**Research Artícle** 

# World Journal of Pharmaceutical and Life Sciences WIPLS

www.wjpls.org

SJIF Impact Factor: 6.129

# STUDIES ON DIAGNOSTIC AND PREVENTIVE METHODS OF *Plasmodium falciparum* INFECTION IN BENUE STATE, NIGERIA.

### O. A. Adulugba\*, O. Amali, F. T. Ikpa and M. M. Manyi

Department of Zoology, Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Benue State, Nigeria.

Corresponding Author: O. A. Adulugba Department of Zoology, Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Benue State, Nigeria.

Article Received on 29/12/2021

Article Revised on 19/01/2022

Article Accepted on 09/02/2022

#### ABSTRACT

Malaria is a febrile illness caused by parasites of the genus Plasmodium and transmitted by female Anopheles mosquitoes. This study was aimed at evaluating the diagnostic and preventive methods of Plasmodium falciparum among patients attending Government hospitals in Benue State, Nigeria. Blood samples of 1200 consenting patients were collected through finger prick and observed for P. falciparum using rapid diagnostic test kit (PfRDTs). Thick and thin blood films were prepared for microscopic examination. Transmission and control factors in relation to the disease among the patients were obtained using questionnaire. The prevalence of the infection using microscopy and PfRDTs were 37.1% and 34.4% respectively. There was significant differences between the diagnostic tools used ( $\chi^2$ =757.859, df= 1 P< 0.001). The detection of the infection in relation to diagnostic parameters using microscopy as reference test showed a sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive values and negative predictive value at 95% confidence interval (CI) recorded at 83.6%, 94.6%, 90.1% and 90.7% for RDTs. The males were more infected with the prevalence of 237(53.3%) across the age groups than their female counterparts who had prevalence of 208(46.7%). The infection was statistically significant ( $\chi^2 = 52.348$ , df =3, P< 0.001). Patients that did not use malaria preventive methods had higher prevalence of 68.1% compared to patients that used combined methods of prevention (15.2%). A significant difference was observed between patients that did not use malaria preventive methods and those that did ( $\chi^2$ 126.223, df =3, P<0.001). These results suggest that CareStartTM (Pf) malaria RDTs are useful in malaria diagnosis. However, false-negative RDT results were detected and may be of great concern in malaria management.

### INTRODUCTION

Malaria is an acute febrile illness caused by parasites of the Plasmodium family and transmitted by female *Anopheles* mosquitoes (WHO, 2017). It is estimated that malarial infects more than 228 million people globally. In Nigeria, (25%) cases and almost 24% of all global malaria deaths were recorded in 2018 (WHO, 2019).

Malaria diagnosis is one of the most neglected areas of malaria research. Improving diagnostic accuracy in malaria control systems can be challenging in terms of technical and finance (Wongsrichanalai *et al.*, 2007). However, the common malaria diagnostic methods are clinical diagnosis and routine parasitological- based tests (FMoH, 2014). The clinical diagnosis is not exact, but remains the basis of malaria treatment for the majority of febrile patients in developing countries; where majority do not have access to medical laboratory most especially in the rural areas. This method is not expensive and most widely practiced (Wongsrichanalai *et al.*, 2007).It is based on the patients' signs and symptoms, and on physical findings at examination. The earliest symptoms of malaria are very non-specific and variable, and include fever, headache, weakness, chills, dizziness, abdominal pain, diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, anorexia, and pruritus (Tangpukdee *et al.*, 2009).

Routine parasitological- based tests available to confirm a clinical diagnosis of malaria (FMoH, 2014). These are microscopy, Rapid diagnostic Test (RDTs) and molecular methods. Microscopic diagnosis using blood smears plays an important role in malaria diagnosis because of its ability to diagnose and differentiate each species of malaria, and so it is used as the gold standard for any new detection technique (Kasetsirikul et al., 2016). It is the most economic, preferred, and reliable diagnosis of malaria. (Nwoke, 2018; Otubanjo, 2013). However, the limitations of microscopy such as few technical expertise, inadequate reagents, electricity supply, require time and other accessory have posed difficulties to routine use (Adebisi et al., 2016). While, Rapid Diagnostic Test (RDTs) is a device that detects malaria antigen in a small amount of blood, usually 5-15 µl by immunochromatographic assay with monoclonal antibodies directed against the target parasite antigen and

I

impregnated on a test strip. It is simple and do not require laboratory facilities (WHO.2009: Wongsrichanalai et al., 2007; Tangpukdee et al., 2009; Maltha et al., 2013). According to FMoH, (2014), histidine rich protein 2 (HRP-2) based RDTs antigen remains in the blood stream for at least two weeks after all viable parasites have been killed by treatment. This test therefore cannot be used to retest an individual patient who returns with symptoms within two - three weeks of treatment. Microscopy should be used for such patient. Molecular methods have proven to be one of the most specific and sensitive diagnostic methods, particularly for malaria cases with low parasitemia or mixed infection. They are mostly used for research. Despite the awareness of non malaria causes of febrile illness. presumptive treatment of fevers. with antimalarial medicines continues in the developing nation (Adebisi et al., 2018: Mac et al., 2019). Irrational use of antimalarial drugs in the past has led to the emergence of resistant malaria parasites (Amir et al., 2018). In order to reduced the development of resistance to drugs and lessen the consequences of failure of therapy, the World Health Organization advocate for test-based management of malaria and restricting artemisinin-based combination therapy (ACT) to only parasitologically confirmed cases (WHO, 2015).

Despite government interventions such as the distribution of insecticide-treated bed nets (ITN), indoor residual spraying (IRS), improved diagnostic testing, treatment by artemisinin combination therapy (ACT) and campaigns on preventive and control methods ,malaria still remains endemic in Benue State (NMFS, 2011 and NMCP/RBM, 2009). Therefore, this study focused on

prevalence of *P. falciparum*, diagnostic and preventive methods used among patients in Benue State, Nigeria.

#### MATERIAL AND METHOD

#### **Study Area**

The study was conducted in six selected General Hospitals in Benue State. The General Hospitals located in Adikpo, Gboko, Naka, Okpoga, Otukpo and Sankera. Benue State is located in the north central of Nigeria, with its capital at Makurdi. Its geographic coordinates are longitude 7° 47' and 10° 0' East. Latitude 6° 25' and 8° 8' North. The State has a total population of 4,253,641 in 2006 census, with an average population density of 99 persons per  $km^2$ . Made up of 2,144,043 males and 2,109,598 females the state has a sex ratio of 1.02, a literacy rate of 44.7% among the population aged 6 years and above, and a population density of about 130 persons per square kilometer Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy, engaging over 75% of the state farming population. Benue State is the nation's food basket because of its rich agricultural produce. The State also boasts of one of the longest stretches of river systems in the country with great potential for a viable fishing industry, dry season farming through irrigation and for an inland water highway. Most of the people are farmers while the inhabitants of the river areas engage in fishing as their primary or important secondary occupation. Malaria is transmitted through the bites of infected female Anopheles mosquitoes. These Anopheles species are widely distributed in Benue State. Malaria is present throughout the year with a marked increase during the wet/rainy season due to suitable climatic factors most especially temperature as reported by Manyi et al.(2014).

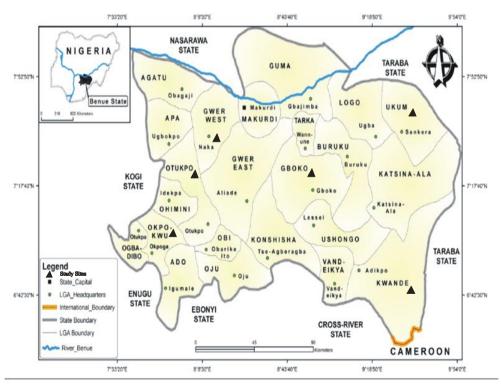


Figure 1: Map of Benue State, Nigeria (Ministry of Lands and Survey, Makurdi 2015).

www.wjpls.org Vol 8, Issue 3, 2022. ISO 9001:2015 Certified Journal

### Study Design/Study population

The study was conducted between September, 2018 and August, 2019. It was hospital based and it considered only outpatient subjects who were referred to the Laboratory Department for medical diagnosis. The population consisted of 1200 subjects, including both children and adults are screen for *P. falciparum* Infection. Patients' epidemiological data were obtained using questionnaires

### Sample collection and Parasitological Technique

The left thumb of participants was thoroughly cleaned with methylated spirit and a sterile lancet was used to prick the finger to obtain blood sample. Thick and thin blood films were made on clean slides and a drop of the blood was used with an RDT kit, the "CareStart Malaria HRP2 from Access Bio, Inc." and labeled accordingly . The RDTs were used according to manufacturer's instructions. (WHO, 2009).Thick and thin blood films were prepared on microscope slides collected by finger prick blood samples. After proper fixation, the prepared slides were then stained with 10% Giemsa (v/v). Blood films were examined microscopically using X 100 (oil immersion) objectives as described by Cheesbrough (2010).

**Questionnaire administration:** A structured questionnaire was used to collect data on the sex, age and malaria preventive measures.

Statistical Analysis: Simple percentage and Chi-squared test were used for data presentation. Statistical analysis was performed using Statistical Product and service solution (SPSS) software version 18 (IBM., USA). Chi-squared test was used to compare prevalence of malaria infection between age, sex and preventive methods used by the subjects. The significance level was considered at  $P \le 0.05$ . The Sensitivity, Specificity, Positive predictive value and Negative Positive predictive were determine by using the formula below:

Sensitivity = <u>No. of True Positive</u> + No. of False Negative No. of True Positive

Specificity = <u>No. of True Negative</u> + No. of False Positive No. of True Negative

### PPV = <u>No. of True Positive</u> + No. of False Positive No. of True Positive

NPV = <u>No. of True Negative</u> + No. of False Negative No. of False Negative

## ETHICAL APPROVAL

Permission was sought for and obtained from the Ethical Committee of the Hospitals Management Board, Makurdi. Patients presenting themselves for Laboratory test in the selected General hospitals were duly informed on the significance of the study. Informed consent of adults and parents/ guardians of the children were obtained before blood sample collection for the tests and administration of questionnaire.

### RESULTS

A total of 1200 subjects were screened for P. falciparum infections among patients attending General Hospitals, in Benue Sate. This gave a total prevalence of 445(37.1%) by microscopy. The *falciparum* malaria prevalence was higher in General Hospital Naka 103(51.3%) and least in General Hospital Gboko 44(22.0%). There was statistically significant ( $\chi^2 = 50.464$ , df=5 and p<0.001) (Table 1). Also, Prevalence of falciparum malaria of 413(34.4%) was recorded in this study using rapid diagnostic test (RDTs) (table 2). The malaria Prevalence was higher in Naka 94 (47.0%) and least in Gboko 43(21.0%). There was statistical difference between the study areas in Benue State ( $\chi^2$ =42.594, df= 5 and P< .001). The diagnostic parameters of RDTs when compared microscopy as reference test for sensitivity, specificity, Positive predictive value (PPV) and Negative predictive value (NPP )were 83.6%, 94.6%, 90.1% and 90.7% respectively (Table 3).

The prevalence of *P. falciparum* infections in relations to age class and sex, age group < 5 years recorded the highest prevalence of 147 (49.7%) while the age group 15 years and above recorded the lowest prevalence of 81 (22.0%). *P. falciparum* infections in relation to sex, the males recorded the highest infection of 237(53.3%), while the females recorded the lowest infection rate of 208(46.7%). However, there was significant difference ( $\chi^2$ =52.348,df =3 and P < 0.05) between the of infection and the age of the subjects (Table 4).

Malarial infection in relation to preventive measures used among subjects in the study area showed that those that did not use any of the protective measure recorded highest infection of 66(68.1%) and the least prevalence rate was observed among those that used combined method with 53(15.2%). A significant difference was observed in malarial infections rate between subjects that did not use any malaria preventive methods and those that used ( $\chi^2$ =126.223, df=3 and P<0.5) (Table 5).

L

Location	No positive percentage (%)	No negative percentage (%)	Total(%)
Adikpo	80 (40.0)	120 (60.0)	200 (100)
Gboko	44 (22.0)	154 (78.0)	200 (100)
Naka	103 (51.3)	97 (48.5)	200 (100)
Okpoga	87 (43.5)	113 (56.5)	200 (100)
Otukpo	54 (27.0)	146 (73.0)	200 (100)
Sankera	77 (38.5)	123 (61.5)	200 (100)
Total	445 (37.1)	755 (62.9)	1200 (100)

Table 1: Prevalence of *Plasmodium falciparum* infections in relation to locations using microscopy.

 $\chi^2 = 50.464 \text{ df} = 5 \text{ p} = <0.05$ 

Table 2: Prevalence of *Plasmodium falciparum* infections in relation to locations using RDTs.

Location	positive percentage (%)	Negative percentage (%)	Total(%)
Adikpo	80 (40.0)	120 (60.0)	200 (100)
Gboko	43 (21.0)	157 (78.50)	200 (100)
Naka	94 (47.0)	106 (53.0)	200 (100)
Okpoga	79 (39.5)	121 (60.5)	200 (100)
Otukpo	49 (24.5)	151 (75.5)	200 (100)
Sankera	68 (34.0)	132(66.0)	200 (100)
Total	413(34.4)	787(65.6)	200(100.0)

 $\chi^2 = 42.594$ , df=5 p=<0.05

Table 3: Diagnostic parameters of RDTs with microscopy test as reference test.

Donomotors	Estimated	95% confidence interval			
Parameters	value (%)	Lower limit (%)	Upper limit (%)		
Sensitivity	83.6	79.7	86.8		
Specificity	94.6	92.6	96.0		
Positive predictive value (PPV)	90.1	86.7	92.7		
Negative predictive value (NPV)	90.7	88.4	92.6		

	No. Examined			No. Positive			% Positive		
Age Group	Male (%)	Female (%)	Total	Male	Female	Total (%)	Male	Female	Total %
< 5	107 (36.1)	189 (63.9)	296	84	63	147(49.7)	57.1	42.9	100
5-9	154 (50.8)	149 (49.2)	303	71	67	138(45.5)	51.4	48.6	100
10 - 14	86 (36.9)	147 (63.1)	233	39	40	79(33.9)	49.4	50.6	100
15 and above	138 (37.5)	230 (62.5)	368	43	38	81(22.0)	53.1	46.9	100
Total	485 (40.4)	715(59.6)	1200	237	208	445(37.1)	53.3	46.7	100

 $\chi^2$ = 52. 348 df=3 P < 0.05

Table 5: Prevalence of *Pasmodium falciparum* infection relation to protective mechanism using microscopy test.

Protective mechanism	Positive	Negative	Total
Insecticide spray	196 (45.9)	231 (54.1)	427 (100)
Use of ITNS	130 (39.6)	198 (60.4)	328 (100)
Combination	53 (15.2)	295 (84.8)	348 (100)
Non user	66 (68.1)	31 (31.9)	97 (100)
Total	445 (37.1)	755 (62.9)	1200 (100)

χ<sup>2</sup>= 126.223, df=3, p=<0.05

## DISCUSSION

Malaria is endemic and stable; being a major cause of morbidity and mortality in Benue State, Nigeria. The

I

results of this study shows the prevalence of 37.1% and 34.4% recorded by microscopy and CareStart<sup>TM</sup>*Pf* malaria RDTs kit respectively. This is lower than the overall malaria prevalence of 59% and 64% recorded by

I

T

Azikiwe *et al.* (2012). Also, Mac *et al.* (2019) reported 55.1% and 37.2% prevalence of malaria in Abuja and Nasarawa among healthy individual employing Microscopy and HPR-2 diagnostic test (RDT).While, Egbuche *et al.*(2019) reported 57.1% and 22.0% for Microscopy and diagnostic test (RDTs) respectively. However, the malaria prevalence in this study was higher than 15.1% and 21.6% in Ibadan, Nigeria by Adebisi *et al.* (2018) and 23.2% and 25.9% in Kastina-Alas, Benue State Nigeria, by Ikpa *et al.* (2017). Both studies used light microscopy and CareStart<sup>TM</sup>*Pf* malaria RDTs respectively.

The study reveals sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value and negative predictive value for RDT in this study. The result in this study is comparable with an earlier report in Kastina-Ala Benue State, Nigeria, with Sensitivity of 86.8% and 95.7%, while specificity of 91.5% and 97.0% in asymptomatic and symptomatic malaria respectively by Ikpa et al.(2017) which stated an agreement between the sensitivity of microscopy and RDTs in malaria diagnosis. Similar results were reported by Sheyin and Bigwan (2013), using Carestart<sup>TM</sup> -Histidine Rich Protein (HRP)-2, recorded sensitivity and specificity values of 78.4% and 97.6%, positive predictive value of 93.3% and negative predictive value of 80.1 in Jos, Nigeria. The finding was also similar to sensitivity and specificity of 84.5% and 98.2%, negative predictive value (93.1%) and positive predictive value 95.6% as observed by Mac et al. (2019) in Abuja and Nasarawa state Nigeria. The finding in this study is higher compared to a similar study conducted at Akure by Obimakinde et al. (2018) which showed a sensitivity of (65%) RDT compared to Microscopy (71.43%).

The slight different in the results, could be due to false positive or false negative reading .Wongsrichanalai et al. (2007) observed that the different may be due to microscopist experience or several factors in the manufacturing process as well as environmental conditions may affect RDT performance. Also, false negative results may be caused by deletion or mutation of the *hrp-2* gene. It could be that participating subjects had recently been treated with antimalarial drugs before presenting in the secondary health facilities. Ikpa et al. (2017) noted that, the consequence of a false negative diagnosis is a threat to life of the patient being tested, as the patient may be denied appropriate treatment with antimalarial drugs despite being infected with P. falciparum parasites. The RDT kit employed in the investigation of the prevalence, sensitivity and specificity of malaria parasite in this study showed effective and reliable results for detecting P. falciparum, although, microscopy remains as gold standard.

In this study, the highest malaria prevalence was observed in patients of the age groups < 5years and 5-9 years. The least prevalence was recorded in the age groups of 15 years and above. This contrasts the reports of highest malaria prevalence in older age groups in

Benue, Ibadan and Osogbo by Houmsou et al. (2017); Okonko et al. (2010) and Nassar et al. (2019). Children between  $\leq 5$  years of age were the most vulnerable group. This is in agreement with WHO report that children under 5 years of age constituted 69% out of estimated malaria deaths around the world (WHO, 2016). Malaria prevalence was statistically significant in different age groups( p <0.05). The high infection observed among these age groups could be due to low immune system to malaria infection and inadequate protection against mosquito bites. This age groups plays around and they often expose their body thereby prone to mosquito bites. This finding is consistent with the reports of previous study in South-Eastern Nigeria by Umeanaeto et al. (2019) who reported that high prevalence infection among children ( $\leq 15$  years) of age and further stated that children born to immune mothers are protected against the disease during the first half year of life by maternal antibodies. As they grow older, after continued exposure from multiple infections with malaria parasites over time, they build up an acquired immunity and become relatively protected against the disease and blood stage parasites.

This study has revealed high malaria infection among male than in female counterparts. This finding is similar to the work of Nassar et al. (2019) who reported that malaria infection is higher in male than female. Also, Mac et al. (2019) reported that female subjects showed slightly low prevalence compared to male counterparts. This could be due to exposure of body parts by male than female or refusal to sleep under insecticidetreated nets. The males were more infected with malaria across the age groups than their female counterparts except females in age group of 10-14 years that recorded slightly higher than male counterparts. This could be due to ignorance on the part of young females concerning the use of protective measures or may be due to differences in gender related activities of females who frequently assist their mothers in house chores such as sweeping the compound, washing of dishes outside at dawn and dusk, as well as fetching of water which make the females more prone to infective mosquito bites as compared to their male counterparts.

However, Yohanna *et al.*(2019) opined that gender did not affect the prevalence of malaria among patients. The reason for this differences in prevalence between females and males cannot be scientifically traced to any reason in particular, it may have occurred by chance as reported by Manyi *et al.* (2018) and Mac *et al.*(2019).

The preventive methods are effective in various ways. But the combination of ITNs and Insecticide spray seemed to be more effective than the use of single protective measures. The present study reveals higher prevalence of malaria among subjects that did not use any malaria preventive methods, followed by those that use insecticide spray alone and insecticide treated bed nets. The least prevalence was recorded among those that

L

use combination of ITNs and Insecticide. The finding is similar to previous report by Amuta et al. (2014) who observed that preventive methods are variously effective and non- users recorded highest infection of malaria than those that use preventive measures. The observed difference in malarial infection between subjects that did not use any malaria preventive methods, those that used single and combined methods of prevention, could due to location, ignorance or poverty. However, the use of insecticide was one of the most preferred methods of mosquito control by many participants; it is possible that insecticide were applied at least once a week. This could be the cause of high malarial infection observed among patients that used insecticide sprays alone, or could be due to mosquitoes resistance to the chemical or to the low quality of the insecticides and the short duration of the insecticide sprays which lasts for few hours only could be another factor. The use of insecticide treated bed nets/ Long Lasting Insecticidal Nets (LLINS) has been shown to reduce malaria infections. The prevalence recorded in this study could be due to unavailability of treated nets by those who desired to procure them, or too expensive or refusal to sleep under insecticide treated nets or discomfort primarily due to heat and perceived low mosquito density were the most widely identified for non use of ITNS. The finding is similar to previous report by Manyi et al., (2018) who observed that the high prevalence could be by chance; child's refusal to sleep under insecticide-treated nets or because of ignorance on the part of their parents concerning the use of insecticidetreated nets which make them more prone to infective mosquito bites. Amuta et al. (2014) observed that good result of this combination of preventive methods could just reflect a synergy between the chemical components against mosquitoes. The present study reveals that malaria remains moderately high among patients attending General Hospitals in Benue State, Nigeria, despite the efforts by Government to reduce the burden of malaria in Nigeria. Combined method of prevention (ITNs and Insecticide spray) showed good results in preventing malaria among patients as observed by Hile et al. (2012).

## CONCLUSION /RECOMMENDATIONS

Malaria is endemic and stable; being a major cause of morbidity and mortality in Nigeria. This study has revealed that the malaria infection is considered moderately high compare to other studies. It has also revealed that all age groups are prone to malaria infections, but children ( $\leq 15$  years) are highly vulnerable to malaria attack. There is need to intensify campaigns on preventive and control methods. The masses should be encouraged to use combination of preventive methods like Insecticide spray and insecticide-treated bed-nets (ITNs) / Long Lasting Insecticidal Nets (LLINS) so as to reduce the risk of Anopheles mosquitoes' bites. Microscopy as gold standard revealed a slightly high sensitivity. However, this result suggest that CareStartTM (*Pf*) malaria RDT is suitable for the diagnosis of P. falciparum malaria .

Therefore, clinical findings should always be confirmed by a laboratory test for malaria to avoid irrational use of antimalarial drugs.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We sincerely acknowledge the Hospitals management Board Makurdi, for granting us permission to undertake this study. We are grateful to the management of the General Hospitals and staff of the Laboratory units for their assistance during the study. We remain grateful to patients for their voluntary participation in this study.

## REFERENCES

- 1. Adebisi, N.A, Dada-Adegbola, H.O, Dairo, M.D, Ajayi, I.O and Ajumobi, O.O. Performance of malaria rapid diagnostic test in febrile under-five children at Oni Memorial Children's Hospital in Ibadan, Nigeria. *Pan African Medical Journal*, 2018; *30: 242*.
- Amir, A., Cheong, F-W., De Silva, J. R. and Lau Y-L. Diagnostic tools in childhood malaria *Parasites and Vectors* volume 11, Article number, 2018; 53.
- Amuta, E, Houmsou, R. Wama, E.and Ameh, M. Malarial Infection among Antenatal and Maternity Clinics Attendees at the Federal Medical Centre, Makurdi, Benue State, Nigeria. Infectious Disease Reports, 2014; 6(1): 5050. PMCID: PMC3987244.
- Anumudu, C.I., Adepoju,A. Adeniran,M., Adeoye,O., Kassim,A., Oyewole ,I And Nwuba, R.I. Malaria prevalence and treatment seeking behaviour of young Nigeria adults. *Annals of African Medicine*, 2006; 15: 82-88.
- Azikiwe, C.C.A., Ifezulike, C.C., Siminialayi, I.M., Amazu, L.U., Enye, J.C., and Nwakwunite, O.E (2012). A comparative laboratory diagnosis of malaria: microscopy versus rapid diagnostic test kits. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine* doi:10.1016/S2221-1691(12)60029-X, 307-310.
- Cheesbrough, M. District Laboratory Practice in Tropical Countries, Part 1.Second Edition, Update. Cambridge Low Price Edition, Cambridge University Press, 2010; 239–258.
- Egbuche, C.M., Ukonze, C.B., Udofia, I.J., Okafor, T., Okoye, K.C., Chuwuzoba,O.A. And Obasi, C.J Comparative assessment of urine-base RDT in malaria diagnosis during febrile and non- febrile conditions. *Nigerian Journal of Parasitology*, ISSN 11174145, 40(1): 37-45.
- 8. Federal Ministry of Health (FMoH), (2014) National Malaria Control Programme. Module 1: Case Management of Malaria in the Hospital, Trainer Manual. Abuja, Nigeria.
- 9. Hile, T. Assam J.P., Amali, O. and Amuta, E. The epidemiology of malaria among pregnant women in Garoua, Northern Cameroon. *Journal of Parasitology Vector Biology*, 2012; 5: 1-5.
- 10. Houmsou, R.S.Amuta, E.U, Sar, T.T. and Adagba, A.H. (2017). Malarial infection among patients attending a Nigerian semi-urban based hospital and

I

L

performance of HRP-2 pf Rapid diagnostic Test (RDT) in screening clinical cases of *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria. *Translational Biomedicine*.

- 11. Ikpa. T. F., Ikpa, N. and Obisike, V.U, Comparative Diagnosis of Plasmodium falciparum MaLARIA with a Histidine-Rich Protein 2 Rapid Diagnostic Test and Light Microscopy in a Hospital Setting in Kastina-Ala Nigeria.African Journal of Biomed. Res., 2017; 20(1): 121-126.
- 12. Mac P.A, Asheadzi, H.F, Gideon A, Thaker P, and Airiohuodion P. Prevalence of Plasmodium Falciparum among Nigerians in Abuja and Central States: A Comparative Analysis of Sensitivity and Specificity Using Rapid Diagnostic Test and Microscopy as Tools in Management of Malaria. *International Journal of Tropical Diseases*, 2019; 1: 014. doi.org/10.23937/ijtd-2017/1710014
- 13. Manyi M. Msugh-Ter, Vajime C. Gbilekaa, Imandeh G. Nyiutaha (2014). Sporozoite Infection Rates of Female Anopheline Mosquitoes in Makurdi, An Endemic Area For Malaria in Central Nigeria. *Int. J. Entomol. Res.*, 2014; 2(2): 103-115.
- Manyi, M. M., Aernan, P. T. and Obilikwu, E. Studies on *Plasmodium falciparum* Infection Rates among Children (≤10 years of age) attending Federal Medical Centre Makurdi, Benue State, Nigeria *Journal of Medical and Biological Science Research*, 2018; 4(3): 76-81.
- Maltha, J., Gillet, P. and Jacobs, J. "Malaria rapid diagnostic tests in travel medicine," *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*, 2013; 19(5): 408–415.
- 16. Nassar, S.A., Olayiwola, J.O., Bakarey, A.S and Enyhowero, S.O. Investigations of dengue virus and plasmodium falciparum among febrile patients receiving care at a tertiary health facility in Osogbo, south-west Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Parasitology*, ISSN 11174145, 2019; 40(1): 18-24.
- 17. National Malaria Control Programme [NMCP]/Roll Back Malaria [RBM](2009). NMCP/RBM Business Plan (2009–2010), Nigeria.
- 18. National Population Commission. (2009). Nigeria Demographic Health Survey, 2008. Abuja, Nigeria.
- 19. Nigeria Malaria Fact Sheet (NMFS) (2011). Malaria in Nigeria, United States Embassy in Nigeria Economic Section, Drive Central Area Abuja, FCT, Nigeria.
- Nwoke, B.E.B. Public Health Parasitology, Milestone Publishers Limited Owerri, Nigeria, 2018. ISBN: 978-978-55082-7-7.
- 21. Obimakinde ET, Simon-Oke IA, Osunyemi OS. The effectiveness of microscopy: Rapid diagnostic test and molecular assay in diagnosing malaria. J Parasit Dis Diagn Ther., 2018; 3: 10-14.
- Okonko IO, Donbraye, Emmanuel OOB, Donbraye E, Abubakar MJ, Fowotade A Fadeyi A, Babalola ET, Ojezele MO, Adeyi AO. Malaria parasitaemia among patients in Ibadan, south-western Nigeria. Journal of Applied Bioscience, 2010; 29: 1774-1780.

- 23. Otubanjo, O.A. (2013). *Parasites of Man and Animals*, Concept publications, Lagos, Nigeria. ISBN: 978-978-51446-0-4.
- Tangpukdee, N., Duangdee, C., Wilairatana, P. and Krudsood, S. Malaria Diagnosis: A Brief Review Korean Society for Parasitology, 2009; 47(2): 93– 102. doi: 10.3347/kjp.2009.47.2.93
- 25. Umeanaeto PU, Onyido AE, Ifeanyichukwu MO, Anumba JU, (2019). Mosquito dynamics and malaria in Alulu-Nike Community, Enugu East Local Government Area, Enugu State Nigeria. Nigerian Journal of Parasitology, 2019; 40(1): 6-17.
- WHO (2009). Malaria Rapid Diagnostic Performance. Results of WHO product testing of malaria RDTs: Round 2, Geneva. ISBN 978-92-4-159946.
- 27. World Health Organization (2015). Guidelines for the Treatment of Malaria, Geneva, Switzerland, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition
- 28. WHO. Malaria Fact sheet Updated. *Geneva: World Health Organization; Google Scholar,* 2017.
- 29. WHO. World malaria report Geneva, Switzerland, 2019; 2019.
- Wongsrichanalai, C., Barcus, M.J., Muth,S., Sutamihardja, A and Wernsdorfer, W.H. A Review of Malaria Diagnostic Tools: Microscopy and Rapid Diagnostic Test (RDT). *The American Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 2007; 77(6): 119– 127.
- Yohanna, J.A., Gau, P.C. and Adejoh, V.A., Prevalence of malaria parasites in children at Vom Christian Hospital, Jos South, Plateau State, Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Parasitology*, 2019; 40(2): 152-157.

L