

Review Article

Hookworm infection: A neglected tropical disease of mankind

Muhammed Hossain and Jamal Uddin Bhuiyan

• **Received:** April 14, 2016

• Revised: Oct 24, 2016

• Accepted: Nov 3, 2016

• Published Online: Nov 10, 2016



AFFILIATIONS

- Muhammed Hossain
- Jamal Uddin Bhuiyan

Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Veterinary and Animal Science, Sylhet Agricultural University, Sylhet-3100, Bangladesh.

ABSTRACT

Hookworm infection, a global problem of human, is caused by both *Ancylostoma duodenale* and *Necator americanus*. These parasites are considered as important blood feeding nematodes. Hookworm is usually prevalent among the people who live with low socio-economic status. However, this tropical disease is neglected in most cases. This review was aimed at investigating the insights of hookworm infection of human considering its epidemiology, pathogenesis, clinical manifestation, diagnosis, treatment, immune mechanism, prevention, and control. This study showed how hookworm infection poses a global burden and infects 438.9 million people around the word annualy, and causes significant morbidity among the children and adult in endemic countries. Also, this review discussed how hookworm infection threatens the mankind causing serious health hazards.

CORRESPONDENCE

Muhammed Hossain

Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Veterinary and Animal Science, Sylbet Agricultural University, Sylbet-3100, Bangladesh.

É-mail: <u>bmhossain34sau@gmail.com</u>

KEYWORDS

Biology, Hookworm, Host range, Neglected, Transmission, Prevention

How to cite: Hossain M, Bhuiyan JU (2016). Hookworm infection: A neglected tropical disease of Mankind. Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research, 3(4): 297-320.

http://bdvets.org/javar/

Hossain and Bhuiyan/ J. Adv. Vet. Anim. Res., 3(4): 297-320, December 2016

INTRODUCTION

Hookworm infection which is caused by both Ancylostoma duodenale and Necator americanus are blood feeding nematode (Yulan et al., 2009) which has been documented globally, especially in people tropics with low socio-economic status (Halpenny et al., 2013; Furst et al., 2012; Bethony et al., 2006). Among the parasites soil-transmitted helminths (STHs) group hookworm is predominant. In an estimation reported 438.9 million people (Pullan et al., 2014) around the world are infected with hookworm and in Africa, Pacific Islands, India, Asia, America and Caribbean 576 million people infected by hookworm (de Silva et al., 2003). Nowadays hookworm infection is among the most important tropical diseases in humans; the use of disability-adjusted life years as a quantitative measure of the burden of disease reveals that this infection out ranks African trypanosomiasis, dengue, Chagas disease, schistosomiasis and leprosy (Hotez et al., 2003). Several studies ensured its continuous existence in Bangladesh (Khair et al., 2016; Hossain, 2015; Sultana et al., 2012; Gilgen et al., 2001). N. americanus is more prevalent than A. duodenale (<u>Iiraanankul et al., 2011</u>). Children and pregnant women are at risk of hookworm infection (Liabsuetrakul et al., 2009). Human acquires hookworm infection via infective larvae (L₃) which penetrates intact skin (Yulan et al., 2009; Liabsuetrakul et al., 2009; Tomono et al., 2003). The larvae migrate to the heart and lung and then move to trachea whereby they have been swallowed. After two molts, larvae develop into blood feeding adult worms; whereas the female worms start to produce eggs that are excreted out through feces (Cline et al., 1984, Maxwell et al., 1987). The eggs hatch in moist soil and produce larvae that develop into the L3 stage and after two molts complete life cycle (Craig and Scott, 2014).

The hookworm infection mainly causes anemia, hypoalbuminemia and malnutrition, intellectual, cognitive impairment and stunted health of children (Jardim-Botelho et al., 2008; Bethony et al., 2006; Brooker et al., 2006; Ekiz et al., 2005; Hotez et al., 2004) and in pregnant women anemia supported by hookworm (Ndyomugyenyi et al., 2008). Hookworm infection controlling was neglected worldwide because of its asymptomatic nature. Nowadays the control of hookworm infection is not beyond reach because of feasible and cost effective techniques are available. anthelmintic taking like benzimidazole anthleminthics is the main intervention strategy (Hotez et al., 2005; Bundy et al., 2005; Awasthi et al., 2003) and also need to pay heed on sanitation and hygiene (Hossain et al., 2016; Hossain and Bhuiyan, 2016; Gruber et al., 2013; Bartram and Cairncross, 2010). Understanding where at risk populations live is important for appropriate resource allocation and cost effective control. Particularly, it allows for reliable estimation of the overall drug needs of programs and efficient geographical targeting of control efforts (Brooker and Michael, 2000). Deworming programs at school level could efficiently help in the reduction the hookworm infection in children (de Silva et al., 2003) but could miss positive adult cases. Considerable efforts need to develop vaccine against hookworm and thus far more than 20 proteins have been explored as potential vaccine antigen targets (Bungiro and Capello, 2004; Hotez et al., 2008). However, there is still a long way to go before an effective hookworm vaccine might eventually become available. Metabolic profiling pursues a systematic biological approach and can deepen our understanding of metabolic responses of an organism to stimuli, such as disease, physiological changes and genetic modification (Nicholson et al., 1999). This review will be focused on recent research on updated diagnosis techniques for hookworm detection and immunologic mechanism thought to be responsible for infection along with epidemiology, pathogenesis, clinical manifestation, diagnosis, treatment, prevention, and control.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

This whole study was approved by the Ethical Committee for public health research of Sylhet Agricultural University, Sylhet-3100.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

Hookworm is one of the important parasite of the soil-transmitted helminths group. Thus approximately one-half of the people of Southeast Asia living in poverty have one or more soil-transmitted helminths infection (Hotez et al., 2015). Necator americanus is the prevalent hookworm globally, but in some endemic areas where A. duodenale is predominant (Hotez et al., 2004). The distribution of worm burdens among different human hosts is highly over dispersed so that often only 10 percent of the infected population carries 70 percent of the worms (Bundy, 1995).

The endemic areas for *N. americanus* includes China (Hotez, 2002), India (Yadla et al., 2003), Asia, Central and South America (Hotez et al., 2003) (**Figure 1**). Coastal site of these areas are predominantly involved with Necator infection (Lwambo et al., 1992).

A. duodenale is prevalent in some provinces of China (Anhui, Sichuan Provinces) and India (Kanpur). A. duodenale have the capability to remain viable in odd

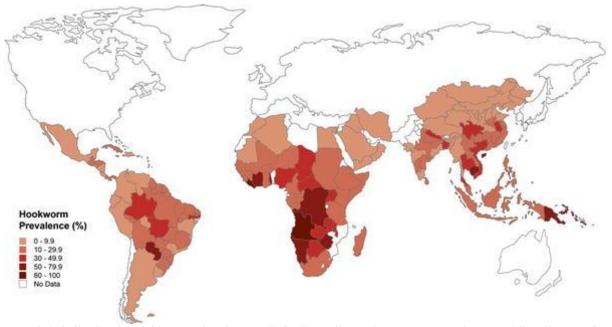


Figure 1: Global distribution of human hookworm infection [Illustration: Margaret Shear, Public Library of Science, adapted from (de Silva et al., 2003)]

climates due to their undergoing ability of arrested larval development during desiccation or extreme hot. Hookworm infections also occur prevalent in some other parts of the world like Egypt, Australia and Latin America (Labiano-Abello et al., 1999), other regions like Peru and El Salvador, and Honduras (Knight et al., 1981).

HOST RANGE

There was belief that N. americanus is only can infect human beings but it also recovered from some other non-human primates (Orihel, 1971; Michaud et al., 2003). In a finding, showed pig acts as the transport host for N. americanus (Steenhard et al., 2000). A. duodenale is the only significant human hookworm. Ancylostoma ceylanicum parasite of cat is infective to human as a zoonosis in Asia but it was not involved with blood loss in humans (Carroll and Grove, 1986), and it was remain as less important pathogen (Hotez, 1996). High proportion of cases with A. ceylanicum infections, an unique zoonotic hookworm infection found in ASEAN countries, especially Malaysia, Thailand, Cambodia and Lao PDR (Ngui et al., 2012a, b). The hookworm like A. caninum of dog can cause cause both eosinophilic enteritis and aphthous ileitis syndromes in human of Australia (Landmann and Prociv, 2003). The usual natural information of zoonotic A. caninum infection was extensively reviewed and was not found any significance to think of it further (Prociv, 1997). There is evidence

that some persons are predisposed to a heavy (or light) hookworm burden owing to either genetic or exposure factors (Quinnell et al., 2001; Williams et al., 1997).

EPIDEMIOLOGICAL PATTERNS BY AGE AND SEX

Six month old children also can be infected with hookworm (Brooker et al., 1999). The prevalence of hookworm infection rises as age increasing (Shiferaw and Mengistu, 2015; Abossie and Seid, 2014; Wegayehu et al., 2013). Interestingly, the current information from studies in China and Asia suggest that highest prevalence is observed among the middle aged and even individuals over 60 years age (Sengchanh et al., 2011; Lili et al., 2000; Gandhi et al., 2001; Bethony et al., 2000). Which is in contrast, it appears there is a noting variation in the age of host (Bundy and Keymer, 1991). In few areas like Africa, convex age intensity profiles for hookworm infection are observed (Udonsi, 1984; Behnke et al., 2000) contrarily while in China intensity continues to rise throughout life and which is highest among the elderly (Gandhi et al., 2001; Bethony et al., 2002).

In China and Malaysia, the hookworm burdens increases with age (Ye et al., 1994; Al-Delaimy et al., 2014). This investigation find out the elderly are at higher risk of infection. Male is more prone to hookworm infection than female (Bundy, 1988) which was influenced by reflects of immune-suppression associated with male sex hormones (Poulin, 1996; Moore and Wilson, 2002).

Occupation is an important risk factors for this worm infection and exposure to the sources of infection is proportional to infection rate, as male are involved in agricultural work so they are likely to get more infection than female (Khair et al., 2016; Behnke et al., 2000). When male are getting incorporation of soil and get the touch of human stool as they try to increase the strength of house structure. Conversely, in few areas like China (Sengchanh et al., 2011; Gandhi et al., 2001; Bethony et al., 2002) and Vietnam (Needham et al., 1998) females shows prevalent of hookworm infection and intensities as elderly women are involved in soil work (Humphries et al., 1997). However, sex is not a parameter to judge infection intensity as occupational exposure is contributing in hookworm infection (Abossie and Seid, 2014; Gandhi et al., 2001; Bethony et al., 2002).

RISK FACTORS

Agent factors: Hookworms are parasites of under the family belonging to Ancylostomatidae, which is the part of Strongyloidea superfamily. The two important genera which infects human are Ancylostoma and Necator which are identified by their cutting plate or teeth (Hotez, 1996). A. duodenale and N. americanus is very host specific and occurs frequently in tropical areas (Beaver et al., 1984). Arrested larval development can be continued in soil even though there is no provision of larvae warmth, moisture and shade (Brooker et al., 2004). The surface protein of the organism is supposed to be antigenic and causes infection. The WHO identifies 2000-3999 eggs per gram of feces as moderate intensity of infections and 4,000 or more eggs per gram as heavy intensity infections (Montresor et al., 2002). Whereas the intensities for the former peak in childhood and adolescence, hookworm intensity usually either steadily rises in intensity with age or plateaus in adulthood (Hotez et al., 2004; Bethony et al., 2002). The actual base of this findings in not known (Olatunde and Onyemelukw, 1994).

Household, socio-economic and occupational risk factors: As the transmission of hookworm engages contamination of the environment by hookworm eggs, it is expected that risk factors for infection may include poor personal hygiene (Chin et al., 2016; Strunz et al., 2014; Traub et al., 2004; Asaolu and Ofoezie, 2003; Gunawardena et al., 2005), low educational attainment (Mihrshahi et al., 2009; Liabsuetrakul et al., 2009) and household sanitation (Ensink et al., 2005) and unfinished house floor (Soares Magalhaes et al., 2011; Pullan et al., 2010), which is affected by socio-economic status (Halpenny et al., 2013; Furst et al., 2012; Balen et al., 2011; Brooker et al., 2004; Traub et al., 2004). Few studies have been demonstrated that hookworm

infection is associated with no facility of of hygienic toilet (Hossain, 2015; Wang et al., 2012; Olsen et al., 2001; Chongsuvivatwong et al., 1996) and poor socioeconomic status (Holland et al., 1988) (Figure 2). A study in Kenya showed that variation in household income and education level of the head of household were not associated with any helminths infection (Olsen et al., 2001), conversely a study in Nigeria exposed level of education is associated with hookworm infection (Adeniyi et al., 2015; Quihui et al., 2006; Nematian et al., 2004). The families who are involved in the use of feces as fertilizer in agricultural land, they got higher rate of infection (Humphries et al., 1997) and among vegetable growers and farmers (Kirwan et al., 2009; Conde et al., 2007; Hotez et al., 1997). As feces are used frequently as fertilizer they influences high level of infection by hookworm (Schad et al., 1983). Foot ware is also risk factors for hookworm infection (Sandy et al., 2014; Alemu et al., 2011; Ratnayaka and Wang, 2012) because walking in barefoot have high chance of hookworm infection (Shiferaw and Mengistu, 2015; Abate et al., 2013; Alemu et al., 2011). For example, in India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka, the tea garden workers are getting high rate of infections (Hossain, 2015; Gilgen et al., 2001).

Seasonal and environmental factors: The environmental humidity, temperature, ultra-violet light and geographical differences are greatly influencing the transmission cycle of hookworm and some other related factors like rainfall, soil type and altitude (Ndokeji et al., 2016; Bongi and Morel, 2005; Chandler, 1929) also contribute in the completion of cycle. 20-30°C temperature is thought to be optimal for reaching maturity. The above of temperature 35-40°C arrests development and even death occurs (Nwosu, 1978; Udonsi and Atata, 1987; Smith and Schad, 1990) and at temperature of 35°C larvae of N. americanus become dead, even though maximum rate obtained at 30°C (Udonsi and Atata, 1987).

In the tropics the lower temperature limit is often measured by altitude, in few areas of Africa coastal plain below 150 m above sea level (Appleton and Gouws, 1996; Appleton et al., 1999; Mabaso et al., 2003). Above these altitudes temperatures (<20°C) limit the growth of the parasite (Yu et al., 1995). A. duodenale can undergo arrested development which allows its survival in odd weather during winter (Schad et al., 1973). The relationship between spatial and rainfall and the prevalence of hookworm is well documented (Anuar et al., 2014; Brooker and Michael, 2000). Hookworm infection often expresses seasonality (Khanum et al., 2014; Cook et al., 2009). If A. duodenale undergo arrested development



Figure 2: Socio-demographic status of rural communities (A-D)

during the rainy season, new infections again appear after 8-10 months (Schad et al., 1973).

L₃ larvae are available during the rainy season (<u>Udonsi et al., 1980</u>) in Africa and fecal egg numbers are also highest 2-7 months after the rainy season (<u>Knight and Merrett, 1981</u>; <u>Nwosu, 1981</u>). However, seasonal fluctuations have little influence to the overall persistence of hookworm populations (<u>Anderson, 1982</u>). Soil type is an important influencing factor for hookworm larval development and transmission (<u>Brooker and Michael, 2000</u>). High prevalence of hookworm was involved with well drained sandy soil (<u>Mabaso et al., 2003</u>; <u>Saathoff, 2002</u>) conversely low rate of infection was associated with clay soils.

HISTORY AND MORPHOLOGY

In 1838, Dubini provided the detail description of the worm *A. duodenale* after examining sample taken from a woman. Hookworm infections were well established in the USA and in due course the Rockefeller Sanitary Commission for the eradication of hookworm disease was established (Hegner et al., 1938; Ettling, 1990; Crompton and Whitehead, 1993). The overall information on hookworm given in (Table 1).

Table 1: Characteristics of human hookworm infections (Crompton and Whitehead, 1993)

Orompton and wintericad; 1775			
Traits	<i>A.</i>	N.	
	duodenale	americanus	
Adult worm size (mm)			
Male	8-11	7-9	
Female	10-13	9-11	
Adult life span (years)	1	3-5	
Sex ratio (M:F)	1:1	1.5:1	
Pre-patent period (days)	53	49-56	
Fecundity	10000-25000	5000-	
(eggs/female/day)		10000	
Optimum temp (°C) for	20-27	28-32	
free living larval stages			
Route of infection	O, P, T	P	
Arrested development	Yes	No	

Based on information from <u>Hoagland and Schad (1978)</u> and <u>Beaver & Jung (1985)</u>. O:Oral route; P:Percutaneous route; T:Trans-placental route. <u>Schad and Banwell (1984)</u> review evidence to suggest that *A. duodenale* may also exploit the trans-mammary route of infection as does *A. caninum* (<u>Miller, 1981</u>).

The ova of hookworms (A. duodenale and N. americanus) are alike. They are colorless and oval in shape, measuring about 65x40 μ m. The eggs contain an ovum which appears unsegmented. In stool more than 12 hours old, larvae may be seen inside the egg. The L_3 stage of larvae 600 microns of length (Brooker et al., 2004).

TRANSMISSION

The highest rates of hookworm transmission occur in the world's coastal regions, where infective third stage larvae can migrate freely in sandy soils and where the temperature and moisture are optimal for viability of larvae (Mabaso et al., 2003). Direct exposure of intact skin to the filariform larvae in soil initiates transmission of hookworm and even infection (Liabsuetrakul et al., 2009; Tomono et al., 2003; Traub et al., 2004) (Figure 3). Human gets hookworm when the infective larval stage

penetrate through the skin (Reichert et al., 2016; Haas et al., 2005) (both N. americanus and A. duodenale) or when they are swallowed (for A. duodenale) (Zeehaida et al., 2011; Olsen et al., 2009; Brooker et al., 2004). It has also been reported that N. americanus L₃ will invade the buccal epithelium if they enter through the mouth (Nagahana et al., 1963). Exceptionally, larvae may be transmitted through fomites. For instance, if washed clothes are dried on the ground, larvae may creep on the textile from surrounding soil, resulting in an infestation when the piece of clothing is put on (Tomović et al., 2008).

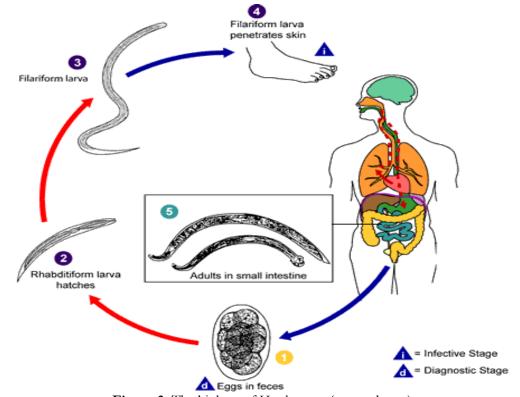


Figure 3: The biology of Hookworm (www.cdc.org)



Figure 4: More exaggerated vesicular skin eruption by cutaneous hookworm larvae (Despommier et al., 2000)

BIOLOGY OF HOOKWORM

A. duodenale life cycle was first expressed by (Looss, 1901), and N. americanus was identified for the first time in the Western Hemisphere (Chandler, 1929; Stiles, 1902). Hookworms follow direct life cycle (Hoagland and Schad, 1978)). Hookworms remain in the SI and live on host mucosa and blood (Roche and Layrisse, 1966). Female worm produces eggs which are passed out through stool (Augustine, 1922) to be embryonated in the soil. Rhabditiform larvae grow in the soil contaminated with feces (Cline et al., 1984) and after 5 to 10 days (and two molts) they become filariform (third-stage) larvae that are infective (Cort and Payne, 1922) and feeds on organic debris and microorganisms.

When the infective larvae come in contact with skin and penetrate the skin (Logan, 2009) which further conveyed through blood vessels to the heart and then finally to the lungs. After few moult in the lung it pass down to the stomach to duodenum and take place final maturation (Craig and Scott, 2014; Maxwell et al., 1987). After entering in the host body larvae can resume its development (Hotez et al., 1993; Hawdon et al., 1996). Resumption of development can also be recovered (Hawdon et al., 2003). Of the proteins secreted by host activated hookworm larvae (Zhan et al., 2003) and which is belong to the pathogenesis (Hotez et al., 1993).

Between both hookworm species there is a major differences (Hoagland and Schad, 1978; Hotez, 1996). A. duodenale is larger than N. americanus and produces more eggs and causes high rate of blood loss (Albonico et al., 1998). Few researchers believe N. americanus can evade immune system and leads to parasitism (Hoagland and Schad, 1978; Pritchard and Brown, 2001). Hookworm can initiates iron deficiency anaemia (Albonico et al., 1998). Hookworm has the unique ability to undergo arrested development in body of final host (Ekiz et al., 2005; Schad et al., 1973) and during pregnancy it remain dormant in the mammary gland and initiates lactogenic transmission (Hotez, 1989; Yu et al., 1995). Neonatal Ancylostomiasis is prevalent in African and Asia (Yu et al., 1995).

CLINICAL FEATURES

Acute infection: The repeated entry of hookworm L₃ through skin result "ground itch" (Brooker et al., 2004). Sometime sleep disturbance because of intense itching (Jackson et al., 2006). This consists a pruritic erythematous papulo-vesicular rash. Ground itch seen often on the hand and feet (Figure 4). A. braziliense larvae results in cutaneous larva migrants appearin on the

feet, buttocks and abdomen (Schuster et al., 2013; Blackwell and Vega-Lopez, 2001). Other animal hookworm such as A. caninum significantly causes CLM (Landmann and Prociv, 2003). The increased frequency of CLM among the travellers (Yosipovitch et al., 2002). A second form of CLM frequently associated with folliculitis (Reichert et al., 2016; Sakai et al., 2008; Caumes et al., 2002).

Following the entry of hookworm larvae into body, results respiratory problems (Miller, 1979). Circulating levels of IgE increase occurs in response to migrations of third stage larvae in the lungs and intestines (Maxwell et al., 1987). When the larval stage of hookworm enters into the gastrointestinal tract it results in epigastric pain (Anyaeze, 2003) and it causes the presence of parasitic egg in the feces (Maxwell et al., 1987). When human get A. duodenale infection through oral route sometimes it causes nausea, vomiting, pharyngeal irritation, cough, dyspnea (Harada, 1962).

Hypo-proteinemia caused by hookworm: The consequences of hookworm infection are loss of protein (Betson et al., 2012) by plasma as it is digested by mature worm (Smith and Schad, 1990; Albonico and Savioli, 1997). If the Hookworm burden occurs it leads to hypoproteinemia because of continuous blood loss and sometimes it leads to edema (Hotez, 2002). If protein loss occurs because of hookworm infection it can be recovered by treatment even though it increases the chance of weight gain (Torlesse, 1999).

Hookworm induced anemia: The major clinical manifestation of human hookworm infection is intestinal blood loss (Roche and Layrisee, 1966; Miller, 1979; Crompton and Stephenson, 1990). Large scale of hookworm infections results in iron deficiency and microcytic hypochromic anaemia (Smith and Brooker, 2010; King et al., 2005; Lone et al., 2004; Beaver et al., 1984). When hookworm sucks blood via its buccal cutting plate it releases an antiplatelet agents which favors the continuous loss of blood (Stanssens et al., 1996; del Valle et al., 2003).

The hookworm ingested blood is easily digested by combined action of few enzymes (Jones and Hotez, 2002; Williamson et al., 2003a, b). A total number of 40 to 160 hookworms are good enough to cause anemia (Lwambo et al., 1992). The highest intensity of hookworm infection is associated with the burden of hookworm in the host body (Jackson and Jackson, 1987; Sill et al. 1987; Shulman et al. 1996; Egwunyenga et al., 2001). Previously hookworm was considered as the less important to cause anemia because it was thought to be

Table 2: Hookworm and loss of host blood. The data are extracted from Holland (1987, 1989), Pawlowski et al. (1991) and Crompton (2001) who give details of sources of information and techniques used to make measurements and estimates.

Traits	A. duodenale	N. americanus
Intestinal blood loss/mL/worm/day, mean (range)	0.15 (0.05-0.30)	0.03 (0.01-0.04)
Number (range) of worms causing a blood loss 1ml/day	5 (4-7)	25 (14-50)
Blood loss (mL/day) per 1000 epg stool	2.2 (1.54-2.86)	1.3 (0.82-2.24)
mean±SD.	4.4±2.16	2.2±1.01
Iron loss (mg/day) per 1000 epg stool	0.76-1.35	0.45-0.65
Worm burden responsible for 1000 epg stool	11	32

Table 3: Treatment of hookworm [Modified from the Medical Letter on Drugs and Therapeutics, Drugs for Parasitic Infections (Anonymous, 2004). In children of 1-2 years the dose of albendazole is 200 mg instead of 400 mg, based on a recommendation in the Report of the WHO informal consultation on the use of praziquantel during pregnancy and lactation and albendazole/mebendazole in children less than 24 months (Kabatereine et al., 2007; Koukouknari et al., 2006; Montresor et al., 2003; WHO, 2002)]

Infection	Drugs	Dose	
	-	Adult	Child
Hookworm	Albendazole	400 mg once	400 mg once
	Mebendazole	100 mg twice a day for 3 days	100 mg twice a day for 3 days
	Pyrantel	11 mg/kg (maximum dose 1	11 mg/kg (maximum dose 1gm) for
	pamoate	gm) for 3 days	3 days
	Levamisole	2.5 mg/kg once; repeat after 7	2.5 mg/kg once; repeat after 7 days
		days in heavy infection	in heavy infection

malaria is responsible for anemia in pre-school children (Brooker et al., 1999).

Perinatal hookworm infection: Hookworm infection consequences anemia of pregnant women causes adverse health problems like prematurity, low birth weight and impaired lactation (Miller, 1979). Lactogenic transmission to neonate has been seen in pregnant women (Yu et al., 1995). This happens because larvae of *A. duodenale* can arrest their own development in host tissues (Schad et al., 1973) and when parturition initiates larvae enter into mammary gland and become visible in milk. In neonate the hookworm infection results in profuse anemia (Yu et al., 1995).

School performance and productivity in adulthood: Heavy and longtime infection of hookworm during the period of child development causes less cognitive performance and educational achievement (Jinabhai et al., 2001). Lately, few studies observed child with hookworm infection shows poor cognitive function (Shang, 2011; Jardim-Botelho et al., 2008; Watkins and Pollitt, 1997; Drake et al., 2000). Cognitive function problem because of anemia and retardation of growth (WHO, 2006; Grantham-McGregor and Ani, 2001; Mendez and Adair, 1999; Lozoff, 1990). A recent study among Bangladeshi tea pluckers found that hemoglobin

and productivity of women were positively associated (Gilgen et al., 2001).

Effects of helminths in allergic patients: The global increase in allergy especially in urban areas (Pearce et al., 2007) has led researchers to a new path that when helminths infection reduces then chance of allergic diseases (Rook, 2009). A number of studies show that communities with helminths infection have reduced rates of allergy (van den Biggelaar et al., 2000; Cooper et al., 2003) and the evidence that people with hookworm have less asthma problem (Leonardi-Bee et al., 2006; Flohr et al., 2010) has stir up researchers to investigate a new approach to asthma patients (Feary et al., 2010). It is observed that if Th2 response suppress by helminths it has an active influence on allergic response (McSorley and Maizels, 2012). There is another observation that if anthelmintics uses in the patients it increases the rate of allergic diseases (van den Biggelaar et al., 2004; Flohr et al., 2009).

DIAGNOSIS

There is no gold standard for diagnosis of hookworm infection and diagnosis is often misunderstood or delayed because of the patients' non-specific verbal response. Nowadays widely taken samples for hookworm diagnosis are blood and fresh stool. A great number of diagnostic methods have been compared to detect the presence of hookworm including stool examination by Harada Mori filter paper culture, Kato-Katz thick smear, sodium acetate-acetic acid-formalin (SAF) solution, ether concentration method and the FLOTAC technique and Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR).

Direct smear: This method involves the identification of hookworm egg or larvae under microscope from fresh stool samples by normal saline, Eosin or Lugol's Iodine as emulsifying agents (Cheesbrough, 1982) and Kato-Katz smear was prepared from each and every stool sample on slides using 41.7 mg punched plastic templates (Katz et al., 1972), sodium acetate acetic acid formalin (SAF) solution (Bogoch et al., 2006; Marti and Escher, 1990), ether concentration method (Allen and Ridley, 1970) and the FLOTAC technique (Cringoli, 2006).

Cultural techniques: Harada Mori culture techniques provide the morphological identification of hookworm larvae which first introduced by <u>Harada and Mori (1955)</u> then it is widely used (<u>Vonghachack et al., 2015</u>; <u>Banu et al., 2013</u>; <u>Steinmann et al., 2007</u>). This culture method better than direct saline smear and ether concentration techniques (<u>Sato et al., 2010</u>; <u>Marchi and Cantos, 2003</u>). Harada Mori techniques require ten days cultivation for getting fully formed larvae.

Serology: Diagnosis of hookworm could be done by serological methods especially in patients with eosinophilia or mildly symptomatic patients. The serological methods widely used to determine the presence of hookworm antibody in the serum of the human hosts. The antibody could be determined by Enzyme Linked Immuno Sorbent Assay (ELISA) and Western Blot Analysis (WBA) (Brooker et al., 2004) as low titers of hookworm specific antibodies are noted in heavy infection along with a low or normal eosinophil count.

Polymerase chain reaction

DNA extraction: Bead beating technique a conventional method for DNA extraction (Salonen et al., 2010) from raw stool samples but now sophisticated methods like QIAGEN DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit are developed and used widely (Qiagen Inc., Valencia, CA).

Nested and real time PCR: The nested PCR method established for detection of hookworm. DNA template which was purified was used for amplifying DNA in thermal cycler using a genus specific primer set as described by (Yong et. al., 2007). The rDNA region comprising the first and second internal transcribed

spacers plus the 5.8S gene and near about 50 nucleotides of the 28S rRNA amplified using oligonucleotide primers NC5>: 5'-GTA-GGT-GAA-CCT-GCG-GAA-GGA-TCA-TT-3' (forward) and <NC2: 5'-TTA-GTT-TCT-TTT-CCT-CCG-CT-3' (reverse) designed to regions of the 18S and 28S genes, respectively (Gasser et al., 1996), and found to be conserved across a range of strongylid nematodes. A real-time PCR method developed by (Verweij et al., 2009) to detect hookworm DNA in fecal samples.

TREATMENT

Benzimidazole anthleminthics are the current corner stone of helminths treatment because of their wide range of activity against worm, low price, efficient efficacy and convenient route of administration (Savioli et al., 2002). Available anthelmintics for the treatment of hookworm are albendazole, levamisole, mebendazole and pyrantel pamoate (Table 3). A single oral dose of ivermectin (200 µg per kg body weight) kills the migrating larvae effectively (Caumes, 2003).

Levamisole and pyrantel pamoate have varying degree of cure and egg reducation rate (Utzinger and Keiser, 2004). The repeated round of pyrantel pamoate increases resistence to hookworm infection (Black et al., 2010). Anthelminthic treatment reduce load of hookworm infection and along with this increase unit of haemoglobin among children. Allergy of the patients misdirected anti-parasitic response of hypersensitive individuals (Artis et al., 2012). Anthelmintic treatment initiates benefits to pregnant women and children also (Torlesse and Hodges, 2000). Some other studies also reported anthelmintic treatment improves the health status of both child in the womb and bearing mother (de Silva et al., 1999). In endemic areas immediately after anthelmintic treatment reinfection occurs (Albonico et al., 1995). Treatments are required three times a year to improve the iron status of the host (Stoltzfus et al., 1998; de Silva, 2003).

IMMUNE RESPONSE TO HOOKWORM INFECTION

The complex life cycle of the hookworm provides numerous benefits for both parasites and host. Helminths infections are known to exert strong immune modulatory effects on their hosts (<u>Danilowicz-Luebert et al., 2011</u>). Immunological responses to hookworm infection are reviewed both in human and experimental animal (<u>Behnke, 1991; Loukas and Prociv, 2001</u>) but poorly understood (<u>Forrer et al., 2015</u>). For example, *N. americanus* will become adult in hamsters but a wide range of changes observed in the way of their development to

adult (Rose and Behnke, 1990; Xue et al., 2003; Rajasekariah et ali, 1985; Xue et al., 2003). Likely, exogenous steroids help in the development of A. duodenale (Leiby et al., 1987). This variation occurs because A. duodenale and N. americanus is highly host specific (Beaver et al., 1984). Hookworm based immune therapy resulted suppression of pro-inflammatory antigliadin immune-response and induction of systemic and mucosal type 2 cytokine response (Gaze et al., 2012) although overt suppression of clinical disease was not observed (Daveson et al., 2011).

The immune response against hookworm infection is stimulated by the larvae and sometimes their excretory products (Loukas and Prociv, 2001); often hookworm secretory/excretory products suppress intestinal colitis (Ferreira et al., 2013). The methods used to identify antibody responses (Sarles, 1938; Otto et al., 1942; Sheldon and Groover, 1942). All the Ig isotypes accumulated in the site of infection to initiate immune response in naturally infected individuals (Behnke, 1991; Loukas and Prociv, 2001). The biological properties of isotypes also differ (Shackelford et al., 1988; Dunne et al., 1993).

The immunologic response to hookworm infection comprised of Th₂ antibody isotypes, IgG1, IgG4 and IgE where advanced concentration paid on IgE because during hookworm infection IgE in serum level increase several folds (Jarrett and Bazin, 1974). In IgE network IgE participates (Sutton and Gould, 1993; Garraud et al., 2003) which activates this system against helminths (Garraud et al., 2003). The prediction for the high levels of IgE is involved in reduction in the risk of anaphylaxis (Hagan, 1993). IgE that gathered against *N. americanus* is highly specific to hookworm (Pritchard and Walsh, 1995).

In hookworm infection IgG1 and IgG4 level are increased in hookworm infection (<u>Palmer et al., 1996</u>) and, *A. duodenale* (<u>Xue et al., 2000</u>). The function of IgG4 is poorly understood (<u>Capron, 2011</u>). It was believed to down regulate the immune response (<u>Rihet et al., 1991</u>) and IgG4 is stronger among other immunoglobulin (<u>Geiger et al., 2011</u>).

The hookworm proteases function was reflexed mostly by IgA (Loukas and Prociv, 2001). Even though there is an extensive response to infection, but there is limited chance offers any protection (Pritchard and Walsh, 1995) reducing adult hookworm (Hagan et al., 1991; Dunne et al., 1993) due to behavioral modifications (Woolhouse, 1992, 1993).

For initiating immune response to hookworm infection is eosinophilia present in peripheral blood (Loukas and Prociv, 2001) and which can be reflected in peripheral site (Geiger et al., 2008; Behnke, 1991). Circulating eosinophils are functional in infected individuals (White et al., 1986; Maxwell et al., 1987; Nawalinski and Schad, 1974) were boosted greatly by the arrival (Meeusen and Balic, 2000). In response to IgE mas cell degranulation plays a crucial role (Geiger et al., 2011), because mast cell was thought to degrade collagens of adult necator (McKean and Pritchard, 1989). Therefore, the inherent ability of helminths to induce Th2 responses lead to elucidation of the underlying mechanisms in lung, skin or gut (Obata-Ninomiya et al., 2013; Harvie et al., 2013; Harvie et al., 2010) which leads to Th₂ responses, interim mucus and fluid production increased (Madden et al., 2004). The high level of IL-10 along with other cytokines like (IL-4, IL-5 and IL-13) decline treatment (Turner et al., 2013).

Host protection to nematode infection is CD4+ T cell-dependent (Oeser et al., 2014). Hookworm antigen induces cell apoptosis by intrinsic mitochondrial pathway and induces generation of suppressor CD4+ and CD8+ T cells (Gazzinelli-Guimaraes et al., 2013; Cuellar et al., 2009).

STRATEGIES FOR CONTROL AND PREVENTION

Hookworm infection removal or eradication from poor areas is difficult because of its transmission potentiality (Brooker et al., 2004). The interruption of transmission cycle is another key components of STH specially hookworm control (Hawdon, 2014; Strunz et al., 2014; Anderson et al., 2014; Truscott et al., 2014). The current strategy to control hookworm is chemotherapy although it alone cannot remove hookworm infection (Freeman et al., 2013) but with support of health education (Tomono et al., 2003), improved water and sanitation (Greene et al., 2012; Freeman and Clasen, 2011; Asaolu and Ofoezie, 2003) and socio-economic status (Mihrshahi et al., 2009). Beyond saying Proper hygiene and sanitation is corner stone for control of hookworm infection (Greenland et al., 2015; Nasr et al., 2013). However, feasibility of toilet facilities is involved in lowering thw intensity of (Sunderkotter et al., 2014; hookworm infection Chongsuvivatwong et al., 1996) and may not be completely effective. Hookworm infection maintaining proper hygiene is crucial along with use of footwear in control strategy (Kannathasan et al., 2013; Albonico et al., 1998). The long time required for improved sanitation and behavioral change to control helminths infection is chemotherapy (Kabatereine et al., 2007; Koukouknari et al., 2006; Albonico et al., 1998)

mentioned in **(Table 3).** The use of anti-hookworm vaccine with anthelmintic drugs brought benefits (<u>Hotez et al., 2003</u>). Promises led by the WHO have been counted in school-age children (<u>World Bank, 2003</u>). Treatment of potable water also can reduce the transmission of hookworm (<u>Clasen et al., 2007</u>).

CONCLUSION

Hookworm infection is still a topic of great concern because of its high morbidity. The public health importance is also a great concern if the hookworm infection is omitted. Interim it is warranted to investigate the risk factors involved in hookworm infection and screen patients from endemic areas prior to receiving chemotherapy. It is mandatory to highlight plethora of prevention effort in endemic countries like health education, proper sanitation, regular deworming and the use of protective footwear for reducing the occurrence of hookworm.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declared no conflict of interest.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to acknowledge the valuable suggestions and positive criticism of his fellow colleagues and fruitful direction during writing this manuscript.

AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION

M Hossain has designed the procedure of works and successfully written the whole manuscript and made all the relevant correction over the manuscript. MJU Bhuiyan thoroughly revised this manuscript and paid positive criticism to give it a quality shape.

REFERENCES

- Abate A, Kibret B, Teklu T, Yalew A (2013). Cross-Sectional Study on the prevalence of intestinal parasites and associated risk factors in Teda Health Centre, Northwest Ethiopia. ISRN Parasitology, 2013: 757451.
 - https://doi.org/10.5402/2013/757451
- Abossie A, Seid M (2014). Assessment of the prevalence of intestinal parasitosis and associated risk factors among primary school children in Chencha town, Southern Ethiopia. BMC Public Health, 14: 166. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-14-166

- 3. Adeniyi KA, Oseihie II, Chiedozie KO, Adedapo BA (2015). Prevalence of helminth infestation during pregnancy and its association with maternal anemia and low birth weight. International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics 129: 199-202. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijgo.2014.12.002
- 4. Albonico M, Savioli L (1997). Hookworm infection and disease: advances for control. Annual Instant Super Sanita, 33: 567-579.
- Albonico M, Smith PG, Ercole E (1995). Rate of reinfection with intestinal nematodes after treatment of children with mebendazole or albendazole in a highly endemic area. Transaction Royal Society for Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 89: 538-541. https://doi.org/10.1016/0035-9203(95)90101-9
- 6. Albonico M, Stoltzfus RJ, Ercole E, Cancrini G (1998). Epidemiological evidence for a differential effect of hookworm species, A. duodenale or N. americanus, on iron status of children. International Journal of Epidemiology 27: 530-537. https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/27.3.530
- 7. Al-Delaimy AK, Al-Mekhlafi HM, Nasr NA, Sady H, Atroosh WM, Nashiry M (2014). Epidemiology of intestinal polyparasitism among Orang Asli school children in rural Malaysia. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 8: e3074. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0003074
- 8. Alemu A, Atnafu A, Addis Z, Teklu T, Mathewos B (2011). Soil transmitted helminths and S. mansoni infections among school children in Zarima Town, Northwest Ethiopia. BMC Infectious Diseases, 11: 189-196.
 - https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-11-189
- 9. Ali S, Barbhuiya M, Rahman A, Chowdhury S (1985). Incidence of hookworm among the workers in tea garden. Bangladesh Medical Research Council Bulletin, 11: 69-74.
- 10. Allen AVH, Ridley DS (1970). Further observations on the formol-ether concentration technique for faecal parasites. Journal of Clinical Pathology, 23: 545-546.
 - https://doi.org/10.1136/jcp.23.6.545
- Anderson RM (1982). The population dynamics and control of hookworm and roundworm infection. In:
 Anderson, RM., editor. Population Dynamics of Infectious Diseases: Theory and Applications. London: Chapman and Hall; pp 67-109. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-2901-3
- 12. Anderson RM, Truscott J, Hollingsworth TD (2014). The coverage and frequency of mass drug administration required to eliminate persistent transmission of soil-transmitted helminths. Transaction Royal Society for Biological Science,

- 369: 43-45. https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2013.0435
- 13. Anonymous (2004). Drugs for Parasitic Infections. The Medical Letter on Drugs and Therapeutics, http://www.themedicalletter.com/restricted/article s/w1189c.pdf (Accessed on Nov 12, 2005).
- Anuar TS, Salleh FM, Moktar N (2014). Soil-transmitted helminth infections and associated risk factors in three Orang Asli tribes in Peninsular Malaysia. Science Repponse, 4:4101. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep04101
- 15. Anyaeze CM (2003). Reducing burden of hookworm disease in the management of upper abdominal pain in the tropics. Tropical Doctor, 33: 174-175.
- Appleton CC, Gouws E (1996). The distribution of common intestinal nematodes along an altitudinal transect in Kwa-Zulu Natal, South Africa. Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, 90: 181-188. https://doi.org/10.1080/00034983.1996.11813042
- 17. Appleton CC, Maurihungirire M, Gouws E (1999). The distribution of helminth infections along the coastal plain of Kwazulu-Natal province, South Africa. Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, 93: 859-868. https://doi.org/10.1080/00034983.1999.11813493
- Artis D, Maizels RM, Finkelman FD (2012). Forum: Immunology: Allergy challenged. Nature, 484: 458-459
- https://doi.org/10.1038/484458a
- Asaolu SO, Ofoezie IE (2003). The role of health education and sanitation in the control of helminth infections. Acta Tropica, 86: 283-294. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-706X(03)00060-3
- Augustine DL (1922). Investigations on the control of hookworm disease. X. Experiments on the length of life of infective hookworm larvae in soil. American Journal of Hygiene, 2: 177-187.
- 21. Awasthi S, Bundy DAP, Savioli L (2003). Helminthic infections. British Medical Journal, 23: 431-433.
 - https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.327.7412.431
- 22. Balen J, Raso G, Li YS, Williams GM (2011). Risk factors for helminths infections in a rural and a periurban setting of the Dongting Lake area, People's Republic of China. International Journal for Parasitology, 41: 1165-73. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpara.2011.07.006
- 23. Banu SS, Ahmed BN, Banu SG, Ameen KH (2013). Prevalence of Soil Transmitted Helminthes (STHs) Infection among Children Aged 2-17 Years in Urban and Rural Areas of Dhaka District in Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Medical

- Microbiology, 5: 16-22. https://doi.org/10.3329/bjmm.v5i2.16933
- 24. Bartram J, Cairncross S (2010). Hygiene, sanitation, and water: forgotten foundations of health. PLoS Medicine, 7: e1000367. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1000367
- 25. Beaver PC, Jung RC (1985). Animal Agents and Vectors of Human Disease, 5th edn. Philadelphia, Lea & Febiger.
- Beaver PC, Jung RC, and Cupp EW (1984). Clinical Parasitology, 9th 700 Loukas and Prociv Clin. Microbiol. Rev. ed., Lea & Febiger, Philadelphia, Pa; pp 269-301.
- 27. Behnke J (1991). Human parasitic diseases: hookworm infections. In: Gilles, HM.; Ball, P., editors. Immunology. Amsterdam: Elsevier; pp 93-155.
- 28. Behnke JM, De Clercq D, Vercruysse J (2000). The epidemiology of human hookworm infections in the southern region of Mali. Tropical Medicine and International Health, 5: 343-354. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3156.2000.00553.x
- 29. Bethony J, Brooker S, Hotez PJ (2006). Soiltransmitted helminth infections: ascariasis, trichuriasis, and hookworm. The Lancet, 367: 1521-1532.
 - https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(06)68653-4
- 30. Bethony J, Chen J, Xiao S, Zhan B (2002). Emerging patterns of hookworm infections: Influence of aging on the intensity of Necator infection in Hainan Province, People's Republic of China. Clinical Infectious Diseases, 35: 1336-1344. https://doi.org/10.1086/344268
- 31. Betson M, Kabatereine NB, Stothard JR (2012). Use of Fecal Occult Blood Tests as Epidemiologic Indicators of Morbidity Associated with Intestinal Schistosomiasis during Preventive Chemotherapy in Young Children. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 87: 694-700. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2012.12-0059
- 32. Black CL, Mwinzi PN, Colley DG (2010). Influence of exposure history on the immunology and development of resistance to human S. mansoni. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 4: e637. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0000637
- 33. Blackwell V, Vega-Lopez F (2001). Cutaneous larva migrans: clinical features and management of 44 cases in the returning traveler. British Journal of Dermatology, 145: 434-437. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2133.2001.04406.x
- 34. Bogoch II, Raso G, Utzinger J (2006). Differences in microscopic diagnosis of helminths and intestinal protozoa among diagnostic centres. Europian Journal of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious

- Diseases, 25: 344-347. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-006-0135-x
- Bongi S, Morel A (2005). Understanding small scale providers of sanitation services: A case study of Kibera. Nairobi, Kenya: Water and Sanitation Program.
- 36. Brooker S, Bethony J, Hotez PJ (2004). Human hookworm infection in the 21st century. Advances in Parasitology, 58: 197-288. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-308X(04)58004-1
- 37. Brooker S, Clements AC, Bundy DA (2006). Global epidemiology, ecology and control of soil-transmitted helminth infections. Advances in parasitology, 62: 221-261. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-308X(05)62007-6
- 38. Brooker S, Michael E (2000). The potential of geographical information systems and remote sensing in the epidemiology and control of human helminth infections. Advances in Parasitology, 47: 245-288
 - https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-308X(00)47011-9
- Brooker S, Peshu N, Marsh K, Snow RW (1999). Epidemiology of hookworm infection and its contribution to anaemia among pre-school children on the Kenyan coast. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 93: 240-246. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0035-9203(99)90007-X
- Bundy D, Shaeffer S, Sembene M (2005). Chapter 61, School Based Health and Nutrition Programs.
 In: editors. Disease Control Priorities for Developing Countries. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 41. Bundy DAP (1988a). Sexual effects on parasite infection. Parasitology Today, 4: 186-189. https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-4758(88)90075-0
- 42. Bundy DAP (1995). Epidemiology and transmission of intestinal helminths. In: Farthing MJG, Keusch GT, Wakelin D, eds. Enteric infection 2: intestinal helminths. New York: Chapman & Hall Medical; pp 5-24.
- 43. Bundy DAP, Keymer AE (1991). The epidemiology of hookworm infection; Human Parasitic Diseases Volume 4. Hookworm Infections. Amsterdam: Elsevier; pp 157-178.
- Bungiro R, Cappello M (2004). Hookworm infection: new developments and prospects for control. Current Opinions of Infectious Diseases, 17: 421-426. https://doi.org/10.1097/00001432-200410000-00006
- 45. Capron M (2011). Effect of parasite infection on allergic disease. Allergy, 66: 16-18. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1398-9995.2011.02624.x

- Carroll SM, Grove D (1986). Experimental infection of humans with A. ceylanicum: clinical, parasitological, hematological and immunological findings. Tropical and Geographic Medicine, 38: 38-45.
- 47. Caumes E (2003). Treatment of cutaneous larva migrans and Toxocara infection. Fundamental Clinical Pharmacology, 17: 213-216. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1472-8206.2003.00172.x
- 48. Caumes E, Ly F, Bricaire F (2002). Cutaneous larva migrans with folliculitis: report of seven cases and review of the literature. British Journal of Dermatology, 146: 314-316. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0007-0963.2001.04531.x
- 49. Chandler AC (1929). Hookworm disease: its distribution, biology, epidemiology, pathology, diagnosis, treatment and control: Macmillan.
- 50. Cheesbrough M (1982). Medical laboratory manual for tropical countries: Central African Journal of Medicine, 21: 48.
- 51. Chin YT, Yap IKS, Lee SC, Tee MZ, Siow VWY, Chua KH (2016) Prevalence and risk factors of intestinal parasitism among two indigenous sub ethnic groups in Peninsular Malaysia Infectious Diseases of Poverty, 5: 77.
- 52. Chongsuvivatwong V, Greater A, Duerawee M (1996). Predictors for the risk of hookworm infection: experience from endemic villages in southern Thailand. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 90: 630-633.
 - https://doi.org/10.1016/S0035-9203(96)90412-5
- 53. Clasen T, Schmidt WP, Cairncross S (2007). Interventions to improve water quality for preventing diarrhoea: systematic review and meta-analysis. BMC journals, 33: 782.
- 54. Cline BL, Little MD, Bartholomew RK, Halsey NA (1984). Larvicidal activity of albendazole against N. americanus in human volunteers. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 33: 387-394.
- 55. Conde JF, Feldman SR, Arcury TA (2007). Cutaneous larva migrans in a migrant latino farmworker. Journal of Agro medicine, 12: 45-48. https://doi.org/10.1300/J096v12n02_05
- 56. Cook DM, Swanson RC, Booth GM (2009). A Retrospective analysis of prevalence of gastrointestinal Parasites among school children in the Palajunoj Valley Guatemala. Journal of Health Population and Nutrition, 27: 31-40. https://doi.org/10.3329/jhpn.v27i1.3321
- 57. Cooper PJ, Chico ME, Griffin GE, Nutman TB (2003). Reduced risk of atopy among school-age children infected with geohelminth parasites in a rural area of the tropics. Journal of Allergy Clinical

- Immunology, 111: 995-1000. https://doi.org/10.1067/mai.2003.1348
- 58. Cort WW, Payne GC (1922). Investigations on the control of hookworm disease. VI. A study on the effect of hookworm control measures on soil pollution and infestation in a sugar estate. American Journal of Hygiene, 2: 107-148.
- 59. Craig JM, Scott AL (2014). Helminths in the lungs. Parasite Immunology, 36: 463-474. https://doi.org/10.1111/pim.12102
- 60. Cringoli G (2006). FLOTAC, a novel apparatus for a multivalent faecal egg count technique. Parassitologia, 48: 381-384.
- 61. Crompton DWT (2001). The public health significance of hookworm disease. Parasitology, 121: 39-50.
 - https://doi.org/10.1017/S0031182000006454
- 62. Crompton DWT, Stephenson LS (1990). Hookworm infection, nutritional status and productivity. In Hookworm Disease pp. 231-264. London and Philadelphia, Taylor and Francis Ltd.
- Crompton DWT, whitehead RR (1993). Hookworm infections and human iron metabolism. Parasitology 107: 137-145. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0031182000075569
- 64. Cuellar C, Wu W, Mendez S (2009). The hookworm tissue inhibitor of metalloproteases (Ac-TMP-1) modifies dendritic cell function and induces generation of CD4 and CD8 suppressor T cells. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 3: e439. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0000439
- 65. Danilowicz-Luebert E, Steinfelder S, Hartmann S (2011). Modulation of specific and allergy-related immune responses by helminths. Journal of Biomedicine. and Biotechnology, 8: 157-158. https://doi.org/10.1155/2011/821578
- 66. Daveson AJ, Loukas A, Croese J (2011). Effect of hookworm infection on wheat challenge in celiac disease: a randomised double-blinded placebo controlled trial. PLoS One, 6: e17366. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0017366
- 67. de Silva NR (2003). Impact of mass chemotherapy on the morbidity due to soil-transmitted nematodes. Acta Tropica, 86: 197-214. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-706X(03)00035-4
- 68. de Silva NR, Brooker S, Hotez PJ, Savioli L (2003). Soil-transmitted helminth infections: updating the global picture. Trends in parasitology, 19: 547-551. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2003.10.002
- de Silva NR, Sirisena JL, Gunasekera DP, Ismail MM, de Silva HJ (1999). Effect of mebendazole therapy during pregnancy on birth outcome. Lancet, 353: 1145-1149. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(98)06308-9

- del Valle A, Jones BF, Cappello M (2003). Isolation and molecular cloning of a secreted hookworm platelet inhibitor from adult A. caninum. Molecular and Biochemical Parasitology, 129: 167-177. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-6851(03)00121-X
- 71. Despommier DD, Hotez PJ, Knirsch C (2000). Parasitic diseases. 4th ed. New York: Apple Tree Productions.
- 72. Drake LJ, Jukes MCH, Sternberg RJ, Bundy DAP (2000). Geohelminth infections (Ascariasis, Trichuriasis and Hookworm): cognitive and developmental impacts. Seminars in Pediatric Infectious Diseases, 11: 245-251. https://doi.org/10.1053/spid.2000.9638
- 73. Dunne DW, Richardson BA, Thorne KJ, Butterworth AE (1993). The use of mouse/ human chimaeric antibodies to investigate the roles of different antibody isotypes, including IgA2, in the killing of Schistosoma mansoni schistosomula by eosinophils. Parasite Immunology, 15: 181-185. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3024.1993.tb00598.x
- Egwunyenga AO, Nmorsi OPG, Duhlinska-Popova DD (2001). Plasmodium/intestinal helminth coinfections among pregnant Nigerian women. Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, 96: 1055-1059.
 https://doi.org/10.1590/S0074
 - https://doi.org/10.1590/S0074-02762001000800005
- Ekiz C, Agaoglu L, Karakas Z, Gurel N, Yalcin I (2005). The effect of iron deficiency anemia on the function of the immune system. Hematology Journal,
 5: 579-583. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.thj.6200574
- Ensink JH, van der Hoek W, Amerasinghe FP (2005). High risk of hookworm infection among wastewater farmers in Pakistan. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 99: 809-818.
 - https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2005.01.005
- 77. Ettling J (1990). The role of the Rockefeller Foundation in hookworm research and control. In Hookworm Disease, pp. 3-14. London and Philadelphia, Taylor and Francis, Ltd.
- 78. Farthing MJG, Keusch GT, Wakelin D (1995). Enteric Infection: Mechanisms, Manifestations, and Management. Vol. II. London: Chapman and Hall; p 129-150.
- Feary JR, Venn AJ, Pritchard DI, Britton JR (2010).
 Experimental hookworm infection: a randomized placebo-controlled trial in asthma. Clinical Experimental Allergy, 40: 299-306.
 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2222.2009.03433.x

- 80. Ferreira I, Smyth D, Giacomin P, Ruyssers N (2013). Hookworm excretory/secretory products induce interleukin-4 (IL-4)+ IL-10+ CD4+ T cell responses and suppress pathology in a mouse model of colitis. Infectious Immunology, 81: 2104-2111. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00563-12
- 81. Flohr C, Quinnell RJ, and Britton J (2009). Do helminth parasites protect against atopy and allergic disease? Clinical Experimental Allergy 39: 20-32. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2222.2008.03134.x
- 82. Flohr C, Tuyen LN, Quinnell RJ, Pritchard DI, Britton J (2010). Reduced helminth burden increases allergen skin sensitization but not clinical allergy: a randomized, double-blind, placebo671 controlled trial in Vietnam. Clinical Experimental Allergy, 40: 131-42.
- 83. Forrer A, Vounatsou P, Sayasone S, Vonghachack Y, Bouakhasith D, Utzinger J (2015). Risk Profiling of Hookworm Infection and Intensity in Southern Lao People's Democratic Republic Using Bayesian Models. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 9: e0003486. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0003486
- 84. Freeman MC, Clasen T (2011). Assessing the impact of a school-based safe water intervention on household adoption of point-of-use water treatment practices in southern India. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 84: 370-378. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2011.10-0361
- 85. Freeman MC, Ogden S, Addiss DG, Amnie AG (2013). Integration of water, sanitation, and hygiene for the prevention and control of neglected tropical diseases: a rationale for inter-sectoral collaboration. PLoS neglected tropical diseases, 7: e2439 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0002439
- 86. Furst T, Keiser J, Utzinger J (2012). Global burden of human food-borne trematodiasis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. The Lancet Infectious diseases, 12: 210-221. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(11)70294-8
- 87. Gandhi NS, Chen JZ, Shuhua X, Hawdon JM, Hotez PJ (2001). Epidemiology of Necator americanus hookworm infections in Xiulongkan Village, Hainan Province, China: High prevalence and intensity among middle-aged and elderly residents. Journal of Parasitology, 87: 739-743. https://doi.org/10.2307/3285128
- 88. Garraud O, Perraut R, Riveau G, Nutman TB (2003). Class and subclass selection in parasite-specific antibody responses. Trends in Parasitology, 19: 300-304. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1471-4922(03)00139-9
- 89. Gasser RB, Stewart LE, Speare R (1996). Genetic markers in ribosomal DNA for hookworm

- identification. Acta Tropica, 62: 15-21. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-706X(96)00015-0
- 90. Gaze S, McSorley HJ, Daveson J, Croese J, Loukas A (2012). Characterising the mucosal and systemic immune responses to experimental human hookworm infection. PLoS Pathology, 8: e1002520. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1002520
- 91. Gazzinelli-Guimaraes PH, Dhom-Lemos LC, Ricci ND (2013). Cell apoptosis induced by hookworm antigens: a strategy of immunomodulation. Frontire in Bioscience (Elite Ed), 5: 662-75.
- 92. Geiger SM, Alexander ND, Fujiwara RT, Brooker S, Cundill B, Diemert DJ, Correa-Oliveira R, Bethony JM (2011). Necator americanus and helminths coinfections: further downmodulation of hookworm-specific type1 immune responses. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 5: e1280. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001280
- 93. Geiger SM, Fujiwara RT, Bethony JM (2008). Early stage-specific immune responses in primary experimental human hookworm infection. Microbes Infect, 10: 1524-1535. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micinf.2008.09.003
- Gilgen DD, Mascie-Taylor CG, Rosetta LL (2001). Intestinal helminths infections, anaemia and labour productivity of female tea pluckers in Bangladesh. Tropical Medicine International Health, 6: 449-457. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3156.2001.00729.x
- 95. Grantham-McGregor S, Ani C (2001). A review of studies on the effect of iron deficiency on cognitive development in children. Journal of Nutrition, 131: 649-666.
- 96. Greene LE, Freeman MC, Moe C (2012). Impact of a school-based hygiene promotion and sanitation intervention on pupil hand contamination in Western Kenya: a cluster randomized trial. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 87: 385-393. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2012.11-0633
- 97. Greenland K, Dixon R, Khan SA, Gunawardena K, Kihara JH, Smith JL (2015). The Epidemiology of Soil-Transmitted Helminths in Bihar State, India. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 9(5): e0003790 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0003790
- 98. Gruber JS, Reygadas F, Nelson K (2013). A stepped wedge, cluster randomized trial of a household UV-disinfection and safe storage drinking water intervention in rural Baja California Sur, Mexico. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 89: 238-245. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.13-0017
- 99. Gunawardena GS, Karunaweera ND, Ismail MM (2005). Effects of climatic, socio-economic and behavioural factors on the transmission of

- hookworm (N. americanus) on two low country plantations in Sri Lanka. Annals of Tropical Medicine Parasitology, 99: 601-609. https://doi.org/10.1179/136485905X51436
- 100. Haas W, Haberl B, Stiegeler P, Syafruddin (2005). Behavioural strategies used by the hook worms N. americanus and A. duodenale to find, recognize and invade the human host. Parasitology Research, 95: 30-39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00436-004-1257-7
- 101. Hagan P (1993). IgE and protective immunity to helminth infections. Parasite Immunology. 15: 1-4. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-</u> 3024.1993.tb00565.x
- 102. Hagan P, Blumenthal UJ, Simpson AJ, Wilkins HA (1991). Human IgE, IgG4 and resistance to reinfection with Schistosoma haematobium. Nature, 349: 243-245. https://doi.org/10.1038/349243a0
- 103. Hall A, Conway DJ, Anwar KS, Rahman ML (1994). Strongyloides stercoralis in an urban slum community in Bangladesh: factors independently associated with infection. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 88: 527-530. https://doi.org/10.1016/0035-9203(94)90146-5
- 104. Halpenny CM, Paller C, Valdes VE, Scott ME (2013). Regional, household and individual factors that influence soil transmitted helminth reinfection dynamics in preschool children from rural indigenous Panama. PLoS neglected tropical diseases, 7: e2070. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0002070
- 105. Harada Y (1962). Wakana disease and hookworm allergy. Yonago Acta Medical, 6: 109-118.
- 106. Harada Y, Mori O (1955). A new method for culturing hookworm. Yonago Acta Medicine, 1: 177-179.
- 107. Harvie M, Camberis M, Le Gros G (2013).

 Development of CD4 T cell dependent immunity against N. brasiliensis infection. Frontire in Immunology, 4: 74 https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2013.00074
- 108. Harvie M, Camberis M, Tang SC, Delahunt B (2010). The lung is an important site for priming CD4 T-cell-mediated protective immunity against gastrointestinal helminth parasites. Infectious Immunology, 78: 3753-3762. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00502-09
- 109. Hawdon JM (2014). Controlling soil-transmitted helminths: time to think inside the box? J Parasitology, 100: 166-88. https://doi.org/10.1645/13-412.1
- 110. Hawdon JM, Datu B, Crowell M (2003). Molecular cloning of a novel multidomain Kunitz-type proteinase inhibitor from the hookworm A.

- caninum. Journal of Parasitology, 89: 402-407. https://doi.org/10.1645/0022-3395/2003)089[0402:MCOANM]2.0.CO:2
- 111. Hawdon JM, Jones BF, Hoffman DR, Hotez PJ (1996). Cloning and characterization of Ancylostoma-secreted protein. A novel protein associated with the transition to parasitism by infective hookworm larvae. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 22: 6672-6678.
- 112. Hegner R, Root FM, augustine DI, huff CG (1938). Parasitology. New York, Appleton Century Crofts Inc.
- 113. Hoagland KE, Schad GA (1978). N. americanus and A. duodenale: life history parameters and epidemiological implications of two sympathetic species. Experimental Parasitology 44: 36-49. https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-4894(78)90078-4
- 114. Holland CV (1987). Hookworm infection. In Impact of Helminth Infections on Human Nutrition. (Stephenson LS & Holland, CV) pp. 128-160. London and Philadelphia. Taylor and Francis Ltd.
- 115. Holland CV (1989). An assessment of the impact of four intestinal nematode infections on human nutrition. Clinical Nutrition 8: 239-250.
- 116. Holland CV, Taren DL, Tiffany J, Rivera G (1988). Intestinal helminthiases in relation to the socioeconomic environment of Panamanian children. Social Science and Medicine, 26: 209-213. https://doi.org/10.1016/0277-9536(88)90241-9
- 117. Hossain M (2015). Prevalence and risk factors of soil transmitted helminths (STHs) infection among tea garden community in Sylhet and slum dwellers of Dhaka city, Bangladesh. MS, Dissertation, Sylhet Agricultural University, Sylhet
- 118. Hossain M, Alam MDS, Khair M, Sayeed MDA, Bhuiyan MJU (2016). Prevalence and Risk Factors of Strongyloides stercoralis infection in selected tea garden of Sylhet, Bangladesh. Journal of Tropical Diseases, 4: 206. https://doi.org/10.4172/2329-891X.1000206
- 119. Hossain M, Bhuiyan MJU (2016). Overview of Strongyloidiasis: A neglected tropical disease. Journal of Advances in Parasitology, 3: 93-103. https://doi.org/10.14737/journal.jap/2016/3.3.93. 103
- 120. Hotez PJ (1989). Hookworm disease in children. The Pediatric infectious disease journal, 8: 516-520. https://doi.org/10.1097/00006454-198908000-00009
- 121. Hotez PJ (1996). Human hookworm infection: experience from endemic villages in southern Thailand. Transactions of the Royal Society of

- Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 90: 630-633. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0035-9203(96)90412-5
- 122. Hotez PJ (2002). China's hookworms. China Q 172: 1029-1041.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0009443902000608

- 123. Hotez PJ, Bethony JM, Loukas A (2008). Multivalent anthelminthic vaccine to prevent hookworm and schistosomiasis. Expert Review Vaccines, 7: 745-752. https://doi.org/10.1586/14760584.7.6.745
- 124. Hotez PJ, Bottazzi ME, Goodenow MM (2015). Neglected Tropical Diseases among the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN): Overview and Update. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 9: e0003575.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0003575

- 125. Hotez PJ, Brooker S, Bethony JM, Xiao S (2004). Hookworm infection. New England Journal of Medicine, 351: 799-807. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMra032492
- 126. Hotez PJ, Bundy DAP, Savioli L (2005). Disease Control Priorities in Developing Countries. 2nd Edition. WHO, World Bank, NIH, Oxford University Press.
- Hotez PJ, Feng Z, Davis GM (1997). Emerging and reemerging helminthiases and the public health of China. Emerging Infectious Diseases, 3: 303-310 https://doi.org/10.3201/eid0303.970306
- 128. Hotez PJ, Hawdon J, Schad GA (1993). Hookworm larval amphiparatenesis: the Caenorhabditis elegans Dafc paradigm. Parasitology Today, 9: 23-26. https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-4758(93)90159-D
- 129. Hotez PJ, Zhan B and Bethony JM (2003). Progress in the development of a recombinant vaccine for human hookworm disease: The Human Hookworm Vaccine Initiative. International Journal of Parasitology, 33: 1245-1258. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7519(03)00158-9
- 130. Humphries DL, Stephenson LS, Khanh LT (1997). The use of human faeces for fertilizer is associated with increased intensity of hookworm infection in Vietnamese women. Transaction of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 91: 518-520.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0035-9203(97)90007-9

- 131. Jackson A, Heukelbach J, Harms G, Feldmeier H (2006). A study in a community in Brazil in which cutaneous larva migrans is endemic. Clinical Infectious Diseases, 43: 13-18. https://doi.org/10.1086/505221
- 132. Jackson RT, Jackson LC (1987). Biological and behvioural contributors to anemia during pregnancy in Liberia, West Africa. Human Biology, 59: 585-597.

- 133. Jardim-Botelho A, Diemert DJ, Correa-Oliveira R (2008). Hookworm, A. lumbricoides infection and polyparasitism associated with poor cognitive performance in Brazilian school children. Tropical Medicine and International Health, 13: 994-1004. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3156.2008.02103.x
- 134. Jarrett E, Bazin H (1974). Elevation of total serum IgE in rats following helminth parasite infection. Nature, 251: 613-614. https://doi.org/10.1038/251613a0
- Taylor M, Sullivan KR (2001). A randomized controlled trial of the effect of antihelminthic treatment and micronutrient fortification on health status and school performance of rural primary school children. Annals of Tropical Paediatrics, 21: 319-33.

https://doi.org/10.1080/07430170120093508

- 136. Jiraanankul V, Aphijirawat W, Traub RJ, Leelayoova S (2011). Incidence and risk factors of hookworm infection in a rural community of central Thailand. The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene, 84: 594-598. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2011.10-0189
- 137. Jones BF, Hotez PJ (2002). Molecular cloning and characterization of Ac-mep-1, a developmentally regulated gut luminal metalloendopeptidase from adult A. caninum hookworms. Molecular and Biochemical Parasitology, 119: 107-116. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-6851(01)00409-1
- 138. Kabatereine NB, Brooker S, Fleming FM (2007). Impact of a national helminth control programme on infection and morbidity in Ugandan school children. Bull World Health Organ, 85: 91-9. https://doi.org/10.2471/BLT.06.030353
- 139. Kannathasan S, Murugananthan A, Rajeshkannan N, de Silva NR (2013). A Simple Intervention to Prevent Cutaneous Larva Migrans among Devotees of the Nallur Temple in Jaffna, Sri Lanka. PLoS ONE, 8: e61816. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0061816
- 140. Katz N, Chaves A, Pellegrino J (1972). A simple device for quantitative stool thick-smear technique in Schistosomiasis mansoni. Revised Instant Medicine of Tropicals. Sao Paulo, 14: 397-400.
- 141. Khair M, Khanum H., Hossain M., Alam MS (2016). Prevalence, Risk Factors and Comparative Diagnosis of Soil Transmitted Helminths (STH) in children of slum areas of Dhaka and tea garden areas of Sylhet. 12th Biennial Conference, BAU, Bangladesh, Abstract; pp 55.
- 142. Khanum H, Rahman F, Zaman RF (2014). Occurrence of intestinal parasites among the teachers, students and staffs of Dhaka University.

- Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bangladesh, Science, 39: 239-246.
- 143. King CH, Dickman K, Tisch DJ (2005). Reassessment of the cost of chronic helmintic infection: a meta-analysis of disability-related outcomes in endemic schistosomiasis. Lancet, 365: 1561-1569.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(05)66457-4

- 144. Kirwan P, Asaolu S, Smith H, Holland C (2009). Soil-transmitted helminth infections in Nigerian children aged 0–25 months. Journal of Helminthology, 83: 261-266. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022149X08201252
- 145. Knight R, Merrett TG (1981). Hookworm infection in rural Gambia. Seasonal changes, morbidity and total IgE levels. Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, 75: 299-314. https://doi.org/10.1080/00034983.1981.11687444
- 146. Koukouknari A, Kazibwe F, Tukahebwa EM (2006). Morbidity indicators of Schistosoma mansoni: relationship between infection and anemia in Ugandan school children before and after praziquantel and albendazole chemotherapy. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 75: 278-286.
- 147. Labiano-Abello N, Wilson ML, Hotez PJ (1999). Epidemiology of hookworm infection in Itagua, Paraguay: a cross sectional study. Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, 94: 583-586. https://doi.org/10.1590/S0074-02761999000500003
- 148. Landmann JK, Prociv P (2003). Experimental human infection with the dog hookworm, A. caninum. Medical Journal of Australia, 178: 69-71.
- 149. Leiby DA, el Naggar HM, Schad GA (1987). Thirty generations of A. duodenale in laboratory reared beagles. Journal of Parasitology, 73: 844-848. https://doi.org/10.2307/3282429
- 150. Leonardi-Bee J, Pritchard D, Britton J (2006). Asthma and current intestinal parasite infection: systematic review and meta-analysis. American Journals of Respiratory Critical Care Medicine, 174: 514-23

https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.200603-331OC

- 151. Liabsuetrakul T, Bavonnarongdet P, Buadung A (2009). Epidemiology and the effect of treatment of soil-transmitted helminthiasis in pregnant women in southern Thailand. Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health, 40: 211-222.
- 152. Lili Z, Bingxiang Z, Hong T, Hotez P, Zhen F (2000). Epidemiology of human geohelminth infections (ascariasis, trichuriasis and necatoriasis) in Lushui and Puer Counties, Yunnan Province, China.

- Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health, 31: 448-453.
- 153. Logan M (2009). Methods in Improving the Quality of N. americanus larvae for use in therapeutic applications. Honours thesis. James Cook University, Townsville.
- 154. Lone FW, Qureshi RN, Emanuel F (2004). Maternal anaemia and its impact on perinatal outcome. Tropical Medicine International Health, 9: 486-490. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3156.2004.01222.x
- 155. Looss A (1901). On the penetration of Ancylostoma larvae into the human skin. Centralblatt Backteriol. Parasitenkunde, 29: 733-739.
- 156. Loukas A, Prociv P (2001). Immune responses in hookworm infections. Clinical Microbiological Review, 14: 689-703. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.69.6.3646-3651.2001
- 157. Lozoff B (1990). Has iron deficiency been shown to cause altered behaviour in infants? In: Dobbing, J., editor. Brain, Behaviour and Iron in the Infant. London: Springer-Verlag; pp 107-131. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4471-1766-7 11
- 158. Lwambo N, Bundy D, Medley G (1992). A new approach to morbidity risk assessment in hookworm endemic communities. Epidemiology and Infection, 108: 469-481. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268800049980
- 159. Mabaso MLH, Appleton CC, Hughes JC, Gouws E (2003). The effect of soil type and climate on hookworm (N. americanus) distribution in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Tropical Medicine and International Health, 8: 722-727. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3156.2003.01086.x
- 160. Madden KB, Yeung KA, Gause WC, Finkelman FD (2004). Enteric nematodes induce stereotypic STAT6-dependent alterations in intestinal epithelial cell function. Journal of Immunology, 172: 5616-5621.

https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.172.9.5616

- 161. Marchi BJ, Cantos GA (2003). Evaluation of techniques for the diagnosis of S. stercoralis in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) positive and HIV negative individuals in the city of Itajai, Brazil. Brazil Journal of Infectious Diseases, 7: 402-408.
- 162. Marti H, Escher E (1990). SAF-an alternative fixation solution for parasitological stool specimens. Schweizen Medical Wochenschria, 120: 1473-1476.
- 163. Maxwell C, Hussain R, Schad GA, Ottesen EA (1987). The clinical and immunological responses of normal human volunteers to low dose hookworm (N. americanus) infection. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 37: 126-134.
- 164. McKean PG, Pritchard DI (1989). The action of a mast cell protease on the cuticular collagens of N.

- americanus. Parasite Immunology, 11: 293-297. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3024.1989.tb00667.x
- 165. McSorley HJ, Maizels RM (2012). Helminth infections and host immune regulation. Clinical microbiology reviews, 25: 585-608. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.05040-11
- 166. Meeusen EN, Balic A (2000). Do eosinophils have a role in the killing of helminth parasites? Parasitology Today, 16: 95-101. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-4758(99)01607-5
- 167. Mendez MA, Adair LS (1999). Severity and timing of stunting in the first two years of life affect performance on cognitive tests in late childhood. Journal of Nutrition, 129: 1555-1562
- 168. Michaud C, Ique C, Montoya E, Gozalo A (2003). A survey for helminth parasites in feral New World non-human primate populations and its comparasiton with parasitiological data from man in the region. Journal of Medical Primatology, 32: 341-345. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1600-0684.2003.00037.x
- 169. Michelle LK, Klaus IM, Paul RG, Hui W, Paul SF (2007). Impaired resistance in early secondary Nippostrongylus brasiliensis infections in mice with defective eosinophilopoeisis. International Journal of Parasitology, 37: 1367-1378. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpara.2007.04.006
- 170. Mihrshahi S, Casey GJ, Biggs BA (2009). The effectiveness of 4 monthly albendazole treatment in the reduction of soil-transmitted helminth infections in women of reproductive age in Viet Nam. International Journal of Parasitology, 39: 1037-1043. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpara.2009.01.013
- 171. Miller GC (1981). Helminths and the transmammary route of infection. Parasitology, 82: 335-342. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0031182000057073
- 172. Miller TA (1979). Hookworm infection in man. Advances in Parasitology, 17: 315-384. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01659752
- 173. Montresor A, Awashti S, Crompton DWT (2003). Use of benzimidazoles in children younger than 24 months for the treatment of soil-transmitted helminthiasis. Acta Tropica, 86: 223-232. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-706X(03)00042-1
- 174. Montresor A, Crompton DWT, Gyorkos TW, Savioli L (2002). Helminth control in school-age children: A guide for managers of control programmes. Geneva: World Health Organization. Available: http://www.who.int/wormcontrol/documents/helminth_control/en/. (Accessed 26 January 2005).
- 175. Moore SL, Wilson K (2002). Parasites as a viability cost of sexual selection in natural populations of

- mammals. Science, 297: 2015-2018. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1074196
- 176. Nagahana M, Tanabe K, Okamoto K, Ito S, Fukutome S (1963). Experimental infection of three cases of human beings with N. americanus larvae through the mucous membrane of the mouth. Japanese Journal of Parasitology, 12: 162-167.
- 177. Nasr NA, Al-Mekhlafi HM, Ahmed A, Roslan MA, Bulgiba A (2013). Towards an effective control programme of soil-transmitted helminth infections among Orang Asli in rural Malaysia. Part 1: prevalence and associated key factors. Parasite and Vectors, 6: 27. https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-6-27
- 178. Nawalinski TA, Schad GA (1974). Arrested development in A. duodenale: course of a self-induced infection in man. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 23: 895-898.
- 179. Ndokeji S, Mazigo HD, Malenganisho W, Todd J, Changalucha J (2016). Prevalence and intensity of Schistosoma mansoni and hookworm infections among pre-school and school-aged children in Ilemela District, north-western Tanzania. Tanzania Journal of Health Research, 18: 1-8.
- 180. Ndyomugyenyi R, Kabatereine N, Olsen A, Magnussen P (2008). Malaria and hookworm infections in relation to haemoglobin and serum ferritin levels in pregnancy in Masindi district, western Uganda. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 102: 130-6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2007.09.015
- 181. Needham C, Kim HT, Hall A, Bundy DAP (1998). Epidemiology of soil-transmitted nematode infections in Ha Nam Province, Vietnam. Tropical Medicine and International Health, 3: 904-912. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3156.1998.00324.x
- 182. Nematian J, Nematian E, Gholamrezanezhad A, Asgari AA (2004). Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections and their relation with socio-economic factors and hygienic habits in Tehran primary school students. Acta Tropica, 92: 179-186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actatropica.2004.06.010
- 183. Ngui R, Ching LS, Kai TT, Roslan MA, Lim YA (2012a). Molecular identification of human hookworm infections in economically disadvantaged communities in Peninsular Malaysia. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 86: 837-842. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2012.11-0446
- 184. Ngui R, Lim YA, Traub R, Mahmud R, Mistam MS (2012b). Epidemiological and genetic data supporting the transmission of A. ceylanicum among human and domestic animals. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 6: e1522.

- 185. Nicholson JK, Lindon JC, Holmes E (1999). 'Metabonomics': understanding the metabolic responses of living systems to pathophysiological stimuli via multivariate statistical analysis of biological NMR spectroscopic data. Xenobiotica, 29: 1181-1189. https://doi.org/10.1080/004982599238047
- 186. Nwosu ABC (1978). Investigations into the free-living phase of the cat hookworm life-cycle. Zeitschrift fur Parasitenkunde, 56: 243-249. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00931717
- 187. Nwosu ABC (1981). The community ecology of soil-transmitted helminth infection of humans in a hyperendemic area of southern Nigeria. Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, 75: 197-203. https://doi.org/10.1080/00034983.1981.11687428
- 188. Obata-Ninomiya K, K Ishiwata, Tsutsui H (2013). The skin is an important bulwark of acquired immunity against intestinal helminths. Journal of Experimental Medicine, 210: 2583-2595. https://doi.org/10.1084/jem.20130761
- 189. Oeser K, Schwartz C, Voehringer D (2014). Conditional IL-4/IL-13-deficient mice reveal a critical role of innate immune cells for protective immunity against gastrointestinal helminths. Mucosal Immunology, 101: 1256-1265.
- 190. Olatunde BO, Onyemelukwe GC (1994). Immunosuppression in Nigerians with hookworm infection. African Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences, 23: 221-225.
- 191. Olsen A, Samuelsen H, Onyango-Ouma W (2001). A study of risk factors for intestinal helminth infections using epidemiological and anthropological approaches. Journal of Biosocial Science, 33: 569-584. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0021932001005697
- 192. Olsen A, van Lieshout L, Polman K, Steinmann P (2009). Strongyloidiasis-the most neglected of the neglected tropical diseases? Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 103: 967-972. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2009.02.013
- 193. Orihel TC (1971). N. americanus infection in primates. Journal of Parasitology, 57: 117-121. https://doi.org/10.2307/3277764
- 194. Otto G, Schugman N, Groover M (1942). A precipitin reaction resulting from N. americanus larvae in serum from hookworm infected individuals. Proceedings of the Helminthological Society of Washington DC, 9: 25-26.
- 195. Palmer DR, Bradley M, Bundy DAP (1996). IgG4 responses to antigens of adult N. americanus: potential for use in large-scale epidemiological studies. Bulletin of the World Health Organization, 74: 381-386.

- 196. Pawlowski ZS, Schad GA, Stott GJ (1991). Hookworm Infection and Anaemia. Geneva, World Health Organisation.
- 197. Pearce N, Aït-Khaled N, Mitchell E, Robertson C (2007). Worldwide trends in the prevalence of asthma symptoms: phase III of the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood (ISAAC). Thorax, 62: 758-766. https://doi.org/10.1136/thx.2006.070169
- 198. Poulin R (1996). Sexual inequalities in helminth infections: a cost of being male? American Naturalist, 147: 287-295. https://doi.org/10.1086/285851
- 199. Pritchard DI, Brown A (2001). Is N. americanus approaching a mutualistic symbiotic relationship with humans? Trends in Parasitology, 17: 169-172. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1471-4922(01)01941-9
- 200. Pritchard DI, Walsh EA (1995). The specificity of the human IgE response to N. americanus. Parasite Immunology, 17: 605-607. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3024.1995.tb01005.x
- 201. Prociv P (1997). Pathogenesis of human hookworm infection: insights from a 'new' zoonosis. Chemical Immunology, 66: 62-98. https://doi.org/10.1159/000058666
- 202. Prociv P, Croese J (1996). Human enteric infection with A. caninum: hookworms reappraised in the light of a "new" zoonosis. Acta Tropica, 62: 23-44. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-706X(96)00016-2
- 203. Pullan RL, Kabatereine NB, Quinnell RJ, Brooker S (2010). Spatial and genetic epidemiology of hookworm in a rural community in Uganda. PLoS neglected tropical diseases, 4: e713. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0000713
- 204. Pullan RL, Smith JL, Jasrasaria R and Brooker SJ (2014). Global numbers of infection and disease burden of soil transmitted helminth infections in 2010. Parasites & Vectors, 7: 37. https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-7-37
- 205. Quihui L, Valencia ME, Hagan P, Morales G (2006). Role of the employment status and education ofmothers in the prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections in Mexican rural schoolchildren. BMC Public Health, 6: 225. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-6-225
- 206. Quinnell RJ, Griffin J, Raiko A, Pritchard DI (2001). Predisposition to hookworm infection in Papua New Guinea. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 95: 139-42. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0035-9203(01)90138-5
- 207. Rajasekariah GR, Deb BN, Dhage KR, Bose S (1985). Site of resistance to N. americanus in hamsters. Acta Tropica, 42: 333-340.

- 208. Ratnayaka RMKT, Wang ZJ (2012). Prevalence and effect of personal hygiene on transmission of helminth infection among primary schoolchildren living in slums. International Journal Multidisciplinary Research, 2: 1-12.
- 209. Reichert F, Pilger D, Schuster A, Lesshafft H, Guedes de Oliveira S, Ignatius R (2016). Prevalence and Risk Factors of Hookworm-Related Cutaneous Larva Migrans (HrCLM) in a Resource- Poor Community in Manaus, Brazil. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 10: e0004514. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0004514
- 210. Rihet P, Demeure CE, Prata A, Dessein AJ (1991). Evidence for an association between human resistance to Schistosoma mansoni and high anti-larval IgE levels. European Journal of Immunology, 21: 2679-86. https://doi.org/10.1002/eii.1830211106
- 211. Roche M, Layrisse M (1966). The nature and causes of "hookworm anemia". American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 15: 1029-1102.
- 212. Rodríguez E, Anadón AM, Gárate T, Ubeira FM (2008). Novel sequences and epitopes of diagnostic value derived from the Anisakis simplex Ani s 7 major allergen. Allergy, 63: 219-225. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1398-9995.2007.01564.x
- 213. Rook GAW (2009). Review series on helminths, immune modulation and the hygiene hypothesis: the broader implications of the hygiene hypothesis. Immunology, 126: 3-11. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2567.2008.03007.x
- 214. Rose RA, Behnke JM (1990). N. americanus in the DSN hamster: density-dependent expulsion of adult worms during primary infection. Parasitology, 100: 469-478.
 - https://doi.org/10.1017/S0031182000078781
- 215. Saathoff E (2002). PhD Thesis. University of Copenhagen. Geohelminth and Schistosoma haematobium infection in school children from rural northern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.
- 216. Sakai H, Otsubo S, Yamasaki H, Kagei N, Iizuka H (2008). Multiple papules and nodules on the face and neck caused by the larvae of an unknown nematode: a non-creeping type eruption. Journal of American Academic Dermatology, 58: 668-670. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaad.2007.06.023
- 217. Sakti H, Nokes C, Hendratno S, Hall A, Bundy DA, Satoto (1999). Evidence for an association between hookworm infection and cognitive function in Indonesian school children. Tropical Medicine & International Health, 4: 322-334. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3156.1999.00410.x
- 218. Salonen A, Nikkila J, Immonen O, de Vos WM (2010). Comparative analysis of fecal DNA

- extraction methods with phylogenetic microarray: effective recovery of bacterial and archaeal DNA using mechanical cell lysis. Journal of Microbiological Methods, 81: 127-134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mimet.2010.02.007
- 219. Sandy S, Sumarni S, Soeyoko (2014). Foot wear as a risk factor of hookworm infection in elementary school students. Universal Medicine, 33: 133-140.
- 220. Sarles MP (1938). The in vitro action of immune rat serum on the nematode, Nippostrongylus muris. Journal of Infectious Diseases, 62: 337-348. https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/62.3.337
- 221. Sato M, Sanguankiat S, Yoonuan T, Pongvongsa T, Keomoungkhoun M, Phimmayoi I, Boupa B, Moji K, Waikagul J (2010). Copro-molecular identification of infections with hookworm eggs in rural Lao PDR. Transaction Royal Society for Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 104: 617-622. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2010.06.006
- 222. Savioli L, Stansfield S, Neira M, Shein AM (2002). Schistosomiasis and soil-transmitted helminth infections: forging control efforts. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 96: 577-579. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0035-9203(02)90316-0
- 223. Schad GA, Banwell JG (1984). Hookworms. In Tropical and Geographical Medicine, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co; pp 359-372.
- 224. Schad GA, Chowdhury AB, Thomas J, Tonascia A (1973). Arrested development in human hookworm infections: an adaptation to a seasonally unfavorable external environment. Science, 180: 52-54. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.180.4085.502
- 225. Schad GA, Nawalinski TA, Kochar V, Cross JH (1983). Human ecology and the distribution and abundance of hookworm populations. Human ecology and infectious diseases. London: Academic Press; pp 187-223. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-196880-9.50013-0
- 226. Schad GA, Warren SK (1990). Hookworm disease current status and new directions. London: Taylor and Francis; pp 231-264.
- 227. Schuster A, Lesshafft H, Reichert F, Talhari S, de Oliveira SG, Ignatius R (2013). Hookworm-related cutaneous larva migrans in northern Brazil: resolution of clinical pathology after a single dose of ivermectin. Clinical Infectious Diseases, 57: 1155-1157. https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cit440
- 228. Sengchanh K, Manithong V, Peter O, Boungnong B (2011). Soil-transmitted helminth infections and risk factors in preschool children in southern rural Lao People's Democratic Republic. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene,

105: 160-166. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2010.11.011

- 229. Shackelford PG, Nelson SJ, Palma AT, Nahm MH (1988). Human antibodies to group A streptococcal carbohydrate. Ontogeny, subclass restriction, and clonal diversity. Journal of Immunology, 140: 3200-3205.
- 230. Shang Y (2011) Burden of diseases on soil-transmitted helminth infections among school-age children in China. Doctoral Thesis, National Institute of Parasitic Diseases, Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention. Shanghai, China.
- 231. Sheldon AJ, Groover MEJ (1942). An experimental approach to the problem of acquired immunity in human hookworm (N. americanus) infections. American Journal of Hygiene, 36: 183-186.
- 232. Shiferaw MB, Mengistu AD (2015). Helminthiasis: Hookworm Infection Remains a Public Health Problem in Dera District, South Gondar, Ethiopia. PLoS ONE, 10: e0144588. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0144588
- 233. Shulman CE, Graham WJ, Snow RW, Marsh K (1996). Malaria is an important cause of anaemia in primigravidae: evidence from a district hospital in coastal Kenya. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene. 90: 535-539. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0035-9203(96)90312-0
- 234. Sill PR, Hill AVS, Igo JD (1987). Multifactorial aetiology of anaemia of pregnancy in Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea. Papua New Guinea Medical Journal, 30: 193-198.
- 235. Smith G, Schad GA (1990). A. duodenale and N. americanus: effect of temperature on egg development and mortality. Parasitology, 99: 127-132. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0031182000061102
- 236. Smith JL, Brooker S (2010). Impact of hookworm infection and deworming on anaemia in non-pregnant populations: a systematic review. Tropical Medicine International Health, 15: 776-795. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3156.2010.02542.x
- 237. Soares Magalhaes RJ, Barnett AG, Clements AC (2011). Geographical analysis of the role of water supply and sanitation in the risk of helminth infections of children in West Africa. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 108: 284-290. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1106784108
- 238. Stanssens P, Bergum PW, Lasters I, Vlasuk GP (1996). Anticoagulant repertoire of the hookworm A. caninum. Proceedings of the National Academy of Science USA, 93: 2149-2154. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.93.5.2149
- 239. Steenhard NR, Storey PA, Nansen P, Polderman AM (2000). The role of pigs as transport hosts of

- the human helminths Oesophagostomum bifurcum and N. americanus. Acta Tropica, 76: 125-130. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-706X(00)00077-2
- 240. Steinmann P, Zhou XN, Wang XZ, Utzinger J (2007). Occurrence of Strongyloides stercoralis in Yunnan Province, China, and comparison of diagnostic methods. PLoS neglected tropical diseases, 1:75. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0000075
- 241. Stiles CW (1902). A new species of hookworm (Uncinaria americana) parasitic in man.
- 242. Stoltzfus RJ, Albonico M, Schulze KJ, Savioli L (1998). Effects of the Zanzibar school-based deworming program on iron status of children. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 68: 179-86.
- 243. Stoltzfus RJ, Chwaya HM, Albonico M, Savioli L (1997). Epidemiology of iron deficiency anemia in Zanzibari schoolchildren: the importance of hookworms. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 65: 153-159.
- 244. Strunz EC, Addiss DG, Stocks ME, Utzinger J, Freeman MC (2014). Water, sanitation, hygiene, and soil-transmitted helminth infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS medicine, 11: e1001620
 - https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001620
- 245. Sultana Y, Gilbert GL, Ahmed BN, Lee R (2012). Strongyloidiasis in a high risk community of Dhaka, Bangladesh. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 106: 756-762. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2012.08.011
- 246. Sunderkotter C, von Stebut E, Schöfer H, Mempel M, Reinel D, Wolf G (2014). S1 guideline diagnosis and therapy of cutaneous larva migrans (creeping disease). JDDG: Journal der Deutschen Dermatologischen Gesellschaft, 12: 86-91. https://doi.org/10.1111/ddg.12250
- 247. Sutton BJ, Gould HJ (1993). The human IgE network. Nature, 366: 421-428. https://doi.org/10.1038/366421a0
- 248. Tomono N, Anantaphruti MT, Leerapan P, Kojima S, Looareesuwan S (2003). Risk factors of helminthiases among school children in southern Thailand. Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health, 34: 264-268.
- 249. Tomović M, Skiljević D, Vukićević J, Pavlović MD, Medenica L (2008). Two cases of probable endogenous extensive cutaneous larva migrans in Serbia. Acta Dermatovenerol Alp Panonica Adriat, 17: 37-40.
- 250. Torlesse H (1999). PhD Dissertation. University of Glasgow. Parasitic infections and anaemia during pregnancy in Sierra Leone.

- 251. Torlesse H, Hodges M (2000). Anthelminthic treatment and haemoglobin concentrations during pregnancy. The Lancet, 356: 1083-1094. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(00)02738-0
- 252. Traub RJ, Robertson ID, Irwin P, Andrew Thompson RC (2004). The prevalence, intensities and risk factors associated with geohelminth infection in tea-growing communities of Assam, India. Tropical Medicine International Health, 9: 688-701. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3156.2004.01252.x
- 253. Truscott JE, Hollingsworth TD, Brooker SJ, Anderson RM (2014). Can chemotherapy alone eliminate the transmission of soil transmitted helminths? Parasite and Vectors, 7: 266. https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-7-266
- 254. Turner JE, Morrison PJ, Wilhel C (2013). IL-9-mediated survival of type 2 innate lymphoid cells promotes damage control in helminth-induced lung inflammation. Journal of Experimental Medicine, 210: 2951-2965. https://doi.org/10.1084/jem.20130071
- 255. Udonsi JK (1984). N. americanus infection: a cross-sectional study of a rural community in relation to some clinical symptoms. Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, 78: 443-444. https://doi.org/10.1080/00034983.1984.11811845
- 256. Udonsi JK, Atata G (1987). N. americanus: temperature, pH, light, and larval development, longevity, and desiccation tolerance. Experimental Parasitology, 63: 136-142. https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-4894(87)90154-8
- 257. Udonsi JK, Nwosu ABC, Anya AO (1980). Necator americanus: Population Structure, Distribution, and Fluctuations in Population Densities of Infective Larvae in Contaminated Farmlands. furitanca Parasitenkunde, 63: 251-259.
- 258. Utzinger J, Keiser J (2004). Schistosomiasis and soil-transmitted helminthiasis: common drugs for treatment and control. Expert Opinion in Pharmacotherapy, 5: 263-286. https://doi.org/10.1517/14656566.5.2.263
- 259. van den Biggelaar AH, Deelder AM, Kremsner PG, Yazdanbakhsh M (2000). Decreased atopy in children infected with Schistosoma haematobium: a role for parasite-induced interleukin-10. Lancet, 356: 1723-1727. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(00)03206-2
- 260. van den Biggelaar AHJ, Kremsner PG, Yazdanbakhsh M (2004). Long-term treatment of intestinal helminths increases mite skin-test reactivity in Gabonese schoolchildren. Journal of Infectious Diseases, 189: 892-900. https://doi.org/10.1086/381767

- 261. Verweij J, Canales M, Polderman A (2009). Molecular diagnosis of Strongyloides stercoralis in faecal samples using real-time PCR. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 103: 342-346. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2008.12.001
- 262. Vonghachack Y, Sayasone S, Odermatt P (2015). Epidemiology of Strongyloides stercoralis on Mekong islands in southern Laos. Acta tropica, 141: 289-294.
 - https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actatropica.2014.09.016
- 263. Wang X, Zhang L, Luo R, Wang G, Chen Y (2012). Soil-Transmitted Helminth Infections and Correlated Risk Factors in Preschool and School-Aged Children in Rural Southwest China. PLoS ONE, 7: e45939. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0045939
- 264. Watkins WE, Pollitt E (1997). "Stupidity or Worms": do intestinal worms impair mental performance? Psychological Bulletin, 121: 171-191. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.121.2.171
- 265. Wegayehu T, Tsalla T, Seifu B, Teklu T (2013). Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections among highland and lowland dwellers in Gamo Area, South Ethiopia. BMC Public Health, 13: 151. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-13-151
- 266. White CJ, Maxwell CJ, Gallin JI (1986). Changes in the structural and functional properties of human eosinophils during experimental hookworm infection. Journal of Infectious Diseases, 154: 778-783. https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/154.5.778
- 267. WHO (2002). Report of the WHO informal consultation on the use of praziquantel during pregnancy/lactation and albendazole/ mebendazole in children under 24 months. 8–9 April,. http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/2003/WHO_CDS_CPE_P VC_2002.4.pdf. (Accessed on June 01, 2016)
- 268. WHO (2006). Child Growth Standards. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization. 2006.
- 269. Williams-Blangero S, Blangero J, Bradley M (1997). Quantitative genetic analysis of susceptibility to hookworm infection in a population from rural Zimbabwe. Human Biology, 69: 201-208.
- Williamson AL, Brindley PJ, Knox DP, Hotez PJ, Loukas A (2003a). Digestive proteases of blood feeding nematodes and other parasites. Trends in Parasitology,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/S1471-4922(03)00189-2
- 271. Williamson AL, Brindley PJ, Zhan B, Loukas A (2003b). Hookworm aspartic protease, Na-APR-2 cleaves human haemoglobin and serum proteins in a host-specific fashion. Journal of Infectious Diseases, 187: 484-494. https://doi.org/10.1086/367708

- 272. Woolhouse ME (1992). A theoretical framework for the immunoepidemiology of helminth infection. Parasite Immunology, 14: 563-578. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3024.1992.tb00029.x
- 273. Woolhouse ME (1993). A theoretical framework for immune responses and predisposition to helminths infection. Parasite Immunology, 15: 583-594. https://doi.org/10.1111/pim.1993.15.10.583
- 274. World Bank (2003). School deworming at a glance. Washington (DC): World Bank. p. 4
- 275. Xue HC, Wang Y, Zhan B, Drake L, Feng Z, Hotez PJ (2000). Epidemiology of human ancylostomiasis among rural villagers in Nanlin County, Anhui Province, China. Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health, 31: 736-741.
- 276. Xue J, Liu S, Ren HN, Li TH, Hotez P, Xiao SH (2003). Necator americanus: maintenance through one hundred generations in golden hamsters (Mesocricetus auratus). I. Hotst sex-associated differences in hookworm burden and fecundity. Experimental Parasitology, 104: 62-66. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0014-4894(03)00094-8
- 277. Yadla S, Sen HG, Hotez PJ (2003). An epidemiological study of ancylostomiasis in a rural area of Kanpur District Uttar Pradesh, India. Indian Journal of Public Health, 47: 53-60.
- 278. Ye XP, Wu ZX, Sun FH (1994). The population biology and control of N. americanus in a village community in south-eastern China. Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, 88: 635-643. https://doi.org/10.1080/00034983.1994.11812915

- 279. Yong TS, Lee JH, Sim S, Lee J, Min DY, Chai JY, Rim HJ (2007). Differential diagnosis of Trichostrongylus and hookworm eggs via PCR using ITS-1 sequence. The Korean journal of parasitology, 45: 69-74. https://doi.org/10.3347/kjp.2007.45.1.69
- 280. Yosipovitch G, Sugeng MW, Seow CS, Goh CL (2002). Widespread and unusual presentations of cutaneous larva migrans acquired in tropical sandy beach resorts. Journal of the European Academy of Dermatology and Venerealogy, 16: 284-285. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1468-3083.2002.00487_1.x
- 281. Yu SH, Jian ZX, Xu LQ (1995). Infantile hookworm disease in China. A review. Acta Tropica, 59: 265-270. https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-706X(95)00089-W
- 282. Yulan W, Xiao S, Xue J, Utzinger J, Elaine H (2009). Systems Metabolic Effects of a N. americanus Infection in Syrian Hamster. Journal of Proteome Research, 8: 5442-5450. https://doi.org/10.1021/pr900711j
- 283. Zeehaida M, Zairi NZ, Maimunah A, Madihah B (2011). Strongyloides stercoralis in common vegetables and herbs in Kota Bharu, Kelantan, Malaysia. Tropical Biomedicine, 28: 188-193.
- 284. Zhan B, Liu Y, Badamchian M, Hawdon JM, Hotez PJ (2003). Molecular characterization of the Ancylostoma-secreted protein (ASP) family from the adult stage of Ancylostoma caninum. International Journal for Parasitology, 33: 897-907. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7519(03)00111-5
