# INTESTINAL PARASITES IN ST LUCIA: A RETROSPECTIVE, LABORATORY-BASED STUDY

# **RAJINI KURUP and GURDIP SINGH HUNJAN**

Department of Microbiology, International American University, St Lucia, West Indies.

Corresponding author: Rajini Kurup (kuruprajini@yahoo.com)

## ABSTRACT

**Objective:** To investigate the epidemiology of intestinal parasitic infections and the presence of Schistosomiasis in the island of St. Lucia. **Methods:** A retrospective survey was conducted using data from hospitals and diagnostic laboratories on the island. A total of 10,735 stool samples were recorded from 10,508 individual people during January 2002 to December 2005. **Results:** The study yielded an overall parasitic prevalence of 26.1% (n=2807) with 95%-confidence interval (95% CI) = 24.5 - 27.7. The overall prevalence of helminthes infection was 13.3% (n=1424; 95% CI = 11.5 - 15.1) with hookworm, *Ancylostoma duodenale* or *Necator americanus* contributing most to the prevalence with 4.8%, followed by *Strongyloides* 2.9%, *Ascaris lumbricoides* 2.5%, *Trichuris trichiura* 2.5%, *Schistosoma mansoni* 0.3% and *Taenia sp.* 0.1%. The prevalence for all intestinal protozoans was 12.9% (n=1383; 95% CI = 11.1 - 14.7) with *Entamoeba coli* contributing most to the protozoan prevalence with 5.6%, followed by *Endolimax nana* 4.1%, *Iodamoeba butschli* 1.1%, *Entamoeba histolytica/ E.dispar/ E. moshkovski* 1.1%, *Giardia lamblia* 0.6 % and *Entamoeba hartmanni* 0.2%. **Conclusion:** The study has provided important data on the epidemiology of intestinal parasitic infection present in the community of St Lucia and supports the need for a well designed community based intervention study.

KEYWORDS: Helminthes; Protozoa; St Lucia; Caribbean.

SUBMITTED: 26 October 2009; ACCEPTED: 17 January 2010

# INTRODUCTION

Helminthes and protozoan parasitic infections have been reported on most of the Caribbean islands, with hookworms, *Trichuris trichiura, Ascaris lumbricoides* and *Strongyloides stercoralis* reported as the most commonly occurring infections (Howard 2002; Junck 2003; Hotez 2003). Pan American Health Organization (PAHO)/World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that 20% to 30% of those living in Latin America and the Caribbean are infected with one of several intestinal helminthes and/or schistosomiasis (PAHO/WHO 2007).

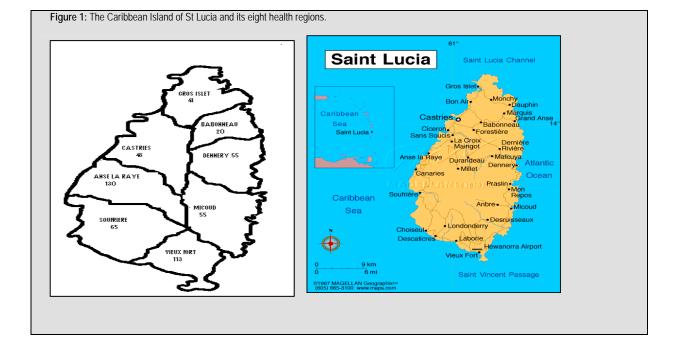
The transmission, occurrence and pathology of human parasitic infections have long been known to be associated with various socio-economic factors including specific occupations, household clustering, and behaviors. There is a strong association between poverty and prevalence and intensity of infection (Benthony 2001; Legesse & Erko 2004; Drake et al., 2005).

St Lucia is a Caribbean island of volcanic origin of 616 sq km with a total population of about 165,000. To date a systematic examination and investigation of the distributions of helminthes and protozoan has not been completed on this island. This study represents the first island wide study that attempted to identify the epidemiology of helminthes and protozoan infections in St. Lucia

## METHODS

The study examined stool sample records contained in a computerized and a written log from hospitals and private testing laboratories on the island. The sampling data was collated from January 2002 to December 2005 representing 48 months of continuous data. The stool examination method was a direct smear, and 10% formalin concentration method (Ritchie 1948; Anonymous 1978; Garcia & Bruckner 1993). A total of 10,735 stool samples were recorded from 10,508 individual people.

All stool samples records were examined and positive results for helminthes eggs and larvae and/or protozoan infections were noted. Variations in distribution patterns of positive stool samples between males and females, age groups, and different geographical regions were determined. For the spatial analysis the eight health regions defined according to the Ministry of Health of St Lucia were considered: Region 1 Gros Islet; Region 2 Babonneau; Region 3 Dennery; Region 4 Micoud; Region 5 Vieux Fort; Region 6 Soufriere; Region 7 Anse-La-Ray; and Region 8 Castries (Figure 1). Prevalences were reported together with 95%-confidence intervals (95%-CI). Chisquare tests were used to compare between gender, age groups and geographical regions. Data analysis was conducted using SPSS version 9.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, Illinois).



## RESULTS

A total of 10,735 stool samples were recorded between the year 2002 and 2005, of which 26.1% (n=2807; 95% CI = 24.5 -27.7) of samples were positive for intestinal parasites. The total prevalence of helminthes infection, 13.3% (n=1424; 95% CI = 11.5 - 15.1) showed no difference when compared with the total prevalence in protozoan infection, 12.9% (n=1383; 95% CI = 11.1 - 14.7). Of the total number of helminthes infections recorded during the study a yearly increase was noted with n=272, n=332, n=382 and n=438 for the years 2002, 2003, 2004, and 2005 respectively (Table 1a). The overall helminthes prevalence against the total population of St Lucia showed a steady increase from 0.17% in 2002, 0.21% in 2003, 0.24% in 2004, to 0.27 % in 2005.

A total of six helminthes species were recorded over the four years and in all recorded years, the greatest proportional contribution of any one helminthes infection was that of the hookworm 4.8%. The second, third and fourth most common infections and subsequently their proportional contributions were Strongyloides with 2.9%, Ascaris lumbricoides with 2.5%, and Trichuris trichiura with 2.5%, respectively. Taenia sp (0.1%) and Schistosoma mansoni (0.3%) contributed least proportional to the total recorded infection on the island.

The prevalence of helminthes was higher in women (51.2%) compared to men (48.8%) (p<0.05). The male cohort showed a greater proportional contribution of hookworm and Strongyloides whereas the female cohort had a greater proportional contribution of Ascaris lumbricoides, Trichuris trichiura and Schistosoma mansoni in all recorded years (Table 1a). Taenia solium contributed to about 0.1% of the total helminthes infection though the prevalence was increased from marginally from 0 in 2002 to 8 in 2005 (Table 1a).

	2002		2003			2004			2005			Sample Total	
Parasite	Male	Female	Year Total										
Trichuris trichiura	2.3 (28)	1.3 (21)	1.7 (49)	1.8 (24)	2.0 (34)	1.9 (58)	2.2 (26)	2.6 (42)	2.4 (68)	3.2 (29)	5.2 (61)	4.3 (90)	2.5
Ascaris lumbricoides	0.7 (9)	2.0 (33)	1.5 (42)	2.3 (31)	1.9 (32)	2.1 (63)	2.3 (27)	3.2 (52)	2.8 (79)	3.3 (30)	4.5 (53)	4.0 (83)	2.5
Strongyloides	3.5 (42)	0.9 (15)	2.0 (57)	3.5 (47)	1.4 (23)	2.3 (70)	3.8 (45)	2.6 (41)	3.1 (86)	5.9 (53)	3.9 (46)	4.8 (99)	2.9
Hookworm	5.4 (64)	2.8 (46)	3.9 (110)	5.1 (69)	3.4 (58)	4.2 (127)	4.8 (56)	4.7 (76)	4.8 (132)	9.7 (88)	4.9 (58)	7.0 (146)	4.8
Schistosoma mansoni	0.2 (9)	0.2 (4)	0.2 (6)	0.4 (6)	0.4 (7)	0.4 (13)	0.2 (2)	0.4 (6)	0.3 (8)	0.2 (2)	0.4 (5)	0.3 (7)	0.3
Taenia solium	0	0	0	0.1 (1)	0	0.0 (1)	0.3 (3)	0.2 (3)	0.2 (6)	0.4 (4)	0.3 (4)	0.4 (8)	0.1
Sample size	1193	1637	2830	1354	1697	3051	1175	1602	2777	903	1174	2077	10735

JRuralTropPublicHealth 2010, VOL 9, p. 24 - 30

Published by the Anton Breinl Centre of Public Health and Tropical Medicine, James Cook University

copyright

The total number of protozoan infections recorded over the four year time period showed no general trend, with n=281, n=353, n=414 and n=335 for the years 2002, 2003, 2004 and 2005, respectively (Table 1b). In total six species of protozoan were recorded with the greatest proportional contribution made by *Entamoeba coli* (5.6%). The second, third and fourth greatest contributors to the total infected population were *Endolimax nana* (4.1%), *Iodamoeba butschlii* (1.1%), and *Entamoeba* 

histolytica/ E.dispar/ E. moshkovski (1.1%). Giardia lamblia (0.2%), and Entamoeba hartmanii sp. (0.2%) contributed marginally to the total protozoan infection. The prevalence of protozoan was higher in females (53.7%) compared to males (46.3%)(p<0.05). Examining the individual species of protozoan species showed no variation between the genders (Table 1b)

<b>Table 1b:</b> Prevalence (in percent) of protozoan stratified by year and host gender ( $n = nu$
---

Parasite –	2002			2003			2004			2005			Sample
	Male	Female	Year Total	Male	Female	Year Total	Male	Female	Year Total	Male	Female	Year Total	- Total
Entamoeba coli	4.3 (51)	4.2 (69)	4.2 (120)	5.5 (74)	4.1 (70)	4.7 (144)	6.7 (79)	6.0 (96)	6.3 (175)	7.5 (68)	7.8 (91)	7.7 (159)	5.6
Endolimax nana	3.4 (41)	2.6 (43)	3.0 (84)	4.8 (65)	3.6 (61)	4.1 (126)	5.5 (65)	4.6 (73)	5.0 (138)	4.1 (37)	5.0 (59)	4.6 (96)	4.1
lodamoeba butschli	1.1 (13)	1.1 (18)	1.1 (31)	1.1 (15)	1.2 (20)	1.1 (35)	1.4 (17)	1.0 (16)	1.2 (33)	1.2 (11)	0.9 (11)	1.1 (22)	1.1
Giardia lamblia Entamoeba histolytica/	1.0 (12)	0.2 (4)	0.6 (16)	0.8 (11)	0.5 (9)	0.7 (20)	0.4 (5)	0.7 (12)	0.6 (17)	0.4 (4)	0.5 (6)	0.5 (10)	0.6
E.dispar/ E. moshkovski	0.4 (5)	1.0 (16)	0.7 (21)	0.4 (6)	0.9 (15)	0.7 (21)	1.9 (22)	1.1 (17)	1.4 (39)	2.1 (19)	1.4 (16)	1.7 (35)	1.1
Entamoeba hartmani	0.3 (4)	0	0.1 (4)	0.1 (2)	0.2 (4)	0.2 (6)	0.3 (3)	0.2 (3)	0.2 (6)	0.6 (5)	0.3 (4)	0.4 (9)	0.2
Sample size	1193	1637	2830	1354	1697	3051	1175	1602	2777	903	1174	2077	10735

Age group specific prevalence of helminthes was lowest in the 40 to 49 year age group and highest in the 0 to 9 year age group. Examining the distribution of specific helminthes within the host age groups, *Ascaris lumbricoides, Trichuris trichiura* 

and *Strongyloides* showed highest prevalences in the 0 to 9 year age group. Whereas, hookworm and *Taenia solium* were more prevalent in the 10 to 19 year age group (Table 2a).

 Table 2a: Prevalence (in percent) of helminthes stratified by host age (n = number infected).

Age group [in years]	0-9	10-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	>70
Trichuris trichiura	5.0 (16)	4.9 (53)	2.6 (85)	2.3 (60)	1.3 (23)	0.9 (8)	2.2 (11)	3.1 (9)
Ascaris lumbricoides	5.7 (18)	3.6 (39)	2.5 (83)	2.3 (59)	1.7 (31)	2.1 (19)	2.9 (14)	1.4 (4)
Strongyloides	7.9 (25)	5.1 (55)	2.4 (79)	2.0 (52)	2.1 (38)	3.3 (30)	5.1 (25)	2.7 (8)
Hookworm	7.9 (25)	8.5 (92)	4.3 (140)	3.7 (94)	3.9 (71)	6.2 (57)	4.1 (20)	5.5 (16)
Schistosoma mansoni	0	0.5 (5)	0.3 (10)	0.3 (7)	0.3 (6)	0.3 (3)	0.2 (1)	0.7 (2)
Taenia solium	0.3 (1)	0.4 (4)	1	0.2 (5)	0.2 (4)	0	0	0
Age group prevalence	26.8 (85)	23.0 (248)	12.2 (397)	10.8 (277)	9.6 (173)	19.2 (117)	14.5 (71)	13.4 (39)
Sample size	317	1079	3266	2570	1799	921	489	291

Age group specific prevalences for protozoan were lowest in the 30 to 39 year age group and highest in the 0 to 9 year age group (Table 2b). Examining the distribution of specific protozoa's, *Endolimax nana* and *Giardia lamblia* had the highest prevalence in the 0 to 9 year age group whereas *Entamoeba coli, Entamoeba histolytica/ E.dispar/ E. moshkovski,* and *Entamoeba hartmani* had the highest prevalence in the 10 to19 year age group. One protozoan *lodamoeba butschli* was found to have an equal prevalence in the 10 to19 and the 60 to 69 year age groups.

### JRuralTropPublicHealth 2010, VOL 9, p. 24 - 30

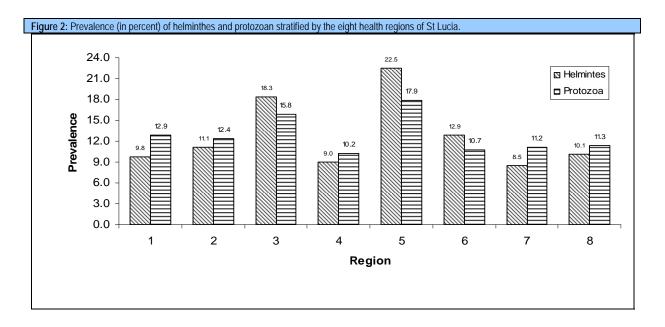
Published by the Anton Breinl Centre of Public Health and Tropical Medicine, James Cook University

Table 2b: Prevalence (in percent) of proto	ozoan stratified by host age	e (n = number infected).
--	------------------------------	--------------------------

Age group [in years]	0-9	10-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	>70
Entamoeba coli	7.3 (23)	8.7 (94)	5.0 (164)	4.6 (117)	5.2 (93)	6.3 (58)	5.9 (29)	6.9 (20)
Endolimax nana	8.8 (28)	5.7 (62)	4.1 (134)	3.8 (97)	3.5 (63)	3.4 (31)	3.3 (16)	4.5 (13)
lodamoeba butschli	1.6 (5)	1.8 (19)	0.8 (26)	0.9 (23)	1.6 (28)	1.0 (9)	1.8 (9)	0.7 (2)
Giardia lamblia	0.9 (3)	0.7 (8)	0.7 (22)	0.5 (13)	0.4 (7)	0.8 (7)	0.2 (1)	0.7 (2)
Entamoeba histolytica/ E. dispar/ E. moshkovski	1.6 (5)	1.8 (19)	0.9 (29)	0.9 (22)	1.1 (19)	1.6 (15)	1.0 (5)	0.7 (2)
Entamoeba hartmani	0	0.6 (7)	0.1 (3)	0.2 (5)	0.3 (5)	0.3 (3)	0.2 (1)	0.3 (1)
Age group prevalence	20.2 (64)	19.4 (209)	11.6 (378)	10.8 (277)	12.0 (215)	13.4 (123)	13.7 (67)	13.8 (40)
Sample size	317	1079	3266	2570	1799	921	489	291

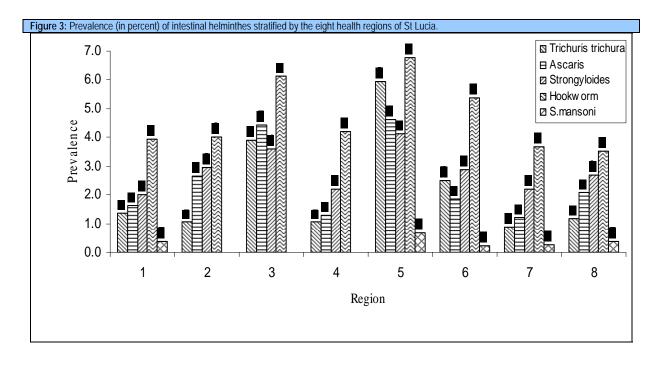
The regional distribution of helminthes infections showed the highest prevalence in region 5 with 22.5 % (n=522) followed by region 3 with a prevalence of 18.3% (n= 66), whereas regions 6 and 2 contributed with a prevalence of 12.9% (n=224) and

11.1% (n=105), respectively. Region 7 had the lowest prevalence of helminthes infection with 8.5% (n=97) (Figure 2). The regional distribution of protozoan infections showed a very similar pattern.



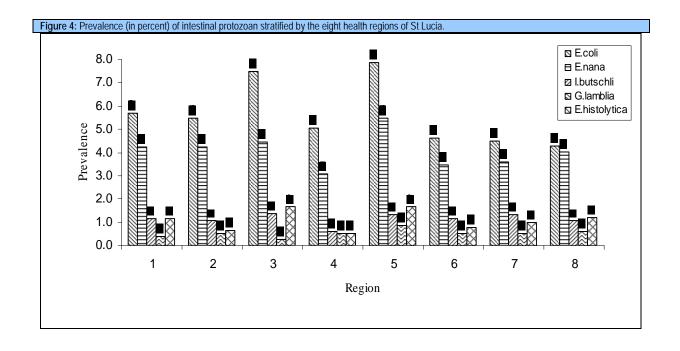
The prevalence of hookworms (4.8%; n=514) was the highest of all helminthes. The prevalence of hookworms was highest of all recorded helminthes (Figure 3) across all regions. The highest prevalence of hookworm was noted in region 5 with *Trichuris trichura, Ascaris lumbricoides* and *Strongyloides* infections also highest in region 5 (Figure 3). Across all the regions the second most prevalent helminthes was

*Strongyloides* noted in regions 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, and 8 with Ascaris being the second most prevalent in region 3 and *Trichuris trichura* in region 5. Though the overall prevalence of Schistosoma infection (0.3%; n=34) was low compared to other helminthic infections, region 5 showing the highest incidence with 0.7% (n=16) (Figure 3)



The prevalence of protozoan infections with respect to region showed *Giardia lamblia, Entamoeba coli, Endolimax nana, Entamoeba hartmannii* and *Entamoeba histolytica/ E.dispar/ E. moshkovski* were the most frequent protozoan infections in region 5 (Figure 4). Across all eight health regions the most

prevalent protozoan was *Entamoeba coli* with *Endolimax nana* coming second. All other protozoan infections were recorded with prevalence's ranging between 1.7 and 0.3% across the health regions, though specific contributions to the overall prevalence in any one region was limited (Figure 4).



## DISCUSSION

This study was the first island wide investigation on the frequency and distribution patterns of helminthes and protozoan parasitic infections on St Lucia. The infections noted are not unique to St Lucia rather many of the islands of the

Caribbean have also been noted in harboring the common species of parasites (Grell 1981; Crompton1999). A sequential increase of helminthes infections was noted from January 2002 to December 2005. Variations in access due to transport or reductions in heath care provision were not observed during the study period suggesting that the increase in prevalence

copyright

## JRuralTropPublicHealth 2010, VOL 9, p. 24 - 30

Published by the Anton Breinl Centre of Public Health and Tropical Medicine, James Cook University

may be real. This result suggests that effective infection control measures are required for the most affected regions of St Lucia.

The present study found hookworm, *Ascaris lumbricoides*, *Trichuris trichura and Strongyloides* to be the most common soil transmitted helminthes; with hookworms showing highest the prevalence across the study period followed by *Strongyloides*. High transmission rates of hookworm has previously been noted in other areas with rural poverty in the tropics, including southern China, the Indian subcontinent, Sub Saharan Africa and the Americas (Hotez 2002; Yadla et al 2003; Hotez et al 2003; Aimpun & Hshieh 2004; Hotez et al 2006). Although *Ascaris lumbricoides* and *Trichuris trichura* were less frequent than hookworms and *Strongyloides* in the present study, they predominate in some parts of South East Asia, Africa and the Caribbean (Stephenson 2000).

Examining the protozoan data showed no general time trend suggesting a stable level of prevalence. *E. coli* was most frequent. *E. nana, I. butschlii* and *Entamoeba histolytica/E.dispar/ E. moshkovski* contributed second, third and fourth towards the total protozoan infections. Similar findings were previously reported from studies conducted in other parts of the Americas (Bonilla & Chavez 2000; Aimpun & Hshieh 2004). The high prevalence of *E. coli* infection could be caused by water or food contamination or the general unsanitary conditions of daily living.

Analysis of helminths infections by sex showed that males had higher prevalence in hookworm and *Strongyloides* infections. Such predominance in infection rates may be a reflection of male behaviour (Collins & Edwards 1981; Albonico et al 1997). However, infections with *Ascaris lumbricoides, Trichuris trichura* and *Schistosoma mansoni* were more frequent in the female population and similar results were found in studies from New Guinea (Shield 1980; Kightlinger et al 1995). Individual protozoan infections did not show any significant differences.

Overall incidence of both helminthes and protozoan infection with respect to age showed a U-shape with higher prevalence in the 0 to 9 year age group whereas the 40 to 49 year age group had lowest prevalence. This finding suggests a typical high exposure in children (Brooker 2004; Bundy 1995). Individual analyses found that the prevalences of *A. lumbricoides, Trichuris trichura,* and *Strongyloides* infections were high in the young age group and declined thereafter. These findings were similar to results from previous studies showing for example, for *Ascaris* and *Trichuris* infections a peak in the young age group, but with a subsequent decline among adults (Bundy 1995; Bundy 1988); and for hookworm and *Schistosoma mansoni* high infection rates for the 10 to 19 year age group (Kabatereine 1999; Kabatereine 2005).

The regional differences in prevalences noted in this study do not reflect differences in the relative size of the populations living in each of the regions and are thus independent of the size of that region. The highest prevalence of all recorded helminthes and protozoan infections was found in health region 5 followed by region 3. Region 5 has the second largest hospital of the island and thus provides all health care needs of that region leading to the assumption that this may cause the data collection to be influencing the regional differences. However health region 2 has the largest hospital of the island as well as independent laboratories from which data were recovered. Thus no clear association exists between healthcare provision for a health region and infection levels recorded in that region.

Study of individual parasites showed hookworm, Trichuris trichura, Ascaris lumbricoides and Strongyloides infections to be high in health region 5 whereas among protozoans Giardia lamblia, E. coli, E. nana, E. hartmanii and Entamoeba histolytica/ E.dispar/ E. moshkovski infections were also high in region 5. Schistosomal infections were reduced after the successful conduct of the Rockefellers project in St Lucia between 1970 and 1975. This project reduced the incidence of Schistosoma mansoni from 22% to 4.3% (Barnish 1980; Morgan 2001). The low prevalence of Schistosomiasis noted in this study (0.3%) would reflect the effective nature of the control program which was based on the introduction of competitor snails in 1975. No other parasite control program than that conducted in 1975 has been implemented on St Lucia. Future investigations are needed to identify factors which influence the regional difference and the levels of infection. It is necessary to identify potentially controllable factors that contribute to the risk of infection in order to establish future effective control programs on the island.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This report was supported by St Jude Hospital, Vieux Fort, and Micro lab, Castries, Tapion Hospital, Castries and Victoria Hospital, Castries.

### Declaration

Authors have no competing interests to declare.

## REFERENCES

Albonico M, Chwaya HM, Montresor A, Stolfzfus RJ, Tielsch JM, Alawi KS, and Savioli L (1997) Parasitic infections in Pemba Island schoolchildren. *East African Medical Journal* 74(5):294-8.

Anonymous. (1978) Recommended procedures for the examination of clinical specimens submitted for the diagnosis of parasitic infections. *American Journal of Medical Technology*, 44: 1101-6.

Anthony Junck. (2003) Intestinal Nematode infections in rural school children aged 6-12. Windward Islands Research and Education Foundation-WINDREF Research institute Annual Report

Barnish G, Christie JD, and Prentice MA. (1980) *Schistosoma mansoni* control in Cul de Sac Valley, Saint Lucia. I. A. two year focal surveillance molluscisiding programme for the control of *Biomphalaria glabarata*. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 74(4): 488-92.

Benthony J, Williams JT, Kloos H, Blangero J, Alves-Fraga L, Buck G et al., (2001) Exposure to *Schistosoma mansoni* infection in a rural area in Brazil. *Tropical Medicine International Health*, 6: 136-42.

Brooker S, Bethony J, and Hotez PJ. (2004) Human Hookworm Infection in the 21st Century. *Advances in Parasitology*, 58: 197–288.

JRuralTropPublicHealth 2010, VOL 9, p. 24 - 30

Published by the Anton Breinl Centre of Public Health and Tropical Medicine, James Cook University

Bundy D. (1988) Population ecology of intestinal helminth infections in human communities. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society London B Biological Sciences*, 321: 405-20.

Bundy DAP. (1995) Epidemiology and transmission of intestinal helminths. In: Enteric Infection 2, Intestinal Helminths (Eds. MJG Farthing, GT Keusch, D Wakelin); Chapman & Hall Medical, pp.5-24.

Collins RF and Edwards LD. (1981) Prevalence of intestinal helminths and protozoans in a rural population segment of the Dominican Republic. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 75: 549-51.

Crompton, DWT. (1999) How much human helminthiasis is there in the world? *Journal of Parasitology*, 85: 397-403.

Drake LJ, Jukes MCH, Sternberg RJ, and Bundy DAP. (2000) Geo-helminth infections (ascariasis, trichuriasis, and hookworm): cognitive and developmental impacts. *Seminars in Pediatric Infectious Diseases*, 11: 245–51.

Garcia LS and Bruckner DA. (1993) Macroscopic and Microscopic Examination of Fecal Specimens. *Diagnostic Medical Parasitology*. 2nd edition. Edited by: Garcia LS, Bruckner DA. Washington. American Society for Microbiology: 501-535.

Grell, Gerald AC, Patricia D, Edward WI, Graham SR, and Ralph MI. (1981) A survey of parasites in primary school children in Dominica, West Indies. *Annals of Tropical Paediatrics*, 1(3):155-60.

Hotez PJ. (2003) Hookworm in the Americas: Progress in the development of an anti-hookworm vaccine. In: de Quadros CA, editor. Vaccines: Preventing disease and protecting health Washington (D.C.): Pan American Health Organization, pp 213–220

Hotez PJ. (2002) China's hookworms. *China Quarterly*, 172:1029–41.

Howard (2002) Spatial and intensity dependent variations in associations between multiple species helminth infections. *Acta Tropica*, 83:141-9.

Kabatereine NB, Vennerval BK, Ouma JH, Kemijumbi J, Butterworth AE, Dunne DW, and Fulford AJ. (1999) Adult Resistance to *Schistosomiasis mansoni*: Age-Dependence to Reinfection Remains Constant in Communities with Diverse Exposure Patterns. *Parasitology*, 118: 101–5.

Kabatereine PJ, Ardra S, Bethony J, Bottazzi ME, Loukas M, Correa-Oliveira R, and Brooker S. (2005) Helminth Infections of Children: Prospects for Control. In Hot Topics in Infection and Immunity in children, ed. A. J. Pollard and A. Finn. New York: Springer. Leonor chacin-bonilla and yulaicy sanchez-chavez. (2000) Intestinal parasitic infections, with a special emphasis on Cryptosporidiosis, in Amerindians from western Venezuela. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 62(3): 347–52.

Kightlinger LK, Seed JR, and Kightlinger MB. (1995) The Epidemiology of *Ascaris Lumbricoides, Trichuris trichiura*, and Hookworm in Children in the Ranomafana Rainforest, Madagascar. *The Journal of Parasitology*, 81(2): 159-69.

Legesse M and Erko B. (2004) Prevalence of intestinal parasites among school children in a rural area close to south east of Lake Langagano, Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 18(2): 116-120.

Morgan JA, Dejong RJ, Snyder SD, Mkoji GM, and Loker ES. (2001) *Schistosoma mansoni* and *Biomphalaria*: past history and future trends. *Parasitology*, 123 Suppl: S211-28.

Pan American Health Organization (PAHO)/World Health Organization (WHO). (2007) Control of Soil-Transmitted Helminth Infections in the English- and French- Speaking Caribbean: Towards World Health Assembly Resolution 54.19 (Kingston, Jamaica, 15–17 May 2007).

Hotez PJ, Bundy DAP, Beegle K, et al. (2006) Helminth Infections: Soil-Transmitted Helminth Infections and Schistosomiasis. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank.

Hotez PJ, de Silva N, Brooker S, Bethony J. (2003) Soil Transmitted Helminth infections: The Nature, Causes and Burden of the Condition.Working Paper No. 3, Disease Control Priority Project. Behesda, Manyland: Fogarty International Centre, National Institute.

Aimpun P and Hshieh P. (2004) Survey for Intestinal Parasites in Belize, Central America. *Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medical Public Health*, 35(3): 506-511

Ritchie L. (1948) An ether sedimentation technique for routine stool examinations. *Bulletin of the US Army Medical Department* 8: 326.

Shield JM, Scrimgeour EM, and Vaterlaws AL. (1980) Intestinal helminths in an adult hospital of Papua New Guinea. *PNG Medical Journal*, 23(4): 157-64.

Stephenson LS, Latham MC, and Ottesen EA. (2000) Malnutrition and Parasitic Helminth Infections. *Parasitology*, 121 (Suppl.): S23–8.

Yadla S, Sen HG, Hotez PJ. (2003) An epidemiological study of ancylostomiasis in a rural area of Kanpur District Uttar Pradesh, India. *Indian Journal of Public Health*, 47:53–60.