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3 **TITLE:** Patterns of malaria diagnosis among healthcare facilities in Anambra state,  
4 Nigeria

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27 **Short Running Title:** Patterns of Malaria Diagnosis among Healthcare facilities in  
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EARLY VIEW

64 **ABSTRACT**

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66 **Aim**

67 A key component to effective case management of malaria is prompt and accurate  
68 diagnosis of the infection. In essence, efficient diagnosis of malaria parasite is very  
69 vital for treatment of malaria infection. The present study was designed to evaluate  
70 the pattern of malaria diagnosis among healthcare facilities in Awka, Anambra state,  
71 Nigeria.

72

73 **Methods**

74 Pre-tested questionnaires were used to collect information from the selected  
75 healthcare facilities-both government and private-owned.

76

77 **Results**

78 Government-owned hospitals used microscopy (50%) and Rapid Diagnostic Tests  
79 (RDT) (50%). Similarly, private-owned hospitals also utilized microscopy (75%) and  
80 RDT (25%). The private-owned medical laboratories based their diagnosis on  
81 microscopy alone while Patent Medicine Vendors (PMV) utilized clinical or  
82 presumptive diagnosis. The study revealed that majority of the healthcare facilities  
83 utilized microscopy which is the gold standard in diagnosis of malaria.

84

85 **Conclusion**

86 Results of this study demonstrated significant difference on pattern of malaria  
87 diagnosis between public and private-owned healthcare facilities.

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89 **Keywords:** Malaria, Diagnosis, Healthcare facilities

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96 **INTRODUCTION**

97 Malaria is still the most important parasitic disease of critical health importance  
98 worldwide [1]. The burden of mortality, 438,000 deaths in 2015, lies mostly in sub-  
99 Saharan Africa countries, with the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Nigeria  
100 accounting for more than 35% of the toll [2]. It is a disease of the poor that exacts  
101 heavy toll of illness and death especially among children and pregnant mother [3].  
102 Malaria still remains a major public health problem in Nigeria, accounting for 40% of  
103 the total malaria cases and death worldwide [4]. In children under five years of age,  
104 malaria is responsible for 60% of all outpatient attendances and 30% of all hospital  
105 admissions [5]. Nearly 110 million clinical cases and an estimated 300,000 deaths  
106 per year, including 11% of maternal mortality, 25% infant mortality and 20% under-  
107 five mortality is attributed to malaria [5]. Malaria's economic impact is enormous with  
108 about N132 billion lost to malaria annually in form of treatment costs, prevention and  
109 loss of man-hours, among other control costs [6]. However, in the last decade there  
110 has been a substantial reduction in malaria endemicity in Nigeria, probably as a  
111 result of increase in malaria control interventions in the country [6].

112 A key component to effective case management towards a radical control of malaria  
113 is prompt and accurate diagnosis of the infection. This requires clinical assessment  
114 by employing various methods for confirmation of malaria prior to treatment with an  
115 effective drug. Presently, there is limited number of methods for the diagnosis of  
116 malaria. Conventional methods include clinical diagnosis which involves empirical or  
117 syndromic diagnosis (mainly the presence of fever in endemic areas) and case  
118 history examination. Traditional methods involve the use of light microscope to  
119 examine stained peripheral blood smears and other concentration techniques such  
120 as Quantitative Buffy Coat (QBC) method. Molecular diagnosis includes Rapid  
121 Diagnostic Test (RDT) and serological test which are antibody-based, and  
122 Polymerase Chain Reaction. In Nigeria, one of the key factors for treatment failure in  
123 malaria is misdiagnosis [1]. Cumulative research evidence over the past years has  
124 indicated that effective diagnosis and treatment reduces both morbidity and mortality  
125 of malaria [7]. Effective control and subsequent elimination of malaria will no doubt  
126 depend on efficient and accurate diagnosis. According to World Health Organization  
127 (WHO) [8], prompt and accurate diagnosis is one of the essential components of

128 malaria control strategies. In line with WHO recommendation, Nigeria, in 2011,  
129 updated the National Malaria Treatment Guidelines to reflect universal testing before  
130 treatment for suspected cases of malaria [9].

131 An overarching goal of the National Malaria Strategic Plan 2014–2020 is to test all  
132 care-seeking persons with suspected malaria using RDT or microscopy by 2020 [6].  
133 Attainment of this objective deems it necessary that all levels and segments of the  
134 Nigerian health system should have access to, and appropriately utilize, malaria  
135 diagnostic tools. There is paucity of data on the diagnostic methods for confirmation  
136 of malaria cases provided at health facilities in Awka, the capital of Anambra state.  
137 Therefore, in this study, we examined the pattern of malaria diagnosis utilized by  
138 different healthcare facilities in Awka, Nigeria. It is hoped that findings obtained from  
139 this study will provide information about adherence of healthcare providers to the  
140 National Malaria Strategic Plan 2014–2020 guideline on malaria diagnosis towards  
141 promoting improved diagnosis. The findings obtained from this study will also form  
142 basis for making informed choices towards improved malaria diagnosis by  
143 healthcare providers in Nigeria and elsewhere. Effective diagnosis will promote  
144 treatment of malaria, thereby contributing further to improved malaria management  
145 and control.

146

## 147 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

148

### 149 **Study location and design**

150 This cross-sectional study was conducted in Awka, the capital of Anambra State,  
151 southeast Nigeria, between May and July 2016. The geographical coordinates of  
152 Awka are Latitude 6°12'25"N and Longitude 7°04'04"E. Awka lies in the tropical  
153 rainforest. The climatic condition of the town is characterized by two distinct  
154 seasons, wet season (from April to October) and dry season (from November to  
155 March). Harmattan winds blow for about four to six weeks between December and  
156 January. The temperature in Awka is generally 27-30°C between June and  
157 December but rises to 32-34°C between January and April, with the last few months  
158 of the dry season marked by intense heat.

159 According to the last census conducted in Nigeria in 2006, the estimated population  
160 of Awka stood at 301,657. Majority of the inhabitants are civil servants, business  
161 men and women and students because of presence of a public university in the city.  
162 Different healthcare facilities including government-owned hospitals, private-owned  
163 hospitals, private-owned medical laboratories and Patent Medicine Vendors (PMVs)  
164 abound in Awka. PMVs own and operate drug shop outlets in the private health  
165 sector for a profit basis. Very few of these vendors are owned or staffed by formally  
166 trained pharmacists. The majority of vendors are owned and staffed by informally  
167 trained individuals. All these facilities provide malaria diagnostic services to the  
168 residents of Awka and environs.

169

#### 170 **Study population**

171 Target population included healthcare providers in the public and private health care  
172 facilities selected.

173

#### 174 **Sampling technique and data collection**

175 A total of 15 healthcare facilities participated in the qualitative data collection.  
176 According to information obtained from Anambra State Ministry of Health, there are  
177 150 different healthcare facilities in Awka area. Ten percent (10%) of each group  
178 were then randomly chosen. Therefore, a total of 15 health facilities made up of 6  
179 PMVs, 2 government-owned hospitals, 4 private-owned hospitals and 3 private-  
180 owned laboratories, were studied. A pre-tested semi-structured questionnaire was  
181 issued to a randomly chosen eligible healthcare worker in each facility. An eligible  
182 worker was one who offered malaria diagnosis in the facility. The questionnaire  
183 obtained information on respondent's socio-demographics characteristics, years of  
184 experience and method(s) of malaria diagnosis.

185

#### 186 **Ethical Clearance**

187 Ethical clearance was obtained from the Ethics committees of Anambra state  
188 University Teaching Hospital, Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria.

189

190

191 **Statistical analysis**

192 Comparison of diagnostic methods among the different healthcare facilities was  
193 carried out using the Chi square test. Frequency tables and charts were used for  
194 data presentation. Data analysis was done using statistical package for social  
195 science (SPSS) version 21. For all the statistical analysis, the level of significance  
196 was set at  $p < 0.05$ , 95 % CI.

197

198 **RESULTS**

199 A total of 15 health facilities made up of 6 PMVs, 2 government-owned hospitals, 4  
200 private-owned hospitals and 3 private-owned laboratories, were studied as shown in  
201 Table 1.

202 Of the 6 PMV healthcare workers, only 2 were managed by qualified pharmacists  
203 while the rest had no appropriate qualification. The 3 healthcare workers in the  
204 private-owned laboratories were qualified laboratory scientists. Similarly, the 4  
205 healthcare workers in the private-owned hospitals were also qualified laboratory  
206 scientists. Of the 2 healthcare workers in the government-owned hospitals, 1 was a  
207 qualified laboratory scientist while the other was a health assistant (Table 2).

208 The diagnostic methods used by healthcare facilities showed that all the PMVs were  
209 using symptom-based presumptive method of diagnosis, all the private laboratories  
210 were using microscopic method of diagnosis, private hospitals were using 75%  
211 microscopy and 25% RDT, and government owned hospitals were using 50%  
212 microscopy and 50% RDT (Figure 1).

213

214 **DISCUSSION**

215 The study demonstrated significant difference on pattern of malaria diagnosis  
216 between public and private-owned healthcare facilities. Microscopy was the most  
217 utilized diagnostic method by healthcare facilities in the study. This may be  
218 connected with the fact that it is the gold standard for malaria diagnosis and as such  
219 its adherence by many healthcare facilities. Malaria RDT kits were more available in  
220 government-owned health facilities (50%) and also were its utilization for  
221 parasitological confirmation of malaria infection. In the private-owned healthcare  
222 facilities, it was only available in few private-owned hospitals (25%). This is in



223 agreement to a study done in Ogun state Nigeria which revealed that RDT kits were  
224 more available in the public health facilities (82.0 %) than private health facilities  
225 (19.2 %) [10]. At present, there is free supply of RDT kits to public-owned health  
226 facilities by the state government. Therefore, this may have accounted for its  
227 abundance and use in the public-owned hospitals. Moreover, the RDT kits may be  
228 unaffordable to most of the private-owned healthcare facilities, and this may have  
229 prompted them to rely more on presumptive diagnosis and microscopy. This finding  
230 underscores the necessity to scale-up RDT usage as well as microscopy among  
231 most private-owned health facilities in a view to discourage reliance on presumptive  
232 diagnosis. The cost of RDTs can be made affordable by interventions from the  
233 government and non-profit organizations considering its advantage of prompt  
234 diagnosis of malaria towards an effective malaria infection management.

235 All the PMVs utilized symptom-based presumptive method of diagnosis. It is known  
236 that in sub-Saharan Africa [11-15], PMVs are important caregivers for treatment of  
237 uncomplicated malaria. The practice of symptom-based presumptive diagnosis  
238 among this group of care providers is quite common in Nigeria [15]. Since  
239 shortcomings of presumptive diagnosis such as improper and abusive use of anti-  
240 malaria drugs which encourages anti-malarial drug resistance are well documented  
241 [16,17], this may imply failure of the PMVs to identify and treat malaria appropriately  
242 [18] and as such may result in the irrational use of anti-malarial drugs [19]. The  
243 National Malaria Strategic Plan 2014–2020 [6] specified that timely parasite-based  
244 diagnosis of malaria should be performed prior to treatment. Since PMVs serve a  
245 major number of malaria treatment seekers, standard diagnostic testing prior to  
246 treatment should be implemented as part of a concerted strategy for improved  
247 malaria treatment and control. PMVs and treatment seekers therefore require  
248 appropriate education for behavioural change, so they can seek to use better  
249 diagnostic methods rather than relying on only symptom-based presumptive  
250 diagnosis.

251

#### 252 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

253 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

254

**255 AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS**

256 Dennis Nnanna Aribodor

257 Group1 - Conception and design, Acquisition of data, Analysis and interpretation of  
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259 Group 2 - Drafting the article, Critical revision of the article

260 Group 3 - Final approval of the version to be published

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276 Group 3 - Final approval of the version to be published

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280 Group 2 - Drafting the article, Critical revision of the article

281 Group 3 - Final approval of the version to be published

282

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286

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351 **TABLES**

352

353 Table 1: Selection of healthcare facilities included in the study

354

<b>Healthcare facilities</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Number selected</b>
Patent medicine ventures (PMV)	60	6
Government hospital	20	2
Private hospital	40	4
Private laboratories	30	3
Grand total	150	15

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376 Table 2: Socio-demographic characteristics of healthcare workers

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Healthcare facility	S/N	Years of Experience	Sex	Age (years)	Cadre of health worker
<b>Patent Medicine Vendor (PMV)</b>	1	5	M	31-40	None
	2	10	M	41-50	None
	3	3	F	21-30	Pharmacist
	4	4	M	21-30	None
	5	7	M	31-40	Pharmacist
	6	9	M	31-40	None
<b>Private-owned Laboratory</b>	7	6	F	31-40	Laboratory scientist
	8	10	M	41-50	Laboratory scientist
	9	14	F	31-40	Laboratory scientist Laboratory scientist
<b>Private-owned hospitals</b>	10	2	F	21-30	Laboratory scientist
	11	5	M	31-40	Laboratory scientist
	12	7	M	31-40	Laboratory scientist
	13	11	F	41-50	Laboratory scientist
<b>Government-owned hospitals</b>	14	4	F	31-40	Laboratory scientist
	15	9	F	41-50	Health Assistant

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386 **FIGURE LEGEND**

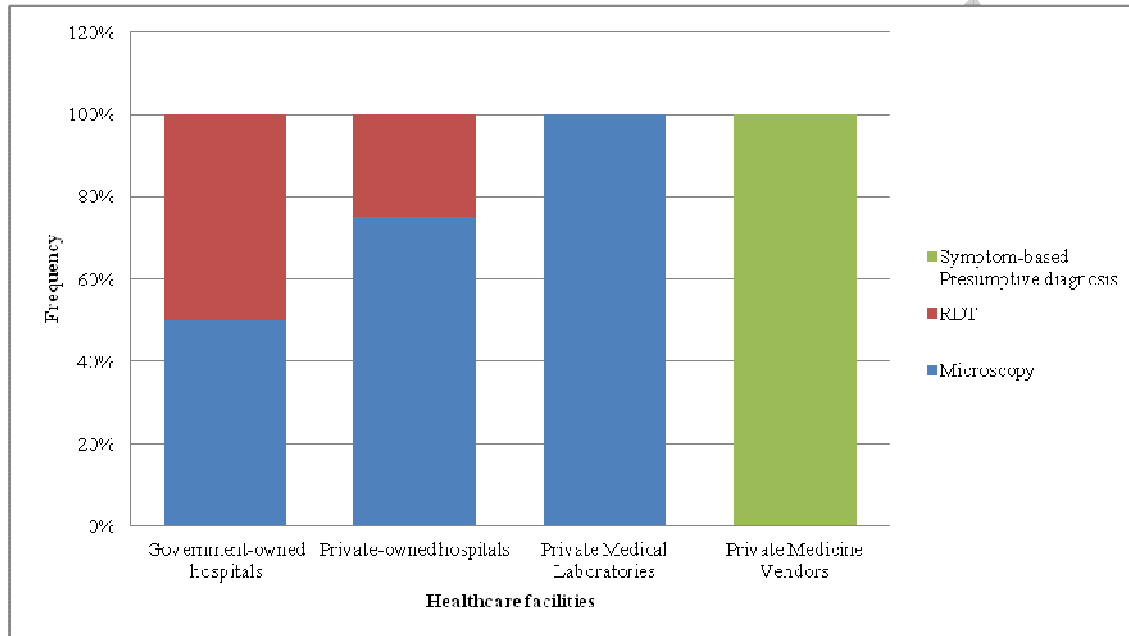
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388 Figure 1: Malaria diagnostic methods used in healthcare facilities studied.

389

390 **FIGURE**

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394 Figure 2: Malaria diagnostic methods used in healthcare facilities studied.

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