PLANTS USED IN TRADITIONAL MEDICINE AGAINST MALARIA

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ABSTRACT

A survey of medicinal plants used for the treatment of malaria is presented from a variety of literature sources. geographical area and parts used are given. The methods of testing antimalarial properties and a brief discussion highlighting mode of action of some of the active constituents showing promising antimalarial activity is included.

Key Words: Medicinal plants; Antimalaria, Bioassay.

INTRODUCTION

Malaria is one of the world's most devastating human infections, affecting over 200 million peope and causing more than 2 million deaths each year. Also, according to surveys conducted by the World Health Organisation (WHO), malaria is one of the diseases that cause enormous suffering, morbidity and mortality in the world especially in tropical developing countries 1,2,3 classic symptoms of malaria are fever with chills, sweats and headache. Nausea, vomiting, myalgia and abdominal or back pain may also be present. Persons with malaria frequently become dehydrated owing to increased insensible water loss and decreased fluid intake⁴. Although this mosquito-borne infection has been virtually eradicated from some developed countries, emigration and travel to endemic regions constitute a continuing health problem. Practical, effective and safe drugs, insecticides and vaccines are still needed to combat malaria. In the 1950s, attempts to

eradicate this scourge from most P. vivax. parts of the world failed, primarily resistance to insecticides and antimalarial drugs. Since 1960, transmission of malaria has risen in móst tropical areas where the infection is endemic, chloroquine resistant and multidrug-resistant strains of P falciparum have spread, and the degree of resistance to drugs of this most prevalent and dangerous plasmodial species has increased 5-9.

MALARIA INFECTION

Human malaria is caused by four species of obligate intracellular protozoa of the genus Plasmodium, they reproduce asexually in man but sexually in female mosquitoes (genus Anopheles). Each species has distinguishing morphological features and the disease caused by each is also destructive. falciparum causes malignant tertian malaria, the most dangerous form of human malaria which poses the greatest risk to non immune individuals and children less than 5 years of age. P. vivax causes benign tertian malaria and produces milder clinical attacks than those of P. falciparum. P. vivax infection has a low mortality rate in untreated adults and is characterised by relapses that occur as long as 2 years after primary infection. P. ovale causes a rare malarial infection with a periodicity and relapses similar to those of P. vivax but it is milder and more readily cures. P. malariae causes quartan malaria an infection that is common in localized areas of Clinical attacks may occur years after infection but are much rarer than after infection with

Although malaria can be because of the development of transmitted by transfusion of infected blood, man is naturally infected by sporozoites infected by the bite of infected female Anopheles mosquitoes. parasites rapidly leave the circulation and localize in hepatic parenchymal cells where they multiply and develop into tissue schizonts. The asymptomatic tissue (pre-erythrocytic exoerythrocytic) state of infection lasts for 5 to 16 days, depending on the species of Plasmodium. The tissue schizonts then rupture, each releasing thousands of merozoites, these enter the circulation, invade erythrocytes and initiate the erythrocytic stage or cycle of infection. Once human plasmodia enter the erythrocytic cycle, they cannot invade other tissues, thus there is no tissue stage of infection for human malarias that are contacted by transfusion. erythrocytes, most parasites, undergo asexual development from young ring forms to trophozoites and finally to mature schizonts. Schizont-containing erythrocytes rupture, each releasing 6 to 24 merozoites and it is this process that produces the febrile clinical attack. The released merozoites then invade more erythrocytes to continue the cycle, which proceeds until death of the host or modulation by drugs or acquired immunity. Some erythrocytic parasites differentiate into sexual forms known as gametocytes.

> After blood is ingested by a female mosquito, ex-flagellation of the male gametocyte is followed by male gametogenesis and

fertilization of the female gametocyte in the gut of the insect. The resulting zygote, which develops in the gut wall as an oocyst, eventually gives rise to the infective sporozoite, which invades the salivary gland of the mosquito. The insect then can infect another human host by taking a blood meal.⁵

MEDICINAL PLANTS AS ANTIMALARIAL AGENTS

The search for novel compounds effective against Plasmodium strains resistant to widely used synthetic drugs has led to increased interest in new and existing information about malaria remedies from natural sources ¹⁰⁻¹² Simultaneously and as importantly, the need for accessible, inexpensive and culturally relevant health care in most parts of the world are beginning to direct pharmacological research toward the safe and effective use of

traditional remedies^{1,13}. Plants form the major part of treatments used by traditional healers in many societies thus many plants have a reputation of being useful against malaria. Lists of such plants can be found in the literature and these have been collated in Table 1. The list presented here makes no claims to being exhaustive and there are many areas of the world where the plants used against malaria have not been recorded or transmitted in a form readily accessible to the scientific community. Majority of traditional healers or herb users normally refer to malaria as fever, thus plants used against fever are also included. The table however. gives an indication of those plant general whose members are used in different geographical locations and thus, lays a basis for the selection of plants for investigation of chemical constituents and biological activity.

The genuineness of the claims

made for some of the plants have not been tested scientifically due to a number of reasons such as variety of species of malaria parasite and relative scarcity of information on the traditional method of using some of the plants which makes it difficult to know which extraction method to use for the preparation of the test solutions. In spite of these problems, work has been carried out in recent years on some plants with traditional uses against malaria parasite, both to investigate the reputed use and to elucidate the chemical basis and mode of action of any activity displayed. In this survey the results of scientific investigations are considered in the context of the traditional usage of the plants. It is hoped that this review will stimulate more studies aimed at providing a better understanding of the antimalarial properties of the medicinal plants.

Table 1: Plants Used to Treat Malaria

Species	References	Plant Parts Used*	Geographical Area
ACANTHACEAE			
Andrographis paniculata Nees	42	PL	Mauritus and Rodrigues
Peristrophe bicalyculata (Retz.) Nees	40	LK	Southern Nepalese
Ruellia tuberosa L.	42	LV	Mauritus and Rodrigues
Rungia parviflora (Retz.) Nees ADIANTHACEAE	40	LJ .	Southern Nepalese
Acrostichum aureum L. AMARANTHACEA	46	LV, RT	Eastern Nicaragua
Achyranthes aspera L.	42	RT	Mauritius and Rodrigues
Amaranthus viridis L.	27	LV, PL	East Africa
Alternanthera tenella AMARYLLIDACEAE	32	LV	Tanzania
Crinum amabile L ANACARDIACEAE	16	BU	East Asia
Anacardium occidentale L.	46	LV, BK	Eastern Nicaragua
Mangifera indica L.	33	BK, LV	West Africa
Pseudospondias microcarpa Engl.	32	LV, BK	Tanzania
Spondias mombin L.	46	LV, BK	Eastern Nicaragua
Spondias purpurea L. ANNONACEAE	46	LV, BK	Eastern Nicaragua
Annona glabra L.	35, 46	LV, BK	Eastern Nicaragua & Kenya Annona
muricata L.	46	LV, BK	Eastern Nicaragua
Enantia chlorantha Oliver	34	BK	West Africa
Isolana companulata Engl. Diels	28	BK	West Africa
Monanthotaxis laurentii Verdc	27	LV	West Africa
Uvaria chamae Beauv	34	RT	West Africa
Uvaria dependens Apocynaceae	39	вк	West Africa
Alstonia boonei Wild	34	BK	Kenya
Alstonia scholaris R. Br.	35	LJ	Kenya

Species	References	Plant Parts Used*	Geographical Area
Alstonia congensis Engl.	33	BK, LV	West Africa
Aspidosperma oblongum A. DC	25	вк	Brazil
Carissa edulis Vahl.	34	LV, RT	West Africa
Catharanthus roseus L. G. Don	42	LV, ST	Mauritius and Rodrigues
	25	BK BK	Brazil
Giessospermum sericium Benth			
Picralima nitida Th. & H. Dur.	34	BK, FR,	West Africa
		RT	
Pleiocarpa mutica Benth ARACEAE	31	RT	West Africa
Homalomena rubra	35	RT	Kenya
Montrichardia arborescens (L.) Sch.	47	FL	Martinique
Pothos ovatifolius	35	BT	Kenya
	35	- N	Kenya
ARALIACEAE			
Schefflera odorata Merr-et-Rof	35	LV	Kenya
ARISTOLOCHIACEAE			
Aristolochia albida Duch.	33	RT, LV	East Africa
ASTERACEAE	7.7		
Artemisia absinthium L.	47	LV	Martinique
A Service Management of the Service			China
Artemisia annua L.	17	PL	
Blumea pubigera Merr	35	LV	Kenya
Chromolaena odorata (L.) K. & Rob	47	RT	Martinique
Eupatorium triplinerve Vahl	47	LV	Martinique
Inuta cappa DC	40	BT	Southern Nepalese
Neurolacria lobata (L.) R. Br.	46	LV	Eastern Nicaragua,
	47	LV	
Pluchea carolinensis (Jacq.) G. Don		100000	Martinique
Pterocaulon alopecuroidum D. C.	47	LV	Martinique
BIGNONIACEAE		1	
Crescenta cujete L.	46	LV	East Nicaragua
BOMBACACFAE			
Adansonia digitata L.	33	BK, LV	West Africa
BORAGINACEAE			
Cordia curassavica (Jacq.) R & Sch.	46	LV	East Nicaragua
Cordia spinescens L.	46	LV	East Nicaragua
Symphytum officinale L.	47	LV	Martinique
CAPRIFOLIACEAE			
Sambucus canodensis L.	47	FL	Martinique
CARICACEAE	34, 35	FR, LV	West Africa
Carica papaya L.	34, 35	LX	Kenya
CELASTRACEAE		LA	Keriya
Maytenus senegalensis Lamk	32	BK, RT	Tanzania
CECROPIACEAE	W25		F
Cecropia peltata L.	46	LV	East Nicaragua
CISTACEAE			
Cistus laurifolius L.	48	FL	WestAnatolia
COMBRETACEAE			
Combretum micranthum G. Don	42	BK, LV	Mauritius & Rodrigues
COMPOSITAE		1	
Ageratum conyzoides L.	34	LV	West Africa
Centaurea solstitialis L.	41, 48	A 1500	Mediterranean Area
Chrysanthemum indicum DC	35	LV	Kenya
Elephantopus mollis Kunth	28	LV	West Africa
Elephantopus scaber L.	33	LV, RT	West Africa
Neurolaena lobata (L.) R. Br.	50	PL	Panama
CONNARACEAE Cnestis terruginea D.C.	34	LV, BT, F.B	West Africa
CONVOLVULACEAE	10	PL	Mauritius & Rodrigues
Cusauta chinoptia Lam			Marchines & Foodbases
Cuscuta chinensis Lam. Ipomoea pes-caprae (L.) R. Br.	42 46	LV	East Nicaragua

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East Nicaragua
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West Africa
West Africa
Tanzania
Tanzania
Brazil
Mauritius & Rodrigues
Brazil
Brazil
West Anatolia
Martinique
Martinique
Kenya
Kenya East Africa

Species	References	Plant Parts Used ^a	Geographical Area		
LORANTHACEAE					
Struthanthus cassythoides Standl	46	LV, P L	East Nicaragua .		
MALVACEAE			1 mayor 1 march 1 marc		
Gossypium barbadense L.	46, 47	LV	East Nicaragua &		
			Martinique		
Hibiscus bifurcatus Gav.	46	LV, FL	East Nicaragua		
Hibiscus tiliaceus L.	46	BK, LV	East Nicaragua		
Sida rhombifolia L	46	LV	East Nicaragua		
MELIACEAE	40	.,	Eds i ficulaçõe		
Azadirachta indica Jusst.	32	RT, B K, LV	East and West Africa		
Statement was a surviver a state of the Statement College College College		B K	Brazil		
Carapa paniculata Benth	25		East Nicaragua		
Cedrela odorota L.	46	B K			
Lansium domesticum Correa	35	BK, SD	Kenya		
Swietenia macrophylla King	46	. BK	East Nicaragua		
MENISPERMACEAE					
Cissampelos mucronata Rich	32	LV	Tanzania		
Cissampelos pareira L.	46	LV, RT	East Nicaragua		
Cyclea barbata Miers	12	RT	East Asia		
Stephia erecta Miers	36	ST	Thailand		
MIMOSACEAE	~~		1 1000 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11		
Acacia caffra (Thumb.) Wilid	43	LV	South Africa		
MORACEAE	A-U		Section Call Page		
.,,	22	PL	South Africa		
Ficus species	33	PL	South Africa		
MORINGACEAE			1 1		
Moringa pterygosperma Gaertn	37	RB, RT	India		
MYRISTICACEAE		1			
Myristica fragrans Houtl.	46	SD	Martinique		
Virola kaschnyi Warb.	46	BK, LV, ST	East Nicaragua		
MYRTACEAE					
Eugenia acapulcensis Stewd.	46	tV	East Nicargua		
Pimenta racemosa Moore	46, 47	IV	East Nicargua & Martinique		
Psidium guajava L.	46	BK, LV, FL	East Nicargua		
	32	RB	Tanzania		
Syzygium cordatum Hochst.	32	100	9		
ONAGRACEAE	16	FL	East Nicaragua		
Ludwigia octovalvis Raven	46	r.	Easi Micaragoa		
OXALIDACEAE		er (1)	F 158		
Averrhoa bilimbi L.	46	FL, LV	East Nicaragua		
PALMAE			999 379		
Cocos nucifera	47	FR	Martinique		
PAPILIONACEAE			1182		
Abrus precatorius Robts Linn.	32, 33, 34	LV, R B	Africa		
Atylosia scarabaeoides Benth	42	PL	Mauritius & Rodrigues		
Cajanus cajan Mill sp.	34	LV	West Africa		
Clitoria ternatea L.	42	RT	Mauritius & Rodrigues		
PASSIFLORACEAE	42		,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		
THE RESERVE THE PROPERTY OF THE PARTY OF THE		LV	East Nicaragua		
Passiflora quadragulasis L.	46	LY	Edsi Mediagod		
PIPERACEAE	2.5	67	V		
Piper arborescens	35	RT	Kenya		
Piper auritum HBK	46	LY	East Nicaragua		
Piper bettle	35	LV	Kenya		
Piper hispidum Sw	46	LV	East Nicaragua		
Piper jacquemontianum (Kunth) D.C.	46	LV	East Nicaragua		
Piper peltatum L.	46	LV	East Nicaragua		
Piper umbellatum (L.) Miquel	45	LV	Central Nepal		
Pothomorphe peltata Miq.	25	BK	Brazil		
	23				
PLANTAGINACEAE	47	LV	Martinique		
Plantago major L.	47	LV	mailinge		
POACEAE	9.2	DI	Cast Nilamana		
Bambusa vulgaris Schradex Wendl.	46	RT	East Nicaragua		
Eleusine indica (L.) Gaertn	46	RT	East Nicaragua		
PORTULACEAE			A Comment		
Portulaca gradiflora Hooker	47	LV	Martinique		
ROSACEAE		1			
Parinari excelsa Sabine	32	LV, RB	*Tanzania		
RUBIACEAE					
NOOMENE		1	_		
	2				

Coffea arabica L. 46 SD Cinchona pubescens Vahl 33,46 B K, ST	East Nicaragua
Cinchona pubescens Vahl 33,46 B K, ST	
	East Nicaragua & Africa
	Africa
Corynanthe pachiceras Schum 33 BK	East Africa
Crossopteryx febrifuga Benth - 33 BK	West Africa
Gardenia vogelli Hook 32 RB	, Tanzania
Mitragyna ofricana Korth 33 BK	West Africa
Morinda lucida Benth 33,34 LV	West Africa
Mussaenda afzelli Don 33 BK	East Africa
Nauclea diderichii 33,34 RT, LV	West Africa
Psychotria elata (Sw) Hammel 46 LV, ST, RT	· East Nicaragua
	East Nicaragua
	Ignzenia
Psychotria kirkii Hiern 32 RT	1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -
Psychotria poeppigiana Muell. Arg. 46 RT RUTACEAE	East Nicaragua
Aegle marmelos Correa 40 RT	S. Nepalese
Citrus aurantiifolia Swingle 46 LV, F L, RT	East Nicaragua
Citrus aurantium L. 46 F L, LV, RT	East Nicaragua
Citrus paradisi Macfad. 46 FL	East Nicaragua
Citrus sinensis (L.) Osbeck 46 FL, LV	East Nicaragua,
Toddalia asatica (L.) Lam 42 PL	Mauritania, Rodrigues
Zanthoxylum chalybium 32,34 LV, RT, ST	Tanzania
Zanthoxylum zanthoxyloides Lam. 33 BK, RT	West Africa
Vepris lanceolata Don 34 LV, RT	Tanzania
SAPINDACEAE	
Melicoccus biiugatus Jacq. 47 LV, FR	Martinique
SAPOTACEAE	
Chrysophyllum cainito L. 46 LV, FL	East Nicaragua
Doanais fragrans (Lam.) Pers. 42 PL	Mauritius & Rodrigues
Pachystela brevipes Engl. 49 BK	Tanzania
Scoparia dulcis L. 46 LV, RT, P L	East Nicaragua
Striga senegalensis Benth SIMARUBACEAE	West Africa
	Indonesia
Eurycoma longifolia Jack 22 RT	200 THE AND TO SERVICE STORY
Harrisonia abyssinica Oliv. 49 RT	Tanzania
Simaba guianensis Planch 25 B K	Brazil
Simaba multiflora Planch 25 B K	Brazil
Quassia africana Baill 46 ST	East Nicaragua
Quassia amara L. 46 BK	East Nicaragua
Quassia simarauba L. f. 46 BK SOLANACEAE	East Nicaragua
Capsicum frutescens L. 46 FL, LV	East Nicaragua
Physalis angulata L. 46 LV, PL	East Nicaragua
Solanum americanum Mill. 47 LV	Martinique
Solanum torvum Sw 46 LV, RT	East Nicaragua
STERCULIACEAE Dombeva burgessiae Gerr. Ex. Harv. 49 LV	T
	Tanzania
Theobroma cacao L. 47 LV, SD	Martinique
THYMELAEACEAE	FOR THE PERSON
Dias cotinifolia L. 43 LV	South Africa
TURNERACEAE	
Turnera ulmifolia L. 46 LV UMBELLIFERAE	East Nicaragua,
Eryngium foetidum L. 47 PL	Martinique
Steganotaenia araliacea Hochst 49 RT	Tanzania
URTICACEAE	
Lecanthus reduncularis Wedd. 51 P L Pilea microphylla (L.) Liebm 47 PL	Nepal Martinique
VERBENACEAE	
Callicarpa macrophylla Vahl. 51 FR	Nepal
Citharexylum spinosum L. 47 LV	Martinique
Clerodendrum indicum (L.) Kuntze 40 PL	S. Nepalese
Lantana camara L. 42 LV	Mauritius & Rodrigues
Lippia alba N.E. Br 47 LV	Martinique
Lippia nodiflora (L.) Riche 40 PL	S. Nepalese
Premna arborea Garw 35 LV	Kenya
Stachytarpheta cayenensis Vahl. 46 LV	East Nicaragua
Stachytarpheta jamaicensis Vahl. 46 LV	East Nicaragua
Stachytarpheta indica (L.) Vahl. 42 LV Tamonea spicata Aubl. 46 LV	Mauritius & Rodigues

Species	References	Plant Parts Used*	Geographical Area
Vitex buchananii Baker en Gurke VITACEAE	49	RT	Tanzania
Ampelocissus africana Merr ZINGIBERACEAE	49	LV	Tanzania
Costus afer Ker-Gawl	49	LY	Tanzania
Curcuma longa L.	33	PL	West Africa
Hedychium cylindricum	35	FL	Kenya
Zingiber officiale Roscoe	47	RT -	Martinique

Plant Parts Used

ВK	=	Stem bark	LX	=	Latex
BU	=	Bulb	RB	=	Root bark
FL	=	Flowers	RT	=	Roots or rhizome
FR	_	Fruit	SD	=	Seeds
PL	= .	Herb (all above ground parts)	ST	=	Stem
U	=	Leafjuice	WD	=	Wood
IV	=	Leaves			

TEST TO DETERMINE ANTIMALARIAL ACTIVITY IN MEDICINAL PLANTS

The testing of plant extracts for antimalarial activity explains the problem facing many researchers who are trying to validate the traditional use of plants in treatment of malaria. Tests should reproduce conditions and effects of antimalarials but also be as economic as possible suitable for a high throughput of samples and be socially acceptable.

IN VIVO ANIMAL TESTING

The schizontocidal activity on early infection is assessed by administering the extract as simple daily dose on days 1, 2 and 3 to different groups of infected mice. Parrallel test is run with chloroquine as the standard. The degree of parasitaemia is determined on day 4 and percentage suppression of parasitaemia could be assessed in relation to control. Various dilutions of the extract are used to produce dose-related suppression For the of parasitaemia. prophylactic study, a parallel test is run with pyrimethamine 14.

This method was used by many workers including Kirby and Co. in 1993. Suppressive tests were firstly carried out on two groups of mice of known weight. One group was

used as test and the other as control. On the first day each mouse was infected intravenously with parasitised red blood cells. The newly infected mice were then randomized into groups of three and treated orally with the extract daily for 4 days. On the last day, tail blood smears were prepared from each mouse and parasitaemia was determined microscopically. The doses of the extract used were gradedly increased 15.

IN VITRO TESTING

Vigorously growing cultures of P. falciparum with a predominance of young ring forms are usually used in the determination of drug sensitivity. The extracts are tested at least twice, in duplicate, at 12 concentrations in four-fold dilutions. Chloroquine or pyrimethamine is tested concomitantly each occasion as a control depending on whether it is schizonticidal or prophylactic From dose-response curves the IC₅₀ values (concentrations at which inhibition of parasite growth represents 50%) are derived for each extract or Data from different experiments are accumulated and the mean IC so value for each drug or extract is calculated15.

The antimalarial activity of the test compounds could be assessed also with an in vitro radio-isotopeincorporation method. suspension of P. falciparum infected red blood cells is added to wells of a standard 96-well tissue culture plate containing 25m l of drug or extract to be tested. Each test compound is assayed in duplicate over a concentration range of 10,000 - 14ng/ml. In addition, the known antimalarial drugs quinine, chloroguine, mefloquine and artemisinin are tested in each experiment over a range of 250-0.3ng/ml. Microtiter plates are incubated for 24 hours at 37°C in a sealed chamber under an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ . 5% O₂ and 90% N2 . After this incubation period, 0.5mi of [3H(G)] hypoxanthine is added to each well (25ml of 20mCi/ml) and the microtiter plate is returned to the sealed chamber at 37°C for an additional 18 hour incubation. The assay is terminated by harvesting the contents of each microtiter plate onto a glass fibre filter using semiautomatic cell harvester. Filters are dried and the radioactivity from individual wells are excised from the filter and placed in 4-ml vials with toluene-based scintillation cocktail. Radioactivity is

Cinchona bark consists of various speqies, races and hybrids of Cinchona (Family Rubiaceae), large trees indigenous to Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia. The BP and EP recognise C. Succirubra and its varieties and hybrids containing not less than 6.5 per cent of total alkaloids, 30 - 60 per cent of which consists of quinine-type alkaloids. Quinine is used for treatment of malaria. Other alkaloids like quinidine are employed for the prophylaxis of cardiac arrhythmias and for the treatment of atrial fibrillation²³.

Quinine

Quinine's antimalarial action is believed to be by the intercalation of the quinoline moiety into the DNA of the Plasmodium parasite, thereby reducing the effectiveness of DNA to act as a template. Intercalating agents such as quinine are rigid planar polycyclic molecules that insert between the adjacent stacked hase pairs of the double helix of DNA. This results in DNA that has increased length and because of a greater electrostatic interaction between the intercalated molecule and the two DNA strands, there is an inhibition of the strand separation that is required for replication and transcription of the genetic code²⁴.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

From the tables, it is clear that a wide variety of plants are claimed to have antimalarial properties, however, the degree of effectiveness of the plants remain uncertain until detailed physiological studies have been carried out. The wide range of plant families involved indicated that a variety of chemical structural types is associated with the active principles.

Considering the numbers of deaths caused by malaria and increase in resistance to the synthetic drugs, the development of thermostable, nonresistant, potent and cheap remedies suitable for malaria treatment cannot be over-emphasised. Although scientific investigations into plants traditionally used to treat malaria are showing results which indicate that plants can provide the source for individual compounds or standardised extracts which could be useful in many places where malaria is endemic. Evaluation of the efficacy and effectiveness of traditional remedies not only with laboratory testing but more "clinical investigations" results from the in-vivo situation are required and could be obtained from follow-up studies of patients who are treated with traditional remedies for malaria by traditional healers.

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