Mebrahtu et al. 1989) | No | Abdominal swellingFeverMalaiseSplenomegaly | No | Positive amastigote in spleen aspiration L. tropica identified by cellulose acetate electrophoresis using 11 enzymes | Unresponse to sodium stibogluconate Treated with pentamidine Allopurinol | Improvement in symptoms Decrease in spleen size Increase of weight |

| Improvement in symptoms Decrease in spleen size Increase of weight | Complete resolution of symptoms Resolve in splenomegaly and anaemia Improvement of ulcerations |
|--|---|
| Unresponse to sodium stibogluconate IV Glucantime (no improvement) Rifampicin (no improvement) Allopurinol Sbv 20 mg/kg plus allopurinol Pentamidine | • Intravenous sodium stibogluconate • |
| Positive amastigote in BM L. tropica identified by cellulose acetate electrophoresis using 11 enzymes | Positive amastigote in histopathologic examination of skin lesion Positive promastigote in culture Positive anti-leishmania antibody in IFA L. tropica identified by isoenzyme analysis |
| O _N | Yes rtate anine |
| Splenomegaly BM involvement | Weight loss Abdominal pain Splenomegaly Fatigue Pretibial ulcerations Anaemia Elevation in serum aspartate aminotransferase and alanine aminotransferase levels |
| o Z | ived t al. |
| Male, 9 years Kenya, 1981–82 (Mebrahtu et al. 1989) | Female, 17 years an Afghani girl who had lived in the USA, 2009 (Weiss et al. 2009) |

reported five cases of VL in the city of Tabuk in Saudi Arabia without evaluation of *Leishmania* species by specific diagnostic tests. We also could not find the full text of the article (Hanly et al. 1998). Also, one case had been reported in two different journals by the same authors in 1993 and 1995 (Hernández et al. 1993, 1995a); but, the last publication described further clinical manifestation of the patient (Hernández et al. 1995a). We also found five articles that reported six cases of VL in dog due to *L. tropica* (Guessous-Idrissi et al. 1997; Lemrani et al. 2002; Hajjaran et al. 2007; Mohebali et al. 2011; Bamorovat et al. 2015; Sarkari et al. 2016). These cases are presented in supplementary Table 1.

Countries

According to the Table 2, the cases were reported from 10 countries. Leishmania tropica was reported from Iran (five cases) (Alborzi et al. 2006, 2008; Jafari et al. 2010), American soldier returned from operation desert storm in Saudi Arabia (eight cases) (Magill et al. 1993), India (four cases) (Sacks et al. 1995), Kenya (two cases) (Mebrahtu et al. 1989) and the Afghan girl who lived in the USA (one case) (Weiss et al. 2009). Leishmania major was reported from Iran (two cases) (Karamian et al. 2007; Shafiei et al. 2014) and Burkina Faso (one case) (Barro-Traore et al. 2008). Leishmania braziliensis was reported from Brazil (two cases) (Gontijo et al. 2002; Silva et al. 2002) and an Italian man living in Venezuela (one case) (Hernández et al. 1993). Leishmania mexicanawas reported from Colombia (Mestra et al. 2011) (one case) and Mexico (one case) (Ramos-Santos et al. 2000). One case of L. amazonensis was reported from Brazil (Aleixo et al. 2006) and one case of Leishmania variant that shared sequences of L. braziliensis and L. mexicana from Venezuela (Hernández et al. 1995b) (Table 2).

Leishmania species

From 30 cases, old and new world *Leishmania* species were reported from 23 (76.7%) and seven (23.4%), respectively (Fig. 2). From the 23 cases with the old world species, *L. tropica* and *L. major* were reported from 20 (86.95%) and three (13.04%) cases, respectively (Tables 2–3). While, new world *Leishmania* species, including *L. braziliensis*, *L. mexicana* and *L. amazonensis* were reported from three (42.8%), two (28.57%) and one (14.28%) cases, respectively. Also, one article reported a case (14.28%) with a variant of *Leishmania* that shared sequences of *L. braziliensis* and *L. mexicana* (Tables 4 and 5).

Sex and age of the patients

The infection was higher in male (24/30, 80%) than female (5/30, 16.7%) patients (Fig. 3 and Tables 3–5). The sex was not reported in a case report as well (Alborzi et al. 2006). From the old world *Leishmania*-infected patients, *L. tropica* was detected in 16 (80%) and three (15%) out of 20 cases of male and female patients, respectively (Table 1), but the sex was not reported in an *L. tropica*-infected patients (Alborzi et al. 2006). All of the three cases of *L. major* were reported from male patients (Table 4). From the seven cases with the new world *Leishmania*-infection, five (71.4%) and two (28.6%) cases were reported from male and female, respectively (Table 5).

Among the *L. tropica*-infected patients (n = 20 cases), seven and six cases were reported from patients with age ranges of 2–15 and 17–50 years old, respectively. The age was not reported in six out of 20 *L. tropica*-infected patients (Table 3). All of the three *L. major*-infected patients were adult with age ranges of 31–53 years (Table 4). Among the seven patients with the new world *Leishmania* infection, six patients were in the adult aging ranges (19–43 years old) and one case was reported from an 8-year-old *L. amazonensis*-infected patient (Table 5).

Table 4. Visceral leishmaniasis caused by Leishmania major in human

| Sex, age, country, year of case report and ref | Co-morbidity or Co-infection | Symptoms | Cutaneous lesion | Diagnostic method | Treatment | Outcome |
|--|---------------------------------|--|-----------------------------|--|--|--|
| Male, 53 years, Northeast Iran, 2012 (Shafiei et al. 2014). | HIV Intravenous drug use | Intermittent diarrhoea Negative hepatosplenomegaly | - | Positive amastigote in bone-marrow (BM) Positive anti-Leishmania antibody by DAT L. major identified by nested-PCR | HAART therapy (zidovudine, lamivudine, nevirapine) | Not reported |
| Male, 31 years, Iran (Bushehr Province), 2003 (Karamian et al. 2007) | HIV | Intermittent fever Anorexia Fatigue Weight loss Lymphadenopathy Hepatomegaly Splenomegaly Pancytopenia Anaemia Leukopenia | Cutaneous lesions in leg | Positive amastigote in skin and lymph node smears Negative amastigote in BM aspirates Positive anti-Leishmania by IFA L. major identified by nested-PCR | No response to meglumine antimoniate Treated with Amphotericin B | The patient was successfully treated No relapse was seen after a 4-year follow-up |
| Male, 38 years, Burkina Faso, 2004 (Barro-Traore et al. 2008) | HIV | Disseminated leishmaniasis with BM involvement | Papulonodular lesions | -Amastigote in skin and bone marrow Positive promastigote in culture of bone marrow Leishmania spp. was identified by L. major zymodeme MON-74 | Antiretroviral therapy Pentavalent antimonial compound | Improvement in lesions |

Table 5. Visceral leishmaniasis caused by L. braziliensis, L. amazonensis and L. mexicana in human

| Leishmania species, sex, age, country, year of case report and ref | Co-morbidity or co-infection | Symptoms | Cutaneous manifestation | Diagnostic method | Treatment | Outcome |
|---|---|--|---|---|---|--|
| L. braziliensis, Male, 32 years, Brazil (Minas Gerais), 1996 (Gontijo et al. 2002) | Kidney transplant recipient | Cutaneous, visceral and ocular leishmaniasis Fever Hepatosplenomegaly Leucopenia Anaemia Conjunctive hyperemia Intense ocular pain Bilateral endophthamitis Low visual acuity Pain in the legs and thorax | Skin lesions Purple pruriginous lesions | Positive amastigote in BM, aqueous humour and vitreous body Promastigote in culture of bone-marrow (BM) aspirates Positive anti-Leishmania by IFA L. braziliensis identified by PCR-RFLP and RAPD-PCR, isoenzyme analysis and multilocus enzyme electrophoresis (MLEE) | Methylglucamin, Topical mydriatic, corticosteroids and acetozolamide plus intravenous amphotericine B lipossomal Antimonialcompounds | Improvement in the haematological picture and regression of the hepatosplenomegaly No improvement in visual acuity Heart failure and death after complication of the diseases |
| L. braziliensis, Male, 43 years, an Italian man living in Venezuela (Caracas), 1992 (Hernández et al. 1993, 1995a) | HIV Oropharyngeal candidiasis Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia Pleuropericardial tuberculosis | Fever Malaise Anaemia Dry cough Dyspnoea Oral thrush Tachypnoea Basal pulmonary rales Splenomegaly | Skin pallor Maculopapular rash | Positive anti-Leishmania antibody in ELISA Positive amastigote in BM examination L. braziliensis identified by PCR and dot-blot hybridization | Trimethoprim/sulfamethoxasole and fluconalzole Meglumine antimonate Molgramostim plus meglumine antimonite | Excellent results in treatment with molgramostim plus meglumine antimonate |
| L. braziliensis, Female, 19 months, Brazil (Minas Gerais) 1998 (Silva et al. 2002) | HIV | Fever Fatigue Weight loss Pneumonia Lymphodenomegalia Hepatosplenomegaly Malnutrition Anaemia | - | Amastigote in BM aspirate Promastigote in culture of BM aspirate Positive anti-Leishmania antibody in IFA L. braziliensis identified by PCR and hybridization | Antiretroviral drugs (zidovudine, didadosine) IV Glucantime antimonial IV gammaglobulin | The patient died due to respiratory failure and AIDS related pneumocytosis |
| L. mexicana, Male, 42 years, Northwestern Colombia, 2001 (Mestra et al. 2011) | Renal transplant recipient Lupus nephritis CMV infection | Anaemia Thrombocytopenia Leucopenia Fever Hepatosplenomegaly Delirium Respiratory symptoms Bleeding gums Coagulopathy | | Amastigotes in renal biopsy Positive promastigote in BM culture Positive anti-Leishmania antibody in IFA L. mexicana identified by RLFP-PCR and IFA by monoclonal antibodies | Benzinidazole Mycophenolate mofetil Gancyclovir Methylprednsolone Cyclosporine Glucantime Nifurtimox | The patient died due to complication of the diseases |

(Continued)

Table 5. (Continued.)

| Leishmania species, sex, age, country, year of case report and ref | Co-morbidity or co-infection | Symptoms | Cutaneous manifestation | Diagnostic method | Treatment | Outcome |
|---|--|---|----------------------------|---|-----------------------|---|
| | | Pancytopenia | | | | |
| L. mexicana, Male, 36 years, Southern Mexico (Chiapas), 1997 (Ramos-Santos et al. 2000) | HIV Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia | FeverMalaiseHepatosplenomegalyDry coughDyspnoeaAnaemia | • - | Positive PCR in BM biopsy L. mexicana identified by PCR and dot-blot hybridization Negative amastigote in liver biopsy | Not reported | Not reported |
| Mixed L. brazileinsis and L. mexicana, Female, 20 years, Venezuela (Coro) 1992 (Hernández et al. 1995b) | HIV | FeverWeight lossAnaemiaHepatosplenomegaly | - | Amastigote in BM aspirate Leishmania strain identified by PCR and dot-blot hybridization | Meglumine antimonat | Disappearance of fever Decrease in spleen and liver size The patient died due to complication of the diseases |
| L. amazonensis, Male, 8 years, Brazil, 2005 (Aleixo et al. 2006) | - | Fever Hepatosplenomegaly Generalized adenopathy Anaemia Leukopenia | - | Positive promastigote in culture of lymph nodes L. amazonensis identified by Isoenzyme analysis | Meglumine antimoniate | Improvement in general status and the spleen and liver had Returned to normal size |

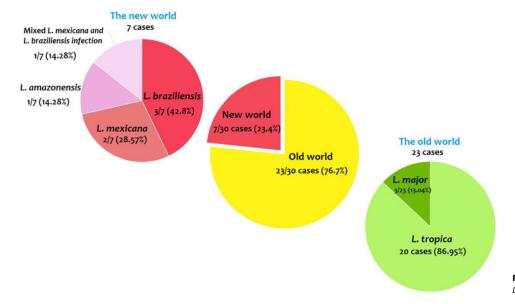


Fig. 2. Prevalence of the old and new world *Leishmania* species.

Co-morbidity/co-infection

From the 30 cases, 13 (43.4%) patients had co-morbidity or coinfection (Fig. 4 and Tables 3-5). The highest co-morbidity/ co-infection rate was reported from patients who infected by the new world Leishmania species (six out of seven cases, 85.7%). While seven out of 20 (35%) cases who infected by the new world Leishmania species had co-morbidity/co-infection. The most co-morbidity/co-infection was HIV/AIDS (10 out of 13 cases, 76.9%), kidney transplant recipient (two out of 13 cases, 15.4%) and renal carcinoma (one out of 13 cases, 7.69%) (Fig. 5). In patients with the new world Leishmania species infection, all three cases of L. braziliensis had co-morbidity/coinfection and were reported from a kidney transplant recipient (Gontijo et al. 2002), an HIV-positive patient (Silva et al. 2002) and an HIV-positive patient with *Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia, oropharyngeal candidiasis and pleuro-pericardial tuberculosis (Hernández et al. 1993, 1995a) (Table 5). Two cases of L. mexicana were reported from a CMV-positive kidney transplant recipient (Mestra et al. 2011) and an HIV-positive patient with P. carinii pneumonia (Ramos-Santos et al. 2000) (Table 5). Also, the patient with mixed L. brazileinsis and L. mexicana infection was HIV positive (Hernández et al. 1993, 1995a) (Table 5).

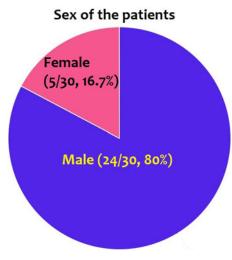


Fig. 3. Prevalence of the infection in males and females.

Co-morbidity/co-infection was reported from 20% (4/20) of *L. tropica*-infected patients (Fig. 5 and Table 3). *Leishmania tropica* was reported from one patient with HIV (Jafari et al. 2010), one patient with HIV–TB–HCV (Jafari et al. 2010) and one patient with renal carcinoma (Magill et al. 1993). All of the three cases of *L. major* were reported from HIV-positive patients (Table 5) (Karamian et al. 2007; Barro-Traore et al. 2008; Shafiei et al. 2014).

Main clinical manifestations

In most of the patients, there were major symptoms of VL including fever, weight loss, hepatosplenomegaly, anaemia and leucopenia, but some patients had non-specific symptoms such as malaise, headache, cough or no symptoms (Tables 3–5). However, it seems that complication of the disease might be involved in the immunity of the patients so that more severe infections alongside with more non-specific symptoms had reported from patients with co-infection/co-morbidity. Duration of the disease is ambiguous because it not reported in the most of the cases. In addition, some cases had several co-morbidity/ co-infection that might impact on the duration of infection (Tables 3–5).

Cutaneous lesions were reported in nine out of 30 cases (30.0%), among them, seven and one patients infected with old and new world *Leishmania* species, respectively. In patients who infected with the old world *Leishmania* species, cutaneous lesions were detected in five out of 20 patients with *L. tropica* infection (two patients had co-infection with HIV/AIDS) and (Alborzi et al. 2008; Weiss et al. 2009; Jafari et al. 2010; Mohebali et al. 2011), two out of three *L. major*-infected patients (both cases had co-infection with HIV/AIDS) (Karamian et al. 2007; Barro-Traore et al. 2008). Among the patients with the new world *Leishmania* species infection, cutaneous lesions were reported in two cases of *L. braziliensis* infection who was a kidney transplant recipient patient (Gontijo et al. 2002) and an HIV-positive patient (Hernández et al. 1993, 1995a) (Tables 3–5).

Diagnostic tests

Diagnosis of the infection was conducted by one or more diagnostic tests according to the symptoms of the patients (Tables 3–5).

12 Amir Abdoli *et al.*

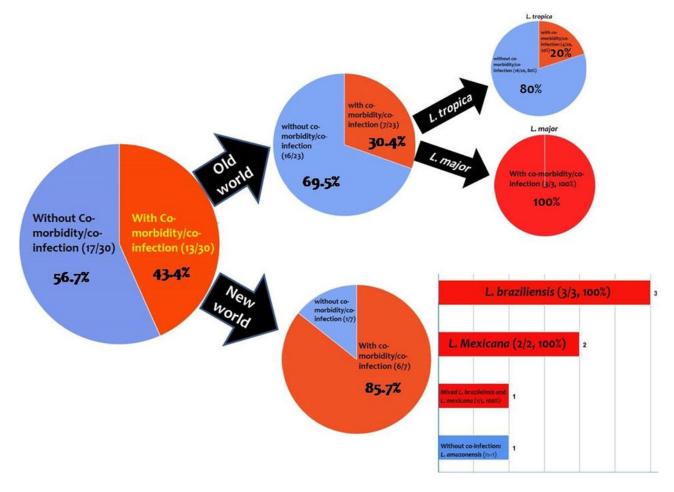


Fig. 4. Prevalence of co-infection/co-morbidity among the cases. Red: with co-infection/co-morbidity and blue: without co-infection/co-morbidity.

Treatment

Patients had mainly been treated with antimonial compounds so that the disease symptoms improved and liver and spleen size decreased or returned to normal size after treatment among the majority of the cases (Tables 3–5). However, five patients with *L. tropica* (Mebrahtu et al. 1989; Magill et al. 1993; Sacks et al. 1995; Alborzi et al. 2008) and one patient with *L. major* (Karamian et al. 2007) showed refractory to antimonial compounds and treated with other drugs (such as amphotericin B, pentamidine, miltefosine, etc.) (Tables 3 and 4). Also, one patient with *L. tropica* was resistant to amphotericin B (Alborzi et al. 2008) (Table 3). Some HIV-positive patients had also been

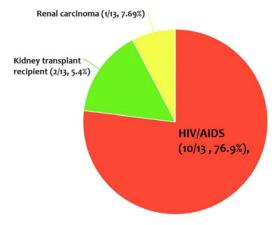


Fig. 5. The most co-infection/co-morbidity among the cases.

received anti-retroviral therapy (Hernández et al. 1993 1995a; Magill et al. 1993; Ramos-Santos et al. 2000; Silva et al. 2002; Karamian et al. 2007; Barro-Traore et al. 2008; Jafari et al. 2010; Shafiei et al. 2014) (Tables 3 and 5).

Outcome

Although most of the patients had healed following common anti-leishmanial therapy alone or in combination with other drugs (Tables 3–5), mortality had occurred in two kidney transplant recipients that infected with *L. braziliensis* (Gontijo et al. 2002) and *L. Mexicana* (Mestra et al. 2011) and one HIV-positive patient with mixed *L. brazileinsis* and *L. mexicana* infection (Hernández et al. 1995b) (Table 5).

Discussion

Viscerotropic leishmaniasis is an interstitial form of leishmaniasis with some non-specific symptoms. These non-specific symptoms may be considered in endemic regions of CL, and also in immunocompromised patients to help differential diagnosis from other endemic diseases. CL is more distributed than VL worldwide, while the most cases of CL have been reported from Afghanistan, Algeria, Colombia, Brazil, Iran, Syria, Ethiopia, North Sudan, Costa Rica and Peru.

The results revealed that the main causative agent of viscero-tropic leishmaniasis is *L. tropica*. In some regions, such as east and southeast of Iran (Sharifi et al. 2015; Karamian et al. 2016), Herat in Afghanistan (Mosawi and Dalimi, 2016) and northwestern Pakistan (Khan et al. 2016), *L. tropica* is the predominant

Leishmania species. In these regions, the viscerotropic manifestations of *L. tropica* should be considered more seriously.

Studies have shown that co-infection of leishmaniasis and HIV/AIDS is an important public health problem in different parts of the world (World Health Organization 2000; Monge-Maillo et al. 2014; Singh, 2014) as well as Iran (Shafiei et al. 2014). Co-morbidity with these two pathogens leads to rapid progression of the disease, development of more severe disease and a poor response to treatment (Singh, 2014). Several atypical presentations have been reported from of CL patients, which most of them detected from HIV-infected individuals (Meireles et al. 2017). The results have shown that the majority of patients who infected with the new world *Leishmania* species and *L. major* had co-infection/co-morbidity such as HIV/AIDS (Figs 3 and 4). Therefore, viscerotropic leishmaniasis should be considered in patients with immunocompromising conditions.

Several studies have shown that higher prevalence of VL in male than female individuals (Guerin et al. 2002; Rodríguez et al. 2018), while a similar proportion in males and females had reported from CL patients (Karimkhani et al. 2016). We also found that higher prevalence of viscerotropic leishmaniasis in male than female cases (80% vs 167%). It is well documented that VL due to L. donovani infects all age groups, whereas L. infantum infects mostly children and immunosuppressed individuals (Chappuis et al. 2007). Also the majority of cases of American VL caused by L. chagasi occur in children (Evans et al. 1992; Pearson and de Queiroz Sousa, 1996; D'Oliveira Júnior et al. 1997). The results showed that the majority of the cases of viscerotropic leishmaniasis due to L. major and new world Leishmania species were reported from adults. In L. tropica, seven out of 20 cases were reported in patients under 15 years and the remaining cases were reported in adults (Table 3).

In conclusion, the results provide information regarding the species and clinical spectrum of viscerotropic leishmaniasis. Therefore, viscerotropic manifestations of CL in native people who live in endemic regions of CL should be considered for exact discrimination from other endemic infectious diseases. In patients who infected with *L. tropica*, a viscerotropic form of leishmaniasis should be more attended. Furthermore, viscerotropic leishmaniasis in patients with immunocompromising conditions and in non-native people who travel to the endemic regions of CL should be a greater consideration.

Acknowledgements. The authors wish to thank all researchers that their works were used in this review.

Financial support. This research received no specific grant from any funding agency, commercial or not-for-profit sectors

Conflict of interest. None.

Ethical standards. This manuscript is a review article and does not involve a research protocol for human and/or animal experimentation requiring approval by the relevant institutional review board or ethics committee.

Supplementary Material. The supplementary material for this article can be found at $\frac{https://doi.org/10.1017/pao.2018.9}{https://doi.org/10.1017/pao.2018.9}$

References

- Alborzi A, Rasouli M and Shamsizadeh A (2006) Leishmania tropica-isolated patient with visceral leishmaniasis in southern Iran. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 74, 306–307.
- Alborzi A, et al. (2008) Isolation of Leishmania tropica from a patient with visceral leishmaniasis and disseminated cutaneous leishmaniasis, southern Iran. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 79, 435–437
- Aleixo J, et al. (2006) Atypical American visceral leishmaniasis caused by disseminated *Leishmania amazonensis* infection presenting with hepatitis and

- adenopathy. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 100, 79–82.
- Alvar J, et al. (2012) Leishmaniasis worldwide and global estimates of its incidence. PLoS ONE 7, e35671.
- Bamorovat M, et al. (2015) Leishmania tropica in Stray Dogs in Southeast Iran. Iranian Journal of Public Health 44, 1359–1366.
- Barral A, et al. (1986) Isolation of Leishmania mexicana amazonensis from the bone marrow in a case of American visceral leishmaniasis. The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 35, 732–734.
- Barro-Traore F, et al. (2008) Cutaneous leishmaniasis due to Leishmania major involving the bone marrow in an AIDS patient in Burkina Faso. Annales de Dermatologie et de Venereologie 135, 380–383.
- Chappuis F, et al. (2007) Visceral leishmaniasis: what are the needs for diagnosis, treatment and control? Nature Reviews Microbiology 5, 873.
- Choi CM and Lerner EA (2001) Leishmaniasis as an emerging infection. Journal of Investigative Dermatology Symposium Proceedings 6, 175–182.
- D'Oliveira Júnior A, et al. (1997) Asymptomatic Leishmania chagasi infection in relatives and neighbors of patients with visceral leishmaniasis. Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz 92, 15–20.
- Dillon DC, et al. (1995) Characterization of a Leishmania tropica antigen that detects immune responses in Desert Storm viscerotropic leishmaniasis patients. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 92, 7981–7985.
- Evans TG, et al. (1992) Epidemiology of visceral leishmaniasis in northeast Brazil. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 166, 1124–1132.
- **Gontijo CM, et al.** (2002) Concurrent cutaneous, visceral and ocular leishmaniasis caused by *Leishmania* (*Viannia*) *braziliensis* in a kidney transplant patient. *Memorias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz* **97**, 751–753.
- Guerin PJ, et al. (2002) Visceral leishmaniasis: current status of control, diagnosis, and treatment, and a proposed research and development agenda. The Lancet Infectious Diseases 2, 494–501.
- Guessous-Idrissi N, et al. (1997) Short report: Leishmania tropica: etiologic agent of a case of canine visceral leishmaniasis in northern Morocco. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 57, 172–173.
- Hajjaran H, et al. (2007) Leishmania tropica: another etiological agent of canine visceral leishmaniasis in Iran. Iranian Journal of Public Health 36, 85–88.
- Hanly M, Amaker B and Quereshi I (1998) Visceral leishmaniasis in North West Saudi Arabia: a new endemic focus of L. donovani or further evidence of a changing pathogenic role for L. tropica? Central African Journal of Medicine 44, 202–205.
- Hernández D, et al. (1993) Leishmania braziliensis causing visceral leishmaniasis in a patient with human immunodeficiency virus infection, identified with the aid of the polymerase chain reaction. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 87, 627–628.
- Hernández DE, et al. (1995a) Visceral leishmaniasis with cutaneous and rectal dissemination due to *Leishmania braziliensis* in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). *International Journal of Dermatology* 34, 114–115.
- Hernández DE, et al. (1995b) Visceral leishmaniasis due to a Leishmania variant that shares kinetoplast DNA sequences with Leishmania braziliensis and Leishmania mexicana in a patient infected with human immunodeficiency virus: identification of the Leishmania species with use of the polymerase chain reaction. Clinical Infectious Diseases 21, 701–702.
- Jafari S, et al. (2010) Disseminated leishmaniasis caused by Leishmania tropica in HIV-positive patients in the Islamic Republic of Iran. Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal 16, 340–343.
- Karamian M, et al. (2007) Leishmania major infection in a patient with visceral leishmaniasis: treatment with Amphotericin B. Parasitology Research 101, 1431–1434.
- Karamian M, et al. (2016) Phylogenetic structure of *Leishmania tropica* in the new endemic focus Birjand in East Iran in comparison to other Iranian endemic regions. *Acta Tropica* 158, 68–76.
- Karimkhani C, et al. (2016) Global burden of cutaneous leishmaniasis: a cross-sectional analysis from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. Lancet Infectious Diseases 16, 584–591.
- Khan NH, et al. (2016) Cutaneous Leishmaniasis in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province of Pakistan: clinical diversity and species-level diagnosis. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 95, 1106–1114.
- Kwon Y, et al. (2015) Identifying and removing duplicate records from systematic review searches. Journal of the Medical Library Association: JMLA 103, 184–188.

14 Amir Abdoli *et al.*

Lemrani M, Nejjar R and Pratlong F (2002) A new *Leishmania tropica* zymodeme–causative agent of canine visceral leishmaniasis in northern Morocco. *Annals of Tropical Medicine & Parasitology* **96**, 637–638.

- Lukeš J, et al. (2007) Evolutionary and geographical history of the Leishmania donovani complex with a revision of current taxonomy. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 104, 9375–9380.
- Magill AJ, et al. (1993) Visceral infection caused by Leishmania tropica in veterans of Operation Desert Storm. New England Journal of Medicine 328, 1383–1387.
- McGwire BS and Satoskar AR (2014) Leishmaniasis: clinical syndromes and treatment. QJM 107, 7–14.
- Mebrahtu Y, et al. (1989) Visceral leishmaniasis unresponsive to pentostam caused by Leishmania tropica in Kenya. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 41, 289–294.
- Meireles CB, et al. (2017) Atypical presentations of cutaneous leishmaniasis: a systematic review. Acta Tropica 172, 240–254.
- Mestra L, et al. (2011) Transfusion-transmitted visceral leishmaniasis caused by *Leishmania* (*Leishmania*) mexicana in an immunocompromised patient: a case report. *Transfusion* 51, 1919–1923.
- Mohebali M, et al. (2011) Disseminated leishmaniasis caused by Leishmania tropica in a Puppy from Karaj, Central Iran. Iranian Journal of Parasitology 6, 69-73.
- Moher D, et al. (2015) Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement. Systematic Reviews 4. 1
- Monge-Maillo B, et al. (2014) Visceral leishmaniasis and HIV coinfection in the Mediterranean region. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 8, e3021.
- Monroy-Ostria A, Hernandez-Montes O and Barker DC (2000) Aetiology of visceral leishmaniasis in Mexico. *Acta Tropica* 75, 155–161.
- Mosawi S and Dalimi A (2016) Molecular detection of *Leishmania* spp. isolated from cutaneous lesions of patients referred to Herat regional hospital, Afghanistan. *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal* 21, 878–884.
- Murray HW, et al. (2005) Advances in leishmaniasis. Lancet 366, 1561-1577.

- Pearson RD and de Queiroz Sousa A (1996) Clinical spectrum of leishmaniasis. Clinical Infectious Diseases 22, 1–13.
- **Quinnell RJ and Courtenay O** (2009) Transmission, reservoir hosts and control of zoonotic visceral leishmaniasis. *Parasitology* **136**, 1915–1934.
- Ramos-Santos C, et al. (2000) Visceral leishmaniasis caused by Leishmania (L.) mexicana in a Mexican patient with human immunodeficiency. Memorias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz 95, 729–733.
- Rodríguez NE, et al. (2018) Epidemiological and experimental evidence for sex-dependent differences in the outcome of *Leishmania infantum* infection. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 98, 142–145.
- Sacks DL, et al. (1995) Indian kala-azar caused by Leishmania tropica. Lancet 345, 959-961.
- Sarkari B, et al. (2016) Molecular evaluation of a case of visceral leishmaniasis due to Leishmania tropica in southwestern Iran. Iranian Journal of Parasitology 11, 126–130
- Shafiei R, et al. (2014) Emergence of co-infection of visceral leishmaniasis in HIV-positive patients in northeast Iran: a preliminary study. Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease 12, 173–178.
- Sharifi I, et al. (2015) A comprehensive review of cutaneous leishmaniasis in Kerman Province, Southeastern Iran-narrative review article. Iranian Journal of Public Health 44, 299–307.
- Silva ESd, et al. (2002) Visceral leishmaniasis caused by Leishmania (Viannia) braziliensis in a patient infected with human immunodeficiency virus. Revista do Instituto de Medicina Tropical de São Paulo 44, 145–149.
- Singh S (2014) Changing trends in the epidemiology, clinical presentation, and diagnosis of Leishmania-HIV co-infection in India. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases: Official Publication of the International Society for Infectious Diseases* 29, 103–112.
- Weiss F, et al. (2009) Leishmania tropica-induced cutaneous and presumptive concomitant viscerotropic Leishmaniasis with prolonged incubation. Archives of Dermatology 145, 1023–1026.
- World Health Organization (2000) Who Report on Global Surveillance of Epidemic-Prone Infectious Diseases. Geneva: World Health Organization.