

University Of Benghazi Faculty Of Science Department Of Zoology

Incidence Of Intestinal Parasites Among HIV-Infected Patients In Benghazi, Libya.

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Zoology.

By EMAN ZAID EL-FAIDE

Supervisor Prof. Dr. Hamed H. Kassem Professor Of Parasitology

> Faculty Of Science Benghazi University Benghazi , Libya



University Of Benghazi Faculty Of Science Department Of Zoology

Incidence Of Intestinal Parasites Among HIV Infected Patients In Benghazi, Libya.

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

By EMAN ZAID EL-FAIDE

Approved by :

(supervisor): Prof. Dr. Hamed H.Kassem	
Prof. Dr. Mahmoud M. Fadiel (Internal examiner)	
Prof .Dr. Abdunnaser A. El-Buni (External examiner)	
Countersigned by: Dr. Hussen El-Barasi Head , Zoology Department	Dr. Ahmad Mamy (Dean Faculty Of Science)



جامعة قاريونس كليــــة العلــوم قســـم علــم الحيــوان

معدل حدوث الأصابه بالطفيليات المعوية في مرضى الايدز في بنغازي- ليبيا

أطروحة مقدمة كجزء من متطلبات الأجازة العليا (الماجستير) في العلوم مقدمة من الطالبة إيمـــان زايد الفـــايدى أشراف الأستاذ الدكتور حامــد احميـدة قاسـم كلية العلوم جامعة بنغـازي

بسر دلش د لرحس د لرحيم

وما (وتيترم ولعلم (الاليل)

صرى (للش (لعظييم

سورة (الإسراء _ (الآية 85

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

First of all I must thank our almighty Allah, who enables me to carry out this work. My deep appreciation and sincere gratitude are expressed to my advisor Professor Dr. Hamed H. Kassem , Professor of Parasitology, Zoology Department , Faculty of Science , Benghazi University , for suggestion the research project , guidance , support and encouragement throughout the duration of this study .

Best regards are due to the Benghazi University and Faculty of Science for their sincere and continuous efforts to maintain graduate studies requirements. Thanks to Dr. Ahmed Mamy , Dean of Faculty of Science , Dr. Hussen El-Barasi , Head of Zoology Department for their help and applying the necessary facilities required for the work, as well as other faculty members , technicians and employees of the Zoology Department.

Special thanks are due to my best friend Hanan Mohd Makhlouf, Nada Mahmoud, 7 October Laboratory Hospital (Mr. Mabrook Eltaboni, Mr. Youns Elshamkh, Dr. Adela Elemami), Central Lab (Soad Alramli, Fatma Alramli), HIV Center (Nagma Nagem), Dr. mona tolba (Alexandria University) for their assistance and moral support, and to my family, and to my friends for their encouragement.

CONTENTS

Contents	Ι
Acknowledgement	III
List of Tables	IV
List of Figures	VI
List of Plates	VIII
1.Introduction	1
2. Literature Review	3
3. Materials and Methods	18
3.1. Study area	18
3.2.1. Study design and Patients.3.2.2. Questionnaire	18 20
3.2.3. Collection and preparation of sera	21
3.3. 2.1. Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)	22
3.3. 3. collection of stool samples	26
3.3.3.1 Macroscopic examination	26
3.3.3.2. Macroscopic Parasitological examination	26
3.3.3.2.1. Direct Macroscopic (direct wet mount technique ,saline and iodine smear)	27
3.3.3.2.2. Formalin – ethyle acetate sedimentation technique	
3.3.3.2.3 Modified Zeihl-Neelsen Staining Method	27 29
3.3.4. Statistical analysis	31
4. Results	32
4.1. Incidence	32
4.2.Incidence and sex.	38

4.3.Incidence and Age	4
4.4.Incidence and diarrhea	5
4.5.Incidence of single and mixed infection	5
5. Discussion	(
6. Summary	7
7. References	-

Summary in Arabic

LIST OF TABLES

Table (1) : Overall incidence rate of intestinal parasitic infectionamong examined patients (N=450)	34				
Table(2) : Incidence of intestinal parasitic infection amongexamined HIV - seropositive and HIV - seronegative patients					
Table (3) : Relationship between incidence of intestinal parasiticinfection and sex among HIV- seropositive and HIV- seronegative	39				
Table (4) : Incidence of intestinal parasitic species and sex amongHIV-seropositive patients (n=300)	41				
Table (5): Incidence of intestinal parasitic infection in each agegroup among HIV- seropositive and HIV- seronegative	44				
Table (6): Incidence of intestinal parasitic species in each age group among HIV patients	47				
Table (7): Incidence of intestinal parasitic species in each age group of HIV-seronegative (n=150).	49				
Table (8): Relationship between intestinal parasitic infectionand diarrhea among HIV - seropositive and HIV seronegativepatients	52				
Table (9) : Incidance of intestinal parasitic species infection in HIV- seropsitive and HIV – seronegative patients with and withoutdiarrhea	54				
Table (10): Single and mixed infections of intestinal parasitesamong HIV- seropositive and HIV-seronegative	57				

LIST OF FIGURES

	page
Figure (1): Map of (Benghazi city)-showing place of the study	19
Figure (2) : Overall incidence rate of intestinal parasitic infection among examined patients (n=450)	33
Figure (3) :Overall incidence rate of intestinal parasitic infection in examined patients. (N=450)	. 34
Figure(4) : Incidence of intestinal parasitic infection among examined HIV - seropositive (n=300) and HIV - seronegative patients (150)	. 37
Figure (5) : Relationship between incidence of intestinal parasitic infection and sex among HIV- seropositive and HIV-seronegative	. 39
Figure (6) : Incidence of intestinal parasitic species and sex among HIV-seropositive patients (n=300)	42
Figure (7) : Incidence of intestinal parasitic infection in each age group among HIV- seropositive and HIVseronegative	. 45
Figure (8): Relationship between intestinal parasitic infection and diarrhea among HIV - seropositive patients and HIV - seronegative patients	53

Figure	(9a,b): Ine	cidanc	e of intestinal	parasitic	speci	es in	fection i	n HIV –	
seropsitiv	/e	and	HIV -	- seronegative	patients	with	and	without	diarrhea	55

Figure:	(10):	Single an	d mixed	infections	of int	testinal	parasites	among	
HIV- set	roposit	ive and HI	V- seror	negative					. 57

LIST OF PLATES

Plates : (1 a and b) : Photo micrograph of Kit Enzyme linked	
immunosorbent assay (ELISA)(HIV)	.24
Plate(2):Photomicrograph of Microplate washer SAGA	.25
Plate (3): photomicrograph Of Microplate reader GEA	25
Plate (4) : photomicrograph Modified Zeihl-Neelsen(acid-fast stain)	30
Plate (5) : photomicrograph staining Zeihl-Neelsen technique	30
Plate (6): <i>Blastocystis hominis</i> (X100)	58
Plate (7) : Entamoeba histolytica \ Entamoeba dispar (X100)	58
Plate (8) : Gardia lamblia cyst (X100)	59
Plate (9) : Gardia lamblia Trophozoite (X100)	.59
Plate(10 a and b): Cryptosporidium parvum(X100)	.60
Plate (11) : Entamoeba coli (X100)	61
Plate (12) : Endolimax nana (x 100)	.61
Plate (13) : Enterobius vermicularis(X100)	.62
Plate (14) : <i>Taenia</i> sp. egg(X100)	62



INTRODUCTION

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection, is a worldwide infection and a serious public health problem in the present . A high rate of infection is found in many regions of the world . Gastrointestinal infections are very common in patients with HIV infection or AIDS (Surasiengsunk .,1998).

Current estimates showed that at least more than one-quarter of the world's population is chronically infected with intestinal parasites, which may play a significant role in morbidity due to intestinal infection and most of these infected people live in developing countries. However, intestinal parasites once considered to be controllable in developed countries still remain a major cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide (Fincham, and Adams 2003 and UN AIDS ,2007).

Parasitic infections of the gastrointestinal tract are a major cause of morbidity in developing countries and are increasingly important in certain populations from the developed countries, particularly in AIDS patients . Several species of intestinal parasites have been associated with diarrhoea which occurs with HIV infection. (Arora and Arora, 2009).

Approximately 40 million people are HIV infected, out of which 90% of infections in sub-Saharan Africa, Asia and South America. Co-infection between HIV and parasitic infections are common diarrhoea is a common clinical presentation of these infections. Reports indicate that diarrhoea occurs in 30-60 per cent of AIDS patients in developed countries and in about 90 per cent of AIDS patients undeveloping countries (Framm and Soave ,1997).

In particular, opportunistic protozoans play a major role as etiologic agents of chronic diarrhea in HIV-infected patients. Chronic diarrhea in such patients can profoundly compromise the absorptive function of the small intestine, and cause significant mortality (Escobedo and Nunez, 1999).Diarrhea is one of the most common AIDS-related illnesses causing a significant morbidity and mortality in HIV infected patients (), and is a common complication of HIV positive patients inducing weight loss and cachexia. (Mukhopadya *etal.*,1999 and Siddiqui *et al.*,2007).

The objectives of this study to :-

- A- Determine the incidence of intestinal parasites in HIV infected patients who were admitted or treated in the National Hospitals in Benghazi ,Libya.
- B- Study the relationship between incidence and sex age .



2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.AIDS:

The AIDS and HIV so-called epidemic is currently one of the most critical medical, social and governance issues facing the world. AIDS has been recognized worldwide since1989. There are two main types of HIV: type 1 (HIV-1) is the most common, while, HIV type-2 (HIV-2) found predominantly in Africa (Biggar, 1986 and Bradbeer,1986). While HIV-1 prevalence is increasing in many areas, the prevalence of HIV-2 has remained fairly stable, and the clinical course of HIV-2 disease is slower than that of HIV-1. double infection with HIV-1 and HIV-2 is possible, although it has been suggested that HIV-2 infection may confer some protection against HIV-1 acquisition(Berkelman *et al.*, 1989). Although mother-to-child transmission of HIV-2 has been documented, this occurs less frequently than with HIV-1 (Clavel *et al.*, 1986).

2.2. Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV-1) infection in Libya :

The first cases of HIV infection occurred in the 1980, among hemophiliacs as a result of Factor VIII imported from Europe. Before 1998, the large majority of infections were reported among foreigners. In 1998, a severe HIV/AIDS infection occurred at Benghazi children's hospital due to contaminated blood products/ parenteral exposure. A total of 453 persons, mostly children, were infected and 53 have died. The Libyan health system and the society as a whole faced major difficulties to react in an effective way to the infection, leaving a large number of families in distress (Giasuddin ,1991).

2.3. Intestinal parasitic infections in Libya :

Like in many other developing countries, intestinal parasites are widely distributed in Libya largely due to the low level of environmental and personal hygiene, contamination of food and drinking water that results from improper disposal of human excreta (WHO, 1981and WHO, 1987). In addition, lack of awareness of simple health promotion practices is also a contributing factor(WHO, 1981and WHO, 1987). In Libya the first report was published by Dar and Friend ,1979 on the intestinal parasites in Benghazi school children . Later, El-Boulaqi *et al* ., (1980) from Libya studied the prevalence of intestinal parasites in primary school children in Benghazi . Several other studies on intestinal parasites in Libya (Al-Tawaty *et al* .,1998; El –Buni and Khan , 1998; Bugharara *et al* .,1999; Raof ,2002; Ibrahium , 2003; Burshan ,2004 ; El-Sanousi , 2006; El-Sanousi , 2007 Karor ,2007; Sadaga and Kassem ,2007).

But So far no study on intestinal parasites among HIV seropositve patients was done in Libya.

2.4. Intestinal parasitic infections in HIV/AIDS patients:

Intestinal parasitic infections are the commonest and the major causes of morbidity and mortality in HIV positive patients, worldwide (Gupta *et al.*,2008). These organisms usually cause a self limiting illness in immunocompetent individuals, but in the case of immune compromised patients, they can cause life threatening, profuse watery diarrhoea (Meisel *et al*., 1976).

The public health importance of intestinal parasites as a major concern in most developing countries has been pronounced with the co-occurrence of malnutrition and HIV/AIDS. With HIV/AIDS pandemic, many intestinal parasites, previously considered to be sporadic or zoonotic infections, have become opportunistic parasites causing uncontrollable and life- threatening diarrhoea (Wittner *et al.*, 1993).

As compared to developed countries, the prevalence of opportunistic intestinal parasites is expected to be higher in developing countries among HIV infected population. This is also reflected by the prevalence of opportunistic intestinal parasites in a given geographical locality among the general population (Lindo *et al*, 1998 and Cimerman *et al.*, 1999). HIV infection has been shown to predispose the patient to intracellular opportunistic intestinal parasites (Wittner *etal.*,1993; and Goodgame, 1996). This does not seem to be the case with extracellular intestinal parasites.

Some studies have indicated that compared to the general population, there is relatively lower prevalence of non-opportunistic extracellular intestinal parasites in HIV/AIDS patients (Gomze Morales *etal.*, 1995 and Lindo *etal*, 1998). Although differences in exposure may not be ruled out, it is suggested that HIV- induced entropathy may not create conducive environment for the establishment of extracellular intestinal parasites (Wittner *et al.* 1993). Others have also argued that mucosa dwelling parasites may benefit from HIV-induced pathological changes and the reduced immune response due to HIV infection, which creates suitable

environment for opportunistic intestinal parasites in HIV/AIDS patients (Goodgame, 1996).

Most clinical manifestations of HIV/AIDS patients results either from the reactivation of pre-existing latent pathogens, as the individuals become immunosuppressed or is caused by exposure to locally predominant pathogens. Consequently, clinical presentations of AIDS and the pathogens responsible in different geographical areas reflect the differing prevalence of opportunistic intestinal parasitic infections in a given community (Colebunders *et al.*, 1988 and Lindo *etal*, 1998).

studies Several shown that intestinal parasitic infection are amongst the most widespread of all human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (Tarimo et al ., 1996 ; Escobedo and Nunez , 1999 Wiwanitkit ,2001; Mohandas et al., 2002 ; Guk et al ., 2005 ; Moges et al., 2006 ; Oguntibeju, 2006 ; Saksirisampant et al., 2009 ;Al-Megrin, 2010; Akinbo et al., 2010 ;Dehkordy etal. (2010), Etok et al., 2010 ; Getaneh et al., 2010 ; Abaver et al., 2011 ; Akinbo et al., 2011; Alemu et al., 2011 ; Amatya et al ., 2011 ; Asma etal ., 2011 ;Deorukhkar et al., 2011; Ochigbo et al., 2011 and Stensvold et al. ,2011).

2.5. Diarrhoea and HIV/AIDS:

Diarrhoea is a common clinical manifestation of HIV infections both in the developing (90%) and the developed (30-50%) countries (Colebunders *etal.*, 1988). Its cause could be parasitic (commonly opportunistic intestinal parasites) (Germani, *etal.*, 1998; Kelly, 1998). Chronic diarrhoea lasting for more than one month is one of the major complaints of AIDS patients occurring in about 40% of cases and it is one of the WHO-stagingcriteria for AIDS (WHO, 1993).

It has been shown that at least 40-80% of AIDS patients report diarrhoeal episodes during their illness (Kelly, 1998). About 50% of chronic diarrhoea in AIDS patients may be explained by enteric infections with one or more species of pathogenic organisms, commonly opportunistic ones (Bartlett *et al*, 1992 and Prasad *et al.*, 2000). Gut architectural alteration secondary to local HIV infection, (usually referred to as HIV entropathy) a condition characterizing chronic diarrhoea in AIDS patients in whom no identifiable aetiological agent has been found for the diarrhoea (Kotler *etal.*,1984 and Bartlett *et al*, 1992). Patients with this syndrome have malabsorption, and small bowel histology revealing villous blunting and chronic inflammation (Kotler *etal.*, 1984 and Tadesse and Kassu, 2005).

There is another view that enteropathy syndrome may not represent a direct effect of HIV on gut mucosa, but rather could be due to opportunistic enteric pathogens that are difficult to detect and therefore as yet undiagnosed (Colebunders *et al.*, 1988). It is also held that HIV related entropathy is not only the cause of unexplained diarrhoea, but may also create favourable environment for the invasion of intracellular opportunistic intestinal parasites (Chintu *etal.*, 1995 and Germani *etal.*, 1998 and Boral *et al.*, 2004).

Types of intestinal parasites in HIV/AIDS patients:

HIV/AIDS pandemic has brought about a great change in intestinal parasite fauna. As the spectrum of immunodeficiency progresses, HIV

infected individuals become susceptible to a variety of opportunistic parasite infections that occur with greater frequency and severity. Almost 80% of AIDS patients die from AIDS -related infections including intestinal parasites rather than HIV infection itself (Kelly, 1998 and Adamu and Petros, 2009). Several intestinal parasites previously considered nonpathogenic or with transient pathogenic potential in immunocompetent individuals are opportunistically becoming aggressive and causing debilitating illness in HIV/AIDS patients. Most of these infections are caused by organisms that do not normally affect immunocompetent individuals (Kaplan et al., 1996). The principal pathogenic intestinal parasites commonly reported as opportunistic and that cause chronic diarrhoea in HIV/AIDS patients are Cryptosporidium parvum, Isospora belli. Cyclospora cayetanensis and intestinal microsporidia (Enterocytozoon bieneusi and Encephalitozoon intestinalis). These infections usually occur late in the course of HIV infection (Chintu et al., 1995; Tarimo etal., 1996; Brandonisio et al., 1999; Cimerman etal., 1999; Sarfati et al., 2006 ;Stark et al., 2007 and Aminuan and Yakubu, 2008).

a) Cryptosporidium parvum:

Cryptosporidium species are very small intestinal protozoa. They are dwelling in the stomach or in the small intestine of mammals, birds and reptiles. This apicomplexa parasite infects humans and animals, globally. Up to now eight valid *Cryptosporidium* species have been reported to be capable of infecting humans (Rimhanen-Finne, *et al.*, 2009). *Cryptosporidium* has been initially reported in a mouse in 1912 by Tyzzer, but its impact on animal health has not been recognized until the early 1970, when association with diarrhea in calves mainly in the first 30 days

of age has been observed (Panciera *et al.*, 1971). It can cause gastrointestinal illness in a wide variety of mammals, including humans, cattle, sheep, goats, pigs and horses worldwide (Fayer *et al.*, 1997). The routes of transmission of this parasite can be person to person through direct or indirect contact, animal to animal, animal to human, waterborne through drinking water or recreational water, food borne and/or possibly air borne (Fayer *et al.*, 2000 and Musa *etal.*, 2011).

It is an intestinal pathogen having a zoonotic nature and responsible for clinical disease in mammalian species commonly infecting human beings. *C. parvum* has been reported in about 80 different animal species including cattle, pigs, horse, sheep and goats (Dubey, *e t al.*, 1990). The first case of human infection with *C. parvum* was reported in 1976 (Mosier and Oberst, 2000 and Getaneh *et al.*, 2010). Since then, it is an increasingly recognised agent of intestinal infection as a common cause of severe diarrhoea in immunocompetent and immunocompromised humans and domestic animals (Hunter and Nicholes, 2002 and Dehkordy *et al.*, 2010). The oocyst measures 4-6m. in diameter. The major clinical symptoms are watery diarrhoea, malabsorption and wasting syndromes The severity of the disease depends on the immune status of the individuals (Martins and Guerrant, 1995; Botero *et al.*, 2003 ; Ghimire *etal.* 2004 and Gatei *etal.*,2008).

The nature of diarrhoea is usually secretory or malabsorpative, voluminous, intractable, watery and often cholera-like (Clark and Sears, 1996). Mucus may be associated with diarrhoea, but blood or leukocytes are rarely reported in AIDS patients with cryptosporidiosis. About 2 to 7 liters per day (sometimes more) of diarrhoea have been reported (Manabe, *etal.*, 1998). Severe weight loss has been reported due to debilitating

diarrhoea (Mengesha, 1994). Abdominal pain with cramps, low-grade fever, vomiting, nausea and anorexia accompanies the diarrhoea (Clark and Sears, 1996 and Lindo *etal.*, 1998). The diarrhoea can be bright yellowishgreen in colour, offensive and may contain mucus (Martins and Guerrant, 1995). It has been estimated that in AIDS patients with diarrhoea, the association of C. parvum ranges from 10 to 30% in the developed countries and 30 to 50% in the developing world (Petersen, 1993). C. parvum has also been implicated in the etiology of extraintestinal cryptosporidiosis causing acalculous cholecystitis, sclerosing cholangistis and pancreatitis in HIV-infected patients (Le et al., 2008 and Lopez-velez, etal., 1995). In general C. parvum is the most common opportunistic protozoan parasite that is at present well established and documented as a worldwide cause of diarrhoea in immunosuppressed individuals in general and HIV/AIDS patients in particular. It is now an AIDS -defining illness as it is involved with chronic diarrhoea (longer than one month) and the most common cause of enteric disease in HIV/AIDS patients (WHO, 1993).

Cryptosporidium parvum is also an increasingly recognized agent of intestinal infections in immunocompetent humans (Kuhls *et al* ., 1994). Human infections in healthy individuals, are manifested with symptoms that are self-limited and usually last less than a month. In HIV/AIDS patients and immunocompromised individuals, diarrhoea can persist for months (or even for life) and eventually may become life threatening (Clark and Sears, 1996). Transmission of *C. parvum* occurs by ingestion of infective oocysts through mainly faecal-oral route of contamination, by human-to-human, animal-to-human or environmentally such as in waterborne outbreaks (Griffiths, 1998).

Nosocomial transmission (i.e. in hospital room mates) has also been described. An outbreak of cryptosporidiosis in a hospital in Copenhagen

had affected some 18 HIV-positive patients. The source of the outbreak was identified as ice from an ice machine in the ward, contaminated by an incontinent psychotic patient with cryptosporidiosis who was using his hands to pick out ice for cold drinks (Bruce *et al.*, 2000). In different parts of the world, *C. parvum* has reached the public health domain when it became widely recognised as the most serious and difficult to control cause of water-borne diarrhoea. This was confirmed by the major outbreak in Milwaukee, Wisconsin in1993 (Griffiths,1998).

b) Blastocystis hominis:

Diarrhoeagenic intestinal parasite that were not recognized as such up to the recent past are emerging and increasing these days. The problem has become more serious with onset of HIV/AIDS pandemic. Among these the status of *B. hominis* as a cause of diarrhoea is a controversial and not well-documented one (Zierdt, 1988). Although *B. hominis* is often the most frequently reported from stool samples, its epidemiology is not clearly understood. The reason behind this could be lack of appropriate information about the epidemiology of the parasite, conflicting and paradoxical ideas on its classification and pathogenicity. Based on ultrastuctural and structural evidences, *B. hominis* has now been classified under protozoa (Stenzel and Boreham, 1996).

Some investigators have presented strong evidence for its pathogenicity .while others have considered it to be a commensal. Reports of asymtomatic and symptomatic *B. hominis* infections in humans are worldwide. *B. hominis* infections are predominantly reported from developing countries of tropical and subtropical regions. Travellers from

11

the developed countries might be affected with *B..hominis* infection when they travel to these regions of the world. (Shlim *et al.*, 1995).

The infection rate has been reported to vary from 1.6% in industrialized countries to more than 50% in developing countries (Gericke, *et al.*,1997). Well recognized clinical signs due to *B. hominis* in symptomatic individuals, include abdominal discomfort or pain, diarrhoea, nausea, vomiting flatulence, gastroenteritis, colitis and other minor complaints (Stenzel and Boreham, 1996). However, whether or not *B. hominis* can act as an etiologic agent of enteritis has been debatable. At least two reasons for the controversy are evident. The organism, like other controversial agent of enteritis such as yeast (*Candid abacus*), can be found in individuals without evident pathogenic manifestation or abdominal discomfort. There is also a strong evidence to show that clinical manifestation of illness due to *B. hominis*, when large numbers of organisms mostly greater than five parasites per high power field (>5/HPF) are seen in the presence of symptoms and in the absence of other well recognised viral, bacterial or parasitic agents(Telalbasic *et al.*,1991).

attention Infection with B.hominis has in gained case of immunocompromised individuals and HIV/AIDS patients (Libre etal., 1989; and Escobedo and Nunez, 1999). The association of *B.hominis* with diarrhoea in immunosuppressed patients has been suggested in one study among Tanzanian children with chronic diarrhoea. Furthermore, molecular and immunological evidences have revealed that strain variation might be associated with pathogenic potentials (Clark, 1997 and Kaneda et al., 2002). It is generally accepted that B. hominis is transmitted by faecal-oral contamination, in a manner similar to other gastrointestinal protozoa

(Stenzel and Boreham ,1996 Leelayoova, et al., 2004). Other protozoan parasites such as *Cryptosporidium*, Isospora, Cyclospora and microsporidia, which were previously considered to be non-pathogenic or to have low pathogenicity, are also recognised as causes of human diseases, especially in immunosuppressed individuals and HIV/AIDS patients. Unlike the above mentioned opportunistic intestinal parasites, the possible association of *B. hominis* infection with HIV/AIDS is not well documented. Thus, during the investigation of the etiology of gastrointestinal diseases the relationship of B. hominis infection in case of HIV/AIDS patients and immunocompromised individuals has to be considered.

c) Cyclospora cayetanensis:

Another newly defined coccidian opportunistic intestinal parasite in humans is C. cayetanensis. Cyclosporiosis is characterized by mild to severe watery diarrhoea, nausea, anorexia and abdominal cramps. It has described from HIV/AIDS patients with protracted diarrhoea been (Sifuenes-Osonio, etal., 1995). In immunocompetent individuals diarrhoea appears to be prolonged but self-limited, lasting from just over one week to a mean duration of about three weeks. Although infections appear both eventually to resolve spontaneously, in some cases, in immunosuppressed and immunocompetent individuals. But in AIDS patient recrudescence of the symptoms is a major problem (Curry and smith, 1998) Cyclospora resembles Cryptosporidium, but the size varies ranging from 8-10 m with 2 sporocysts and having 2 sporozoites in each sporocyst, whereas Cryptosporidium measures 4-6m in size and has 4 naked sporozoites (Curry and smith, 1998).

13

d) Isospora belli:

Isospora belli is another well-defined coccidian opportunistic intestinal parasite in HIV/AIDS patients and in some areas it is the cause of gastroenteritis (Lumb and hardiman, 1991). It mostly causes watery diarrhoea and weight loss. Diarrhoea produced by *I. belli* infection in AIDS patients is often secretory-like, without blood and leads to dehydration; low grade fever, eosinophlia, abdominal pain, vomiting and malaise are some of the symptoms reported (Bartlett *et al*, 1992; Lindsay *et al.*, 1997and Lainson and Da silva, 1999).

Isospora belli infections are essentially cosmopolitant in distribution but are more common in tropical and subtropical regions, especially Haiti, Mexico, Brazil, El Salvador, tropical Africa, the Middle East and South East Asia. In developed countries immigrants are suspected as introducers of the disease (Sorvillo et al., 1995 and Curry and smith, 1998). Chronic infections are developed in some patients and oocysts are excreted for a long duration, several months to years (Lindsay etal 1997). This information has important implication in the era of HIV/AIDS pandemic. Most oocyts of *Isospora* are excreted unsporulated and undergo a developmental period sporulation outside the host and become infectious. Sporulated oocyst of *I. belli* are characterized by having two sporocysts and each sporocyst in turn containing four sporozoites. The oocysts of Isospora belli in humans measure 20-33 µm by 10-19 µm. They are elongated and ellipsoidal (Curry and smith, 1998). Transmission in humans occurs via faecal-oral route, mainly by ingestion of infectious oocysts from contaminated food and/or water. Diagnosis depends on microscopic identification of oocysts in the stool. Like *Cryptosporidium*,

the oocysts of *Isospora* are acid fast during staining, but differ from oocyst of *Cryptosporidium* by their size and shape.. In HIV/AIDS patients recurrence of infections are commonly reported (Verdier *et al.*, 2000).

e. Three genera of amoeba may inhabit the intestinal tract of humans: Entamoeba, Iodamoeba and Endolimax. Members of these genera considered non-pathogenic include Entamoeba hartmani, Entamoeba gingivalis, Entamoeba coli, Endolimax nana, and Iodamoeba butschlii (Mahon and Manuselis 2000 ; Raccurt et al., 2006)

Entamoeba histolytica: This parasite was named for its remarkable ability to lyse human tissues. A requirement to amoebic invasion is the parasite's ability to colonize and penetrate colonic mucins overlying the intestinal epithelium (Chen *et al.*, 2007).

Entamoeba histolytica infection is one of the most common parasitic infections worldwide, infecting about 50 million people, often in developing countries, resulting in 40,000 to 100,000 deaths per annum It has long been known that although about 500 million people each year have amoebiasis, only about 10% experience symptomatic disease (WHO, 1997; Ayeh-Kumi *et al.*, 2001).

It is probable that 90% of the infections previously ascribed to *E. histolytica* are actually *E. dispar*, while only the remaining 10% are *E. histolytica* infections (Zaki and Clark, 2001). Mora *et al.*, (2008) found that the *E. histolytica/E. dispar* prevalence rates according to the direct, Ritchie and trichromic staining methods were 20.09%, 13.79% and 12.15%, respectively; while prevalence rates according to PCR for *E. histolytica* and

E. dispar were 6.31% and 4.44%, respectively, in a study they conducted in Venezuela. Direct stool examination from 134 individuals with diarrhoea detected *E. histolytica/E. dispar* in eight (6%) whiles analysis by PCR showed *E. dispar* in ten (7.5%) and *E. histolytica* in two cases (1.5%) in a related study conducted in Nicaragua (Leiva *et al.*, 2006). In northern Ghana, (Verweij *et al.*, (2003) showed a high prevalence (39.8%) of *E. histolytica/dispar* complex by microscopy but 82.8% of *Entamoeba dispar* and only one case of *Entamoeba histolytica* by PCR. *Entamoeba histolyticais one* of the most common intestinal protozoan parasites infecting humans worldwide. They are known to be the most important diarrhoea-causing protozoa (Marshall *et al.*, 1997 and Tsai *et al.*, 2006). It is estimated that 10% of the world's population is infected with *E. histolytica* with the highest prevalence in developing countries (Fontanet *etal.*, 2000;Vandenberg *et al.*, 2006).

f. Intestinal Microsporidia :

Other important intestinal parasites in HIV/AIDS patient are the microsporidia. They are ubiquitous, obligate intracellular spore forming protozoan parasites increasingly detected as opportunistic pathogens in HIV/AIDS patients. Since the onset of HIV/AIDS pandemic, a number of parasitic microsporidian pathogens of humans have been recognised. The frequency with which they are encountered and reported in clinical practice and the intensity of infections with opportunistic microsporidian parasites in AIDS patients have tremendously increased (Goodgame *et al*, 1996).

Up to date, at least, thirteen species of microsporidia have been reported to infect animals (Didier *et al.*, 1998). Among these are six known genera that have been associated with human disease, namely *Enterocytozoon*, and *Encephalitozoon* (Weber *et al.*, 1994). Infection in humans can occur in different tissues including the small intestine, kidney, cornea and liver with various clinical manifestations. Before 1985, however reports of clinical disease related to intestinal microsporidial infection in humans were rare. Since 1985, when *Enterocytozoon bieneusi* was identified as an aetiological agent of diarrhoea (Desportes *etal.*, 1985), clinical syndromes associated with intestinal microsporidiosis in AIDS patients were frequently reported (Kotler and Orenstein, 1998). Diarrhoea and malabsorption are the most common clinical syndromes associated with intestinal microsporidial infections in AIDS patients (Weber *et al.*, 1994)

Infection by *Enterocytozoon bieneusi* and/or *Encephalitozoon intestinalis* have been identified as main causes for watery diarrhoea and wasting syndrome in AIDS patients (Asmuth *et al.*,1994). In Libya, so far, there is no information concerning intestinal microsporidial infection in HIV/AIDS patients.



3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3. 1. Study area:

Benghazi is the second largest city in Libya it is situated on the north of grate Libyan desert and on the southern coast of Mediterranean sea. (Fig.1) It was founded in fourth century B.C. occupying an area of approximately 43, 535 km². Benghazi has Mediterranean climate with moderate winter and hot summer. The monthly average of temperature (19.5 C $^{\circ}$ to 34.4C $^{\circ}$), Rainfalls in millimeters (0.0 to 38.3). Relative humidity 50 to 70%. (according to Benina meteorological station, 2010).

3.2.1. Study design and patients: -

Across- sectional study was carried out on patients admitted or treated to the HIV wards at Benghazi hospitals (HIV Center, Isolation center, central medical laboratory in Al-Jamhouria hospital and 7 October hospital) during the period from February to December 2010, Four hundred fifty patients, their ages ranged between 5 to 40 years with or without diarrhea, were asked to participate in this study, out of the total number three hundred AIDS confirmed patients (HIV seropositive) (153 females and 147 males), and one hundred fifty were HIV seronegative (the seronegative patients were used as control groups (51 females and 99 males).

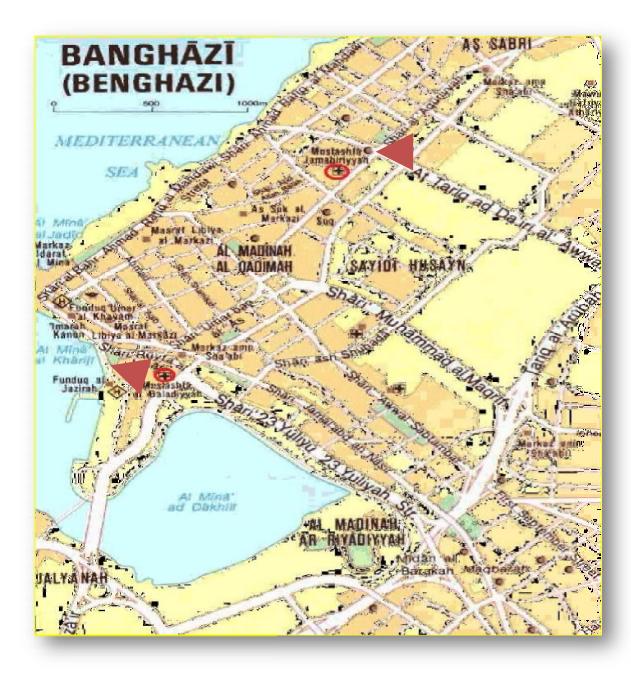


Figure (1): Map of Benghazi city - showing place of the study.

3.2.2 Questionnaires:

A questionnaire was distributed to patients and out patients admitted to HIV wards, The questionnaire was prepared to collect sociodemographic and clinical data from each patient including age, gender, nationality, HIV positive or negative were recorded for each participant. (Index)

3.2.3. Collection and preparation of sera:

Serum sample of each patient was separated from whole blood (plain or EDTA), 5 cc tube . were obtained from enrolled . Either fresh serum or plasma can be used for this assay. Blood was collected by venipuncture should be allowed to clot naturally and completely the serum / plasma was separated from the clot as early as possible to avoid hemolysis of the RBC, care should be taken to ensure that the serum samples are clear and not contaminated by microorganisms. Any visible particulate matters in the sample should be removed by centrifugation at 3000 RPM for at least 20 minutes at room temperature, blood (serum plasma) then transferred into a plain tube with caps until required for immunoglobulin analysis. Samples were stored at 2-8 C °. Non required samples for assaying within 3 days should be stored frozen (- 20 C° or below). The patients serum samples were used for HIV testing. HIV serostatus of the patients was determined by using commercially available ELISA using National AIDS Control Organization (NACO,2007) of HIV antibodies. In order to confirm the infection and non-infection with HIV.

3.3.2.1 Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for qualitative detection of antibodies to Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) :

HIV 1+2 antibodies enzyme immunoassay test kit was purchased from PRECHEK Bio , Inc (215 N , State college Bivd .k, Anaheim CA92806 , USA .WWW. Prechekbio . com) (Plate 1a) . The material provided with the kit are microwell plate wells(12×8 well strips per plate) Each well coated with HIV1+2 antigens , HRP(Horseradish peroxidase) – conjugate reagent , negative and positive control , Wash buffer , chromogen solution A chromogen solution B , stop reaction (Diluted sulfuric acid solution 2.0 M H2SO4). The kit stored at 2-8 ° C (Plate 1b)

The test was done according to the following manufacturer procedure (in brief)

1- Add 100 μ l of positive control, negative control and specimens into their respective wells.

2- Incubating (1): cover the plate with the plate cover and incubate for 30 minutes at 37 $^{\circ}$ C

3- Washing (1): at the end of the incubation remove and discard the plate cover. Wash each well 5 times with diluted wash buffer. Each time, allow the micro wells to soak for 30-60 seconds . (Plate 2) .

4- Adding HRP – conjugate .Add 100 μ l into each.

5- Incubating (2): cover the plate with the plate cover and incubate for 30 minutes at 37 $^{\circ}$ C[.]

6-Washing (2) After end of the incubation remove and discard the plate

cover . Wash each well 5 times with diluted wash buffer . Each time , allow the microwells to soak for 30-60 seconds. (Plate 2) .

7-Dispense 50 μ l of chromogen A and 50 μ l of chromogen B into each well and incubate for 15 minutes at 37 ° C.

8-Add 50 μ l stop reaction solution into each well and mix gently for 30 second.

9-Read the absorbance at 450 nm within 5 minutes with microwell reader. (Plate 3).

HIV 1+2 Ab index was calculated by dividing the optical density of sample by optical density of cut-off calibrator.

HIV 1+2 Ab index = cut-off value (c.o.) = *NC+0.1

Interpretation of the results.

- > Positive result ≥ 0.500 .
- > 0.300 to 0.499 are indeterminate and need to be retested.
- ▶ Negative ≤0.300.





Plates 1 : (a and b): Kit Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (HIV).



Plate (2): Microplate washer SAGA



Plate (3): Microplate reader

3.3. 3. Collection of stool samples :

Four hundred and fifty stool samples were collected from patients and outpatients from Benghazi hospitals (HIV center, Isolation center and central medical laboratory in Jamhouria and 7 October hospitals)

A single fecal sample from each patient was collected in a dry, clean, leak-proof plastic container. Half of each sample was stored in 10% formalin to prevent bacterial action (Mohandas *et al.*, 2002). All samples were concentrated directly or stored in refrigerator at 4°C for further use. Each sample was labeled with the patient's name and place of collection.

3.3.3.1. Macroscopic examination:

Stool specimens were examined by naked eye for appearance color, consistency and presence of blood mucous and adult or larvae helminthes (Chessbrough,2004).

3.3.3.2. Microscopic parasitological examination

3.3.3.2. Direct microscopy method (wet mount):

I. Direct Normal saline solution (0.85% NaCl solution):-

To confirm the presence of motile intestinal parasites and trophozoites under light microscope (40X magnification).

Procedure :-

One drop of normal saline mixing with small amount of faeces until mixture become a uniform suspension under 22x22 mm cover slip .the entire cover slip area was examined using low power (10x) then high power (40x) and (100x) objectives .

II. Direct wet mount Iodine preparation . (Markell *et al*, 1999 and Nobale, 1994): -

Procedure:

One drop of gram iodine was put in the middle of the slide, About 2 mg of stool sample was taken from the faecal sample and then mixed with the drop of iodine, then covered with cover glass, At first the examination started by using 10 x eye-piece to have a general view of the slide, then more comprehensive examination, was done using 40x objective. The procedure was repeated when indicated each field examined by the 40x objective to check for the presence intestinal parasites .

Lugol's iodine :

was used to stain protozoan cysts and trophozoite of intestinal parasites.

3.3.3.2. Formalin - ethyl acetate sedimentation technique: (Markell *et al.*,1986) :-

This technique was performed as recommended by the Centre of Disease Control and Prevention (2003). Each sample was concentrated by formalin - ethyl acetate sedimentation method prior to microscopic examination. The concentration procedures maximize the recovery of oocysts by separating parasites from fecal debris to increasing the chance of detecting protozoan parasite oocysts.

Procedure :

1- The specimen was mixed well.

2- 5 ml of the fecal suspension were strained through wetted cheese clothtype gauze placed over a disposable paper funnel into a 15 ml centrifuge tube .

3- Saline (0.85%) was added through the debris on the gauze to bring the volume in the centrifuge tube to 15ml.

4- Sample was centrifuged at 500 x g for 10 minutes .

5- Supernatant was decanted, then 10 ml of 10% formalin was added to the sediment and mixed thoroughly with wooden applicator stick .

6- 4ml of ethyl acetate were added; the tube was stoppered, and shook vigorously in an inverted position for 30 seconds .

7- Each sample was centrifuged again at 500 x g for 10 minutes .

8- The plug of floating debris was removed from the top of the tube by ringing the sides with an applicator stick. The top part of supernatant was decanted .

9- A cotton-tipped applicator was used to remove debris from the sides of the centrifuge tube .

10- Five drops of 10% formalin were added to resuspend the concentrated specimen. After samples were concentrated, fecal materials were analyzed microscopically for intestinal parasites at 4x and then on 40x or 100x with oil .

3.3.3.2.3. Modified Zeihl-Neelsen Staining Method:

Modified Ziehl-Neelsen technique (acid-fast stain) used for detection of oocysts of opportunistic coccidial intestinal parasite- *Cryptosporidium* spp, *Isospora belli* and *Cyclospora cayetanensis* (Current and Garcia ,1990).

Procedure:-

Thin smears were prepared directly from fresh faecal samples as well as from sediment of concentrated stool and allowed to air dry, Fixed with absolute methanol for a few seconds, then air –dried and stained by Zeihl-Neelsen acid-fast stain the same procedures were used for smears prepared after concentration. Smears were prepared from the concentrated stool samples and were stained as described by Adegbola *et al.*(1994) with some modifications. In this technique, the slides were stained with carbol-fuchsine for 30 minutes and then washed with tap water. The slides were decolorized in 1% HCl acid-alcohol for 1 minute and counterstain with 0.25% malachite green (or methylene blue) .for 30

sec. Rinse in tap water, the stained smears were microscopically examined using 100x magnification .(Endeshaw *et al* ., 2004) .



Plate (4) : Modified Zeihl-Neelsen (acid-fast stain)



Plate (5): Staining Zeihl-Neelsen technique .

3.3.3. Statistical analysis:

Statistical analyses were carried out to determine the incidence and significance of the data. The logistic regression (Dowdy *et al.*, 2004) used to find the relationships between the parasitic infection age, sex and nationality of patients . incidence was calculated as the percentage of infected HIV" seropositive" and participates with intestinal parasites.

Chi-squar X^2 was employed to find out the significance or nonsignificance of the relationships between age, sex, diarrhea, and the presence or absence of the parasites.

The accepted level of significance P < 0.05 was considered significant during the using the test. All analysis were computed in windows environment of statistical of program (SPSS) version 17.0.



4. RESULTS

4.1. Incidence :

The present study was carried out on four hundred fifty patients comprising three hundred HIV –seropositive patients and one hundred fifty were HIV- seronegative . The results revealed that the overall incidence of infection with intestinal parasites in HIV- seropositive was (28.4%) higher than HIV- seronegative group (10.7%) (Fig.2) . The results showed that one hundred and twenty eight (42.7%) out of HIV-seropositive patients and forty eight (32.0%) out of HIV- seronegative with a total one hundred seventy six (39.1%) of both groups out of the total examined were infected with intestinal parasites (Table 1 and Fig. 3)

The results showed that there was a significant difference between parasitic infection in HIV- seropositive (P=0.001) and between parasitic infection in HIV- seronegative , (P=0.000).

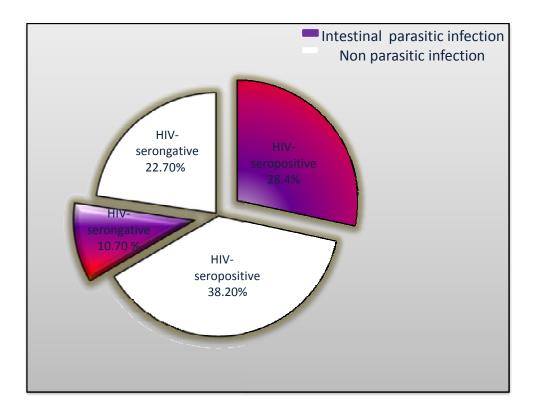
Among HIV- seropositive patients, the results revealed that seven species of intestinal parasites were detected, these parasites were *Blastocystis hominis*, *Entamoeba histolytica / Entamoeba dispar*, *Giardia lamblia*, *Entamoeba coli*, *Endolimax nana*, *Cryptosporidium parvum* and *Enterobius vermicularis* (plates 6-14)

The most common intestinal protozoan parasite detected were *B. hominis* with highest incidence at 18.7% (56) followed by *E. histolytica*

E. dispar 10.3% (31), *G. lamblia* 8% (24), *E. coli* 5.3% (16), *E. nana* 4% (12) and *C. parvum* 3.3% (10), and only one helminth parasite *E. vermicularis* was detected at low incidence rate 1% (3) (Table 2 and Fig. 4).

32

Figure (2) : Overall incidence rate of intestinal parasitic infection among examined patients (n=450)



$$\chi^2 = 13.1$$
; P < 0.05; df = 3; P-value = 0.004*

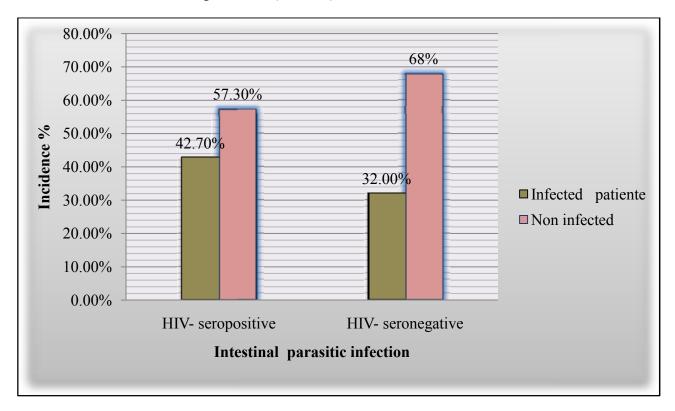
Table (1) : Overall incidence rate of intestinal parasitic infection among
examined patients (N=450) :

Parasitic infection	HIV seropositive (N=300)	HIV seronegative (N=150)	Total (N=450)
Infected	128 (42.7%)	48 (32.0 %)	176(39.1%)
Non infected	172 (57.3%)	102 (68%)	274(60.9%)
Total	300 (100%)	150 (100%)	450(100%)

HIV-serpositive (n=300) $\chi^2 = 6.453$; df = 1; P-value = 0.011*

HIV-seronegative (n=150) $\chi^2 = 150$; df = 1 ; P-value =0.000*

Figure (3) :Overall incidence rate of intestinal parasitic infection in examined patients (N=450) :



There were a significant differences in incidence among *B*. hominis (P=0.00), Entamoeba histolytica E. dispar (P=0.00), G. lamblia (P=0.00), E. nana (P=0.00), C. parvum (P=0.02), E. coli (P=0.00) and E. vermicularis (P=0.136).

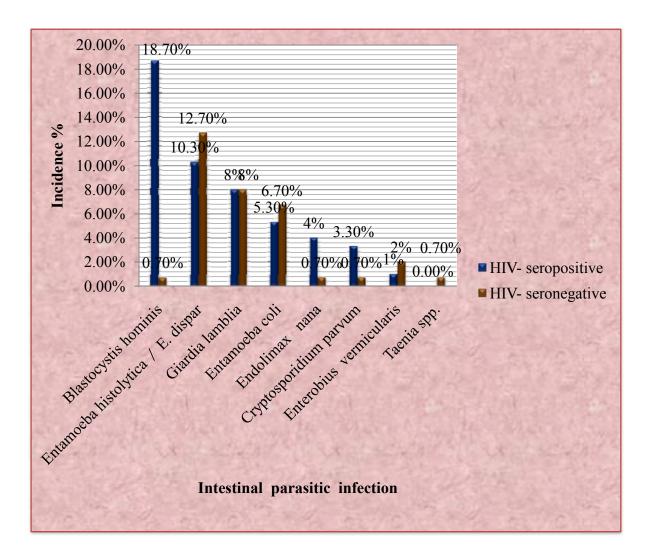
Among examined HIV- seronegative group, the results revealed that eight species of intestinal parasites were detected, these parasites were *B*. hominis, *E*. histolytica / *E*. dispar, *G*. lamblia, *E*. coli, *E*. nana, *C*. parvum, *E*. vermicularis and Taenia sp.

The most common intestinal protozoan parasites detected were *E*. *histolytica E*. *dispar*, with the highest incidences at 12.7% (19) followed by *G. lamblia* 8% (12), *E*. *coli* 6.7% (10) *B. hominis* 0.7% (1), *C*. *parvum* 0.7% (1), *E. nana* 0.7% (1), all were protozoan parasites and two helminth parasites, *E. vermicularis* and *Taenia* sp. were detecte at low incidences rates 2% (3) and 0.7% (1), respectively (Table 2 and Fig. 4). There were a significant differences in incidences among *E. histolytica / E. dispar* (P=0.000), *G. lamblia* (P=0.000), *C. parvum* (P=0.00) *E* . *coli* (P=0.001) and no significant differences among *B. hominis* (P=.144), *E. vermicularis* (P=0.08), *E. nana* (P=0.144), and *Taenia* sp. (P=0.144).

Table(2)	: Incidence	of intestinal	parasitic	infection	among	examined
	HIV - sero	positive and	HIV – se	ronegative	patient	s :

	HIV- serost	atus (%)	
Type of parasites	HIV- seropositive (n=300)	HIV- seronegative (n=150)	Total (%) (n=450)
Blastocystis hominis	18.7%(56)	0.7% (1)	12.7% (57)
Entamoeba histolytica E. dispar	10.3% (31)	12.7% (19)	11.1% (50)
Giardia lamblia	8 % (24)	8 % (12)	8% (36)
Entamoeba coli	5.3% (16)	6.7% (10)	5.8% (26)
Endolimax nana	4 % (12)	0.7% (1)	2.9% (13)
Cryptosporidium parvum	3.3% (10)	0.7% (1)	2.4% (11)
Enterobius vermicularis	1% (3)	2 % (3)	1.3% (6)
<i>Taenia</i> sp.	0.0% (0)	0.7% (1)	0.2% (1)

Figure(4) : Incidence of intestinal parasitic infection among examined HIV - seropositive (n=300) and HIV - seronegative patients (150)



4.2. Incidence and sex:

Although the results revealed that the incidence rate was higher in females 70 (45.8%) than in males 58 (39.5%) in HIV- seropositive patients. No significant difference (P=0.195) was found between males and females HIV-seropositive patients. On the other hand the incidence rate of intestinal parasites in HIV – seronegative was higher in females 19 (37.3%) than in males 29 (29.3%). There was no significant difference was detected between females and males (P = 0.322). The relationship between incidence of intestinal parasitic infection in HIV-seropositive and HIV-seronegative and sex is presented in Table (3) and Fig.(5).

Seven species of intestinal parasites were noted in both females and males .The most common parasite that identified in both sexes was *B.hominis*. at overall incidence 10.7% (32 / 300) in females and 8% (24 /300) in males .No significant difference in overall incidence was detected between females and males (P=.308) . *E. histolytica E. dispar* was higher in 6.33% (19 / 300) than that of females 4%(12 300) There was no statistically significant difference between overall incidence in each of males and females (P=.148).

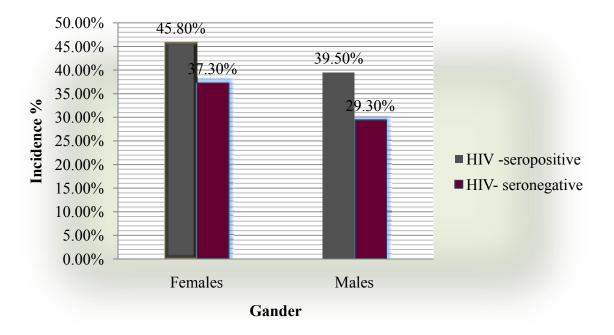
and sex among my - scropositive and my - scronegative							
Gander	HIV – ser (n=300	-	HIV seronegative (n=150)				
	No.examined	Infected	No.examined	Infected			
Females	153	70(45.8%)	51	19 (37.3%)			
Males	147	58(39.5%)	99	29(29.3%)			
Total	300	128(42.7%)	150	48(32%)			

Table (3) : Relationship between incidence of intestinal parasitic infectionand sex among HIV- seropositive and HIV- seronegative

HIV-seropositive (n=300) $\chi^2 = 4.706$; df = 3; P-value = .195

HIV-seronegative (n=150) $\chi^2 = .981$; df = 1; P-value =0.322

Figure (5): Relationship between incidence of intestinal parasitic infection and sex among HIV- seropositive and HIV- seronegative



.*G. lamblia* was detected in 5 % of females out of total (300) examined HIV- seropositive, which was higher than that of males 3%. Overall incidence of this parasite was significantly different between females and males (P=0.240).

The results revealed that the overall incidence of *E.coli* was 3% (9 300) in females and 2.33% (7 300) among males . The results revealed that there were significant difference between the overall incidence of this parasite in both sexes (P=.666) . *E.nana* was noted in 7 (2.33%) males and 5(1.7%) females out of the total 300 specimens examined . There was no significant differences between overall incidence of this parasite in both sexes (P=0.02) . *C.parvium* showed on overall incidence that was higher in males 2% (6 out 300) and 1.33 % (4 300) among femles . There was no significant difference between overall incidence of this species in both sexes (P=0.479) . *E. vermicularis* is the only helminth parasites detected among HIV-seropositive patients at overall incidence 0.7% in females comparing with males 0.33% . There was no significant difference between overall incidence 0.7% in females comparing with males 0.33% . There was no significant difference between overall incidence 0.7% in females comparing with males 0.33% . There was no significant difference between overall incidence 0.7% in females comparing with males 0.33% . There was no significant difference between overall incidence of this species between overall incidence of this species between overall incidence 0.7% in females comparing with males 0.33% . There was no significant difference between overall incidence 0.7% in females comparing with males 0.33% . There was no significant difference between overall incidence of this species in both sexes (P=.585) (Table 4 and Fig .6)

Table (4) : Incidence of intestinal parasitic species and sex among HIV-
seropositive patients (n=300) :

Types of parasites		NO. Exami	Total(n=300)	
		Females(n=300)	Males(n=300)	
Blastocystis hominis		32(10.7%)	24(8.0%)	56(18.7%)
Entamoeba histolytica . dispar	Ε	12(4.0%)	19(66.3%)	31(10.3%)
Giardia lamblia		15(5.0%)	9 (3.0%)	24(8%)
Entamoeba coli		9(3.0%)	7(2.33%)	16(5.3%)
Endolimax nana		5(1.7%)	7(2.33%)	12(10%)
Cryptospordium Parvum		4(1.33%)	6(2.0%)	10(3.3%)
Enterobius vermicularis		2(0.7%)	1(0.33%)	3(1%)

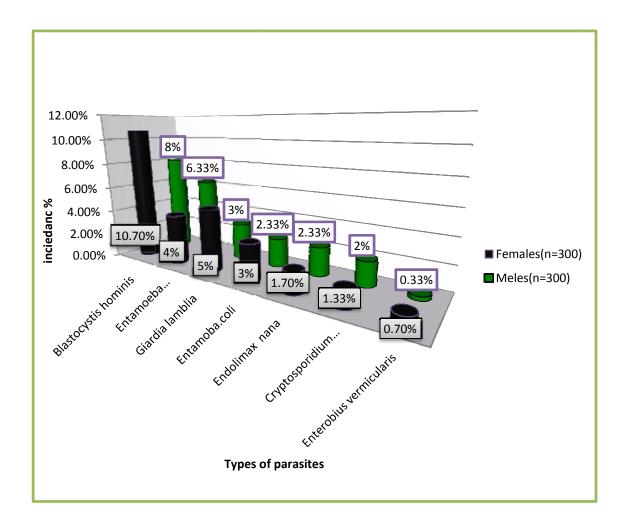


Figure (6) : Incidence of intestinal parasitic species and sex among HIV-seropositive patients (n=300).

4.3. Incidence and age :

The incidence of intestinal parasitic infections in different age groups (years) of HIV- seropositive patients is presented in Table (5) and Fig. (7). The results revealed that the highest incidence rate (50%)was observed in age group of 30-39 years followed by age group 10-19 and age group 20-29 years old at incidence rates 44.4% and 35.9 % respectively the low incidence rate was recorded among age group 0-9 years old at 28.6%. Age had a significant influence on the incidence of intestinal parasitic infection in HIV- seropositive patients (P=0.004).

The highest incidence of intestinal parasitic infection among different age groups of HIV-seronegative was detected among age groups 0-9 years old at 46.7% followed by age groups 20-29, 10-19, > 40 and 30-39 years old at incidence rates 35.4 %, 29.8%, 27.8 %, 22.8 respectively. Age had no significant influence on the incidence of intestinal parasites in HIV seronegative (P=0.581)(Table 5 Fig.7).

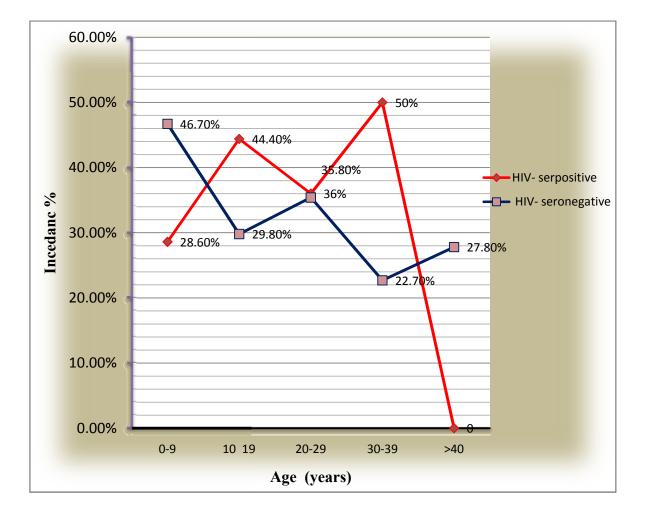
Table (5): Incidence of intestinal parasitic infection in each age groupamong HIV- seropositive and HIV- seronegative :

Age groups		ropositve	HIV-se	rnegative
(years)	Examined (n=300)	infected (%)(n=128)	Examined (n=150)	Infected (%) (n=48)
0-9	7	2 (28.6%)	15	7(46.7%)
10-19	234	104 (44.4%)	47	14 (29.8%)
20-29	53	19(35.8%)	48	17(35.4%)
30-39	6	3(50 %)	22	5(22.7%)
>40	0	0	18	5(27.8%)
Total	300	128(42.7%)	150	48(32%)

HIV-seropositive (n=300) $\chi^2 = 24.7$; df = 9; P-value = 0.004

HIV-seronegative (n=150) $\chi^2 = 2.86$; df = 4; P-value = 0.581

Figure (7): Incidence of intestinal parasitic infection in each age group among HIV- seropositive and HIV- seronegative ..



Blastocystis hominis showed that the highest incidence rate among age group 0-9 years 2 (28.6%) followed by 20-29 years 11(21%) and 10-19 years , 42(18%) age group and 30-39 years was 1(17%). *E*. *E. dispar* showed the highest incidence among age group histolytica 0-9 years at 1 (14.3%) followed by 10-19 years was 26 (11%) and the low incidence rate was detected among age group 20-29 years at 4(7.5%) *E. histolytica* E. dispar infection was not detected among age group 30-39 years, G. lamblia showed that the highest incidence rate among age group 30-39 years at 1(17%) followed by 10-19 years at 20(8.5%) and the low incidence rate among age group 20-29 years at 3 (7%) G.lamblia infection was not detected among age group 0-9 at 0(0.00%). E. coli showed the highest incidence among age group 30-39 years 3(50%) followed by 10-19 years was 13 (5.5 %) E.coli infection was not detected among age 0-9, 20-29 at 0(0.00%) . E. nana showed the highest incidence among age group 0-9 years 1(14.3%)followed by 10-19 years was 10(4.2%) and low incidence rate was among age group 20-29 years year at 1(2%)in. E.nana infection was not detected among age group 30-39 years at 0(0.00%) . C. parvum showed among age group 10-19 years 10(4.2%) only . E. vermicularis showed the highest incidence 1 (17 %) among age group 30-39 years followed by age group 20-29 years at 1 (17 %) and 10-19 years 1 (0.4 %) and not detected among age group 0-9 years (Table 6).

46

 Table (6): Incidence of intestinal parasitic species in each age group among HIV patients .

Age Parasite	0-9 (n=7)	10-19 (n=234)	20-29 (n=53)	30-39 (n=6)	Total(n=300)
Blastocystis hominis	2(28.6%)	42(18%)	11(21%)	1(17%)	56(18.7%)
Entamoeba histolytica E. dispar	1(14.3%)	26(11%)	4(7.5%)	-	31(10.3%)
Giardia lamblia	0(0.0%)	20(8.5%)	3(7%)	1(17%)	24(8.0%)
Entamoeba coli	-	13(5.5%)	-	3(50%)	16 (5.3%)
Endolimax nana	1(14.3%)	10(4.2%)	1(2%)	-	12(3.9%)
Cryptosporidium parvum	-	10(4.2%)	-	-	10(3.3%)
Enterobius vermicularis	-	1(0.4%)	1(2%)	1(17%)	3(0.9%)

On the other hand, incidence of intestinal parasitic infection among different age groups (years) in HIV - seronegative, the result showed that *B.hominis* was detected only among age group 0-9 years at incidence rate 6.7% and not detected in other age groups . E. histolytica E. dispar showed the highest incidence among age group 0-9 years was 3(20%)followed by > 40 years was 3(16.7%) and 20-29 years was 7(14.6%), 30-39 was 3(13.6%) and the low incidence rate was detected among age group10-19 years 3(6.4%). G. lamblia showed the highest incidence among age group 20-29 years was 8 (16.7%) followed by 30-39 years 2 (9.1 %), age group 0-9 years 1(6.7%) and 10-19 years 1 (2.1 %) the parasite was not detected among age group 40 years old . E. coli showed the highest incidence among age group 0-9 years 2(13.3%) followed by 10-19 years 4(8.5%) and 20-29 years was 4(8.33%) .No infection was detected among age group 30-39 years and >40 years old . E. nana showed the highest incidence among age group >40 years was 1 (5.5 %) and the non infected among age group from 0-9 years to 30-30 years old .C. parvum showed among age group 0-9 years 1(6.7 %) and and the non infected among age group from 10-19 years to >40 years old . E. vermicularis showed the highest incidence among age group 10-19 years was 2(4.25 %) followed by >40 years was 1(5.5%) and the non infected among age group 0-9,20-29,30-39 *Taenia* spp showed only among age group 30-39 years was1(4.5%). (Table 7)

48

Table (7): Incidence of intestinal parasitic species in each age group ofHIV-seronegative (n=150).

Parasite						
1 al astu	0-9 (n=15)	10-19 (n=47)	20-29 (n=48)	30-39 (n=22)	>40 (n=18)	Total(n=150)
Giardia lamblia	1(6.7%)	1(2.1%)	8(16.7%)	2(9.1%)	0.00%	12(8%)
Entamoeba histolytica E. dispar	3(20%)	3(6.4%)	7(14.6%)	3(13.6%)	3(16.7%)	19(12.7%)
Blastocystis hominis	1(6.7%)	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1(0.76%)
Endolimax nana	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1(5.5%)	1(0.76%)
Cryptosporidiu m parvum	1(6.7%)	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1(0.76%)
Entamoeba coli	2(13.3%)	4(8.5%)	4(8.33%)	0.00%	0.00%	10(6.76%)
Enterobius vermicularis	0.00%	2(4.25%)	0.00%	0.00%	1(5.5%)	3(2%)
Taenia spp.	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1(4.5%)	0.00%	1(0.76%)
Total	8(5.33%)	10(6.7%)	19(12.7%)	6(4%)	5(3.33%)	48(32%)

Control (n=150) $\chi 2 = 43.4$; P < 0.05; df = 32; P-value = 0.082

4.4.Incidence and diarrhea :

Incidence rate of intestinal parasites in HIV- seropositive with and without diarrhea were 51 (75 %) with diarrhea and the rest 77 (33.2%) patients without diarrhea. The results revealed that those HIV-seropositive patients with diarrhea was higher than those without diarrhea. There was a significant difference was detected between incidence of parasitic infection and diarrhea. (P=0.000).

Infection rate with intestinal parasites in HIV -seronegative was found 6 (60 %) had diarrhea and the rest 42(30 %) patients without diarrhea. There was a significant difference was detected between incidence and diarrhea . (P=0.056) among HIV –seronegative . (Table 8 and Fig.8).

B.hominis had the highest incidence (35.3%) among HIVseropositive patients with diarrhea followed by *E. histolytica E. dispar* (26.4%), *E.coli* (11.8%), *C. parvum* (10.2%), *G. lamblia* (8.8%), *E. nana* (4.4%) and *E. vermicularis* (1.4%). *B.hominis* had the highest incidence (13.7%) among HIV- seropositive patients without diarrhea followed by *G. lamblia* (7.7%), *E. histolytica*

E. dispar (5.6 %) whereas *E. nana*(3.9%), *E.*coli (3.4%), *C.parvum* (1.3%) and *E. vermicularis* (0.086%) had the lowest infection rates .

B.hominis and *E.coli* had the highest incidence (20.0 %) among seronegative patients with diarrhea followed by *G. lamblia* (10.%) and *C. parvum* (10.0 %), and whereas *E. histolytica E. dispar*, *E. nana*, *E. vermicularis* and *Taenia* sp non seen infection rates.

B.hominis had the highest incidence (12.1%) among seronegative patients without diarrhea followed by *E. histolytica E. dispar* (8.6%), *E. coli* (5.7%), *E. vermicularis* (2.1%), *E. nana* and *Taenia* sp (0.71%) in both ,while no infection with *G. lamblia* and *C.parvum* was detected (Table . 9 and Fig .9(a,b).

Table (8): Relationship between intestinal parasitic infection and
diarrhea among HIV - seropositive and HIV seronegative
patients

Diarrhea	Total examined (n=300)	With pararsitic infection (n=128)	Total examined (n=150)	With pararsitic infection (n=48)
With diarrhea	68	51 (75 %)	10	6(60%)
Without diarrhea	232	77 (33.2%)	140	42 (30%)

HIV- seropositve (n=300) $\chi^2 = 47.8$; df = 3; P-value =0.000* HIV- seronegative (n=150) $\chi^2 = 3.860$; df = 1; P-value =0.049 **Figure (8):** Relationship between intestinal parasitic infection and diarrhea among HIV - seropositive patients and HIV - seronegative patients .

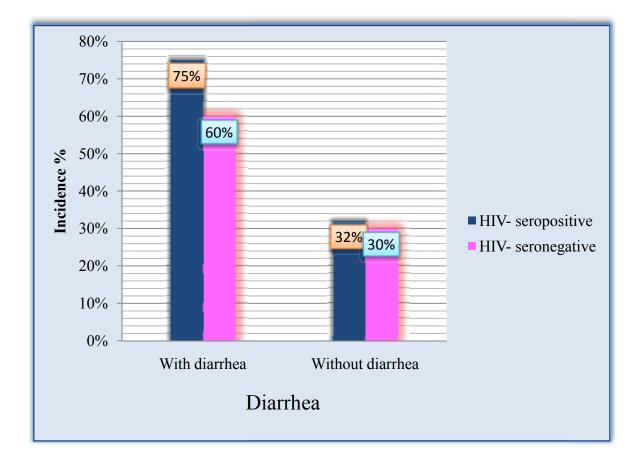
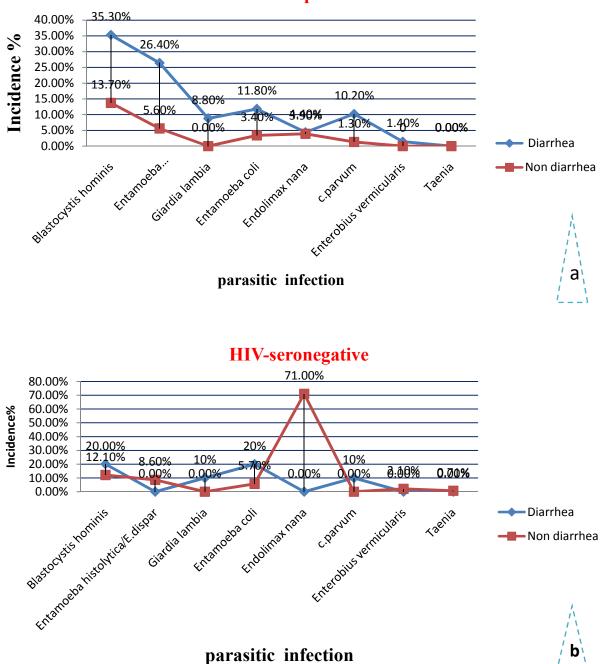


Table (9) : Incidance of intestinal parasitic species infection in HIV –
seropsitive and HIV – seronegative patients with and
without diarrhea .

	HIV seronegative No . positive (%)					
Parastic infection	Diarrhea (n=68)	Non-diarrhea (n=232)	Total (n=300)	Diarrhea (n=10)	Non- diarrhea (n=140)	Total (n=150)
Blastocystis hominis	24(35.3%)	32(13.7%)	56(18.7%)	2 (20.0%)	17(12.1%)	19(10.7%)
Entamoeba histolytica E. dispar	18 (26.4%)	13 (5.6%)	31(10.3%)	0 (0.0%)	12(8.6%)	12(8%)
Giardia lamblia	6 (8.8%)	18 (7.7%)	24(8%)	1(10.0%)	0(0.0%)	1(.7%)
Entamoeba coli	8(11.8%)	8(3.4%)	16(5.3%)	2 (20.0%)	8(5.7%)	10(6.7%)
Endolimax nana	3(4.4%)	9 (3.9%)	12(3.9%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (.71%)	1(.7%)
Cryptosporidium parvum	7(10.2%)	3 (1.3%)	10(3.3)	1(10%)	0(0.0%)	1(.7%)
Enterobius vermicularis	1(1.4%)	2(.086%)	3(.9%)	0(0.0%)	3(2.1%)	3(2%)
Taenia sp.	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (.71%)	1(.7%)

Figure: 9 (a.b): Incidance of intestinal parasitic species infection in HIV – seropsitive and HIV – seronegative patients with and without diarrhea



HIV-seropositive

4.5.Incidence of single and mixed infection :

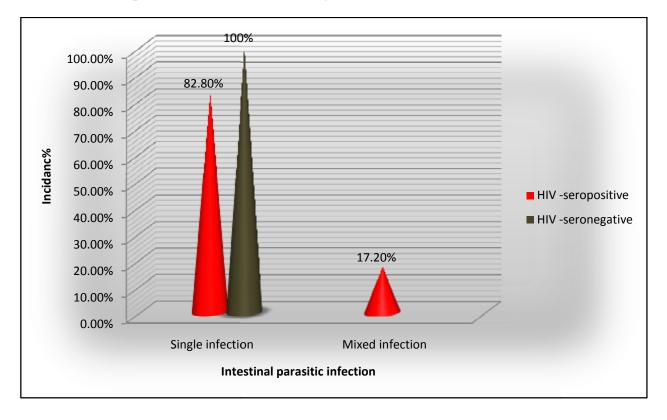
In the present study the distribution of single and mixed incidence of intestinal parasites among HIV seropositive patients was One hundred and six (82.8%) had a single intestinal parasitic infection (Infected with one species of parasite) and twenty two (17.2%) had mixed infection (Infected with more than one species of parasites). The results showed that there was a high significant difference between incidence and types of parasitic infection (P = 0.000) (Table 10 and Fig 10).

While the distribution of single and mixed incidence of intestinal parasites among HIV- seronegative patients showed in forty eight (100%) had a single of intestinal parasites and there was not mixed infection detected in HIV- seronegative patients .

Table (10): Single and mixed infections of intestinal parasites amongHIV- seropositive and HIV-seronegative

Type of infection	HIV- seropositive (%)	HIV -seronegative(%)
	(n=128)	(n=48)
Single infection	106 (82.8%)	48(100%)
Mixed infection	22(17.2%)	-
Total	128 (100%)	48(100%)
$\chi^2 = 113.0; P < 0.05; df = 2; P-value = 0.000 *$		

Fig (10): Single and mixed infections of intestinal parasites among HIV-seropositive and HIV-seronegative .



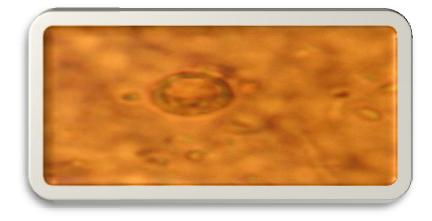
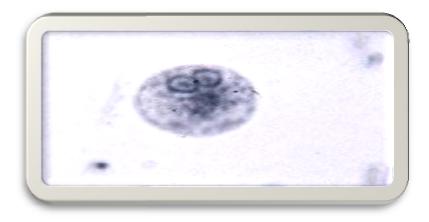
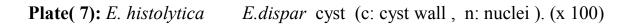


Plate (6): B. hominis vacuolar form (v: vacuole. w: wall, n: nuclei). (x 100)





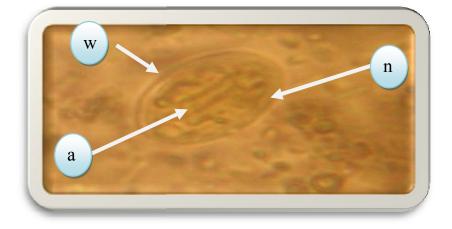
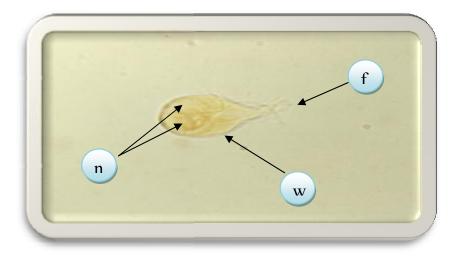
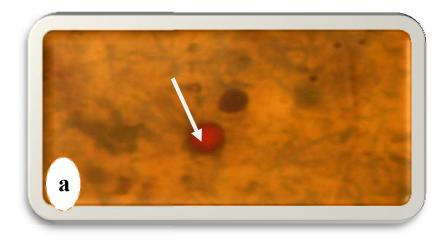


Plate (8): G. lamblia cyst (w: wall, n: nuclei, a: axonemes). (x 100)



Plate(9): G. lamblia trophozoite (w: wall, n: nuclei, f: flagella). (x 100)





Plates (10 a and b): Cryptosporidium parvum (x 100)

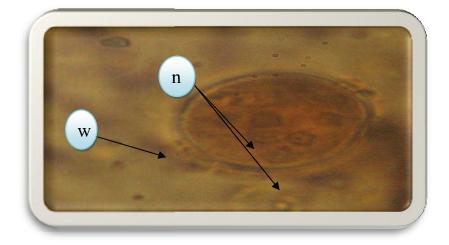


Plate (11): Entamoeba coli cyst (w: wall,n: nuclei). (x100)

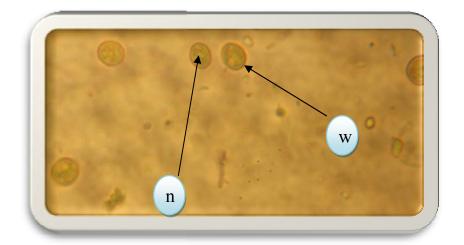


Plate (12): Endolimax nana (w: wall, n: nuclei). (x 100)



Plate (13) : Enterobius vermicularis egg(x100)

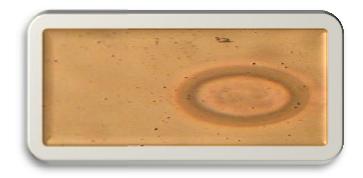


Plate (14) : *Taenia* **sp** egg (x100)



5. DISCUSSION

To our knowledge, this is the first study to be carried out on the incidence of intestinal parasites in HIV – seropositive patients in Benghazi, Libya. The results obtained in this study can provide important information for future understanding of intestinal parasitic infection in HIV – seropositive patients. This study was in HIV infected patients who undertaken were admitted or treated in an ambulatory way in the National Hospital Centers of reference for HIV Benghazi which is the Libyan centers management to determine the incidence of intestinal parasites among HIV positive and negative individuals . An informed consent was obtained for each patient prior to his/her inclusion in the study.

Intestinal parasitic infections are the commonest and the major causes of morbidity and mortality in HIV positive individuals, worldwide (Gupta *etal.*,2008). These parasites usually cause a self limiting illness in immunocompetent individuals, but in the case of immune compromised patients, they can cause life threatening, profuse watery diarrhoea (Meisel *et al.*, 1976).

5.1. Incidence :

In the present study intestinal parasites was detected in both HIV/ AIDS patients and HIV uninfected controls. This finding is in agreement with findings in previous reports from different countries of the world (Greten et al., 1993; Méndez et al., 1994; Tarimo et al., 1996; Lindo et al. 1998; Tsegaye et al., 1999; Fontanet et al., 2000; Wiwanitkit, 2001; Mohandas et al., 2002; Botero et al., 2003; Ghimire et al., 2004; Lim et al., 2005; Moges et Stark et al .,2007; Gatei al. ,2006 ; *et al.*, 2008; Assefa et al.,2009; Akinbo et al.,2010; Akinbo et al., 2011 and Alemu et al., 2011). The detection of intestinal parasites in both HIV patients and controls could be a reflection of the poor environmental sanitation and personal hygienic practices, which emphasize the need for interventional measures at the community level to reduce the risk factors of acquiring intestinal parasites in immunocompromised patients

The incidence of intestinal parasitic infection detected in the present study was 28.4 % among HIV/AIDS patients . This is a higher than in the HIV uninfected control (10.7%), but this difference was statistically significant. The high incidence of parasitic infection HIV/AIDS patients than HIV uninfected controls in the among present study is in agreement with findings in previous reports from other countries of the world (Hailemariam *et al.*, 2004; Ramakrishman et al., 2007; Gupta et al., 2008; Mariam et al., 2008; Akinbo et al., 2010; Berenji et al., 2010; Abaver et al., 2011 and Alemu *et al* ., 2011).

The incidence of parasitic infection among HIV/AIDS patients in the present study (42.7 %) was lower than those results reported in other studies in the world, 47% in Turky (Boral *et al*., 2004); 52.6 % in (Hailemariam et al., 2004); 56.6% in Ethiopia Ethiopia (Getachew et al., 2004); 51.3% in Thailand (Pinlaor et al., 2005); 67% in Ethiopia (Moges *et al* ., 2006); 50% in Thailand (Wiwanitkit, 2001); 80.3% in Bahir Dar city, North west Ethiopia (Alemu et al., 2011). On the other hand, the incidence of parasitic infection among HIV/AIDS patients was higher than those reported in other studies in the world ; 27.9 % in South Italv (Brandonisio et al., 1999); 26% in Thailand (Termmathurapj et al .,2000) ; 11.4% in Iran (Meamar *et al.*,2007) ; 28.3% in New Delhi, India (Gupta et al., 2008) 35% in India (Kulkarni et al., 2009); 8.7% (Etok et al., 2010); 22.7% in Abuja – Nigeria (Abaver et al., 2011); 33% in Denmark (Stensvold et al., 2011) and 33.8% in Lagos (Sanyaolu *et al.*, 2011) .

The examination of fecal specimens of HIV seropositive and HIV seronegative patients eight species of revealed that intestinal parasites were detected of which six protozoan parasites and two helminthes . This findings more or less similar to other previous studies in the world among HIV – seropositive and HIV-seronegative individuals, (Lindo et al., 1998; Termmathurapoj et al., 2000; Wiwanitkit, 2001; Guk et al., 2005; Moges et al., 2006; Ramakrishnan et al., 2007; et al ., Gatei 2008 and Daryani et al., 2009).

The present study showed that intestinal protozoan parasites were more prevalent than helminthic infection, this in agreement with previously reported results (Lindo *et al* ., 1998; Pinlaor *et al* ., 2005; Gatei *et al* ., 2008; Ramakrishnan *et al* ., 2007; Gupta *et al* ., 2008 Daryani *et al* ., 2009; Nasiri *et al* ., 2009; Kulkarni *et al* ., 2009; Al-Megrin, 2010 and Asma *et al* ., 2011).

On the other hand this findings disagree with previous results from other part of world, where intestinal helminthic parasites were more prevalent than protozoa (Tarimo *et al*., 1996; Fisseha *et al*., 1999; Fontanct *et al*., 2000; Kassu *et al*., 2003; Okodua *et al*., 2003; Hailemariam *et al*., 2004; Moges *et al*., 2006; Meamar *et al*., 2007; Assefa *et al*., 2009).

Blastocystis hominis was more prevalent in HIV AIDS patients (18.7%) than controls (0.7%), as has been reported in other studies (WHO 1986 ; Greten et al ., 1993 ; Lindo et al ., 1998 ; Hailemariam et al., 2004; Udeh et al., 2008). This results disagree with other studies were no B. hominis infection was reported (Escobedo and Nunez 1999; Kumar et al., 2002; Kassu et al., 2003; Okodua et al., 2003; Kaminsky et al., 2004; Guk et al., 2005). *B.hominis* was more common parasite in the present study this in consistant with other findings, 71.4% (Kurniawan et al., 2009); 61 % (Meamar *et al*., 2007) This indicates that the organism might be a possible pathogenic agents among immunocompromised patients. Was the most highly encountered parasite in this study at incidence rate 18.7% . This is consistent with the high HIV seropositve infected patients and HIV seronegative patients were the rate 2.08 % . Lindo, et al. (1998) reported that the was 1.9 % in HIV seropositive, while in HIV incidence rate seronegative not detected in any infection with B. hominis (Brandonisio et al., 1999), 6.5% (Termmathurapoj et al., 2000) , 3.3 % (Mohandsa *et al.*, 2002), 14.1% (Hailemariam *et al.*, 2004) 6.1 % (Meamar et al., 2007). B. hominis is a ubiquitous parasite found in the of humans protozoan intestinal tracts evidence accumulated over the last decade suggests association of B. hominis with gastrointestinal disorders involving diarrhea, abdominal pain, constipation, nausea and (Puthia et al., 2008) .This parasites is thought to fatigue be conducted through travel it has been reported in since westerners traveling to the tropics (Sheehan *et al.*, 1986 , 1995 Shlim al.. and et Tsegaye ,1999).

On the other hand , Low incidence rates of *B. hominis* were reported previously , 3.9 % (Mariam *et al* ., 2008 ; 1.9 % (Lindo , *et al* ., 1998) in HIV seropositive while in HIV seronegative not detected in any infection with *B. hominis* (Brandonisio *et al.*, 1999) , 6.5% (Termmathurapoj *et al.*, 2000) , 3.3 % (Mohandas *et al.*, 2002) , 14.1% (Hailemariam *et al* ., 2004) 6.1 % (Meamar *et al.*, 2007)

The incidence rate of E. histolytica / E. dispar in the present study was 10.3 % in HIV seropositve patients was more or less similar when compared to the results reported among HIV controls (12.7 %). However incidence rate of E. seronegative histolytica / E. dispar among HIV seropositive patients in the present study was in agreement with those results reported in the world, 17.5 % in India (Ramakrishnan *et al.*, 2007), 24.6 % in Ethiopia (Fontanet et al., 2000). 27% in Ethiopia (Adamu and Petros 2009). But lower than that results reported in Ethiopia (Kassu *et al.*, 2003) at 31%. The incidence rate of *E. histolytica E. dispar* in the present study was relatively high as compared to the results reported among in HIV seropositve patients from world, as 7 % in Indian (Kulkarni *et al.*, 2009), 5.8 % in Honduras (Lindo *et al.*, 1998), 1.7 % in Northern India. (Mohandas *et al.*, 2002), 5.7 % in Nigeria (Okodua *et al.*, 2003), 3.6 % in North west Ethiopia (Moges *et al.*, 2006) and 6.7 % in Malaysian (Oguntbeju 2006)

Cryptosporidium parvum is an enteric coccidian parasite that has become a cause of concern as an important agent of diarrhea. Cryptosporidiosis in immunocompetent host is usually mild, self limiting and recover within a few weeks, the infection may have a severe,

The incidence of *C. parvum* in the present study was rate 3.3 % in HIV seropositve patients and 0.7 % among HIV seronegative . this results agree with other previous studies in the world among HIV seropositive and HIV seronegatve was at 14% in Zambia (Chintu et al., 1995), 11.9% in Koura (Angel and Fidel 1998), 7.7 % in Honduras (Lindo et al., 1998), 8.6% in Thailand (Termmathurapoj et al., 2000), in Indian 10.8 % (Mohandas, et al., 2002), 10.5 % in Korea (Guk et al., 2005), 9.4% Iran (Daryani et al., 2009) 12% in India (Kulkarni et al., , 8.1 % in Saudi Arabia (AL-Megrin ,2010) . High 2009) prevalence of *cryptosporidium* was reported from other previous studies at 21.5 % in South Italy (Brandonisio *et al.*, 1999), 33.3 % in Delhi India (Dwivedi et al., 2007); 28.7 % in South India (Ramakrishnan et al., 2007) 30 % in Abuja, Nigeria (Udeh et al., 2008), 43 % in India (Gupta et al., 2008) and 36 % in Tanzania (Zali *et al* ., 2004 . The present findings was higher than results reported previously , 5.7 % in Nigeria (Okodua *et al* ., 2003) ,0.9 % in Iran (Meamar *et al* ., 2007), 4.9% in Jakarta , Indonesia (Kurniawan *et al* ., 2009).

is one of ubiquitous intestinal Cryptosporidium parvum protozoan parasite, with worldwide distribution and it causes a significant enteric disease in immunocopromised hosts such as HIV patients . (Kaushik et al ., 2009), Transmission of this in mainly through fecal-oral route, as well as through parasite contaminated water person to person spread and contact drinking infected animals (Getaneh et al., 2010)

In immunocompetent individuals, *Cryptosporidium* usually causes a self-limiting diarrhea, whereas in immunodeficient patients it may cause a severe, chronic and progressive gastroenteritis. Because no effective therapy is available for cryptosporidiosis, prolonged diarrhea may lead to dehydration, wasting and frequently death (Dionisio , 2002), (Hunter and Nichols, 2002), A number of studies have determined prevalence of cryptosporidiosis among HIV-positive patients and showed results differing quite markedly from one another and ranging from 0 to 100%. (Getaneh *et al.*, 2010).

The incidence rate of *G. lamblia* in the present study was 8% in HIV seropositve patients and 8 % among HIV seronegative . The present finding higher than previous results in other countries , 1.9% in Indonesia (Kumiawan *et al* ., 2009) , 3.8 % in Ethiopia (Hailmeriam *et al* ., 2004) , 3.8% in Iran (Nasiri *et al* ., 2009) , 4.2 % in India (Gupta *et al* ., 2008) , 5.7 % in Abuja (Yvonne *et al* ., 2011) , 6 % in Cuba

(Escobedo and Nunez ,1999) and 1.9 % in Jakarta , Indonesia (Kurniawan *et al* ., 2009).

Giardia lambelia, compared to intestinal coccidians is not considered an opportunistic agent and less frequently observed to cause severe illness in HIV/AIDS patients. (Ferrreria, 2000). In the present study, G. *lamblia* was the third most prevalent parasite detected. G. lamblia is a common parasite in HIV-seropostive homosexual males. The transmission of *G. lamblia* may be direct by ingestion of faeces or through drinking of indirect contaminated water or ingesting of contaminated food (Neva and Brown, 1994) G. lamblia may cause acute or chronic diarrhea, steatorrhoea, malabsorption of fat and weight loss (Benenson, 1990).

Other intestinal protozoan parasites detected in the present study among HIV seropositive and HIV seropositive patient were E. coli 5.3 % and among HIV sronegative E. coli 6.7% E. nana 4 % and E. nana 0.7 % among HIV among HIV seropositive the incidence of *E. coli* 5.3 % seronegative among HIV seropositive which is those to that recorded in Ethiopia (12.6%) (Assefa *et al*., 2009). However the prevalence of *E. coli* (12.5%)was relatively high when compared to previous reports 0.8% in Northern India (Mohandas et al., 2002) ,1.1 % Thailand (Termmathurapoj et al., 2000). 1.9 % in Ethiopia (Assefa et al .,2009), 1.6% in North of Iran (Daryani *et al.*, 2009) 2.9%

(among HIV seropositive in Australia (Stark, *et al* .,2007); 3.7% in Saudia Arabia (AL-Megrin 2010); 4.7% in Nigeria (Udeh, *et al* .,2008) and 7.7% in Honduras (Lindo , *et al* ., 1998), 3.9% in

Iran (Zali *et al* ., 2004). But it was lower than previously recorded in North West Ethiopia (17%) (Taedesse and Kassu , 2005) ,in South India (20%) (Ramakrishnan *et al* ., 2007).

The incidence rate of *E. nana* in the present study was 4% in HIV seropositve patient was relatively high when compared to previous studies intestinal of parasites in HIV patients . (Termmathurapoj *et al* .,2000 ; Udeh *et al* .,2008 ; AL-Megrin 2010; and Kulkarni *et al* .,2009) . While in Jamaica (Barrett *et al* .,2008).

Only one helminth *E. vermicularis* was detected among HIVseropositive patients but it was absent among HIV seronegative patient but other helminthes reported among HIV seronegative *Taenia* sp.(2%) this species of parasites absence among HIV seropositve patient. (Fontanet *et al.*, 2000) in Ethiopia reported 1.3%, other studies in Ethiopia reported 3.6% (Moges *et al.*, 2006).

5.1.1 Incidence and sex :

The overall incidence of intestinal HIVparasites in patients and HIV seronegative patients among females seropositive and males and reported in the present study was 45.8 % and 39.5 % respectively while in HIV seronegative reported 37.3 % in females and 29.3 % in males . In both . No significant differences was exist between incidence and sex. This results in results reported previously Lindo et al., agreement with the 1998 ; Kumar *etal* ., 2002 ; Kaminsky *et al.*, 2004 ; Moges etal., 2006; Daryani etal., 2009 and Babatunde etal. 2010). The detection of intestinal parasites among females and males immunocompromised patients indicating that both genders are equally susceptible to infection . This agrees with the findings of Zali *et al* .,(2004) and Al – Megrin (2010).

The present study shown that infection in females was higher than males among HIV- seropositve group. But these results are in contrast with previous findings (Savioli *et al*., 1992 and Etok *et al*., 2010) which reported that there were more HIV –positive agreed with those in which females were HIV – seropositive than males. On the other hand males was higher than females among HIV seronegative group this may due to females have fewer restrictions than males whose leisure house are strictly controlled (Akogun and Badaki , 1998 ; Agha Rodina and Teodorescu , 2002 and Suwansaksri *etal*., 2005).

5.1.2 Incidence and age :

The age distribution of intestinal parasites among HIV –positive patients in the present study suggests that the infection tends to be common in 30-39 year old (50%). This result agrees with those reported previously (Moges *et al*., 2006; Simpore *et al*., 2009 and Nasiri *et al*., 2009). However, no significant difference were observed between different age groups, the same results was reported previously (Al-Megrin, 2010).

The present study showed all age groups were infected. This suggests HIV seronegative patients of all ages are susceptible to parasitic infection. The minimum incidence of parasites was discernible in old age group, this may due to the develop of immunity to infection. The absence of the difference in the incidence between age groups was reported previously (Raccurt etal., 2006;

Al-Megrin 2010 ; Hailemariam *etal.*, 2004 ; Oguntibeju 2006). On the other hand similar results in age and incidence of intestinal parasites in HIV seropositive infected patients and HIV seronegative patients was found statistically significant (Ghimire *etal.*, 2004 ; Lim *etal.*, 2005 ; Okodua *etal.*, 2003).

5.1.3 Incidence and diarrhea :

Diarrhoea is a common complication of infection with HIV, leading to weight loss and cachexia. It occurs in almost 90% of the HIV patients (Kumar et al., 2002). The present study revealed that the infection rate with intestinal parasites in HIV seropositive was found to be 42.7 %; of which diarrheal and non diarrheal cases accounted for 75% 33.2 % respectively. The persons and without diarrhea higher than those with diarrhea this rate of infection similar to previous studies in Honduras (Lindo et al., 1998) .The same results were reported previously (Mohandas et al., 2002; Brink et al., 2000; Dwivedi, et al., 2007; Zali et al., 2004; and Deorukhkar et al., 2011).

5.1.4 Incidence of single and mixed infection :

The present study revealed that 82.8% and 17.2% of infection were single and mixed infection respectively among HIV seropositive patients. Single and mixed infection has been reported by various workers (Guk *et al*., 2005; Raccurt *et al*., 2006; Moges *et al*., 2006; Ramakrishnan *et al*., 2007, Tadess and Kassu, 2005 Assefa *et al*., 2009; Kurniawan *et al*., 2009 and Al- Megrin, 2010). Multiple parasitic infections were more common in HIV/ AIDS patients while its not

detected in HIV - seronegative controls .This finding was reported previously (Hailemariam *et al* ., 2004).This strongly indicates the facilitated establishment of parasites in immuno compromised patients .



SUMMARY

This study was conducted on four hundred and fifty HIV seropostive HIV and seronegatve patients, fecal samples were taken from three Hospitals (HIV center 7th October hospital . Isolation center in Al jamhoria hospital and central laboratory) in Benghazi city. The collected samples were examined for intestinal parasitic infection by:

- (1) Direct smear examination using normal saline and iodine solution
- (2) Sedimention method (Formalin –Ethyl Acetate method) to detect all cysts an trophozoites of protozoa and adult , eggs and larvae of helminthes .
- (3) A modified version of the Ziehl Neelsen technique was used to detect the coccidian parasites.

The blood samples were screened for the presence of HIV antibody using ELISA method for those participate in this study.

Parasitic infection was identified in one hundred and twenty eight (70 females and 58males) giving an overall incidence rate at 42.7% in HIV seropositive while the parasitic infection was identified in forty eight (19 females and 29 males) giving an overall incidence of (32%) HIV-seronegative.

The result revealed that seven species of intestinal parasites were detected among HIV – seropositive patients, these parasites were *B. hominis E. histolytica E. dispar*, *E. coli*, *E. nana*, *G. lamblia*, *C. parvum* and *E. vermicularis*.

75

The most common protozoan parasites in HIV seropositive was B. hominis with the highest incidence at (18.7%) . followed by E. histolytica

E. dispar (10.3%), *G. lamblia* (8%), *E. coli* (5.3%), *E. nana* (4%), *C.* parvum (3.3%)and E. vermicularis (1%) The results showed that a significant differences were detected between incidence and each parasites (p=0.000) . A significant differences were in overall incidence were statistically significant for each parasite (P=0.000). No such difference were noted in E. vermicularis (P=0.136). the most common protozoan HIV seronegative was parasites . Among *E. histolytica* E. dispar with the highest incidence at (12.7%) followed by G. lamblia (8%), E. (0.7%), B. hominis (0.7%), E. nana (0.7%). *coli* (6.7%) *C. parvum* Among helminthes intestinal parasites was E. vermicularis (2%) and *Tenea* sp (0.7%). The apparent differences in overall incidence were statistically significant for each of the following parasites E. histolytica G. lamblia, C. parvum, E. coli (P=0.000). No such E. dispar differences were noted in E. vermicularis (P=0.08) B. hominis, Tenea sp and E. nana (P=.144)

Both sexes were infected with intestinal parasites in HIV seropositive the overall incidence was 45.8% in females and 39.5% in males . *B* . *hominis* had the highest incidence in both sexes with 21% in females and 16.3% in males followed by *E. histolytica E. dispar* at 9% in females and 3% in males , *G. lamblia* 10% in females and 6.1% in males , *E. coli* 6% in females and 5% in males , *E. nana* 3.3% in females and 5% in males , *C. parvum* 3% in females and 4.1% in males , *E. vermicularis* 1.3% in females and 0.7% in males . No significant differences was exist between overall incidence and sexes (P = 0.195) While in HIV- seronegative both sexes were infected with intestinal parasite at overall incidence 37.3% in females and 29.3% in males . No significant difference was exist between overall incidence and sexes(P = 0.322).

Age had no effect on the incidence of intestinal parasites in HIVseropositive (P= 0.570). The results showed that all age groups were infected with intestinal parasitic infection , the highest incidence rate with intestinal parasites was showed among age group 30-39 at 50% followed by 10-19 (44.4%) , 20-29 (35.8%) and 0-9 (28.6%) *B.hominis* showed high incidence rate in all age groups followed by *E. histolytica E. dispar* , *G. lamblia* , *E. coli*, , *C. parvum* and *E. nana* low incidence was detected in *E. vermicularis*

Age had no significant influence on the incidence of intestinal parasites HIV seronegative (P = 0.082). The intestinal parasitic infection showed that the high incidence rate was detected among age groups 0-9(46.7%), followed by 20-29(35.4%), 10-19 (29.8%), > 40(27.8%) and 30-39 (22.7%). *E. histolytica E. dispar* showed high incidence in all age groups followed by , *G. lamblia*, *E. coli*, *E. vermicularis* and low incidence was detected in *B.hominis*, *C. parvum*, *E. nana*, *Taenia* sp.

The results showed that the incidence rate of intestinal parasites in HIV – seropositive with and without diarrhea were 75% with diarrhea and 33.2% without diarrhea The results revealed that those HIV-seropositive patients with diarrhea was higher than those without diarrhea. There was a significant difference between incidence of parasitic infection and diarrhea. (P=0.000)

77

Infection rate with intestinal parasites in HIV -seronegative was found at 6 (60%) had diarrhea and the rest 42(30%) without diarrhea. There was a significant difference between incidence rate and diarrhea. (P=0.056)

Single and mixed infections were detected at 82.8% and 17.2% receptivity in HIV seropositive. There was a high significant difference between single and mixed infection with parasitic infection in HIV – seropositive patients (P = 0.000).

While the incidence of single infection of intestinal parasites among HIV seronegative patients showed in forty eight (100%) had single .No mixed infection was detected .



REFERENCES

- Abaver, D.T.; Nwobegahay , J.M.; Goon , D.T.; Iweriebor ,B.C. and Anye `,D.N.(2011): Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections among HIV/AIDS patients from two health institutions in Abuja, Nigeria . *African Health Sciences* , 11: 24 27.
- Adamu, H. and Petros, B. (2009): Intestinal protozoan infections among HIV positive persons with and without Antiretroviral Treatment (ART) in selected ART centers in Adama, African and Dire-Dawa, Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal Health Development*, 23(2):133-140.
- Adegbola , R.A. ; Demba, E .; Deveer, G .and Todd , F. (1994) : Cryptosporidium infection in Gambian children less than 5 years of age. Journal of Tropical Medicine Hygiene ,97:103-107.
- Agha Rodina , A .I. and Teodorescu, I .(2002) : Prevalence of intestinal parasites in three localities in Gaza Governorates Palestine . *Arch public Health* , 60 : 363 -370.
- Akinbo,F. O. ; Okaka ,C. E. and Omoregie ,R. (2010): Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections among HIV patients in Benin City, Nigeria . *Libyan Journal* Med ,: 51-6.
- Akinbo, F. O.; Okaka , C.E. and Omoregie, R. (2011) : Prevalence of intestinal parasites in relation to CD4 counts and anaemia among HIV- infected patients in Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria. *Tanzania Journal of Health Research* ,13 (1):10-16.
- Akogun , O.B. and Badaki , J. (1998) : Intestinal helminth infection in two communities along the Benue river valley Adamawa state . *The Nigerian Journal of parasitology*, 19: 67-72.

- Alemu , A. ; Shiferaw , Y. ; Getnet, G.; Yalew , A. and Addis,Z.(2011): Opportunistic and other intestinal parasites among HIV/AIDS patients attending Gambi higher clinic in Bahir Dar city, North West Ethiopia. Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Medicine , 4(8):661-5.
- Al-Megrin , W. A.(2010) : Intestinal parasites infection among immunocompromised patients in Riyadh , Saudi Arabia . *Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences* , 13(8): 390- 394 .
- Al-Tawaty , A.I.A.; Khan , A.H. ; El-Sharksi , N.I. and El-Buni , A.A. (1998): Screening of cryptosporidium oocysts in clinically immunocompetent children . *The Fourth Jamahiriya Congress on Medical Sciences , Benghazi* , 1-4 November .p. 242.
- Amatya, R.; Shrestha, R.; Poudyal, N. and Bhandari S. (2011):Opportunistic intestinal parasites and CD4 count in HIV infected people . *Journal of Pathology of Nepal*, 1(2): 118-121.
- Aminuan, M. and Yakubu ,Y.E.(2008) : Prevalence of asymptomatic intestinal coccidian parasite infections among non-diarrhoeic HIV-positive children in Zaria, Nigeria. South African Journal Of Science, 104: 9-10.
- Angel, A. E. and Fidel, A. N. (1998) : Prevalence of intestinal parasites in Cuban acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) patients . *Instituto de Medicina Tropical*.
- Arora, D.R and Arora, B.(2009) : AIDS- associated parasitic diarrhea. *Indian* Journal Medical Microbiology, 27(3): 185-90.
- Asma, I.; Johari, S.; Benedict, L.H.; Sim, I. and Lim ,Y. A. (2011): How common is intestinal parasitism in HIV-infected patients in Malaysia? *Tropical Biomedicine* 28(2):400-410.
- (2009): Intestinal parasitic infections in relation to HIV/AIDS status,

- Asmuth ,D. M.; De Girolami , P. C. and Micheline , F. (1994)Clinical features of Microsporidiosis in patients with AIDS *Clinical Infection Diseases*, 18: 819-825.
- Assefa, S.; Erko, B.; Medhin, G.; Assefa, Z. and Shimelis, T. diarrhea and CD4 T-cell count. *BM C Infectious Diseases*, 9(155): 1-6
- Ayeh-Kumi, P.F.; Ali, I.M.; Lockhart ,L.A.; Gilchrist ,C.A.; Petri W.A.; Jr. and Haque, R. (2001) Entamoeba histolytica: genetic diversity of clinical isolates from Bangladesh as demonstrated by polymorphisms in the serine-rich gene. *Exp Parasitology* 99, 80-88.
- Babatunde, S.K.; Salami, A.K.; Fabiyi, J.P.; Agbede, O.O. and Desalu,
 O. O.(2010) : Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infestation in HIV seropositive and seronegative patients in Ilorin, Nigeria. *Annals African Medicine*, 9 (3): 123 128.
- Barrett , D.M .; Steel-Duncan , J.; Christie , C. D .; Eldemire-Shearer , D . and Lindo, J. F . (2008) Absence of opportunistic parasitic infections in children living with HIV AIDS in children's homes in Jamaica : pilot investigation . West Indian Medicine Journal ,57 (3) : 253 – 256 .
- Bartlett ,J.G.; Belitsos ,P.C. and Sears, C.L.(1992). AIDS enteropathy . *Clinical Infectious Diseases* , 15(4):726-35.
- **Benenson**, A. S. (1990) : Control of communicable diseases in man 15th Edition . puplication , Health , Association . Washingtan D.C.
- Berenji, F.; Sarvghad, M.R.; Fata, A.M.; Hosseininejad, Z.; Saremi, E.; Ganjbakhsh, M. and Jahanparvar, R. I. (2010): A study of the prevalence of intestinal parasitic infection in HIV positive individuals in Mashhad, Northeast Iran. Jundishapur Journal of Microbiology, 3(2): 61-5.

- Berkelman, R. L.; Heyward, W.L.; Stehr-Green, J.K. and Curran, W.J.(1989): Epidemiology of human immunodeficiency virus infection and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *American Journal Medical sciences*, 86:761-770.
- Biggar ,R.J.(1986): The AIDS problem in Africa. Lancet, I:79-82.
- Boral, O. B.; Uysal, H.; Alan, S. and Nazlican, O. (2004): Investigation of intestinal parasites in AIDS patients. *Mikrobiyology Bullitin*, 38(1-2):121-128.
- Botero, J.H.; Castano,A.; Montoya,M.N.; Ocampo,N.E.; Hurtado,M.I. and Lopera,M.M. (2003) : A preliminary study of the prevalence of intestinal parasites in immunocompromised patients with and without gastrointestinal manifestations . *Revista Medicina Tropical De Sao Paulo*, 45(4):197-200.
- Bradbeer, C. (1986): AIDS epidemiology and screening. *Medicine International*, pp 1241-1245.
- Brandonisio, O.; Maggi, O,P.; Panaros, M.; Lisi, A,S.; Andriola, A.; Acquafredda, A. and Angarano, G. (1999): Intestinal protozoa in HIVinfected patients in Apulia, South Italy. *Epidemiology Infection*, 123: 457-462.
- Brink, A. K.; Mahe ,C.; Watera ,C.; Lugada, E.; Gilks, C. and Whitworth ,J.
 (2000) Diarrhea, CD4 counts and enteric infections in acommunity-based cohort of HIV-infected adults in Uganda. *Journal Infection* ,(45) : 99-106.
- Bruce, B.B.;Blass, A.M.; Blumberg, M.M.; Blumberg, M.H.; Lennox, J.L.; del Rio, C. and Horsburgh, C.R. (2000): Risk of Cryptosporidium parvum transmission between hospital room mates. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 31: 947-945.

Bugharara ,S.L.; Ali , M.Y. ; Khan , A. H. ; El- Sharkasi ,N. and El-Refi ,H. (1999) . Incidence of *cryptosporidium* in – patients with diarrhea . *Rivista di parastological* , 2:169-172 .

Burshan, N.M.(2004): parasitic infections and their impact on growth of preschool children in Tripoli –Libya.

- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) . (2003) Diagnostic procedures for stool specimens.
- Chen, Y.; Zhang,Y.; Yang, B.; Qi, T.; Lu, H.; Cheng, X. and Tachibana, H.(2007) : Short Report: Seroprevalence of Entamoeba histolytica Infection in HIV-Infected Patients in China *American Journal*. *Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 77(5): 825–828.
- Chessbrough, M. (2004): Parasitological tests in district laboratory practice in tropical countries. tropical health technology, World Health Organization, Geneva, pp 184-235.
- Chintu, C.; Luo, C.; Baboo, S.; Khumalo-Ngwenya, B.; Mathewson, J.; DuPont, H.L. and Zumla, A .(1995) : Intestinal parasites in HIVseropositive Zambian children with diarrhea . Journal of Tropical Pediatrics, 41(3):149-15
- Cimerman ,S.; Cimerman ,B. and Lewi ,D.S. (1999): Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections in patients with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome in Brazil. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 3(4): 203-206.
- Clark, D.P. and Sears, C.L. (1996). The pathogensis of cryptosporidiosis. Parasitology Today. 12(6): 221-225.
- Clark, G.C. (1997). Extensive genetic diversity in Blastocystis hominis. *Molecular* and Biochemical Parasitology. 87: 79-83.
- Clavel, F.; Guetard, D. and Brun-Vezinst, F.(1986): Isolation of a new human retrovirus from West African patients with AIDS. Science, 233:343-346.

- Colebunders, R.; Lusakumuni, K.; Nelson, A. M.; Gigase, P.; Lebughe, I.; van Marck, E.; Kapita, B.; Francis, H.; Salaun, J. J. and Quinn, T. C.(1988) : Persistent diarrhoea in Zairian AIDS patients: an endoscopic and histological study. *Journal Gut*, 29(12):1687-1691.
- Current ,W.L. and Garcia, L.S.(1990) : Cryptosporidiosis. Clinical Microbiololgy Rev, 4:(3) 25-58.
- Curry, A. and Smith, V.H.(1998). Emerging pathogens: Isospora, Cycospora and Microsporidia. *Parasitology*.117: 143-158.
- **Dar**, **F.K. and Friend**, **J. E**. (1979) : Parasitoses in a closed community a pilot study . *Garyounis Medicine Journal*, 2:95–96
- Daryani , A. ; Sharif , M.; Meigouni , M.; Mahmoudi , F. B.; Rafiei , A. ;
 Gholami , S.h. ; Khalilian , A. ; Gohardehi , Sh. and Mirabi .(2009) :
 Prevalence of intestinal parasites and profile of CD4 + counts in HIV⁺
 AIDS People in North of Iran , 2007-2008 . *Pakistan Journal of Biological* Sciences ,12(18): 1277-1281.
- Dehkordy, A. B. ; Rafiei , A . ; Alavi , S .M. and Latifi, S.M. (2010): Prevalence of *Cryptosporidium* infection in immunocompromised patients, in South-West of Iran . *Korean Journal Parasitology* , 45(2): 133–137.
- Deorukhkar, S.; katiyar, R.; Saini, Sh. S. and SiDDiqui, A. (2011): The prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections in HIV infected patients in a rural tertiary care hospital of western Maharashtra. (A 5 year study) *Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research*, 5(2):210-212.
- Desportes, I. ;Le Charpentier, Y.; Galian, A.; Bernard ,F.; Cochand-Priollet,
 B.; Lavergne, A.; Ravisse, P.and Modigliani, R. (1985) : Occurrence of a new microsporidan: Enterocytozoon bieneusi n.g., n. sp., in the enterocytes of a human patient with AIDS. *Journal Protozoology*. 32(2):250-4

- Didier ,E.S.; Snowden, K. F. and Shadduck, J. A.(1998) : Biology of microsporidian species infecting mammals. *Adv Parasitology*. ;40:283-320.
- **Dionisio, D. (2002) .** Cryptosporidiosis in HIV-infected patients. *Journal Postgrad Medical*, 48: 215-218 .
- Dowdy, S. W.; Wearden, S. and Chilko, D. (2004) : Statistica for research. john Wiley and Sons, Inc., Hoboken, New Jersey. 3rd Edition.pp: 627
- Dubey, J.P.; Speer, C.A. and Fayer, R. (1990). Cryptosporidiosis of man and animals. *CRC.press, Boston*, USA. PP :2-29.
- Dwivedi, K.K .; Prasad, G. ; Saini , S.; Mahajan ,S.; Lal, S. and Baveja, U .K.(2007): Enteric opportunistic parasites among HIV- infected individuals: associated risk factors and immune status. *Japanese Journal of Infectious Diseases* ,(60) : 76-81.
- El –Buni, A.A. and Khan, A.H. (1998) : Intestinal protozoan infections in Benghazi. Sabha Medical Journal, 1: 106-108
- El-Boulaqi, H. A.; Dar, F.K. and Medini, M.S (1980): Prevalence intestinal parasites in primary school children in Benghazi city. *Journal of the Egyptian Society of parasitology*, 10(1): 77-82.
- El-Sanousi , F.A.(2006): Prevalence of intestinal parasites among primary schoolchildren in Sirt –Libya MSc . Thesis , Faculty of Science , Al Tahadi University .
- El-Sanousi, S.M.(2007): Prevalence of human intestinal parasites in Sebha Libya MSc. Thesis, Faculty of Science, Sebha University.
- Endeshaw, T.; Mohammed, H. and Woldemichael, T. (2004) : *Cryptosporidium parvum* and other instestinal parasites among diarrhoeal patients referred to Ehnri in Ethiopia . *Ethiopian Medical Journal*, 42(3):195-198.

- Escobedo, A.A. and Nunez ,F.A.(1999) : Prevalence of intestinal parasites in Cuban acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) patients . *Instituto de Medicina Tropical*, 72 (10): 125 130 .
- Etok, N. A. ;James, E.;Mboto, C. I. and Sunde, U.(2010): Intestinal parasitic infections in hiv positive patients attending the general hospital calabarcross river state, Nigeria. World Journal of Applied Science and Technology ,2 (1): 76-86.
- Fayer, R. Speer, C.A. and Dubey, J.P. (1997): The general biology of Cryptosporidium. In: Fayer R (ed). Cryptosporidium and Cryptosporidiosis. CRC Press Boca Raton, Florida USA, pp. 1–42.
- Fayer, R. ; Morgan, U.M. Upton, S.J. (2000): Cryptosporidium as a parasitic zoonotic. Int. J. Parasitol , 30:1305-1321.
- Ferreria, M.S.(2000) : Infections by protozoa in immunocompromised hosts. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz*, 95: 159-162
- Fincham, J. E. and Adams , V. J. (2003) : "Simian immunodeficiency virus: possible effects of deworming and tuberculin extrapolated to HIV/AIDS." *Vaccine*, 21(19-20): 2258-2259.
- Fisseha ,B.; Petros, B. Woldemichael ,T.; Mohammed.H.(1999): Diarrhoeaassociated Parasitic Infectious Agents in AIDS Patients within Selected Addis Ababa Hospitals. Ethiop. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development*, 13(3): 169-173.
 - Fontanet , A. L. ; Sahlu ,T. ; Wit ,T.R.D . ; Messele ,T. ; Masho, W. ; Woldemichael ,T. ; Yeneneh H. and Coutinho, R. A. (2000) : Epidemiology of infections with intestinal parasites and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) among sugar-estate residents in Ethiopia . *Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology*, 94 (3) 269-278.

- Framm ,S.R. and Soave, R. (1997) : Agents of diarrhea. *Medical Clinics* North Americais, 81(2):427-447.
- Gatei ,W. ; Barrett,D. ; Lindo, J.F. ; Shearer,D,E.; Cama,V. and Xiao, L. (
 2008) : Unique Cryptosporidium Population in HIV-infected persons,
 Jamaica . *Emerging Infectious Diseases* , 14 : 5
- General Authority For Information . Statistics Book . pp 35-47 Tripoli Libya 2007 .
- Gericke ,A.S. ; Burchard , G.D.; Knoblock , J.; Walderich, B. (1997). Isoenzyme patterns of Blastocystis hominis patients isolates derived from symptomatic and healthy carriers. *Trop. Med. Intern. Health* ,2(3): 245-253.
- Germani, Y.; Cunin, P.; Tedjouka, E.; Ncharre, C. B.; Morvan, J. and Martin,
 P.(1998) : Enterohaemorrhagic Escherichia coli in Ngoila (Cameroon) during an outbreak of bloody diarrhea. *Lancet*, 9128(352) :625-626.
- Getachew, H. Afework, K. and Gemeda, A. (2004) Intestinal parasitic infections in HIV/AIDS and HIV seronegative individuals in a teaching hospital, *Ethiopia. Japan Journal Infection Disease*. 57:41-3.
- Getaneh ,A.; Medhin, G. and Shimelis,T. (2010): *Cryptosporidium* and *Strongyloides stercoralis* infections among people with and without HIV infection and efficiency of diagnostic methods for *Strongyloides* in Yirgalem Hospital, southern Ethiopia . *BMC Research Notes*, 3:(90
- Ghimire, P.; Sapkota ,D. and Manandhar, S.P (2004) : Cryptosporidiosis: Opportunistic infection in HIV/AIDS patients in Nepal . *Journal Tropical Medicine Parasitology*, 27 :7-10.
- Giasuddin, A. S. M. (1991): The problem of AIDS in eastern Libya. *Journal of Islamic Academy of Sciences*, 4(1): 40-44.

- Gomez- Morales, M.A. ; Atzori ,C. ; Ludovisi ,A. ; Rossi, P. ; Seaglia , M . and Pozio, E.(1995): Opportunistic and non-opportunistic parasites in HIV positive & negative patients with diarrhea in Tanzania. *Tropical Medical Parasitology* , 46 : 109-14.
- Goodgame, R.W.(1996) :Understanding intestinal spore forming protozoa: Cryptosporidia, Microsporidia, *Isospora* and *Cyclospora*. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 124 : 429-441.
- Greten ,H.; Kopeski ,K. and Stellbrink,H.J.(1993) : *Blastocystis hominis* in HIV releated diarrhea, Humburg *Journal Gastroenterology* , 30: 309-314 .
- Griffiths ,K.J. (1998) : Human Cryptosporidiosis: Epidemiology, Transmission,
 Clinical disease, Treatment and Diagnosis. *Advance in Parasitology*, 40: 38-72.
- Guk, S. M.; Seo, M.; Park, Y. K.; Oh, M. D.; Choe, K.W.; Kim, J. L.; Choi, M.
 H. ; Hong, S. T. and Chai, J. Y. .(2005) : Parasitic infections in HIVinfected patients who visited Seoul National University Hospital during the period 1995-2003 . *The Korean Journal of Parasitology*, 43 (1):1-5
- Gupta, S.; Narang, S.; Nunavath, V. and Singh, S. (2008): Chronic diarrhea in HIV patients : prevalence of coccidian parasites . Indian Journal of Medical microbiology ,26(2): 172 – 175.
- Hailemariam,G.; Kassu,A.; Abebe, G.; Abate,E.; Damte, D.; Mekonnen,E. and Ota,F.(2004): Intestinal parasitic infections in HIV/AIDS and HIV seronegative individuals in a teaching Hospital, Ethiopia. Japanese journal of infectious diseases, 57: 41-43.
- Hunter, P. and Nichols, R. G.(2002) : Epidemiology and clinical features of Cryptosporidium Infection in Immunocompromised Patients. Clinical Microbiology Reviews, 15 145 -154.

- **Ibrahium , H.A.(2003)** : Intestinal parasitic infection among the children and neonates admitted in Ibn-Sina Hospital ,Sirt , Libya MSc . Thesis , Faculty of Science , Al- Tahadi University .
- John , D. T. and Petri , A , W . (2006) : Markell and Voge's Medical Parasitology . 9 th edition . W.B . Saunders Company Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, United States .
- Kaminsky,R.G.; Soto, R.J.; Campa,A. and Baum, M.K. (2004). Intestinal Parasitic Infections and Eosinophilia in an Human Immunedeficiency Virus Positive Population in Honduras. *Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, Rio de Janeiro*, 99(7): 773-77.
- Kaneda, Y.; Horiki, N.; Cheng, X.J.; Fujta, Y and Maruyatna, M.(2002): . Ribodemes of *Blastocystis hominis* isolated in Japan. *Am. J. Trop.* Med. Hyg. 65(4): 393-396
- Kaplan E.J., Hu J.D., Holmes K.K., Harold W., Jaff WH., Musvr H., and DE
 Cock M.K (1996) : Preventing opportunistic infections in human immunodeficiency virus-infected persons: implications for the developing world. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 55(1): 1-11.
- **Karor ,S.M. (2007) :** Intestinal protozoa human infection in Zawia city –Libya . MSc , Thesis . Faculty of science , Saba Abril university .
- Kassu ,A.; Tsegaye, A.; Wolday, D.; Petros, B.; Aklilu , M.; Sanders, E. J.; Fontanet , A. L.; Vanbaarle, D.; Hamann, D. and De Wit , R. T. F. (2003): Role of incidental and/or cured intestinal parasitic infections on profile of CD4 and CD8 T cell subsets and activation status in HIV-1 infected and uninfectedadult Ethiopians . *Clinical and Experimental Immunology*, 132:113–119.
- Kaushik, K.; Khurana1,S.; Wanchu, A. and Malla, N. (2009): Serum immunoglobulin G, M and A response to *Cryptosporidium* parvum in

Cryptosporidium-HIV co-infected patients. BMC Infectious Diseases, 9: 1186/1471.

- Kelly, P. (1998) : Diarrhoea and AIDS: recent developments in the African setting . Journal African Health, 6(20): 16-18
- Kotler, D.P.; Gaetz ,H.P.; Lange ,M.; Klein ,E.B.and Holt ,P.R. (1984):
- Enteropathy associated with the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 101(4):421-428.
- Kotler, D.P. and Orenstein, J. M.(1998) : Clinical syndromes associated with microsporidiosis. *Adv Parasitol*, 40: 321-349.
- Kuhls , L.T.; Mosier, A.D.; Crawford, L.D.and Griffis.(1994). Seroprevalence of Cryptosporidial antibodies during infancy, childhood and adolescence. *Clin. Infect. Dis*, 18:713-715.
- Kulkarni, S.V.; Kairon, R.; Sane,S. S.; Padmawar,P. S.; Kale,V. A.; Thakar, M. R.; Mehendale, S. M.; and Risbud, A.R. (2009): Opportunistic parasitic infections in HIV/AIDS patients presenting with diarrhoea by the level of immunesuppression. *Indian Journal of medical research*, 130: 63-66.
- Kumar, S.S. ;Ananthan, S. and Lakshmi , P.(2002) : Intestinal parasitic infection in HIV infected patients with diarrhoea in Chennai . *Indian Journal of Medical Microbiology* , 20(2) :88-91.
- Kurniawan, A. T.; Karyadi, S.W.; Dwintasari, I.P.; Sari, E.; Yunihastuti,
 S. D. and Smith, H.V. (2009): intestinal parasitic infection in HIV \AIDS patients presenting with diarrhea in Jakarta, Indonesia. *Trans Royal Society of Tropical Medicine Hygiene*, 103:85-89.
- Lainson,R. and Da Silva ,B.AM. (1999): Intestinal parasites of some diarrhoeic HIV-seropositive individuals in North Brazil with Particular Reference to Isospora. Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz ,94(5): 611-613

- Le,X.H.; Wang, H.; Gou, J.Z.; Chen, X.C.; Yang, G.L.; Yang, Q.T.; Li ,X.H.; Zhou, B.P.; Li .H.Q. and Cai, W.P. (2008) :Detection of *cryptosporidium* infection among AIDS patients in Guangdong and Yunnan . *Zhonghua Shi Yan He Lin Chuang Bing Du Xue Za Zhi Zhonghua*, 22(5):339-341
- Leelayoova ,S.; Ransgsin, R.; Taamasri , P.; Naaglor , T.; Thathaisong , U. and Mungthin, M. (2004) : Evidence of waterborne transmission of Blastocystis hominis . American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene ,70(6):658-662
- Leiva, B.; Lebbad, M.; Winiecka-Krusnell, J.; Altamirano, I.; Tellez, A. and Linder, E. (2006): Overdiagnosis of Entamoeba histolytica and Entamoeba dispar in Nicaragua: a microscopic, triage parasite panel and PCR study. Arch Med Res, 37, 529-53.
- Libre, J.M.; Tor, J.; Manterola, J.M.; Carbonell, C. and Foz, M. (1989): Blastocystis hominis chronic diarrhoea in AIDS patients. *Lancet.ii*: 221.
- Lim ,Y .; Rohela , S. M.B .; Jamaiah,I . and Nurbayah, M. (2005) : Prevalence of Cryptosporidiosis in HIV-Infected Patients in Kajang Hospital, Selangor .Southeast Asian Journal Tropical Medicine Public Health ,36 (4) :30-33
- Lindo ,J.F. ; Dubon,J.M. ; Ager, A. L. ; Gourville , E. M .D. E. ; Gabriele, S. H . ; Klaskala, W .I . ; Baum,M.K .and Palmer , C .J. P. (1998) : Intestinal parasitic infection in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)– positive and HIV negative individual in San Pedro Sule ,Honduras . *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* , 58(4): 431–435
- Lindsay, S.D.; Dubey, J.P. and Blagburn, L.B. (1997) : Biology of *Isospora* spp. from humans, non-human primates and domestic animals. *Clin.Microbiol. Rev.* 10(1): 19-24

- Lopez-Velez , R.; Tarazona, R.; Camacho, G.A.; Gomez V.E.; Gomez-Mamposa, E.; Guerror , A.; Moreira, V. and Villaweva R. (1995). Intestinal and extra intestinal cryptosporidiosis in AIDS patients. *Eur. J. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Dis.* 14(8): 677-680
- Lumb, R. and Hardiman, R.(1991) : Isospora belli infection. A report of two cases in patients with AIDS. *Med J Aust*. 155(3):194-196
- Mahon, R.C. and Manuselis, G. (2000): Text book of Diagnostic Microbiology, 2th ed. Pennsylvania: Saunders.
- Mariam, Z.T.; Abebe, G. and Mulu, A. (2008) : Opportunistic and other intestinal parasitic infections in aids patients, HIV seropositive healthy carriers and HIV seronegative individuals in Southwest Ethiopia . *East African Journal of Public Heath*, 5(3) : 169 173.
- Manabe, C.M.; Clark, P.D.; Moore, D.R.; Lumadw, A.J.; Dahlman, H.R.; Belitsos, P.L.; Chaisson, R.E. and Sear, C.L. (1998) : Cryptosporidiosis in patients with AIDS: Correlates of disease and survival. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* 27: 536-542
- Markell ,E.K. ; John , D.T. and Krotoski, W.A.(1999) : Markell and Vog's Medical parasitiology . 8th edition . W.B.Saunders Company , Philadelphia .
- Markell, E.K.; Vog's, M. and John, D. (1986): Medical Parasitology 6th ed. W.B. Sandeas Company, London.
- Marshall ,M.M.; Naumovitz, D.; Ortega ,Y. and Sterling , C.R. (1997) : Waterborne protozoan pathogens. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 10, 67-85.
- Martins, C.A.P. and Guerrant , R.L. (1995) . Cryptospordium and cryptosporidiosis. *Parasitology Today*. 11(11): 434-436.
- Meamar, A.R.; Rezaian, M.; Mohraz, M.; Zahabiun, F.; Hadighi, R. and Kia, E. B. (2007): A comparative analysis of intestinal parasitic infections

between HIV+/AIDS patients and non-HIV infected individuals . *Iranian* Journal Parasitology, 12(1) :1-6

- Meisel ,J.L. ; Perera, D.R. ; Meligro, C. and Rubin, C.E.(1976) : Overwhelming watery diarrhea associated with a cryptosporidium in an immunosuppressed patient. *Gastroenterology*, 70(6):1156-1160
- Mengesha, B. (1994): Cryptosporidiosis among medical patients with AIDS in Tikur Anbessa Teaching Hospital, Ethiopia. *E. Afr. Med. Journal* 71(6): 376-378.
- Méndez ,O .C.; Szmulewicz, G.; Menghi, C.; Torres, S.; González ,G. and Gatta
- **,C.(1994):** Comparison of intestinal parasite infestation indexes among HIV positive and negative populations *Medicina Article in Spanish*,(4):307-10
- Moges, F.; Kebede, Y.; Kassu, A.; Degu, G.; Tiruneh, M. and Gedefaw
 ,M.(2006): Infection with HIV and intestinal parasites among street dwellers in Gondar City, North west Ethiopia. *Japanese Journal of Infectious Disease*, 59 (6):400-403.
- Mohandas ,K.; Sehgal ,R.; Sud ,A. and Malla, N. (2002) : Prevalence of intestinal parasitic pathogens in HIV-seropositiindividuals in Northern India . *Japanese Journal of Infectious Disease* ,55(3) :83-84 .
- Mora, L.; Garcia, A.; De Donato, M. and Urdaneta, H. (2008) : Epidemiologic and molecular study of *Entamoeba histolytica* and *Entamoeba dispar* strains in pacients with diarrhea in Cumana, Sucre state, Venezuela. *Invest Clin* 49, 225-237.
- Mosier , A.D. and Oberst, D.R.(2000) . Cryptosporidiosis: A global challenge. Ann. NY. Acad. Sci. 916: 102-111
- Mukhopadya, A.; Ramakrishna, B.S.; Gagandeep, K.(1999) : Enteric pathogens in Southern Indian HIV infected patients with and without diarrhoea. *Indian Journal Medical Research*, 109:85-89.

- Musa ,H.A.; Salim ,G.A.; Ismael ,A.A.; Elfadil, A and Kafi, S.k.(2011) : Diarrhea due to *Cryptosporidium parvum* in immunocompromised and immunocompetent patients in Khartoum State. Sudan, *Journal Medical Sudan* , 6: 1.
- Nasiri,V.; Esmailnia ,K.; Karimi ,K.; Nasiri ,M. and Akhavan,A.(2009) : Intestinal Parasitic Infections among Inhabitants of Karaj City, Tehran Province, Iran in 2006-2008 *Korean Journal Parasitology*, 47(3): 265-268.
- National AIDS Control Organization(NACO).(2007).Manual on qualitystandards for HIV testing laboratories.New Delhi: NACO
- Neva, F.A. and Broen, H.W. (1994). Basic clinical parasitology. Appieton
- & Lavgpe . Norwalk , Connecticut., USA.
- Nobale, G.A. (1994). A five minutes method for staining fecal smears . *Science*, 100:33
- Ochigbo, U. E.; Goselle, O. N.; Njab, J. and Abelau, M. A.(2011): Correlation Between Intestinal Protozoan Infection and Diarrhea in HIV/AIDS Patients *Webmed Central Immunology*, 2(2):1573-1574.
- **Oguntibeju, O.Q. (2006):** Prevalence of intestinal parasites in HIV positive/Aids patients. *Malaysian Journal of Medical Sciences*, 13 (1):68-73
- Okodua, M.; Adeyeba, O.A.; Tatfeng, Y.M. and Okpala, H.O.(2003) : Age and sex distribution of intestinal paraitic infection among HIV infected Subjects in Abeokuta, Nigeria . *Journal Health Allied Sciences*, 2:4
- Panciera, R. J. Thomassen, R.W. and Garner, F.M. (1971): Cryptosporidiosis in a calf. *Vet Pathol*, 8:479-484
- Petersen, C. (1993) . Cellular Biology of Cryptosporidium parvum. Parasitology Today, 9(3):87-91.
- Pinlaor,S. ; Mootsikapun ,P.; Porntip,P. ; Pipitgool ,V. and Tuangnadee ,R .(2005) : Detection of opportunistic and non opportunistic Intestinal parasites and

liver flukes in HIV – positive and HIV- negative . Southeast asian Journal Tropical med public health, 36:4.

- Prasad, K.N .;Nag ,V.L. ; Dhole, T.N. and Ayyagari .(2000): Identification of enteric pathogens in HIV-positive patients with diarrhoea in northern India. *Journal Health Populnutr* , 18(1):23-26
- Puthia, M. K.; Lu, J. and Tan, K. S. W. (2008): *Blastocystis* ratti contains cysteine proteases that mediate interleukin -8 response from human intestinal epithelial cells in an NF-B- Dependent manner. Singapore. *American society* for microbiology, 7(3): 435-443.
- Raccurt, C. P.; Stockman, C. P.; Eyma, E. R. I.; Verdier, R.I.; Totet, A.
- and Pape . J .W. (2006). Enteric parasites and AIDS in Haiti: utility of detection and treatment of intestinal parasites in family members . *Sao Paulo Medical Journal*, 66: 461 464 .
- Ramakrishnan ,K. ; Shenbagarathai , R. ; Uma , A. ; Kavitha, K.; Rajendran and Thirumalaikolundusubramanian , P. (2007) : Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infection in HIV AIDS patients with diarrhea in Madurai city , South India . Japanese Journal of Infectious Disease, 60 :209 210.
- Raof, S.A. (2002): Intestinal archezoa and protozoa of primary schoolchildren from Benghazi: An investigation relating to the effect of sociodemographic and environmental variables on parasitic infection. MSc .Thesis, Faculty of Science, Garyounis University
- Rimhanen-Finne ,R.; Niskanen , T.; Hallanvuo, S.; Makary, P.; Haukka K.
 Pajunen , S. Siitonen , A.; Ristolainen, R.; Pöyry, H. Ollgren, J, Kuusi
 M. (2009): Yersinia pseudotuberculosis causing a large outbreak associated with carrots in Finland, 2006. *Epidemiology Infection*. 137(3):342-347.

- Sadaga, G.A. and Kassem, H.H. (2007): Prevalence of intestinal parasites among primary schoolchildren in Dern district, Libya. *Journal of the Egyptian society of parasitology*, 37(1):205-214
- Saksirisampant ,W .; Prownebon, J. ; Saksirisampant , P . ; Mungthin , M . ; Siripatanapipong , S .and Leelayoova ,S.(2009) : Intestinal parasitic infections: prevalences in HIV/AIDS patients in a Thai AIDS-care centre. *Annals Tropical Medical Parasitology*, 103 (7):573-581.
- Sanyaolu ,A .O .; Oyibo ,W. A. ; Fagbenro-Beyioku , A. F. ; Gbadegeshin, A. H. and Iriemenam ,N. C. (2011): Comparative study of entero-parasitic infections among HIV sero-positive and sero-negative patients in Lagos, *Nigeria. Acta Tropica*, 120(3):268-272.
- Sarfati, C.; Bourgeois, A.; Menotti, J.; Liegeois, F.and Moyou-somo, R. (2006):
- Human immunodeficiency virus–infected adults in cameroon: a cross-sectional study. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 74(1):162–164.
- Savioli ,L. ; Bundy ,D.A.P. and Tomkins, A.(1992): Intestinal parasitic infections: a soluble health problem. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 86: 353–354.
- Sheehan, D. J.; Raucher, B. G. and Mckitick, J.C. (1986): Association of Blastocystis hominis with signs and symptoms of human disease. Journal of Clinical Microbiology, 24: 548 – 550.
 - Shlim , D. R.; Hoge , C. W.; Rajah , R.; Rabold , J. G. and Echevrria , P. (1995) : Blastocystis hominis a cause of diarrhea in travelers ? . A prospective controlled study in Nepal . Clinical infection diseases , 21 :97 – 101.

- Siddiqui ,U. ; Bini , E. J.; Chandarana, K.; Leong, J.; Ramsetty, S. . ; Schiliro , D. and Poles , M.(2007) : Prevalence and impact of diarrhea on health-related quality of life in HIVinfected patients in the era of highly active antiretroviral therapy. *Journal Clinical Gastroenterology* , 41(5):484-490.
 - Sifuenes-Osonio, J.; Parras-Cortes, G.; Bendall, R.P.; Marales-Virrarreal F.; Reyes-Teran ,G. and Ruiz-Palacio, G.M.(1995). *Cyclospora cayetanesis* infection in patients with and without AIDS: Bilary disease as another clinical manifestation. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* 21: 1092-1097.
 - Simpore, J.; Ouermi ,D.; Ilboudo, D.; Kabre ,A.; Zeba, B.; Pietra, V.;Pignatelli ,S.;Nikiema, J.B.; Kabre ,G.B. ;Caligaris, S.;
 Schumacher, F.and Castelli ,F.(2009): Aetiology of acute gastroenteritis in children at Saint Camille Medical Centre, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, *Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences* ,12(3):258-63.
- Sorvillo, F.J.; Leib, L.E.; Seidel Kemdt P., Turner, J. and Ash, L.R.(1995). Epidemiology of Isosporiasis among persons with AIDS in Los Angels country. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 53(6):25-28.
- Stark,D.; Fotedar, R.; Vanhal, S.; Beebe, N.; Marriott, D.
 ; ELLIS, J.T. and Harkness, J. (2007): Prevalence of Enteric Protozoa in Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) positive and HIV negative men have sex with men from Sydney, Australia. *American Journal Tropical*. *Medicine Hygiene*, 76(3): 549–552.

- Stensvold,C.R.; Nielsen,S.D.; Badsberg,J.; Engberg,J.; Friis-Møller, N.; Nielsen,S.S.: Nielse,H.V.and Friis-Molle, A.(2011) :The prevalence and clinical significance of intestinal parasites in HIV-infected patients in Denmar. *Scandina vian Journal of infectious Diseases*, 43(2): 129-135.
- Stenzel , D.J. and Boreham, P.L.F. (1996). Blastocystis hominis revisited. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 9(4):563-584.
- Surasiengsunk, S. (1998): Demographic impact of the HIV epidemic in Thailand. *AIDS*, (12): 775-784.
- Suwansaksri, J.; Wiwanitkit, V. and Nithiuthai, S. (2005): Prevalence of intestinal parasites among the local people in lum pra Due Village, Nakornratchasrima, Thailand without previous History of Antihelminthic Drug Distribution. *The Internet Journal of Tropical Medicine*, 2(1): 1540-2681.
- Tadesse, A. and Kassu, A . (2005): Intestinal parasite isolates in AIDS patients with chronic diarrhea in Gondar Teaching Hospital, North west Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Medical Journal*, (43): 93-96
- Tarimo ,D.S.; Killewo, J. Z.; Minjas , J. N. and Msamanga ,G.I.(1996)
 Prevalence of intestinal parasites in adult patients with enteropathic AIDS in north-eastern Tanzania . *East African Medical Journal*, 73(6):397-399.
- Telalbasic, S.; Pikula, P.Z. and Kapidzic, M. (1991). Blastocystis hominis: may be a potential cause of intestinal disease. Scan. J. Infect. Dis. 23: 389-390.

- Termmathurapoj, S.; Engkanun, K.; Naaglor, T.; Taamsri, P.;
 Areekul, W.; Leelayoova, S. and Mungthin, M. (2000):
 Cross-sectional Study of Intestinal Protozoan Infections in
 Orphans and Childcare Workers at the Phayathai Babies' Home,
 Bangkok, Thailand Journal Tropical Medical Parasitology,
 23(1): 21-27.
- Tsai, J.; Sun, H.; Yin ke, L.; Tsai, K.; Chang, S.; Hsieh, S.; Hsiao, C.;
 Yen, J.; Hung, C. and Chang, S. (2006): higher seroprevalence of *Entamoeba histolytica* infection is associated with human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infectionin taiwan. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 74(6): 1016–1019
- Tsegaye ,A. Messele , T. and Tilahun , T .(1999) :Immunohematological reference ranges for adult Ethiopians. *Clincal Diagnostic Laboratory Immunololgy* . 6:410–414.
- Vandenberg, O.; Van Laethem, Y.; Souayah, H.; Kutane, W.T., van Gool, T. and Dediste, A. (2006) : Improvement of routine diagnosis of intestinal parasites with multiple sampling and SAF-fixative in the triple-faeces-test. *Acta Gastroenterol Belg* 69: 361-366.
- Verdier ,R.I.; Fitzgerald, W.F.; Johnson, D.W. and Jape, W.J.(2000). Trimethoprim- Sulfamethoxazole compared with Ciprofloxacin for treatment and prophylaxis of Isosporabelli and Cyclospora cayetanensis infection in HIVinfected patient s. *Ann. Intern. Med.* 132: 885-888.
- Verweij , J.J.; Oostvogel, F.; Brienen ,E.A.; Nang-Beifubah, A.; Ziem, J. and Polderman , A.M. (2003): Prevalence of Entamoeba histolytica and Entamoeba dispar in northern Ghana , *Trop Med Int Health* , 8 : 1153-1156.

- Udeh, E.O.; Goselle, O. N. D.; Popova, D. D.; Abelau, M.; Popov, T. V.
 ;Jean, N. and David, J. S.(2008) : the prevalence of intestinal parasitic protozoans in HIV/AIDS patients in Abuja ,Nigeria . *science world Journal*, 3(3): 1597-6343 .
- UN AIDS Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic.Geneva, UNAIDS, 2007.
- Weber, R.; Bryan, R. T.; Schwartz, D.A. and Owen, R.L.(1994): Human microsporidial infections. *Clin Microbiol Rev*, 7: 426-61.
- Wittner, M.; Tanowitz, H. B. and Weiss, L. M. (1993): Parasitic infections in AIDS patients. Cryptosporidiosis, isosporiasis, microsporidiosis, cyclosporiasis.
 Infectious Disease Clinics of North America, 7: 569-86.
- Wiwanitkit ,V. (2001) : Intestinal parasitic infections in Thai HIV-infected patients with different immunity status . *BMC Gastroenterology*,1(3).
- World Health Organization . (1981) : Intestinal protozoan and helminthic infections . *World Health Organization . Technical Report Series* ,666 .
 - World Health Organization . (1986) : Provisional WHO clinical case definition for AIDS . *Weekly Epidemiology Records*, 10:303-306 .
 - World Health Organization . (1987) : Prevalence and control of intestinal parasitic infection . *World Health Organization . Technical Report Series* ,749 .
 - World Health Organization . (1993) :Global health situation IV. Selected infectious and parasitic diseases due to identified organisms . *World Health Organization .Weekly Epidemology Records* , 68:43-44
 - World Health Organization .(1997) Amoebiasis. Weekly Epidemiology Records ,72: 97-100.
 - Yvonne, A.L.L.; Asma, I.; Johari, S.; Benedict, L.H.; Sim, A.R.; Jex, M.
 J.; Nolan, J. and Huw, V. (2011): First genetic classification of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* from HIV/AIDS patients in Malaysia. *Infection Genetics and Evolution*, 11(5): 968-974.

- Zaki, M. and Clark, C.G. (2001): Isolation and characterization of polymorphic DNA from *Entamoeba histolytica*. *Journal Clinical Microbiology*, **39: 897-905**.
- Zali ,M. R.; Mehr , A.J.; Rezaian, M.; Meamar ,A.R.; Vaziri ,S. and Mohraz ,M. (2004) : Prevalence of intestinal parasitic pathogens among HIV-positive individuals in Iran. *Japanese Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 57:268-270.
- Zierdt ,C.H. (1988) :*Blastocystis hominis*: A long misunderstood intestinal parasite. *Parasitology .Today*, 1: 15-17.



الخلاص

الخلاص

في عام 1998، حدثت عدوى حادة ب فيروس نقص المناعه الايدز (HIV/AIDS) في مستشفى الأطفال في مدينة بنغازي.حيث أصيب حوالى 453 شخص، معظمهم أطفال وتوفى منهم 53. يعتبر هؤلاء المرضى عرضة للأمراض الانتهازية المُخْتَلِفةِ مثل الطفيليات المعويةِ.

أجريت هذه الدراسة لتحديد معدل حدوث الاصابة ببالطفيليات المعوية في مرضى الايدز في مدينة بنغازي نظرا لتأثير ها على الحالة الصحية العامة , شملت الدراسة 150 حالة غير مصابة بمرض الايدز لمجموعة سيطرة .

تم فحص ما مجموعة 450 عينة براز اشخاص مصابين وغير مصابين بمرض الايدز ذلك فى الفترة من فبراير الى ديسمبر 2010 ف . حيث شملت 300 حالة مصابة بمرض الايدز و150 حالة غير مصابة بمرض الايدز . لتحديد معدل انتشار الطفيليات المعوية .

اعتمدت الطرق المستخدمة في هذه الدراسة للكشف عن تواجد الطفيليات المعوية في عنيات البراز بين الاشخاص المصابين و غير مصابين بفيرس الايدز الاتي :

أ – الفحص المباشر لمسحة من البر از باستخدام المحلول الملحى الفسيولوجي ومحلول الايودين

ب- استخدام تقنية الترسيب (Formalin – Ethyl Acetate (Formalin – Ethyl Acetate

ج- استخدام صبغة A modified version of the Ziehl – Neelsen لكشف عن طفيليات الكوكسيديا (coccidian)

د- استخدمت طريقة الفحص المناعى ال ELISA لتأكيد من وجود فيروس الايدز في المرضى المصابين وعدم وجوده في المرضى غير مصابين .

الخلاصي

اظهرت النتائج ان معدل انتشار الطفيليات المعوية في المرضى المصابين بالايدز كانت 128 حاله بنسبة % 42.7 من الاشخاص المفحوصين .

دلت نتائج فحص عينات من المرضى المصابين بالايدز عن وجود سبعة أنواع من الطفيليات المعوية وهي :

B. hominis, E. histolytica / E. dispar, E. coli, E. nana, G. lamblia ,C. parvum and E. vermicularis.

اظهرت النتائج ان معدل انتشار الطفيليات المعوية في الاشخاص غير مصابين بمرض الايدر كانت 48 بنسبة % 32 من الاشخاص المفحوصين عن وجود ثمان انواع من الطفيليات المعوية وهي :

B. hominis, E. histolytica / E. dispar, E. coli, E. nana, G. lamblia ,C. parvum, E. vermicularis and Taenia sp.

سجل طفيلي B. hominis أعلي معدل انتشار ((18.7) مقارنة الطفيليات المعوية الأخرى يليه الطفيليات E. histolytica /E. dispar بنسبة ((10.3)

, E. vermicularis (3.3%)*C. parvum* (8%)*G. lamblia*, كانت *E. coli* (4%) وكان هناك اختلافات معنوية بين المعدل العام للطفيليات وكل طفيلي (P=0.136) E. vermicularis (P=0.000)

كما سجل طفيلي E. histolytica / E. dispar (12.7%) أعلى معدل انتشار بين الاشخاص غير مصابين بالايدز مقارنة مع الطفيليات المعوية الاخرى يليه الطفيليات

)E. . vermicularis ، (6.7%) E. coli ، (8%) G. lamblia , بعدل انتشار E. nana Taenia , C. parvum , B. hominis ، (6.25%) العدوى فيها منخفظ (0.7%) . اظهرت الدراسة وجود اختلافات معنوية بين المعدل العام B. homini , E. nana , Tenea sp عدا (P=0.000) عدا B. homini , E. nana , Tenea sp . بعدا (P=0.08) E. vermicularis (P=.144) اظهرت النتائج ان معدل حدوث الطفيليات المعوية في الجنسين كانت (%45.8) في الإناث و %39.5 في الذكور في عينات البراز للمرضي المصابين بالايدز . دلت النتائج على عدم وجود اختلافات معنوية بين الاصابة بالطفيليات المعوية والجنسين في مرضي الايدز بين الجنسين (P = 0. 195) .

اما معدل انتشار الطفيليات المعوية بين الاشخاص غير مصابين بالايدز فقد كان في الجنسين كانت 37.3% و الاناث و 29.3% في الذكور ولايوجد اختلافات معنوية بين الاصابة بالطفيليات المعوية بين الجنسين (P = 0.322)

دلت النتائج المتحصل عليها ان اعلى معدل اصابة بين الفئات العمرية كانت فى الفئة العمرية (30-30) سنة وكان بنسبة 50% للمرضى المصابين بالايدز وسجل طفيل ال B.hominis اعلى نسبة اصابة بنسبة %28.6 فى الفئة العمرية (0-9) سنوات

اما الحالات غير مصابة بمرض الايدز فقد سجلت اعلى اصابة فى الفئة العمرية (10-9) سنوات بنسبة % 44.4 و(29-20) بنسبة سنوات بنسبة % 46.7 يليها الفئات العمرية (10-19) بنسبة % 44.4 و(29-20) بنسبة 35.8% و سجل طفيل E. histolytica / E. dispar اعلى معدل اصابة بنسبة 20% فى الفئة العمرية (0-9) سنوات .

حيث سجلت معدلات اصابة منخفضة فى كل الفئات العمرية هناك عدم وجود فروق معنوية فى نسبة انتشار الطفيليات المعوية بين المجموعات العمرية المختلفة (P = 0.570) بينما في الاشخاص الغير مصابين بمرض الايدر فقد كان انتشار الاطوار الخضرية او المتكيسة للطفيليات المعوية فلم يكون هناك فروق معنوية في نسبة انتشار هذة الطفيليات والفئات معدل انتشار عالى بين جميع الفئات العمرية (=p

(0.082)

الفئات العمرية اما باقي الطفيليات المعوية فقد سجلات معدلات إصابة منخفضة في باقي الفئات العمرية .

اظهرت النتائج ان نسبة الاصابة بطفيليات المعوية في الحالات المصابة بلاسهال اعلى 75% من الحالات غير مصابة بلاسهال % 33.2 بين مرض الايدز . ودلت النتائج على وجود فروق معنوية بين المجموعتين (P=0.00)كما سجلت ايضا نسبة عالية في الحالات غير مصابة بالايدز فكان نسبة الطفيليات حالات الاسهال 60% اما الحالات غير المصابة

بالاسهال فكانت بنسبة 30% حيث سجل فرق معنوى (P=0.049)

اظهرت النتائج ان (% 82.8) من بين الحالات المفحوصة للمرضى المصابين بالايدز كانت مصابة بالطفيليات المعوية فى حالة اصابة مفردة (اصابة بطفيلى واحد) و(%17.2) من الحالات مصابين بأكثر من طفيلى . وكانت هناك احتلافات معنوية بين الاصابة الفردية والمختلطة (P=0.000) .

ولم تسجل اى اصلبة مختلطة في الاشخاص الغير مصابين بمرص الايدز