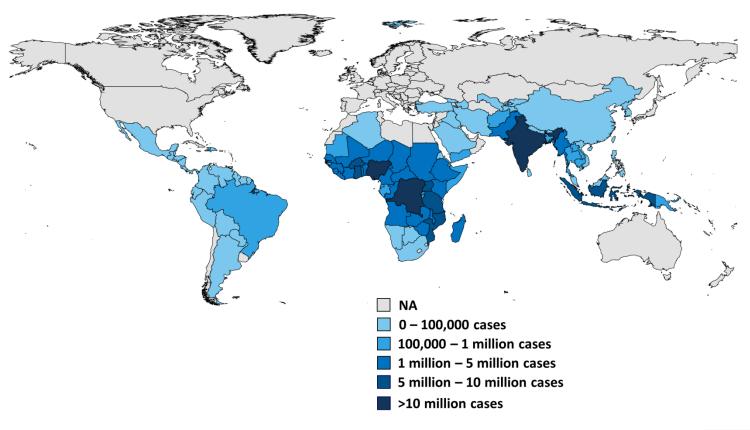
Malaria 1

Estimated Malaria Cases, 2012



 $SOURCE: Kaiser\ Family\ Foundation,\ http://kff.org/globaldata/,\ based\ on\ WHO,\ World\ Malaria\ Report\ 2013;\ December\ 2013.$



Impact on human health

- Malaria is endemic in 106 countries
- Caused about 198 million cases around the world in 2013
- Estimated 584 000 deaths in 2013, mostly in children <5 years(78%), especially in Africa
- 90% of deaths are estimated to have occurred in the WHO African Region
- Sri Lanka has had endemic malaria for many centuries, with occasional severe epidemics

Outline of classes on malaria

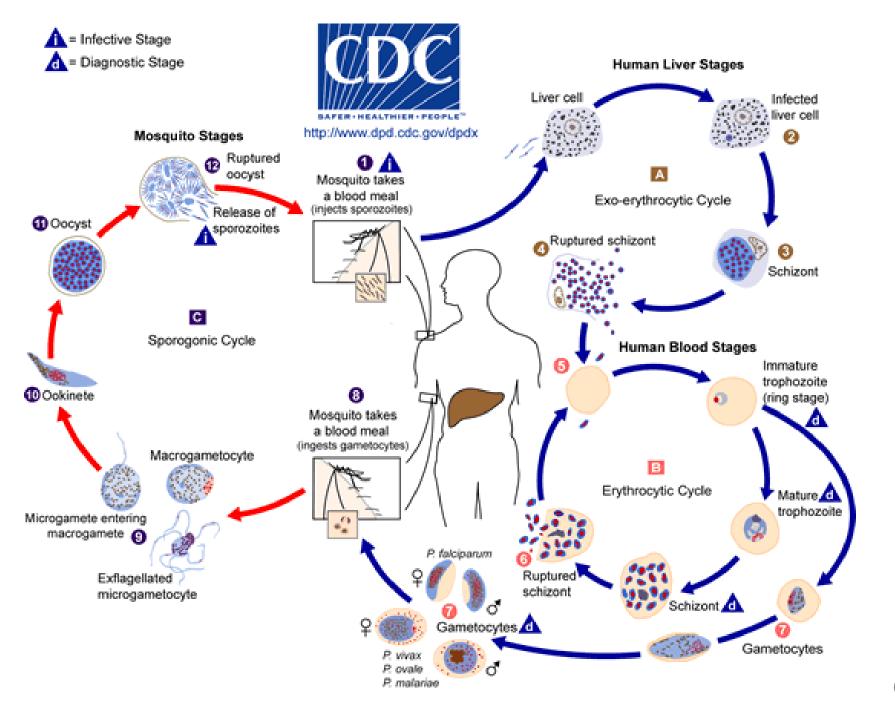
- Three lectures
 - Life cycles, morphology, transmission
 - Clinical features, pathogenesis and pathology,
 laboratory diagnosis Treatment, drug resistance
 - Epidemiology and immunology
- Three lab classes
 - Morphology of the 4 species
 - Examining stained thin blood films for Pv and Pf
 - Staining thin blood films with Leishman
- Tutorial

Malaria parasites that affect humans:

- Plasmodium vivax
- Plasmodium falciparum
- Plasmodium malariae
- Plasmodium ovale
- Plasmodium knowlesi
- Naturally acquired human infection with P. knowlesi was first described in Malaysian Borneo in 1965

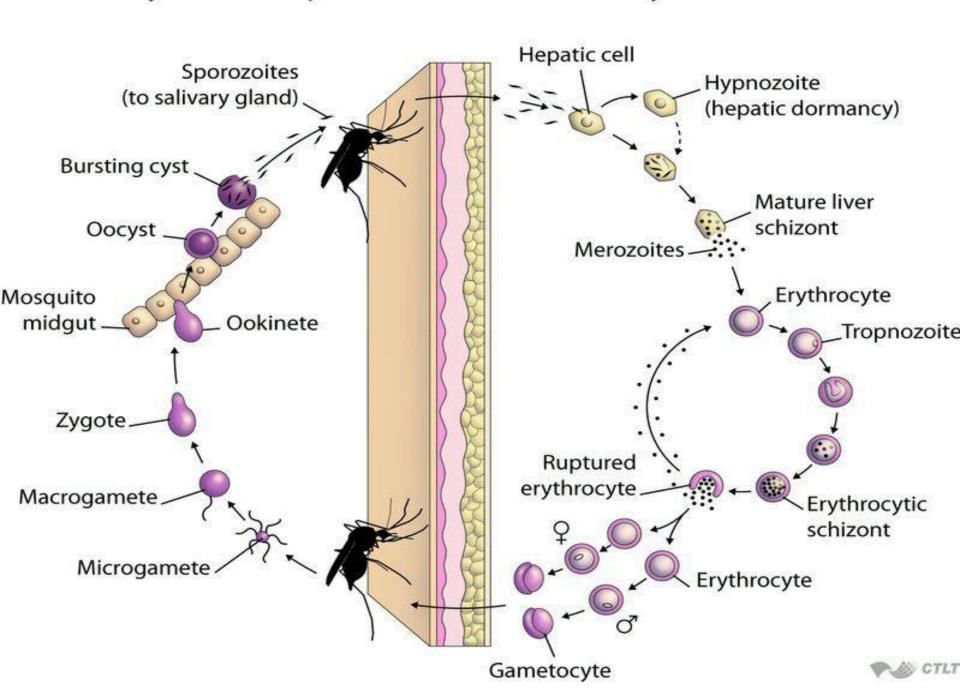
Life cycle

- Two-host life cycle:
 - humans (asexual multiplication)
 - Anopheline mosquitoes (sexual multiplication)
- Rarely infects other vertebrate hosts



Cycle in Mosquito

Cycle in Human

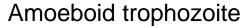


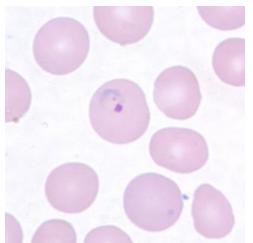
P. vivax life cycle

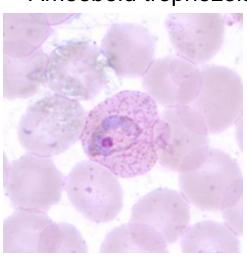
- Exo-erythrocytic schizogony takes 7 8 d
- 10 − 12,000 merozoites / hepatic schizont
- Hypnozoite formation
- Erythrocytic schizogony takes 48 h; 12 24 merozoites / schizont
- Gametocyte formation starts after 2-3 cycles of schizogony
- Sporogonic cycle takes 10 12 days at 30°C; longer in colder climates

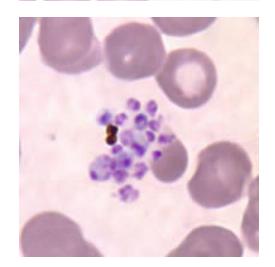
Plasmodium vivax morphology

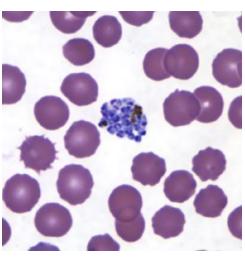
Ring trophozoite



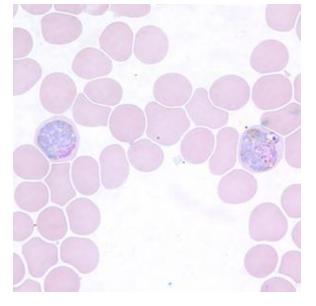








Gametocytes



Ruptured schizont

Mature schizont

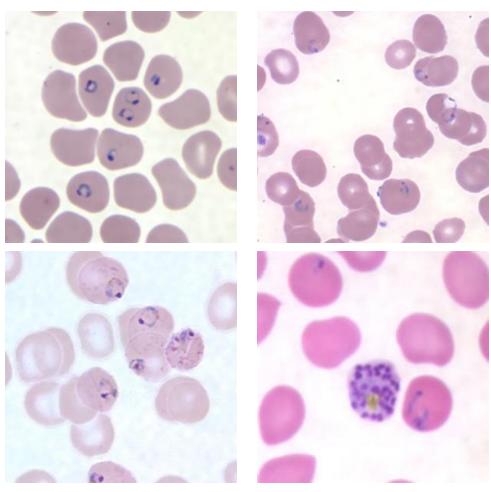
P. falciparum life cycle

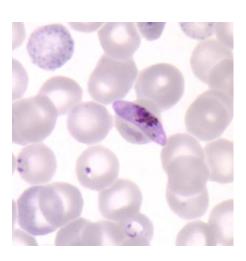
Main differences from P. vivax life cycle

- Shorter exo-erythrocytic cycle (5-6 days)
- More merozoites per hepatic schizont (up to 30,000)
- No hypnozoite formation
- Merozoites can invade red cells of any age
- Multiple infection of red cells common
- Sequestration of erythrocytic schizonts
- Shorter sporogonic cycle

P. falciparum morphology

Ring trophozoites





Gametocyte

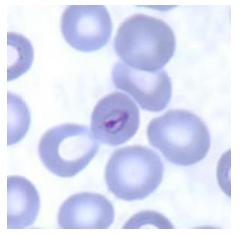
Maurer's clefts on red cells

schizont

P. malariae life cycle and morphology

Differences from P. vivax

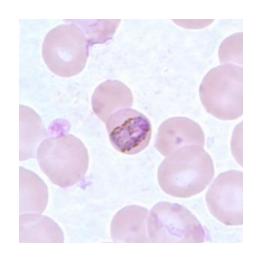
- Longer exo-erythrocytic cycle (15 days)
- Erythrocytic cycle takes longer (72 h)



Ring trophozoite – bird's eye form



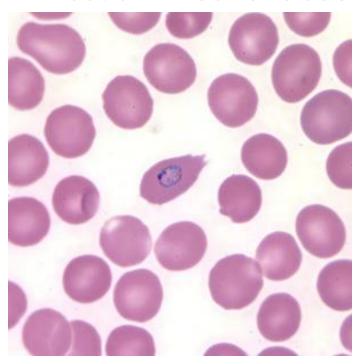
Mature schizont – daisy head appearance

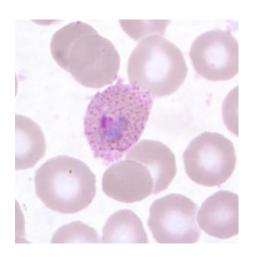


Band form

P. ovale life cycle and morphology

Life cycle virtually identical to *P. vivax*Almost all infections seen in West Africa



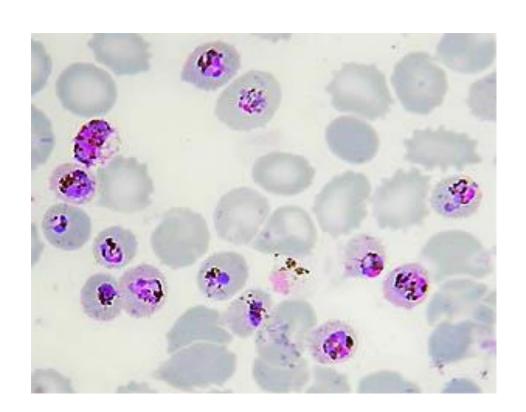


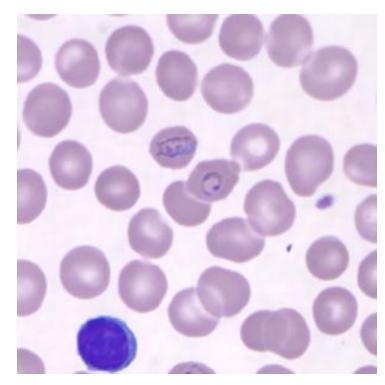
Trophoites with characteristic fimbriated edge

P. knowlesi

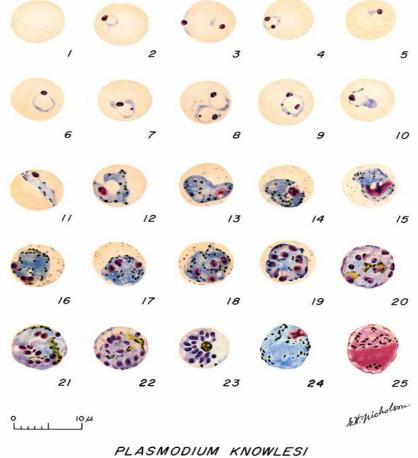
- P. knowlesi fifth and emerging human malaria parasite
- prevalent in South East Asia and can cause potentially life threatening malaria
- P. knowlesi is a zoonotic malaria parasite that is transmitted by mosquitoes of the Anopheles leucosphyrus group that feed on humans and monkeys
- Many P. knowlesi infections have been misdiagnosed by microscopy as P. malariae,

P. knowlesi









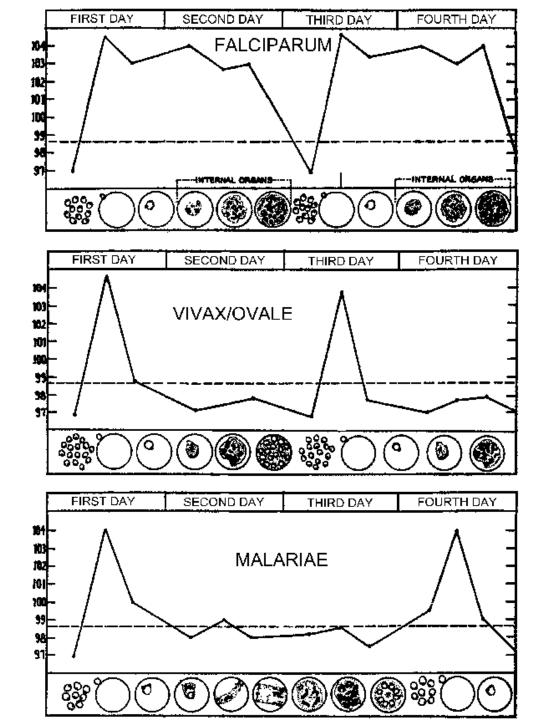
Transmission of malaria

- Vast majority of cases are vector-borne -Anopheles mosquitoes
- May follow transfusion of unscreened, infected blood
- Congenital infections may also occur, especially if non-immune mother gets malaria just before delivery

Clinical features and pathogenesis

- Classical symptom is paroxysmal fever: high, intermittent fever with chills and rigors
- Fever spike coincides with rupture of erythrocytic schizonts
 - Erythrocytic cycle synchronized so all parasites are at same stage of development at a given time
 - Rupture of infected red cells release of malaria pigment and cellular debris leads to release of cytokines, esp TNF
 - TNF acts on thermoregulatory centre in hypothalamus
- Incubation period: minimum 7 days after exposure
- Pre-patent period is shorter

Typical fever charts in patients with malaria



Typical clinical features

- Prodromal features may occur before first bout of fever
- Febrile paroxysm lasts about 8 12 hours and has 3 stages
 - Cold stage
 - Hot stage
 - Sweating stage
- Patient may have mild anaemia and jaundice; also mild, tender, hepato-splenomegaly

Natural history of malaria

- Applicable to most cases of P. falciparum and all cases due to other species
- Patient has recurrent bouts of fever for several weeks, then recovers spontaneously
- Fever may recur after several months (even years) due to
 - Relapse arising from hypnozoites, in P. vivax and P. ovale
 - Recrudescence arising from surviving erythrocytic forms in *P. falciparum* and *P. malariae*

Severe and complicated malaria

- Occurs in a small but significant proportion of P. falciparum and knowlesi cases
- Does not occur with vivax, ovale and malariae
- Usually fatal, if left untreated
- Why only in falciparum and knowlesi malaria?
 - Parasitaemia is higher
 - Sequestration of maturing erythrocytic forms
- Pathogenesis involves
 - Cytoadherence, resulting in mechanical obstruction to blood flow and tissue hypoxia
 - Local release of cytokines and nitric oxide

Patients at risk of severe and complicated malaria

- In areas with high levels of transmission:
 - Young children
 - Pregnant women
 - Recent returnees
 - (other adults have developed protective immunity)
- In areas with lower levels of transmission
 - All age groups, but especially children
- In any region with malaria
 - Non-immune travellers
 - Migrant workers

Manifestations of severe and complicated malaria

- Cerebral malaria
- Severe anaemia
- Hyperpyrexia
- Hypoglycaemia
- Pulmonary oedema
- Fluid, electrolyte and acid-base disturbances
- Renal failure
- Hepatic dysfunction
- Circulatory collapse (algid malaria)
- Blackwater fever (massive intravascular haemolysis)

Cerebral malaria

- Commonest manifestation of SCM
- Any patient with malaria, who shows impairment of consciousness, should be considered as having cerebral malaria
- Onset usually after some days of fever; may be as little as 2 days in children
- May have generalized convulsions
- Show decerebrate rigidity in late stages

Cerebral malaria ctd



Decerebrate rigidity in a child with cerebral malaria

- Pathogenesis related to cerebral hypoxia and disturbances in neurotransmission
- May be aggravated by hypoglycaemia
- Many patients recover fully if treated, but children may have residual neurological deficits

Severe anaemia

- Defined as Hb < 5 g / dl of blood
- Particularly common in children and pregnant women
- Several contributory factors:
 - Destruction of parasitized red cells (spleen)
 - Immune mediated destruction of un-infected red cells
 - Reduced production of red cells (dyserythropoiesis)



Falciparum malaria in pregnancy

- Women in 1st or 2nd pregnancy particularly at risk of complications
- Parasites multiply in placenta
- Results in low birth weight and increased neonatal mortality; premature labour
- Causes several complications
 - Severe anaemia
 - Hypoglycaemia
 - Acute pulmonary oedema



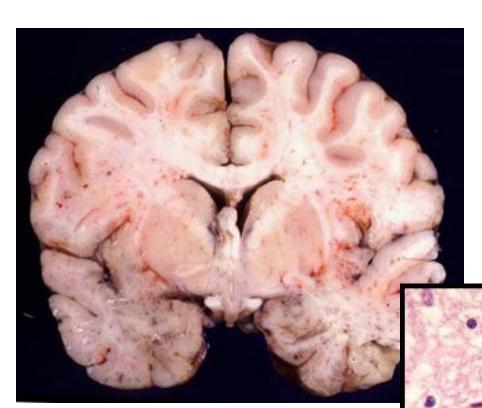
Pathological changes in malaria

In all cases:

- Hyperplasia of lymphoreticular system, with active follicles in lymph nodes and spleen
- Accumulation of malaria pigment in macrophages of liver and spleen
- Marked vascular congestion of spleen

In fatal cases

- Spleen moderately enlarged, soft and red-grey
- Liver also enlarged and grey; pigment in Kupffer cells
- Brain is oedematous and markedly congested;
 petechial haemorrhages due to ruptured
 capillaries



Cross-section of eedematous brain with ring haemorrhages

H&E stained section showing congested capillaries with parasitized red cells and malaria pigment

Pathological changes ctd

- Kidney involvement may be
 - Acute renal failure in algid malaria and blackwater fever (acute tubular necrosis) in *P. falciparum*
 - Chronic nephrotic syndrome in children with long-standing, untreated, *P. malariae* infections

Laboratory diagnosis of malaria

 Parasitological diagnosis: demonstration of parasites in red cells in stained blood films

• Immunological diagnosis: demonstration of malaria parasite antigens in blood or plasma

 Molecular diagnosis: demonstration of parasite DNA in blood

Parasitological diagnosis

- Microscopy is standard, classical diagnostic method
- Requires good microscope and skilled technician, but relatively inexpensive
- Thick blood films are more sensitive than thin films enables confirmation of infection
- Species identification easier in thin films
- Smears stained with Giemsa or Leishman's stains
- Venous blood collected into EDTA may be used, but smears made directly from fingerprick blood are more sensitive

Immunological diagnosis

- Several Rapid Diagnostic Techniques (RDTs) now commercially available for diagnosis of malaria
- Based on detection of malaria antigens through an immune reaction that results in a colour change (immunochromatography)
- Antigens include
 - P. falciparum Histidine Rich Protein II
 - Parasite Lactate Dehydrogenase (LDH) isoenzymes
 - Parasite aldolase (isoenzymes)
- RDTs are easy to perform and don't require much technical expertise; but more expensive than microscopy
- Detection of antibodies NOT useful in diagnosis of infection





NEGATIVE

For all types of malaria spp.









