

# BMJ Open

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

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

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

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

If you have any questions on BMJ Open's open peer review process please email [info.bmjopen@bmj.com](mailto:info.bmjopen@bmj.com)

# BMJ Open

**Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK): A community-level, controlled quasi-experimental, Type 1 hybrid effectiveness study to assess implementation, effectiveness, and cost-effectiveness of a community-tailored harm reduction kiosk on HIV, HCV, and overdose risk in rural Appalachia**

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2024-083983
Article Type:	Protocol
Date Submitted by the Author:	04-Jan-2024
Complete List of Authors:	<p>Young, April; University of Kentucky, Department of Epidemiology and Environmental Health; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research</p> <p>Havens, Jennifer R.; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research; University of Kentucky College of Medicine</p> <p>Cooper, Hannah; Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, Behavioral, Social, and Health Education Sciences</p> <p>Fallin-Bennett, Amanda ; University of Kentucky, College of Nursing</p> <p>Fanucchi, Laura; University of Kentucky College of Medicine</p> <p>Freeman, Patricia; University of Kentucky, Department of Pharmacy Practice and Science; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research</p> <p>Knudsen, Hannah ; University of Kentucky, College of Medicine; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research</p> <p>Livingston, Melvin; Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, Behavioral, Social, and Health Education Sciences</p> <p>McCollister, Kathryn E.; University of Miami, Division of Health Services Research and Policy</p> <p>Stone, Jack ; University of Bristol, Population Health Sciences</p> <p>Vickerman, Peter; University of Bristol, Population Health Sciences</p> <p>Freeman, Edward; University of Kentucky, Department of Epidemiology and Environmental Health</p> <p>Jahangir, Tasfia; Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, Behavioral, Social, and Health Education Sciences</p> <p>White, Carol; University of Kentucky, Department of Epidemiology and Environmental Health</p> <p>Cheatom, Chelsi; TracB Exchange</p> <p>KyOSK, Community Staff; University of Kentucky College of Public Health; University of Kentucky College of Medicine</p> <p>KyOSK, Design Team; University of Kentucky</p>
Keywords:	Substance misuse < PSYCHIATRY, PUBLIC HEALTH, INFECTIOUS DISEASES

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK): A community-level, controlled quasi-experimental,  
4 Type 1 hybrid effectiveness study to assess implementation, effectiveness, and cost-effectiveness  
5 of a community-tailored harm reduction kiosk on HIV, HCV, and overdose risk in rural  
6 Appalachia  
7

8  
9 Young AM<sup>1,2</sup>, Havens JR<sup>2,3</sup>, Cooper HLF<sup>4</sup>, Fallin-Bennett A<sup>5</sup>, Fanucchi LC<sup>2,3</sup>, Freeman PR<sup>6</sup>,  
10 Knudsen HK<sup>2,3</sup>, Livingston MD<sup>4</sup>, McCollister KE<sup>7</sup>, Stone J<sup>8</sup>, Vickerman P<sup>8</sup>, Freeman E<sup>1</sup>,  
11 Jahangir T<sup>4</sup>, White CR<sup>1</sup>, Cheatom C<sup>9</sup>, KyOSK Community Staff<sup>1,3</sup>, and the KyOSK Design  
12 Team  
13

14  
15  
16 Corresponding Lead Author: April M Young (April.young@Uky.edu), Department of  
17 Epidemiology and Environmental Health, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA  
18

19  
20  
21 <sup>1</sup> Department of Epidemiology and Environmental Health, University of Kentucky, Lexington,  
22 Kentucky, USA

23  
24 <sup>2</sup> Center on Drug and Alcohol Research, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA

25  
26 <sup>3</sup> College of Medicine, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA

27  
28 <sup>4</sup> Department of Behavioral, Social, and Health Education Sciences, Rollins School of Public  
29 Health, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia, USA

30  
31 <sup>5</sup> College of Nursing, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA

32  
33 <sup>6</sup> College of Pharmacy, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA

34  
35 <sup>7</sup> Department of Public Health Sciences, University of Miami Miller School of Medicine, Miami,  
36 Florida, USA

37  
38 <sup>8</sup> Population Health Sciences, Bristol Medical School, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK.

39  
40 <sup>9</sup> Trac-B Exchange, Las Vegas, Nevada, U.S.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## Abstract

Introduction: Many rural communities bear a disproportionate share of drug-related harms. Innovative harm reduction service models, such as vending machines or kiosks, can expand access to services that reduce drug-related harms. However, few kiosks operate in the U.S. and their implementation, impact, and cost-effectiveness have not been adequately evaluated in rural settings. This paper describes the Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK) study protocol to test the effectiveness, implementation outcomes, and cost effectiveness of a community-tailored, harm reduction kiosk in reducing HIV, hepatitis C, and overdose risk in rural Appalachia.

Methods and analysis: KyOSK is a community-level, controlled quasi-experimental, non-randomized trial. KyOSK involves two cohorts of people who use drugs, one in an intervention county (n=425) and one in a control county (n=325). People who are 18 years or older, are community-dwelling residents in the target counties, and have used drugs to get high in the past six months are eligible. The trial compares the effectiveness of a fixed-site, staffed syringe service program (standard of care) to the standard of care supplemented with a kiosk. The kiosk will contain various harm reduction supplies accessible to participants upon valid code entry, allowing dispensing data to be linked to participant survey data. The kiosk will include a call-back feature that allows participants to select needed services and receive linkage-to-care services from a peer recovery coach. The cohorts complete follow-up surveys every 6 months for 36 months (three preceding kiosk implementation and four post-implementation). The study will test the effectiveness of the kiosk on reducing risk behaviors associated with overdose, HIV, and hepatitis C, as well as implementation outcomes and cost effectiveness.

Ethics and dissemination. The University of Kentucky IRB approved the protocol. Results will be disseminated in academic conferences and peer-reviewed journals, online and print media, and community meetings.

Trial Registration Number. NCT05657106

### Strengths and limitations of this study

- The intervention was designed through extensive engagement with community stakeholders, including people who use drugs.
- The hybrid effectiveness trial design will yield insights on effectiveness, economic impact, and implementation outcomes, increasing its applicability to guiding future intervention.
- A limitation of the protocol is the inability to blind participants and staff to arm assignment due to the county-level nature of the intervention.

For peer review only

## Introduction

Policies and risk environments surrounding drug use place people who use drugs (PWUD) at increased vulnerability to numerous harms,<sup>1-4</sup> including the transmission of blood-borne viruses,<sup>5-9</sup> overdose,<sup>9-11</sup> and injection-related bacterial infections.<sup>12-20</sup> Harm reduction programs reduce PWUD's risk of these adverse health outcomes<sup>21-30</sup> but access to these services in the U.S. and globally remain insufficient.<sup>31</sup> In the U.S., inadequate harm reduction infrastructure is especially problematic in the medically underserved epicenters of the nation's intertwined overdose and hepatitis C (HCV) crises.

Central Appalachia, a predominantly rural, mountainous area encompassing Eastern Kentucky and parts of West Virginia, Virginia, and Tennessee, has long experienced a disproportionate burden of HCV,<sup>32-33</sup> overdose,<sup>34</sup> and elevated risk for an HIV/HCV outbreak among people who inject drugs (PWID).<sup>35</sup> Due to elevated rates of new HIV diagnoses among rural residents, Kentucky was one of few states designated as a priority region for Ending the HIV Epidemic, an initiative by U.S. federal agencies to reduce new infections in the U.S. by 90% by 2030.<sup>36</sup>

In an effort to reduce its vulnerability to an HIV outbreak, Kentucky has expanded its harm reduction infrastructure,<sup>37</sup> launching 84 syringe service programs (SSPs)<sup>37</sup> in less than eight years. SSP implementation in Kentucky has been associated with decreases in injection-related infections,<sup>38</sup> but there remain substantial gaps in SSPs' reach.<sup>39-41</sup> In studies of rural Appalachian PWID, only half have used an SSP citing anticipated stigma, lack of privacy, fear of law enforcement, and limited transportation and hours of operation as barriers.<sup>40-46</sup> Nearly all of Appalachian Kentucky's SSPs are traditional, fixed-site, staffed programs operated within health departments. Supplementing these traditional programs with alternative harm reduction service models might reduce barriers and expand access.

Harm reduction vending machines, or kiosks, have been dispensing safe injection supplies in Europe, Australia, and elsewhere for up to 30 years,<sup>47-48</sup> but few have been implemented in the U.S.. The first kiosks that dispense injection supplies were installed in the U.S. in 2009<sup>49</sup> and are largely still limited to Puerto Rico and Nevada. In the U.S. and elsewhere, kiosk characteristics vary, but typically include supplies for safe injection and overdose prevention, are installed near existing SSPs, and accessed through code, card, token, or payment. Previous studies have demonstrated acceptability and uptake among PWID,<sup>50-53</sup> but findings on effectiveness have been mixed, with some studies, finding an association with reduced syringe sharing<sup>50-54-55</sup> and reuse,<sup>50</sup> and others not.<sup>48-53-56-59</sup>

Mixed findings from prior research, study design limitations (i.e., ecologic, absence of a control group, limited data on individuals not accessing services), and gaps in the studies' geographic coverage underscore the need for more research on harm reduction kiosks. The Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK) study tests the effectiveness, implementation outcomes, and cost effectiveness of a community-tailored, harm reduction kiosk in reducing HIV, HCV, and overdose risk behavior in rural Appalachia. KyOSK is significant in that it will be, to our knowledge, the first controlled trial testing the effectiveness of a harm reduction kiosk in the U.S., and the first globally to examine cost-effectiveness. We hypothesize that participants who reside in the intervention county, in which the kiosk is installed, will have reduced overdose, HIV, and HCV risk behaviors compared to participants who reside in a comparison county without a kiosk.

## Methods

### Study Setting

KyOSK involves two rural Appalachian Kentucky counties that are similar in their demographic and epidemiological profile (Table 1). These counties have been designated as “Distressed” or “At-Risk” based on several economic indicators.<sup>60</sup> Standard, fixed-site SSPs have been operating in the counties since 2017.

Table 1. Description of Counties

	Intervention County	Comparison County
Population per square mile <sup>61</sup>	84	88
Total population age 18 or older <sup>61</sup>	22,252	19,815
Percent living in poverty <sup>61</sup>	30%	21%
Rural-Urban Continuum Code (Range: 1-9) <sup>62</sup>	7	7
Percentage of population that is rural <sup>61</sup>	72%	65%
White, non-Hispanic (%) <sup>61</sup>	94%	92%
Percent of population that speaks English in home <sup>63</sup>	97%	96%
Number of HIV cases (total) <sup>64</sup>	34	29
Number of opioid overdose deaths (2020-2022) <sup>65</sup>	53	48
Number of opioid overdose emergency department admissions (2021) <sup>66</sup>	27	35
Number of buprenorphine providers <sup>67</sup>	15	10
Average number of SSP clients per month <sup>68</sup>	90	94

### Eligibility Criteria

People who are 18 years or older, are community-dwelling residents in the target counties and used drugs (excluding marijuana, tobacco, or alcohol) to get high in the past six months are eligible. Exclusion criteria include not being able to speak or understand English, conviction in the past 10 years of a violent crime (i.e., murder, manslaughter, rape, robbery, and /or aggravated assault) or stalking, current charges of violent crime or stalking, having plans to move out of the study counties in the next 6 months, or residing in an inpatient facility.

Investigators may remove a participant from the study if worsening health precludes participation; they pose a safety risk to staff; participation is determined to be due to external pressure; or the study is terminated by the Institutional Review Board (IRB), Data Safety Monitoring Board (DSMB), or funder. Participants are not prohibited from concurrent research or care.

### Randomization

KyOSK is a community-level, controlled quasi-experimental trial involving two cohorts of PWUD, one in an intervention and one in a control county. County intervention arm assignment was not random. A waitlist control design was originally envisioned, but one county’s political leaders expressed hesitancy about kiosk installation, desiring instead to serve as the control county and await trial results for guidance on future kiosk installation.

### Trial Arms



1  
2  
3 Our trial will compare changes in a cohort accessing a standard, fixed site SSP staffed by  
4 health department personnel in a control county to changes in a cohort accessing this standard  
5 model enhanced with a kiosk in an intervention county. We will enroll 750 PWUD, including  
6 425 in the intervention county and 325 in the control county. The intervention county sample is  
7 larger because it will require more within-county stratified analyses for SSP and kiosk usage  
8 alone and in combination. Participants will complete 8 waves of bi-annual surveys until the  
9 participants reach 48 months of follow-up, with the kiosk being implemented at approximately  
10 18-month follow-up. The study timeline is described in Table 2.  
11  
12

### 13 *Comparison Condition*

14 The SSP staffed by the local health department will serve as the standard-of-care  
15 comparison. The SSP provides syringes, cookers, cottons, naloxone, wound care kits,  
16 condoms/lubricant, snacks, drinks, and sharps containers. At their first visit, clients receive a  
17 unique ID and complete a brief survey, with these data stored in a statewide, REDcap database.  
18 SSP clients will have similar access to harm reduction supplies as those accessing the kiosk and  
19 will receive a trifold resource guide with information on services and contact information for  
20 recovery coaches (described below). The staffed SSP currently operates three hours per week but  
21 scale up to 40 hours per week will be pursued to align with the timing of the kiosk's  
22 implementation.  
23  
24  
25

### 26 *Intervention Condition*

27 The intervention involves enhancing an existing SSP with a kiosk. Approximately 18  
28 months after initiation of cohort recruitment, a kiosk will be installed and will remain in place for  
29 approximately three years. While the kiosk is operating, the intervention county will continue its  
30 staffed SSP.  
31

32 Cohort participants in the intervention county will receive a swipe card and alphanumeric  
33 code to access the machine. To ensure integration with the state's REDCap data system, the card  
34 and code will use the standard SSP client ID code format. Staff will deactivate cards when a  
35 replacement is issued, a participant withdraws, or if the card is lost or stolen.  
36

37 The kiosk will be located adjacent to the local health department which operates the  
38 staffed SSP. The local health department was the most preferred location for a kiosk based on  
39 previous research.<sup>40</sup> The kiosk will resemble a traditional vending machine with a small  
40 touchscreen interface for making selections and receiving education on overdose prevention. The  
41 kiosk will be stocked with harm reduction supplies (see Table 3 for potential supplies). To ensure  
42 compliance with the counties' existing 1:1 exchange requirement, the kiosk will have a sharps  
43 receptacle equipped with technology to approximate the number of returned syringes and  
44 communicate to the kiosk the number allowed to be dispensed.  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Table 2. Participant timeline

Time point	STUDY PERIOD							
	Enrollment	Allocation	Post-allocation					Closeout
	-18 to 0 months	0 months	6 months	12 months	18 months	24 months	25-30 months	30-36 months
Enrollment								
Eligibility Screen	X							
Informed Consent (baseline)	X							
Informed Consent (preceding kiosk implementation)		X						
Interventions								
Staffed SSP (Control)		X	X	X	X	X	X	
Staffed SSP + kiosk (Intervention)		X	X	X	X	X	X	
Assessments								
Baseline Survey	X							
Follow-up survey		X	X	X	X	X	X	
Analysis							X	X

Table 3. Potential kiosk supplies and service menu for facilitated referral

Supplies	Services to be listed on menu to which there can be facilitated referral
Naloxone	Housing
Fentanyl test strips	Food assistance
Needles/syringes	Transportation
Condoms	HIV/HCV testing and treatment
Food	Mental health care
Water	Support groups
Hygiene kits	Domestic violence
Wound care kits	Substance use disorder treatment
Naloxone voucher for redemption at pharmacy	Help obtaining an identification card
Alcohol pads	HIV pre-exposure prophylaxis
Xylazine test strips	Health insurance registration
Hats and gloves	Wound care
Female hygiene supplies	Legal aid
Housing vouchers	STI treatment and testing
Transportation vouchers	Pregnancy testing
At-home HIV tests	Maternal care
Resource guides	Education assistance

A common concern about kiosks is the potential missed opportunities for linkage to care.<sup>54-69</sup> To address this concern, the kiosk will feature a care navigation call-back menu. Care navigation can increase PWUD use of community-based services, including increased engagement in substance use disorder treatment.<sup>70-72</sup> Participants will select services displayed on the kiosk's interface (see Table 3 for potential menu) and provide access to their phone number(s) for call-back.

People with lived experience with substance use who are certified and trained Recovery Coaches (RCs) will monitor the kiosk data dashboard and field call-back requests within three business days. RCs will briefly assess service needs and potential barriers and make facilitated referrals to health and support services. RCs will also share that they are a person in recovery and relate where possible to the participant's situation and provide hope and encouragement. With permission, RCs will follow up in seven days to offer further assistance. Clients can continue to contact RCs with follow-up questions.

#### *Outcomes*

Study outcomes are described in Table 4 and in detail on the study overview in ClinicalTrials.gov.<sup>73</sup> All measures are continuous. Self-reported measures will be assessed using time-line follow-back methods.<sup>74</sup> Survey logic is used to identify reporting discrepancies in real time and prompt the interviewer to resolve the discrepancy with the participant (i.e., reporting more injections involving a clean needle in the past 30 days than total number of injections).

Table 4. Outcomes

Outcomes	Recall period
<i>Primary outcomes</i>	
Number of injections where a clean syringe was used divided by total number of injections among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Number of injections where a clean syringe from the [kiosk/SSP] was used divided by the total number of injections among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Number of syringes obtained at the SSP and/or kiosk (obtained from kiosk data)	30 days
<i>Secondary outcomes</i>	
Change in frequency of receptive syringe sharing among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of distributive syringe sharing among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in number of people with whom person shared syringes and injection equipment	30 days
Change in frequency of syringe reuse among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of safe syringe disposal among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of condomless anal and/or vaginal sex	30 days
Change in number of days carrying naloxone	30 days
Change in number of days on medications for opioid use disorder (MOUD) among participants who use opioids to get high	30 days
Change in frequency of use of harm reduction services among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of use of fentanyl test strips among participants who use drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of engagement in overdose protective behaviors among participants who use drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of overdose among participants who use drugs	6 months
Change in use of naloxone during overdose events by participants who witnessed an overdose	6 months
Change in number of times contacting or visiting a pharmacy to obtain naloxone	6 months

Following the Implementation Outcomes Framework<sup>75</sup>, we will assess acceptability, appropriateness, fidelity, cost, penetration/reach, and sustainability. Acceptability and appropriateness will be assessed in the cohort surveys using the Acceptability of Implementation Measure (AIM) and Intervention Appropriateness Measure (IAM), respectively.<sup>76</sup> Fidelity is described in the *Blinding, Contamination, and Fidelity* section. Using established methods,<sup>77-81</sup> costs will be estimated from the provider's perspective and employ a micro-costing approach that measures and values in monetary terms all resources invested and links costs to the primary and secondary outcomes to evaluate economic impact. *Penetration* (i.e. reach) will be determined by examining the number who engage with the kiosk and/or staffed SSP divided by the number enrolled at the time of intervention/comparison condition implementation (i.e. percent who use the kiosk or SSP) and per supply (i.e. percent who accessed each supply) at monthly intervals. Finally, prospects for sustainment will be explored in final year using qualitative, semi-structured interviews with SSP and other health department staff and local and state leadership.

Building on existing models,<sup>82-85</sup> we will develop and calibrate<sup>86</sup> a dynamic, deterministic model of HCV transmission and overdose among PWUD in the intervention county to estimate the kiosk's impact and cost-effectiveness. The kiosk's effects will be parameterized using trial

1  
2  
3 data. Impact will be measured as reductions in HCV incidence/prevalence, HCV infections and  
4 overdoses averted and quality-adjusted life-years (QALYs) saved over the study and longer  
5 timeframes (10/20/50 years). Using cost data, we will estimate cost-effectiveness by comparing  
6 discounted (3% annually<sup>87</sup>) costs and QALYs over 50-years between model scenarios with and  
7 without kiosk introduction. The mean incremental cost-effectiveness ratio will be estimated and  
8 compared to US relevant willingness-to-pay per QALY thresholds.<sup>88</sup>  
9  
10

### 11 *Data collection*

12 Participants are recruited from (1) existing cohort studies of PWUD, (2) the two SSP  
13 programs, and (3) peer-referral. Recruitment from these sources occurs simultaneously; staff  
14 extend invitations and advertise in the SSP, and those who enroll are invited to refer peers (paid  
15 for up to five each, \$10/peer). KyOSK recruitment commenced in March 2023. The target  
16 sample size is 750, including 425 from the intervention county and 325 from the control county.  
17

18 Community-based field staff administer surveys programmed in Questionnaire  
19 Development System (QDS)'s computer-assisted self-interviewing program, with staff asking  
20 participants questions aloud and entering participants' responses. Participants can skip any  
21 question. The survey collects demographic characteristics, sexual and drug-related risk behavior,  
22 houselessness, criminal justice involvement, SUD treatment, medical care access, harm reduction  
23 service access, and social, drug, and sexual network characteristics. Staff administer follow-up  
24 surveys every 6 months. Participants receive \$35 at baseline and \$25 for each follow-up survey.  
25

26 At baseline, staff administer a 14-panel saliva drug test and fingerstick HIV and HCV  
27 antibody tests. Trained staff use the rapid-rapid protocol for HIV testing,<sup>70,71</sup> involving INSTI  
28 HIV 1/HIV 2 Rapid Antibody Test (BioLytical® Laboratories Inc., Richmond, B.C., Canada)  
29 followed by Sure Check® HIV-1/2 Antibody Test (ChemBio Diagnostic Systems, Inc.,  
30 Medford, NY). Staff use OraQuick® HCV Rapid Antibody Test (OraSure, Bethlehem, PA) for  
31 HCV testing.<sup>72</sup> Staff provide post-test counseling and facilitated referrals for those testing  
32 positive.  
33

34 The kiosk's software will capture detailed, de-identified data linked only to user ID  
35 code. Data will be stored in a secure password-protected database. Data include client- and  
36 visit-level usage including day/time, frequency of use, supply selection and quantity, number  
37 of syringes returned, and call-back requests. The same data will be collected on clients visiting  
38 the SSP.  
39  
40

### 41 *Retention*

42 Following standard procedures used in longitudinal research,<sup>89</sup> participants provide  
43 detailed locator information to assist with retention and/or contact for future research including  
44 names, pseudonyms, phone numbers, addresses, email addresses, social media contact  
45 information, and contact information for up to three people who should know how to reach the  
46 participant if contact information changes. Participants are contacted at the mid-point of each  
47 follow-up interval to update locator information and remind them about their follow-up  
48 appointment. Participants receive \$10 for updating or verifying locator information between the  
49 baseline and 6-month follow-up appointment (the period at which most attrition occurs). In  
50 addition, local jail systems are searched to identify if a person is incarcerated. Participants who  
51 are incarcerated and have consented to be contacted while incarcerated may complete follow-up  
52 surveys from jail (with permission from jail administrative staff).  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

### *Blinding, Fidelity, and Contamination.*

Analysts remain blinded through recruitment and follow-up until completion of primary and secondary analyses, using uninformative participant labels. Due to the nature of the interventions, participants and site staff administering the intervention are not blinded. These staff are instructed to use uninformative labels when discussing participants with blinded investigators.

Fidelity of kiosk and staffed SSP implementation will be assessed early and mid-trial on three domains: (1) supply availability, (2) operation, and (3) recovery coaching. *Supply availability* will be assessed using the kiosk's internal data in which item selections unfilled due to insufficient stock are recorded. *Operation* will be assessed by examining the number of kiosk malfunctions and number of times in which the staffed SSP operated < 40 hours per week excluding holidays. The latter will be assessed five unannounced visits per month by research staff at opening, lunch, and near closing. *Recovery coaching* fidelity to best practices will be assessed by monthly review of 10% of randomly selected, audio recorded sessions and completion of a fidelity checklist, which includes tailoring the conversation to stage of change, using motivational interviewing, engaging in resource brokering, and so on.

Potential for contamination is low, as the travel distance between sites is two hours. Participants enrolled in the control county will not be provided with a swipe card to access the kiosk in the intervention county. Nevertheless, to assess potential contamination, data will be collected at each follow-up survey about county of residence, SSP and kiosk use, and in which county they accessed services.

### *Data management*

Data are imported to a single warehouse file on our secure network drive. Using the QDS Warehouse Manager program, the data manager assesses transferred data for completeness and consistency and tracks data modifications. Stored data are exported as SAS and SPSS datasets for analysis. The list linking participants to their unique identifier is maintained on a secure REDCap database. To protect confidentiality, only de-identified data are shared for analysis.

### *Statistical methods*

The Intention-to-Treat (ITT) population will contain all enrolled participants according to their assigned study arm. The Per-Protocol population will include participants who complete the trial as originally allocated. We hypothesize that values on our primary outcome measures of syringe coverage (see *Outcomes* for operationalization) in the intervention county will be greater than the control county in the ITT and Per-Protocol populations. We anticipate that the secondary outcomes of risk behaviors (see *Outcomes* for operationalization) in the intervention county will be less than that reported by those in the control county. We hypothesize that participants in the intervention county will be more likely to engage the secondary outcomes related to naloxone carriage and MOUD and HCV treatment than those in the comparison county.

All models will be analysed using generalized estimating equations (GEE) assuming an AR(1) residual structure to account for within person autocorrelation due to repeated measures, and will include fixed effects for county intervention condition, intervention period, and condition\*period interaction. This interaction estimates the relative change in the intervention county compared to the control county due to kiosk's introduction. Although the counties are remarkably similar, we will model county specific linear time effects to allow for different

1  
2  
3 secular trends that may confound estimation of the intervention effect. Multiple baseline  
4 measures allow better capture of any potential differential trends. Models will include an  
5 indicator variable reflecting whether participants also received services at the staffed SSP and  
6 institutionalization (hospitalized or incarcerated) at the time of the survey. Other theoretically  
7 justified time varying covariates and recruitment method (i.e., enrolled from cohort, SSP, or  
8 peer-referral) will be examined. We will examine homophily in peer referral chains and  
9 incorporate autocorrelation within chains if significant homophily on outcomes is present. Of  
10 note, GEE models are robust to minor misspecifications of the correlation structure that may  
11 arise due to the sampling scheme.  
12

13  
14 Our prior research has shown that the rates of our primary outcomes are high enough to  
15 be well approximated as normal. If this does not hold true, we will use Poisson models with  
16 appropriate offsets to account for the distribution of the primary ratio outcomes. Type 1 error ( $\alpha$ )  
17 will be set to 0.05 in primary and secondary outcome analyses, and two-tailed tests will be used.  
18 For outcomes that apply only to a subset of participants (e.g., syringe sharing analyses are  
19 restricted to PWID), data from time points at which participants do not report the relevant  
20 behavior (e.g., injection drug use) will be omitted from these models. Resulting estimates will be  
21 unbiased under the assumption that the kiosk did not cause a change in the overall behavior  
22 defining the subset (e.g., in injection drug use). Sensitivity analyses including all data will be  
23 performed using multinomial logistic regression where the outcomes are specified as, for  
24 example, no injection drug use, injection drug use with a clean syringe, and injection drug use  
25 without a clean syringe.  
26

27  
28 We will use multiple imputation by chained equations (MICE)<sup>90</sup> to account for attrition in  
29 all analyses. Our imputation model will include interactions between intervention county and  
30 baseline risk measures to allow for differential selection effects between the intervention and  
31 comparison groups should differential attrition arise.<sup>91</sup>  
32

33 To analyze reach, we will perform segmented regression analyses using existing data  
34 from the statewide SSP database beginning in January 2020 allowing for 3 years of pre-  
35 intervention data. We will assess change in total reach by comparing the difference in the  
36 changes in both intercept and slope between counties. All models will account for first-order  
37 autocorrelation and use appropriate link functions based on outcome distributions. We will also  
38 explore changes in reach by gender, age, IDU, or other characteristics, by generating separate  
39 series by participant characteristic and then analyzing these series in a pooled interaction model.  
40

#### 41 *Power Calculation*

42 Based on prior published simulations,<sup>92</sup> our segmented regression analyses (n=72  
43 months, 3 years pre- and 3 years post-intervention implementation) are well powered to achieve  
44 study aims for small effects across a wide variety of link functions and autocorrelation values.  
45 We estimated power for our primary intervention models using 5000 Monte Carlo simulations for  
46 each set of parameters, with a type-1 error rate of 0.05 and an unbalanced design (sample  
47 unevenly distributed across counties). We simulated autocorrelated outcomes for three pre-  
48 intervention and five post-intervention survey waves with an expected 750 enrollees. We  
49 conservatively used 70% retention for the power analysis. Not all outcomes will be applicable to  
50 the full cohort; for example, approximately 25% are estimated<sup>93</sup> to have not recently injected and  
51 therefore will not contribute to analyses of outcome variables related to injection. Therefore, we  
52 estimated power for various effect sizes for a cohort of “completers” of N=300, 400, and 500.  
53 Based on these simulations, all sample sizes are powered to detect a standardized mean difference  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

of at least 0.2, a small effect. As enrollment nears the target sample size, the accuracy of projected estimates of retention and injection drug use will be evaluated and the sample size may be increased if needed.

#### *Data monitoring*

A DSMB with a physician, statistician, infectious disease epidemiologist, and behavioral scientist with expertise in research among PWUD oversees the study. The DSMB is independent of the sponsor and competing interests. The DSMB meets at least annually to review emerging data, and make recommendations about the trial's conduct, including stopping the trial. No formal interim analyses are planned.

#### *Social Harms*

Social harms related to participation will be actively assessed and documented. Social harms include any intended or unintended cause of physical; emotional; or psychosocial injury or hurt from one participant to another, a participant to themselves, or an institution to a participant, occurring as a result of study participation.<sup>94</sup> Participants will complete a social harms questionnaire at each study visit. Study staff are trained to provide appropriate care, counseling, and referral as needed. Any identified social harms are reported to study investigators who determine severity and provide details to the IRB as required.

#### *Auditing*

The Data Scientist regularly assesses data for missingness and data quality and provides feedback to the PI and field staff regarding any issues that need to be addressed. The PI and Project Director review study consent materials to assure appropriate documentation of consent at least semi-annually.

#### *Patient and Public Involvement*

Participants were not directly involved in the development of the research question, outcome measures, or conduct of the trial; however, officials from public health, behavioral health, drug policy agencies, and a community advisory board of PWUD were involved in intervention design. Upon funding, six focus groups with PWUD and local health department personnel were conducted to gain feedback on kiosk features. Then, a KyOSK Design Team of two SSP staff, a health department director and nurse administrator, six representatives of four key state agencies, and eight PWUD was convened to meet monthly or bimonthly to guide kiosk design. A separate community advisory board of PWUD provided feedback on recruitment methods and participated in survey question review and piloting. Upon completion of the study, results will be distributed via study social media pages, websites, local community advisory board, the KyOSK Design Team, and to community partners.

#### *Ethics and Dissemination*

The KyOSK study is reviewed and approved by the University of Kentucky IRB. Study staff complete human subjects training and are approved as personnel by the IRB. Protocol modifications, revisions to consent forms, and changes to other participant-facing documents are submitted to the University of Kentucky IRB for approval prior to implementation. Protocol modifications are submitted to the IRB prior to implementation and reflected in [clinicaltrials.gov](http://clinicaltrials.gov).



1  
2  
3 Approval from the funding agency will be sought for major protocol modifications, such as  
4 changes in inclusion criteria or aims, prior to submitting those changes to the IRB.  
5

6 All participants complete an informed consent process at baseline and at the follow-up  
7 appointment preceding kiosk implementation, with the latter going into more detail about the  
8 kiosk design and supplies. The consent form describes the protocol, risks, and benefits. Consent  
9 procedures are completed in person in a private area with only the participant and study staff  
10 present.

11 Findings will be disseminated to the public and healthcare professionals in peer-reviewed  
12 journals, professional conferences, and community forums. Authorship eligibility guidelines  
13 follow ICMJE criteria. We will submit manuscripts to NIHMS to be made publicly available no  
14 later than 12 months after the official date of publication in compliance with the funder's open  
15 access policy. De-identified data will be made available to interested parties upon submission  
16 and approval of a written request describing data security protocols and intended use.  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

### Authors' contributions

The following individuals contributed to the design of the protocol described in this manuscript: AMY, MDL, HKK, JRH, AFB, PRF, JS, PV, HLFC, CC, and KEM. All members of the KyOSK Design Team contributed to the design of the intervention. The following made substantial contributions to the implementation of the protocol: AMY, MDL, HKK, JRH, EF, AFB, PRF, JS, PV, HLFC, CW, KEM, KyOSK Design Team, and KyOSK Project Staff. The following individuals made substantial contributions to the drafted work and/or substantively revised it: AMY, MDL, HKK, JRH, AFB, PRF, JS, PV, HLFC, KEM, EF, and TJ. All authors read and approved the final manuscript and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

The following are members of the KyOSK Community Staff: Nathan Bartrum, Sarah Hurlburt, Rhonda Gilliam, Kristen Johnson, Kenneth Lane, Elizabeth Larimore, Lisa Maybrier, Cindy Oliver, Lana Rose, Renée Tabor, and Jennifer Watson.

The following are members of the KyOSK Design Team: Chase Barnes, Shirly Candybar Combs, William H. Feltner, Kerri Dawn Knight, Anthony S. Lockard, Magic Man, Elizabeth De'Hart Sword, Larry M. Sword, and Pamela Wright,

### Funding Statement

KyOSK is funded by the National Institutes of Health through NIDA R01 DA055872 (PI: Young). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH. The study sponsor had no role in study design, collection, management, interpretation of data, writing of this manuscript, or decision to submit this manuscript for publication. This study protocol was approved by University of Kentucky Institutional Review Board.

### Competing interest statement

Amanda Fallin-Bennett is a co-founder of Voices of Hope, the contracted recovery community organization providing the recovery coaching services. The device to facilitate syringe disposal and dispensing that will be installed in conjunction with the kiosk is intellectual property of the University of Kentucky, with April Young designated as the inventor. Chelsi Cheatom is a paid consultant on the implementation of harm reduction vending machines, including on the described project.

### Data Sharing Statement

De-identified data will be made available upon written request to Principal Investigator, April Young.

### Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the study participants' willingness to share their experiences and time with us. The study staff are instrumental to the success of the study. We would also like to acknowledge the valuable contributions of Dr. Katie Marks of the Kentucky Opioid Response Effort, Van Ingram of the Kentucky Office of Drug Control Policy, Jana Collins and Linwood Strenicky of the Kentucky Income Reinvestment Program, Dr. Connie White of the Kentucky Department of Public Health, and Elizabeth Turner and JoAnn Vanzant of the Kentucky River Health Department. Kiosk Design Team members, including people with lived experience with

1  
2  
3 substance use, local health department partners, state government officials, and statewide service  
4 leaders, have driven the design of the intervention and made important contributions to the plan  
5 for its implementation. We also appreciate the contributions of involved students.  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

For peer review only

## References

1. Rhodes T. The 'risk environment': a framework for understanding and reducing drug-related harm. *International Journal of Drug Policy* 2002;13(2):85-94. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0955-3959\(02\)00007-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0955-3959(02)00007-5)
2. Collins AB, Boyd J, Cooper HLF, et al. The intersectional risk environment of people who use drugs. *Soc Sci Med* 2019;234:112384. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2019.112384 [published Online First: 20190622]
3. Ibragimov U, Young AM, Cooper HLF. Understanding rural risk environments for drug-related harms: Progress, challenges, and steps forward. *International Journal of Drug Policy* 2020;85:102926. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2020.102926>
4. Smith BD, Lewis Q, Offiong A, et al. "It's on every corner": assessing risk environments in Baltimore, MD using a racialized risk environment model. *Journal of Ethnicity in Substance Abuse* 2022;1-15. doi: 10.1080/15332640.2022.2068719
5. Degenhardt L, Charlson F, Stanaway J, et al. Estimating the burden of disease attributable to injecting drug use as a risk factor for HIV, hepatitis C, and hepatitis B: findings from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases* 2016;16(12):1385-98. doi: 10.1016/s1473-3099(16)30325-5
6. John-Baptiste A, Krahn M, Heathcote J, et al. The natural history of hepatitis C infection acquired through injection drug use: Meta-analysis and meta-regression. *Journal of Hepatology* 2010;53(2):245-51. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhep.2010.03.015>
7. Mathers BM, Degenhardt L, Phillips B, et al. Global epidemiology of injecting drug use and HIV among people who inject drugs: a systematic review. *The Lancet* 2008;372(9651):1733-45.
8. Rachlis B, Brouwer KC, Mills EJ, et al. Migration and transmission of blood-borne infections among injection drug users: Understanding the epidemiologic bridge. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 2007;90(2):107-19. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2007.03.014>
9. Green TC, McGowan SK, Yokell MA, et al. HIV infection and risk of overdose: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *AIDS* 2012;26(4)
10. Colledge S, Peacock A, Leung J, et al. The prevalence of non-fatal overdose among people who inject drugs: A multi-stage systematic review and meta-analysis. *International Journal of Drug Policy* 2019;73:172-84. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2019.07.030>
11. Shealey J, Hall EW, Pigott TD, et al. Systematic review and meta-analysis to estimate the burden of fatal and non-fatal overdose among people who inject drugs. *medRxiv* 2022:2022.02.18.22271192. doi: 10.1101/2022.02.18.22271192
12. Larney S, Peacock A, Mathers BM, et al. A systematic review of injecting-related injury and disease among people who inject drugs. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 2017;171:39-49. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2016.11.029>
13. Ji Y, Kujtan L, Kershner D. Acute endocarditis in intravenous drug users: a case report and literature review. *Journal of Community Hospital Internal Medicine Perspectives* 2012;2(1):11513. doi: 10.3402/jchimp.v2i1.11513
14. McCarthy NL, Baggs J, See I, et al. Bacterial Infections Associated With Substance Use Disorders, Large Cohort of United States Hospitals, 2012-2017. *Clin Infect Dis* 2020;71(7):e37-e44. doi: 10.1093/cid/ciaa008

15. McCarthy NL, Baggs J, See I, et al. Bacterial Infections Associated With Substance Use Disorders, Large Cohort of United States Hospitals, 2012–2017. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 2020;71(7):e37-e44. doi: 10.1093/cid/ciaa008
16. Shah M, Wong R, Ball L, et al. Risk factors of infective endocarditis in persons who inject drugs. *Harm Reduction Journal* 2020;17(1):35. doi: 10.1186/s12954-020-00378-z
17. Colledge S, Larney S, Bruno R, et al. Profile and correlates of injecting-related injuries and diseases among people who inject drugs in Australia. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2020;216:108267. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108267 [published Online First: 20200829]
18. Hope V, Kimber J, Vickerman P, et al. Frequency, factors and costs associated with injection site infections: Findings from a national multi-site survey of injecting drug users in England. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 2008;8(1):120. doi: 10.1186/1471-2334-8-120
19. Binswanger IA, Kral AH, Bluthenthal RN, et al. High prevalence of abscesses and cellulitis among community-recruited injection drug users in San Francisco. *Clin Infect Dis* 2000;30(3):579-81. doi: 10.1086/313703
20. Doran J, Harris M, Hope VD, et al. Factors associated with skin and soft tissue infections among people who inject drugs in the United Kingdom: A comparative examination of data from two surveys. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 2020;213:108080. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108080
21. Hagan H, Pouget ER, Des Jarlais DC. A systematic review and meta-analysis of interventions to prevent hepatitis C virus infection in people who inject drugs. *J Infect Dis* 2011;204(1):74-83. doi: 10.1093/infdis/jir196
22. Aspinall EJ, Nambiar D, Goldberg DJ, et al. Are needle and syringe programmes associated with a reduction in HIV transmission among people who inject drugs: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Epidemiol* 2014;43(1):235-48. doi: 10.1093/ije/dyt243 [published Online First: 20131227]
23. Puzhko S, Eisenberg MJ, Filion KB, et al. Effectiveness of Interventions for Prevention of Common Infections Among Opioid Users: A Systematic Review of Systematic Reviews. *Front Public Health* 2022;10:749033. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2022.749033 [published Online First: 20220222]
24. Bahji A, Yanagawa B, Lamba W. Harm Reduction for Injection Drug Users with Infective Endocarditis: A Systematic Review. *Canadian Journal of Addiction* 2020;11(2):13-23. doi: 10.1097/cxa.0000000000000080
25. Mercer F, Miler JA, Pauly B, et al. Peer Support and Overdose Prevention Responses: A Systematic ‘State-of-the-Art’ Review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2021;18(22):12073.
26. Giglio RE, Li G, Dimaggio CJ. Effectiveness of bystander naloxone administration and overdose education programs: a meta-analysis. *Injury Epidemiology* 2015;2(1) doi: 10.1186/s40621-015-0041-8
27. Levengood TW, Yoon GH, Davoust MJ, et al. Supervised Injection Facilities as Harm Reduction: A Systematic Review. *Am J Prev Med* 2021;61(5):738-49. doi: 10.1016/j.amepre.2021.04.017 [published Online First: 20210701]
28. Potier C, Laprévote V, Dubois-Arber F, et al. Supervised injection services: What has been demonstrated? A systematic literature review. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 2014;145:48-68. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2014.10.012>

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4 29. Newcombe R. The reduction of drug-related harm: a conceptual framework for theory,  
5 practice and research 1992:1-14.
- 6 30. Dole VP, Nyswander M. A MEDICAL TREATMENT FOR DIACETYLMORPHINE  
7 (HEROIN) ADDICTION. A CLINICAL TRIAL WITH METHADONE  
8 HYDROCHLORIDE. *Jama* 1965;193:646-50. doi: 10.1001/jama.1965.03090080008002
- 9 31. Colledge-Frisby S, Ottaviano S, Webb P, et al. Global coverage of interventions to prevent  
10 and manage drug-related harms among people who inject drugs: a systematic review. *The*  
11 *Lancet Global Health* 2023
- 12 32. Havens J, Lofwall MR, Frost SD, et al. Individual and network factors associated with  
13 prevalent hepatitis C infection among rural Appalachian injection drug users. *American*  
14 *Journal of Public Health* 2013;103(1):e44-e52.
- 15 33. Young AM, Jonas AB, Havens JR. Social networks and HCV viraemia in anti-HCV-positive  
16 rural drug users. *Epidemiology and infection* 2013;141(2):402-11. doi:  
17 10.1017/s0950268812000696 [published Online First: 2012/06/22]
- 18 34. Havens JR, Oser CB, Knudsen HK, et al. Individual and network factors associated with non-  
19 fatal overdose among rural Appalachian drug users. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2011;115(1-  
20 2):107-12. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2010.11.003 [published Online First: 2010/12/04]
- 21 35. Van Handel MM, Rose CE, Hallisey EJ, et al. County-Level Vulnerability Assessment for  
22 Rapid Dissemination of HIV or HCV Infections Among Persons Who Inject Drugs,  
23 United States. *Journal of acquired immune deficiency syndromes (1999)* 2016;73(3):323-  
24 31. doi: 10.1097/qai.0000000000001098 [published Online First: 2016/10/21]
- 25 36. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Ending the HIV Epidemic: A Plan for America.  
26 Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention,, 2020.
- 27 37. Kentucky Department for Public Health. Syringe Services Programs [Available from:  
28 <https://www.chfs.ky.gov/agencies/dph/dehp/hab/Pages/kyseps.aspx> accessed 2023 July  
29 20.
- 30 38. Bushling C, Walton MT, Conner KL, et al. Syringe services programs in the Bluegrass:  
31 Evidence of population health benefits using Kentucky Medicaid data. *The Journal of*  
32 *Rural Health* 2022;38(3):620-29.
- 33 39. Soria J, Johnson T, Collins J, et al. Risk factors for loss to follow-up of persons who inject  
34 drugs enrolled at syringe services programs in Kentucky. *International Journal of Drug*  
35 *Policy* 2021;95:103255. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2021.103255>
- 36 40. Lancaster KE, Cooper HL, Browning CR, et al. Syringe Service Program Utilization,  
37 Barriers, and Preferences for Design in Rural Appalachia: Differences between Men and  
38 Women Who Inject Drugs. *Substance use & misuse* 2020;55(14):2268-77.
- 39 41. Surratt HL, Otachi JK, Williams T, et al. Motivation to Change and Treatment Participation  
40 Among Syringe Service Program Utilizers in Rural Kentucky. *The Journal of rural*  
41 *health : official journal of the American Rural Health Association and the National Rural*  
42 *Health Care Association* 2020;36(2):224-33. doi: 10.1111/jrh.12388 [published Online  
43 First: 2019/08/16]
- 44 42. Ibragimov U, Cooper, K.E., Batty E., Ballard, A.M., Fadanelli, M., Gross, S.B., Klein, E.M.,  
45 Lockard, A.S., Young, A.M. & Cooper, H.L.F. . Factors that influence enrollment in  
46 syringe services programs in rural areas: a qualitative study among program clients in  
47 Appalachian Kentucky. *Harm Reduction Journal* 2021;18(1):1-15.
- 48
- 49
- 50
- 51
- 52
- 53
- 54
- 55
- 56
- 57
- 58
- 59
- 60

- 1  
2  
3  
4 43. Surratt HL, Cowley, A M., Gulley, J, Lockard, S, Otachi, J, Rains, R, Williams, T. Syringe  
5 Service Program Use Among People Who Inject Drugs in Appalachian Kentucky.  
6 *American journal of public health* 2020;110(1):34-36. doi: 10.2105/ajph.2019.305333  
7  
8 44. Surratt HL, Cowley AM, Gulley J, et al. Syringe Service Program Use Among People Who  
9 Inject Drugs in Appalachian Kentucky. *American Journal of Public Health*  
10 2020;110(1):34-36. doi: 10.2105/ajph.2019.305333  
11  
12 45. Cooper HLF, Gross S, Klein E, et al. Capacity for sustainment of recently established syringe  
13 service programs in Appalachian Kentucky: The central role of staff champions. *Drug*  
14 *Alcohol Rev* 2022 doi: 10.1111/dar.13436 [published Online First: 2022/02/04]  
15  
16 46. Cloud DH, Ibragimov U, Prood N, et al. Rural risk environments for hepatitis c among young  
17 adults in appalachian kentucky. *Int J Drug Policy* 2019;72:47-54. doi:  
18 10.1016/j.drugpo.2019.05.006 [published Online First: 2019/05/23]  
19  
20 47. Islam M, Wodak A, Conigrave KM. The effectiveness and safety of syringe vending  
21 machines as a component of needle syringe programmes in community settings. *Int J*  
22 *Drug Policy* 2008;19(6):436-41. doi: 10.1016/j.drugpo.2007.07.006 [published Online  
23 First: 2007/09/04]  
24  
25 48. Stark K, Leicht A, Müller R. Characteristics of users of syringe vending machines in Berlin.  
26 *Soz Praventivmed* 1994;39(4):209-16. doi: 10.1007/bf01309220 [published Online First:  
27 1994/01/01]  
28  
29 49. Stone K, Shirley-Beavan S. The Global State of Harm Reduction 2018. Regional Overview:  
30 24 Carribean. Harm Reduction International: Harm Reduction International, 2018:85.  
31  
32 50. McDonald D. The evaluation of a trial of syringe vending machines in Canberra, Australia.  
33 *Int J Drug Policy* 2009;20(4):336-9. doi: 10.1016/j.drugpo.2008.06.004 [published  
34 Online First: 2008/09/16]  
35  
36 51. Otiashvili D, Kirtadze I, Mgebrishvili T, et al. Implementation and evaluation of a syringe  
37 vending machine trial in Tbilisi, Georgia. *International Journal of Drug Policy*  
38 2022;103:103649. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2022.103649>  
39  
40 52. Duplessy C, Reynaud EG. Long-term survey of a syringe-dispensing machine needle  
41 exchange program: answering public concerns. *Harm Reduct J* 2014;11:16. doi:  
42 10.1186/1477-7517-11-16 [published Online First: 2014/06/03]  
43  
44 53. Islam M, Stern T, Conigrave KM, et al. Client satisfaction and risk behaviours of the users of  
45 syringe dispensing machines: a pilot study. *Drug Alcohol Rev* 2008;27(1):13-9. doi:  
46 10.1080/09595230701711199 [published Online First: 2007/11/24]  
47  
48 54. Islam MM, Conigrave KM, Stern T. Staff perceptions of syringe dispensing machines in  
49 Australia: a pilot study. *Subst Use Misuse* 2009;44(4):490-501. doi:  
50 10.1080/10826080802344757 [published Online First: 2009/03/14]  
51  
52 55. Islam MM, Conigrave KM. Syringe vending machines as a form of needle syringe  
53 programme: Advantages and disadvantages. *Journal of Substance Use* 2007;12(3):203-  
54 12. doi: 10.1080/14659890701249640  
55  
56 56. Obadia Y, Feroni I, Perrin V, et al. Syringe vending machines for injection drug users: an  
57 experiment in Marseille, France. *Am J Public Health* 1999;89(12):1852-4. doi:  
58 10.2105/ajph.89.12.1852 [published Online First: 1999/12/10]  
59  
60 57. Jones L, Pickering L, Sumnall H, et al. Optimal provision of needle and syringe programmes  
for injecting drug users: A systematic review. *Int J Drug Policy* 2010;21(5):335-42. doi:  
10.1016/j.drugpo.2010.02.001 [published Online First: 20100226]

- 1  
2  
3 58. Moatti J, Vlahov D, Feroni I, et al. Multiple access to sterile syringes for injection drug users:  
4 vending machines, needle exchange programs and legal pharmacy sales in Marseille,  
5 France. *Eur Addict Res* 2001;7(1):40-5. doi: 10.1159/000050713
- 6 59. Cama E, Brener L, Bryant J. Characteristics and attendance patterns of a fixed-site NSP and  
7 nearby SVM: The benefits of 24-hour access to sterile injecting equipment. *Drugs:  
8 Education, Prevention and Policy* 2014;21(6):476-81. doi:  
9 10.3109/09687637.2014.956051
- 10 60. Appalachian Regional Commission. County Economic Status and Distressed Areas by State,  
11 FY 2021: Appalachian Regional Commission,, 2021.
- 12 61. US Census Bureau. 2020 Census Washington D.C.: US Census Bureau; 2020 [Available  
13 from: [https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/decennial-census/decade/2020/2020-  
15 census-main.html](https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/decennial-census/decade/2020/2020-<br/>14 census-main.html) accessed November 7 2023.
- 16 62. Economic Research Service. Rural-Urban Continuum Codes. Washington, D.C.: United  
17 States Department of Agriculture (USDA), 2013.
- 18 63. US Census Bureau. American Community Survey 5-year estimates, 2020:TableS1601.
- 19 64. Kentucky Cabinet for Health and Family Services. HIV/AIDS Surveillance Report, 2022.  
20 Frankfort, KY: Kentucky Department for Public Health,, 2022.
- 21 65. Steel M, Mirzaian M, Daniels L. Kentucky Resident Drug Overdose Deaths, 2018–2022:  
22 Annual Report,: Kentucky Injury Prevention and Research Center,, 2023.
- 23 66. Steel M, Mirzaian M. Kentucky Resident Emergency Department Visits for Nonfatal Drug  
24 Overdoses, 2017–2021: Annual Report: Kentucky Injury Prevention and Research  
25 Center,, 2022.
- 26 67. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Treatment Locator 2021  
27 [accessed June 14 2021].
- 28 68. Strencky L. Harm reduction program data. In: Young A, ed. Frankfort, KY, 2021.
- 29 69. Dodding J, Gaughwin M. The syringe in the machine. *Aust J Public Health* 1995;19(4):406-  
30 9. doi: 10.1111/j.1753-6405.1995.tb00395.x [published Online First: 1995/08/01]
- 31 70. Vanderplassen W, Wolf J, Rapp RC, et al. Effectiveness of different models of case  
32 management for substance-abusing populations. *Journal of psychoactive drugs*  
33 2007;39(1):81-95.
- 34 71. Mejta CL, Bokos PJ, Mickenberg J, et al. Improving substance abuse treatment access and  
35 retention using a case management approach. *Journal of Drug Issues* 1997;27(2):329-40.
- 36 72. Rapp RC, Van Den Noortgate W, Broekaert E, et al. The efficacy of case management with  
37 persons who have substance abuse problems: A three-level meta-analysis of outcomes.  
38 *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology* 2014;82(4):605.
- 39 73. Young A. Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK): Reducing HIV, HCV, and Overdose  
40 Risk (NCT05657106) 2023 [updated October 10, 2023. Available from:  
41 <https://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT05657106> accessed November 7 2023.
- 42 74. Sobell LC, Sobell MB. Timeline follow-back. Measuring alcohol consumption: Springer  
43 1992:41-72.
- 44 75. Proctor E, Silmere H, Raghavan R, et al. Outcomes for implementation research: conceptual  
45 distinctions, measurement challenges, and research agenda. *Administration and Policy in  
46 Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research* 2011;38(2):65-76.
- 47 76. Weiner BJ, Lewis CC, Stanick C, et al. Psychometric assessment of three newly developed  
48 implementation outcome measures. *Implementation Science* 2017;12(1):1-12.
- 49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



- 1  
2  
3 77. Vickerman P, Kumaranayake L, Balakireva O, et al. The cost-effectiveness of expanding  
4 harm reduction activities for injecting drug users in Odessa, Ukraine. *Sexually*  
5 *transmitted diseases* 2006;33(10):S89-S102.  
6  
7 78. Martin NK, Vickerman P, Miners A, et al. Cost-effectiveness of hepatitis C virus antiviral  
8 treatment for injection drug user populations. *Hepatology* 2012;55(1):49-57. doi:  
9 10.1002/hep.24656 [published Online First: 2011/09/08]  
10  
11 79. Martin NK, Hickman M, Miners A, et al. Cost-effectiveness of HCV case-finding for people  
12 who inject drugs via dried blood spot testing in specialist addiction services and prisons.  
13 *BMJ open* 2013;3(8):e003153.  
14  
15 80. Guinness L, Vickerman P, Quayyum Z, et al. The cost-effectiveness of consistent and early  
16 intervention of harm reduction for injecting drug users in Bangladesh. *Addiction*  
17 2010;105(2):319-28.  
18  
19 81. Bartholomew TS, Patel H, McCollister K, et al. Implementation and first-year operating costs  
20 of an academic medical center-based syringe services program. *Harm reduction journal*  
21 2021;18(1):1-15.  
22  
23 82. Stone J, Degenhardt L, Grebely J, et al. Modelling the intervention effect of opioid agonist  
24 treatment on multiple mortality outcomes in people who inject drugs: a three-setting  
25 analysis. *The Lancet Psychiatry* 2021;8(4):301-09.  
26  
27 83. Fraser H, Vellozzi C, Hoerger TJ, et al. Scaling up hepatitis C prevention and treatment  
28 interventions for achieving elimination in the United States: a rural and urban  
29 comparison. *American journal of epidemiology* 2019;188(8):1539-51.  
30  
31 84. Degenhardt L, Grebely J, Stone J, et al. Global patterns of opioid use and dependence: harms  
32 to populations, interventions, and future action. *The Lancet* 2019;394(10208):1560-79.  
33  
34 85. Stone J, Fraser H, Young AM, et al. Modeling the role of incarceration in HCV transmission  
35 and prevention amongst people who inject drugs in rural Kentucky. *International Journal*  
36 *of Drug Policy* 2021;88:102707.  
37  
38 86. Toni T, Welch D, Strelkowa N, et al. Approximate Bayesian computation scheme for  
39 parameter inference and model selection in dynamical systems. *Journal of the Royal*  
40 *Society Interface* 2009;6(31):187-202.  
41  
42 87. Sanders GD, Neumann PJ, Basu A, et al. Recommendations for conduct, methodological  
43 practices, and reporting of cost-effectiveness analyses: second panel on cost-effectiveness  
44 in health and medicine. *Jama* 2016;316(10):1093-103.  
45  
46 88. Neumann PJ, Cohen JT, Weinstein MC. Updating cost-effectiveness—the curious resilience  
47 of the \$50,000-per-QALY threshold. *N Engl J Med* 2014;371(9):796-97.  
48  
49 89. Young AM, Lancaster KE, Bielavitz S, et al. Protocol: Peer-based Retention Of people who  
50 Use Drugs in Rural Research (PROUD-R2): a multisite, randomised, 12-month trial to  
51 compare efficacy of standard versus peer-based approaches to retain rural people who use  
52 drugs in research. *BMJ Open* 2022;12(6)  
53  
54 90. van Buuren S. Multiple imputation of discrete and continuous data by fully conditional  
55 specification. *Stat Methods Med Res* 2007;16(3):219-42. doi:  
56 10.1177/0962280206074463 [published Online First: 2007/07/11]  
57  
58 91. Young R, Johnson DR. Handling missing values in longitudinal panel data with multiple  
59 imputation. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 2015;77(1):277-94.  
60  
61 92. Liu W, Ye S, Barton BA, et al. Simulation-based power and sample size calculation for  
62 designing interrupted time series analyses of count outcomes in evaluation of health  
63 policy interventions. *Contemporary clinical trials communications* 2020;17:100474.

- 1  
2  
3 93. Jenkins RA, Whitney BM, Nance RM, et al. The rural opioid initiative consortium  
4 description: providing evidence to understand the fourth wave of the opioid crisis.  
5 *Addiction science & clinical practice* 2022;17(1):1-12.  
6  
7 94. Kumwenda MK, Johnson CC, Choko AT, et al. Exploring social harms during distribution of  
8 HIV self-testing kits using mixed-methods approaches in Malawi. *Journal of the*  
9 *International AIDS Society* 2019;22:e25251.  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

# BMJ Open

**The Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK) Study Protocol: A community-level, controlled quasi-experimental, Type 1 hybrid effectiveness study to assess implementation, effectiveness, and cost-effectiveness of a community-tailored harm reduction kiosk on HIV, HCV, and overdose risk in rural Appalachia**

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2024-083983.R1
Article Type:	Protocol
Date Submitted by the Author:	12-Feb-2024
Complete List of Authors:	<p>Young, April; University of Kentucky, Department of Epidemiology and Environmental Health; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research</p> <p>Havens, Jennifer R.; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research; University of Kentucky College of Medicine</p> <p>Cooper, Hannah; Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, Behavioral, Social, and Health Education Sciences</p> <p>Fallin-Bennett, Amanda ; University of Kentucky, College of Nursing</p> <p>Fanucchi, Laura; University of Kentucky College of Medicine</p> <p>Freeman, Patricia; University of Kentucky, Department of Pharmacy Practice and Science; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research</p> <p>Knudsen, Hannah ; University of Kentucky, College of Medicine; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research</p> <p>Livingston, Melvin; Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, Behavioral, Social, and Health Education Sciences</p> <p>McCollister, Kathryn E.; University of Miami, Division of Health Services Research and Policy</p> <p>Stone, Jack ; University of Bristol, Population Health Sciences</p> <p>Vickerman, Peter; University of Bristol, Population Health Sciences</p> <p>Freeman, Edward; University of Kentucky, Department of Epidemiology and Environmental Health</p> <p>Jahangir, Tasfia; Emory University Rollins School of Public Health, Behavioral, Social, and Health Education Sciences</p> <p>Larimore, Elizabeth; University of Kentucky, Center on Drug and Alcohol Research</p> <p>White, Carol; University of Kentucky, Department of Epidemiology and Environmental Health</p> <p>Cheatom, Chelsi; TracB Exchange</p> <p>KyOSK, Community Staff; University of Kentucky College of Public Health; University of Kentucky College of Medicine</p> <p>KyOSK, Design Team; University of Kentucky</p>
<b>Primary Subject Heading</b>:	Public health

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Secondary Subject Heading:	Addiction, Infectious diseases
Keywords:	Substance misuse < PSYCHIATRY, PUBLIC HEALTH, INFECTIOUS DISEASES



1  
2  
3 The Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK) Study Protocol: A community-level, controlled  
4 quasi-experimental, Type 1 hybrid effectiveness study to assess implementation, effectiveness,  
5 and cost-effectiveness of a community-tailored harm reduction kiosk on HIV, HCV, and  
6 overdose risk in rural Appalachia  
7

8  
9 Young AM<sup>1,2</sup>, Havens JR<sup>2,3</sup>, Cooper HLF<sup>4</sup>, Fallin-Bennett A<sup>5</sup>, Fanucchi LC<sup>2,3</sup>, Freeman PR<sup>6</sup>,  
10 Knudsen HK<sup>2,3</sup>, Livingston MD<sup>4</sup>, McCollister KE<sup>7</sup>, Stone J<sup>8</sup>, Vickerman P<sup>8</sup>, Freeman E<sup>1</sup>,  
11 Jahangir T<sup>4</sup>, Larimore E<sup>2</sup>, White CR<sup>1</sup>, Cheatom C<sup>9</sup>, KyOSK Community Staff<sup>1,3</sup>, and the KyOSK  
12 Design Team  
13

14  
15  
16 Corresponding Lead Author: April M Young (April.young@Uky.edu), Department of  
17 Epidemiology and Environmental Health, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA  
18

19  
20  
21 <sup>1</sup> Department of Epidemiology and Environmental Health, University of Kentucky, Lexington,  
22 Kentucky, USA

23  
24 <sup>2</sup> Center on Drug and Alcohol Research, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA

25  
26 <sup>3</sup> College of Medicine, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA

27  
28 <sup>4</sup> Department of Behavioral, Social, and Health Education Sciences, Rollins School of Public  
29 Health, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia, USA

30  
31 <sup>5</sup> College of Nursing, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA

32  
33 <sup>6</sup> College of Pharmacy, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, USA

34  
35 <sup>7</sup> Department of Public Health Sciences, University of Miami Miller School of Medicine, Miami,  
36 Florida, USA

37  
38 <sup>8</sup> Population Health Sciences, Bristol Medical School, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK.

39  
40 <sup>9</sup> Trac-B Exchange, Las Vegas, Nevada, U.S.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## Abstract

Introduction: Many rural communities bear a disproportionate share of drug-related harms. Innovative harm reduction service models, such as vending machines or kiosks, can expand access to services that reduce drug-related harms. However, few kiosks operate in the U.S. and their implementation, impact, and cost-effectiveness have not been adequately evaluated in rural settings. This paper describes the Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK) study protocol to test the effectiveness, implementation outcomes, and cost effectiveness of a community-tailored, harm reduction kiosk in reducing HIV, hepatitis C, and overdose risk in rural Appalachia.

Methods and analysis: KyOSK is a community-level, controlled quasi-experimental, non-randomized trial. KyOSK involves two cohorts of people who use drugs, one in an intervention county (n=425) and one in a control county (n=325). People who are 18 years or older, are community-dwelling residents in the target counties, and have used drugs to get high in the past six months are eligible. The trial compares the effectiveness of a fixed-site, staffed syringe service program (standard of care) to the standard of care supplemented with a kiosk. The kiosk will contain various harm reduction supplies accessible to participants upon valid code entry, allowing dispensing data to be linked to participant survey data. The kiosk will include a call-back feature that allows participants to select needed services and receive linkage-to-care services from a peer recovery coach. The cohorts complete follow-up surveys every 6 months for 36 months (three preceding kiosk implementation and four post-implementation). The study will test the effectiveness of the kiosk on reducing risk behaviors associated with overdose, HIV, and hepatitis C, as well as implementation outcomes and cost effectiveness.

Ethics and dissemination. The University of Kentucky IRB approved the protocol. Results will be disseminated in academic conferences and peer-reviewed journals, online and print media, and community meetings.

Trial Registration Number. NCT05657106

### Strengths and limitations of this study

- The intervention was designed through extensive engagement with community stakeholders, including people who use drugs.
- The hybrid effectiveness trial design will yield insights on effectiveness, economic impact, and implementation outcomes, increasing its applicability to guiding future intervention.
- A limitation of the protocol is the inability to blind participants and staff to arm assignment due to the county-level nature of the intervention.

For peer review only

## Introduction

Policies and risk environments surrounding drug use place people who use drugs (PWUD) at increased vulnerability to numerous harms,[1-4] including the transmission of blood-borne viruses,[5-9] overdose,[9-11] and injection-related bacterial infections.[12-20] Harm reduction programs reduce PWUD's risk of these adverse health outcomes[21-30] but access to these services in the U.S. and globally remain insufficient.[31] In the U.S., inadequate harm reduction infrastructure is especially problematic in the medically underserved epicenters of the nation's intertwined overdose and hepatitis C (HCV) crises.

Central Appalachia, a predominantly rural, mountainous area encompassing Eastern Kentucky and parts of West Virginia, Virginia, and Tennessee, has long experienced a disproportionate burden of HCV,[32 33] overdose,[34] and elevated risk for an HIV/HCV outbreak among people who inject drugs (PWID).[35] Due to elevated rates of new HIV diagnoses among rural residents, Kentucky was one of few states designated as a priority region for Ending the HIV Epidemic, an initiative by U.S. federal agencies to reduce new infections in the U.S. by 90% by 2030.[36]

In an effort to reduce its vulnerability to an HIV outbreak, Kentucky has expanded its harm reduction infrastructure,[37] launching 84 syringe service programs (SSPs)[37] in less than eight years. SSP implementation in Kentucky has been associated with decreases in injection-related infections,[38] but there remain substantial gaps in SSPs' reach.[39-41] In studies of rural Appalachian PWID, only half have used an SSP citing anticipated stigma, lack of privacy, fear of law enforcement, and limited transportation and hours of operation as barriers.[40-46] Nearly all of Appalachian Kentucky's SSPs are traditional, fixed-site, staffed programs operated within health departments. Supplementing these traditional programs with alternative harm reduction service models might reduce barriers and expand access.

Harm reduction vending machines, or kiosks, have been dispensing safe injection supplies in Europe, Australia, and elsewhere for up to 30 years,[47 48] but few have been implemented in the U.S.. The first kiosks that dispense injection supplies were installed in the U.S. in 2009[49] and are largely still limited to Puerto Rico and Nevada. In the U.S. and elsewhere, kiosk characteristics vary, but typically include supplies for safe injection and overdose prevention, are installed near existing SSPs, and accessed through code, card, token, or payment. Previous studies have demonstrated acceptability and uptake among PWID,[50-53] but findings on effectiveness have been mixed, with some studies, finding an association with reduced syringe sharing[50 54 55] and reuse,[50] and others not.[48 53 56-59]

Mixed findings from prior research, study design limitations (i.e., ecologic, absence of a control group, limited data on individuals not accessing services), and gaps in the studies' geographic coverage underscore the need for more research on harm reduction kiosks. The Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK) study tests the effectiveness, implementation outcomes, and cost effectiveness of a community-tailored, harm reduction kiosk in reducing HIV, HCV, and overdose risk behavior in rural Appalachia. KyOSK is significant in that it will be, to our knowledge, the first controlled trial testing the effectiveness of a harm reduction kiosk in the U.S., and the first globally to examine cost-effectiveness. We hypothesize that participants who reside in the intervention county, in which the kiosk is installed, will have reduced overdose, HIV, and HCV risk behaviors compared to participants who reside in a comparison county without a kiosk.



## Methods

### Study Setting

KyOSK involves two rural Appalachian Kentucky counties that are similar in their demographic and epidemiological profile (Table 1). These counties have been designated as “Distressed” or “At-Risk” based on several economic indicators.[60] Standard, fixed-site SSPs have been operating in the counties since 2017.

Table 1. Description of Counties

	Intervention County	Comparison County
Population per square mile[61]	84	88
Total population age 18 or older[61]	22,252	19,815
Percent living in poverty[61]	30%	21%
Rural-Urban Continuum Code (Range: 1-9)[62]	7	7
Percentage of population that is rural[61]	72%	65%
White, non-Hispanic (%)[61]	94%	92%
Percent of population that speaks English in home[63]	97%	96%
Number of HIV cases (total)[64]	34	29
Number of opioid overdose deaths (2020-2022)[65]	53	48
Number of opioid overdose emergency department admissions (2021)[66]	27	35
Number of buprenorphine providers[67]	15	10
Average number of SSP clients per month[68]	90	94

### Eligibility Criteria

People who are 18 years or older, are community-dwelling residents in the target counties and used drugs (excluding marijuana, tobacco, or alcohol) to get high in the past six months are eligible. Exclusion criteria include being under the age of 18, not living in the intervention or comparison county, having not engaged in drug use as defined above, not being able to speak or understand English, conviction in the past 10 years of a violent crime (i.e., murder, manslaughter, rape, robbery, and /or aggravated assault) or stalking, current charges of violent crime or stalking, having plans to move out of the study counties in the next 6 months, or residing in an inpatient facility.

Investigators may remove a participant from the study if worsening health precludes participation; they pose a safety risk to staff; participation is determined to be due to external pressure; or the study is terminated by the Institutional Review Board (IRB), Data Safety Monitoring Board (DSMB), or funder. Participants are not prohibited from concurrent research or care.

### Randomization

KyOSK is a community-level, controlled quasi-experimental trial involving two cohorts of PWUD, one in an intervention and one in a control county. County intervention arm assignment was not random. A waitlist control design was originally envisioned, but one county’s political leaders expressed hesitancy about kiosk installation, desiring instead to serve as the control county and await trial results for guidance on future kiosk installation.

## Trial Arms

Our trial will compare changes in a cohort accessing a standard, fixed site SSP staffed by health department personnel in a control county to changes in a cohort accessing this standard model enhanced with a kiosk in an intervention county. We will enroll 750 PWUD, including 425 in the intervention county and 325 in the control county. The intervention county sample is larger because it will require more within-county stratified analyses for SSP and kiosk usage alone and in combination. Participants will complete 8 waves of bi-annual surveys until the participants reach 48 months of follow-up, with the kiosk being implemented at approximately 18-month follow-up. The study timeline is described in Table 2. Data collection for the trial began on March 6, 2023 and is anticipated to end in July 2026.

### *Comparison Condition*

The SSP staffed by the local health department will serve as the standard-of-care comparison. The SSP provides syringes, cookers, cottons, naloxone, wound care kits, condoms/lubricant, snacks, drinks, and sharps containers. At their first visit, clients receive a unique ID and complete a brief survey, with these data stored in a statewide, REDcap database. SSP clients will have similar access to harm reduction supplies as those accessing the kiosk and will receive a trifold resource guide with information on services and contact information for recovery coaches (described below). The staffed SSP currently operates three hours per week but scale up to 40 hours per week will be pursued to align with the timing of the kiosk's implementation.

### *Intervention Condition*

The intervention involves enhancing an existing SSP with a kiosk. Approximately 18 months after initiation of cohort recruitment, a kiosk will be installed and will remain in place for approximately three years. While the kiosk is operating, the intervention county will continue its staffed SSP.

Cohort participants in the intervention county will receive a swipe card and alphanumeric code to access the machine. To ensure integration with the state's REDCap data system, the card and code will use the standard SSP client ID code format. Staff will deactivate cards when a replacement is issued, a participant withdraws, or if the card is lost or stolen.

The kiosk will be located adjacent to the local health department which operates the staffed SSP. The local health department was the most preferred location for a kiosk based on previous research.<sup>[40]</sup> The kiosk will resemble a traditional vending machine with a small touchscreen interface for making selections and receiving education on overdose prevention. The kiosk will be stocked with harm reduction supplies (see Table 3 for potential supplies). To ensure compliance with the counties' existing 1:1 exchange requirement, the kiosk will have a sharps receptacle equipped with technology to approximate the number of returned syringes and communicate to the kiosk the number allowed to be dispensed.

Table 2. Participant timeline

Time point	STUDY PERIOD							
	Enrollment	Allocation	Post-allocation					Closeout
	-18 to 0 months	0 months	6 months	12 months	18 months	24 months	25-30 months	30-36 months
Enrollment								
Eligibility Screen	X							
Informed Consent (baseline)	X							
Informed Consent (preceding kiosk implementation)		X						
Interventions								
Staffed SSP (Control)		X	X	X	X	X	X	
Staffed SSP + kiosk (Intervention)		X	X	X	X	X	X	
Assessments								
Baseline Survey	X							
Follow-up survey		X	X	X	X	X	X	
Analysis							X	X

Table 3. Potential kiosk supplies and service menu for facilitated referral

Supplies	Services to be listed on menu to which there can be facilitated referral
Naloxone	Housing
Fentanyl test strips	Food assistance
Needles/syringes	Transportation
Sharps container	HIV/HCV testing and treatment
Condoms	Mental health care
Food	Support groups
Water	Domestic violence
Hygiene kits	Substance use disorder treatment
Wound care kits	Help obtaining an identification card
Naloxone voucher for redemption at pharmacy	HIV pre-exposure prophylaxis
Alcohol pads	Health insurance registration
Xylazine test strips	Wound care
Hats and gloves	Legal aid
Female hygiene supplies	STI treatment and testing
Housing vouchers	Pregnancy testing
Transportation vouchers	Maternal care
At-home HIV tests	Education assistance
Resource guides	

A common concern about kiosks is the potential missed opportunities for linkage to care.[54-69] To address this concern, the kiosk will feature a care navigation call-back menu. Care navigation can increase PWUD use of community-based services, including increased engagement in substance use disorder treatment.[70-72] Participants will select services displayed on the kiosk's interface (see Table 3 for potential menu) and provide access to their phone number(s) for call-back.

People with lived experience with substance use who are certified and trained Recovery Coaches (RCs) will monitor the kiosk data dashboard and field call-back requests within three business days. RCs will briefly assess service needs and potential barriers and make facilitated referrals to health and support services. RCs will also share that they are a person in recovery and relate where possible to the participant's situation and provide hope and encouragement. With permission, RCs will follow up in seven days to offer further assistance. Clients can continue to contact RCs with follow-up questions.

#### *Outcomes*

Study outcomes are described in Table 4 and in detail on the study overview in ClinicalTrial.gov.[73] All measures are continuous. Self-reported measures will be assessed using time-line follow-back methods.[74] Survey logic is used to identify reporting discrepancies in real time and prompt the interviewer to resolve the discrepancy with the participant (i.e., reporting more injections involving a clean needle in the past 30 days than total number of injections).

Table 4. Outcomes

Outcomes	Recall period
<i>Primary outcomes</i>	
Change in syringe coverage for injections (number of injections where a clean syringe was used divided by total number of injections among participants who inject drugs)	30 days
Change in harm reduction program supplied syringe coverage for injections (number of injections where a clean syringe from the [kiosk/SSP] was used divided by the total number of injections among participants who inject drugs)	30 days
Change in SSP/KyOSK-provided syringe coverage for injections (number of syringes obtained at the SSP and/or kiosk)	30 days
<i>Secondary outcomes</i>	
Change in frequency of receptive syringe sharing among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of distributive syringe sharing among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in number of people with whom person shared syringes and injection equipment	30 days
Change in frequency of syringe reuse among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of safe syringe disposal among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of condomless anal and/or vaginal sex	30 days
Change in frequency of overdose	6 months
Change in use of naloxone during overdose events by participants who witnessed an overdose	6 months
Change in number of days carrying naloxone	30 days
Change in number of times contacting or visiting a pharmacy to obtain naloxone	6 months
Change in number of days on medications for opioid use disorder (MOUD) among participants who use opioids to get high	30 days
Change in frequency of use of harm reduction services among participants who inject drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of use of fentanyl test strips among participants who use drugs	30 days
Change in frequency of engagement in overdose protective behaviors among participants who use drugs	30 days

Following the Implementation Outcomes Framework[75], we will assess acceptability, appropriateness, fidelity, cost, penetration/reach, and sustainability. Acceptability and appropriateness will be assessed in the cohort surveys using the Acceptability of Implementation Measure (AIM) and Intervention Appropriateness Measure (IAM), respectively.[76] Fidelity is described in the *Blinding, Contamination, and Fidelity* section. Using established methods,[77-81] costs will be estimated from the provider's perspective and employ a micro-costing approach that measures and values in monetary terms all resources invested and links costs to the primary and secondary outcomes to evaluate economic impact. *Penetration* (i.e. reach) will be determined by examining the number who engage with the kiosk and/or staffed SSP divided by the number enrolled at the time of intervention/comparison condition implementation (i.e. percent who use the kiosk or SSP) and per supply (i.e. percent who accessed each supply) at monthly intervals. Finally, prospects for sustainment will be explored in final year using qualitative, semi-structured interviews with SSP and other health department staff and local and state leadership.

1  
2  
3 Building on existing models,[82-85] we will develop and calibrate[86] a dynamic,  
4 deterministic model of HCV transmission and overdose among PWUD in the intervention county  
5 to estimate the kiosk's impact and cost-effectiveness. The kiosk's effects will be parameterized  
6 using trial data. Impact will be measured as reductions in HCV incidence/prevalence, HCV  
7 infections and overdoses averted and quality-adjusted life-years (QALYs) saved over the study  
8 and longer timeframes (10/20/50 years). Using cost data, we will estimate cost-effectiveness by  
9 comparing discounted (3% annually[87]) costs and QALYs over 50-years between model  
10 scenarios with and without kiosk introduction. The mean incremental cost-effectiveness ratio  
11 will be estimated and compared to US relevant willingness-to-pay per QALY thresholds.[88]  
12  
13

#### 14 *Data collection*

15 Participants are recruited from (1) existing cohort studies of PWUD, (2) the two SSP  
16 programs, and (3) peer-referral. Recruitment from these sources occurs simultaneously; staff  
17 extend invitations and advertise in the SSP, and those who enroll are invited to refer peers (paid  
18 for up to five each, \$10/peer). KyOSK recruitment commenced in March 2023. The target  
19 sample size is 750, including 425 from the intervention county and 325 from the control county.  
20  
21

22 Community-based field staff administer surveys programmed in Questionnaire  
23 Development System (QDS)'s computer-assisted self-interviewing program, with staff asking  
24 participants questions aloud and entering participants' responses. Participants can skip any  
25 question. The survey collects demographic characteristics, sexual and drug-related risk behavior,  
26 houselessness, criminal legal system involvement, SUD treatment, medical care access, harm  
27 reduction service access, and social, drug, and sexual network characteristics. Staff administer  
28 follow-up surveys every 6 months. Participants receive \$35 at baseline and \$25 for each follow-  
29 up survey.  
30

31 At baseline, staff administer a 14-panel saliva drug test and fingerstick HIV and HCV  
32 antibody tests. Trained staff use the rapid-rapid protocol for HIV testing,<sup>70,71</sup> involving INSTI  
33 HIV 1/HIV 2 Rapid Antibody Test (BioLytical® Laboratories Inc., Richmond, B.C., Canada)  
34 followed by Sure Check® HIV-1/2 Antibody Test (Chembio Diagnostic Systems, Inc.,  
35 Medford, NY). Staff use OraQuick® HCV Rapid Antibody Test (OraSure, Bethlehem, PA) for  
36 HCV testing.<sup>72</sup> Staff provide post-test counseling and facilitated referrals for those testing  
37 positive.  
38

39 The kiosk's software will capture detailed, de-identified data linked only to user ID  
40 code. Data will be stored in a secure password-protected database. Data include client- and  
41 visit-level usage including day/time, frequency of use, supply selection and quantity, number  
42 of syringes returned, and call-back requests. The same data will be collected on clients visiting  
43 the SSP.  
44

#### 45 *Retention*

46 Following standard procedures used in longitudinal research,[89] participants provide  
47 detailed locator information to assist with retention and/or contact for future research including  
48 names, pseudonyms, phone numbers, addresses, email addresses, social media contact  
49 information, and contact information for up to three people who should know how to reach the  
50 participant if contact information changes. Participants are contacted at the mid-point of each  
51 follow-up interval to update locator information and remind them about their follow-up  
52 appointment. Participants receive \$10 for updating or verifying locator information between the  
53 baseline and 6-month follow-up appointment (the period at which most attrition occurs). In  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 addition, local jail systems are searched to identify if a person is incarcerated. Participants who  
4 are incarcerated and have consented to be contacted while incarcerated may complete follow-up  
5 surveys from jail (with permission from jail administrative staff).  
6

### 7 8 *Blinding, Fidelity, and Contamination.*

9 Analysts remain blinded through recruitment and follow-up until completion of primary  
10 and secondary analyses, using uninformative participant labels. Due to the nature of the  
11 interventions, participants and site staff administering the intervention are not blinded. These  
12 staff are instructed to use uninformative labels when discussing participants with blinded  
13 investigators.  
14

15 Fidelity of kiosk and staffed SSP implementation will be assessed early and mid-trial on  
16 three domains: (1) supply availability, (2) operation, and (3) recovery coaching. *Supply*  
17 *availability* will be assessed using the kiosk's internal data in which item selections unfilled due  
18 to insufficient stock are recorded. *Operation* will be assessed by examining the number of kiosk  
19 malfunctions and number of times in which the staffed SSP operated < 40 hours per week  
20 excluding holidays. The latter will be assessed five unannounced visits per month by research  
21 staff at opening, lunch, and near closing. *Recovery coaching* fidelity to best practices will be  
22 assessed by monthly review of 10% of randomly selected, audio recorded sessions and  
23 completion of a fidelity checklist, which includes tailoring the conversation to stage of change,  
24 using motivational interviewing, engaging in resource brokering, and so on.  
25

26 Potential for contamination is low, as the travel distance between sites is two hours.  
27 Participants enrolled in the control county will not be provided with a swipe card to access the  
28 kiosk in the intervention county. Nevertheless, to assess potential contamination, data will be  
29 collected at each follow-up survey about county of residence, SSP and kiosk use, and in which  
30 county they accessed services.  
31

### 32 33 *Data management*

34 Data are imported to a single warehouse file on our secure network drive. Using the QDS  
35 Warehouse Manager program, the data manager assesses transferred data for completeness and  
36 consistency and tracks data modifications. Stored data are exported as SAS and SPSS datasets  
37 for analysis. The list linking participants to their unique identifier is maintained on a secure  
38 REDCap database. To protect confidentiality, only de-identified data are shared for analysis.  
39  
40

### 41 42 *Statistical methods*

43 The Intention-to-Treat (ITT) population will contain all enrolled participants according to  
44 their assigned study arm. The Per-Protocol population will include participants who complete the  
45 trial as originally allocated. We hypothesize that values on our primary outcome measures of  
46 syringe coverage (see *Outcomes* for operationalization) in the intervention county will be greater  
47 than the control county in the ITT and Per-Protocol populations. We anticipate that the  
48 secondary outcomes of risk behaviors (see *Outcomes* for operationalization) in the intervention  
49 county will be less than that reported by those in the control county. We hypothesize that  
50 participants in the intervention county will be more likely to engage the secondary outcomes  
51 related to naloxone carriage and MOUD and HCV treatment than those in the comparison  
52 county.  
53

54 All models will be analysed using generalized estimating equations (GEE) assuming an  
55 AR(1) residual structure to account for within person autocorrelation due to repeated measures,  
56  
57  
58  
59

1  
2  
3 and will include fixed effects for county intervention condition, intervention period, and  
4 condition\*period interaction. This interaction estimates the relative change in the intervention  
5 county compared to the control county due to kiosk's introduction. Although the counties are  
6 remarkably similar, our planned analyses do not rely on baseline equivalence to identify  
7 intervention effects. Instead, intervention effects are identified under the assumption that the  
8 trend in outcomes over time in the control condition are parallel with those that would be  
9 observed in the intervention county in the kiosk's absence. To further relax this assumption, we  
10 will model county specific linear time effects to allow for different secular trends that may  
11 confound estimation of the intervention effect. Multiple baseline measures allow better capture  
12 of any potential differential trends. Models will include an indicator variable reflecting whether  
13 participants also received services at the staffed SSP and institutionalization (hospitalized or  
14 incarcerated) at the time of the survey. Other theoretically justified time varying covariates and  
15 recruitment method (i.e., enrolled from cohort, SSP, or peer-referral) will be examined. We will  
16 examine homophily in peer referral chains and incorporate autocorrelation within chains if  
17 significant homophily on outcomes is present. Of note, GEE models are robust to minor  
18 misspecifications of the correlation structure that may arise due to the sampling scheme.

19  
20 Our prior research has shown that the rates of our primary outcomes are high enough to  
21 be well approximated as normal. If this does not hold true, we will use Poisson models with  
22 appropriate offsets to account for the distribution of the primary ratio outcomes. Type 1 error ( $\alpha$ )  
23 will be set to 0.05 in primary and secondary outcome analyses, and two-tailed tests will be used.  
24 For outcomes that apply only to a subset of participants (e.g., syringe sharing analyses are  
25 restricted to PWID), data from time points at which participants do not report the relevant  
26 behavior (e.g., injection drug use) will be omitted from these models. Resulting estimates will be  
27 unbiased under the assumption that the kiosk did not cause a change in the overall behavior  
28 defining the subset (e.g., in injection drug use). Sensitivity analyses including all data will be  
29 performed using multinomial logistic regression where the outcomes are specified as, for  
30 example, no injection drug use, injection drug use with a clean syringe, and injection drug use  
31 without a clean syringe.

32 We will use multiple imputation by chained equations (MICE)[90] to account for attrition  
33 in all analyses. Our imputation model will include interactions between intervention county and  
34 baseline risk measures to allow for differential selection effects between the intervention and  
35 comparison groups should differential attrition arise.[91]

36 To analyze reach, we will perform segmented regression analyses using existing data  
37 from the statewide SSP database beginning in January 2020 allowing for 3 years of pre-  
38 intervention data. We will assess change in total reach by comparing the difference in the  
39 changes in both intercept and slope between counties. All models will account for first-order  
40 autocorrelation and use appropriate link functions based on outcome distributions. We will also  
41 explore changes in reach by gender, age, IDU, or other characteristics, by generating separate  
42 series by participant characteristic and then analyzing these series in a pooled interaction model.

#### 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 *Power Calculation*

50 Based on prior published simulations,[92] our segmented regression analyses (n=72  
51 months, 3 years pre- and 3 years post-intervention implementation) are well powered to achieve  
52 study aims for small effects across a wide variety of link functions and autocorrelation values.  
53 We estimated power for our primary intervention models using 5000 Monte Carlo simulations for  
54 each set of parameters, with a type-1 error rate of 0.05 and an unbalanced design (sample  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 unevenly distributed across counties). We simulated autocorrelated outcomes for three pre-  
4 intervention and five post-intervention survey waves with an expected 750 enrollees. We  
5 conservatively used 70% retention for the power analysis. Not all outcomes will be applicable to  
6 the full cohort; for example, approximately 25% are estimated[93] to have not recently injected  
7 and therefore will not contribute to analyses of outcome variables related to injection. Therefore,  
8 we estimated power for various effect sizes for a cohort of “completers” of N=300, 400, and 500.  
9 Based on these simulations, all sample sizes are powered to detect a standardized mean difference  
10 of at least 0.2, a small effect. As enrollment nears the target sample size, the accuracy of projected  
11 estimates of retention and injection drug use will be evaluated and the sample size may be  
12 increased if needed.  
13  
14

### 15 16 *Data monitoring*

17 A DSMB with a physician, statistician, infectious disease epidemiologist, and behavioral  
18 scientist with expertise in research among PWUD oversees the study. The DSMB is independent  
19 of the sponsor and competing interests. The DSMB meets at least annually to review emerging  
20 data, and make recommendations about the trial’s conduct, including stopping the trial. No  
21 formal interim analyses are planned.  
22  
23

### 24 *Social Harms*

25 Social harms related to participation will be actively assessed and documented. Social  
26 harms include any intended or unintended cause of physical; emotional; or psychosocial injury or  
27 hurt from one participant to another, a participant to themselves, or an institution to a participant,  
28 occurring as a result of study participation.[94] Participants will complete a social harms  
29 questionnaire at each study visit. Study staff are trained to provide appropriate care, counseling,  
30 and referral as needed. Any identified social harms are reported to study investigators who  
31 determine severity and provide details to the IRB as required.  
32  
33

### 34 *Auditing*

35 The Data Scientist regularly assesses data for missingness and data quality and provides  
36 feedback to the PI and field staff regarding any issues that need to be addressed. The PI and  
37 Project Director review study consent materials to assure appropriate documentation of consent  
38 at least semi-annually.  
39  
40

### 41 *Patient and Public Involvement*

42 Participants were not directly involved in the development of the research question,  
43 outcome measures, or conduct of the trial; however, officials from state and local agencies, and  
44 community advisory boards were involved in intervention design. Upon funding, six focus  
45 groups with potential clients and local health department personnel were conducted to gain  
46 feedback on kiosk features. Then, a KyOSK Design Team including people with lived  
47 experience with substance use, local health department partners, state government officials, and  
48 service leaders was convened to guide kiosk design. A separate community advisory board of  
49 people with lived experience with substance use provided feedback on recruitment methods and  
50 participated in survey question review and piloting. Upon completion of the study, results will be  
51 distributed via study social media pages, websites, local community advisory board, the KyOSK  
52 Design Team, and to community partners.  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

### Ethics and Dissemination

The KyOSK study is reviewed and approved by the University of Kentucky IRB (Protocol #78081). Study staff complete human subjects training and are approved as personnel by the IRB. Protocol modifications, revisions to consent forms, and changes to other participant-facing documents are submitted to the University of Kentucky IRB for approval prior to implementation. Protocol modifications are submitted to the IRB prior to implementation and reflected in clinicaltrials.gov. Approval from the funding agency will be sought for major protocol modifications, such as changes in inclusion criteria or aims, prior to submitting those changes to the IRB.

All participants complete an informed consent process at baseline and at the follow-up appointment preceding kiosk implementation, with the latter going into more detail about the kiosk design and supplies. The consent form describes the protocol, risks, and benefits. Consent procedures are completed in person in a private area with only the participant and study staff present.

Findings will be disseminated to the public and healthcare professionals in peer-reviewed journals, professional conferences, and community forums. Authorship eligibility guidelines follow ICMJE criteria. We will submit manuscripts to NIHMS to be made publicly available no later than 12 months after the official date of publication in compliance with the funder's open access policy. De-identified data will be made available to interested parties upon submission and approval of a written request describing data security protocols and intended use.

### Authors' contributions

The following individuals contributed to the design of the protocol described in this manuscript: AMY, MDL, HKK, JRH, AFB, LF, PRF, JS, PV, HLFC, CC, and KEM. The following made substantial contributions to the implementation of the protocol: AMY, MDL, HKK, JRH, EF, AFB, LF, PRF, JS, PV, HLFC, CW, EL, and KEM. The following individuals made substantial contributions to the drafted work and/or substantively revised it: AMY, MDL, HKK, JRH, AFB, LF, PRF, JS, PV, HLFC, KEM, EF, CW, and TJ. The KyOSK Community Staff authors provided valuable input on the project design, are key to the project's implementation, and represent the project in the community. The KyOSK Design Team has guided the design of the intervention, made valuable contributions to the plan for its implementation, and will provide guidance throughout its implementation. All authors read and approved the final manuscript and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

### Collaborators

The KyOSK Community Staff authors include Kenneth Lane, Nathan Bartrum, Rhonda Gilliam, Sarah Hurlburt, Kristen Johnson, Lisa Maybrier, Cindy Oliver, Lana Rose, Renée Tabor, and Jennifer Watson. The KyOSK Design Team authors include Chase Barnes, Shirley Candybar Combs, William H. Feltner, Kerri Dawn Knight, Anthony S. Lockard, Magic Man, Paula Stidham, Patty Stidham, Elizabeth De'Hart Sword, Larry M. Sword, and Pamela Wright.

### Funding Statement

KyOSK is funded by the National Institutes of Health through NIDA R01 DA055872 (PI: Young). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH. The study sponsor had no role in study design, collection, management, interpretation of data, writing of this manuscript, or decision to submit this manuscript for publication. This study protocol was approved by University of Kentucky Institutional Review Board.

### Competing interest statement

Amanda Fallin-Bennett is a co-founder of Voices of Hope, the contracted recovery community organization providing the recovery coaching services. The device to facilitate syringe disposal and dispensing that will be installed in conjunction with the kiosk is intellectual property of the University of Kentucky, with April Young designated as the inventor. Chelsi Cheatom is a paid consultant on the implementation of harm reduction vending machines, including on the described project.

### Data Sharing Statement

De-identified data will be made available upon written request to Principal Investigator, April Young.

### Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the study participants' willingness to share their experiences and time with us. The study staff are instrumental to the success of the study. We would also like to acknowledge the valuable contributions of Dr. Katherine Marks of the Kentucky Opioid Response Effort, Van Ingram of the Kentucky Office of Drug Control Policy, Jana Collins and Linwood Strenecky of the Kentucky Income Reinvestment Program, Dr. Connie White of the

1  
2  
3 Kentucky Department of Public Health, and Elizabeth Turner and JoAnn Vanzant of the  
4 Kentucky River District Health Department. KyOSK Design Team members, including people  
5 with lived experience with substance use, local health department partners, state government  
6 officials, and statewide service leaders, have driven the design of the intervention and made  
7 important contributions to the plan for its implementation. We also appreciate the contributions  
8 of involved students.  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## References

1. Rhodes T. The 'risk environment': a framework for understanding and reducing drug-related harm. *International Journal of Drug Policy* 2002;13(2):85-94. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0955-3959\(02\)00007-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0955-3959(02)00007-5)
2. Collins AB, Boyd J, Cooper HLF, et al. The intersectional risk environment of people who use drugs. *Soc Sci Med* 2019;234:112384. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2019.112384 [published Online First: 20190622]
3. Ibragimov U, Young AM, Cooper HLF. Understanding rural risk environments for drug-related harms: Progress, challenges, and steps forward. *International Journal of Drug Policy* 2020;85:102926. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2020.102926>
4. Smith BD, Lewis Q, Offiong A, et al. "It's on every corner": assessing risk environments in Baltimore, MD using a racialized risk environment model. *Journal of Ethnicity in Substance Abuse* 2022;1-15. doi: 10.1080/15332640.2022.2068719
5. Degenhardt L, Charlson F, Stanaway J, et al. Estimating the burden of disease attributable to injecting drug use as a risk factor for HIV, hepatitis C, and hepatitis B: findings from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases* 2016;16(12):1385-98. doi: 10.1016/s1473-3099(16)30325-5
6. John-Baptiste A, Krahn M, Heathcote J, et al. The natural history of hepatitis C infection acquired through injection drug use: Meta-analysis and meta-regression. *Journal of Hepatology* 2010;53(2):245-51. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhep.2010.03.015>
7. Mathers BM, Degenhardt L, Phillips B, et al. Global epidemiology of injecting drug use and HIV among people who inject drugs: a systematic review. *The Lancet* 2008;372(9651):1733-45.
8. Rachlis B, Brouwer KC, Mills EJ, et al. Migration and transmission of blood-borne infections among injection drug users: Understanding the epidemiologic bridge. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 2007;90(2):107-19. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2007.03.014>
9. Green TC, McGowan SK, Yokell MA, et al. HIV infection and risk of overdose: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *AIDS* 2012;26(4)
10. Colledge S, Peacock A, Leung J, et al. The prevalence of non-fatal overdose among people who inject drugs: A multi-stage systematic review and meta-analysis. *International Journal of Drug Policy* 2019;73:172-84. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2019.07.030>
11. Shealey J, Hall EW, Pigott TD, et al. Systematic review and meta-analysis to estimate the burden of fatal and non-fatal overdose among people who inject drugs. *medRxiv* 2022:2022.02.18.22271192. doi: 10.1101/2022.02.18.22271192
12. Larney S, Peacock A, Mathers BM, et al. A systematic review of injecting-related injury and disease among people who inject drugs. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 2017;171:39-49. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2016.11.029>
13. Ji Y, Kujtan L, Kershner D. Acute endocarditis in intravenous drug users: a case report and literature review. *Journal of Community Hospital Internal Medicine Perspectives* 2012;2(1):11513. doi: 10.3402/jchimp.v2i1.11513
14. McCarthy NL, Baggs J, See I, et al. Bacterial Infections Associated With Substance Use Disorders, Large Cohort of United States Hospitals, 2012-2017. *Clin Infect Dis* 2020;71(7):e37-e44. doi: 10.1093/cid/ciaa008

15. McCarthy NL, Baggs J, See I, et al. Bacterial Infections Associated With Substance Use Disorders, Large Cohort of United States Hospitals, 2012–2017. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 2020;71(7):e37-e44. doi: 10.1093/cid/ciaa008
16. Shah M, Wong R, Ball L, et al. Risk factors of infective endocarditis in persons who inject drugs. *Harm Reduction Journal* 2020;17(1):35. doi: 10.1186/s12954-020-00378-z
17. Colledge S, Larney S, Bruno R, et al. Profile and correlates of injecting-related injuries and diseases among people who inject drugs in Australia. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2020;216:108267. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108267 [published Online First: 20200829]
18. Hope V, Kimber J, Vickerman P, et al. Frequency, factors and costs associated with injection site infections: Findings from a national multi-site survey of injecting drug users in England. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 2008;8(1):120. doi: 10.1186/1471-2334-8-120
19. Binswanger IA, Kral AH, Bluthenthal RN, et al. High prevalence of abscesses and cellulitis among community-recruited injection drug users in San Francisco. *Clin Infect Dis* 2000;30(3):579-81. doi: 10.1086/313703
20. Doran J, Harris M, Hope VD, et al. Factors associated with skin and soft tissue infections among people who inject drugs in the United Kingdom: A comparative examination of data from two surveys. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 2020;213:108080. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108080
21. Hagan H, Pouget ER, Des Jarlais DC. A systematic review and meta-analysis of interventions to prevent hepatitis C virus infection in people who inject drugs. *J Infect Dis* 2011;204(1):74-83. doi: 10.1093/infdis/jir196
22. Aspinall EJ, Nambiar D, Goldberg DJ, et al. Are needle and syringe programmes associated with a reduction in HIV transmission among people who inject drugs: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Epidemiol* 2014;43(1):235-48. doi: 10.1093/ije/dyt243 [published Online First: 20131227]
23. Puzhko S, Eisenberg MJ, Filion KB, et al. Effectiveness of Interventions for Prevention of Common Infections Among Opioid Users: A Systematic Review of Systematic Reviews. *Front Public Health* 2022;10:749033. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2022.749033 [published Online First: 20220222]
24. Bahji A, Yanagawa B, Lamba W. Harm Reduction for Injection Drug Users with Infective Endocarditis: A Systematic Review. *Canadian Journal of Addiction* 2020;11(2):13-23. doi: 10.1097/cxa.0000000000000080
25. Mercer F, Miler JA, Pauly B, et al. Peer Support and Overdose Prevention Responses: A Systematic ‘State-of-the-Art’ Review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 2021;18(22):12073.
26. Giglio RE, Li G, Dimaggio CJ. Effectiveness of bystander naloxone administration and overdose education programs: a meta-analysis. *Injury Epidemiology* 2015;2(1) doi: 10.1186/s40621-015-0041-8
27. Levengood TW, Yoon GH, Davoust MJ, et al. Supervised Injection Facilities as Harm Reduction: A Systematic Review. *Am J Prev Med* 2021;61(5):738-49. doi: 10.1016/j.amepre.2021.04.017 [published Online First: 20210701]
28. Potier C, Laprévote V, Dubois-Arber F, et al. Supervised injection services: What has been demonstrated? A systematic literature review. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 2014;145:48-68. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2014.10.012>

- 1  
2  
3 29. Newcombe R. The reduction of drug-related harm: a conceptual framework for theory,  
4 practice and research 1992:1-14.
- 5  
6 30. Dole VP, Nyswander M. A Medical Treatment for Diacetylmorphine (Heroin) Addiction. A  
7 Clinical Trial with Methadone Hydrochloride. *Journal of the American Medical*  
8 *Association* 1965;193:646-50. doi: 10.1001/jama.1965.03090080008002
- 9  
10 31. Colledge-Frisby S, Ottaviano S, Webb P, et al. Global coverage of interventions to prevent  
11 and manage drug-related harms among people who inject drugs: a systematic review. *The*  
12 *Lancet Global Health* 2023
- 13  
14 32. Havens J, Lofwall MR, Frost SD, et al. Individual and network factors associated with  
15 prevalent hepatitis C infection among rural Appalachian injection drug users. *American*  
16 *Journal of Public Health* 2013;103(1):e44-e52.
- 17  
18 33. Young AM, Jonas AB, Havens JR. Social networks and HCV viraemia in anti-HCV-positive  
19 rural drug users. *Epidemiology and infection* 2013;141(2):402-11. doi:  
20 10.1017/s0950268812000696 [published Online First: 2012/06/22]
- 21  
22 34. Havens JR, Oser CB, Knudsen HK, et al. Individual and network factors associated with non-  
23 fatal overdose among rural Appalachian drug users. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2011;115(1-  
24 2):107-12. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2010.11.003 [published Online First: 2010/12/04]
- 25  
26 35. Van Handel MM, Rose CE, Hallisey EJ, et al. County-Level Vulnerability Assessment for  
27 Rapid Dissemination of HIV or HCV Infections Among Persons Who Inject Drugs,  
28 United States. *Journal of acquired immune deficiency syndromes (1999)* 2016;73(3):323-  
29 31. doi: 10.1097/qai.0000000000001098 [published Online First: 2016/10/21]
- 30  
31 36. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Ending the HIV Epidemic: A Plan for America.  
32 Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention,, 2020.
- 33  
34 37. Kentucky Department for Public Health. Syringe Services Programs [Available from:  
35 <https://www.chfs.ky.gov/agencies/dph/dehp/hab/Pages/kyseps.aspx> accessed 2023 July  
36 20.
- 37  
38 38. Bushling C, Walton MT, Conner KL, et al. Syringe services programs in the Bluegrass:  
39 Evidence of population health benefits using Kentucky Medicaid data. *The Journal of*  
40 *Rural Health* 2022;38(3):620-29.
- 41  
42 39. Soria J, Johnson T, Collins J, et al. Risk factors for loss to follow-up of persons who inject  
43 drugs enrolled at syringe services programs in Kentucky. *International Journal of Drug*  
44 *Policy* 2021;95:103255. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2021.103255>
- 45  
46 40. Lancaster KE, Cooper HL, Browning CR, et al. Syringe Service Program Utilization,  
47 Barriers, and Preferences for Design in Rural Appalachia: Differences between Men and  
48 Women Who Inject Drugs. *Substance use & misuse* 2020;55(14):2268-77.
- 49  
50 41. Surratt HL, Otachi JK, Williams T, et al. Motivation to Change and Treatment Participation  
51 Among Syringe Service Program Utilizers in Rural Kentucky. *The Journal of rural*  
52 *health : official journal of the American Rural Health Association and the National Rural*  
53 *Health Care Association* 2020;36(2):224-33. doi: 10.1111/jrh.12388 [published Online  
54 First: 2019/08/16]
- 55  
56 42. Ibragimov U, Cooper, K.E., Batty E., Ballard, A.M., Fadanelli, M., Gross, S.B., Klein, E.M.,  
57 Lockard, A.S., Young, A.M. & Cooper, H.L.F. . Factors that influence enrollment in  
58 syringe services programs in rural areas: a qualitative study among program clients in  
59 Appalachian Kentucky. *Harm Reduction Journal* 2021;18(1):1-15.

43. Surratt HL, Cowley, A M., Gulley, J, Lockard, S, Otachi, J, Rains, R, Williams, T. Syringe Service Program Use Among People Who Inject Drugs in Appalachian Kentucky. *American journal of public health* 2020;110(1):34-36. doi: 10.2105/ajph.2019.305333
44. Surratt HL, Cowley AM, Gulley J, et al. Syringe Service Program Use Among People Who Inject Drugs in Appalachian Kentucky. *American Journal of Public Health* 2020;110(1):34-36. doi: 10.2105/ajph.2019.305333
45. Cooper HLF, Gross S, Klein E, et al. Capacity for sustainment of recently established syringe service programs in Appalachian Kentucky: The central role of staff champions. *Drug Alcohol Rev* 2022 doi: 10.1111/dar.13436 [published Online First: 2022/02/04]
46. Cloud DH, Ibragimov U, Prood N, et al. Rural risk environments for hepatitis c among young adults in appalachian kentucky. *Int J Drug Policy* 2019;72:47-54. doi: 10.1016/j.drugpo.2019.05.006 [published Online First: 2019/05/23]
47. Islam M, Wodak A, Conigrave KM. The effectiveness and safety of syringe vending machines as a component of needle syringe programmes in community settings. *Int J Drug Policy* 2008;19(6):436-41. doi: 10.1016/j.drugpo.2007.07.006 [published Online First: 2007/09/04]
48. Stark K, Leicht A, Müller R. Characteristics of users of syringe vending machines in Berlin. *Soz Praventivmed* 1994;39(4):209-16. doi: 10.1007/bf01309220 [published Online First: 1994/01/01]
49. Stone K, Shirley-Beavan S. The Global State of Harm Reduction 2018. Regional Overview: 24 Carribbean. Harm Reduction International: Harm Reduction International, 2018:85.
50. McDonald D. The evaluation of a trial of syringe vending machines in Canberra, Australia. *Int J Drug Policy* 2009;20(4):336-9. doi: 10.1016/j.drugpo.2008.06.004 [published Online First: 2008/09/16]
51. Otiashvili D, Kirtadze I, Mgebrishvili T, et al. Implementation and evaluation of a syringe vending machine trial in Tbilisi, Georgia. *International Journal of Drug Policy* 2022;103:103649. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2022.103649>
52. Duplessy C, Reynaud EG. Long-term survey of a syringe-dispensing machine needle exchange program: answering public concerns. *Harm Reduct J* 2014;11:16. doi: 10.1186/1477-7517-11-16 [published Online First: 2014/06/03]
53. Islam M, Stern T, Conigrave KM, et al. Client satisfaction and risk behaviours of the users of syringe dispensing machines: a pilot study. *Drug Alcohol Rev* 2008;27(1):13-9. doi: 10.1080/09595230701711199 [published Online First: 2007/11/24]
54. Islam MM, Conigrave KM, Stern T. Staff perceptions of syringe dispensing machines in Australia: a pilot study. *Subst Use Misuse* 2009;44(4):490-501. doi: 10.1080/10826080802344757 [published Online First: 2009/03/14]
55. Islam MM, Conigrave KM. Syringe vending machines as a form of needle syringe programme: Advantages and disadvantages. *Journal of Substance Use* 2007;12(3):203-12. doi: 10.1080/14659890701249640
56. Obadia Y, Feroni I, Perrin V, et al. Syringe vending machines for injection drug users: an experiment in Marseille, France. *Am J Public Health* 1999;89(12):1852-4. doi: 10.2105/ajph.89.12.1852 [published Online First: 1999/12/10]
57. Jones L, Pickering L, Sumnall H, et al. Optimal provision of needle and syringe programmes for injecting drug users: A systematic review. *Int J Drug Policy* 2010;21(5):335-42. doi: 10.1016/j.drugpo.2010.02.001 [published Online First: 20100226]



- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
58. Moatti J, Vlahov D, Feroni I, et al. Multiple access to sterile syringes for injection drug users: vending machines, needle exchange programs and legal pharmacy sales in Marseille, France. *Eur Addict Res* 2001;7(1):40-5. doi: 10.1159/000050713
  59. Cama E, Brener L, Bryant J. Characteristics and attendance patterns of a fixed-site NSP and nearby SVM: The benefits of 24-hour access to sterile injecting equipment. *Drugs: Education, Prevention and Policy* 2014;21(6):476-81. doi: 10.3109/09687637.2014.956051
  60. Appalachian Regional Commission. County Economic Status and Distressed Areas by State, FY 2021: Appalachian Regional Commission,, 2021.
  61. US Census Bureau. 2020 Census Washington D.C.: US Census Bureau; 2020 [Available from: <https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/decennial-census/decade/2020/2020-census-main.html>] accessed November 7 2023.
  62. Economic Research Service. Rural-Urban Continuum Codes. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), 2013.
  63. US Census Bureau. American Community Survey 5-year estimates, 2020:TableS1601.
  64. Kentucky Cabinet for Health and Family Services. HIV/AIDS Surveillance Report, 2022. Frankfort, KY: Kentucky Department for Public Health,, 2022.
  65. Steel M, Mirzaian M, Daniels L. Kentucky Resident Drug Overdose Deaths, 2018–2022: Annual Report,: Kentucky Injury Prevention and Research Center,, 2023.
  66. Steel M, Mirzaian M. Kentucky Resident Emergency Department Visits for Nonfatal Drug Overdoses, 2017–2021: Annual Report: Kentucky Injury Prevention and Research Center,, 2022.
  67. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Treatment Locator 2021 [accessed June 14 2021].
  68. Strencky L. Harm reduction program data. In: Young A, ed. Frankfort, KY, 2021.
  69. Dodding J, Gaughwin M. The syringe in the machine. *Aust J Public Health* 1995;19(4):406-9. doi: 10.1111/j.1753-6405.1995.tb00395.x [published Online First: 1995/08/01]
  70. Vanderplassen W, Wolf J, Rapp RC, et al. Effectiveness of different models of case management for substance-abusing populations. *Journal of psychoactive drugs* 2007;39(1):81-95.
  71. Mejta CL, Bokos PJ, Mickenberg J, et al. Improving substance abuse treatment access and retention using a case management approach. *Journal of Drug Issues* 1997;27(2):329-40.
  72. Rapp RC, Van Den Noortgate W, Broekaert E, et al. The efficacy of case management with persons who have substance abuse problems: A three-level meta-analysis of outcomes. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology* 2014;82(4):605.
  73. Young A. Kentucky Outreach Service Kiosk (KyOSK): Reducing HIV, HCV, and Overdose Risk (NCT05657106) 2023 [updated October 10, 2023. Available from: <https://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT05657106>] accessed November 7 2023.
  74. Sobell LC, Sobell MB. Timeline follow-back. Measuring alcohol consumption: Springer 1992:41-72.
  75. Proctor E, Silmere H, Raghavan R, et al. Outcomes for implementation research: conceptual distinctions, measurement challenges, and research agenda. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research* 2011;38(2):65-76.
  76. Weiner BJ, Lewis CC, Stanick C, et al. Psychometric assessment of three newly developed implementation outcome measures. *Implementation Science* 2017;12(1):1-12.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4 77. Vickerman P, Kumaranayake L, Balakireva O, et al. The cost-effectiveness of expanding
- 5 harm reduction activities for injecting drug users in Odessa, Ukraine. *Sexually*
- 6 *transmitted diseases* 2006;33(10):S89-S102.
- 7 78. Martin NK, Vickerman P, Miners A, et al. Cost-effectiveness of hepatitis C virus antiviral
- 8 treatment for injection drug user populations. *Hepatology* 2012;55(1):49-57. doi:
- 9 10.1002/hep.24656 [published Online First: 2011/09/08]
- 10 79. Martin NK, Hickman M, Miners A, et al. Cost-effectiveness of HCV case-finding for people
- 11 who inject drugs via dried blood spot testing in specialist addiction services and prisons.
- 12 *BMJ open* 2013;3(8):e003153.
- 13 80. Guinness L, Vickerman P, Quayyum Z, et al. The cost-effectiveness of consistent and early
- 14 intervention of harm reduction for injecting drug users in Bangladesh. *Addiction*
- 15 2010;105(2):319-28.
- 16 81. Bartholomew TS, Patel H, McCollister K, et al. Implementation and first-year operating costs
- 17 of an academic medical center-based syringe services program. *Harm reduction journal*
- 18 2021;18(1):1-15.
- 19 82. Stone J, Degenhardt L, Grebely J, et al. Modelling the intervention effect of opioid agonist
- 20 treatment on multiple mortality outcomes in people who inject drugs: a three-setting
- 21 analysis. *The Lancet Psychiatry* 2021;8(4):301-09.
- 22 83. Fraser H, Vellozzi C, Hoerger TJ, et al. Scaling up hepatitis C prevention and treatment
- 23 interventions for achieving elimination in the United States: a rural and urban
- 24 comparison. *American journal of epidemiology* 2019;188(8):1539-51.
- 25 84. Degenhardt L, Grebely J, Stone J, et al. Global patterns of opioid use and dependence: harms
- 26 to populations, interventions, and future action. *The Lancet* 2019;394(10208):1560-79.
- 27 85. Stone J, Fraser H, Young AM, et al. Modeling the role of incarceration in HCV transmission
- 28 and prevention amongst people who inject drugs in rural Kentucky. *International Journal*
- 29 *of Drug Policy* 2021;88:102707.
- 30 86. Toni T, Welch D, Strelkowa N, et al. Approximate Bayesian computation scheme for
- 31 parameter inference and model selection in dynamical systems. *Journal of the Royal*
- 32 *Society Interface* 2009;6(31):187-202.
- 33 87. Sanders GD, Neumann PJ, Basu A, et al. Recommendations for conduct, methodological
- 34 practices, and reporting of cost-effectiveness analyses: second panel on cost-effectiveness
- 35 in health and medicine. *Jama* 2016;316(10):1093-103.
- 36 88. Neumann PJ, Cohen JT, Weinstein MC. Updating cost-effectiveness—the curious resilience
- 37 of the \$50,000-per-QALY threshold. *N Engl J Med* 2014;371(9):796-97.
- 38 89. Young AM, Lancaster KE, Bielavitz S, et al. Protocol: Peer-based Retention Of people who
- 39 Use Drugs in Rural Research (PROUD-R2): a multisite, randomised, 12-month trial to
- 40 compare efficacy of standard versus peer-based approaches to retain rural people who use
- 41 drugs in research. *BMJ Open* 2022;12(6)
- 42 90. van Buuren S. Multiple imputation of discrete and continuous data by fully conditional
- 43 specification. *Stat Methods Med Res* 2007;16(3):219-42. doi:
- 44 10.1177/0962280206074463 [published Online First: 2007/07/11]
- 45 91. Young R, Johnson DR. Handling missing values in longitudinal panel data with multiple
- 46 imputation. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 2015;77(1):277-94.
- 47 92. Liu W, Ye S, Barton BA, et al. Simulation-based power and sample size calculation for
- 48 designing interrupted time series analyses of count outcomes in evaluation of health
- 49 policy interventions. *Contemporary clinical trials communications* 2020;17:100474.
- 50
- 51
- 52
- 53
- 54
- 55
- 56
- 57
- 58
- 59
- 60

- 1  
2  
3 93. Jenkins RA, Whitney BM, Nance RM, et al. The rural opioid initiative consortium  
4 description: providing evidence to understand the fourth wave of the opioid crisis.  
5 *Addiction science & clinical practice* 2022;17(1):1-12.  
6  
7 94. Kumwenda MK, Johnson CC, Choko AT, et al. Exploring social harms during distribution of  
8 HIV self-testing kits using mixed-methods approaches in Malawi. *Journal of the*  
9 *International AIDS Society* 2019;22:e25251.  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



SPIRIT 2013 Checklist: Recommended items to address in a clinical trial protocol and related documents\*

Section/item	Item No	Description	Addressed on page number
<b>Administrative information</b>			
Title	1	Descriptive title identifying the study design, population, interventions, and, if applicable, trial acronym	<u>Page 3, Line 3-7</u>
Trial registration	2a	Trial identifier and registry name. If not yet registered, name of intended registry	<u>Page 3, Line 36</u>
	2b	All items from the World Health Organization Trial Registration Data Set	<u>Not applicable</u>
Protocol version	3	Date and version identifier	<u>Not applicable</u>
Funding	4	Sources and types of financial, material, and other support	<u>Page 17, Line 25</u>
Roles and responsibilities	5a	Names, affiliations, and roles of protocol contributors	<u>Page 17, Lines 3-22</u>
	5b	Name and contact information for the trial sponsor	<u>Page 17, Line 25</u>
	5c	Role of study sponsor and funders, if any, in study design; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of data; writing of the report; and the decision to submit the report for publication, including whether they will have ultimate authority over any of these activities	<u>Page 17, Lines 27-30</u>

1		5d	Composition, roles, and responsibilities of the coordinating centre, steering committee, endpoint adjudication committee, data management team, and other individuals or groups overseeing the trial, if applicable (see Item 21a for data monitoring committee)	<u>Not applicable</u>
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9	<b>Introduction</b>			
10				
11	Background and rationale	6a	Description of research question and justification for undertaking the trial, including summary of relevant studies (published and unpublished) examining benefits and harms for each intervention	<u>Page 6, Lines 4-53</u>
12				
13		6b	Explanation for choice of comparators	<u>Not applicable</u>
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19	Objectives	7	Specific objectives or hypotheses	<u>Page 6, Line 50-53</u>
20				
21				
22	Trial design	8	Description of trial design including type of trial (eg, parallel group, crossover, factorial, single group), allocation ratio, and framework (eg, superiority, equivalence, noninferiority, exploratory)	<u>Page 31, Line 49-50</u>
23				
24				
25				
26				
27	<b>Methods: Participants, interventions, and outcomes</b>			
28				
29	Study setting	9	Description of study settings (eg, community clinic, academic hospital) and list of countries where data will be collected. Reference to where list of study sites can be obtained	<u>Page 31, Line 6-30</u>
30				
31				
32	Eligibility criteria	10	Inclusion and exclusion criteria for participants. If applicable, eligibility criteria for study centres and individuals who will perform the interventions (eg, surgeons, psychotherapists)	<u>Page 31, Lines 32-46</u>
33				
34				
35				
36	Interventions	11a	Interventions for each group with sufficient detail to allow replication, including how and when they will be administered	<u>Page 32, Line 16 to Page 34, Line 44</u>
37				
38				
39				
40		11b	Criteria for discontinuing or modifying allocated interventions for a given trial participant (eg, drug dose change in response to harms, participant request, or improving/worsening disease)	<u>Page 15, Line 16-32</u>
41				
42				
43				
44				
45				
46				

1		11c	Strategies to improve adherence to intervention protocols, and any procedures for monitoring adherence (eg, drug tablet return, laboratory tests)	<u>Page 13, Lines 15-25</u>
2				
3				
4		11d	Relevant concomitant care and interventions that are permitted or prohibited during the trial	<u>Not applicable</u>
5				
6	Outcomes	12	Primary, secondary, and other outcomes, including the specific measurement variable (eg, systolic blood pressure), analysis metric (eg, change from baseline, final value, time to event), method of aggregation (eg, median, proportion), and time point for each outcome. Explanation of the clinical relevance of chosen efficacy and harm outcomes is strongly recommended	<u>Page 10, Line 45 – Page 12, Line 13</u>
7				
8				
9				
10				
11	Participant timeline	13	Time schedule of enrolment, interventions (including any run-ins and washouts), assessments, and visits for participants. A schematic diagram is highly recommended (see Figure)	<u>Page 9, Line 3-40</u>
12				
13				
14				
15	Sample size	14	Estimated number of participants needed to achieve study objectives and how it was determined, including clinical and statistical assumptions supporting any sample size calculations	<u>Page 14, Line 50 –Page 15, Line 14</u>
16				
17				
18				
19	Recruitment	15	Strategies for achieving adequate participant enrolment to reach target sample size	<u>Page 12, Line 16-21</u>
20				
21				
22				

### Methods: Assignment of interventions (for controlled trials)

#### Allocation:

27	Sequence generation	16a	Method of generating the allocation sequence (eg, computer-generated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg, blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions	<u>Not applicable</u>
28				
29				
30				
31				
32				
33	Allocation concealment mechanism	16b	Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (eg, central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned	<u>Not applicable</u>
34				
35				
36				
37	Implementation	16c	Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions	<u>Not applicable</u>
38				
39				
40				
41				
42				

1	Blinding (masking)	17a	Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg, trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how	<u>Not applicable</u>
2				
3				
4		17b	If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during the trial	<u>Not applicable</u>
5				
6				
7				
8	<b>Methods: Data collection, management, and analysis</b>			
9				
10	Data collection methods	18a	Plans for assessment and collection of outcome, baseline, and other trial data, including any related processes to promote data quality (eg, duplicate measurements, training of assessors) and a description of study instruments (eg, questionnaires, laboratory tests) along with their reliability and validity, if known. Reference to where data collection forms can be found, if not in the protocol	<u>Page 12, Line 15-44</u>
11				
12				
13				
14				
15		18b	Plans to promote participant retention and complete follow-up, including list of any outcome data to be collected for participants who discontinue or deviate from intervention protocols	<u>Page 12 Line 47</u> <u>– Page 13, Line 6</u>
16				
17				
18				
19				
20	Data management	19	Plans for data entry, coding, security, and storage, including any related processes to promote data quality (eg, double data entry; range checks for data values). Reference to where details of data management procedures can be found, if not in the protocol	<u>Page 13, Line 34-39</u>
21				
22				
23				
24	Statistical methods	20a	Statistical methods for analysing primary and secondary outcomes. Reference to where other details of the statistical analysis plan can be found, if not in the protocol	<u>Page 13, line 42-</u> <u>Page 14, line 47</u>
25				
26				
27				
28				
29		20b	Methods for any additional analyses (eg, subgroup and adjusted analyses)	<u>Page 14, Line 16-</u> <u>20</u>
30				
31				
32		20c	Definition of analysis population relating to protocol non-adherence (eg, as randomised analysis), and any statistical methods to handle missing data (eg, multiple imputation)	<u>Page 13, Line 42-</u> <u>49</u>
33				
34				
35				
36				

**Methods: Monitoring**

1	Data monitoring	21a	Composition of data monitoring committee (DMC); summary of its role and reporting structure; statement of whether it is independent from the sponsor and competing interests; and reference to where further details about its charter can be found, if not in the protocol. Alternatively, an explanation of why a DMC is not needed	<u>Page 15, Line 16-22</u>
2				
3				
4				
5				
6		21b	Description of any interim analyses and stopping guidelines, including who will have access to these interim results and make the final decision to terminate the trial	<u>Not applicable</u>
7				
8				
9				
10				
11	Harms	22	Plans for collecting, assessing, reporting, and managing solicited and spontaneously reported adverse events and other unintended effects of trial interventions or trial conduct	<u>Page 15, Line 24-32</u>
12				
13				
14	Auditing	23	Frequency and procedures for auditing trial conduct, if any, and whether the process will be independent from investigators and the sponsor	<u>Page 15, Line 34-39</u>
15				
16				
17				
18	<b>Ethics and dissemination</b>			
19				
20	Research ethics approval	24	Plans for seeking research ethics committee/institutional review board (REC/IRB) approval	<u>Page 16, Line 4</u>
21				
22				
23	Protocol amendments	25	Plans for communicating important protocol modifications (eg, changes to eligibility criteria, outcomes, analyses) to relevant parties (eg, investigators, REC/IRBs, trial participants, trial registries, journals, regulators)	<u>Page 16, Line 6-12</u>
24				
25				
26				
27	Consent or assent	26a	Who will obtain informed consent or assent from potential trial participants or authorised surrogates, and how (see Item 32)	<u>Page 16, Line 12-17</u>
28				
29				
30				
31		26b	Additional consent provisions for collection and use of participant data and biological specimens in ancillary studies, if applicable	<u>Not applicable</u>
32				
33				
34				
35	Confidentiality	27	How personal information about potential and enrolled participants will be collected, shared, and maintained in order to protect confidentiality before, during, and after the trial	<u>Page 13, Line 38-39</u>
36				
37				
38	Declaration of interests	28	Financial and other competing interests for principal investigators for the overall trial and each study site	<u>Page 17, Line 33-40</u>
39				
40				
41				
42				
43				
44				
45				
46				



1	Access to data	29	Statement of who will have access to the final trial dataset, and disclosure of contractual agreements that limit such access for investigators	<u>Page 16, Line 23-24</u>
2				
3				
4	Ancillary and post-trial care	30	Provisions, if any, for ancillary and post-trial care, and for compensation to those who suffer harm from trial participation	<u>Not applicable</u>
5				
6				
7	Dissemination policy	31a	Plans for investigators and sponsor to communicate trial results to participants, healthcare professionals, the public, and other relevant groups (eg, via publication, reporting in results databases, or other data sharing arrangements), including any publication restrictions	<u>Page 16, Line 18-23</u>
8				
9				
10				
11		31b	Authorship eligibility guidelines and any intended use of professional writers	<u>Not applicable</u>
12				
13		31c	Plans, if any, for granting public access to the full protocol, participant-level dataset, and statistical code	<u>Not applicable</u>
14				
15				
16	<b>Appendices</b>			
17				
18	Informed consent materials	32	Model consent form and other related documentation given to participants and authorised surrogates	<u>Included as supplemental file</u>
19				
20				
21				
22	Biological specimens	33	Plans for collection, laboratory evaluation, and storage of biological specimens for genetic or molecular analysis in the current trial and for future use in ancillary studies, if applicable	<u>Not applicable</u>
23				
24				

\*It is strongly recommended that this checklist be read in conjunction with the SPIRIT 2013 Explanation & Elaboration for important clarification on the items. Amendments to the protocol should be tracked and dated. The SPIRIT checklist is copyrighted by the SPIRIT Group under the Creative Commons "[Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs 3.0 Unported](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/)" license.