

HHS Public Access

Author manuscript Int J Infect Dis. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2024 October 01.

Published in final edited form as: Int J Infect Dis. 2023 October ; 135: 28–40. doi:10.1016/j.ijid.2023.07.012.

Fetal growth and birth weight are independently reduced by malaria infection and curable sexually transmitted and reproductive tract infections in Kenya, Tanzania, and Malawi: A pregnancy cohort study

George Mtove1,* , **R. Matthew Chico**2, **Mwayiwawo Madanitsa**3,4, **Hellen C. Barsosio**5, **Omari Abdul Msemo**1,#, **Queen Saidi**6, **Georgia R. Gore-Langton**2, **Daniel T.R. Minja**1, **Crispin Mukerebe**1, **Samwel Gesase**1, **Victor Mwapasa**3, **Kamija S. Phiri**3, **Helle Hansson**7, **James Dodd**8, **Pascal Magnussen**7, **Reginald A. Kavishe**6, **Franklin Mosha**6, **Simon Kariuki**5, **John P.A. Lusingu**1, **Julie R. Gutman**9, **Michael Alifrangis**7, **Feiko O. ter Kuile**8, **Christentze Schmiegelow**⁷

¹National Institute for Medical Research, Department of Research Program, Tanga, Tanzania

²London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, Department of Disease Control, London, United Kingdom

³Kamuzu University of Health Sciences, Blantyre, School of Global and Public Health, Malawi

⁴Malawi University of Science and Technology, Academy of Medical Sciences, Limbe, Malawi

⁵Kenya Medical Research Institute, Centre for Global Health Research, Kisumu, Kenya

⁶Kilimanjaro Clinical Research Institute and Kilimanjaro Christian Medical University College, Moshi, Tanzania

⁷University of Copenhagen, Centre for Medical Parasitology, Department of Immunology, Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, Copenhagen, Denmark

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

Disclaimer

Supplementary materials

This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license ([http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/\)](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

^{*}Corresponding author: Tel.: +255714895304. mtoveg2002@gmail.com (G. Mtove). #Deceased.

Author contributions

GM, RMC, MM, MA, DTRM, JPAL, FOtK and CS conceived and designed the study. GM, RMC, MM, HB, DTRM, QS, GRG, CM, SG, OAM, VM, KSP, HH, PM, RK, JPAL, SK, FM, JRG, MA, FOtK, and CS contributed to the data acquisition. QS, CM, HH, RK, SK, and MA coordinated the laboratory component. GM conducted the statistical analysis and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to data interpretation and critical revision for important intellectual content. All authors approved the final version submitted.

Declarations of Competing Interest

Ethical approval

This study was approved by independent ethics committees in Tanzania (NIMR/HQ/R.8a/Vol.1X/2533), Malawi (P.02/17/2110) and Kenya (SERU 75–3421). Individual, written informed consent was obtained before enrollment or any study procedure. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Human Research Protections Office reviewed and approved CDC participation as nonengaged.

The findings and conclusions in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.ijid.2023.07.012.

⁸Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, Department of Clinical Sciences, Liverpool, United Kingdom

⁹Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Malaria Branch, Division of Parasitic Diseases and Malaria, Center for Global Health, Atlanta, United States of America

Abstract

Objectives: Malaria and sexually transmitted and reproductive tract infections (STIs/RTIs) are highly prevalent in sub-Saharan Africa and associated with poor pregnancy outcomes. We investigated the individual and combined effects of malaria and curable STIs/RTIs on fetal growth in Kenya, Tanzania, and Malawi.

Methods: This study was nested within a randomized trial comparing monthly intermittent preventive treatment for malaria in pregnancy with sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine vs dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine, alone or combined with azithromycin. Fetal weight gain was assessed by serial prenatal ultrasound. Malaria was assessed monthly, and Treponema pallidum, Neisseria gonorrhoeae, Trichomonas vaginalis, Chlamydia trachomatis, and bacterial vaginosis at enrollment and in the third trimester. The effect of malaria and STIs/RTIs on fetal weight/ birthweight Z-scores was evaluated using mixed-effects linear regression.

Results: In total, 1435 pregnant women had fetal/birth weight assessed 3950 times. Compared to women without malaria or STIs/RTIs ($n = 399$), malaria-only ($n = 267$), STIs/RTIs only ($n =$ 410) or both ($n = 353$) were associated with reduced fetal growth (adjusted mean difference in fetal/birth weight Z-score [95% confidence interval]: malaria = -0.18 [$-0.31, -0.04$], $P = 0.01$; STIs/RTIs = -0.14 [-0.26 , -0.03], $P = 0.01$; both = -0.20 [-0.33 , -0.07], $P = 0.003$). Paucigravidae experienced the greatest impact.

Conclusion: Malaria and STIs/RTIs are associated with poor fetal growth especially among paucigravidae women with dual infections. Integrated antenatal interventions are needed to reduce the burden of both malaria and STIs/RTIs.

Keywords

Malaria in pregnancy; Sexually transmitted infection; Reproductive tract infection; Bacterial vaginosis; Fetal growth; Birthweight

Introduction

Despite efforts to reduce its burden [1], an estimated 46–52 million pregnancies were at risk of malaria infection in sub-Saharan Africa in 2020 [2]. Most malaria infections (>80%) during pregnancy remain asymptomatic [3] yet are associated with maternal anemia and impaired fetal growth [4,5], leading to small-for-gestational-age (SGA), low birthweight (LBW) newborns, and preterm delivery [6].

Curable sexually transmitted and other reproductive tract infections (STIs/RTIs) such as syphilis (Treponema pallidum), chlamydia (Chlamydia trachomatis), gonorrhea (Neisseria gonorrhoeae), trichomoniasis (Trichomonas vaginalis) and bacterial vaginosis are also common in sub-Saharan Africa [7]. Syphilis screening and treatment is part of standard

antenatal care throughout sub-Saharan Africa, but other STIs/RTIs are managed via syndromic algorithms [8]. Like malaria, most STIs/RTIs are asymptomatic and often remain undetected and untreated [9]. Exposure to STIs/RTIs during pregnancy is associated with poor birth outcomes such as preterm birth and LBW [7].

Infants born preterm, SGA, or with LBW are at increased risk of neonatal morbidity and mortality [6] and possibly cardio-metabolic diseases in adult life [10].

Despite malaria and STIs/RTIs being highly prevalent in sub-Saharan Africa, few studies have investigated their dual-impact on fetal growth and pregnancy outcomes [11]. Fetal growth evaluation requires accurate gestational age estimation and serial ultrasound to assess fetal weight. Most studies in sub-Saharan Africa relied on LBW and SGA at birth as proxy indicators of intrauterine growth restriction. However, both have limitations in identifying intrauterine growth restriction. Firstly, LBW may result from either intrauterine growth restriction, preterm delivery, or both [12]. Secondly, SGA newborns may be growth-retarded or constitutionally small but healthy [13]. Finally, newborns may have failed to achieve their biological growth potential but still be above the cutoff for LBW or SGA [13].

Only a few, small studies have used ultrasound to assess the effect of malaria on fetal growth [4,5,14,15]. To our knowledge, no study has investigated the effects of STIs/RTIs on fetal growth trajectories or the consequences of both malaria and STIs/RTIs using ultrasound.

Methods

Study design and population

This cohort study was nested in a randomized partially placebo-controlled trial conducted from March 2018 to August 2019 involving 4680 pregnant women comparing monthly intermittent preventive treatment of malaria in pregnancy (IPTp) with sulfadoxinepyrimethamine vs dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine, alone or combined with a single course of azithromycin at enrollment conducted in Kenya, Tanzania and Malawi [16]. Of these women, one-third were randomly selected into a nested cohort for fetal growth monitoring by serial ultrasound. In order to have a power of 80% to detect an expected proportion of women with STIs/RTIs was 40% in sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine arm compared to 30% in dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine/dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine + azithromycin, with alpha $= 0.025, 432$ women per treatment arm were needed. To allow for 13% loss to follow-up, 500 women were recruited per arm. Women attending antenatal care were enrolled if HIV-negative, had a viable singleton pregnancy between 16 and 28 weeks gestation, had no known heart disease, had not received sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine during the current pregnancy, and had no known allergy to the study drugs.

Data collection procedures

Details of data collection have been described elsewhere [16]. In brief, demographic data and medical history were collected at enrollment. Women were screened for urinary tract infection (using urine dipsticks) and hypertensive disorders (blood pressure >140/90 mmHg ± proteinuria), prior medication usage, and maternal anthropometrics were recorded at each

antenatal visit. Hemoglobin level was assessed (Hemocue 301 or 201) at enrollment, in the third trimester, and at delivery.

Estimation of gestational age and fetal weight

Using ultrasound and standard methodology, gestational age was estimated based on crownrump length until 13^{+6} weeks [17], and from 14^{+0} weeks by using an algorithm of head circumference and femur length [18], head circumference only [18] or femur length only [19], depending on availability of fetal biometrics. Serial ultrasound was performed at enrollment if gestational age was 22 weeks, at approximately 25–28 weeks gestation, and approximately 32–35 weeks, and fetal weights were estimated based on head circumference, abdominal circumference, and femur length [20].

Detection of malaria

Women were screened for malaria at enrollment using malaria rapid diagnostic tests (mRDTs) (CareStart™ Malaria Pf/PAN (HRP2/pLDH) Ag Combo) as per national policy in Kenya and Tanzania. In all three countries, women with fever $(-37.5^{\circ}C)$ or recent history of fever were also screened with mRDTs.

In Kenya and Malawi, regardless of treatment arm, women with positive mRDTs were treated with artemether-lumefantrine, and IPTp dosing was deferred for 4 weeks. In Tanzania, women with positive mRDTs in the sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine arm were treated with artemether-lumefantrine, and IPTp was deferred for 4 weeks. However, women in the dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine and dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine/azithromycin groups who had positive mRDTs at enrollment were given their first course of IPTp but at later visits artemether-lumefantrine was administrated if mRDTs were positive, and IPTp was deferred for 4 weeks.

Peripheral maternal venous blood was collected at all visits and at delivery, along with cord and placental blood. Thick and thin blood smears were prepared, Giemsa stained, and independently double-read by experienced microscopists; where results were discordant, a third reading was performed to determine the final result [16]. Dried blood spots were also prepared for quantitative real-time reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) [16]. Finally, placental biopsies were taken at delivery for malaria histology [16].

Detection of sexually transmitted and other reproductive tract infections

As part of standard care, pregnant women were pre-screened for HIV. Women living with HIV were provided treatment per national guidelines and excluded from the study. All women were subsequently screened for syphilis with SD-Bioline point-of-care tests and, if positive, they were treated with 2.4 million units intramuscular benzathine penicillin G. Additionally, clinic staff routinely asked women if they had experienced any symptoms associated with STIs/ RTIs. At any visit, if a woman responded in the affirmative, she was treated by the clinic staff according to national syndromic management guidelines recommended by the World Health Organization [8]. Apart from routine care, clinic staff collected vaginal swabs and stored them on site until the end of the trial, at which time

the samples were shipped to a regional reference laboratory in East Africa for retrospective batch analysis. Serum and vaginal swab samples were collected at enrollment and between 32–36 weeks. Serum samples were tested for rapid plasma reagin and confirmatory syphilis testing with Treponema pallidum Hemagglutination assays. Vaginal samples were tested for chlamydia and gonorrhea DNA by RT-PCR (Artus® CT/NG QS-RGQ Kit), trichomoniasis with SACASE[™] Real-TM Kit, and bacterial vaginosis using the Nugent scoring.

Pregnancy outcome

At delivery, birthweight was measured using digital scales (Seca GmbH & Co. KG., precision 10 g or ADE M112600, precision 5 g) and head and abdominal circumferences using flexible tape. Birthweights recorded >1-hour post-delivery were adjusted for physiological weight loss [21].

Statistical analysis

Analyses were conducted using Stata software, v16 (Stata Corp, Texas, USA).

Malaria exposure was defined as testing positive at any time-point by any assay: mRDT, microscopy, qRT-PCR, and/or placental histology. STIs/RTIs exposure was defined for individual STIs/RTIs and as a composite variable with positive test for any STIs/RTIs at any time-point. For the longitudinal analyses, women were considered negative until their first malaria and/or STIs/RTIs episode and thereafter considered positive. Four unique exposure groups were generated to assess if malaria and STIs/RTIs co-infection affected growth trajectories; a control group with neither malaria nor STIs/RTIs; malaria-only; STIs/RTIs only; and malaria plus STIs/RTIs.

The primary outcome was Z-scores for fetal weights and birthweight using a sex-specific Tanzanian reference chart [22] based on previous evidence indicating that a local growth curve is more representative than the international growth curve [23]. Our approach aligns with recent recommendations by the International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics (FIGO) on the accuracy of growth curves [24]. Secondary outcomes were birthweight Z-scores alone, growth trajectories based only on fetal weights Z-score, SGA (birthweight $\langle 10^{th}$ percentile) [22], LBW (birthweight $\langle 2.5 \text{ Kg} \rangle$, preterm delivery (gestational age $\langle 37 \rangle$ weeks), and new-born abdominal circumference in millimeters and head circumference in millimeters or Z-scores based on INTERGROWTH-21st reference [25].

Women with a non-viable pregnancy outcome (miscarriage, stillbirths), twin pregnancy, severe congenital malformations, or missing data on malaria and STIs/RTIs were excluded. Furthermore, observations with weights measured <14 days apart, gestational age <18 weeks or 45 weeks, birthweights <250 g or 6500 g, or fetal/birthweight Z-score > \pm 5, were excluded.

Linear regression models and linear mixed-effects models were used to assess the effect of malaria and/or STIs/RTIs on birth size and growth trajectories respectively. All crude models were adjusted for study design factors (study arm, site, and gravidity [paucigravidae, i.e., primi- and secundigravidae, and multigravidae]). In mixed models, these same design factors were included as fixed effects, gestational age at visit was included as a time factor,

and individual participant as a random effect to account for within-subject clustering. In addition, other potential confounders, selected based on the statistical analysis plan for the main trial, including rainfall patterns, malaria transmission intensity, patterns of parasite resistance to sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine, maternal age, gestational age at enrollment or delivery, socioeconomic status, maternal body mass index (BMI), bednet use, number of IPTp doses received, hemoglobin levels, and sex of the fetus/newborns, were considered if associated with the outcome variable with a P -value <0.2 in the univariate models and retained in final models if P-values were <0.1.

Malaria infection is more detrimental in paucigravidae and undernourished women than in multigravidae and well-nourished counterparts. Thus, we fitted models with interaction terms to investigate possible effect-modification between malaria and gravidity or malaria and maternal BMI. The interaction between malaria and STIs/RTIs was also assessed.

To assess if the effect on growth trajectories was due to poor growth close to delivery, models only including Z-scores for fetal weights but not birthweight, were also generated. Finally, as fetal weight gain is mainly in the third trimester, a linear regression model was generated with a single fetal weight Z-score in the third trimester as the outcome, and malaria infections or STIs/RTIs occurring before the fetal weight estimation as exposure.

Additionally, a dose-response relationship was assessed by comparing the impact of number of malaria episodes on birth weight Z-score using the group with one malaria episode as the reference group. Furthermore, the model on STIs/RTIs was repeated after categorizing STIs/RTIs exposure by (1) composite STIs/RTIs only at enrollment, between weeks 32 and 36, or both at enrollment and between weeks 32–36; (2) only one type of STIs/RTIs, or multiple STIs/RTIs. Finally, we assessed the effect of malaria and STIs/RTIs on SGA, LBW, and preterm delivery using Poisson regression with robust error variance.

Results

Study population

Of the 1586 women randomly selected for fetal growth monitoring, 1435 were eligible for analyses. Of the 1435 participants, 573 (39.9%) were >22 weeks at enrollment and had fetal weight assessed, 1007 (70.2%) had fetal weight assessed between approximately 25–28 weeks, 1045 (72.8%) between approximately 32–35 weeks. Birthweights were available for 1325 (92.3%) participants. Thus, 3950 observations of fetal weight/birthweights were included in the longitudinal analysis (Figure S1).

The distribution of the 1435 women was similar across study arms and countries. The mean age was 24.9 (SD 5.8) years. Only 2.8% were underweight $(BMI < 18.5 \text{ Kg/m}^2)$ at enrollment, whereas 33.2% were overweight $(25-29.9 \text{ kg/m}^2)$ or obese (30 Kg/m^2). Among the newborns, 13.4% were SGA, 4.3% were preterm, and 8.1% were LBW (Table 1). Baseline maternal characteristics were similar between included and excluded mothernewborn dyads, except that; a higher proportion of excluded women were from Malawi and paucigravidae, the proportion of bed net use at enrollment also differed significantly between the two groups and this proportion was lower among excluded women (Table S1).

Similarly, a high prevalence of STIs/RTIs was observed, with over half of the women having STIs/RTIs detected either at enrollment, in the third trimester, or at both timepoints (Table 2b). Bacterial vaginosis was the most common, with 34.6% (449/1297) of the women testing positive for bacterial vaginosis at least once during pregnancy. Only 1.9% (27/1407) and 4.2% (54/1298) of the women had syphilis and gonorrhea, respectively. Among women with STIs/RTIs a higher proportion were from Tanzania. Women with and without STIs/RTIs had similar demographic characteristics across study arms (Table S3). Fetal biometry in second and third trimesters by gestational age and gravidity is described in Table S4.

Effect of malaria and sexually transmitted and other reproductive tract infections on growth trajectories

There was a trend toward lower mean birthweight Z-scores among women with malaria infection and STIs/RTIs compared to women without (adjusted mean difference [aMD] [95% confidence interval: CI] malaria:-0.10 [-0.22 , 0.02], $P = 0.09$; STIs/RTIs: aMD = -0.09 [-0.21 , 0.02], $P = 0.12$) (Table 3a and b). Malaria exposure was also associated with a higher proportion of newborns being SGA (adjusted risk ratio [aRR]: 1.50 [1.14–1.97], ^P $= 0.004$) (Table 3a). The effect was more evident among paucigravidae women with malaria or STIs/RTIs (Malaria: aMD for birthweight Z-score= -0.19 [-0.35 , -0.03], $P = 0.02$ and SGA aRR = 1.84 [1.26–2.69], $P = 0.002$); STIs/RTIs: aMD for birthweight Z-score = -0.17 [$-0.33,-0.01$], $P = 0.04$) (Table 3a and b). There was a tendency toward a dose-response relationship between the number of malaria episodes and impact on birthweight Z-score, although this was not statistically significant (1 vs 2 malaria episodes aMD −0.12 [−0.41, 0.16], $P = 0.39$; 1 vs 3+ malaria episodes aMD -0.32 [-0.72 , 0.09], $P = 0.13$). Infection with both malaria and STIs/RTIs in paucigravidae women had an even more pronounced effect on birthweight Z-scores (aMD = -0.34 [$-0.57, -0.11$], $P = 0.003$) (Table 4a) and SGA (aRR $= 2.53$ [1.37–4.67], $P = 0.003$) (Table 4b). The same effect on birthweight and risk of SGA was not observed among multigravidae (Tables 3 and 4).

Neither head circumference nor abdominal circumference differed significantly among malaria or STIs/RTIs exposed compared to non-exposed newborns (Tables 3 and 4). No statistically significant effect of the individual STIs/RTIs on birthweight was observed, albeit there was a trend toward lower birthweight Z-score among newborns whose mothers had bacterial vaginosis (crude MD = -0.13 [-0.21 , 0.08], $P = 0.06$) (Table S5).

The effects of malaria and STIs/RTIs on growth trajectories were investigated using mixedeffect regression models on fetal weights and birthweight Z-scores (Table 5). Malaria infection was associated with a lower weight Z-score over time (aMD=−0.12 [−0.22, −0.03], $P = 0.01$) (Table 5a). The effects differed significantly by gravidity strata ($P_{interaction} = 0.01$) and were more pronounced among paucigravidae (weight Z-score [95% CI] over time aMD

 $= -0.17$ (-0.31, -0.04), $P = 0.01$) than multigravidae (aMD = -0.07 [-0.21, 0.07], $P = 0.34$) (Table 5b and c). There was no significant interaction between BMI and malaria ($P_{interaction}$) = 0.48). STIs/RTIs also reduced weight Z-score over time (aMD = -0.11 [$-0.20, -0.01$], P= 0.03), again with paucigravidae being most affected (Table 5d and e).

The magnitude of the effect on growth trajectories was similar after exposure to malariaalone (aMD = −0.18 [−0.31, −0.04], $P = 0.01$), STIs/RTIs alone (aMD = −0.14 [−0.26, -0.03], $P = 0.01$) or to malaria plus STIs/RTIs (aMD = -0.20 [-0.33 , -0.07], $P = 0.003$) (Tables 5g), and there was a non-significant interaction between malaria and STIs/RTIs $(P_{\text{interaction}} = 0.18)$. Again, infection with both malaria and STIs/RTIs impacted growth trajectories more in paucigravidae than multigravidae (aMD = -0.30 [-0.48 , -0.11], $P =$ 0.001 vs -0.11 [-0.30 , 0.09], $P = 0.28$) (Table 5h and i).

Models containing only fetal weight Z-scores but not birthweight yielded similar results (Tables 3 and 4a).

Fetal weight in the third trimester, assessed by a single measure, was also lower among paucigravidae after malaria (aMD = -0.25 [-0.47 , -0.03], $P = 0.02$), but not after STIs/ RTIs (Table S6). Fetal weight gain over time was lower among women with STIs/RTIs at enrollment than women with STIs/RTIs both at enrollment and in the third trimester (Table S7). The individual STIs/RTIs were not significantly associated with impaired fetal growth, although there was a trend toward lower fetal/birthweight Z-score for trichomoniasis (aMD $= -0.11$ [$-0.23, -0.02$], $P = 0.09$) (Table S7). Finally, having multiple STIs/RTIs did not further reduce fetal weight gain compared to having a single STI/RTI (Table S7).

Discussion

There was a high burden of malaria and STIs/RTIs; almost 25% of the women had both conditions during pregnancy. This is consistent with previous studies demonstrating a high prevalence of either malaria [26], STIs/RTIs [27], or both [11].

In the current study, fetal growth trajectories were negatively affected by infection with malaria and STIs/RTIs alone or combined. Malaria in pregnancy is characterized by placental sequestration of malaria-infected erythrocytes resulting in placental inflammation [12], poor vascular development [28], and altered flow in the umbilical and uterine arteries [29]. This may explain the association between malaria and fetal growth restriction. Previous smaller longitudinal studies found reduced fetal biometry and weights in the second [15] and third trimester [4] and an increased risk of fetal SGA [14]. We observed a negative impact on fetal growth trajectories based both on fetal weight and birthweight as well as solely on ultrasound-estimated fetal weight. This suggests that the negative effect occurs continuously in utero and not only close to birth. Paucigravidae experienced the greatest negative impact on fetal growth trajectories, a finding consistent with gravidity-associated epidemiology of malaria in pregnancy [6].

The mechanism by which STIs/RTIs affect fetal growth is not well elucidated. One mechanism may be that ascending genital infections lead to intrauterine infection and inflammation, damaging the trophoblast cells and resulting in placental dysfunction [30].

Previous studies on STIs/RTIs used birthweight as a proxy for intrauterine growth restriction [31]. Our study is the first to conduct serial prenatal ultrasound measurements, demonstrating a significant negative association between STIs/RTIs and fetal growth trajectories. Having infection with both malaria and STIs/RTIs was particularly deleterious to pregnancies of paucigravidae, perhaps due to the dual placental insult occurring in this group. However, the interaction between the dual infections was insignificant. This suggests a non-synergistic effect, although this could also be due to the small sample size and the limited power to detect interactions.

Fetal weight gain was reduced over time among women who tested positive for STIs/RTIs at enrollment but not when considering STIs/RTIs occurring only at weeks 32–36. This suggests that the negative effect of STIs/RTIs on fetal growth alterations is set early in pregnancy, well before fetal growth peaks in the third trimester. Thus, intervention later in pregnancy may not interrupt the causal pathway to reduced fetal growth. Previous studies found a significant association between bacterial vaginosis and SGA at birth, while others have reported a non-significant association [31].

The effect of STIs/RTIs may also depend on the type and number of infections. Our study indicated that the negative effect of STIs/RTIs on fetal growth might mainly be due to bacterial vaginosis or trichomoniasis. Bacterial vaginosis was the most common cause of STIs/RTIs, especially among women with only one type of STIs/RTIs, and the high prevalence of bacterial vaginosis provided more statistical power to detect an impact on fetal growth. This might explain why having only one type compared to multiple types of STIs/RTIs appeared to be strongly associated with impaired fetal growth.

Our findings have implications for antenatal care and public health in areas where both malaria and STIs/RTIs are prevalent. The dual burden of malaria and STIs/RTIs is underappreciated in the antenatal care setting and the research community. This may partly be explained by both malaria infections and STIs/RTIs being largely asymptomatic among pregnant women [9]. Thus, etiological assays to quantify the true dual burden of infections are needed. A systematic review of malaria and STIs/RTIs among pregnant women attending antenatal care facilities in sub-Saharan Africa identified 171 studies with relevant data points for pooling; none reported the prevalence of dual infection [7].

Current antenatal care includes screening strategies for malaria, HIV, and syphilis. Our study suggests the importance of antenatally targeting other STIs/RTIs as well. Women in this study received IPTp to prevent malaria at each antenatal visit and high-quality care in the clinical trial context with treatment of all detected malaria, syphilis, and symptomatic STIs/RTIs. Nonetheless, a consequential and deleterious effect was still observed – even after adjusting for the type and number of IPTp doses. This emphasizes the need to strengthen community sensitization and public health awareness about the prevalence, consequences, and prevention strategies of these infections. As both malaria and STIs/RTIs are often asymptomatic [27], universal early screening and treatment of both conditions may be warranted [26,32], especially as point-of-care tests for STIs/RTIs are available, in addition to syphilis and HIV [33]. The importance of early syphilis screening and treatment on pregnancy outcomes has been well demonstrated [32]. A similar emphasis on early

intervention is needed for other STIs/RTIs, particularly in low- and middle-income countries with high disease burdens.

Strength and limitation

This is the largest study to date utilizing ultrasound for fetal weight estimation concurrently with in-depth testing for malaria and STIs/RTIs. High-quality obstetric ultrasound was ensured by thorough training of sonographers, review of all ultrasound images at the beginning of the study, and thereafter 10% randomly selected scans – all performed by a medical doctor with extensive experience in obstetric ultrasound (CS). All anthropometric measurements were performed twice, with a third reading for discrepancies and the average of the two closest readings was considered definitive. Birth weight measured >1 hour after delivery were also adjusted for physiological weight loss [21].

However, this study also has some limitations. First, fetal weight and birthweight were converted into Z-score using the Strategies To Prevent Pregnancy Associated Malaria (STOPPAM) reference chart, as we have previously demonstrated this reference chart to be more appropriate for the setting [23]. However, a similar reference for head circumference and abdominal circumference is not available, and the INTERGROWTH-21st was therefore used for head circumference [25]. Second, previous studies indicated that malaria in either the first or second trimester might be the most detrimental [4,5]. However, women were enrolled from the second trimester onward. Thus, malaria infections occurring in the first trimester were not accounted for, and some women may wrongly have been classified as malaria-negative, resulting in an underestimation of the true burden. Third, miscarriage and stillbirth may be due to malaria and/or STIs/RTIs but were excluded from the analyses. Fourth, the prevalence of STIs/RTIs at enrollment was lower among the excluded women and may represent some selection bias. Finally, some residual confounders could not be ruled out, including genetic factors. However, these are unlikely to have influenced the results as they would be expected to be relatively infrequent and balanced between study exposure groups.

Conclusion

Both malaria and STIs/RTIs were common and associated with poor fetal growth, especially among paucigravidae women with dual infections. Early antenatal intervention is key to reducing the dual burden of malaria and STIs/RTIs. Public health awareness campaigns against these infections are urgently needed, alongside screening for all STIs/RTIs and promoting early antenatal care-seeking, to optimize pregnancy outcomes in low- and middle-income countries.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge all women and their infants for the participation in the study, and all dedicated healthcare providers for supporting in the care of the women and their infants. We are also grateful to the IMPROVE study

team members in Tanzania, Kenya, and Malawi for their remarkable role in recruiting study participants, collecting data, data management, and laboratory analyses.

Funding

This study was supported by the EDCTP2 program (TRIA.2015-1076) under Horizon 2020; the U.K. Department of Health and Social Care, the U.K. Foreign Commonwealth and Development Office, the U.K. Medical Research Council, and Wellcome Trust, through the Joint Global Health Trials scheme (MR/P006922/1); and the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency, National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) to the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, and from the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (grant number INV-002781). We are grateful to Montserrat Blázquez-Domingo from EDCTP2 for her support in managing the grant on behalf of EDCTP2 and JGHT. Eurartesim® was provided free of charge by AlfaSigma, Bologna, Italy. CS was funded by the Independent Research Fund Denmark (grant number 1030-00371B). The funders had no role in study design; in the collection, analysis and interpretation of data; in the writing of the report; and in the decision to submit the article for publication.

Data sharing

Individual participant data is available from the Worldwide Antimalarial Resistance Network (WWARN) data repository.

References

- [1]. World Health Organization. WHO Guidelines for malaria 2022, [https://reliefweb.int/report/world/](https://reliefweb.int/report/world/who-guidelines-malaria-25-november-2022) [who-guidelines-malaria-25-november-2022](https://reliefweb.int/report/world/who-guidelines-malaria-25-november-2022); 2022 [accessed 03 April 2023].
- [2]. Reddy V, Weiss DJ, Rozier J, Ter Kuile FO, Dellicour S. Global estimates of the number of pregnancies at risk of malaria from 2007 to 2020: a demographic study. Lancet Glob Health 2023;11:e40–7. doi:10.1016/S2214-109X(22)00431-4. [PubMed: 36521951]
- [3]. Desai M, Gutman J, L'lanziva A, Otieno K, Juma E, Kariuki S, et al. Intermittent screening and treatment or intermittent preventive treatment with dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine versus intermittent preventive treatment with sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine for the control of malaria during pregnancy in western Kenya: an open-label, three-group, randomised controlled superiority trial. Lancet 2015;386:2507–19. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(15)00310-4. [PubMed: 26429700]
- [4]. Briand V, Saal J, Ghafari C, Huynh BT, Fievet N, Schmiegelow C, et al. Fetal growth restriction is associated with malaria in pregnancy: a prospective longitudinal study in Benin. J Infect Dis 2016;214:417–25. doi:10.1093/infdis/jiw158. [PubMed: 27389349]
- [5]. Schmiegelow C, Matondo S, Minja DTR, Resende M, Pehrson C, Nielsen BB, et al. Plasmodium falciparum infection early in pregnancy has profound consequences for fetal growth. J Infect Dis 2017;216:1601–10. doi:10.1093/infdis/jix530. [PubMed: 29029247]
- [6]. Desai M, Hill J, Fernandes S, Walker P, Pell C, Gutman J, et al. Prevention of malaria in pregnancy. Lancet Infect Dis 2018;18:e119–32. doi:10.1016/S1473-3099(18)30064-1. [PubMed: 29395997]
- [7]. Chico RM, Mayaud P, Ariti C, Mabey D, Ronsmans C, Chandramohan D. Prevalence of malaria and sexually transmitted and reproductive tract infections in pregnancy in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review. JAMA 2012;307:2079–86. doi:10.1001/jama.2012.3428. [PubMed: 22665107]
- [8]. World Health Organization. Guidelines for the management of symptomatic sexually transmitted infections-15, [https://www.who.int/news/item/15-07-2021-launch-who-guidelines](https://www.who.int/news/item/15-07-2021-launch-who-guidelines-for-the-management-of-symptomatic-sexually-transmitted-infections)[for-the-management-of-symptomatic-sexually-transmitted-infections](https://www.who.int/news/item/15-07-2021-launch-who-guidelines-for-the-management-of-symptomatic-sexually-transmitted-infections); 2021 [accessed 03 April 2023].
- [9]. Chaponda EB, Bruce J, Michelo C, Chandramohan D, Chico RM. Assessment of syndromic management of curable sexually transmitted and reproductive tract infections among pregnant women: an observational cross-sectional study. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth 2021;21:98. doi:10.1186/s12884-021-03573-3. [PubMed: 33516183]

- [10]. Osmond C, Barker DJP. Fetal, infant, and childhood growth are predictors of coronary heart disease, diabetes, and hypertension in adult men and women. Environ Health Perspect 2000;108:545–53. doi:10.1289/ehp.00108s3545.
- [11]. Chaponda EB, Chico RM, Bruce J, Michelo C, Vwalika B, Mharakurwa S, et al. Malarial infection and curable sexually transmitted and reproductive tract infections among pregnant women in a rural district of Zambia. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2016;95:1069–76. doi:10.4269/ ajtmh.16-0370. [PubMed: 27672205]
- [12]. Chua CLL, Hasang W, Rogerson SJ, Teo A. Poor birth outcomes in malaria in pregnancy: recent insights into mechanisms and prevention approaches. Front Immunol 2021;12:621382. doi:10.3389/fimmu.2021.621382. [PubMed: 33790894]
- [13]. Rijken MJ, De Livera AM, Lee SJ, Boel ME, Rungwilailaekhiri S, Wiladphaingern J, et al. Quantifying low birth weight, preterm birth and small-for-gestational-age effects of malaria in pregnancy: a population cohort study. PLoS One 2014;9:e100247. doi:10.1371/ journal.pone.0100247. [PubMed: 24983755]
- [14]. Landis SH, Lokomba V, Ananth CV, Atibu J, Ryder RW, Hartmann KE, et al. Impact of maternal malaria and under-nutrition on intrauterine growth restriction: a prospective ultrasound study in Democratic Republic of Congo. Epidemiol Infect 2009;137:294–304. doi:10.1017/ S0950268808000915. [PubMed: 18588723]
- [15]. Unger HW, Ome-Kaius M, Karl S, Singirok D, Siba P, Walker J, et al. Factors associated with ultrasound-aided detection of suboptimal fetal growth in a malaria-endemic area in Papua New Guinea. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth 2015;15:83. doi:10.1186/s12884-015-0511-6. [PubMed: 25881316]
- [16]. Madanitsa M, Barsosio HC, Minja DTR, Mtove G, Kavishe RA, Dodd J, et al. Effect of monthly intermittent preventive treatment with dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine with and without azithromycin versus monthly sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine to reduce adverse pregnancy outcomes in Africa: a randomised partially placebo-controlled superiority trial. Lancet 2023;401:1020–36. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(22)02535-1. [PubMed: 36913959]
- [17]. Papageorghiou AT, Kennedy SH, Salomon LJ, Ohuma EO, Cheikh Ismail LC, Barros FC, et al. International standards for early fetal size and pregnancy dating based on ultrasound measurement of crown-rump length in the first trimester of pregnancy. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 2014;44:641–8. doi:10.1002/uog.13448. [PubMed: 25044000]
- [18]. Papageorghiou AT, Kemp B, Stones W, Ohuma EO, Kennedy SH, Purwar M, et al. Ultrasoundbased gestational-age estimation in late pregnancy. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 2016;48:719–26. doi:10.1002/uog.15894. [PubMed: 26924421]
- [19]. Altman DG, Chitty LS. New charts for ultrasound dating of pregnancy. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 1997;10:174–91. doi:10.1046/j.1469-0705.1997.10030174.x. [PubMed: 9339525]
- [20]. Hadlock FP, Harrist RB, Sharman RS, Deter RL, Park SK. Estimation of fetal weight with the use of head, body, and femur measurements-A prospective study. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1985;151:333–7. doi:10.1016/0002-9378(85)90298-4. [PubMed: 3881966]
- [21]. Mtove G, Abdul O, Kullberg F, Gesase S, Scheike T, Andersen FM, et al. Weight change during the first week of life and a new method for retrospective prediction of birthweight among exclusively breastfed newborns. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand 2022;101:293–302. doi:10.1111/ aogs.14323. [PubMed: 35156190]
- [22]. Schmiegelow C, Scheike T, Oesterholt M, Minja D, Pehrson C, Magistrado P, et al. Development of a fetal weight chart using serial trans-abdominal ultrasound in an East African population: a longitudinal observational study. PLoS One 2012;7:e44773. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0044773. [PubMed: 23028617]
- [23]. Mtove G, Minja DTR, Abdul O, Gesase S, Maleta K, Divala TH, et al. The choice of reference chart affects the strength of the association between malaria in pregnancy and small for gestational age: an individual participant data meta-analysis comparing the intergrowth-21 with a Tanzanian birthweight chart. Malar J 2022;21:292. doi:10.1186/s12936-022-04307-2. [PubMed: 36224585]
- [24]. Visser GHA, Nicholson WK, Barnea ER, Ramasauskaite D, Nassar AH. FIGO Safe Motherhood, Newborn Health Committee. FIGO position paper on reference charts for fetal growth and size

at birth: which one to use? Int J Gynaecol Obstet 2021;152:148–51. doi:10.1002/ijgo.13500. [PubMed: 33247958]

- [25]. Villar J, Cheikh Ismail LC, Victora CG, Ohuma EO, Bertino E, Altman DG, et al. International standards for newborn weight, length, and head circumference by gestational age and sex: the Newborn Cross-Sectional Study of the INTERGROWTH-21st Project. Lancet 2014;384:857–68. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(14)60932-6. [PubMed: 25209487]
- [26]. Koladjo BF, Yovo E, Accrombessi M, Agbota G, Atade W, Ladikpo OT, et al. Malaria in the first trimester of pregnancy and fetal growth: results from a Beninese preconceptional cohort. J Infect Dis 2022;225:1777–85. doi:10.1093/infdis/jiac012. [PubMed: 35089337]
- [27]. Zango SH, Lingani M, Valea I, Samadoulougou OS, Bihoun B, Rouamba T, et al. Malaria and curable sexually transmitted infections in pregnant women: a two-years observational study in rural Burkina Faso. PLoS One 2020;15:e0242368. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0242368. [PubMed: 33196665]
- [28]. Moeller SL, Nyengaard JR, Larsen LG, Nielsen K, Bygbjerg IC, Msemo OA, et al. Malaria in early pregnancy and the development of the placental vasculature. J Infect Dis 2019;220:1425– 34. doi:10.1093/infdis/jiy735. [PubMed: 30590576]
- [29]. Mcclure EM, Meshnick SR, Lazebnik N, Mungai P, King CL, Hudgens M, et al. A cohort study of Plasmodium falciparum malaria in pregnancy and associations with uteroplacental blood flow and fetal anthropometrics in Kenya. Int J Gynaecol Obstet 2014;126:78–82. doi:10.1016/ j.ijgo.2014.01.016. [PubMed: 24792408]
- [30]. Cheah FC, Lai CH, Tan GC, Swaminathan A, Wong KK, Wong YP, et al. Intrauterine Gardnerella vaginalis infection results in fetal growth restriction and alveolar septal hypertrophy in a rabbit model. Front Pediatr 2020;8:593802. doi:10.3389/fped.2020.593802. [PubMed: 33553066]
- [31]. Vedmedovska N, Rezeberga D, Donder GGG. Is abnormal vaginal microflora a risk factor for intrauterine fetal growth restriction? Asian Pac J Reprod 2015;4:313–16. doi:10.1016/ j.apjr.2015.07.010.
- [32]. Hawkes SJ, Gomez GB, Broutet N. Early antenatal care: does it make a difference to outcomes of pregnancy associated with syphilis? A systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One 2013;8:e56713. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0056713. [PubMed: 23468875]
- [33]. Gao R, Liu B, Yang W, Wu Y, Wang B, Santillan MK, et al. Association of maternal sexually transmitted infections with risk of preterm birth in the United States. JAMA Netw Open 2021;4:e2133413. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.33413. [PubMed: 34842927]

Table 1

Characteristics of mother-newborn pairs. Characteristics of mother-newborn pairs.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Int J Infect Dis. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2024 October 01.

 $\overline{}$

dBP, diastolic blood pressure; GA, gestational age; sBP, Systolic blood pressure. dBP, diastolic blood pressure; GA, gestational age; sBP, Systolic blood pressure.

 ${}^2\!{\rm Mean}$ (SD); Mean (SD);

 b BP 140 or dBP 90 mmHg before GA 20 weeks measured twice at least 4 hours part; sBP \rightarrow 140 or dBP \rightarrow 90 mmHg before GA 20 weeks measured twice at least 4 hours part;

SBP 140 or dBP 90 mmHg measured twice at least 4 hours apart after GA 20 weeks without proteinuria; sBP $\,$ 140 or dBP $\,$ 90 mmHg measured twice at least 4 hours apart after GA 20 weeks without proteinuria;

 $d_{\mbox{\small{Hypertension}}}$ with proteinuria after GA 20 weeks; Hypertension with proteinuria after GA 20 weeks;

 $\mathop{\text{P}\text{o}\xspace}_\text{stitive}$ urine leucocytes and nitrites; Positive urine leucocytes and nitrites;

The majority (78%) of the newborns were measured within 12 hours of birth, and weight measured > 1 hour after birth were adjusted for the physiological weight loss [21]; The majority (78%) of the newborns were measured within 12 hours of birth, and weight measured > 1 hour after birth were adjusted for the physiological weight loss [21];

 $^{\rm g}$ $\rm <$ 10
th percentile based on a Tanzanian reference chart [22] e^g < 10th percentile based on a Tanzanian reference chart [22]

 $h_{\rm 900}$ percentile using Tanzanian reference chart [22]. $\frac{a}{\geq}$ 90th percentile using Tanzanian reference chart [22].

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Prevalence of malaria and STIs/RTIs. Prevalence of malaria and STIs/RTIs.

STIs/RTIs, Sexually transmitted/reproductive tract infections. STIs/RTIs, Sexually transmitted/reproductive tract infections.

 ${}^{\ensuremath{a_{\text{1}}}}\!\!\!\!\!$ st and 2nd pregnancy; 1st and 2nd pregnancy;

Malaria was confirmed by any positive test: real-time polymerase chain reaction, malaria rapid diagnostic test, microscopy, and at delivery also included placental histology, 599/623 (96%) of the women Malaria was confirmed by any positive test: real-time polymerase chain reaction, malaria rapid diagnostic test, microscopy, and at delivery also included placental histology, 599/623 (96%) of the women got the first malaria attack before the 3rd trimester; got the first malaria attack before the 3rd trimester;

The total number for enrollment, during and delivery visits is not equal to the cumulative number as some women had >1 episodes which are not mutually exclusive, gestational age; The total number for enrollment, during and delivery visits is not equal to the cumulative number as some women had > 1 episodes which are not mutually exclusive, gestational age;

 $d_{\text{Mean (SD)}$, P-value by chi² for the difference in proportions or t-test for the mean difference; Mean (SD), P-value by chi 2 for the difference in proportions or ϵ test for the mean difference;

e The malaria prevalence in the 2nd and in the 3rd trimester was significantly different for paucigravidae (McNemar, P <0.001), and close to significant for multigravidae (McNemar, $P = 0.06$); Women who were never tested for STIs/RTIs were excluded in all analyses where STIs/RTIs were considered as an exposure. The STIs/RTIs prevalence at enrollment and in the 3rd trimester was Women who were never tested for STIs/RTIs were excluded in all analyses where STIs/RTIs were considered as an exposure. The STIs/RTIs prevalence at enrollment and in the 3rd trimester was significantly different (McNemar, significantly different (McNemar, $P < 0.001$);

 e Women who were never tested for the specific STI/RTI were excluded in all analyses where the specific STIs/RTIs were considered as an exposure. ϵ Women who were never tested for the specific STI/RTI were excluded in all analyses where the specific STIs/RTIs were considered as an exposure.

Fetal weight and newborn anthropometrics at delivery by malaria infection and composite STIs/RTIs status. Fetal weight and newborn anthropometrics at delivery by malaria infection and composite STIs/RTIs status.

Int J Infect Dis. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2024 October 01.

 \mathbf{L}

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

AC, abdominal circumference at delivery; BW, birthweight; CI, confidence interval; FW, fetal weight; HC, head circumference; LBW, Iow BW; PT, preterm delivery; RR, risk ratio; SGA, small-for-AC, abdominal circumference at delivery; BW, birthweight; CI, confidence interval; FW, fetal weight; HC, head circumference; LBW, low BW; PT, preterm delivery; RR, risk ratio; SGA, small-forgestational-age; STIs/RTIs, sexually transmitted/reproductive tract infections. gestational-age; STIs/RTIs, sexually transmitted/reproductive tract infections.

Malaria infection was defined as any positive test: real-time polymerase chain reaction, malaria rapid diagnostic test, microscopy, and at delivery also included placental histology, BW adjusted for time Malaria infection was defined as any positive test: real-time polymerase chain reaction, malaria rapid diagnostic test, microscopy, and at delivery also included placental histology, BW adjusted for time since delivery [21]. since delivery [21].

Based on Tanzanian reference chart [22], FW (the mean is for the last FW but the models included all longitudinal FW measurements), HC at delivery; Based on Tanzanian reference chart [22], FW (the mean is for the last FW but the models included all longitudinal FW measurements), HC at delivery;

secundigravidae vs multigravidae defined as three or more pregnancies), study arm and site, and the adjusted models included gravidity, study arm and site, maternal body mass index, maternal age, and secundigravidae vs multigravidae defined as three or more pregnancies), study arm and site, study alled and die model gravidity, study arm and site, maternal body mass index, maternal age, and regression model for newborn anthropometrics or mixed-effect linear model for the FW. The unadjusted models included the *a priori* selected co-variables gravidity (paucigravidae defined as primi- or regression model for newborn anthropometrics or mixed-effect linear model for the FW. The unadjusted models included the a priori selected co-variables gravidity (paucigravidae defined as primi- or b ased on intergrowth-21 reference chart [25] but it does not include AC, LBW (<2.5 kg), PT, SGA (BW < 10th percentiles), STIs/RTIs defined as composite of any STIs/RTIs, P-value from linear P-value from linear Based on intergrowth-21 reference chart [25] but it does not include AC, LBW (α 2.5 kg), PT, SGA (BW < 10th percentiles), STIs/RTIs defined as composite of any STIs/RTIs, gestational age at enrollment and/or delivery. Furthermore, newborn sex if the outcome was not Z-scores. gestational age at enrollment and/or delivery. Furthermore, newborn sex if the outcome was not Z-scores.

Fetal weight and newborn anthropometrics at delivery by malaria infection, composite STIs/RTIs, or both.

Fetal weight and newborn anthropometrics at delivery by malaria infection, composite STIs/RTIs, or both.

Table 4

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Int J Infect Dis. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2024 October 01.

(−157.0,
37.1)
44.5
52.2)
52.2)

 0.37 27.4 (-77.7, $27.4 (-77.7, 132.5)$

0.37

 0.61 34.7 (−80.3, $34.7 (-80.3, 149.7)$

 0.61

0.55

0.86 −44.5

0.86

Adjusted −9.8

Adjusted

146.2)

Author Manuscript Author Manuscript

Int J Infect Dis. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2024 October 01.

Mtove et al. Page 24

LBW Unadjusted 354 26

C₁

1.25 (0.74,2.10)

 0.4 0.92

 0.78 1.13 (0.68,

0.65 1.34

(0.78,2.30)

Author Manuscript Author Manuscript

 Author ManuscriptAuthor Manuscript

 Author ManuscriptAuthor Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

 \rightarrow

AC, abdominal circumference; BW, birthweight; CI, confidence interval; FW, fetal weight; HC, head circumference; LBW, low BW; PT, preterm delivery; SGA, small-for-gestational-age; STIs/RTIs, AC, abdominal circumference; BW, birthweight; CI, confidence interval; FW, fetal weight; HC, head circumference; LBW, low BW; PT, preterm delivery; SCA, small-for-gestational-age; STIs/RTIs, sexually transmitted/reproductive tract infections. sexually transmitted/reproductive tract infections.

LBW Unadjusted 193 15

Adjusted

Unadjusted 193

 LBW

Int J Infect Dis. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2024 October 01.

PT Unadjusted 196 11

Adjusted

Unadjusted 196

 E

 15.6

107

(3.7)

Adjusted $\frac{0.54}{0.54}$

 $7(4.0)$

176

140

(4.3)

0.68 (0.21,2.23)

 $\frac{0.54}{(0.28, 1.06)}$

 0.07 0.86 (0.33, $\frac{0.86}{2.27}$ (0.33,

 0.07

 0.77 0.63 (0.26, $\begin{array}{c} 0.63\ (0.26,\\ 1.53) \end{array}$

 0.77

 0.30 1.02

0.98

(0.18,3.9)

 0.52 0.73 $(0.30,$ $\begin{array}{c} 0.73 \ (0.30, \\ 1.71) \end{array}$

0.52

0.46 0.93

 0.91 1.04

0.96

 $(0.18, 5.9)$

(0.27,3.21)

(7.8)

 108

(8.3)

173

Adjusted \overline{A}

137

 $\frac{10}{(7.3)}$

1.01
(0.45,2.28)

 $\frac{1.53}{(0.68,3.42)}$

 0.3 0.93

 $0.\overline{3}$

 0.93
 $(0.38, 2.27)$

 0.88 1.64

 0.24 0.35

0.28

 $(0.19, 1.62)$

 $(0.72, 3.71)$

 0.97 0.72

0.97

 $\frac{0.72}{(0.34, 1.50)}$

0.38 1.41

0.44 0.38

0.05

 $(0.14, 0.99)$

(0.59,3.40)

Malaria infection was defined as any positive test: real-time polymerase chain reaction, malaria rapid diagnostic test, microscopy, and at delivery also included placental histology, AC at delivery, BW Malaria infection was defined as any positive test: real-time polymerase chain reaction, malaria rapid diagnostic test, microscopy, and at delivery also included placental histology, AC at delivery, BW
adjusted for time si adjusted for time since delivery [21].

Based on Tanzanian reference chart [22] FW (mean is for the last FW but the models included all longitudinal FW), HC at delivery Based on Tanzanian reference chart [22] FW (mean is for the last FW but the models included all longitudinal FW), HC at delivery

 $\overline{}$ \mathbf{I}

Author ManuscriptAuthor Manuscript

Author ManuscriptAuthor Manuscript

Author Manuscript Author Manuscript

for continuous delivery outcomes and general linear model commands (Poisson regression with robust error variance) were used for binary outcomes. The unadjusted models included the a priori selected for continuous delivery outcomes and general linear model commands (Poisson regression with robust error variance) were used for binary outcomes, The unadjusted models included the *a priori selected* regression model for newborn anthropometries or mixed-effect linear model for FW. Mixed-effects linear model was used for continuous longitudinal outcomes while ordinary linear regression was used regression model for newborn anthropometrics or mixed-effect linear model for FW. Mixed-effects linear model was used for continuous longitudinal outcomes while ordinary linear regression was used B ased on intergrowth-21 reference chart [25] but it does not include AC, LBW (<2.5 leg), PT, SGA (BW < 10th percentiles), STIs/RTIs defined as composite of any STIs/RTIs, *P*-value from linear P-value from linear co-variables gravidity, study arm and site, and the adjusted models included gravidity, study arm and site, maternal body mass index, maternal age, and gestational age at enrollment and/or delivery. co-variables gravidity, study arm and site, and the adjusted models included gravidity, study arm and site, maternal body mass index, maternal age, and gestational age at enrollment and/or delivery. B ased on intergrowth-21 reference chart [25] but it does not include AC, LBW (\leq 5 leg), PT, SGA (BW < 10th percentiles), STIs/RTIs defined as composite of any STIs/RTIs, Furthermore, newborn sex if the outcome was not Z-scores. Furthermore, newborn sex if the outcome was not Z-scores.

Effect of malaria infection and composite STIs/RTIs during pregnancy on fetal growth trajectories as Z-scores of fetal weights and birth weights. Effect of malaria infection and composite STIs/RTIs during pregnancy on fetal growth trajectories as Z-scores of fetal weights and birth weights.

ects regression model.

 2 Adjusted for gravidity, study arm and site (n = 1329 for all and 717 for paucigravidae); Adjusted for gravidity, study arm and site (n = 1329 for all and 717 for paucigravidae);

 b Adjusted for gravidity, study arm, site and other covariates including maternal age, maternal body mass index, gestational age at enrollment and delivery (n = 1319 for all and 708 for paucigravidae Adjusted for gravidity, study arm, site and other covariates including maternal age, maternal body mass index, gestational age at enrollment and delivery (n = 1319 for all and 708 for paucigravidae women-newborn pairs); women-newborn pairs);

 c considered malaria positive from when the first malaria attack occurred; Considered malaria positive from when the first malaria attack occurred;

 $d_{\rm considered}$ STIs/RTIs positive from when STIs/RTIs was first diagnosed; Considered STIs/RTIs positive from when STIs/RTIs was first diagnosed;

microscopy, and at delivery also included placental histology (five participants with malaria but no STIs/RTIs data were excluded), STIs/RTIs defined as composite of any STIs/RIIs, NA: not applicable as microscopy, and at delivery also included placental histology (five participants with malaria but no STIs/RTIs data were excluded), STIs/RTIs defined as composite of any STIs/RTIs, NA: not applicable as Consider positive for both malaria and STIs/RTIs from when both diseases had occurred. Malaria was defined as any positive test: real-time polymerase chain reaction, malaria rapid diagnostic test, Consider positive for both malaria and STIs/RTIs from when both diseases had occurred. Malaria was defined as any positive test: real-time polymerase chain reaction, malaria rapid diagnostic test, crude coefficients were not significant. crude coefficients were not significant.