REVIEW ARTICLE

Congenital disorders and community genetic services in Nigeria: A systematic review

DOI: 10.29063/ajrh2020/v24i3.18

Maclawrence K. Famuyiwa 1,2*

Geneva Foundation for Medical Education and Research 150, route de Ferney 1211 Geneva 2 – Switzerland¹; Chest Clinic, General Hospital, Apapa, Lagos, Nigeria²

*For Correspondence: Email: maclawrencefamuyiwa@yahoo.com; Phone: +2348059483191

Abstract

Nigeria has a large number of congenital disorders (CD). For instance, two out of every hundred children born in Nigeria have sickle cell disorders (SCD). Making Nigeria the country with the highest incidence of SCD. This article reviews the prevalence of CD in Nigeria; with emphasis on those having a heavy statistical burden on the country, the availability of community genetics services in Nigeria and the efforts being made to tackle the challenges of CD. A systematic review of birth prevalence of congenital malformations (CM) in Nigeria was done through a literature search, with no time restriction for publication dates. Only studies that included the birth prevalence of CM were included. Eligible studies with incorrect or missing data were excluded. This revealed a dearth of data on CD in Nigeria, as in most Low- and Middle-Income Countries. A predominance of CM of the musculoskeletal and gastrointestinal systems was found in Nigeria. However, the pattern of CM in the South-South region was more of the central nervous system. There is scarcity of resources to address the challenges of CD in Nigeria with feeble government assistance. Meanwhile, 70% of CD can be prevented and adequately managed by well implemented community genetics services. (Afr J Reprod Health 2020; 24[3]: 161-175).

Keywords: Community Genetics, congenital disorders, sickle cell diseases, Genetic services, Nigeria

Résumé

Le Nigéria a un grand nombre de troubles congénitaux (MC). Par exemple, deux enfants sur cent nés au Nigéria souffrent de drépanocytose (SCD). Faire du Nigéria le pays avec la plus forte incidence de SCD. Cet article passe en revue la prévalence de la MC au Nigéria; en mettant l'accent sur ceux qui ont une lourde charge statistique sur le pays, la disponibilité de services de génétique communautaire au Nigéria et les efforts déployés pour relever les défis de la DC. Une revue systématique de la prévalence à la naissance des malformations congénitales (CM) au Nigéria a été réalisée grâce à une recherche documentaire, sans restriction de temps pour les dates de publication. Seules les études qui incluaient la prévalence de la CM à la naissance ont été incluses. Les études éligibles avec des données incorrectes ou manquantes ont été exclues. Cela a révélé une pénurie de données sur la DC au Nigéria, comme dans la plupart des pays à revenu faible et intermédiaire. Une prédominance de CM des systèmes musculosquelettique et gastro-intestinal a été trouvée au Nigeria. Cependant, le modèle de CM dans la région Sud-Sud était plus du système nerveux central. Il y a une pénurie de ressources pour relever les défis de la DC au Nigeria avec une faible assistance gouvernementale. Pendant ce temps, 70% des MC peuvent être évitées et correctement gérées par des services de génétique communautaire bien mis en œuvre. (Afr J Reprod Health 2020; 24[3]: 161-175).

Mots-clés: Génétique communautaire, troubles congénitaux, drépanocytose, services génétiques, Nigéria

Introduction

Community genetics is a sub-discipline of genetics¹. It has been defined as "the art and science of the responsible and realistic application of health and disease-related genetics and genomics knowledge and technologies in human populations and communities to the benefit of individuals therein"¹. Community genetics is multi-, inter- and trans-disciplinary and aims to

maximize benefits while minimizing the risk of harm, respecting the autonomy of individuals and ensuring equity¹. In low- and middle-income countries (LMIC), community genetics is increasingly being employed to identify and help those within the wider community with an increased risk of a genetic problem. This is done to prevent or reduce congenital disorders and genetic diseases by encouraging and respecting the educated and autonomous decisions of individuals

and families, and at the same time, providing genetics services (diagnosis and counselling) in the community for individuals and families².

Congenital disorders are also known as birth defects or congenital anomalies or congenital malformations³. They refer to 'any abnormality affecting body structure or function that is present from birth. They may be clinically obvious at birth or may be diagnosed only later in life'^{4,5}. However, the term congenital malformation (CM), alluded to; as a synonym of congenital disorder above, is in many instances restricted to a type of congenital disorders with only structural defect. It is in that sense, that congenital malformations will be viewed in this review.

It is estimated that globally about 8 million infants are born with serious birth defects every year, of which several hundred thousand are caused by teratogens such as alcohol, Rubella, syphilis and iodine deficiency⁴. About three million (3.3 million) infants with birth defects will eventually die, while another 3.2 million will survive with severe disability⁴. There are however, compelling evidence, that up to 70% of birth defects can be prevented or adequately managed⁶. The causes of congenital disorders are many and complex; with approximately 50 percent of them being idiopathic 7,8. It is expected that the percentage of congenital disorders of unknown causes will decrease in future, as more and more causes are identified9. However, known causes can be divided into two broad groups: genetic and partially genetic causes, and causes developing after conception⁴.

Congenital disorders of genetic and partially genetic causes

These are congenital disorders that originate mostly before conception. They constitute most of the congenital disorders with known causes and are due to abnormalities of the genetic material chromosomes and genes⁴. Partially genetic birth defects are due to a combination of genes that puts the fetus at risk in the presence of specific environmental factors⁴. These could be complex and still multifactorial, since the risk they proffer is not only to the fetus but continue even after birth, and throughout the life cycle of the affected

individuals. But could only be activated under certain conditions. Genetic abnormalities can be inherited, in which case they are found in families, or they can occur as an isolated event in a pregnancy⁴.

Congenital disorders of causes originating after conception

These are congenital disorders with causes developing after conception but before birth. They are primarily non-genetic. In these disorders, the genetic material inherited by the fetus is normal and the birth defect is caused by an intra-uterine environmental factor⁴. These include teratogens interfere with normal growth development of the embryo or fetus, mechanical forces that deform the fetus, and vascular accidents that disrupt the normal growth of organs⁴. Teratogens can be physical agents such as radiation; environmental pollutants like methyl mercury; maternal illness or disturbances of the mother's metabolism such as maternal insulindependent diabetes mellitus or maternal iodine deficiency; maternal infections, including rubella and toxoplasmosis; and drugs, both medicinal and recreational¹⁰.

Global efforts at preventing congenital disorders

The World Health Organization (WHO) at the sixty-third World Health Assembly Eighth plenary meeting, came out with Resolution 63.17 that made the following recommendations among others:

- 1. Raising of awareness about the importance of birth defects as a cause of child morbidity and mortality,
- 2. Development of expertise and capacity building on the prevention of birth defects and care of children with birth defects.
- 3. Strengthening research and studies on etiology, diagnosis and prevention of major birth defects and promoting international cooperation in combating them,
- 4. Raising awareness among all relevant stakeholders about the importance of newborn screening programs and their role in

identifying infants born with congenital birth defects¹¹.

These thus, mean that strengthening community genetics services all over the world is pivotal in achieving prevention and adequately managing congenital disorders.

The Seventh International Conference on Birth Defects and Disabilities in the Developing World (ICBD), held in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, also called to action: maximization of the opportunity for every woman and couple to have a healthy child; reduction of the consequences of potentially avoidable congenital disorders for those affected, their families, the health care system, and the wider society; and promotion of the well-being of children who have a congenital disorder¹². The pledge of the participants at this conference was to have an initial focus that supports improvement of data quality, reduction of risk, improvement of care and the empowerment of the public and civil societies¹². All these measures are proposed to help in accelerating the prevention of congenital disorders and the improvement of care of affected children, especially in high burden, low-resource settings, globally¹².

Background information about Nigeria

Nigeria is divided into six geo-political zones: North West, North Central, North East, South West, South East and South-South. Nigeria is a lower middle-income country¹³ with per capita income of \$5,680. Some of the Nigerian population indicators includes: crude birth rate (CBR) of 38.113 births/thousand; Under 5 Mortality Rate (U5MR) 103.015 deaths/thousand; Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) of 63.454 deaths/1000 live births: and Life years¹⁴. Expectancy (both sexes) of 54.1 According to the WHO, the total expenditure on health as percentage of GDP of Nigeria for 2014 was 3.7¹⁵. United Nations Children's Funds (UNICEF) reported that about 2,300 under-five year old die every single day in Nigeria. This makes the country the second largest contributor to the under–five mortality rates in the world 16.

It is thus pertinent that more prominence should be given to community genetics in Nigeria. This should be as part of efforts geared towards

achieving goal number 3 of the sustainable development goal (SDG), tagged good health and well-being. It is the aim of this goal, among others to:

- 1. reduce, by one-third by 2030, premature mortality from non-communicable diseases through prevention and treatment and the promotion of mental health and well-being.
- 2. reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births.
- 3. end preventable deaths of newborns and children under-five years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-five mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births¹⁷.

Overall, this SDG, as formulated by the United Nations, consists of 17 goals. The United Nations thus believe that if these goals are well implemented, they will lead to ending poverty, fighting inequality and injustice, and tackling climate change by the year 2030.

Genetic disorders in Nigeria

According to Milewicz¹⁸, genetic disorders can be classified into: chromosomal disorders; singlegene disorders and multifactorial disorders. And it is in that format that the situation of genetic disorders shall be discussed as follows:

Chromosomal disorders in Nigeria

Of the chromosomal disorders, Down syndrome was reported to have an incidence of 1 in every 865 live birth¹⁹ and Turner's syndrome of 1 in every 2745 live female birth in Nigeria²⁰. Though these studies were done way back in 1982, but it appeared that no other notable study has been done on the birth prevalence of chromosomal disorders in Nigeria since then.

Single-gene disorders in Nigeria

Sickle cell disorder (SCD) is the most common inherited disorder in the world. More than 300,000 babies are born with severe forms of hemoglobinopathies worldwide each year. Seventy-five percent of all patients with SCD live

in sub-Saharan Africa²¹. About 150,000 Nigerian children are born each year with sickle cell anemia (HbSS): the prevailing type of sickle cell disorder (SCD) in this region, with over 40 million Nigerians being healthy carriers of the S gene²². Two out of every hundred children born in Nigeria have SCD thus causing suffering for innumerable patients and their families²³. It was stated by Molineaux *et al*²⁴ that there is no other known inherited disorder that is present at such a high frequency in a large population and of comparable severity as sickle cell anemia in Africa.

Multifactorial disorders in Nigeria

These are birth defects due to complex genetic and environmental interactions. They are usually malformations of a single organ system or limb, and include congenital heart disease, neural tube defects, cleft lip and/ or cleft palate, clubfoot and developmental dysplasia of the hip⁴. There is no national survey on the prevalence of these disorders in Nigeria. Orimolade et al.25 found 14.2 per 1000 live birth of external congenital birth defects in their study and that congenital talipes equinovarus and polydactyly were the two most frequent, each with a birth prevalence of 3.2 per 1000 live births. An incidence rate of 0.37 per 1000 live births of clefts of the lip or palate or both was reported in a hospital in Nigeria²⁶. But several other authors have reported varying prevalence of this birth defect in Nigeria with the reported rates varied with each study and location. For example, Butali et al reported 0.5/1000²⁷, Abue, et al reported $3.2/1,000^{28}$ and Omo-Aghoja, et al reported $13.5/1000^{29}$.

Many, usually systemic, diseases that commonly present later in life and having genetic origin involving no malformations are also classified as multifactorial disorders. Included among these disorders are hypertension, diabetes, stroke, mental disorders and cancer⁴. These diseases are of long duration and are often referred to as non-communicable diseases (NCDs). They disproportionately affect people in LMIC, where more than three quarters of global NCD deaths (32 million) occur³⁰. NCDs in Nigeria accounted for an estimated 28 per cent of all mortality in 2008³¹, but this was put at 24% by 2012³². Cardiovascular

diseases (CVD) are the most prevalent NCDs in Nigeria and accounted for 12 per cent of total deaths across all age groups³¹. It was also reported that cancers, non-communicable variants of respiratory diseases, and diabetes contributed 4%, 3%, and 2% to total mortality respectively³¹.

There are also evidences that there is an astronomical increase in incidences of hypertension and other CV risk factors and diseases in Nigeria. It was reported by Okunola *et al*³³, that CVD formed a large percentage of medical admissions in a study in Nigeria. There seems to be no national prevalence figure for any of the NCDs. But Kyari *et al*.³⁴ reported a national survey that puts the national prevalence of diabetes to be 2.8% (95% Confidence Interval: 2.6-3.1%) in persons aged \geq 15 years.

The incidence of all cancers in Nigeria, as at 2012, was reported in a report to be 100.1 per 100,000³⁵. The report also indicated that there were 102,100 new cases of cancer per year (excluding non-melanoma skin cancer), with 10.4% of Nigerians at the risk of getting any of the cancers before the age of 75. And with about 71,600 standing a chance of dying from cancer related deaths per year³⁵.

Intrauterine infections and exposure to teratogenic drugs in Nigeria

There are data suggesting high prevalence of congenital cytomegalovirus infection (cCMV) in developing countries, especially sub-Saharan Africa. However, the burden of disease and natural history of cCMV have still not been well defined³⁶. This assertion further lays credence to the huge gap that still needs to be filled in the roles played by intrauterine infections and exposure to teratogenic drugs, to the occurrence of congenital disorders in Nigeria.

Rubella virus was reported by Yahaya *et al.*³⁷ to be prevalent in Nigeria, particularly in pregnant women, based on evidence gathered from their systematic review. Yet there is still no surveillance nor national incidence figure to determine the prevalence of rubella among women of child bearing age and pregnant women. More importantly, vaccination against rubella is still not part of antenatal care nor among the diseases

recommended for vaccination in the National Program on Immunization despite growing evidences that rubella may have a large contribution to the high perinatal mortality rate in Nigeria³⁸.

Though, HIV and malaria have not been established as direct teratogens, in this context they are assumed as such because they: are of high prevalence in Nigeria; have been associated with poor maternal health during pregnancy and in addition, malaria in pregnancy often presents as asymptomatic infection in areas of stable malaria transmission, like Nigeria^{39,40}. The significance of this assumption further comes into play, when one considers the fact that Nigeria has the highest proportion of malaria cases globally (27%)⁴¹, and second highest burden of HIV in the world⁴². These high proportions of malaria and HIV in Nigeria is a massive problem, when one further considers the huge population of Nigeria, estimated to be around 195.88 million⁴³.

The prevalence and manifestation of malaria in pregnancy and in children vary with: transmission intensity, access to treatment and quality of antenatal services, and drug resistance, among others⁴⁴. Thus, the prevalence rates reported for malaria in Nigeria vary considerably. In South-West Nigeria, prevalence rates of between 36.5% and 72% have been reported 39,45,46. However, Agomo et al.47 reported a low prevalence of 7.7% (95% confidence interval; 6.29.4%) with a conclusion that their study exposed the over-diagnosis of malaria in pregnancy. This, they opined, might be due to inadequate training, experience, and motivation of laboratory staff in Nigeria as well as lack of malaria diagnosis quality assurance program to ensure the accuracy of malaria microscopy results at all levels. Luckily enough, no serious side birth defect has been linked with the concomitant infection of pregnant women with either HIV or malaria. Only severe maternal anemia, intrauterine growth retardation, intrauterine death, stillbirth, premature delivery and low birth-weight, have been associated with the presence of either one or two of the diseases in pregnancy⁴⁸⁻⁵¹.

Also, the use of antimalarial and antiretroviral medications by pregnant women may act as independent risk factors for fetal outcomes⁵². The treatment of choice for Plasmodium falciparum, that is the most common type of malaria in Nigeria, is artemisinin-based therapy (ACT)⁵³. Due to the combination associated risks of visceral and skeletal anomalies noticed in animal studies after exposure to artemisinins in early stages of pregnancy^{54,55}, WHO has not recommended the use of ACT in the first trimester, unless they are the only treatment available, or if the patient's life is threatened. Some studies have however established that these safety concerns may be unfounded since no association has been found between artemisinins drug exposure in early pregnancy and maternal or birth adverse outcomes 56-58. However, evidence is still scarce to ensure safety of ACT during the first trimester.

Antiretroviral medications, on the other hand, are prescribed for the treatment of the mother and to reduce the risk of transmission of HIV to the fetus in pregnant women, despite the absence of proof of safety ⁵⁷. This is not the norm with most other new pharmaceutical agents. However, no increased risk of malformations has been demonstrated for most of these antiretroviral compounds whereas others have been associated with malformations or developmental abnormalities in rats, mice or rabbits and, in the case of efavirenz, monkeys⁵⁸.

Community genetic services in Nigeria

Community genetics services are a compendium of activities for the diagnosis, care and prevention of genetic diseases at community level^{7,59,60}. The aim is to provide services for the diagnosis of congenital disorders and genetic diseases: clinical and laboratory (cytogenetics, biochemical assays, DNA testing, etc.); genetics counselling; preconception care; prenatal screening; prenatal and pre-implantation genetic diagnoses; newborn screening; carrier screening; and population genetic screening according to other established policies².

The Sickle Cell Foundation of Nigeria (SCFN) seems to be the most functional community genetics service center in Nigeria. But there are other centers in Nigeria where these services are also provided. The SCFN, like most

of these other centers, provides genetic counselling services and prenatal diagnosis of SCD using chorionic villus sampling, fetal blood sampling, amniocentesis methods, and offer posttest counselling²³. Even though, the emphasis of many of these centers is on the intrauterine diagnosis of SCD, they still, accidentally or otherwise, detect other congenital disorders in the process.

Many religious organizations, especially the Pentecostal churches in Nigeria, have made it mandatory for intending couples to undergo some tests, especially genotype, before they are solemnized in marriages, so as to reduce the incidences of these birth defects⁶¹. Some of these religious organizations also offer counselling services to carriers of genetic diseases and dissuade them from getting married. And when they are recalcitrant about going ahead with their marriage plans, such institutions deny them of their facilities and blessings⁶².

The Federal Government of Nigeria is working on policies that will serve as guidelines, and ensure that community genetics services become available, readily accessible affordable to all Nigerians. For now, the emphasis is on SCD, and to legalize this, there is a bill before the Nigerian senate that proposes compulsory genetic testing for all intending couples in Nigeria⁶³. The effective implementation of this bill, when it becomes a law, is expected to help in reducing marriages between carriers of SCD in Nigeria, and hopefully will reduce the incidence and prevalence of SCD in Nigeria.

Thirty-nine cleft care centers were identified by Oginni *et al*⁶⁴, in 22 states and the federal capital territory of Nigeria. This, they stated, was a significant improvement to what was available in Nigeria prior to 2006, but a dearth of professionals, especially speech pathologists and geneticists, are not making these centers to function optimally. They also observed that there are no identifiable efforts of government aside, funding training of residents in teaching hospitals in Nigeria and making these hospitals to be functional, to suggest that there are robust attempts to curtail the incidence and provide post repair services to cleft lip patients in Nigeria.

Clubfoot management in Nigeria is being spearheaded by the Ponseti Clubfoot Foundation in Nigeria, with clinics mostly in the Southwestern part of Nigeria and sparse representation in other parts. Though, there are other methods of et al.⁶⁵. correcting clubfeet, Adegbehingbe because of fewer reported that treatment complications, lower recurrence rates, more satisfactory early full correction outcomes and lower mean cost of care associated with the Ponseti method, there is an increasing use of this method of corrective intervention in Nigeria. Going by these advantages, the Ponseti method is thus considered the "gold standard" treatment for clubfoot health care workers in underprivileged areas of the world with limited access to surgical facilities⁶⁶. Assistance of government of Nigeria in the prevention and management of this condition has not been well reported.

Neural tube defects (NTD) was reported by Uba *et al*⁶⁷, to have an incidence of 0.5/1000 live births and 1.9% of all admissions in a study in North Central Nigeria. But there is no national data available for NTDs in Nigeria. However, there is an incontrovertible evidence linking the occurrence of NTD to inadequacy of folic acid in nutrition, before and during pregnancy⁶⁸. This thus calls for immediate and more forceful action of government in implementing this as a means of forestalling the occurrence of this defect in Nigeria.

Consanguineous marriages obviously exist in Nigeria, but not much studies have been done to show the true picture of it. However, among the three major tribes in Nigeria; Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo, Swanson and Lagace⁶⁹ stated that Muslim Hausa practice cousin marriage preferentially, but the actual prevalence of this is still uncertain. Scott-Emuakpori⁷⁰ reported 51% consanguineous marriages among resident of a town in Yoruba land, but this was not a general study of the Yoruba people, and that figure may not be relied upon as representative of the rate of consanguinity in Yoruba land. There is no evidence of consanguinity among the Igbos⁷¹, it is even believed that they specifically prohibit both parallel- and cross-cousin marriages. This review is significant because it further revealed the sparsity

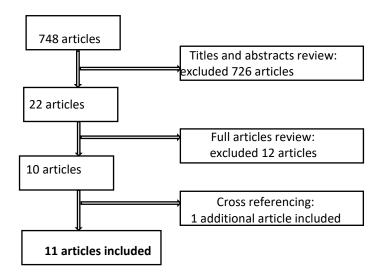


Figure 1: Illustration of the stepwise process of study selection

Table 1: A systematic review of birth prevalence of congenital malformations in South – South Nigeria

Author/Year	Study type	Study setting	Study duration	Total no. of live births (denominator)	Total no. of babies with CM (numerator)	Birth incidence I of CM (per1000 live births)	*Pattern of CM (incidence per 1000 live births)
1). Ekanem et al. (2008) ⁷²	Retrospective	Hospital based	1980 - 2003	127,929	452	3.5	SK (1.0), CNS (0.9), GUS (0.7), LPJ (0.4), GIT (0.2), RS (0.2), CA (0.1), E&E (0.1), CVS (0.01)
			1990 - 2003				CNS (1.8), SK
2). Ekanem et al. (2011) ⁷³	Retrospective (UPTH)	Hospital based. (UPTH)	1990 2003	19,572	78	4.0	(1.7), GUS (0.2), RS (0.1), GIT (0.1).
			1990 - 2003	3			
Ekanem <i>et al.</i> (2011) ⁷³	Retrospective (BMH)	Hospital based. (BMH)	1002 0005	20,121	47	2.3	CNS (0.8). SK (1.1), OSS (0.1), GUS (0.2),
			1992 - 2005				GIT (0.1)
3). Eluwa <i>et al</i> . (2013) ⁷⁴	Retrospective	Hospital based	August 2011 -	2,932	22	7.5	CNS (2.7), GIT (2.4). SK (1.4), UGS (0.7), CVS (0.3)
			December				. ,
4). Abbey <i>et al.</i> (2017) ⁷⁵	Retrospective	Hospital based	2014	7,670	159	20.7	CNS (5.6), GIT (2.5), CVS (2.2), AAW (1.7), SK 1.3), CA &UT
							(1.2), FACE (1.0) GT (0.5),

			January 1, 2006 -				N&S (0.3)
			December, 31, 2015				MSK (2.5), GIT (1.7),
5). Onyiriuka, Edorhe & Onyiriuka (2016) ⁷⁶	Retrospective	Hospital based	,	13,858	101	7.3	GUS (1.2), MCA (0.6), CNS (0.4), CVS (0.4), CUT (0.4), RS (0.2).

Table 2: A systematic review of birth prevalence of congenital malformations in South – East Nigeria

Author/Year	Study type	Study setting	Study duration	Total no. of live births (denominator)	Total no. of babies with CM (numerator)	Birth incidence of CM (per1000live births)	*Pattern of CM (incidence per 1000 live births)
1). Sunday- Adeoye, <i>et al</i> . (2007) ⁷⁷	Retrospective	Hospital based	January, 1980 December, 1999	32,206 –(singleton)	315 (singleton)	9.8	MSK (5.2), CNS (2.0), GIT (1.4), GUS (0.5), E&E (0.5) CUT (0.06).
Sunday-Adeoye, al. (2007) ⁷⁷	etRetrospective	Hospital based	January, 1980 – December, 1999	1,453 (twins)	58 (twins)	39.9	MSK (16.5), GIT (8.3), GUS (2.8), E&E (2.8), CNS (0.7).
2). Onyearugha and Onyire (2014) ⁷⁸	Retrospective	Hospital based	April 1, 2002 – March 31, 2012	14,446	61	4.2	GIT (1.52), MSK (1.30), CNS (0.06), RS (0.06)

Table 3: A systematic review of birth prevalence of congenital malformations in North – Central Nigeria

Author/Year	Study type	Study setting	Study duration	Total no. of live births (denominator)	Total no. of babies with CI (numerator)	Birth incidence M of CM (per1000 live births)	*Pattern of CM (incidence per 1000 live births)
1). Anyanwu, Danborno &Hamann (2015) ⁷⁹	Prospective	Hospital based	April 2013 - December 2013	1456	41	28.2	CNS (6.9), GUS (6.9), CUT (4.1), GIT (3.4), MCA (3.4), MSK (2.1).

Table 4: A systematic review of birth prevalence of congenital malformations in North – Eastern Nigeria

Author/Year	Study type	Study setting	Study duration	Total no. of live births (denominator)	Total no. of babies with CM (numerator)	Birth incidence I of CM (per1000 live births)	*Pattern of CM (incidence per 1000 live births)
11). Pius et al. (2018) ⁸⁰	Prospective	Hospital based	1st January 2016 30th June 2017	1,256	115	91.6	GIT (47.0), CNS (27.0), MCA (8.8), UGS (3.2), CVS (3.2).

Table 5: A systematic review of birth prevalence of congenital malformations in South – west Nigeria

Author/Year	Study type	Study setting	Study duration	Total no. of live births (denominator)	Total no. of babies with CM (numerator)	Birth incidence I of CM (per1000 live births)	*Pattern of CM (incidence per 1000 live births)
1). Bakare <i>et al.</i> (2009) ⁸¹	Prospective	Hospital based	August 2003 July 2004	624	43	68.9	MSK (33.7), EG (14.4), HEAD (12.8), ABD (11.2), MCA (8.0), CH (1.6), CUT (1.6)
2). Fajolu <i>et al</i> . (2016) ⁸²	Retrospective	Hospital based	January 2007 December 2014	14,581	167	11.5	CNS (3.6), MSK (2.1), UGS (1.3), DIG (1.1), CA (0.8), CVS (0.5), RS (0.3), MISC (1.8) (1

*UPTH: University of Port Harcourt Teaching Hospital, BMH: Braithwaite Memorial Hospital

*AAW: Anterior abdominal wall, ABD (Abdominal defects), CA: Chromosomal abnormalities CA&UT: Chromosomal abnormalities & urinary tract, CH (Chest), CNS: Central nervous system, CPS: Cardiopulmonary system CUT: Cutaneous, CVS: Cardiovascular system, DIG (Digestive), E&E: Eye & Ear, EG External Genitalia, FT: Fetal tumors, GIT: Gastrointestinal, GT: Genital tract, GUS: Genitourinary system, LPJ: Lip, palate & jaw anomalies MCA: Multiple congenital anomalies, Misc.: Miscellaneous, MSK: Musculoskeletal, N&S: Neck & skin, OSS: Oral & special senses, OC: Ocular cataract, RS: Respiratory system, SK: Skeletal system, U: Unclassified birth defects

of research works that can be relied on, to fully appreciate the burden of congenital disorders in Nigeria. It also showed that there is still a serious gap to fill in utilizing community genetics services in Nigeria, as it is being done in more scientifically advanced countries, to forestall the occurrence of birth defects.

Methods

A PubMed, EMBASE, Global Health Data Exchange and Google literature search was conducted on August, 8th, 2018, using the following search terms: "birth defects/congenital malformations in Nigeria," and "birth defects/congenital malformations incidence in

Nigeria" or "birth defects/congenital malformations prevalence in Nigeria". The search was limited to original research papers. No time restriction for publication dates was used. All titles and abstracts were screened for study population (live births, children), pattern of congenital malformation (CM) and birth prevalence. Studies were eligible if they reported the birth prevalence of all major CM in Nigeria based on incidence per live births.

After exclusion based on the title and abstract, full papers were carefully read and reconsidered according to all above mentioned inclusion and exclusion criteria. Studies not including the birth prevalence of all forms of CM

were excluded. When a study was eligible for inclusion, the denominator and numerator were verified and the estimated birth prevalence were recalculated to check accuracy. Studies with incorrect or missing denominators or numerator were excluded. References of selected papers were crosschecked with the same inclusion and exclusion criteria. The following study characteristics were registered: author/year, study type, study setting, study duration, total number of live births, birth prevalence of total CM and pattern of CM.

Results

Figure 1 shows a stepwise diagrammatic representation of the way, studies were selected during the systematic literature search of congenital malformations in Nigeria. Initial search yielded 748 potential eligible studies. After reading titles and abstracts, 726 papers were excluded based on the exclusion criteria listed above. Furthermore, a total of 12 papers were excluded after evaluation of full text and recalculating denominators and nominators. One additional paper was included after cross-referencing. At the end, of the search, a total of 11 papers were included in this systematic review.

Discussion

From this review, it is clear that there is a dearth of studies on CM in Nigeria. This is the same trend that has been prevalent in many parts of Africa when compared to the availability of extensive literatures on CM from other regions of the world, this was similarly observed by many African researchers. Ndibazza *et al.*⁸³, for example reported this same problem of sparsity of data on CM in Africa in their study. This review also revealed that most of the included studies were conducted in the South-South region of Nigeria. Also, like in many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, the prevalence of major CM in Nigeria cannot presently be precisely ascertained⁸³.

All the included studies were hospital based. The rates reported, in all the studies, varied as widely as the individual study conducted, between 2.0 and 91.6 per 1000 live birth. It was also observed from the results of this review that retrospective

study types tend to have lower birth incidences of CM compared to the prospective types. The reduced rate observed in retrospective studies may be due to human errors and health personnel incompetency. Ndibazza *et al.*⁸³ reported that only 22% of the CM they observed in their study were correctly identified by midwives at birth.

This review further showed that the pattern of CM in Nigeria seems to favor a predominance of those of the musculoskeletal (MSK) and gastrointestinal (GIT) systems, some other studies in sub-Saharan Africa also supported this findings, for example Ndibazza et al.83, reported the same predominance of the CM of the musculoskeletal system in their study conducted in Uganda. It is interesting to note, however, that the results of the studies done in the South-South region of Nigeria, according to this review, showed a remarkable departure from the above stated pattern. A predominance of those of the central nervous system (CNS) was observed, this has also been the trend reported in many studies done in Africa⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶.

This variance in CM pattern in the southsouth region, when compared to other regions of Nigeria, according to Obire and Amusan⁸⁷, was possibly due to an increase in environmental teratogens due to oil pollution, which has rendered lands and waters, of the area, useless for farming and fishing. This becomes a plausible reason because environmental teratogens have been associated with central nervous system anomalies in new born in many studies 88-90. Also, inadequacy of folate in nutrition, before and during pregnancy, has been incontrovertibly linked, in several studies, to the development of CM of the CNS^{91,92}. Folate is the natural form of folic acid and known to be abundantly present in seafood, groundnuts, whole grains, dark green leafy vegetables, fresh fruits, beans etc. 93. Oil pollution, due to the fact that it has a restrictive effect on the farming and fishing activities of the people of this area, may be a contributory factor, as well, to the preponderance of this type of birth defects in this area. However, a simple preventive measure of fortification of food may be enough to solve this problem. Arth et al.⁹⁴ have shown the efficacy of fortification of food as a way of preventing folic acid-preventable neural tube defects.

Conclusion

There are humongous evidences to support a heavy burden of birth disorders on Nigeria, like as in many LMIC, even though, there is a dearth of researches to clearly show this. Yet, the practice of community genetics is seriously lagging behind in Nigeria, like as in many LMIC, so there is an urgent need to address this. Several factors can be adduced to this overwhelming burden of birth disorders in Nigeria. These factors range from lack of political will; to dearth of skilled professionals; to lack of infrastructure; and to the restrictive impediments of adequate financing. But with Nigeria brandishing such statistics, it is now, and not later, that the public health system in Nigeria needs to adequately respond to the challenges of this worrisome trend. This can only be possible, if the Nigerian government can adopt a vibrant community genetics service, so as to ensure good health and well-being of all citizens and reducing childhood mortality due to congenital disorders. There is still an ample chance for the country to put her act together, and genuinely put measures in place geared towards meeting the objectives of the sustainable development goals by 2030.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this research, the following recommendations are thus of great importance:

- 1. A more engaging pedagogy should be adopted to pass across the benefits of community genetics to more Nigerians, inclusive of training programs for medical professionals.
- 2. Factual presentations to policy makers, highlighting the state of congenital disorders in Nigeria, and the need for them to fashion a national policy, in collaboration with WHO, to combat the scourge and the precautions the general public need to take, to put an end to this quagmire.
- 3. Extending the fortification of foods to more food products, especially rice, with some essential vitamins to prevent the occurrence of some birth defects attributable to poor nutritional practices.

- 4. Strengthening genetic counselling and prenatal diagnosis of congenital disorders, especially sickle cell disease that is rampant in Nigeria, and controlling malnutrition, intrapartum infections and other illnesses in pregnancy.
- 5. Including rubella immunization as part of the routine immunization programs in Nigeria.

Acknowledgement

No individual or organization has made any significant contribution to this research or the manuscript that needs to be acknowledged.

Statement of Ethics

The author has no ethical conflicts to disclose.

Conflict of Interest

The author has no conflicts of interest to declare.

Funding Source

The author has no funding source to declare.

Author Contributions

The entire work in this study was done by MKF.

References

- Ten Kate LP. Al-Gazali I, Anand S, Bittles AH,
 Cassiman JJ, Christianson A, Cornel MC, Hamamy
 H, Kaariainen H, Kristofersson U, Marais D,
 Penchaszadeh VB, Rhman P and Schimdtice J.
 Community genetics. Its definition. Journal of
 Community Genetics [Epub]. 2010; 1:19-22.
- WHO. Community genetics services Report of a WHO
 Consultation on community genetics in low- and
 middle-income countries. Geneva, Switzerland, 13–
 14 September 2010. Geneva, Switzerland: World
 Health Organization, 2011.
- WHO. Congenital anomalies. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization, 2015.
- Christianson A, Howson C and Modell B. March of Dimes Global report on birth defects the hidden tool of dying children and children with disabilities. New York: March of Dimes Birth Defects Foundation. 2006.
- WHO. Management of birth defects and hemoglobin disorders. World health Organization. Geneva, Switzerland. 2006.

- Czeizel A, Intôdy Z and Modell B. What proportion of congenital abnormalities can be prevented? British Medical Journal. 1993; 306(6876): 499-503. DOI:10.1136/bmj.306.6876.499.
- Nelson K and Holmes L. Malformations due to presumed spontaneous mutations in newborn infants. New England Journal of Medicine. 1989; 320:19-23.
- 8. Turnpenny P and Ellard S. (Eds.). Emery's Elements of Medical Genetics.12th ed. Livingstone, Edinburgh, United Kingdom: Elsevier Churchill, 2005.
- Christianson A and Modell B. Medical genetics in developing countries. Annual Review of Genomics and Human Genetics. 2004; 5:219-65.
- Seashore M and Wappner R. Genetics in Primary Care & Clinical Medicine. New York: Prentice-Hall International Inc., 1996.
- WHO. Resolutions. The World Health Assembly. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization. 2010
- Darmstadt G, Howson C, Walraven G, Armstrong R,
 Blencowe H and Christianson AE. Prevention of
 congenital disorders and care of affected children:
 A consensus statement. JAMA Pediatrics. 2016;
 170(8): 790-3.
 DOI:10.1001/jamapediatrics.2016.0388.
- World Bank. Data for Lower middle income, Nigeria. Washington, DC: The World Bank Group. 2018
- World Population Review. Nigeria Population 2018.
 World Population Review. 2018.
- WHO. Nigeria. Abuja, Nigeria: World Health Organization. 2018.
- UNICEF. Maternal and child health. Abuja, Nigeria: United Nations Children Fund. 2018. Available from:
- https://www.unicef.org/nigeria/children_1926.html.

 17. WHO. Prevention and control of birth defects in South-
- East Asia region: Strategic framework (2013-2017).

 New Delhi, India: World Health Organization.
 2013.
- Milewicz D. Classification of genetic disorders. In:
 Willerson J, Wellens H, Cohn J and Holmes D, eds.
 Cardiovascular Medicine. 2007. DOI:
 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-184628-715-2_123.
- Adeyokunnu A. The incidence of Down's syndrome in Nigeria. Journal of Medical Genetics. 1982; 19(4): 277-9.
- Adeyokunnu A. The incidence of Turner's syndrome in Ibadan, Nigeria. African Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences. 1982; 11(3): 105-12.
- CDC. Sickle Cell Disease. Atlanta, Georgia: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2012. Available from: https://www.cdc.gov/globalhealth/countries/nigeria/ what/scd.htm.
- Akinyanju O. The national burden of sickle cell disorder and the way forward. Lagos: Sickle Cell Foundation Nigeria. 2010. Available from:

- http://www.sicklecellfoundation.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/05/Nat-Burden-SCD.pdf.
- 23. Sickle Cell Foundation Nigeria. What is sickle cell disorders? Information about sickle cell disorder. Lagos, Nigeria: Sickle Cell Foundation Nigeria 2018. Available from: http://www.sicklecellfoundation.com/sickle-cell/what-is-sicklecell-disorder/.
- Molineaux L, Fleming A, Cornille-Brogger R, Kagan I and Storey J. Abnormal haemoglobins in the Sudan Savannah of Nigeria. III. Malaria, immunoglobulins and antimalarial antibodies in sickle cell disease. Ann Trop Med Parasitology. August 1979; 73(4): 301-10
- 25. Orimolade E, Adepiti A, Ikuomola A and Ige O. Congenital anomalies in a State Specialist Hospital; A Secondary Level of Healthcare. East and Central African Journal of Surgery. 2014; 19(2). Available from: file:///C:/Users/special%202/Downloads/107739-293997-1-PB.pdf.
- Iregbulem L. The incidence of cleft lip and palate in Nigeria. Cleft Palate Journal. July 1982; 19(3): 201-5.
- 27. Butali A, Adeyemo WI, Mossey PA, Olasoji HO, Onah II, Adebola A, Efunkoya AA, Akintububo A, James O, Adeosun OO, Ogunlewe MO, Ladeinde AJ, Mofikoya BO, Adeyemi MO, Ekhaguere OA, Emeka IC, Awoyale TA, and The Nigeria CRAN collaboration Prevalence of Orofacial Clefts in Nigeria. Thé Cleft Palate Cranio-facial J. May 2014 May; 51(3): 320-5. doi: 10.1597/12-135. Epub 2013 Apr 4. Available from: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC37 06513/.
- Abue AD, Nwachukwu, MI, Aniah, JA and Ayang U. Prevalence of Cleft Lip and Palate in Abuja Nigeria (From December2000 to December 2010), IOSR-JPBS. Jul. – Aug. 2013; 7 (2): 111-113. Available from: www.iosrjournals.org
- Omo-Aghoja VW, Omo-Aghoja L O, Ugboko VI,
 Obuekwe ON4, Saheeb BDO, FeyiWaboso P, and
 Onowhakpor A. Antenatal determinants of orofacial clefts in Southern Nigeria. African Health
 Sciences. March 2010; 10 (1).
- WHO. Non-communicable Diseases. Geneva, Switzerland: World health Organization. 2018. Available from: http://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/noncommunicable-diseases.
- 31. Commonwealth Health Online. Non-communicable diseases in Nigeria. Cambridge: Commonwealth of Nations. 2008.

 Available from: http://www.commonwealthhealth.org/africa/nigeria/non_communicable_diseases_in_nigeria/.
- 32. WHO. Non-communicable Diseases (NCD) Country Profiles, 2014-Nigeria. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization. 2014. Available from: http://www.who.int/nmh/countries/nga_en.pdf.

- Okunola O, Akintunde A and Akinwusi P. Some emerging issues in medical admission pattern in the tropics. Nigeria Journal of Clinical Practice. 2012; 15: 51-4.
- 34. Kyari F, Tafida A, Sivasubramaniam S, Murthy G, Peto T, Gilbert C and Group TN. Prevalence and risk factors for diabetes and diabetic retinopathy: results from the Nigeria national blindness and visual impairment survey. BMC Public Health 2014; 14: 1299. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-141299.
- CancerIndex. Nigeria. Lagos, Nigeria: CancerIndex. 2017. Available from: http://www.cancerindex.org/Nigeria.
- Olusanya B, Slusher T and Boppana S. Prevalence of congenital cytomegalovirus infection in Nigeria: a pilot study. Pediatric Infectious Diseases Journal 2015; 34(3): 3224.
 DOI:10.1097/INF.0000000000000555.
- 37. Yahaya H, Ibrahim A, Ahmad I and Yunusa I. Rubella Prevalence in Nigeria (1977–2015): An Update Review on the Impact. Annals of Experimental Biology. 2017; 5(2): 15-21. Available from: http://www.scholarsresearchlibrary.com/articles/rub ellaprevalence-in-nigeria-19772015-anupdate-review-on-the-impact.pdf.
- Bamgboye A, Afolabi K, Esumeh F and Enweani, I.
 Prevalence of rubella antibody in pregnant women in Ibadan, Nigeria. West African Journal of Medicine. Jul-Sep 2000; 23(3): 245-8.
- Anorlu R, Odum C and Essien E. Asymptomatic malaria parasitaemia in pregnant women at booking in a primary health care facility in a peri urban community in Lagos, Nigeria. African Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences 2001; 30: 39-41.
- Mockenhaupt F, Ulmen U, von Gaertner C, Bedu-Addo G and Bienzle U. Diagnosis of placental malaria. Journal of Clinical Microbiology. 2002; 40(1): 306– 8. DOI:10.1128/JCM.40.1.306-308.2002
- 41. WHO. Malaria. Brazzaville: World health Organization. 2017. Available from: http://www.afro.who.int/health-topics/malaria.
- 42. National Agency for the Control of AIDS. National HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework, 2017-2021. Abuja, Nigeria: National Agency for the Control of AIDS. 2017. Available from: https://www.childrenandaids.org/sites/default/files/2017-11/NATIONAL-HIV-ANDAIDS-STRATEGIC-FRAMEWORK.pdf.
- 43. World Population Review. Nigeria Population 2018. World Population Review. 2018. Available from: http://worldpopulationreview.com/countries/nigeria -population/.
- Chigozie JU, Dochka DD and Treasure NU. Effects of Maternal Plasmodium falciparum Malaria and HIV infection on Birth Weight in Southeastern Nigeria. McGill Journal of Medicine. 16 Nov 2009; 12(2). Available from: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC29 97242/.

- Okwa O. The status of malaria among pregnant women:
 a study in Lagos, Nigeria. African Journal of Reproductive Health, December, 2003; 7(3): 77-83.
- 46. Adefioye O, Adeyeba O, Hassan,l W and Oyeniran O. Prevalence of malaria parasite infection among pregnant women in Osogbo, southwest, Nigeria. American-Eurasian Journal of Scientific Research. 2007; 2: 43–45.
- Agomo C, Oyibo W, Anorlu R and Agama P. Prevalence of Malaria in Pregnant Women in Lagos, South-West Nigeria. Korean Journal of Parasitology. June 2009; 47(2): 179– 183. doi:10.3347/kjp.2009.47.2.179.
- 48. Steketee R, Nahlen B, Parise M and Menendez C. The burden of malaria in pregnancy in malaria endemic areas. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2001; 64: 28-35.
- Newman R, Hailemariam A, Jimma D, Degifie A, Kebede D, Rietveld AE, Nahlen BL, Barnwell JW, Steketee RW and Parise ME. Burden of malaria during pregnancy in areas of stable and unstable transmission in Ethiopia during a nonepidemic year. J Infect Dis. 2003; 187: 1765-72.
- Desai M, ter Kuile F and Nosten F. Epidemiology and burden of malaria in pregnancy. Lancet Infect Dis. 2007; 7: 93-104. DOI: 10.1016/S14733099 (07)70021-X, 7:93-104.
- Rogerson S and Boeuf P. New approaches to malaria in pregnancy. Parasitology. 2007; 134: 1883-93.
- WHO. Guidelines for the treatment of malaria: 2nd ed. Geneva, Switzerland: World health Organization. (2010).
- 53. WHO. Assessment of the safety of artemisinin compounds in pregnancy: report of two informal consultations convened in 2006. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization. 2007.
 - 54. White T and Clark R. Sensitive periods for developmental toxicity of orally administered artesunate in the rat. Birth Defects. Res B Dev Reprod Toxicol. 2008; 407-17. DOI:10.1002/bdrb.20157, 83:407-417.
- Adam I, Elhassan E, Omer E, Abdulla M, Mahgoub H and Adam G. Safety of artemisinins during early pregnancy, assessed in 62 Sudanese women. Ann Trop Med Parasitol. 2009; 103: 205-10. DOI: 10.1179/136485909X398285.
- Manyando C, Mkandawire R and Puma L. Safety of artemether-lumefantrine in pregnant women with malaria: results of a prospective cohort study in Zambia. Malar J. 2010; 9: 249. DOI: 10.1186/1475-2875-9-249.
- Mosha D, Mazuguni FM, Sevene E, Abdulla S and Genton B. Safety of artemetherlumefantrine exposure in first trimester of pregnancy: an observational cohort. Malar J. 2014; 13: 197. doi:10.1186/14752875-13-197.
- 58. Taylor G and Low-Beer N. Antiretroviral therapy in pregnancy: a focus on safety. Drug Saf. 2001; 24(9): 683-702.
- 59. Alwan A and Modell B. Community control of genetic

- and congenital disorders. Geneva, Switzerland: EMRO, World Health Organization. 1997.
- Penchaszadeh V. Preventing congenital anomalies in developing countries. Community Genetics. 2002; 5(1): 61-9.
- 61. Ukah A. The Redeemed Christian Church of God (RCCG), Nigeria. Local identities and global processes in African pentecoliasm [PhD Dissertation]. Germany: University of Bayreuth. 2003. [Cited 2018 June 20]. Available from: https://epub.unibayreuth.de/968/1/Ukah.pdf.
- 62. Udobang W. It's like millions of ants are biting my bones' fighting sickle cell disease in Nigeria. The Guardian Newspapers-Nigeria. Lagos, Nigeria: Guardian News and Media Limited. 2017 July 19. Available from: https://www.theguardian.com/globaldevelopment-professionalsnetwork/2017/jul/19/its-like-millions-of-ants-are-biting-mybones-fighting-sickle-cell-disease-innigeria.
- 63. Nigerian National Assembly. A bill for an act to provide for compulsory haemoglobin -genotype screening test before marriage conducted under the marriage act and before registration of new births under the birth, death, etc. (compulsory registration) act and for matter connected. Abuja, Nigeria: Nigerian National Assembly. 2017. Available from http://www.nassnig.org/document/download/8764.
- Oginni F, Oladele A, Adenekan A and Olabanji J. Cleft Care in Nigeria: Past, Present, and Future. The Cleft Palate-Craniofacial Journal. 2012; 50(3). DOI: 10.1597/12-057.
- 65. Adegbehingbe O, Oginni L, Ogundele J, Ariyibi A, Abiola P and Ojo O. Ponseti clubfoot management: changing surgical trends in Nigeria. The Iowa Orthopaedic Journal. Jan 2010; 30: 7-14. Available from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/47661854 _Ponseti_clubfoot_management_changing_surgical _trends_in_Nigeria.
- 66. Ponsetti Clubfoot Foundation. Articles. Nigeria: Ponsetti Clubfoot Foundation. 2018. [Cited 2018 June 24]. Available from: http://ponseticlubfootfoundation.org/index.php/component/content/article/2uncategorised/52-aboutnigerian-sustainable-clubfoot-programme.
- 67. Uba A, Isamade E, Chirdan L, Edino S, Ogbe M and Igun G. Epidemiology of neural tube defects in North Central Nigeria. African Journal of Paediatric Surgery. 2004; 1(1): 16-9. Available from: http://irepos.unijos.edu.ng/jspui/bitstream/123456789/619/1/AfrJPaediatrSurg11162476045_065240.pdf.
- 68. Smithells R, Sheppard S and Schorah C. Vitamin deficiencies and neural tube defects. Arch. Dis. Child. 1976; 51: 944–50.
- 69. Swanson E and Lagace R. Hausa. Ethnographic Atlas.

 Canterbury: Centre for Social Anthropology and
 Computing, University of Kent. 1967.
- 70. Scott-Emuakpori A. The Mutation Load in an African

- Population. Am J Hum Genet. 1974; 26(2): 674-82.
- 71. Schwimmer B. Kinship and social organization: an interactive tutorial. Igbo marriage patterns. University of Manitoba. 2003. Available from: https://umanitoba.ca/faculties/arts/anthropology/tut or/case_studies/igbo/igbo_marriage.h tml.
- 72. Ekanem TB, Okon DE, Akpantah AO, Mesembe OE, Eluwa MA and Ekong MB. Prevalence of congenital malformations in Cross River and Akwa Ibom states of Nigeria from 1980–2003. Congenit Anom (Kyoto). 2008; 48(4):167–170.
- Ekanem B, Bassey IE, Mesembe OE, Eluwa MA and Ekong MB. Incidence of congenital malformation in 2 major hospitals in Rivers state of Nigeria from 1990 to 2003. East Mediterr Health J. 2011; 17(9):701–705.
- Eluwa MA, Aneosong SA, Akpantah AO, Ekong MB, Asuquo OR and Ekanem TB. Congenital malformations recorded in four hospitals in central part of Cross River state, Nigeria. Int Journal of Pharmaceut. Sc. Invention. 2013; 2(10), 27-30.
- 75. Abbey M, Oloyede O, Bassey G, Kejeh BM, Otaigbe BE, Opara PI, Eneh AU and Akani CI. Prevalence and pattern of birth defects in a tertiary health facility in the Niger Delta area of Nigeria. Internal Journal of Women's Health, 2017; 9: 115—121. DOI: https://doi.org/10.2147/IJWH.S108905.
- 76. Onyiriuka A., Edorh S and Onyiriuka C. Congenital malformations in newborns as seen in a secondary healthcare institution in Benin City, Nigeria. Achaiki Iatriki, 2016; 35(2), 93-102. Retrieved August 10, 2018, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/31219792 0_Congenital_malformations_in_ne wborns_as_seen_in_a_secondary_healthcare_instit ution_in_Benin_City_Nigeria
- 77. Sunday-Adeoye I, Okonta P and Egwuatu V. Congenital malformation in singleton and twin births in rural Nigeria. Nigeria Postgrad. Medical Journal. 2007; 14(4), 277-80. Retrieved August 10, 2018, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/5686623_Congenital_malformations_in_single ton_and_twin_births_in_rural_Nigeria.
- 78. Onyearugha C and Onyire B. Congenital malformations as seen in a secondary healthcare institution in Southeast Nigeria. 2014; 9(2), 59-62. doi:10.4103/97831230.139163.
- Anyanwu L, Danborno B and Hanmann W. Birth prevalence of overt congenital anomalies in Kano metropolis: overt congenital anomalies in the Kano. Universal Journal of Public Health. 2015 3(2), 89-96. Retrieved August 8, 2018, from http://www.hrpub.org/download/20150301/UJPH6-17603445.pdf.
- 80. Pius S, Yenti M, Wabada S, Ibrahim HA, Bukar MA, Kullima AA, Dada BJ and Bello, M. Congenital birth defects, its incidence and management challenges in a poor resource health facility: A scenario from North-Eastern Nigeria. . International

- Journal of Clinical Medicine Research. 2018; 5 (2), 44-49. Retrieved August 9, 2018 from: http://www.aascit.org/journal/archive2?journalid=9 06&paperld=6629.
- 81. Bakare T, Sowande OA, Adejuyigbe OO, Chinda JY and Usang UE. Epidemiology of external birth defects in neonates in Southwestern Nigeria. Afr J of Paediatr Surg [serial online] 2009 [cited 2020 Feb 21]; 6: 28-30. doi:10.4103/0189-6725.48572. Available from: http://www.afrjpaedsurg.org/test.asp?2009/6/1/28/4 8572.
- Fajolu I, Ezenwa B, Akintan P and Ezeaka V. An 8 year review of major congenital abnormalities in a tertiary hospital in Lagos, Nigeria. Nigeria. Journal of Paediatrics. 2016; 43(3), 175-79. Retrieved August 10, 2018, from njpaediatics.com/4334.html.
- 83. Ndibazza J, Lule S, Nampijja M, Mpairwe H, Oduru G, Kiggundu M, Akello M, Muhangi L and Elliot AM. A description of congenital anomalies among infants in Entebbe, Uganda. Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol. 2011; Sep, 91(9): 857-861. doi10.1002/bdra.20838. Available from: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC32 72344/#_ffn_sectitle.
- 84. Ocheng J, Kiryowa H, Munabi I and Ibingira CB.
 Prevalence, nature and characteristics of external anomalies at Mulago Hospital. East and Central African Journal of Surgery 2011 (Mar/Apr); 16:1 26-30. Accessed on 24 Feb. 2020 from: http://www.bioline.org.br/request?11004
- 85. Mashuda F, Zuechner A, Chalya PL, Kidenya BR and Manyama M. Pattern and factors associated with congenital anomalies among young infants admitted to Bugando medical centre, Mwanza, Tanzania. BMC Res Notes. 2014; 7: 195. doi: 10.1186/1756-0500-7-195. Available from:

- $https://www.nbci.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC39~74194/\#_ffn_sectitle.$
- Delport SD, Christianson AL, van den Berg HJ,
 Wolmarans L and Gericke GS. Congenital anomalies in black South African live born neonates at an urban academic hospital. S Afr Med J. 1995; 85(1): 11-15.
- Obire O and Amusan F. The environmental impact of oilfield formation water on a freshwater stream in Nigeria. J Appl Sci Environ Manag. 2003; 7(1): 61-6.
- 88. Kuratsune M and Yoshimura T E. Epidemiologic study on Yusho, a poisoning caused by ingestion of rice oil contaminated with a commercial brand of polychlorinated biphenyls. Environ Health Perspect, 1972; 1: 119-28.
- Harada M. Congenital Minamata disease: intrauterine methylmercury poisoning. Teratology. 1978; 18: 285-8.
- Rogan W and Gladen BE. Congenital poisoning by polychlorinated biphenyls and their contaminants in Taiwan. Science. 1988; 241: 334-6.
- 91. Clarkson T. The three modern faces of mercury. Environ Health Perspect. 2002; 110(Suppl 1): 11-23.
- 92. Smithells R, Sheppard S and Schorah C. Vitamin deficiencies and neural tube defects. Arch. Dis. Child. 1976; 51: 944-50.
- 93. HSPH. Folate (Folic Acid)-vitamin B9. The nutrition source. Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health. 2020. Available from: https://www.hsph.havard.edu/nutritionsource/folic acid/.
- 94. Arth A, Kancherla V, Pachon H, Zimmerman S, Johnson Q and Oakley GJ. A 2015 global update on folic acid-preventable spina bifida and anencephaly. Birth Defects Res. A Clin Mol Teratol. 2016; 106(7): 520-9.