

Journal of Parasitology and Vector Biology

Full Length Research Paper

# Assessment of the performance of malaria rapid diagnostic test in acutely malnourished children under five years of age in Nanoro - Burkina Faso

Olivier O. Sombié<sup>1,2,3</sup>\* Souheila Abbeddou<sup>3</sup>, Adama Kazienga<sup>2</sup>, Innocent Valea<sup>2</sup>, Anne Marie Moulin<sup>4</sup>, Augustin N. Zeba<sup>1</sup>, Herve Kpoda<sup>5</sup>, Virginio Pietra<sup>6</sup> and Halidou Tinto<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institut de Recherche en Sciences de la Santé, Direction Régionale de l'Ouest, BP 545, Bobo Dioulasso, Burkina Faso.
<sup>2</sup>Clinical Research Unit of Nanoro, BP 218, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.
<sup>3</sup>Food Safety and Nutrition Unit, Department of Public Health and Primary Care, Ghent University, Ghent, 9000 Belgium.
<sup>4</sup>Health Department, Senghor University in Alexandria, Egypt.

<sup>5</sup>Centre Muraz, BP 390, BoboDioulasso, Burkina Faso.

<sup>6</sup>Medicus Mundi, Italy.

Received 1 June 2019; Accepted 17 October, 2019

The interaction of malaria with malnutrition is complex. In areas where malnutrition among children is prevalent, management of malaria is not standardized. In Burkina Faso, malaria treatment is prescribed after positive malaria rapid diagnostic test (RDT) or thick blood smears confirmation regardless of the nutritional status of the child. The study aims to assess the performance of malaria RDT in acute malnourished children under five years of age. A descriptive cross-sectional study was carried out from June 1<sup>st</sup> to August 31<sup>th</sup> 2014 in the health district of Nanoro in Burkina Faso. The study involved the children less than 5 years of age who were admitted for acute malnutrition and tested for malaria using RDT. The diagnostic values were then assessed for their agreement with the gold standard of the World Health Organization (thick blood smears) using Cohen-Kappa coefficient. In total, RDT and thick blood smear results were obtained from 131 children (aged 1-59 months). RDT was positive in 87 tested children (66.4%), while the thick smear indicated that only 47 were infected by malaria (35.9%) and Cohen kappa coefficient was 0.44. The sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value and negative predictive value of RDT for malaria compared to microscopy were respectively 100% (95% CI: 92.5 -100), 52.4% (95% CI: 51.1 - 52.9), 54% (95% CI: 43 - 64.8), 100% (95% CI: 92.5 - 100). Their timeliness was 8 min (± 3.47 min). Using malaria RDT in acutely malnourished children results in high number of false positive.

**Key words:** Performance, sensitivity, specificity, acute malnutrition, rapid diagnostic test, thick blood smear, Burkina Faso.

# INTRODUCTION

Malnutrition is a pathological condition resulting from the deficiency, excess or imbalance in intake of one or more macronutrients and/or micronutrients. It compromises natural immunity leading to increased susceptibility

to infections such as malaria (Caulfield et al., 2004). Malnutrition is a major public health problem (Food and Agricultural Organization, 2012).

Malaria is a public health problem (World Health

Organization, 2017) and it is a major cause of mortality in countries where it remains endemic. According to the WHO report data in 2017, an estimated 216 million cases of malaria occurred worldwide with 445,000 malaria deaths (WHO, 2017). Africa region is the most affected, with children less than five years of age and pregnant women being the most affected (Burki, 2013; WHO, 2017). The problem of the malaria-malnutrition interaction is complex (Lapidus et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2003; Oldenburg et al., 2018). But as reported previously, this association seems to be common in endemic countries (Lapidus et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2003; Oldenburg et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2003; Nyakeriga et al., 2004; Osterbauer et al., 2012; Shankar, 2000).

In Burkina Faso, despite the public health importance of both malaria and malnutrition, there are no national data on their association and co-occurrence. A hospitalbased study carried out in Kaya (Center North of Burkina Faso) in 2013 estimated that one fifth of the acutely malnourished children were affected by malaria (Ouedraogo et al., 2013). Since 2013, with the WHO recommendation on the use of RDT for malaria, new auidelines on the implementation of histidine-rich protein 2 (HRP2)-based RDT were adopted for all patients with fever living in localities where microscopy is not available regardless of their nutritional status (Ministère de la Sanè du Burkina Faso, Programme National de Lutte Contre le Paludisme, 2014). Results obtained by both tests, RDT and microscopy are not always consistent. RDT antigenbased tests can be positive for a certain period postinfection even if the infection has been treated and the parasite has been cleared (WHO/Roll Back Malaria. 2005). The antigen HRP2 remains in the bloodstream for up to five weeks, time by which the parasite has been cleared probably by treatment, that is, the microscopy would be negative. The difference could be due to the cross-reactions with heterophile antibodies in the patient's plasma when using OptiMAL-IT (DiaMed Basel, Switzerland) as the RDT (Valea et al., 2009). From another hand, it has been shown that malaria infection can be detected by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) in samples negative for microscopy but positive by RDT (Berzosa et al., 2018; Fancony et al., 2013; Moody, 2002; Okell et al., 2009; Tham et al., 1999). The WHO strategy on the diagnosis of malaria in endemic areas in the community using RDT has been implemented with no evidence on its sensitivity and specificity in malnourished patients. We hypothesize that differences between the two tests RDT and microscopy will be exacerbated in these children. In the present analysis, we aimed at testing the diagnostic performance of HRP2 -RDT for malaria compared to microscopy in malnourished children.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Study site and period

This study was carried out between June 1<sup>st</sup> and August 31<sup>th</sup> 2014, which corresponded to the rainy season in the region by the Clinical Research Unit of Nanoro (CRUN). It included six health centers of the Nanoro Health District: four peripheral health centers (Godo, Séguédin, Soum and Nazoanga) and two health facilities in the city of Nanoro. Nanoro is located at 85 km from Ouagadougou, the capital city of Burkina Faso. It is an agricultural area which depends entirely on rainfall. Rainfall is capricious and insufficient. It varies between 450 and 700 mm per year (District Sanitaire de Nanoro). Malaria is hyper endemic in the area (Derra et al., 2012). The district has two centers for education and raising awareness regarding nutrition and hygiene in the community located in Nanoro and Nazoanga. The district has another center of rehabilitation and nutritional education (CRNE) for treatment of children with severe acute malnutrition.

## Study population

In this descriptive cross-sectional study, 0-5 year old children of both sex living in Nanoro health district area who attended, during the study period, the outpatient clinic at one of the collection sites were included. Other health conditions were not considered in the inclusion or exclusion criteria (that is, children with reported or diagnosed infectious diseases such as HIV or tuberculosis were included). The outpatient clinic is a community health center that screens children for acute malnutrition; treats children with moderate acute malnutrition while refers children with severe acute malnutrition to the CRNE. Data were collected in children suffering from acute malnutrition indicated by a weight-for-length/height Z score  $\leq$  -2 Standard Deviations (SD) of the median of the WHO (2006) and followed up by "Emergency Against Acute Malnutrition in the North Center" for treatment.

## Laboratory procedures

Malaria RDT, SD Bioline Ag Pf / Pan (Standard Diagnosis, Korea) was used throughout this study in all sites. The test was performed according to the manufacturer instructions as follow. Trained nurses held the finger of the patient and cleaned it using the alcohol swab provided in the test kit. The fingertip is let to dry and then it is slightly pressed and pricked with a sterile lancet. A blood drop (5  $\mu$ I) is collected using a capillary tube (included in the test kit) and deposited in the round hole (hole "S" of test cassette). Four drops of the buffer are added carefully in the square hole of the test cassette. The test is read after a waiting period of 5 to 10 min. The appearance of the band C only means the test is negative. When both the control band C and Pf line or the band C and the Pan line are visible, the test is positive. The test is invalid if the band C is not visible and is performed again following the same steps described above (WHO, 2018).

At the same time, in every eligible participant, a thick blood smear was also performed by the trained nurses who carried out the RDT test. The thick blood smear was dried immediately and then transported to the laboratory of the Clinical Research Unit of Nanoro for processing and microscopy. At the laboratory, the slides were dried, stained with Giemsa 10% in water (V/V) (Gupta and

\*Corresponding author. E-mail: \*Corresponding author. E-mail: sombieolivier@yahoo.fr

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> <u>License 4.0 International License</u>

Table 1. Selected population characteristics.

Designation	Value
Female n (%)	69 (52.3)
Median age (months [min-max])	15 [1-59]
Mean temperature (°C ± SD)	37.9 ± 1.08)
Fever <sup>1</sup> or history of fever within 24 h n (%)	107 (81.7)
Severe acute malnutrition <sup>2</sup> n (%)	76 (58.0)
Rural residence n (%)	131 (100)
Mother with no education n (%)	124 (94.7)

<sup>1</sup> Fever is defined as axillary temperature higher than 37.5°C.
<sup>2</sup>Weight-for-length/height Z-score <-3 SD or Weight-for-length/height Z-score <-2 SD + oedema</p>

Singla, 2012) and read after 5 to 10 min by two experienced microscopists. In case of discrepancy of the two results, a third reading was done. The microscopists were not involved in performing the RDT, and were masked to the results of the RDT as well as to the clinical status (febrile or non-febrile) of the children. A number of microscopic fields corresponding to 200 White Blood Cells were read in the thick film. The parasite density was calculated (for *Plasmodium falciparum* only) in the conventional way according to the WHO criteria.

#### Sample size calculation

To our knowledge, there were no previous studies that assessed the performance of RDT compared to the gold standard "microscopy" in moderate and severe malnourished children. The sample size calculation was based on "exhaustive inclusion", that is, we included all the eligible participants during the selected period of high malaria transmission ( $1^{st}$  June –  $31^{st}$  August).

#### **Ethical considerations**

Local authorities (physician responsible of the district, director of the Medical Center with Surgical Antenna Saint Camille of Nanoro, Clinical Research Unit of Nanoro, center of rehabilitation and nutritional education' Chief, the physician in charge of the Medical Center with Surgical Antenna Saint Camille of Nanoro) were informed of the investigation and their authorization was acquired before starting the study activities. Study protocol was also approved by the local ethical committee of "Institut de Recherche en Sciences de la Santé".

The field team has been trained to follow good clinical practices and study survey procedures. Before collecting patient's data, informed consent was obtained from the legal guardian accompanying the child participating in the study. Legal guardians were informed that their participation in the study is not compulsory nor a condition to benefit from the medical care of their child. In addition, it was agreed that the information collected in this study are and will remain confidential.

#### Data analysis

Results obtained by RDT and microscopy were coded independently by two data clerks using the software Open Clinica Version 3.1.4. Descriptive statistics was performed using proportions, means or median. Additionally, the performance of RDT was evaluated by calculating the sensitivity, the specificity, positive predictive value, the negative predictive value, and the timeliness as follow:

Sensitivity: True Positive / (True Positive + False Negative) Specificity: True Negative / (True Positive + True Negative) Positive predictive value: True Positive / (True Positive + False Positive) Negative predictive value: True Negative / (False Negative + True Negative)

Timeliness is the average of time required to get the RDT result (a sum of the time required for each RDT test divided by the number of tests). Additionally, the diagnosis accuracy (DA, a proportion of correctly classified subjects [True Positive + True Negative] among all subjects) and the Youden's index were also calculated. Youden's index is calculated by deducting 100 from the sum of test's sensitivity and specificity expressed as percentage (Ana-Maria, n.d.). Furthermore, the agreement between the microscopy and the RDT was computed using the Cohen-Kappa coefficient. Data were analyzed using the Stata10 -IC software (stata Corp LLC, TX).

## RESULTS

A total of 131 malnourished children aged 1-59 months were enrolled in this study, two thirds were severely acute malnourished (defined as weight-for-length/height z-score less than -3 SD), and 52.3% were females. Measured fever or history of fever during the previous 24 h was reported in 81.7% of children. Patients' socio-demographic characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

RDT was positive in 66.4% of the tested children while the blood smear microscopy showed that only 35.9% were positive. There was a significant agreement between the microscopy and the RDT although moderate with a Cohen Kappa coefficient of 0.44 (p < 0.0001). Based on these data, we calculated the statistical measures of the RDT performance compared to microscopy which is the gold standard of the WHO (Table 2). The results showed that RDT was sensitive at 100% (95% Confidence Interval CI: 92.5 - 100) and specific at 52.4% (95% CI: 51.7 - 52.9). The RDT has positive predictive value of 54.0% (95% CI: 43 - 64.8), a negative predictive value of 100% (95% CI: 92.5 -100), a diagnostic accuracy of 69% and the Youndex Index of

Accuracy parameter	Value % (n/N)	Confidence intervals (95% CI)
Sensitivity	100(47/47)	92.5 – 100
Specificity	52.38(44/84)	41.19 – 63.40
Positive predictive value	54.02(47/87)	48.42 – 59.52
Negative predictive value	100(44/44)	93.5 – 100

 Table 2. Diagnostic performance of RDT compared to microscopy (gold standard) for malaria detection.

52%.

The average time to obtain a result (timeliness, mean  $\pm$  SD) was 8  $\pm$  3.47 min. While, a thick blood smear requires in average 5 - 10 min for a microscopists to complete the reading. In this study, we have not recorded the timeliness of the microscopy test. Regarding the RDT results, 58.6% (51/87) of malaria cases were associated with assessed fever or a history of fever within the 24 h before outpatient facility. And according to the microscopy, 66.0% (31/47) of malaria cases were associated with fever or a history of fever within 24 h.

## DISCUSSION

Malaria prevalence as tested by the RDT was almost two fold higher than malaria prevalence assessed by bloodsmear microscopy. This difference between the two tests could mainly be explained by the RDT characteristics, the high number of false positive malaria cases in an endemic area, the compromised nutritional status and immune system in case of severe acute malnutrition and the high rate of malaria transmission during the rainy season when the study took place. Furthermore the RDT showed a high sensitivity (100%) with a low specificity (52.4%) for the detection of malaria infection compared to the reference blood smear microscopy.

The comparative studies we used are mostly from the general population. It has been systematically reported in other studies that RDT over estimates the prevalence of malaria infection at community level and at the health centers (Table 3) (Abba et al., 2011; Bisoffi et al., 2010; Dongmo, 2012; Ilombe et al., 2014; Ogouyèmi-Hounto et al., 2013; Samadoulougou et al., 2014; Valea et al., 2009). It is noteworthy to highlight that the prevalence found by the RDT and blood-smear microscopy were closer when malaria infection was not endemic and when the diagnosis was performed in symptoms suggestive of malaria cases vs. in community screening in malaria endemic areas.

The sensitivity found in this study was higher than that found by a meta-analysis combining over 70 studies in the general population [95.0%] (Abba et al., 2011). Predictably, the specificity found in this study was either lower or in the same range of specificity found in other studies in community or health settings in the general

population. The characteristics of the RDT, the endemicity of malaria in the study region, and the high transmission during the rainy season all enhanced the risk of low specificity of the RDT (true positive). Additionally, it is hypothesized that the lower specificity of HRP2-based RDT among malnourished children is related to a weakened immunity which consequently causes a reduction or a lack of production of anti-HRP2 antibodies which neutralize HRP2 produced by malaria parasite. It is noteworthy to mention that the diagnosis of malaria infection based on microscopy might fail to detect submicroscopic infections because the detection limit of the thick film ranges between 10-20 parasites/µl (Haute Autorité de Santé, 2016). Furthermore, RDT is unstable in high temperatures (Valea et al., 2009). This could also apply to the local context where the temperatures are in average above 32°C during storage and in the field.

The low positive predictive value found in this study reflects also the low prevalence of malaria infection reported in this study. The negative predictive value was good and reflects conversely the low prevalence in this study population.

This study showed that in high malaria transmissionsetting and where malnutrition is prevalent, the test should not only be conditioned by the presence of history of fever. Low specificity can result in treatment of fever as symptomatic malaria and may distract the clinician from correct care of the child. From another hand, our study results raise the potential risk of using blood-smear microscopy as the gold standard in high malaria transmission setting where malnutrition is prevalent because of the compromised immune system and the development of malaria disease in low density parasitemia (submicroscopic infections).

We recognize the limitations of our studies that are mainly the small sample size and the lack of tests of other morbidities that are either associated with- or risk factors for moderate and severe acute malnutrition such as HIV and tuberculosis. However, this study could be considered as a pilot study and more studies are needed in the context of infectious diseases (malaria) and malnutrition in order to build the evidence on the proper diagnosis and treatment of malaria. The prevalence of HIV/Tuberculosis are low in the study area (Nanoro Health District, 2014), this would limit their confounding of the findings in this study. Table 3. Accuracy of RDT for malaria among children in few countries.

Study	Population characteristics	Malaria	Accuracy parameters (%)				
		prevalence (Positive blood smear %)	Sensitivity	Specificity	Positive predictive value	Negative predictive value	Special comments
	N: 872 (32% symptomatic)		Community 95.8	79.4	60.0	98.3	
llombe et al. (2014), Democratic Republic of Congo	Age: 0.7-59.9 months enrolled at the community and health center(s)	34.4	Health Center 98.0	66.9	68.8	96.5	Sensitivity of the RDT increased with parasite density.
Samadoulougou et al. (2014), Burkina Faso	N: 6102 Age: 6-59 months All 13 regions	66% (95% CI: 64.8-67.2)	89.9% (95% CI: 89.0-90.8)	50.4% (95% CI: 48.3-52.6)	77.9% (95% Cl: 76.7- 79.1)	72.1% (95% CI: 69.7-74.3)	Highest specificity before the rainy season 71.3% (95% CI: 65.6-77.0) and decreased to 44.3% (95% CI: 41.4-47.2) and 51.9% (95% CI: 48.1-55.7) during and after the rainy season
Dongmo (2012), Cameroon	N:336; Age: 1-79 years (16% were <5 years)	28.0	94.7	95.5	89.0	97.9	
Ogouyèmi-Hounto et al. (2012), Benin	N:354; Age: 6 months- 70 years (43% were <5 years)	22.8	96.3	95.6	86.7	98.9	All the participants were enrolled because of reported fever
Bisoffi et al. (2010), Burkina Faso	All (febrile and non-febrile) patients aged > 6 months N=5,236	Dry season: 17.9	86% (95% CI: 78-92%)	90% (95% CI: 86-92)	72% (95% CI: 63-79)	95% (95% CI: 92-97)	RDT performed only if patient
		Rainy season: 49.0	94% (95% CI: 92-96)	78% (95% CI: 72-83%)	88% (95% CI: 85-91)	88% (95% CI: 83-92)	had T° ≥ 37.5
Valéa et al. (2009), Burkina Faso	N: 464 Age: 6–59 months	82.8	98.7% (95% CI: 97.6–99.8)	96.2% (95% CI: 94.3–98.1)	99.2	93.9	All children reported for suspected malaria

## Conclusion

RDT allows timely management of malnourished patients with febrile illness and restricts the use of antimalarial drugs to true positive malaria cases. In malnourished children the test has a low specificity compromising the treatment of malnourished children which have an already weakened immune system. Although RDT has low specificity in malnourished children, their performance was overall satisfactory in current conditions of use. Additionally, the study questions whether thick blood smear test and conditioning the malaria test only in febrile cases are appropriate in cases of severe acute malnutrition. More work needs to be carried out in the context of malnutrition and malaria before drawing an evidence-base recommendation on the best practices for malaria test and treatment in malnourished children. Until then, we recommend using RDT systematically in the case of acute malnutrition.

## **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors appreciate the study participants, their parents/guardians for participating in this study.

#### REFERENCES

- Abba K, Deeks JJ, Olliaro PL, Naing CM, Jackson SM, Takwoingi Y, Donegan S, Garner P (2011). Rapid diagnostic tests for diagnosing uncomplicated P. falciparum malaria in endemic countries. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (7).
- Berzosa P, de Lucio A, Romay-Barja M, Herrador Z, Gonzalez V, Garcia L, Fernandez-Martinez A, Santana-Morales M, Ncogo P, Valladares B, Riloha M, Benito A (2018). Comparison of three diagnostic methods (microscopy, RDT, and PCR) for the detection of malaria parasites in representative samples from Equatorial Guinea. Malaria Journal 17(1):333.
- Bisoffi Z, Sirima SB, Menten J, Pattaro C, Angheben A, Gobbi F, Tinto H, Lodesani C, Ne B, Gobbo M, Van den Ende J (2010). Accuracy of a rapid diagnostic test on the diagnosis of malaria infection and of malaria-attributable fever during low and high transmission season in Burkina Faso. Malaria Journal 9:192.
- Burki TK (2013). Malaria and malnutrition: Niger's twin crises. The Lancet 382(9892):587-588.
- Caulfield LE, de Onis M, Blossner M, Black RE (2004). Undernutrition as an underlying cause of child deaths associated with diarrhea, pneumonia, malaria, and measles. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 80(1):193-198.
- Derra K, Rouamba E, Kazienga A, Ouedraogo S, Tahita MC, Sorgho H, Valea I, Tinto H (2012). Profile: Nanoro Health and Demographic Surveillance System. International Journal of Epidemiology 41(5):1293-1301.
- Dongmo NT (2012). Etude comparative d'un Test de Diagnostic Rapide du paludisme (TDR) avec la Goutte Epaisse (GE) à l'hôpital régional de Bafoussam au Cameroun (Master): Université Dschang, Cameroon; 2012.
- Fançony C, Sebastião YV, Pires JE, Gamboa D, Nery SV (2013). Performance of microscopy and RDTs in the context of a malaria prevalence survey in Angola: a comparison using PCR as the gold standard. Malaria Journal 12(1):284.
- Food and Agriculture Organization, International Fund for Agricultural Development, World Food Programme. L'état de l'insécurité alimentaire dans le monde 2012. La croissance économique est nécessaire mais elle n'est pas suffisante pour accélérer la réduction de la faim et de la malnutrition. Rome, Italy: FAO; 2012.
- Gupta SK, Singla LD (2012). Diagnostic trends in parasitic diseases of animals. In: Veterinary Diagnostics: Current Trends. Gupta RP, Garg SR, Nehra V and Lather D (Eds), Satish Serial Publishing House, Delhi, pp. 81-112
- Haute Autorité de Santé (2016). Modification of the Nomenclature of Procedures in Laboratory Medicine for the diagnostic laboratory procedures for Plasmodium infections (malaria). https://www.hassante.fr/upload/docs/application/pdf/2017-

01/dir1/inahta\_brief\_plasmodium\_infections.pdf

- Ilombe G, Maketa V, Mavoko HM, da Luz RI, Lutumba P, Van geertruyden JP (2014). Performance of HRP2-based rapid test in children attending the health centre compared to asymptomatic children in the community. Malaria Journal 13:308.
- Lapidus N, Minetti A, Djibo A, Guerin PJ, Hustache S, Gaboulaud V, Grais RF (2009). Mortality risk among children admitted in a largescale nutritional program in Niger, 2006. PloS One 4(1):e4313.
- Ministere de la Sante du Burkina Faso (2014). Programme National de Lutte Contre le Paludisme. Directives nationales pour la prise en charge du paludisme dans les formations sanitaires du Burkina Faso.
- Moody A (2002). Rapid diagnostic tests for malaria parasites. Clinical Microbiology Reviews 15(1):66-78.
- Müller O, Garenne M, Kouyaté B, Becher H (2003). The association between protein–energy malnutrition, malaria morbidity and all-cause mortality in West African children. Tropical Medicine and International Health 8(6):507-511.

Nanoro Health District (2014). Plan d'action 2014. Internal document.

- Nyakeriga AM, Troye-Blomberg M, Chemtai AK, Marsh K, Williams TN (2004). Malaria and nutritional status in children living on the coast of Kenya. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 80(6):1604-1610.
- Ogouyèmi-Hounto A, Kinde-Gazard D, Keke C, Gonçalves E, Alapini N, Adjovi F, Adisso L, Bossou C, Denon Y, Massougbodji A (2013). Évaluation d'un test de diagnostic rapide et d'un microscope à fluorescence portable pour le diagnostic du paludisme à Cotonou (Bénin). Bulletin de la Société de Pathologie Exotique 106(1):27-31.
- Okell LC, Ghani AC, Lyons E, Drakeley CJ (2009). Submicroscopic infection in Plasmodium falciparum-endemic populations: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Journal of Infectious Diseases. 200(10):1509-1517.
- Oldenburg CE, Guerin PJ, Berthe F, Grais RF, Isanaka S (2018). Malaria and Nutritional Status Among Children With Severe Acute Malnutrition in Niger: A Prospective Cohort Study. Clinical Infectious Diseases 67(7):1027-1034.
- Osterbauer B, Kapisi J, Bigira V, Mwangwa F, Kinara S, Kamya MR, Dorsey G (2012). Factors associated with malaria parasitaemia, malnutrition, and anaemia among HIV-exposed and unexposed Ugandan infants: a cross-sectional survey. Malaria Journal 11(1):432.
- Ouedraogo S, Koueta F, Dembele E, Konate C, Kabore A, Sawadogo H, Dao L, Nacro B, Kam L, Ye D (2013). Facteurs de risque de mortalité au cours de la malnutrition aiguë sévère dans le service de pédiatrie du Centre Hospitalier Régional (CHR) de Kaya. Clinics in Mother and Child Health (10).
- Samadoulougou S, Kirakoya-Samadoulougou F, Sarrassat S, Tinto H, Bakiono F, Nebie I, Robert A (2014). Paracheck(R) rapid diagnostic test for detecting malaria infection in under five children: a populationbased survey in Burkina Faso. Malaria Journal 13(1):101.
- Shankar AH (2000). Nutritional modulation of malaria morbidity and mortality. Journal of Infectious Diseases. 182 Suppl 1:S37-53.
- Tham JM, Lee SH, Tan TM, Ting RC, Kara UA (1999). Detection and species determination of malaria parasites by PCR: comparison with microscopy and with ParaSight-F and ICT malaria Pf tests in a clinical environment. Journal of Clinical Microbiology 37(5):1269-1273.
- Valea I, Tinto H, Nikiema M, Yamuah L, Rouamba N, Drabo M, Guiguemde RT, d'Alessandro U (2009). Performance of OptiMAL-IT compared to microscopy, for malaria detection in Burkina Faso. Tropical Medicine and International Health 14(3):338-340.
- WHO/Roll Back Malaria (2005). Malaria and malnutrition. Best practices and lessons learnt from implementing malaria control in complex emergencies in Africa 2000–2004. Geneva, Switzerland; 2005.
- World Health Organisation (2006). WHO Child Growth Standards: Length/height-for-age, weight-for-age, weight-for-length, weight-forheight and body mass index-for-age: Methods and development. Geneva, Switzerland 2006.
- World Health Organization (2017). World malaria report 2017. Geneva, Switzerland.
- World Health Organization (2018). WHO Prequalification of In Vitro Diagnostics. Public Report. Product: SD BIOLINE Malaria Ag P.f/P.f/P.v. 2018 December 2018. Contract No.: WHO reference number: PQDx 0297-012-00.