

Original Research Article

Epidemiology of Coccidian Parasites in HIV Patients of Northern Uganda

ABSTRACT

Aim: The epidemiology of coccidian parasites in HIV patients of sub-sahara Africa is poorly understood. This study aimed at determining the epidemiology of coccidian parasites and their associated risk factors. This was a cross sectional study carried out in Arua district in West Nile region of Northern Uganda for a period of five months.

Materials and methods: Participants in the study included HIV positive patients presenting with diarrhea. A total of 111 patients were included and classified into children, middle aged and adults. A structured questionnaire was administered, stool samples were obtained using sterile stool containers and laboratory analysis carried out using modified Ziehl-Neelsen technique (ZN). Ethical clearance was acquired and the consent of the patients was sought.

Results and discussion: Prevalence of Coccidian parasites among HIV patients was found to be 5.4% and *Cryptosporidium parvum* showed more prevalence than *Isospora belli* and *cyclospora cayatenensis* i.e. (3.6%), (1.8%) and (0.0%) respectively. Most *Cryptosporidium parvum* infections occurred in children (13.6%) compared to adults (3.3%); with a significant relationship of ($p = 0.02$). The infection was higher in females (7.1%) than males (2.4%) ($p = 0.19$). The major risk factors associated with the disease were mainly consumption of contaminated and un-boiled water from taps and boreholes.

HIV patients who took co-trimoxazole and drunk boiled water were shown to have a low prevalence of coccidian parasites of 1.9% and 2.6% respectively ($p < 0.05$). This is because co-trimoxazole is a prophylactic drug for opportunistic infections and proper boiling of drinking water kills coccidian parasites.

Conclusion and recommendations: The study highlighted the importance and need to screen for coccidian parasites and emphasis on regular taking of prophylactic treatment as a way of controlling opportunistic infections in HIV patients. Future prevalence studies of *Coccidia* amongst healthy, HIV sero-negative children and adults of similar age groups in similar settings are recommended to ratify the relationship.

Keywords: "Epidemiology of coccidia in Humans," "Coccidia in HIV patients," "Coccidia risk factors," "Cryptosporidium in Uganda," "Diarrhea in HIV patients."

1. INTRODUCTION

Coccidian parasitic infections have altered the epidemiology and outcome of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) patients in sub-sahara Africa [1]. Diarrhea has been identified as a major presenting complaint in HIV-infected patients. It is estimated worldwide that about 3.5 billion people are infected, and that 450 million are ill as a result of intestinal parasites (coccidian parasites) and protozoan infections and that the majority are pre-school and school going children [2]. It is basically children from poor countries that are often more

prone to these intestinal parasitic infections due to high poverty levels, poor sanitation and low literacy levels in the region [3].

A recent study in Kenya has shown that *Entamoeba histolytica* /*Entamoeba dispar* (*E. histolytica*/*E. dispar*), 225 (36.7%), *Cryptosporidium* spp. 187, (30.5%), *Giardia lamblia*, 98 (16%) were higher in children (<5 years) and that *E. histolytica*/*E. dispar*, and *Giardia lamblia* (*G. lamblia*) were higher among outpatients than inpatients (13.8% vs 1.3% $p < 0.001$ and 5.8% vs 1.3% $p < 0.049$) respectively [4]. Intestinal parasitic infections have enormous effects on the general health of an HIV infected person [5] and Uganda being part of sub-sahara Africa is already overburdened by HIV infection. These patients often suffer from frequent episodes of diarrhea that is accompanied with severe dehydration, loss of weight and muscle wasting which can be fatal [6]. Because of delayed diagnosis of these pathogens, patients usually take self-medication or local herbs without prescription from a qualified health worker which has resulted into improper management of the disease. Liberalization of the medical drug industry and poorly regulated herbal therapies by governments with in sub-sahara Africa is probably linked to UN ending self-medication in sub-sahara Africa [1, 7, and 8].

Generally, the epidemiology of coccidian parasites in HIV patients of sub-sahara origin is still poorly understood. In a recent study in Ethiopia [9], prevalence of gastrointestinal coccidian parasites was shown to be 18% - 40% among patients that presented with diarrhea. A similar study in Uganda in HIV sero negative children 9-36 months revealed that out about 930 fecal samples that were examined, 116(12.5%) were *Cryptosporidium* positive [10]. Infection with *Cryptosporidium* spp. was found to be associated with lowered immunity and the major risk factors were absence of toilets, water source and poor standards of living [4]. In a previous study in Ethiopia also, the prevalence of *Cryptosporidium* spp. and *Isospora belli* (*I. belli*) were shown to be 20.8% and 7.9% respectively in HIV patients [11]. In a recent study in Kenya [12], it was shown that there was a prevalence of 50.9% of enteric parasites which were waterborne. The major risk factors identified in the study were; place of residence, agro-ecological, water source, family size, location, reliability to treatment and diarrheal status probably due to poor environmental sanitation and personal hygiene, food and individual contamination probably due to poor management and care of HIV patients [12]. Contamination of water with coccidian species has been reported at national water storage facilities [13]. Infection rates are highest in children living in sub-sahara Africa and clinical cases are expected to be higher than reported due to limited infrastructure and research in the region [14, 15]. The current control strategies are towards community drug delivery of anti-helminthic drugs against intestinal parasites but there is none against coccidian parasites [8]. Stimulating research and development in rural communities through support of clinical trials to improve treatment and increasing drug availability, needs governmental funding and resources that do not presently exist in most sub-sahara health care facilities [15]. Coccidian parasites are well recognized and account for about 20% of diarrheal episodes in children in developing countries and up to 9% of episodes in developed settings and causes a considerable amount of diarrheal illness in young farm animals worldwide [7]. Sporadic outbreaks among children in developed countries have been reported due to fecal-oral transmission [1]. Epidemiological variations have been observed in the socioeconomic and geographical effects of the distribution of coccidian parasites in humans that may influence the sources and routes of transmission. The study was carried out to highlight the importance of screening for intestinal coccidian parasites among HIV patients and also to emphasize the necessity of increasing awareness among clinicians regarding the occurrence and management of these parasites in the region.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

This was a cross sectional study carried out in Arua regional referral hospital (ARRH) in Arua district of Northern Uganda for a period of five months (January to May 2013). Arua district is located in a corner of West Nile region of Uganda and it borders both South Sudan and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Arua District has five counties which are all served by Arua regional referral hospital majorly. Being at the border of two countries, the major economic activity in the region is cross-border trade. There is also a high influx of refugees from South Sudan and now the natural environment in the district has been severely stressed in some areas and levels of hygiene have declined due to increase in population. Participants in the study included HIV positive patients both rural, urban or refugees who attended ARRH and presented with diarrhea. The exclusion criteria included participants who did not present with diarrhea and were HIV sero negative. The entry point to the study was Arua hospital HIV clinic with in ARRH. The criteria for choosing participants in the study were based on hospital records for their HIV status and only those presenting with diarrhea were selected into the study after their consent. For children, consent was sought from their guardians/parents after explaining to them the aim of the study and stool collection procedure was explained to them. A total of 111 participants were included and classified as children (10-19 years), middle age (20-39 years) and adults (40-69 years). A control group of 31 participants (11 children, 10 middle aged and 10 adults) who were HIV positive but had no diarrhea were randomly chosen for the study. Structured questions like "Where do you collect water for domestic use?" "Do you boil drinking water?" were administered to individual participants in a language best understood to them. Procedures for stool collection were well explained and stool samples were collected in sterile stool containers. Laboratory analysis was carried on fresh stool samples 2 hours after stool collection using formol ether concentration technique and modified Ziehl-Neelsen. Briefly; 10 ml of 10% formol-saline was added to approximately 2mg (matchstick head size) of semi formed/diarrheic faeces in a centrifuge tube, stirred using an applicator stick and filtered into another centrifuge tube. 3 ml of ether was added, mixed well and centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 5 minutes. The sediment was then re-suspended after removing supernatant by tapping the bottom of the tube, mixed well and transferred to a slide for microscopic examination under a cover slip and viewed under microscope x10 objective and the findings were recorded. A small portion of the stool sediment that was concentrated was taken and a smear made on a clean slide. The smear was allowed to air dry then fixed with absolute methanol. The smear was stained with strong carbol fuchsin for 30 minutes, decolorised with 1% acid alcohol and rinsed with water and counter stained with 0.1% methylene blue (alkaline). The slides were viewed under x100 objective and recorded. Data obtained was recorded as frequency and expressed as percentages. Descriptive analysis using statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) version 20 was carried out to determine associations and a p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. All participants' results and details were confidentially kept by the researchers. A copy of this research report was submitted to the Department of Medical Laboratory Sciences and Mbarara University of science and technology research Ethical Committee for approval. Permission was sought from the hospital director, laboratory in-charge and head of HIV clinic Arua regional referral hospital. The purpose of this study including the procedure of specimen collection was explained to the participants. Consent of the patients was sought prior to recruitment for the study and the consent form was filled and signed by the patients. The consent form was translated into the local language and all participants/patients understood all the details of the study. Laboratory results of the patients were given to the clinicians concerned and all patients/participants were guided on how to get their results or any help from the hospital.

3. RESULTS

The study showed Coccidian prevalence of 6 (5.4%) in HIV patients with diarrhea. No coccidian parasites were identified in the control group of HIV positive participants without diarrhea as shown in Table 1. The most prevalent coccidian species that were identified included *Cryptosporidium* spp. and *Isospora belli* i.e. (3.6%) and (1.8%) respectively. There was no *Cyclospora cayetensis* identified as shown in Table 1. From Table 2, out of the study group it was shown that the distribution of coccidian parasites was greater in females with an occurrence of 7.1% as compared to 2.4% among the male population. For both *Cryptosporidiosis* and *I. belli*, univariate analysis did not show any significant differences in infection between males and females, ($P = 0.19$), however, HIV seropositive children with diarrhea (10-19) were three times more likely to be infected with coccidian parasites than the HIV seropositive age groups 20-39 and 40-69 years i.e. 13.6%, 3.4% and 3.3% respectively. Further analysis showed that age was significantly associated with *Cryptosporidium* spp. infection, whereby the prevalence was tending to be highest in children aged 10-19 years being twice more than occurrence in participants of age group 20-39 years (at 95% CI, $P = 0.021$) as shown in Table 3 that *Cryptosporidium* spp. was 3/3 (100%) in 10-19 age group and 1/2 (50%) among ages 20-39 years. As regards to *I. belli*, it was the least common species with 1/1 (100%) occurrence in age group 40-69 years, 1/2 (25%) in ages 20-39 and none in children 0/3 (10-19). There was no significant relationship between *I. belli* and age ($P = 0.15$). From Table 4, the risk factors associated with diarrhea among those with coccidia were shown to be majorly in those who consumed raw drinking water from taps and bore holes i.e. 12.9% and 2.7% respectively and further statistical analysis showed there existed no significant relationship ($P = 0.19$). Most people collected their water from bore holes (74/111) and taps (31/111) compared to river (2/111) and community wells (4/111) as shown in Table 4. From the study group, HIV patients who drunk raw water and were not taking co-trimoxazole had a tendency towards higher prevalence of coccidian parasites of 6.9% and 8.5% respectively as compared to tendency towards a lower prevalence of those who took boiled water (2.6%) and were on co-trimoxazole (1.9%) as shown in Table 4. Further analysis showed there is a strong relationship ($P < 0.05$) in HIV patients who take boiled water as well as prophylactic treatment. There were different causes of diarrhea that were identified during the study however emphasis of the researchers was mainly put on coccidian parasites. Some of the incidental findings included; *E. histolytica*/*E. dispar*, *G. lamblia*, *Ascaris lumbricoides* (*A. lumbricoides*), *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*), *Trichuris trichiura* (*T. trichiura*) and Hook worms. Some of the patients presented with mixed infections and commonest parasite found was *G. lamblia* and *E. histolytica*/*E. dispar*. Tendency to show higher prevalence was seen to be among children (10-19) as shown in Table 5.

Table 1. Prevalence of coccidian parasites among HIV positive patients with diarrhoea compared to HIV positive controls without diarrhoea

Species	Coccidian	No coccidian Frequency (%)	Total
Study group	6 (5.4)	105 (94.6)	111 (100)
Control group	0 (0)	32 (100)	32 (100)
<i>Cryptosporidium</i> spp.	4 (3.6)	107 (96.4)	111 (100)
<i>I. belli</i>	2 (1.8)	109 (98.2)	111 (100)
<i>C. cayatenensis</i>	0 (0)	111 (100)	111 (100)
Total	6 (5.4)	105 (94.6)	111 (100)

168
169
170
171

Table 2. Distribution of coccidian parasites by sex and age

		Frequency (%)		
		Coccidia	No coccidia	Total
Sex	Female	5 (7.1)	65 (92.9)	70 (100)
	Male	1 (2.4)	40 (95.6)	41 (100)
	Total	6 (5.4)	105 (94.6)	111 (100)
Age	10-19	3 (13.6)	19 (86.4)	22 (100)
	20-39	2 (3.4)	57 (96.6)	59 (100)
	40-69	1 (3.3)	29 (96.7)	30 (100)
	Total	6 (5.4)	105 (94.6)	111 (100)

172
173
174
175
176

Table 3. Distribution of coccidian species by sex and age

		<i>Cryptosporidium</i> spp.	<i>I. belli</i>	Total
Sex	Female	3 (60)	2 (40)	5 (100)
	Male	1 (100)	0 (0)	1 (100)
	Total	4 (66.7)	2 (33.3)	6 (100)
Age	10-19	3 (100)	0 (0)	3 (100)
	20-39	1 (50)	1 (50)	2 (100)
	40-69	0 (0)	1 (100)	1 (100)
	Total	4 (66.7)	2 (33.3)	6 (100)

177
178
179
180

Table 4. Risk factors associated with coccidian parasite infection

		Frequency (%)		
		Coccidia	No coccidia	Total
Water source	Bore hole	2 (2.7)	72 (97.3)	74 (100)
	Tap	4 (12.9)	27 (87.1)	31 (100)
	River	0 (0)	2 (100)	2 (100)
	Community well	0 (0)	4 (100)	4 (100)
	Total	6 (5.4)	105 (94.6)	111 (100)
Water quality	Drink boiled water	1 (2.6)	38 (97.4)	39 (100)
	Drink raw water	5 (6.9)	67 (93.1)	72 (100)
	Total	6 (5.4)	106 (94.6)	111 (100)
Prophylaxis treatment	Taking co-trimoxazole	1 (1.9)	51 (98.1)	52 (100)
	Not taking co-trimoxazole	5 (8.5)	54 (91.5)	59 (100)
	Total	6 (5.4)	106 (94.6)	111 (100)

Table 5. Incidental findings in the study

		Parasite						
		<i>E. histolytica</i> / <i>E. dispar</i>	<i>G. lamblia</i>	<i>A. lumbricoides</i>	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>T.trichiura</i>	Hook worms	TOTAL
		Frequency (%)						
Sex	Male	2 (25)	3 (37.5)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)	2 (25)	8 (100)
	Female	3 (30)	4 (40)	1 (10)	0 (0)	1 (10)	1 (10)	10 (100)
	Total	5 (27.7)	7 (38.9)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)	3 (16.7)	18 (100)
Age	10-19	4 (36.4)	3 (27.3)	1 (9.1)	0 (0)	1 (9.1)	2 (18.2)	11 (100)
	20-39	1 (25)	2 (50)	0 (0)	1 (25)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (100)
	40-69	0 (0)	2 (66.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	3 (100)
	Total	5 (27.7)	7 38.9)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)	3 (16.7)	18 (100)
Water quality	Boil water	2 (33.3)	2 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (16.7)	1 (16.7)	0 (0)	6 (100)
	Do not boil water	3 (25)	5 (41.7)	1 (8.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (25)	12 (100)
	Total	5 27.7)	7 (38.9)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)	3 (16.7)	18 (100)

4. DISCUSSION

Intestinal parasitic infections are classified today as the leading causes of mortality and morbidity among patients infected with HIV [6]. Studies from Iran, Ethiopia and Australia have showed that *cryptosporidiosis* is a common opportunistic infection in HIV disease [16, 4, 17]. In a recent research, a comparative study was done comparing prevalence of gastrointestinal protozoa among HIV positive and HIV-negative men in Australia. A total of about 1,868 inpatients was recruited for study; stool specimens collected from them were analysed for presence of gastrointestinal parasites. From the results of the study, it was observed that *C. Parvum* cases occurred more frequent in HIV-positive patients [17].

In most developing countries, co-trimoxazole is used to prevent opportunistic infections; therefore there has been a general decrease in the occurrence of gastrointestinal parasites since *Cryptosporidium* spp., *I. belli* and *C. cayetanensis* are sensitive to this treatment (16).

This study showed prevalence of coccidian parasites of 5.4%; *Cryptosporidium* spp. was twice more prevalent (66.7%) than *I. belli* (33.3%). *Cryptosporidium* spp. were more in age group 10-19 years i.e. 3/3 (100%) of those positive. A study in central Uganda revealed a prevalence of 25% in a population of over 1000 children suffering from diarrhea due to *Cryptosporidium* spp. [18]. Children being major suffers is linked to the mode of transmission of these intestinal parasites (fecal-oral) in relation to personal and community hygiene,

210 because of inadequate knowledge in this group, they tend to suffer the consequences of
211 intestinal parasites.

212 The major risk factor associated with coccidian parasites in the study was consumption of
213 raw drinking water from the bore hole and the taps. Community lifestyle patterns such as
214 poor health hygiene and poor nutritional standards and low education levels have
215 contributed to increased disease burden in rural communities and also the fact that there
216 was scarcity of fire wood, firewood collection sites were far have also promoted challenges
217 in preparation of safe drinking water which is in agreement with a recent study [8]. Poor
218 sanitation habits such as failure to clean water collecting jerricans and water collection areas
219 over long periods of time were some of the factors observed that lead to contamination of
220 water collected from taps and bore holes in the communities [9]. Due to challenges of
221 financing, which is characteristic of sub-sahara African local government, servicing of water
222 pipes is hardly carried out thus leading to sporadic leakages and contamination of the water
223 [15]. This has subsequently led to increased episodes of infections in rural communities that
224 are often forced to share the limited water sources especially in the dry seasons. Patients
225 actively on co-trimoxazole treatment were found to have a low prevalence of coccidian
226 parasites because it is a prophylactic treatment in HIV infection [8]. Due to reduced immunity
227 in acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) disease, prophylactic treatment was given
228 to HIV clients to prevent opportunistic infections such as chronic diarrhea due to
229 gastrointestinal parasites however, abuse of this drug causes resistance to bacteria and
230 coccidia parasites which could have been the reason as to why there were some coccidian
231 parasites detected in a patient on prophylactic treatment. It is therefore recommended to
232 take co-trimoxazole in its full dosage as a prophylactic treatment in management of diarrhea
233 in immune suppressed patients [19].

234 The major risk factors attributed to diarrheal diseases are place of residence, agro-
235 ecological, water source, family size, location, reliability, treatment and diarrheal status
236 probably due to poor environmental sanitation and personal hygiene [12]. Arua being at the
237 boarder of Uganda with Sudan and Congo has contributed to likelihood of poor sanitation
238 due to an increasing population and the area also having few hospitals which cannot handle
239 these growing numbers of population effectively. A recent census in Uganda has shown than
240 the population of Arua district alone has increased from 559,075 persons in 2002 to 785,189
241 persons in 2014 census [20]. Adult females of reproductive age and children in developing
242 countries are more likely to suffer from poor nutrition habits due to shortage of enough food
243 as a result of population raise hence leading to low immunity and being susceptible to
244 secondary infections [21,22,and 23]. Children are associated with a weak immunity and
245 coupled with poor nutritional habits. Inferential analysis showed there is a stronger
246 relationship in drinking boiled water and co-trimoxazole. This would be due to the added
247 advantage of boiled water where by the eggs and parasites are killed thus breaking the
248 lifecycle. Research has shown that consumption of unboiled water is a likely risk factor to
249 water borne diseases [24]. The consequences associated with coccidian parasite infection
250 are the ability to cause chronic diarrhea which leads to severe muscle wasting, dehydration
251 and even death. There is need for the government to strengthen the health system in
252 management and creation of awareness of this disease to all clinicians and immune
253 suppressed persons.

254 Major constraints to the study included; small sample size and limited number of diagnostic
255 tools used due to severe financial constraints.

256

257

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

From the study, it was shown that there was generally a reduced prevalence of coccidian parasites as compared to previous studies in Uganda, Kenya and Ethiopia which can be assumed that perhaps most HIV patients in West Nile region of Uganda do take prophylactic treatment for gastrointestinal diseases.

Routine diagnosis of intestinal coccidia will obviate unnecessary treatment especially in the children who are more likely to suffer from side-effects of anti-parasitic drug therapy well as erroneous treatment with the antibiotics might augment antibiotic resistance amongst the bacterial population as well as altering the normal flora that is usually present in the human gastrointestinal tract thereby rendering it pathogenic.

Further studies to look at prevalence of coccidia among healthy children and adults without HIV in corresponding ages should be considered.

Patients with HIV living in rural communities where it is difficult to access safe drinking water should be encouraged to take prophylactic treatments seriously. A further study should be conducted in the region using a wider array of laboratory diagnostic tools like polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and larger sample size in order to determine the scale of diarrheal diseases in HIV patients in the region.

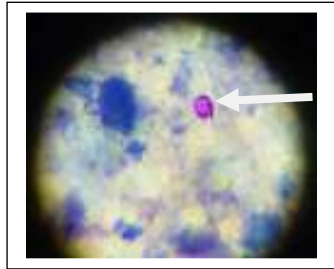
REFERENCES

- [1]. Agholi M, Hatam GR, & Motazedian MH. HIV/AIDS-Associated Opportunistic Protozoal Diarrhea. *AIDS Research and Human Retroviruses*. 2012;29(1):120911064948006. DOI:10.1089/AID.2012.0119.
- [2]. Montresor A, Crompton DWT, Bundy DAP, Hall A, Savioli L. Guidelines for the evaluation of soil-transmitted helminthiasis and schistosomiasis at community level: A guide for managers of control programmes. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 1998; 92(4):470–471.
- [3]. Albonico M, Montresor A, Crompton DW, Savioli L. Intervention for the control of soil-transmitted helminthiasis in the community. *Adv Parasitol*. 2006; 61:311–48.
- [4]. Mbae CK, Nokes DJ, Mulinge E, Nyambura J, Waruru A, & Kariuki S. Intestinal parasitic infections in children presenting with diarrhoea in outpatient and inpatient settings in an informal settlement of Nairobi, Kenya. *BMC Infectious Diseases*. 2013;13(1):1. DOI:10.1186/1471-2334-13-243.
- [5]. Nissapatorn V. Lessons learned about opportunistic infections in southeast Asia. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health*. 2008; 39(4):625–641.
- [6]. Kurniawan A, Karyadi T, Dwintasari SW, Saril P, Yuniastuti E, Djauzi S, Smith HV. Intestinal parasitic infections in HIV/ AIDS patients presenting with diarrhoea in Jakarta, Indonesia. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 2009; 103(9):892–898.
- [7]. Cook, G., C. Tropical medicine. *Postgrad Med J*. 1991; 67:798–822.
- [8]. Fletcher SM, Stark D, Harkness J & Ellis J. Enteric protozoa in the developed world: A public health perspective. *Clin Micro Reviews*. 2012;25(3):420–449. DOI:10.1128/CMR.05038-11.
- [9]. Missaye A, Dagnaw M, Alemu A. Prevalence of intestinal parasites and associated risk factors among HIV/AIDS patients with pre-ART and on-ART attending dessie hospital ART clinic, Northeast Ethiopia. *AIDS Research and Therapy*. 2013;10(1):7. DOI:10.1186/1742-6405-10-7.
- [10]. Mor SM, Tumwine JK, Ndeezi G, Srinivasan MG, Kaddu-mulindwa, DH, Tzipori S, & Griffiths JK. Respiratory cryptosporidiosis in HIV-seronegative children, Uganda: potential for respiratory transmission. *NIH Public Access*. 2011;50(10):1366–1372. DOI:10.1086/652140.
- [11]. Endeshaw T, Mohammed H & Woldemichael T. *Cryptosporidium parvum* and other intestinal parasites among diarrhoeal patients referred to EHNRI in Ethiopia. *Ethiopian*

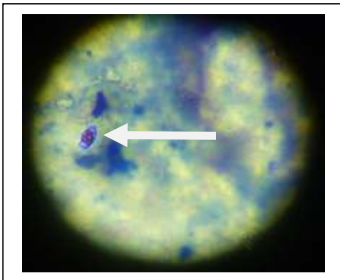
311 Medical Journal. 2004;42(3):195–8. Retrieved from
 312 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16895037>.
 313 [12]. Kipyegen CK, Shivairo RS & Odhiambo RO. Prevalence of intestinal parasites among
 314 HIV patients in Baringo, Kenya. The Pan African Med J. 2012;13, 37.
 315 [13]. Puleston RL, Mallaghan CM, Modha DE, Hunter PR, Nguyen-Van-Tam JS, Regan CM,
 316 Chalmers RM. The first recorded outbreak of cryptosporidiosis due to *Cryptosporidium*
 317 *cuniculus* (formerly rabbit genotype), following a water quality incident. Journal of Water and
 318 Health. 2014;12(1):41–50. DOI:10.2166/wh.2013.097
 319 [14]. Raccurt CP, Fouché B, Agnamey P, Menotti J, Chouaki T, Totet A & Pape JW. Short
 320 report: Presence of *Enterocytozoon bieneusi* associated with intestinal coccidia in patients
 321 with chronic diarrhea visiting an HIV center in Haiti. American Journal of Trop Med & Hyg.
 322 2008;79(4):579–580.
 323 [15]. Michael HO, Horton J & Piero OL. Epidemiology and control of human gastrointestinal
 324 parasites in children. Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther. 2010;8(2):219–234.
 325 DOI:10.1586/eri.09.119.
 326 [16]. Agholi M. HIV/AIDS-Associated Opportunistic Protozoal Diarrhea. *AIDS research and*
 327 *human retroviruses*. 2013;29(1). DOI:10.1089/aid.2012.0119
 328 [17]. Stark D, Fotedar R, Van Hal S, Beebe N, Marriott D, Ellis JT. Prevalence of Enteric
 329 protozoa in HIV positive and HIV-negative men who have sex with men from Sydney,
 330 Australia. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2007;76:549–552.
 331 [18]. Tumwine JK, Kekitiinwa A, Nabukeera N, Akiyoshi DE, Rich SM, Widmer G, Tzipori S.
 332 *Cryptosporidium parvum* in children with diarrhea in Mulago Hospital, Kampala, Uganda.
 333 The American Journal of Trop Med & Hyg. 2003;68(6):710–5. Retrieved from
 334 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12887032>
 335 [19]. Abecasis AB, Wensing AMJ, Paraskevis D, Vercauteren J, Theys K, Van de Vijver DM
 336 C, Vandamme AM. HIV-1 subtype distribution and its demographic determinants in newly
 337 diagnosed patients in Europe suggest highly compartmentalized epidemics. Retrovirology.
 338 2013;10:7. Retrieved from
 339 <http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=3564855&tool=pmcentrez&render>
 340 [type=abstract](http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=3564855&tool=pmcentrez&render)
 341 [20]. <http://www.citypopulation.de/php/uganda-admin.php?adm2id=002>
 342 [21]. Schürmann D, Bergmann F, Albrecht H, Padberg J, Wünsche T, Grünewald T, Suttorp
 343 N. Effectiveness of twice-weekly pyrimethamine-sulfadoxine as primary prophylaxis of
 344 *Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia and toxoplasmic encephalitis in patients with advanced HIV
 345 infection. European Journal of Clin Micro & Infect Dis : Official Publication of the European
 346 Society of Clin Micro. 2002;21(5):353–61. DOI:10.1007/s10096-002-0723-3
 347 [22]. Rogerson SR, Gladstone M, Callaghan M, Erhart L, Rogerson SJ, Borgstein E, &
 348 Broadhead RL. HIV infection among paediatric in-patients in Blantyre, Malawi. Transactions
 349 of the Royal Society of Trop Med & Hyg. 2004;98(9):544–552.
 350 [23]. Behera B, Mirdha BR, Makharia GK, Bhatnagar S, Dattagupta S, & Samantaray JC.
 351 Parasites in patients with malabsorption syndrome: A clinical study in children and adults.
 352 Digestive Diseases and Sciences. 2008; 53(3):672–679.
 353 [24]. Agustina R, Sari TP, Satroamidjojo S, Bovee-oudenhoven IMJ, Feskens EJM, & Kok
 354 FJ. Association of food-hygiene practices and diarrhea prevalence among Indonesian young
 355 children from low socioeconomic urban areas. BMC Public Health. 2013;13(1):1.
 356 DOI:10.1186/1471-2458-13-977
 357
 358
 359
 360
 361
 362
 363

364 APPENDIX

365
366 Fig. 1. Coccidian oocysts in fecal smears from patients with diarrhea in Uganda, stained
367 with modified Ziehl-Neelsen. A. *Cryptosporidium* spp. B. *Isospora belli*. X100.
368



377 A



391 B