Blood Parasite Identification

BP-06 Introduction

Thick and thin Giemsa-stained smears were obtained from a 3-year-old international adoptee from Mali. The specimen contained *Plasmodium falciparum*. A response of "*Plasmodium falciparum*", "*Plasmodium* sp., NOS would refer or request another specimen, or perform additional molecular testing" and "*Plasmodium* sp./*Babesia* sp. seen, referred for identification" would have been considered satisfactory; however, consensus was not met for parasite identification.

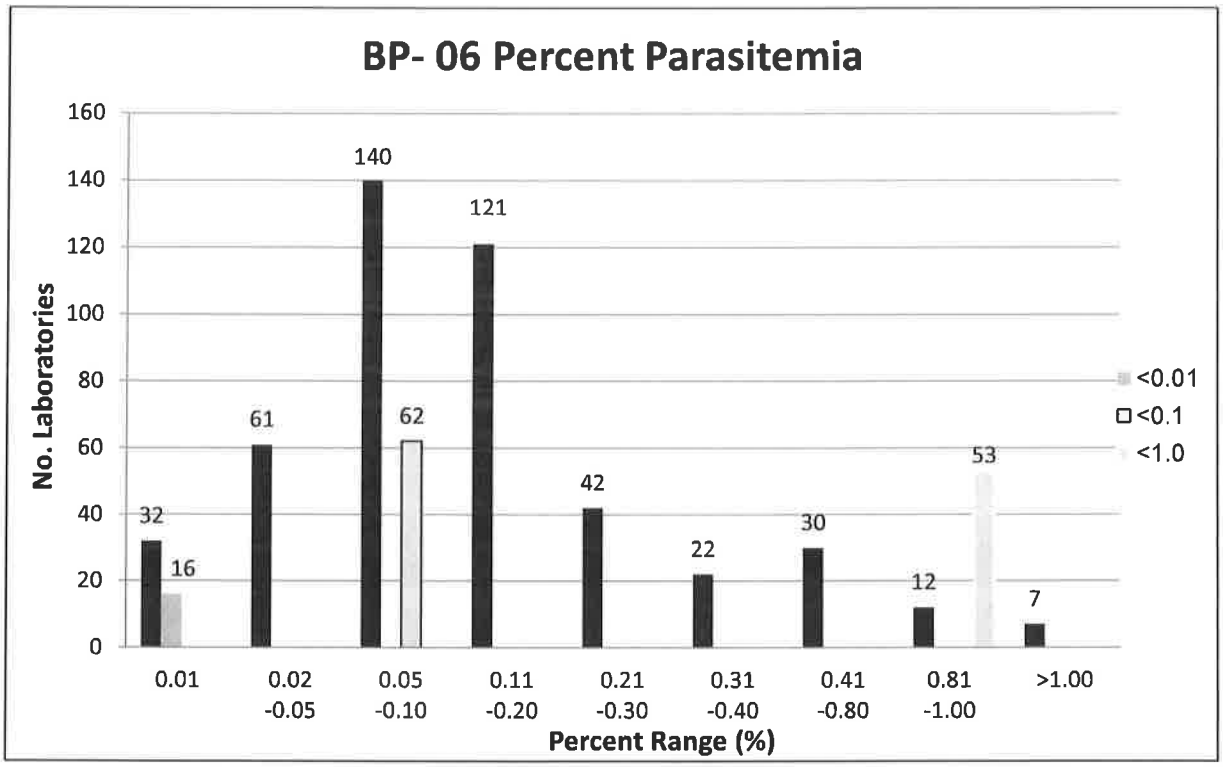
BP-06

Parasite Identification*	Referees (51) No.	%	Participants (451) No.	%
Plasmodium falciparum	22	43.1	202	44.8
Plasmodium sp., NOS would refer or request another specimen, or perform additional molecular testing	14	27.5	112	24.8
Plasmodium sp., not *P. falciparum*, referred for identification	7	13.7	43	9.5
Plasmodium malariae	6	11.8	57	12.6
Plasmodium vivax/ovale, NOS	1	2.0	9	2.0
Babesia sp.	1	2.0	10	2.2

Parasite Screen	Referees (61) No.	%	Participants (805) No.	%
Plasmodium sp./*Babesia* sp. seen, referred for identification	58	95.1	773	96.0

* BP-06 Parasite Identification was not graded due to lack of participant and referee consensus.

BP-06	**If you have identified a *Plasmodium* sp. or *Babesia* sp.: Report percent of infected RBCs seen (number of infected RBCs per 100 red blood cells). (Ungraded)**



Key morphologic features on thin blood film that suggests a diagnosis of *P. falciparum* may include:

- Normal size and shape of infected erythrocytes
- Smaller, more delicate ring-form trophozoites (approximately 1/5 the diameter of the erythrocyte) frequently with two chromatin dots (so-called "head phone" forms)
- Erythrocytes infected with multiple parasites
- Presence of ring-form trophozoites at the edge of the erythrocyte (appliqué forms)
- Usually an absence of mature trophozoites and schizonts in the peripheral blood film (may be seen if there is a delay in processing the blood specimen, or in patients with a very high parasitemia or underlying conditions)
- Presence of crescent-shaped gametocytes (not always seen)
- Absence of Schüffner's stippling. Larger, comma-shaped dots (Maurer's clefts) may be seen, especially when the stain buffer is at a pH of 7.2

Distinguishing *P. falciparum* from *Babesia* spp. can be challenging, given that both have a predominance of small ring forms, infect RBCs of all ages, and there may be multiple parasites per erythrocyte. The presence of Maurer's clefts, malarial pigment, and cresent-shaped gametocytes eliminate *Babesia* infection from consideration. Furthermore, *Babesia* parasites are usually more pleomorphic with spindled, elliptical and ovoid forms. Extracellular forms are also more common in babesiosis. Finally, identification of the classic "Maltese cross" or tetrad form of *Babesia* sp. is diagnostic for babesiosis although it may rarely be observed. Molecular or antigen-detection methods, in addition to clinical/travel history may be useful adjuncts for distinguishing between these two similar appearing parasites.

Discussion

Causal Agents:
There are four species of *Plasmodium* that cause human malaria: *P. falciparum*, *P. malariae*, *P. ovale*, and *P. vivax*. In addition, there are at least six species of simian *Plasmodium* that have been documented to cause zoonotic infections in humans, the most notable being *P. knowlesi*, infections of which appear to be increasing on the Malaysian peninsula.

Plasmodium falciparum occurs nearly worldwide in the tropics and subtropics, particularly in Africa and Southeast Asia. *Plasmodium malariae* also occurs nearly worldwide in the tropics and subtropics, but has a more patchy distribution than *P. falciparum*; most common in tropical Africa, Indian subcontinent, and Southeast Asia. *Plasmodium ovale* occurs primarily in tropical western Africa, but also New Guinea and Southeast Asia; *P. ovale* has not yet been documented from the New World. *Plasmodium vivax* occurs nearly worldwide in the tropics, subtropics, and some regions of northern and eastern Africa, the Middle East, the Indian subcontinent, Southeast Asia, and the Americas.

Biology and Life Cycle:
Plasmodium spp. are transmitted by mosquitoes in the genus *Anopheles*. Infected female mosquitoes inject sporozoites when taking a blood meal. Sporozoites are carried via blood to the liver where they invade hepatocytes and form schizonts. The liver schizonts rupture, releasing large numbers of merozoites that then invade erythrocytes starting the erythrocytic cycle. Early ring forms develop into mature trophozoites and take one of two pathways: 1) they develop into schizonts (which rupture and continue the erythrocytic cycle) or 2) develop into gametocytes. Gametocytes are a dead-end stage in the human host but are required for sexual reproduction in the mosquito. In the mosquito host, microgametocytes (=males) exflagellate and fertilize macrogametocytes (=females), resulting in an ookinete. Ookinetes further develop into oocysts, which when mature rupture and release the infective sporozoites. In *P. falciparum*, late trophozoites and schizonts express a protein on the surface of the erythrocytic membrane causing the infected erythrocyte to adhere to the endothelial lining of capillaries in internal organs. Thus, only ring forms and gametocytes are usually seen in well-prepared peripheral blood smears.

Diagnosis:
The ideal specimen for laboratory identification of malaria is fresh capillary blood from a finger or heel stick, with immediate preparation of thick and thin blood films. Since this is not feasible in most settings, however, venous blood collected in EDTA anticoagulant is also acceptable. It is important to transport the blood as quickly as possible to the laboratory for examination since prolonged exposure to EDTA may result in distortion of the malaria parasites and compromised morphology.

Malaria is primarily diagnosed by the identification of *Plasmodium* parasites on thin and thick blood films stained with Giemsa, Wright, or Wright-Giemsa stain. Molecular methods such as PCR may be employed when an identification cannot be made morphologically or there is morphologic evidence of a mixed infection. Rapid diagnostic tests are also commonly used to distinguish *P. falciparum* from other malaria infections. Serology is not used for routine diagnosis but may be helpful during transfusion investigations.

Typically, thick films are used for the recognition of *Plasmodium*, with a species-level identification performed on the thin film. Thin films should be read at 1000x magnification with oil for at least 100 microscopic fields. Immunologically naïve patients (eg, returning travelers born in non-endemic areas) may present with stronger clinical manifestations at a lower parasitemia. Severe malaria is currently defined as a parasitemia ≥ 2% in immunologically naïve patients and ≥ 5% in non-naïve patients.

Morphologic Identification:

Two important questions regarding morphologic identification of malaria are:

1) Is it malaria?
2) Is it *Plasmodium falciparum*?

Recognition of *Plasmodium* is based on observing stages of the parasite inside infected red blood cells. In a well-prepared specimen, the cytoplasm will stain blue and the chromatin red. Pigment (which is absent in *Babesia* infections) will present as golden-brown to black flecks. In some species, structures such as Schüffner's stippling or Maurer's clefts may be present when stained at an appropriate pH. Identification of *Plasmodium* to the species level is extremely important for patient management, as different species may be treated differently (for example, it is important to target the liver stages of *P. ovale* and *P. vivax* to prevent relapse of the disease).

The following table compares the morphologic features of the four stages of human *Plasmodium* spp.

Morphologic Criteria	*Plasmodium falciparum*	*Plasmodium malariae*	*Plasmodium ovale*	*Plasmodium vivax*
Size of infected RBC	Normal	Normal to smaller	Enlarged	Enlarged
Rings (early trophozoites)	Common; usually with thin, delicate cytoplasm and double chromatin dots; often multiple rings per infected RBC; appliqué forms common	Cytoplasm sturdy, usually with single, large chromatin dot; occasional 'birds-eye' forms	Cytoplasm sturdy, with 1-2 large chromatin dots	Large, sturdy cytoplasm, usually with large, single chromatin dot
Developing trophozoites	Rare, but may be seen if a delay in processing; form compact, pigment usually evident	Variable; may be compact to elongate (band-form) or pleomorphic and vacuolated (basket-form); pigment coarse	Compact to slightly amoeboid with dark pigment; elongation and fimbriation may be observed	Pleomorphic to grossly amoeboid; pigment diffuse and golden-brown to nearly black
Schizonts	Rare in peripheral blood; 8-24 small merozoites when mature; pigment dark, compact	6-12 merozoites when mature, often in a rosette pattern around central mass of pigment	6-14 merozoites when mature; pigment dark brown to black and discrete when mature; elongation and fimbriation may be present	12-24 merozoites when mature; may fill entire RBC; often noticeable enlarged
Gametocytes	Crescent-shaped; chromatin discrete (macrogametocyte) or diffuse (microgametocyte); Laveran's bib may be present	Small, round, compact; pigment coarse and diffuse	Round to oval, compact; if elongated and fimbriated may not fill entire infected RBC; pigment coarse, dark	Large and round to pleomorphic (may 'hug' surrounding RBCs); may fill most of infected RBC; pigment golden-brown to nearly black
Other Features	Maurer's clefts may be present; ring-form trophozoites usually predominate	Generally smaller; pigment coarse; Ziemann's stippling may be present; all stages seen	Schüffner's stippling may be present at appropriate pH; elongation and fimbriation may be observed; all stages seen	Schüffner's stippling may be present at appropriate pH; enlargement of infected RBCs usually pronounced; all stages seen

Calculating Percent Parasitemia:
The percent parasitemia is very important to calculate for prognostic purposes and also to evaluate response to antimalarial therapy.

Parasitemia can be calculated on a thin blood film as follows:

1. Count the number of infected RBCs per 100 RBCs in different oil immersion fields.
2. Apply the formula:

$$\frac{\text{\# of infected RBCs}}{\text{total \# of RBCs counted}} \times 100 = \% \text{ parasitemia}$$

Notes:

1) At least 500 RBC's should be counted, with counting 2000 or more RBCs providing the most accurate estimation of parasitemia
2) An infected RBC containing multiple parasites is calculated only once
3) Fields devoid of parasites should be included, if encountered
4) Gametocytes should not be included in the count. Justification is because: a) many antimalarial drugs are not gametocidal and the presence of gametocytes post-treatment is not indicative of the effectiveness of the treatment and b) gametocytes are a dead-end stage in the human host.

Clinical Significance:
In 2014, ninety seven countries and territories had ongoing malaria transmission. Over half a million people die from malaria each year. Most malaria cases and deaths occur in children in sub-Saharan Africa. In 2011, a 40-year high of 1,925 cases of malaria were reported to the CDC in the United States, almost all in recent travelers and immigrants. Although the *Anopheles* mosquito is endemic in parts of North America, malaria transmission was largely eradicated in the 1940s through public health efforts.

Malaria infection can be classified as either uncomplicated or severe (complicated). In uncomplicated infections, patients present with nonspecific symptoms including fever, chills, sweats, headaches, nausea/vomiting, body aches and malaise. Symptoms classically (but infrequently observed) recur either in a two-day cycle (*P. falciparum*, *P. vivax* and *P. ovale*) or in three-day cycle (*P. malariae*). In severe infections, organ failure and/or metabolic abnormalities occur including severe anemia, acute respiratory distress syndrome, acute kidney failure, metabolic acidosis, cerebral infection, and coagulation abnormalities. Severe infection is considered a medical emergency requiring urgent treatment. *Plasmodium falciparum* can cause severe illness and death whereas *P. vivax*, *P. malariae* and *P. ovale* tend to cause less severe illness. The hypnozoite form of *P. vivax* and *P. ovale* can remain dormant in a patient's liver and cause relapsing infection.

Treatment:
Treatment of malaria should ideally wait until a laboratory diagnosis has been made. Treating "presumptively" should occur only when no other option exists. Therapy is guided by the infecting species of *Plasmodium*, the clinical status of the patient and the drug susceptibility of the infecting parasites (dependent on geographic area and previous anti-malarial treatment). Because of the rapid progression of *P. falciparum* infections and a high risk of fatality, urgent treatment is essential.

If the infection is uncomplicated, oral anti-malarial medication can provide effective treatment. However, severe infections necessitate parenteral therapy. *Plasmodium falciparum* and *P. vivax* have different drug resistance patterns in different geographic regions. Although not readily available in North America, the WHO recommends artemisinin-based combination therapy as first-line treatment in uncomplicated *P. falciparum* malaria (oral administration), severe malarial infections (intravenous administration) and *P. vivax* infections in areas of known chloroquine resistance. Other, non-artemisinin based combination treatments include sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine

plus either chloroquine, amodiaquine, or atovaquone-proguanil. In recent years, resistance to artemisinins has been detected in Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam. For confirmed *P. vivax* and *P. ovale* infections, radical cure can be achieved with treatment using primaquine and in order to prevent relapse due to the hypnozoite form. In high-transmission settings re-infection with *P. vivax* is likely. Mixed-species malarial infections are not common but may be underestimated by routine microscopy.

References

1. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Treatment of Malaria: Guideline for Clinicians. Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/malaria/diagnosis_treatment/clinicians3.html. Accessed March 2, 2018.
2. World Health Organization. Guidelines for the Treatment of Malaria. 3rd ed. Geneva, 2015.
3. World Health Organization. Malaria: Fact Sheet #94. Updated December 2014. Available at: http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs094/en/ Accessed online March 2, 2018.
4. Garcia LS. *Diagnostic Medical Parasitology*. 5th ed. Washington, DC. ASM Press; 2007.
5. CDC: Malaria surveillance – United States 2005. *MMWR* 2007;56(SS06);23-38.
6. Greenwood BM, Bojang K, Whitty CJ, Targett GA. Malaria. *Lancet*.2005;365:1487-1498

BP-07 Introduction

Thick and thin Giemsa-stained smears were obtained from 52-year-old with recent travel to Mauritania. The specimen contained *Plasmodium ovale*. A response of "*Plasmodium ovale*", "*Plasmodium vivax/ovale* NOS", "*Plasmodium* sp., not *P. falciparum* referred for identification", "*Plasmodium* sp., NOS would refer or request another specimen, or perform additional molecular testing", and "*Plasmodium* sp./*Babesia* sp. seen referred for identification" was considered satisfactory.

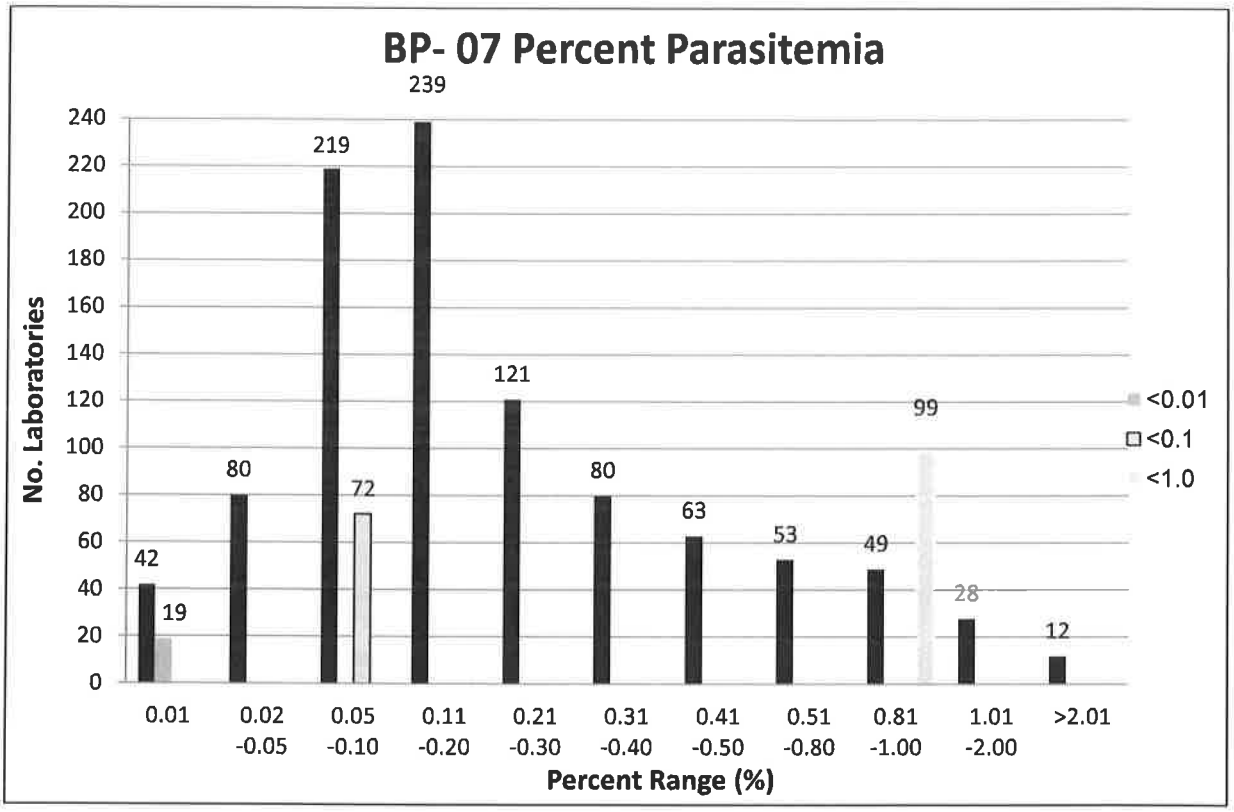
BP-07

Parasite Identification*	Referees (51) No.	%	Participants (465) No.	%
Plasmodium ovale	4	7.8	100	21.5
Plasmodium vivax/ovale, NOS	26	51.0	143	30.8
Plasmodium sp., not *P. falciparum*, referred for identification	11	21.6	106	22.8
Plasmodium sp., NOS would refer or request another specimen, or perform additional molecular testing	1	2.0	22	4.7
Plasmodium malariae	3	5.9	30	6.5
Plasmodium vivax	5	9.8	69	14.8

Parasite Screen	Referees (61) No.	%	Participants (791) No.	%
Plasmodium sp./*Babesia* sp. seen, referred for identification	59	96.7	785	99.2
Blood or tissue parasite, not *Plasmodium* sp. or *Babesia* sp., referred for identification	1	1.6	2	0.3

* Parasite identification was graded by referee consensus.

BP-07 **If you have identified a *Plasmodium* sp. or *Babesia* sp.: Report percent of infected RBCs seen (number of infected RBCs per 100 red blood cells). (Ungraded)**



Both thick and thin blood films should be prepared when the diagnosis of malaria is suspected. Examination of the thick blood film is considered the gold standard for identification since a larger blood volume can be examined than with the thin film, thus enabling the detection of low levels of parasitemia. In contrast, thin blood films provide the best morphology for species differentiation. In this Survey, the challenge was to recognize the presence of *Plasmodium ovale*. Consensus was not reached by participants; however, referees did obtain greater than 80% consensus and the challenge was graded by referee consensus.

Key morphologic features on thin and thick blood films that characterize *P. ovale* may include:

1. Enlarged size of the infected red blood cells (seen with both *P. ovale and P. vivax).*
2. Infected red blood cells with fimbriations and an ovoid shape (seen in up to 1/3 of infected cells)
3. Presence of Schüffner's stippling (seen in both *P. ovale and P. vivax*). Note: These may not be seen in early ring-form trophozoites in *P. ovale*
4. Mature schizonts with 8-12 merozoites
5. Compact ring compared to the more amoeboid trophozoite of *P. vivax.*
6. Large, round gametocytes usually with coarser pigment than as usually seen with *P. vivax.*

Both *Plasmodium ovale* and *P. vivax* are uncommon to rare in Mauritania. According to the CDC (https://www.cdc.gov/malaria/travelers/country_table/m.html), species breakdown for Mauritania is as follows: *P. falciparum* (>85%), *P. ovale* (5-10%), *P. vivax* (rare). Distinguishing *P. ovale* from *P. vivax* morphologically may be challenging when the trophozoites do not have characteristic features and fimbriations are not abundant. The absence of schizonts also makes the differentiation between the two species more difficult. In these cases a diagnosis of *Plasmodium vivax/ovale* may be acceptable. If available, molecular testing can be used confirm the species when morphology is not definitive.

Note: *The ideal specimen for laboratory identification of malaria is fresh capillary blood from a finger or heel stick, with immediate preparation of thick and thin blood films. Since this is not feasible in most settings, however, venous blood collected in EDTA anticoagulant is also acceptable. It is important to transport the blood as quickly as possible to the laboratory for examination since prolonged exposure to EDTA may result in distortion of the malaria parasites and compromised morphology.*

References

1. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Treatment of Malaria: Guideline for Clinicians. Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/malaria/diagnosis_treatment/clinicians3.html. Accessed June 23, 2015.
2. World Health Organization. Guidelines for the Treatment of Malaria. 3rd ed. Geneva, 2015.
3. World Health Organization. Malaria: Fact Sheet #94. Updated December 2014. Available at: http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs094/en/ Accessed online October 26, 2015.
4. Garcia LS. *Diagnostic Medical Parasitology*. 5th ed. Washington, DC. ASM Press; 2007.
5. CDC: Malaria surveillance – United States 2005. *MMWR* 2007;56(SS06);23-38.
6. Greenwood BM, Bojang K, Whitty CJ, Targett GA. Malaria. *Lancet*.2005;365:1487-1498

BP-08 Introduction

Thick and thin Giemsa-stained smears were obtained from 41-year-old immigrant from Angola. The specimen contained *Trypanosoma brucei*. A response of "*Trypanosoma brucei* (*gambiense* or *rhodesiense*)", "Blood flagellate, NOS, referred for identification" and "Blood or tissue parasite, not *Plasmodium* sp. or *Babesia* sp., referred for identification" was considered satisfactory.

BP-08

Parasite Identification	Referees (52) No.	%	Participants (442) No.	%
Trypanosoma brucei (*gambiense* or *rhodesiense*)	52	100.0	426	96.4
Trypanosoma cruzi	-	-	13	2.9
Parasite Screen	**Referees (60) No.**	**%**	**Participants (811) No.**	**%**
Blood flagellate, NOS, referred for identification	57	95.0	707	87.2
Blood or tissue parasite, not *Plasmodium* sp. or *Babesia* sp., referred for identification	2	3.3	92	11.3
Microfilaria, NOS, referred for identification	1	1.7	11	1.4

Discussion

Causal Agents

Human African trypanosomiasis (HAT) is caused by two subspecies of *Trypanosoma brucei, T. b. gambiense* (West and Central Africa) and *T. b. rhodesiense* (eastern and southeastern Africa). The type subspecies, *T. b. brucei*, does not cause human infection.

Biology and Life Cycle

Trypanosoma brucei spp. are transmitted by tsetse flies in the genus *Glossina*. When an infected tsetse fly takes a blood meal, metacyclic trypomastigotes are injected into the bloodstream where they transform into bloodstream trypomastigotes. There are two forms of bloodstream trypomastigotes, slender and stumpy. The slender trypomastigotes multiply by binary fission and perpetuate the blood cycle. Stumpy forms are adapted to be picked up by the tsetse fly vector. Within the midgut of the vector, stumpy forms develop into procyclic forms and multiply by binary fission. After a while, some procyclic forms leave the midgut and migrate via the hemocoel to the salivary glands, where they develop into epimastigote and eventually metacyclic forms. Metacyclic forms are non-dividing and are the infectious stage for the vertebrate host. Unlike with *T.cruzi*, there is no amastigote formation in the human host tissue, although *T. brucei* can cross the blood-brain barrier and cause central nervous system involvement.

Diagnosis

Diagnosis of *T. brucei* is made by the finding of trypomastigotes in blood, chancre fluid, lymph node aspirates, bone marrow, and CSF. A wet preparation may be examined for motility. Concentration techniques may increase the chances for a morphologic diagnosis, including centrifugation and examination of the buffy coat.

Trypomastigotes (the only stage seen in the human host) are 14-33 µm long, have a large central nucleus, a small, terminal kinetoplast at the posterior end and a free flagellum leaving the body anteriorly. In stained blood films, it is possible to find diving forms, something not seen in cases with *T cruzi*. Currently, serologic, molecular, and rapid diagnostic (RDT) tests are not routinely available in the United States.

Clinical Significance

According to the World Health Organization in 2014, 3796 cases of HAT were reported. Human infection with *Trypanosoma brucei* presents with two clinical manifestations. In the first, the parasite is found in the peripheral blood and symptoms include fevers, headaches, malaise, and muscle and joint aches. In the second, parasites cross the blood-brain barrier to involve the central nervous system and can be found in the cerebrospinal fluid. During second stage disease, neurologic symptoms develop and mental status declines, eventually leading to coma and death. Disease progresses at different rates depending on which subspecies is involved, with *T. b. gambiense* having a more chronic, indolent course spanning years while *T. b. rhodesiense* progresses more rapidly over a period of months. If left untreated, both forms of African trypanosomiasis are fatal.

Treatment

All people with trypanosomal infection should be treated. First-line therapy depends on stage of disease and subspecies involved. For *T. b. gambiense* infections, pentamidine isethionate is the drug of choice for first-stage disease while combination therapy with nifurtimox and eflornithine is recommended for second-stage disease. For *T. b. rhodesiense* infections, suramin is the first-line treatment for first-stage disease while melarsoprol is recommended for second-stage disease. These therapies are generally effective yet have varying toxicity profiles. Of note, adverse reactions to melarsoprol can be severe and life-threatening with 5-18% of patients developing an encephalopathic reaction which is fatal in 10-70% of these patients.

References

1. Ash LP, Orihel TC. *Atlas of Human Parasitology*, 5th ed. Chicago, IL: ASCP Press: 2007.
2. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Division of Parasitic Diseases (DPD). *Laboratory Identification of Parasites of Public Concern.* http://www.cdc.gov/dpdx
3. Garcia LS. 2007. *Diagnostic Medical Parasitology*, 5th ed., Washington, DC. ASM Press..

BP-09 Introduction

A giemsa-stained touch impression preparation photo page was sent from a college student with scaly rash after recent travel to Mexico for spring break. A response of "No parasite(s) seen" or "Specimen screened for blood parasites, no organisms seen" was considered satisfactory.

BP-09

Parasite Identification	Referees (33) No.	%	Participants (289) No.	%
No parasite(s) seen	29	87.9	245	84.8
Leishmania sp.	4	12.1	40	13.8
Parasite Screen	**Referees (22) No.**	**%**	**Participants (245) No.**	**%**
Specimen screened for blood parasites, no organisms seen	19	86.4	202	82.5

Discussion

The challenge was intended to simulate a skin scraping negative for *Leishmania* species. Initial diagnosis of leishmaniasis is made by the finding of amastigotes in clinical specimens, including bone marrow, touch preparations of skin lesions, and biopsy specimens, usually in conjunction with an epidemiological investigation into the patient's travel history. When collecting specimens of skin lesions, it is best to collect dermal material from the outer edges of the ulcer, where amastigote activity is highest. Touch prep of skin specimens are usually stained with Giemsa to visualize the amastigotes, which are round to oval and measure 1-5 µm long by 1-2 µm wide and possess a large nucleus and a prominent rod-shaped kinetoplast.

References

1. Garcia LS. 2007. *Diagnostic Medical Parasitology*, 5th ed., Washington, DC. ASM Press.

BP-10 Introduction

Thick and thin Giemsa-stained smears were obtained from an exchange student from Colombia with fever. A response of *"Plasmodium falciparum"*, *"Plasmodium* sp., NOS would refer or request another specimen, or perform additional molecular testing" and "*Plasmodium* sp./*Babesia* sp. seen, referred for identification" were considered satisfactory.

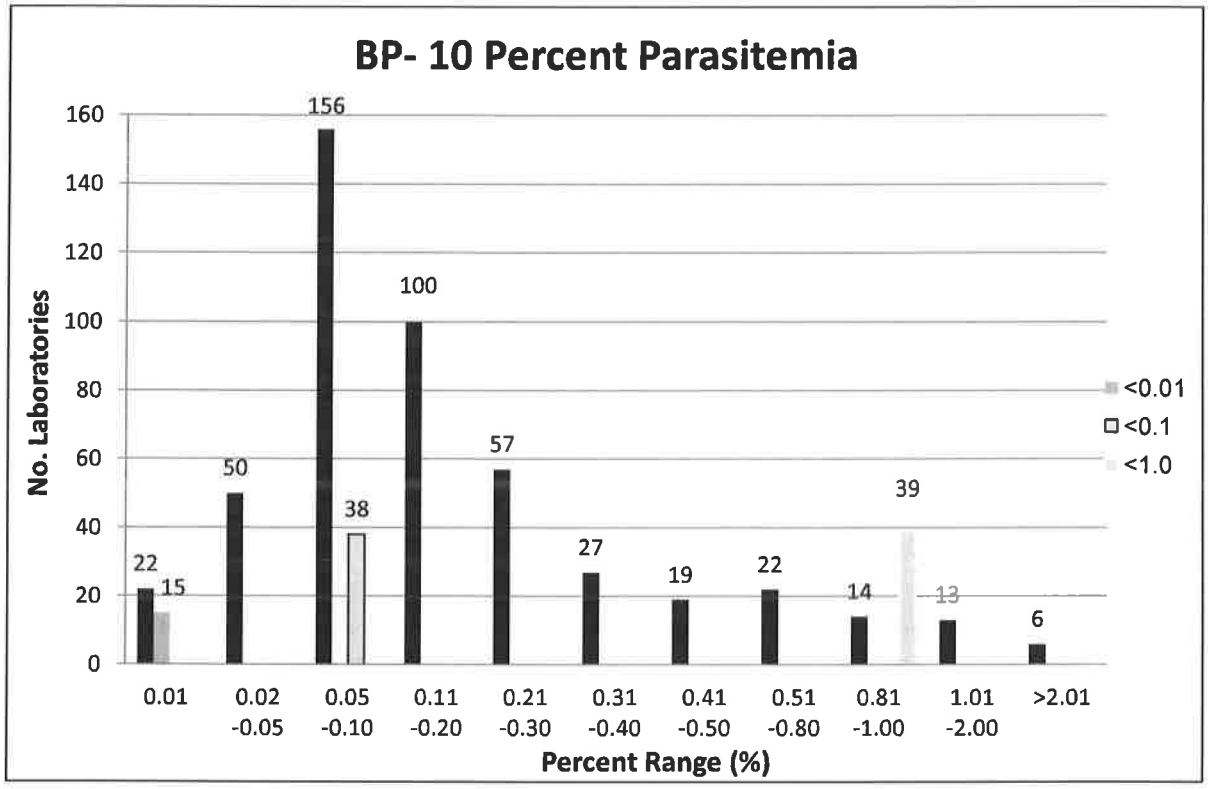
BP-10

Parasite Identification	Referees (52) No.	%	Participants (460) No.	%
Plasmodium falciparum	49	94.2	399	86.7
Plasmodium sp., NOS would refer or request another specimen, or perform additional molecular testing	2	3.9	41	8.9
Babesia sp.	1	1.9	10	2.2
Plasmodium sp., not *P. falciparum*, referred for identification	1	1.9	4	0.9

Parasite Screen	Referees (60) No.	%	Participants (796) No.	%
Plasmodium sp./*Babesia* sp. seen, referred for identification	60	100.0	761	95.6

BP-10

If you have identified a *Plasmodium* sp. or *Babesia* sp.: Report percent of infected RBCs seen (number of infected RBCs per 100 red blood cells). (Ungraded)



Key morphologic features on thin blood film that suggests a diagnosis of *P. falciparum* may include:

- Normal size and shape of infected erythrocytes
- Smaller, more delicate ring-form trophozoites (approximately 1/5 the diameter of the erythrocyte) frequently with two chromatin dots (so-called "head phone" forms)
- Erythrocytes infected with multiple parasites
- Presence of ring-form trophozoites at the edge of the erythrocyte (appliqué forms)
- Usually an absence of mature trophozoites and schizonts in the peripheral blood film (may be seen if there is a delay in processing the blood specimen, or in patients with a very high parasitemia or underlying conditions)
- Presence of crescent-shaped gametocytes (not always seen)
- Absence of Schüffner's stippling. Larger, comma-shaped dots (Maurer's clefts) may be seen, especially when the stain buffer is at a pH of 7.2

Distinguishing *P. falciparum* from *Babesia* spp. can be challenging, given that both have a predominance of small ring forms, infect RBCs of all ages, and there may be multiple parasites per erythrocyte. The presence of Maurer's clefts, malarial pigment, and cresent-shaped gametocytes eliminate *Babesia* infection from consideration. Furthermore, *Babesia* parasites are usually more pleomorphic with spindled, elliptical and ovoid forms. Extracellular forms are also more common in babesiosis. Finally, identification of the classic "Maltese cross" or tetrad form of *Babesia* sp. is diagnostic for babesiosis although it may rarely be observed. Molecular or antigen-detection methods, in addition to clinical/travel history may be useful adjuncts for distinguishing between these two similar appearing parasites.

Discussion

See discussion for BP-06 on page 3.

COLLEGE of AMERICAN PATHOLOGISTS

Attestation of Participation of Self-Reported Training*

We the participants below have completed the review of the CAP BP-B 2018 (Product Mailing, Year) Participant Summary/Final Critique report and can self-report the recommended 0.5 (Education Hours) hours towards fulfilling education and certification of maintenance requirements.

Participant	**Date**	**Participant**	**Date**

Director (or Designee) Signature - I have verified that the individuals listed above have successfully participated in this activity. Date

Retain this page for record-keeping and auditing purposes.

1. Go to www.cap.org
2. Click **LOG IN / LOG IN** and enter your User ID and Password.
   - If you are unsure whether you have an *individual* web account with the CAP, or do not remember your user ID and password, click on **PASSWORD HINT**.
   - If you do not have an *individual* web account, click **CREATE AN ACCOUNT**. Complete and submit the account request form. You will be notified within one business day that your individual account has been activated.
3. Click **Learning** from the top menu bar
4. Click **Learning Transcript** from the menu bar
5. Click **Add My Own Activity**
6. Follow prompts to enter 'Self-Reported Training Activities'.

For assistance, call our Customer Contact Center at 800-323-4040 or 847-832-7000 option 1.

**CAP Self-Reported Training activities do not offer CE credit, but can be used towards fulfilling requirements for certification of maintenance by agencies such as the American Society of Clinical Pathology (ASCP). Please verify with your certifying agency to determine your education requirements.*