

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Disease



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/apjtd

Original article doi: 10.1016/S2222-1808(15)60831-3

©2015 by the Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Disease. All rights reserved.

Home-based malaria management in children by women: Evidence from a malaria endemic community in sub-Saharan Africa

Doreen Nkiru Eugene-Ezebilo¹, Eugene Ejike Ezebilo^{2*}

¹Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Benin, P.M.B. 1154, Benin City, Nigeria

²Southern Swedish Forest Research Centre, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Box 49, 230 53, Alnarp, Sweden

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 16 Jan 2015 Received in revised form 22 Jan, 2nd revised form 23 Jan 2015 Accepted 2 Feb 2015 Available online 23 May 2015

Keywords: Anti-malaria medicines Indigenous knowledge Malaria management Mothers Paediatrics

ABSTRACT

Objective: To examine the medicines and dosage that mothers who engage in home-based malaria management administer to children aged \leq 5 years having signs and symptoms associated with malaria and to discuss the possibilities of designing an effective home-based malaria management strategy.

Methods: The data were obtained from face-to-face semi-structured interviews conducted with mothers in the Ugbowo Community of Benin City, Nigeria who were selected using multi-stage systematic random sampling technique. The data were analyzed by qualitative content analysis, arithmetic mean, simple percentages and bar chart.

Results: Approximately 90% of the interviewees engaged in home-based malaria management and 10% patronized the hospital. Most of the interviewees who engaged in home-based malaria management administered medicines that stimulates the production of red blood cells and supplies vitamins to children having signs and symptoms of malaria, followed by painkillers and anti-malaria and cough medicine was the least. Of the anti-malaria medicines administered to children, almost 80% of the interviewees administered chloroquine to children, 15% quinine and 3% halfan. Approximately 60% of the interviewees had the correct knowledge of the dosage regime for chloroquine, 38% for quinine and 9% for halfan.

Conclusions: Although home-based malaria management is important, it cannot serve as a substitute to the hospital. Some diseases have signs and symptoms that are similar to that of malaria which implies that administering anti-malaria medicines to a child without confirmatory tests might lead to irredeemable complications in that child. If the strategy is to make home-based malaria management effective and sustainable mothers, community health officials should be involved in designing the strategy. Simple rapid diagnostic test kits for malaria should be made available to community health officials and pharmacists so that confirmatory tests could be carried out before dispensing medicines.

1. Introduction

The *Plasmodium falciparum* (*P. falciparum*) (*i.e.* a protozoan parasite) has been the main cause of malaria which has led to the deaths of many children in sub-Saharan Africa^[1,2]. Malaria leads to various abnormalities in children such as renal failure, anaemia and hepatic dysfunction^[3,4]. Although several initiatives such as roll back malaria have been introduced by international organizations and malaria endemic nations to control malaria, it still remains

a public health problem[5,6]. The roll back malaria initiative has focused on the introduction of artemisinin (*i.e.* groups of medicines possess the most rapid action against *P. falciparum*) based combination therapy with home treatment[7]. It is aimed at creating awareness on most available potent anti-malaria medicines and appropriate dosages to people[8]. Medicines for the treatment and prevention of malaria (anti-malarial medicines) can be classified into: quinine and compounds related to it, halofantrine, anti-folate compounds, aminoquinoline, antibiotics and pyronaridine. The derivative of quinine such as chloroquine has been mostly used for treatment of malaria, however it is becoming less popular because *P. falciparum* tends to develop resistance to it[9,10]. Quinine is one of the important anti-malarial medicines but its side effects such as cinchonism lead to blur vision and impair hearing and its bitter taste restricts it use[11]. However, quinine and its isomer such as quinidine

^{*}Corresponding author: Eugene Ejike Ezebilo, Southern Swedish Forest Research Centre, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Box 49, 230 53, Alnarp, Sweden.

Tel: +46 40415197 E-mail: eugene.ezebilo@slu.se

E-mail: eugene.ezebilo@siu.s

Foundation Project: Supported by Department of Clinical Pharmacy, University of Benin, Nigeria.

are often used as a last resort for treatment of malignant form of malaria^[10]. Antibiotics such as tetracycline have anti-malarial effects and it can be used with other anti-malarial medicines to improve efficacy^[12]. To help people overcome the incidence of resistance of *P. falciparum* to anti-malarial medicines, the World Health Organization has proposed a combination of artemisinin derivatives such as artemether, amodiaquine plus sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine, artesunate-mefloquine and artesunate-amodiaquine^[13].

The control of malaria in a community requires knowledge of potent anti-malarial medicines for management of the disease. Effective home-based malaria management has the potential of reducing malaria related deaths in malaria endemic countries[14,15]. Self-medication for malaria treatment is common in some African countries such as Nigeria, Uganda and Tanzania[15-17]. Several factors influence the choice of medicines for treatment of malaria. These include knowledge of anti-malaria medicines, symptoms and signs of malaria infection and social impacts of the disease[18-20]. Because most of the malaria related deaths occur among children in sub-Saharan Africa and that women play an important role as caregivers at home[2,21]. This paper has focused on how mothers care for children suspected to have malaria infection. Moreover, the study reported in this paper was conducted in the Nigerian rainforest where malaria is endemic[22]. Malaria has been one of the main causes of death among children in Ethiopia, Burkina Faso and Nigeria[23-26]. Several malaria control strategies have been implemented to help reduce malaria related incidence in sub-Saharan Africa such as prompt access to diagnostic testing using rapid diagnostic tests[27], home-based management of malaria[28], use of insecticide treated bed nets and indoor insecticide sprays[29,30] and artemisinin based combination therapy[8]. For malaria control strategy such as homebased malaria management to be effective and sustainable, it is important for women who are often caregivers to be involved in planning the strategy. This has the potential of making the strategy more acceptable, sustainable in malaria endemic community and could help integrate indigenous with scientific knowledge in management of malaria. In designing a home-based malaria management strategy related to children, it is important to have knowledge regarding the way that caregivers have managed malaria infected children in the past and what could be done to improve the current situation.

In the literature, there are several published papers that have focused on home-based malaria management such as malaria selfmedications and choices of medicines[8,31], home management practices of malaria in Abeokuta, Nigeria, and Uganda[17,32,33], home management of malaria in children by mothers in Kenya and Nigeria[15,34]. Although self-medication is common in some African countries such as Nigeria, only few studies have focused on medicines that people practise self-medication use for treatment of malaria infection[8,31]. Although effective treatment for malaria infection is available, the disease still remains one of the main causes of sickness and deaths especially in children in sub-Saharan Africa. In some cases, malaria infected children are managed at home but the inability of their caregivers to correctly recognize malaria related signs and symptoms and the required care have often led to serious complications and sometimes deaths in children[35,36]. Because in Africa mothers are often the caregivers especially on childhood ailments[37], it is important to better understand how they care for malaria infected children and the knowledge that these caregivers are lacking. This will help health managers in designing home-based malaria management strategy that integrates mothers' experiences as well as address areas they have been lagging behind. To the best of our knowledge, there is no previously published paper especially in Nigeria that has focused on the medicines and dosage that mothers who practise home-based malaria management administer to children exhibiting some signs and symptoms of malaria infection. The aim of this paper was to explore how mothers care for children aged \leq 5 years having some signs and symptoms of malaria infection, medicines and dosage administered to these children. It was also to explore the possibilities of designing an effective homebased malaria management strategy that involves mothers and health officials. The study reported in this paper involves women of Ugbowo Community in Benin City, Nigeria who were selected by multi-stage systematic random sampling technique. It is hoped that the findings will provide women with more understanding on how to care for children infected by malaria and how to incorporate this in designing an effective home-based malaria management strategy.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. The study area

This study was conducted in the Ugbowo Community located in Egor Local Government Area, Edo State, Nigeria. Because the Ugbowo Community is located in the rainforest region, the environmental condition of the area is conducive for breeding of mosquito, *i.e.* vector for transmission of *P. falciparum*[38]. For example, it rains for greater part of the year (eight months) and the dry season is only four months in Ugbowo. Moreover, Ugbowo Community has poor drainage systems. For example, some of these drainage systems are either faulty or non-functional. This has led to the presence of stagnant water in some areas of the community and serves as breeding places for mosquitos. Evidence showed that there were more cases of malaria related ailments in Benin City (Ugbowo is part of the city) during the wet season than in the dry season which further compounded the problem[39]. Health facilities such as pharmacy, patent medicine stores and hospital are either found in or located near the Ugbowo Community.

2.2. Data collection and analysis

The data collection was made by semi-structured face-to-face interviews^[40]. Prior to the interviews, discussions on research design were held with some academics at the Department of Clinical Pharmacy, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria whose work were related to prevention and control of malaria. These academics helped in the design of potential questions for the interviews. A question draft was developed and sent to the academics for their comments. After modifying the draft to address concerns raised by the academics, it was sent back to them again. This continued until all the academics were satisfied with the question draft. To verify whether the questions can be understood by potential interviewee, pre-test interviews were carried out in January 2002. The interviewees for the test were randomly selected from the Ugbowo Community and were asked to comment on whether the questions are easy to comprehend and to suggest ways of improving the questions. Their comments led to some changes in the question draft and the final questions were produced. The questions consist of open-ended and closed-ended question format.

The main interviews were conducted from February to May 2002 which combined the dry and wet seasons to help to reduce the effect of season on the results. All the interviews were carried out in the late evening (*i.e.* 17:00 and 19:00) when most women in the Ugbowo Community are expected to be at their homes. This was a way to increase chances of involving women from several socioeconomic backgrounds in the interviews. Participants of the interviews were selected by multi-stage systemic random sampling procedure[41]. Firstly, 15 streets were randomly selected from Ugbowo Community and 10 houses were selected from each of the street. Secondly, one woman who had a child aged \leq 5 years that have had malaria was randomly selected from each house and interviewed. If there is no woman who meets the selection criteria in the selected house, another house is randomly selected again. In all, a total of 155 women were interviewed.

Prior to the interviews, the purpose of the study reported in this paper was explained to the interviewees, *i.e.* increasing women participation in management and control of malaria infection. The interviewees were informed that their responses will be held in confidence. They were asked questions such as income, number of children \leq 5 years, age, education, occupation and marital status. The interviewees were asked about the most important thing they did when they suspected that their children had malaria infection, whether they administered treatment to their children at home and to give names of medicines they have used for the treatment. The interviewees were asked about the dosage administered to the child who was suspected to have malaria infection, that they often buy the medicines used for caring for the children and whether the children often get relieved at the end of treatment at home. The data generated from the interviews were analysed by qualitative content analysis *i.e.* a research method for interpreting qualitative information through classification process of coding, categorizing and identifying themes and by simple percentages, arithmetic mean and bar charts using the Microsoft Office Excel[41].

3. Results

The results showed that 131 (85%) of all people who were selected for the interviews agreed to participate in the interview. Of the 131 interviewees, 125 answered all questions associated with the variables used in the study reported in this paper. Out of the 125 interviewees, approximately 90% (113) reported that they administered treatment against malaria infection to their children at home (home-based malaria management) and 10% took their

children to the hospital. The analysis reported in this paper was based on responses from the 113 interviewees who practised home-based malaria management. The results revealed that all the interviewees had formal education, most of them engaged in trading, married and purchased medicines from pharmacy (Table 1). Table 1

01		c ·		
horo	otorictice	Of 1n	OT MAN	000
v mara	CIELISUIUS			CCS.

Variable	Description	%	Mean
Educational	No formal education	0	
level	Primary school	51	
	Secondary school	45	
	Post-secondary school	4	
Occupation	Trading	55	
	Tailoring/hairdressing	15	
	Unskilled (e.g. cleaning)	6	
	Student	5	
	Housekeeping	17	
	Civil servant	2	
Marital	Married	85	
status	Never married	7	
	Divorced	8	
Medicine	Pharmacy	76	
source	Patent medicine store	24	
Income	Interviewee annual disposable income in NGN		16330
Children	Number of children ≤ 5 years at home		4
Age	The interviewee age in years		36
Child age	The average age of children \leq 5 years at home		3

NGN: Nigerian naira (\$1 = 142 NGN in 2002).

The results showed that on average medicines that the interviewees administered to children suspected to have malaria can be classified into five (Figure 1). Of these classes, medicine that stimulates the production of red blood cells (haematinic) and supplies various vitamins and minerals (multivitamin) was the highest administered to children, followed by painkillers (analgesic), anti-malaria and cough medicine (antitussive) was the least (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Classes of medicines administered to malaria infected children.

Among the anti-malarial medicines administered to children, chloroquine was the most frequent (78%) followed by quinine (15%) and halfan (3%) (Figure 2). However, some of the interviewees (3%) reported that they administered chloroquine but if the malaria persists they switch to quinine and some (1%) reported to have switched from chloroquine to halfan. Almost all the interviewees (99%) reported that their children experienced relief after completing dose of the anti-malarial medicine that was administered. The results revealed that 60% of the interviewees had correct knowledge of the dosage regime for choloroquine, 38% for quinine and only 9% for halfan. Of these all the interviewees who had secondary and post-secondary school education, respectively can administer the correct dosage for chloroquine. All the interviewees who had secondary school education also had the correct knowledge of the

dosage regime for quinine while only few who had primary school education had the correct knowledge.



Figure 2. Profile of anti-malarial medicines administered to children.

Almost all the interviewees (95%) reported that they used nonmedicine preventive measures against malaria infection and 5% used medicines. The medicines used were mainly pyrimethamine and chloroquine. The insecticide-treated bed net was the most nonmedicine measures used.

The results showed that the interviewees who had secondary school education, engaged in trading, married and purchased antimalarial medicines from pharmacy were more likely to administer chloroquine to children (Table 2). The interviewees who got < 16330 NGN (*i.e.* average annual income from this study), aged ≤ 36 years and had a 3 years old child were also more likely to administer chloroquine to a child suspected to have malaria infection. The interviewees who had primary school education, engaged in trading, married and purchased anti-malarial medicines from patient medicine store were more likely to administer quinine to a child. This was also so for the interviewees who got ≥ 16330 NGN annually, aged > 36 years and had a child aged > 3 years. The interviewees who had post-secondary school education, engaged in trading, married and purchased anti-malarial medicine from pharmacy were more likely to administer halfan to a child. The interviewees who got ≥ 16330 NGN annually, aged > 36 years and had a child aged > 3 years were also more likely to administer halfan to a child suspected to have malaria infection.

Table 2

Profile of anti-malarial medicines given to children in relation to some characteristics of interviewees.

Variable		Chloroquine	Quinine	Halfan
		(%)	(%)	(%)
Educational level	Primary school	44	58	0
	Secondary school	54	42	33
	Post-secondary	2	0	67
Occupation	Trading	35	59	67
	Tailoring/hairdressing	19	35	0
	Unskilled (e.g. cleaning)	15	6	0
	Student	10	0	0
	Housekeeping	20	0	0
	Civil servant	1	0	33
Marital status	Married	79	71	100
	Never married	7	0	0
	Divorced	14	29	0
Medicine source	Pharmacy	52	0	100
	Patent medicine store	48	100	0
Income	< NGN 16330 (average income)	59	24	0
	≥ NGN 16330 (average income)	41	76	100
Interviewee age	\leq 36 years (average age)	53	35	33
	> 36 years (average age)	47	65	67
Child age	\leq 3 years (average age)	57	10	0
	> 3 years (average age)	43	90	100

4. Discussion

Although malaria infection is primarily treated using anti-malarial medicines, the results of the study reported in this paper have revealed that mothers who practise home-based malaria management administer various groups of medicines to children suspected to have malaria. For example, greater percentage of the mothers interviewed administered a group of medicine that stimulates the body to produce more blood and supplies minerals and vitamins (haematinic/multivitamins). Because one of the important early signs of malaria in children is often loss of appetite, this might be the reason the mothers administer haematinic/multivitamins to help improve the child's appetite. This suggests that mothers practicing home-based malaria management often initiate treatment based on "trial and error". The result is consistent with findings elsewhere in Nigeria. For example, it was found that some people who practise self-medication often use wrong medicines^[8]. Because some other diseases have similar signs to malaria thus administering medicines to children based on guesses might worsen the situation. Although home-based malaria management is important, it should focus more on first aid measures given to the sick child before taking him or her to the hospital. It is important to note that before administering medicines (especially prescription medicines) to a child, appropriate diagnostic test should be done to help identify the correct medicine. It is interesting that some mothers give their children medicines that stimulate production of red blood cells (haematinic) and multivitamin. This has the potential of boosting the immune system of the child infected by malaria and help lower the tendency of future malaria infection. This indicates the importance of giving children haematinic and multivitamins to help boost their immune system which could lower their vulnerability to malaria infection.

When a child loses appetite, it is often common for him or her to develop fever^[42]. As in many African countries, mothers often find it easier to detect abnormal body temperature in their children. Once they notice that a child's body temperature is above normal, the next call of action is to give the child medicine such as paracetamol (*i.e.* analgesic) to help normalise the body temperature. This could be the possible reason that analgesic is the second most important class of medicine administered to children suspected to have malaria. The finding is in line with that of Obembe *et al.*^[31], who found that some residents of Ilorin City, Nigeria who engage in self-medication use paracetamol when they have fever.

From experience, some mothers in Nigeria who engage in homebased malaria management often give anti-malarial medicine to their children once they do not get relief after administering analgesic. This might be a reason that anti-malarial medicine is the third most important class of medicines mothers administer to children suspected to have of malaria infection. The results regarding antitussive suggest that most mothers do not often wait until their child start coughing before giving them anti-malarial medicine. This could be the reason that antitussive was the least important class of medicines given to a child suspected to have malaria infection. Because *P. falciparum* is becoming resistant to some antimalarial medicines in some cases, antibiotics are used to improve the effectiveness of anti-malarial. However, this practice is not very common especially among people who are not very familiar with how different medicines interact, thus this is not popular among people who engage in home-based malaria management. This may be the reason that only few of the mothers administered antibiotics to their children.

Although effort has been made by the Nigerian government toward provision of health facilities for residents, it is worrisome that most mothers practise home-based malaria management and only few patronize the hospital as revealed by the results of the study reported in this paper. The results conform to findings from other part of Nigeria^[43] and elsewhere in Africa^[16,17], however it differs from findings from a study in the Gambia[44]. A possible reason is the long waiting time in some of the state owned hospitals in Nigeria and sometimes the nearest hospital might be several kilometres away from home. Although private hospitals may be available, it is often expensive which makes it accessible to only high income earners in the society. It is interesting that a greater percentage of mothers interviewed bought medicines from pharmacy. This has the potential of getting access to correct medicines especially if mothers could give the pharmacist the right information about some signs they observed on the sick child. The present situation could be improved if simple rapid diagnostic testing kits for malaria are made available to health professionals such as pharmacists so that children could be tested for malaria before treatment.

Regarding anti-malarial medicines used by mothers who practise home-based malaria management, the results reported in this paper revealed that these mothers tend to prefer the most popular and cheapest medicine. Over the years, chloroquine has been one of the cheapest and effective medicine for treatment of malaria until in the recent past when it was discovered that P. falciparum show some level of resistance to it. This could be a reason that most mothers administer chloroquine to children suspected of having malaria infection. The findings are in line with that of other studies such as Jombo et al.[8] and Chukwuocha[45], but it differs from that of Obembe et al.[31]. A possible reason for the difference in the findings is that the study by Obembe et al. has focused on malaria in adults and most of the respondents were male[31], but the present study has focused on medicines mothers administer to children. Because the knowledge regarding home-based malarial management is often passed from generation to generation, some mothers may not be well informed about resistance of P. falciparum to some anti-malarial medicines. This suggests the importance of educating mothers on the strategy developed to address the problem such as the use of artemisinin combination therapy.

Like chloroquine, quinine has been used for the treatment of malaria for a long time and it is one of the most effective drug, however it strong bitter taste and critical side effects when not used properly often make people to shy from using it[10,11]. A reason that the mothers interviewed preferred chloroquine could be that quinine has been highly regulated and it is often used as a last

resort. Moreover, quinine is more expensive than chloroquine. It is interesting that the results showed that quinine which is among highly regulated medicines in Nigeria is still being dispensed by some patent medicine stores. This suggests the need for developing a more effective strategy for monitoring the activities of these medicine stores. Halfan is not as popular as chloroquine and quinine and it is more expensive as well as has not been available as long as the other two anti-malarial medicines. This may be a reason that only few of the mothers interviewed used halfan. Halfan has the advantage of not leaving a bitter taste which suggests that children may prefer it compared to chloroquine and quinine. Although the mothers claimed that they only administered other anti-malarial medicines when the one in use proved to be ineffective, it is important for them to be well informed on some implications regarding the use of various anti-malarial medicines simultaneously. For example, administering medicines such as chloroquine and quinine simultaneously is not advisable.

People who have used a particular goods several times should be more familiar with it^[46]. Because most of the mothers interviewed administered chloroquine to children suspected to have malaria, they are likely to have more knowledge about the medicine than other anti-malarial medicines. This could be a possible reason that more of the mothers had correct knowledge of the dosage for chloroquine compared to quinine which is regulated and not readily available. Halfan is relatively new to the market compared to the other two medicines which implies that mothers may not know much about it thus only a few mothers have knowledge about it dosage.

Education provides people with access to opportunities that help them know more about things happening around them[47]. The results of the study reported in this paper revealed that education plays an important role in home-based malaria management especially in the area regarding correct knowledge of dosage for anti-malarial medicines. For example, all the mothers who had at least secondary school education had correct knowledge of dosage for chloroquine, quinine and halfan. This suggests the importance of educating women on issues related to childhood health care. In controlling malaria at community level, it might be better to target preventive measures to help reduce burden that the disease impose on individuals and the community at large for example improving sanitary conditions, sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets and destroying places that provides favourable condition for breeding mosquitoes. The use of haematinic and multivitamins for boosting the immune system of children is also important.

In consumer behaviour, if given alternative products people often prefer to buy the product that has the least price^[48]. The results revealed that income is important in choice of anti-malarial medicine. For example, mothers who have more money bought more expensive anti-malarial medicine. This suggests that if the strategy is to provide people with effective medicine for treatment of malaria such as artemisinin combination therapy, it is important to educate the people on the importance of using the medicine and the medicine should be made affordable for all income categories of people.

If the strategy is to make home-based malaria management more effective and sustainable, it is important to educate mothers and potential mothers on the implications of administering various antimalarial medicines to children and medicines should not be used simultaneously. More community health workers should be given special training on diagnosis, treatment and control of malaria. These health workers should collaborate with women practising home-based malaria management in carrying out their tasks. It is important for women to be well informed on some medicines that can only be dispensed by pharmacy and those patent medicine stores are prohibited from dispensing. Simple diagnostic tests kits for malaria should be made available to pharmacists and other health professionals so that children can easily be diagnosed and treated appropriately. Effective anti-malaria medicines should be made available at prices that most people can afford and mothers should be encouraged to be giving their children medicines and foods that boost the immune system as well as reduce exposure of their bodies to mosquito bites.

Conflict of interest statement

We declare that we have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

We thank all interviewees in Ugbowo Community and the members of staff of the Department of Clinical Pharmacy, University of Benin, Nigeria who spent their valuable time for the interviews and development of questions used for the interviews. We would like to thank Pharm. (Mrs.) O.E. Aghomo, Department of Clinical Pharmacy, University of Benin, Nigeria for her value advice on data collection methods and Department of Clinical Pharmacy, University of Benin, Nigeria for their finance support.

References

- Hay SI, Okiro EA, Gething PW, Patil AP, Tatem AJ, Guerra CA, et al. Estimating the global clinical burden of *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria in 2007. *PLoS Med* 2010; doi: 10.1371/journal. pmed.1000290.
- [2] Feachem RG, Phillips AA, Hwang J, Cotter C, Wielgosz B, Greenwood BM, et al. Shrinking the malaria map: progress and prospects. *Lancet* 2010; **376**: 1566-78.
- Bartoloni A, Zammarchi L. Clinical aspects of uncomplicated and severe malaria. *Mediterr J Hematol Infect Dis* 2012; 4(1): e2012026.
- [4] Onyesom I, Onyemakonor N. Levels of parasitaemia and changes in some liver enzymes among malarial infected patients in Edo-Delta region of Nigeria. *Curr Res J Biol Sci* 2011; 3(2): 78-81.
- [5] Njau JD, Goodman C, Kachur SP, Palmer N, Khatib RA, Abdulla S, et al. Fever treatment and household wealth: the challenge posed for rolling out combination therapy for malaria. *Trop Med Int Health* 2006; 11:

299-313.

- [6] Keating GM. Dihydroartemisinin/piperaquine: a review of its use in the treatment of uncomplicated *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria. *Drugs* 2012; 72(7): 937-61.
- [7] Bardají A, Bassat Q, Alonso PL, Menéndez C. Intermittent preventive treatment of malaria in pregnant women and infants: making best use of the available evidence. *Expert Opin Pharmacother* 2012; **13**(12): 1719-36.
- [8] Jombo GTA, Araoye MA, Damen JG. Malaria self medications and choices of drugs for its treatment among residents of a malaria endemic community in West Africa. *Asian Pac J Trop Dis* 2011; 1: 10-6.
- [9] World Health Organization. Malaria fact sheet No. 94. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2014. [Online] Available from: http://www.who. int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs094/en/ [Accessed on 8th January, 2015]
- [10] Karamati SA, Hassanzadazar H, Bahmani M, Rafieian-Kopaei M. Herbal and chemical drugs effective on malaria. *Asian Pac J Trop Dis* 2014; 4: S599-601.
- [11] Jacquerioz FA, Croft AM. Drugs for preventing malaria in travellers. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2009; doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD006491. pub2.
- [12] Bahmani M, Saatloo NV, Maghsoudi R, Momtaz H, Saki K, Kazemi-Ghoshchi B, et al. A comparative study on the effect of ethanol extract of wild *Scrophularia deserti* and streptomycin on *Brucella melitensis*. J Herb Med Pharmacol 2013; 2(1): 17-20.
- [13] Jonville MC, Kodja H, Humeau L, Fournel J, De Mol P, Cao M, et al. Screening of medicinal plants from Reunion Island for antimalarial and cytotoxic activity. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2008; **120**(3): 382-6.
- [14] Rugemalila JB, Wanga CL, Kilama WL. Sixth Africa malaria day in 2006: how far have we come after the Abuja Declaration? *Malar J* 2006; 5: 102.
- [15] Dada OA, Omokhodion FO. Home management of malaria by mothers of children under-five in Abeokuta, Southwest Nigeria. *Trop Doct* 2007; 37(4): 217-9.
- [16] Comoro C, Nsimba SE, Warsame M, Tomson G. Local understanding, perceptions and reported practices of mothers/guardians and health workers on childhood malaria in a Tanzanian district-implications for malaria control. *Acta Trop* 2003; 87: 305-13.
- [17] Nsabagasani X, Jesca-Nsungwa-Sabiiti, Källander K, Peterson S, Pariyo G, Tomson G. Home-based management of fever in rural Uganda: community perceptions and provider opinions. *Malar J* 2007; 6: 11.
- [18] Makundi EA, Malebo HM, Mhame P, Kitua AY, Warsame M. Role of traditional healers in the management of severe malaria among children below five years of age: the case of Kilosa and Handeni Districts, Tanzania. *Malar J* 2006; **5**: 58.
- [19] Ahorlu CK, Koram KA, Ahorlu C, de Savigny D, Weiss MG. Community concepts of malaria-related illness with and without convulsions in Southern Ghana. *Malar J* 2005; 4: 47.
- [20] Malik EM, Hanafi K, Ali SH, Ahmed ES, Mohamed KA. Treatmentseeking behaviour for malaria in children under five years of age: implication for home management in rural areas with high seasonal transmission in Sudan. *Malar J* 2006; 5: 60.

- [21] Das A, Das Gupta RK, Friedman J, Pradhan MM, Mohapatra CC, Sandhibigraha D. Community perceptions on malaria and care-seeking practices in endemic Indian settings: policy implications for the malaria control programme. *Malar J* 2013; **12**: 39.
- [22] Isah EC, Ofili AN, Ogbebor CE, Obahiagbon I, Isah AO. Knowledge of malaria and the practices towards its control among urban dwellers in Benin City. *Niger Postgrad Med J* 2007; **14**(2): 125-8.
- [23] Deressa W, Ali A. Malaria-related perceptions and practices of women with children under the age of five years in rural Ethiopia. *BMC Public Health* 2009; 9: 259.
- [24] Beiersmann C, Sanou A, Wladarsch E, De Allegri M, Kouyaté B, Müller O. Malaria in rural Burkina Faso: local illness concepts, patterns of traditional treatment and influence on health-seeking behaviour. *Malar J* 2007; 6: 106.
- [25] Akerele A, Yusuf OB, Falade CO, Ajayi IO, Pagnoni F. Factors associated with use of guideline in home management of malaria among children in rural South West Nigeria. *Malar Res Treat* 2011; doi: 10.4061/2011/701320.
- [26] National Population Commission, National Malaria Control Programme, ICF International. Nigeria malaria indicator survey 2010 final report. Abuja: National Population Commission, National Malaria Control Programme, ICF International; 2012. [Online] Available from: http:// dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/MIS8/MIS8.pdf [Accessed on 8th January, 2015]
- [27] World Health Organization. Malaria rapid diagnostic test. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2014. [Online] Available from: http://www. who.int/malaria/areas/diagnosis/rapid_diagnostic_tests/en/ [Accessed on Accessed on 8th January, 2015]
- [28] Nsabagasani X, Jesca-Nsungwa-Sabiiti, Källander K, Peterson S, Pariyo G, Tomson G. Home-based management of fever in rural Uganda: community perceptions and provider opinions. *Malar J* 2007; 6: 11.
- [29] Jombo GTA, Mbaawuaga EM, Gyuse AN, Enenebeaku MNO, Okwori EE, Peters EJ, et al. Socio-cultural factors influencing insecticide treated bed net utilization in a malaria endemic city in north-central Nigeria. *Asian Pac J Trop Med* 2010; **3**: 402-6.
- [30] Nahum A, Erhart A, Mayé A, Ahounou D, van Overmeir C, Menten J, et al. Malaria incidence and prevalence among children living in a periurban area on the coast of Benin, West Africa: a longitudinal study. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2010; 83: 465-73.
- [31] Obembe A, Oduola A, Popoola K, Ajao A. Community knowledge and practices as regards malaria in Ilorin City: implications for the elimination plan of the National Malaria Elimination Program. *Asian Pac J Trop Dis* 2014; 4: S583-9.
- [32] Idowu OA, Mafiana CF, Luwoye IJ, Adehanloye O. Perceptions and home management practices of malaria in some rural communities in Abeokuta, Nigeria. *Travel Med Infect Dis* 2008; 6(4): 210-4.
- [33] Nsungwa-Sabiiti J, Peterson S, Pariyo G, Ogwal-Okeng J, Petzold MG, Tomson G. Home-based management of fever and malaria treatment practices in Uganda. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 2007; **101**(12): 1199-207.
- [34] Kakai RM, Nasimiyu J, Odero W. Low reliability of home-based

diagnosis of malaria in a rural community in western Kenya. *J Infect Dev Ctries* 2011; **5**(1): 54-8.

- [35] Pylypchuk Y, Norton SW. Preventing malaria among children in Zambia: the role of mother's knowledge. *Health Econ* 2014; doi: 10.1002/hec.3093.
- [36] Kwabe TS, Abdulfatai O, Agbam EF, Usman A, Bashiru AM. Mothers management of malaria fever among under-five nomadic Fulani children of Northeastern Nigeria. Am J Infect Dis Microbiol 2013; 1(2): 26-33.
- [37] Fatungase KO, Amoran OE, Alausa KO. The effect of health education intervention on the home management of malaria among the caregivers of children aged under 5 years in Ogun State, Nigeria. *Eur J Med Res* 2012; 17: 11.
- [38] World Health Organization. 10 facts on malaria. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2014. [Online] Available from: http://www. who.int/features/factfiles/malaria/en/ [Accessed on Accessed on 8th January, 2015]
- [39] Adeyemo FO, Makinde OY, Chukwuka LO, Oyana EN. Incidence of malaria infection among the undergraduates of University of Benin (Uniben), Benin City, Nigeria. *Int J Trop Med* 2013; **9**. [Online] Available from: https://ispub.com/IJTM/9/1/14613 [Accessed on Accessed on 8th January, 2015]
- [40] Ezebilo EE, Mattsson L. Socio-economic benefits of protected areas as perceived by local people around Cross River National Park, Nigeria. *Forest Policy Econ* 2010; **12**: 189-93.
- [41] Hsieh HF, Shannon SE. Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qual Health Res* 2005; **15**(9): 1277-88.
- [42] Eugene-Ezebilo DN, Ezebilo EE. Malaria infection in children in tropical rainforest: assessments by women of Ugbowo Community in Benin City, Nigeria. Asian Pac J Trop Med 2014; 7(Suppl 1): S97-103.
- [43] Anumudu CI, Okafor CM, Ngwumohaike V, Afolabi KA, Nwuba RI, Nwagwu M. Epidemiological factors that promote the development of severe malaria anaemia in children in Ibadan. *Afr Health Sci* 2007; 7(2): 80-5.
- [44] Sesay S, Milligan P, Touray E, Sowe M, Webb EL, Greenwood BM, et al. A trial of intermittent preventive treatment and home-based management of malaria in a rural area of the Gambia. *Malar J* 2011; 10: 2.
- [45] Chukwuocha U. Rapid assessment of home management of malaria among caregivers in parts of south eastern Nigeria. *Pan Afr Med J* 2011: 10: 29.
- [46] Ezebilo EE, Sandström C, Ericsson G. Browsing damage by moose in Swedish forests: assessments by hunters and foresters. Scand J Forest Res 2012; 27: 659-68.
- [47] Ezebilo EE. Nature conservation in Cross River National Park, South-East Nigeria: promoting collaboration between local people and conservation authorities. *Int J Biodivers Sci Ecosyst Serv Manag* 2013; 9(3): 215-24.
- [48] White NJ. Qinghaosu (artemisinin): the price of success. Science 2008; **320**(5874): 330-4.