

The impact of stopping and starting indoor residual spraying on malaria burden in 14 districts of Uganda

Jane Namuganga

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

Adrienne Epstein (✉ adrienne.epstein@ucsf.edu)

University of California, San Francisco <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8253-6102>

Joaniter Nankabirwa

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

Arthur Mpimbaza

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

Moses Kiggundu

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

Asadu Sserwanga

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

James Kاپisi

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

Emmanuel Arinaitwe

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

Samuel Gonahasa

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

Jimmy Opigo

National Malaria Control Division

Chris Ebong

Infectious Diseases Research Collaboration

Sarah Staedke

London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine

Josephat Shililu

US President's Malaria Initiative – VectorLink Uganda Project

Michael Okia

US President's Malaria Initiative – VectorLink Uganda Project

Damian Rutazaana

National Malaria Control Division

Catherine Maiteki-Ssebuguzi

National Malaria Control Division

Kassahun Belay

US President's Malaria Initiative, USAID

Moses Kanya

Makerere University

Grant Dorsey

University of California, San Francisco

Isabel Rodriguez-Barraquer

University of California, San Francisco

Article

Keywords: malaria, disease control, insecticide, vector control intervention

Posted Date: December 29th, 2020

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-126095/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Version of Record: A version of this preprint was published at Nature Communications on May 11th, 2021. See the published version at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-22896-5>.

40 **Abstract**

41 The scale-up of malaria control efforts has led to marked reductions in malaria burden over the
42 past twenty years, but progress has slowed. Implementation of indoor residual spraying (IRS) of
43 insecticide, a proven vector control intervention, has been limited and difficult to sustain partly
44 because questions remain on its added impact over widely accepted interventions such as bed
45 nets. Using data from 14 enhanced surveillance health facilities in Uganda, a country with high
46 bed net coverage yet high malaria burden, we estimate the impact of starting and stopping IRS.
47 We show that stopping IRS resulted in a 5-fold increase in malaria incidence within 10 months,
48 but reinstating IRS led to an over 5-fold decrease within 8 months. In areas where IRS was
49 initiated and sustained, malaria incidence dropped by 85% after year 4. IRS could play a critical
50 role in achieving global malaria targets, particularly in areas where progress has stalled.

51

52 **Introduction**

53 Over the past twenty years the scale-up of malaria control efforts has led to marked reductions in
54 morbidity and mortality^{1,2}. However, global progress has slowed in recent years, particularly in
55 sub-Saharan Africa, which accounted for 93% of the world's 228 million cases in 2018². Long-
56 lasting insecticidal nets (LLINs) and indoor residual spraying of insecticide (IRS) are the
57 primary vector control interventions used for the prevention of malaria. The World Health
58 Organization recommends universal coverage of LLINs for at-risk populations in sub-Saharan
59 Africa, where the proportion of households owning at least one LLIN is estimated to have
60 increased from 47% in 2010 to 72% in 2018. Until recently, pyrethroids were the only class of
61 insecticides approved for use in LLINs and, given the emergence of widespread pyrethroid
62 resistance^{3,4}, there is concern that the effectiveness of LLINs may be diminishing. Unlike LLINs,
63 IRS has the advantage of utilizing multiple different classes of insecticides and combining IRS
64 with LLINs may improve malaria control and slow the spread of pyrethroid resistance. However,
65 few controlled trials have evaluated the effect of adding IRS to communities using LLINs and
66 the evidence is mixed, with a few studies showing benefits when IRS included 'non-pyrethroid-
67 like' insecticides⁵. Other barriers to IRS delivery – including cost, logistics, and community
68 acceptance – have limited its use⁶, such that less than 5% of the population at risk in sub-Saharan
69 Africa was protected by IRS in 2018, a decrease from over 10% coverage in 2010².

70

71 Uganda is illustrative of a country where the burden of malaria remains high and progress has
72 slowed in recent years². Malaria control efforts in Uganda have primarily focused on LLINs. In
73 2013-14 it became the first country to implement a universal LLIN distribution campaign, which
74 was repeated in 2017-18. In 2018-19, Uganda had the highest coverage of LLINs in the world,

75 with 83% of households reported owning at least one LLIN⁷. In contrast to LLINs, the
76 implementation of IRS in Uganda has been focal and limited. In 2006, IRS was reintroduced into
77 Uganda for the first time since the 1960s. In 2007-09, the IRS program was shifted to 10 high
78 burden districts in the north, leading to large reductions in malaria burden^{8,9}. In 2014, the IRS
79 program was relocated from these 10 northern districts to 14 districts in the eastern part of the
80 country, where it has been sustained. The discontinuation of IRS in the 10 northern districts was
81 followed by a marked resurgence in malaria cases^{10,11}, prompting the implementation of a single
82 round of IRS in these 10 districts in 2017.

83

84 In this study, we used data from a network of health facility-based malaria surveillance sites to
85 evaluate the impact of different IRS delivery scenarios in 14 districts in Uganda. This study had
86 three objectives: (1) to estimate the impact of withdrawing IRS after five years of sustained use
87 on the burden of malaria in three sites in Northern Uganda; (2) to estimate the impact of
88 restarting IRS with a single round three to four years after IRS was discontinued on the burden of
89 malaria in nine sites in Northern Uganda; and (3) to estimate the impact of five years of
90 sustained IRS on the burden of malaria in five sites in Northern and Eastern Uganda.

91

92 **Results**

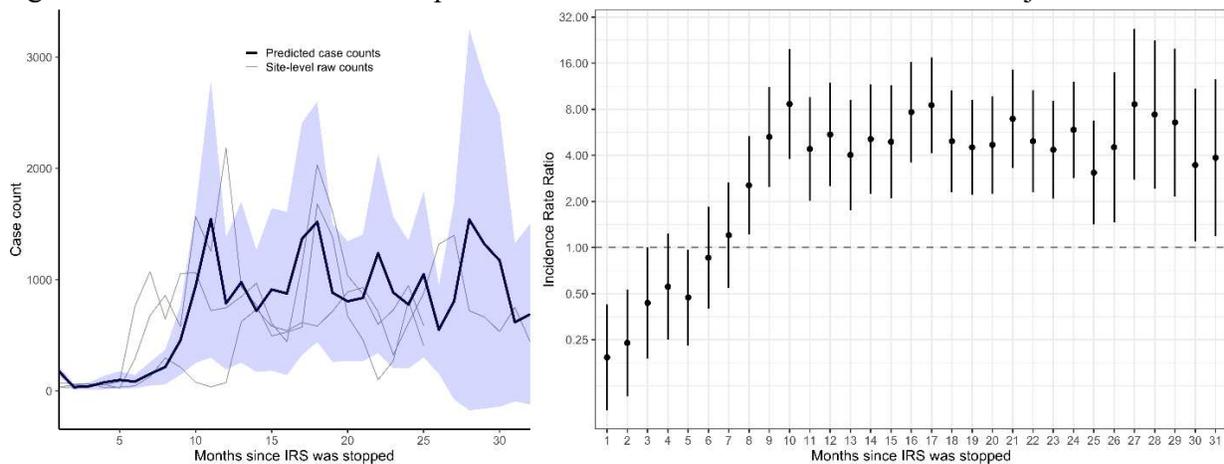
93 **Impact of withdrawing IRS after sustained use**

94 Across the three sites included in the analysis, a total of 224,859 outpatient visits were observed
95 (Table 1). During the baseline period, average monthly cases ranged from 104-272 and TPR
96 ranged from 23.7%-25.9%. This increased to 491-751 and 52.3%-78.0% respectively, during the
97 evaluation period (Supplementary Fig S1).

98

99 Monthly adjusted IRRs and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the three sites combined are
100 presented in Fig 1 and Supplementary Table S1. These results showed an initial reduction in
101 malaria cases after the final round of IRS relative to the baseline period until (adjusted IRR in the
102 first month after IRS = 0.19, 95% CI 0.09-0.42) about four to five months after the final IRS
103 campaign when malaria cases began to increase. Over the 10-31 months after IRS was stopped,
104 the number of malaria cases increased by over 5-fold relative to the baseline period (adjusted
105 IRR = 5.24, 95% CI 3.67-7.50). This corresponds to predicted case counts of near zero
106 immediately following final IRS campaign followed by an increase to about 1000 cases per
107 month at each site (Fig 1). These results were consistent when considering only laboratory-
108 confirmed cases unadjusted for testing rates (Supplementary Fig S2).

109 **Fig 1. Adjusted IRR and predicted case counts from multilevel negative binomial model**
110 **assessing the impact of withdrawing IRS after 5 years of sustained use.** The blue shaded
111 region represents the 95% confidence interval around the predicted case counts from the adjusted
112 regression model. Vertical bars represent the 95% confidence interval around adjusted IRR.



113

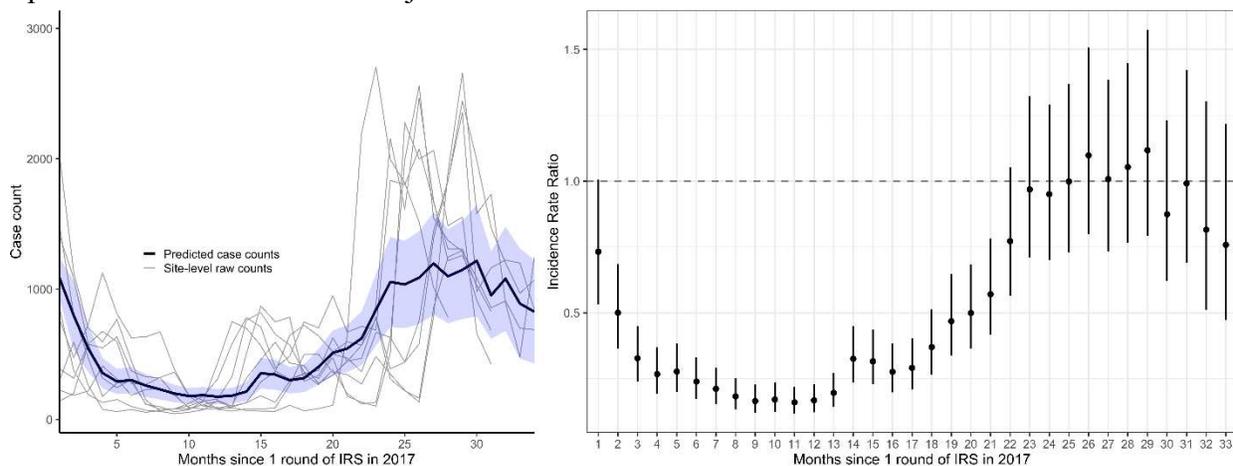
114

115 **Impact of restarting IRS with a single round**

116 A total of 858,380 outpatient visits were recorded across the analysis period for the nine sites.
117 (Table 2). Mean monthly malaria cases ranged from 643-1,569 and the TPR ranged from 56.5%-

118 84.7% during the baseline period. These ranges were 501-762 and 48.5%-72.0% respectively
 119 during the evaluation period. Temporal trends of laboratory-confirmed malaria cases over time
 120 for the individual health facilities are presented in Supplementary Fig S3.
 121
 122 Monthly adjusted IRRs and 95% CI for the nine sites combined are presented in Fig 2 and
 123 Supplementary Table S2. The single round of IRS led to a reduction in malaria cases until
 124 approximately 23 months post-IRS. Over the 8-12 months after the single round of IRS, malaria
 125 cases decreased by over 5-fold relative to the baseline period (adjusted IRR = 0.17, 95% CI 0.15-
 126 0.20). After 23 months following the single round of IRS, malaria cases returned to a level
 127 similar to the baseline period before the single round of IRS (adjusted IRR for months 23-31 =
 128 1.06, 95% CI 0.92-1.21). These results were consistent when considering only laboratory-
 129 confirmed cases unadjusted for testing rates (Supplementary Fig S4).

130 **Fig 2. Adjusted IRR and predicted case counts from multilevel negative binomial model**
 131 **assessing the impact of restarting IRS with a single round.** The blue shaded region represents
 132 the 95% CI around the predicted case counts from the adjusted regression model. Vertical bars
 133 represent the 95% CI around adjusted IRR.



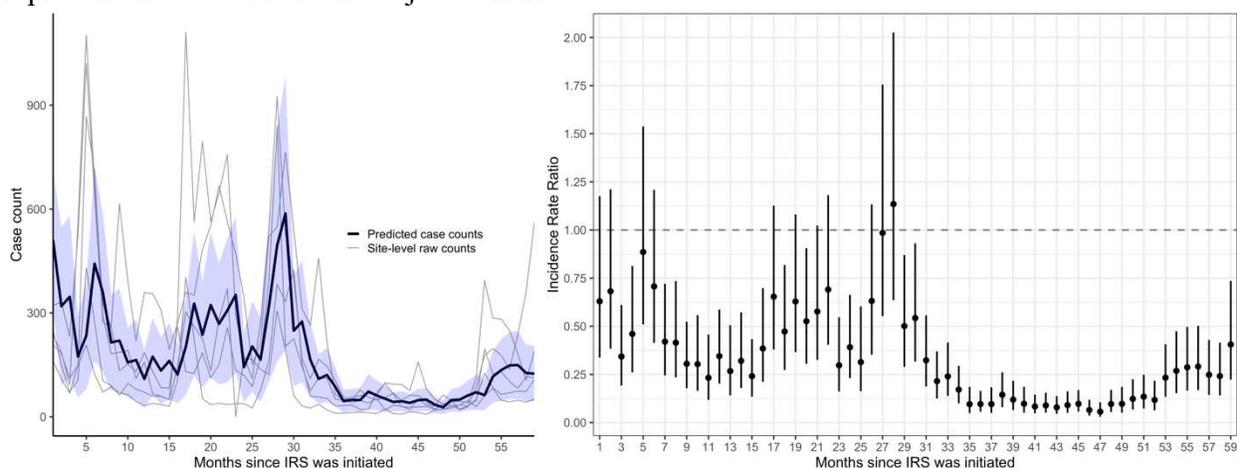
134
 135
 136
 137 **Impact of initiating and sustaining IRS**

138 In total, 574,587 outpatient visits were observed across the five sites included in the analysis.
 139 (Table 3). During the baseline period, average monthly malaria cases adjusted for testing rates

140 ranged from 286-657 and the TPR ranged from 25.4%-67.0%. This range decreased to 85-289
 141 for malaria cases and 13.8%-45.3% for the TPR during the evaluation period. Temporal trends of
 142 laboratory-confirmed malaria cases over time for the individual health facilities are presented in
 143 Supplementary Fig S5.

144 Monthly adjusted IRRs and 95% CI for the five sites combined are presented in Fig 3 and
 145 Supplementary Table S3. There was a modest overall reduction in malaria case counts in the first
 146 three years after IRS was initiated relative to the baseline period, with some peaks in case counts
 147 returning to near baseline levels just prior to when rounds of IRS were administered. However,
 148 after the third year of sustained use, malaria case counts dropped substantially and remained low
 149 relative to the period before IRS was initiated. In the 4th and 5th year after IRS was initiated and
 150 sustained, malaria cases dropped by 85% (adjusted IRR = 0.15, 95% CI 0.12-0.18). These results
 151 were consistent when considering only laboratory-confirmed cases unadjusted for testing rates
 152 (Supplementary Fig S6).

153 **Fig 3. Adjusted IRR and predicted case counts from multilevel negative binomial model**
 154 **assessing the impact of initiating and sustaining IRS.** The blue shaded region represents the
 155 95% CI around the predicted case counts from the adjusted regression model. Vertical bars
 156 represent the 95% CI around adjusted IRR.



157
 158
 159

160 **Discussion**

161 Uganda has been exceptionally successful in scaling-up coverage of LLINs. Following the mass
162 distribution campaigns to deliver free LLINs in 2013-14 and 2017-18, 90% and 83% of
163 households respectively reported ownership of at least one LLIN^{7,12}. However, despite this
164 success, the burden of malaria remains high in much of the country. Uganda had the 3rd highest
165 number of malaria cases reported in 2018, with reported case incidence increasing since 2014². If
166 Uganda is to achieve the goals established by the World Health Organization's Global Technical
167 Strategy for malaria including reducing malaria case incidence by at least 90% by 2030 as
168 compared with 2015¹³, additional malaria control measures will be needed. This report
169 highlights the critical role of IRS in substantially reducing the burden of malaria in areas where
170 transmission remains high despite deployment of LLINs. Withdrawing IRS after five years of
171 sustained use in three districts in northern Uganda resulted in a more than 5-fold increase in
172 malaria cases within 10 months. Re-starting IRS with a single round in nine districts in Northern
173 Uganda approximately three years after IRS had been stopped led to a transient but important
174 (more than a 5-fold) decrease in malaria cases within 8-12 months, returning to pre-IRS levels
175 after 23 months. Initiating and sustaining IRS in five districts in Eastern Uganda led to a gradual
176 reduction in malaria cases reaching almost a 7-fold reduction after 4-5 years.

177

178 Robust evidence supports the widespread use of LLINs for malaria control. In a systematic
179 review of clinical trials conducted between 1987 and 2001, insecticide treated nets reduced all
180 cause child mortality by 17% and the incidence of uncomplicated *P. falciparum* malaria by
181 almost half¹⁴. However, there is concern that the effectiveness of LLINs may be diminishing due
182 to widespread resistance to pyrethroids which until recently were the only class of insecticides

183 approved for LLINs. Similar to many other African countries, high-level resistance to
184 pyrethroids among the principle *Anopheles* vectors has been reported recently throughout
185 Uganda¹⁵⁻¹⁷. In addition, behavioral changes in vector biting activity following the introduction
186 of LLINs have been reported which could present new challenges for malaria control¹⁸⁻²⁰.
187 Finally, the effectiveness of LLINs may be further compromised by poor adherence and waning
188 coverage in the setting of free distribution campaigns done intermittently. In Uganda, less than
189 18% of households reported adequate coverage (defined as at least one LLIN per 2 residents)
190 three years after the 2013-14 distribution campaign²¹ and adequate coverage decreased from 71%
191 to 51% between 6 and 18 months following the 2017-18 distribution campaign²². Although the
192 World Health Organization recommends mass distribution campaigns every three years,
193 mounting evidence suggests that LLINs should be distributed more frequently to sustain high
194 coverage²³⁻²⁹.

195
196 Given concerns about the current effectiveness of pyrethroid-based LLINs and the persistently
197 high burden of malaria despite aggressive scale up of LLINs in countries like Uganda, additional
198 malaria control measures are needed. IRS is an attractive option. Historically, IRS programs
199 were used to dramatically reduce and even eliminate malaria in many parts of the world. Thus, it
200 is surprising that the evidence base from contemporary controlled trials on the impact of adding
201 IRS to LLINs for vector control is limited. A recent systematic review of cluster randomized
202 controlled trials conducted in sub-Saharan Africa since 2008, reported that adding IRS using a
203 “pyrethroid-like” insecticide to LLINs did not provide any benefits, while adding IRS with a
204 “non-pyrethroid-like” insecticide produced mixed results⁵. Among the four trials comparing IRS
205 plus LLINs with LLINs alone, three evaluated IRS with a carbamate (bendiocarb) and one

206 evaluated a long-lasting organophosphate, pirimiphos-methyl (Actellic 300CS®)³⁰⁻³³. Only two
207 trials (both using bendiocarb) assessed malaria incidence; one from Sudan found a 35%
208 reduction when adding IRS to LLINs³¹, while another from Benin found no benefit of adding
209 IRS³⁰. All four trials assessed parasite prevalence, with an overall non-significant trend towards
210 a lower prevalence when adding IRS to LLINs (RR=0.67, 95% CI 0.35-1.28)⁵. However, when
211 the analyses were restricted to include only the two studies with LLIN usage over 50%, adding
212 IRS reduced parasite prevalence by over 50% (RR=0.47, 95% CI 0.33-0.67)⁵. Of note, none of
213 the trials that evaluated the impact of adding IRS with a “non-pyrethroid-like” insecticide
214 assessed outcomes beyond two years. More recently, a number of observational studies have
215 reported benefits of using IRS with pirimiphos-methyl (Actellic 300CS®). In the Mopti Region
216 of Mali, delivery of a single round of IRS with Actellic 300CS® was associated with a 42%
217 decrease in the peak incidence of laboratory confirmed malaria cases reported at public health
218 facilities³⁴. In the Koulikoro Region of Mali, villages that received a single round of IRS with
219 Actellic 300CS® combined with LLINs observed a greater than 50% decrease in the incidence
220 of malaria compared to villages that only received LLINs³⁵. In the Northern Region of Ghana,
221 districts that received IRS with Actellic 300CS® reported 26-58% fewer cases of laboratory
222 confirmed malaria cases reported at public health facilities over a two-year period, compared to
223 districts that did not receive IRS³⁶. In Northern Zambia, implementation of IRS with Actellic
224 300CS® targeting only high burden areas over a three year period was associated with a 25%
225 decline in parasite prevalence during the rainy season, but no decline during the dry season³⁷. In
226 Western Kenya, the introduction of a single round of IRS with Actellic 300CS® was associated
227 with a 44-65% decrease in district level malaria case counts over a 10 month period compared to
228 pre-IRS levels³⁸. In addition, several recent reports have documented dramatic resurgences

229 following the withdrawal of IRS with bendiocarb in Benin³⁹, and the withdrawal of IRS with
230 Actellic 300CS® in Mali and Ghana^{34,36}.

231
232 The results from this study provides additional support for the critical role IRS can play in
233 reducing the burden of malaria in African countries with high LLINs coverage. We analyzed a
234 large, rigorously collected dataset, which is a strength of study. Data were collected over nearly
235 seven years through an enhanced health facility-based surveillance system covering 14 districts
236 in Uganda where IRS was being withdrawn, re-started, and initiated. This enhanced surveillance
237 system facilitated laboratory testing and provided prospectively collected, individual-level data,
238 allowing for analyses of quantitative changes in laboratory-confirmed cases of malaria over time,
239 controlling for temporal changes in rainfall, seasonal effects, diagnostic practices, and health
240 seeking behavior. Previous work by our group documented a marked decrease in malaria test
241 positivity rates after four years of sustained IRS with bendiocarb in one district of Northern
242 Uganda followed by a rapid resurgence over an 18-month period after IRS was withdrawn¹¹. In
243 this study we expand on these findings by including data from three districts and covering a 31-
244 month period following the withdrawal of IRS. We were able to quantify more than a 5-fold
245 increase in malaria cases which was sustained over the 10-31 months following the withdrawal
246 of IRS. This marked resurgence occurred despite the fact the first universal LLIN distribution
247 campaign was timed to occur right after IRS was withdrawn. Given the dramatic nature of the
248 resurgence, the Ugandan government was able to procure funding for a single round of IRS with
249 Actellic 300CS® approximately three years after IRS was withdrawn in 10 districts of Northern
250 Uganda. In this study, we assessed the impact of this single round in nine of these districts. This
251 single round was associated with over a 5-fold decrease in malaria cases after 8-12 months, with

252 malaria cases returning to pre-IRS levels after almost 2 years. These data suggest that IRS with
253 longer-acting formulations such as Actellic 300CS® administered every 2 years may be a cost-
254 effective strategy for mitigating the risk of resurgence following sustained IRS and/or enabling
255 countries to expand coverage when resources are limited. This study also evaluated the impact of
256 five years of sustained IRS in 5 districts of Eastern Uganda, starting first with bendiocarb and
257 then switching to Actellic 300CS® after 18 months. Rounds of IRS were initially associated with
258 marked decreases in malaria cases followed by peaks before subsequent rounds until the 4th and
259 5th years after IRS was initiated when there was a sustained decrease of almost 7-fold compared
260 to pre-IRS level. Given the before-and-after nature of our study design, it is not clear whether the
261 maximum sustained benefits of IRS seen after 4-5 years were due to the cumulative effect of
262 multiple rounds of IRS, the switch from bendiocarb to Actellic 300CS®, the second universal
263 LLIN distribution campaign which occurred in this area in 2017, and/or other factors.

264

265 This study had several limitations. First, we used an observational study design, with measures
266 of impact based on comparisons made before-and-after key changes in IRS policy. Although
267 cluster randomized controlled trials are the gold standard study design for estimating the impact
268 of IRS, it could be argued that withholding IRS would be unethical, given what is known about
269 its impact in Uganda. Second, our estimates of impact could have been confounded by secular
270 trends in factors not accounted for in our analyses. However, we feel that our overall conclusions
271 are robust given the large amount of data available from multiple sites over an extended period
272 with multiple complementary objectives providing consistent findings. Third, we could not
273 assess the impact of IRS independent of LLIN use and did not have access to measures of IRS or
274 LLIN coverage from our study populations. However, we were able to provide a “real world”

275 assessment of IRS in a setting where LLIN use is strongly supported by repeated universal
276 distribution campaigns that are becoming increasingly common in sub-Saharan Africa. Finally,
277 our study outcome was limited to case counts of laboratory confirmed malaria captured at health
278 facilities. Thus, we were unable to measure the impact of IRS on other important indicators such
279 as measures of transmission intensity, parasite prevalence, or mortality.

280

281 There is a growing body of evidence that combining LLINs with IRS using “non-pyrethroid-
282 like” insecticides, especially the long acting organophosphate Actellic 300CS®, is highly
283 effective at reducing the burden of malaria in Uganda, and elsewhere in Africa. Despite these
284 encouraging findings, IRS coverage in Africa has been moving in the wrong direction. The
285 proportion of those at risk protected by IRS in Africa peaked at just over 10% in 2010. However,
286 the spread of pyrethroid resistance has led many control programs to switch to more expensive
287 formulations resulting in a 53% decrease in the number of houses sprayed between years of peak
288 coverage and 2015 across 18 countries supported by the U.S. President’s Malaria Initiative⁴⁰ and
289 an overall reduction in the proportion protected by IRS in Africa to less than 5% in 2018². Given
290 the lack of recent progress in reducing the global burden of malaria coupled with challenges in
291 funding, renewed commitments are needed to address the “high burden to high impact” approach
292 now being advocated by the World Health Organization². IRS is a widely available tool that
293 could be scaled up, however demands currently exceed the availability of resources. Additional
294 work is needed to optimize the use of IRS, prevent further spread of insecticide resistance, and
295 better evaluate the cost effectiveness of IRS in the context of other control interventions.

296

297 **Methods**

298 **Study sites and vector control interventions**

299 This study utilized data from 14 health facilities located in 14 districts in Northern and Eastern
300 Uganda (Fig 4) which were part of a larger comprehensive malaria surveillance network called
301 the Uganda Malaria Surveillance Program (UMSP). Between 2007 and 2009, IRS was
302 implemented in 10 high burden districts in northern Uganda. DDT or pyrethroids were initially
303 used but in 2010 the insecticide was changed to a carbamate (bendiocarb) due to concern
304 regarding the spread of pyrethroid resistance. Rounds of bendiocarb were repeated
305 approximately every 6 months until 2014 when the IRS program was discontinued, so that
306 resources could be shifted to other high burden districts. In 2017, these 10 districts in northern
307 Uganda received a single round of the organophosphate pirimiphos-methyl (Actellic 300CS®)
308 following reports of malaria resurgence after IRS has been discontinued in 2014. Between 2014
309 and 2015, IRS with bendiocarb was implemented in 14 districts in the Northern and Eastern part
310 of the country. Rounds of bendiocarb were repeated approximately every six months until 2016
311 when the formulation was changed to Actellic 300CS®, which continues to be administered once
312 a year.

313

314

315

316

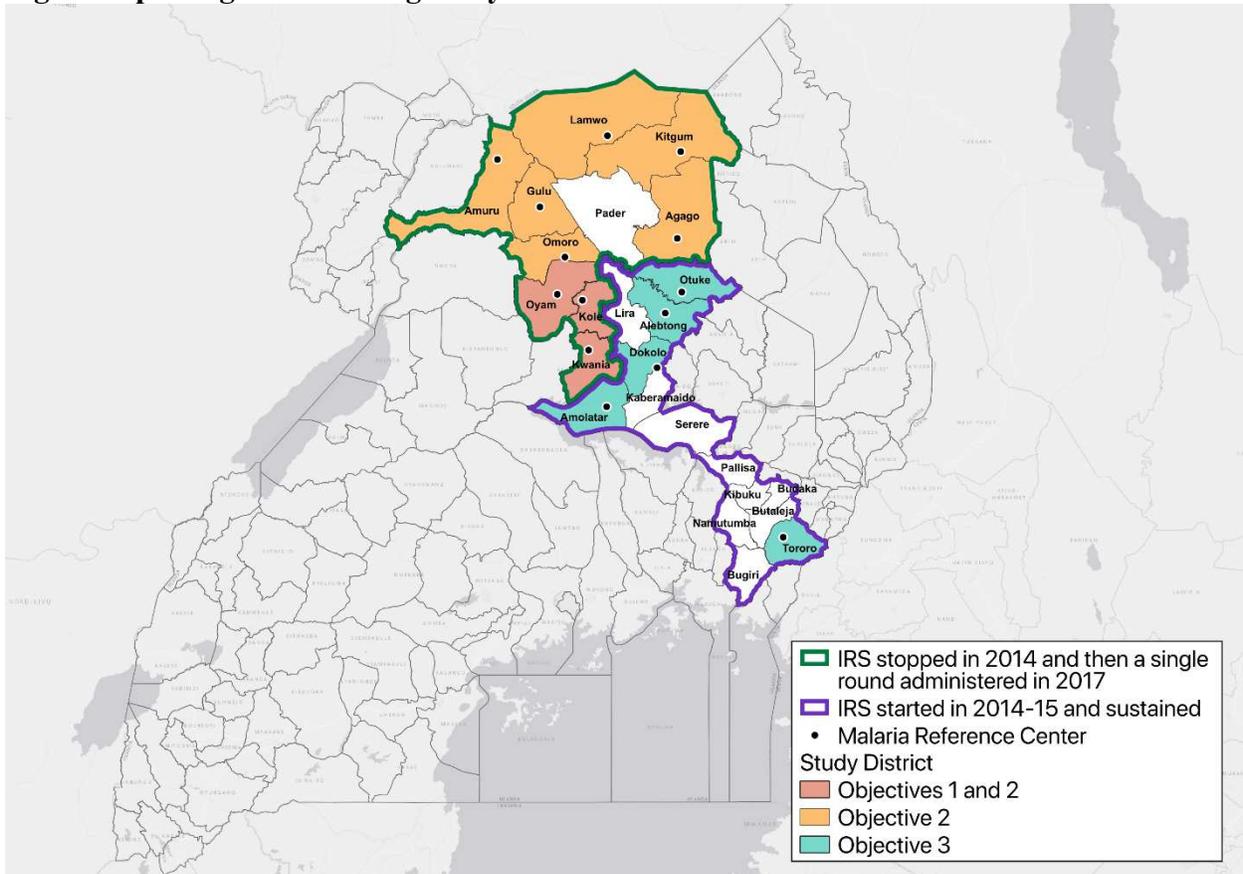
317

318

319

320

321 **Fig 4. Map of Uganda showing study sites and IRS districts.**



324 Universal LLIN distribution campaigns were conducted in 2013-14 and 2017-18, where LLINs
325 were distributed free-of-charge by the Uganda Ministry of Health targeting 1 LLIN for every two
326 household residents.

327

328 **Health-facility based surveillance**

329 Enhanced malaria surveillance was established by UMSP in 2006, as previously described ⁴¹.

330 UMSP operates Malaria Reference Centers (MRCs) at 70 level III/IV public health facilities

331 across Uganda. At each MRC, individual-level data from standardized registers for all patients

332 presenting to the outpatient departments are entered into an Access database by on-site data entry

333 officers. Variables include patient demographics, results of laboratory testing for malaria (rapid

334 diagnostic test [RDT] or microscopy), diagnoses given, and treatments prescribed. Emphasis is
335 placed on ensuring that patients with suspected malaria undergo testing, by either RDT or
336 microscopy.

337

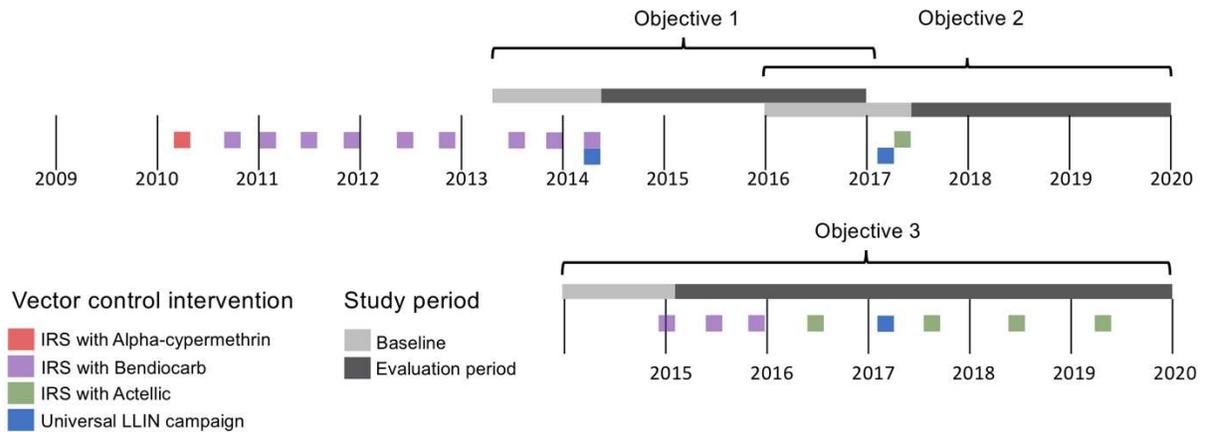
338 This study utilized data from 14 MRCs located in districts that either previously had IRS or have
339 ongoing IRS campaigns. We estimated the impact of withdrawing IRS using data from three
340 sites in Northern Uganda that had at least six months of data preceding the final round of IRS
341 administered in 2014. To estimate the impact of restarting IRS with a single round administered
342 in 2017, we used data from nine sites in Northern Uganda. To estimate the impact of sustained
343 IRS over five years, we used data from five sites in Eastern Uganda where IRS had been
344 implemented since 2014-15.

345

346 **Measures**

347 **Exposure.** The exposure was specified as an indicator variable for each month since IRS was
348 withdrawn or initiated relative to a baseline period (Fig 5 and Supplementary Fig S7). We also fit
349 separate models with categorical exposure variables divided into distinct periods of months. To
350 determine the impact of withdrawing IRS after at least five years of sustained use, the baseline
351 period was defined as the final year of sustained IRS use, and the evaluation period lasted
352 through 2016, prior to when an additional round of IRS was implemented. In order to determine
353 the impact of restarting IRS with a single round of IRS, the baseline period was defined as one
354 year prior to the single round of IRS and the evaluation period went through December 2019. To
355 determine the impact of initiating and sustaining IRS, the baseline period was the year prior to
356 IRS initiation, and the evaluation period lasted through December 2019.

357 **Fig 5. Timeline summarizing the dates of IRS campaigns, baseline and evaluation periods.**
 358 Objective 1 is to assess the impact of withdrawing IRS after five years of sustained use;
 359 Objective 2 is to assess the impact of restarting IRS with a single round; and Objective 3 is to
 360 assess the impact of initiating and sustaining IRS.
 361



362 **Outcome.** The primary outcome was the monthly count of laboratory-confirmed malaria cases at
 363 each MRC. The case count was corrected for testing rates by multiplying the number of
 364 individuals with suspected malaria but not tested each month by the test positivity rate (the
 365 number who tested positive divided by the total number tested) for that month and adding the
 366 result to the number of laboratory-confirmed positive cases. As a sensitivity analysis, we re-
 367 specified the models including only laboratory-confirmed case counts as the outcome.
 368
 369

370
 371 **Covariates.** We adjusted for time-varying variables that impact malaria burden and malaria case
 372 detection at the health facility. These variables included average rainfall at the health facility
 373 lagged by 1 month, indicator variables for month of the year (to adjust for seasonal effects), the
 374 proportion of tests that were RDTs in that month (vs. microscopy), and the number of individuals
 375 who attended the health facility but were not suspected of having malaria in that month (to adjust
 376 for care-seeking behaviors).

377

378 **Statistical analysis**

379 For each objective, we specified mixed effects negative binomial regression models with random
380 intercepts for health facility. Coefficients for the exposure variable were exponentiated to
381 represent the incidence rate ratio (IRR) comparing the incidence of malaria in the month of
382 interest relative to the baseline period. This method assumes that the underlying population has
383 remained constant over the study period.

384

385

References

- 386
387
388 1 Bhatt, S. *et al.* The effect of malaria control on Plasmodium falciparum in Africa between
389 2000 and 2015. *Nature* **526**, 207-211, doi:10.1038/nature15535 (2015).
- 390 2 Organization, W. H. World Malaria Report 2019. (2019).
- 391 3 Hemingway, J. *et al.* Averting a malaria disaster: will insecticide resistance derail malaria
392 control? *Lancet* **387**, 1785-1788, doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(15)00417-1 (2016).
- 393 4 Ranson, H. & Lissenden, N. Insecticide Resistance in African Anopheles Mosquitoes: A
394 Worsening Situation that Needs Urgent Action to Maintain Malaria Control. *Trends Parasitol*
395 **32**, 187-196, doi:10.1016/j.pt.2015.11.010 (2016).
- 396 5 Choi, L., Pryce, J. & Garner, P. Indoor residual spraying for preventing malaria in
397 communities using insecticide-treated nets. *Cochrane database of systematic reviews (Online)* **5**,
398 CD012688, doi:10.1002/14651858.CD012688.pub2 (2019).
- 399 6 Sherrard-Smith, E. *et al.* Systematic review of indoor residual spray efficacy and
400 effectiveness against Plasmodium falciparum in Africa. *Nat Commun* **9**, 4982,
401 doi:10.1038/s41467-018-07357-w (2018).
- 402 7 Uganda National Malaria Control Division (NMCD), Uganda Bureau of Statistics
403 (UBOS) & ICF. Uganda Malaria Indicator Survey 2018-19. (NMCD, UBOS, and ICF, Kampala,
404 Uganda, and Rockville, Maryland, USA, 2020).
- 405 8 Kigozi, R. *et al.* Indoor residual spraying of insecticide and malaria morbidity in a high
406 transmission intensity area of Uganda. *PLoS One* **7**, e42857, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0042857
407 (2012).

408 9 Steinhardt, L. C. *et al.* The effect of indoor residual spraying on malaria and anemia in a
409 high-transmission area of northern Uganda. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* **88**, 855-861,
410 doi:10.4269/ajtmh.12-0747 (2013).

411 10 Okullo, A. E. *et al.* Malaria incidence among children less than 5 years during and after
412 cessation of indoor residual spraying in Northern Uganda. *Malar J* **16**, 319, doi:10.1186/s12936-
413 017-1966-x (2017).

414 11 Raouf, S. *et al.* Resurgence of Malaria Following Discontinuation of Indoor Residual
415 Spraying of Insecticide in an Area of Uganda With Previously High-Transmission Intensity. *Clin*
416 *Infect Dis* **65**, 453-460, doi:10.1093/cid/cix251 (2017).

417 12 Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) and ICF International. Uganda Malaria Indicator
418 Survey 2014-15. (UBOS and ICF International, Kampala, Uganda and Rockville, Maryland,
419 USA, 2015).

420 13 Organization, W. H. Framework for Implementing the Global Technical Strategy for
421 Malaria 2016–2030 in the African Region. (2016).

422 14 Pryce, J., Richardson, M. & Lengeler, C. Insecticide-treated nets for preventing malaria.
423 *Cochrane database of systematic reviews (Online)* **11**, CD000363,
424 doi:10.1002/14651858.CD000363.pub3 (2018).

425 15 Echodu, R. *et al.* High insecticide resistances levels in *Anopheles gambiaes* s.l. in
426 northern Uganda and its relevance for future malaria control. *BMC Res Notes* **13**, 348,
427 doi:10.1186/s13104-020-05193-0 (2020).

428 16 Lynd, A. *et al.* LLIN Evaluation in Uganda Project (LLINEUP): a cross-sectional survey
429 of species diversity and insecticide resistance in 48 districts of Uganda. *Parasit Vectors* **12**, 94,
430 doi:10.1186/s13071-019-3353-7 (2019).

431 17 Okia, M. *et al.* Insecticide resistance status of the malaria mosquitoes: *Anopheles*
432 *gambiae* and *Anopheles funestus* in eastern and northern Uganda. *Malar J* **17**, 157,
433 doi:10.1186/s12936-018-2293-6 (2018).

434 18 AFRO, W. H. O.-. *Global AMDP database*,
435 <http://www.who.int/malaria/amdp/amdp_afro.htm> (

436 19 Cooke, M. K. *et al.* 'A bite before bed': exposure to malaria vectors outside the times of
437 net use in the highlands of western Kenya. *Malar J* **14**, 259, doi:10.1186/s12936-015-0766-4
438 (2015).

439 20 Sougoufara, S. *et al.* Biting by *Anopheles funestus* in broad daylight after use of long-
440 lasting insecticidal nets: a new challenge to malaria elimination. *Malar J* **13**, 125,
441 doi:10.1186/1475-2875-13-125 (2014).

442 21 Gonahasa, S. *et al.* LLIN Evaluation in Uganda Project (LLINEUP): factors associated
443 with ownership and use of long-lasting insecticidal nets in Uganda: a cross-sectional survey of
444 48 districts. *Malar J* **17**, 421, doi:10.1186/s12936-018-2571-3 (2018).

445 22 Staedke, S. G. *et al.* Effect of long-lasting insecticidal nets with and without piperonyl
446 butoxide on malaria indicators in Uganda (LLINEUP): a pragmatic, cluster-randomised trial
447 embedded in a national LLIN distribution campaign. *Lancet* **395**, 1292-1303,
448 doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30214-2 (2020).

449 23 Rugnao, S. *et al.* LLIN Evaluation in Uganda Project (LLINEUP): factors associated with
450 childhood parasitaemia and anaemia 3 years after a national long-lasting insecticidal net
451 distribution campaign: a cross-sectional survey. *Malar J* **18**, 207, doi:10.1186/s12936-019-2838-
452 3 (2019).

453 24 WHO. Achieving and maintaining universal coverage with long-lasting insecticidal nets
454 for malaria control. (2017).

455 25 Wills, A. B. *et al.* Physical durability of PermaNet 2.0 long-lasting insecticidal nets over
456 three to 32 months of use in Ethiopia. *Malar J* **12**, 242, doi:10.1186/1475-2875-12-242 (2013).

457 26 Hakizimana, E. *et al.* Monitoring long-lasting insecticidal net (LLIN) durability to
458 validate net serviceable life assumptions, in Rwanda. *Malar J* **13**, 344, doi:10.1186/1475-2875-
459 13-344 (2014).

460 27 Massue, D. J. *et al.* Durability of Olyset campaign nets distributed between 2009 and
461 2011 in eight districts of Tanzania. *Malar J* **15**, 176, doi:10.1186/s12936-016-1225-6 (2016).

462 28 Tan, K. R. *et al.* A longitudinal study of the durability of long-lasting insecticidal nets in
463 Zambia. *Malar J* **15**, 106, doi:10.1186/s12936-016-1154-4 (2016).

464 29 Randriamaherijsaona, S., Raharinjatovo, J. & Boyer, S. Durability monitoring of long-
465 lasting insecticidal (mosquito) nets (LLINs) in Madagascar: physical integrity and insecticidal
466 activity. *Parasit Vectors* **10**, 564, doi:10.1186/s13071-017-2419-7 (2017).

467 30 Corbel, V. *et al.* Combination of malaria vector control interventions in pyrethroid
468 resistance area in Benin: a cluster randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Infect Dis* **12**, 617-626,
469 doi:10.1016/S1473-3099(12)70081-6 (2012).

470 31 Kafy, H. T. *et al.* Impact of insecticide resistance in *Anopheles arabiensis* on malaria
471 incidence and prevalence in Sudan and the costs of mitigation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **114**,
472 E11267-E11275, doi:10.1073/pnas.1713814114 (2017).

473 32 Protopopoff, N. *et al.* Effectiveness of a long-lasting piperonyl butoxide-treated
474 insecticidal net and indoor residual spray interventions, separately and together, against malaria

475 transmitted by pyrethroid-resistant mosquitoes: a cluster, randomised controlled, two-by-two
476 factorial design trial. *Lancet* **391**, 1577-1588, doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(18)30427-6 (2018).

477 33 West, P. A. *et al.* Indoor residual spraying in combination with insecticide-treated nets
478 compared to insecticide-treated nets alone for protection against malaria: a cluster randomised
479 trial in Tanzania. *PLoS Med* **11**, e1001630, doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1001630 (2014).

480 34 Wagman, J. *et al.* Rapid reduction of malaria transmission following the introduction of
481 indoor residual spraying in previously unsprayed districts: an observational analysis of Mopti
482 Region, Mali, in 2017. *Malar J* **19**, 340, doi:10.1186/s12936-020-03414-2 (2020).

483 35 Kane, F. *et al.* Performance of IRS on malaria prevalence and incidence using
484 pirimiphos-methyl in the context of pyrethroid resistance in Koulikoro region, Mali. *Malar J* **19**,
485 286, doi:10.1186/s12936-020-03357-8 (2020).

486 36 Gogue, C. *et al.* An observational analysis of the impact of indoor residual spraying in
487 Northern, Upper East, and Upper West Regions of Ghana: 2014 through 2017. *Malar J* **19**, 242,
488 doi:10.1186/s12936-020-03318-1 (2020).

489 37 Hast, M. A. *et al.* The Impact of 3 Years of Targeted Indoor Residual Spraying With
490 Pirimiphos-Methyl on Malaria Parasite Prevalence in a High-Transmission Area of Northern
491 Zambia. *Am J Epidemiol* **188**, 2120-2130, doi:10.1093/aje/kwz107 (2019).

492 38 Abong'o, B. *et al.* Impact of indoor residual spraying with pirimiphos-methyl (Actellic
493 300CS) on entomological indicators of transmission and malaria case burden in Migori County,
494 western Kenya. *Scientific reports* **10**, 4518, doi:10.1038/s41598-020-61350-2 (2020).

495 39 Aikpon, R. Y. *et al.* Upsurge of malaria transmission after indoor residual spraying
496 withdrawal in Atacora region in Benin, West Africa. *Malar J* **19**, 3, doi:10.1186/s12936-019-
497 3086-2 (2020).

498 40 Oxborough, R. M. Trends in US President's Malaria Initiative-funded indoor residual
499 spray coverage and insecticide choice in sub-Saharan Africa (2008-2015): urgent need for
500 affordable, long-lasting insecticides. *Malar J* **15**, 146, doi:10.1186/s12936-016-1201-1 (2016).

501 41 Sserwanga, A. *et al.* Improved malaria case management through the implementation of a
502 health facility-based sentinel site surveillance system in Uganda. *PLoS One* **6**, e16316,
503 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0016316 (2011).

504

505

506 **Acknowledgements**

507 We would like to acknowledge the health workers at all 14 health facilities that contributed data
508 for this study. We would like to thank the Ugandan Ministry of Health National Malaria Control
509 Division, and USAID – President’s Malaria Initiative. This work was supported by the National
510 Institutes of Health as part of the International Centers of Excellence in Malaria Research
511 (ICMER) program (U19AI089674). AE is supported by the National Institute of Allergy and
512 Infectious Diseases (F31AI150029). JIN is supported by the Fogarty International Center
513 (Emerging Global Leader Award grant number K43TW010365). EA is supported by the Fogarty
514 International Center of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number D43TW010526.

515

516 **Author Contributions**

517 JFN, AE, GD, and IRB conceived of the study. JFN led the data collection activities with support
518 from JIN, AM, MK, AS, JK, EA, SG, CE, SGS, CMS, and MRK. AE and IRB led the data
519 analysis with support from GD. AE and JFN drafted the manuscript with support from GD, SGS,
520 and IRB. All authors contributed to interpretation of the results and edited the manuscripts. All
521 authors read and approved the final manuscript.

522

523 **Competing Interests**

524 The authors declare no competing interests.

525

526 **Materials and Correspondence**

527 Correspondence to Adrienne Epstein: Adrienne.Epstein@ucsf.edu

Table 1. Summary statistics from health-facility based surveillance sites where IRS was stopped after sustained use.

MRC (District)	Time period	Number of months included	Total outpatient visits, n	Suspected malaria cases, n (% of total)	Tested for malaria, n (% of suspected)	RDT performed (versus microscopy), n (% of tested)	Confirmed malaria cases, n (% of tested)	Confirmed cases adjusted for testing rate, n	Mean monthly confirmed cases adjusted for testing rate, n
Aboke HCIV (Kole)	Baseline	9	14,015	3,766 (26.9)	3,735 (99.2)	2,450 (65.6)	923 (24.7)	932	104
	Evaluation	25	46,850	21,245 (45.3)	18,185 (85.6)	17,210 (94.6)	14,200 (78.0)	16,699	668
Aduku HCIV (Kwania)	Baseline	13	24,164	13,742 (56.9)	13,719 (99.8)	1,049 (7.6)	3,254 (23.7)	3,529	272
	Evaluation	32	57,470	30,035 (52.2)	25,896 (86.2)	10,731 (41.4)	13,537 (52.3)	15,717	491
Anyeke HCIV (Oyam)	Baseline	8	15,859	3,514 (22.2)	2,627 (74.8)	2,604 (99.1)	680 (25.9)	918	115
	Evaluation	25	66,501	28,755 (43.2)	20,659 (71.8)	16,147 (78.2)	13,559 (65.6)	18,774	751

528
529
530
531
532

Table 2. Summary statistics from health-facility based surveillance sites that received a single round of IRS.

MRC (District)	Time period	Number of months included	Total outpatient visits, n	Suspected malaria cases, n (% of total)	Tested for malaria, n (% of suspected)	RDT performed (versus microscopy), n (% of tested)	Confirmed malaria cases, n (% of tested)	Confirmed cases adjusted for testing rate, n	Mean monthly confirmed cases adjusted for testing rate, n
Aboke HCIV (Kole)	Baseline	14	21,186	11,752 (55.5)	9,613 (81.8)	9,079 (94.5)	7,297 (75.9)	9,006	643
	Evaluation	34	54,826	30,973 (56.5)	30,674 (99.0)	29,064 (94.8)	22,097 (72.0)	22,308	656
Aduku HCIV (Kwania)	Baseline	17	35,017	20,645 (59.0)	17,156 (83.1)	7,938 (46.3)	9,699 (56.5)	11,465	674
	Evaluation	31	65,379	32,260 (49.3)	31,337 (97.1)	20,385 (65.1)	15,201 (48.5)	15,534	501
Anyeke HCIV (Oyam)	Baseline	14	35,378	18,445 (52.1)	12,997 (70.5)	9,151 (70.4)	8,967 (69.0)	12,595	900
	Evaluation	34	70,149	33,618 (47.9)	32,522 (96.7)	31,208 (96.0)	21,799 (67.0)	22,375	658
Awach HCIV (Gulu)	Baseline	17	36,923	21,920 (59.4)	17,927 (82.0)	17,736 (98.7)	13,663 (76.0)	16,749	985
	Evaluation	30	69,375	36,760 (53.0)	35,189 (95.7)	34,070 (96.8)	21,879 (62.2)	22,851	762
Lalogi HCIV (Omoro)	Baseline	17	54,436	32,642 (60.0)	31,545 (96.6)	31,490 (99.8)	23,106 (73.2)	23,948	1,409
	Evaluation	31	72,449	41,846 (57.8)	41,668 (99.6)	40,804 (97.9)	22,986 (55.2)	23,060	744
Patongo HCIII (Agago)	Baseline	14	24,686	15,453 (62.6)	15,122 (97.9)	14,758 (97.6)	11,313 (74.8)	11,487	821
	Evaluation	34	54,486	34,482 (63.3)	33,797 (98.0)	32,176 (95.2)	17,231 (51.0)	17,440	513
Atiak HCIV (Amuru)	Baseline	14	38,916	25,929 (66.6)	22,418 (86.5)	22,335 (99.6)	18,978 (84.7)	21,966	1,569
	Evaluation	34	60,750	31,650 (52.1)	30,754 (97.2)	30,541 (99.3)	19,766 (64.3)	20,325	598
Padibe HCIV (Lamwo)	Baseline	20	29,740	20,589 (69.0)	20,427 (99.2)	20,420 (99.9)	17,031 (83.4)	17,161	858
	Evaluation	28	50,117	26,883 (53.6)	26,831 (99.8)	25,956 (96.7)	15,199 (56.6)	15,224	544
Namokora HCIV (Kitgum)	Baseline	17	27,802	22,597 (81.3)	19,990 (88.5)	18,909 (94.6)	12,294 (61.5)	14,401	847
	Evaluation	31	56,765	40,185 (70.8)	39,966 (99.5)	38,468 (96.3)	21,958 (54.9)	22,063	712

533
534

Table 3. Summary statistics from health-facility based surveillance sites where IRS was initiated and sustained.

MRC (District)	Time period	Number of months included	Total outpatient visits, n	Suspected malaria cases, n (%)	Tested for malaria, n (%)	RDT performed (versus microscopy), n (% of tested)	Confirmed malaria cases, n (%)	Confirmed malaria cases adjusted for testing rate, n	Mean monthly confirmed cases adjusted for testing rate, n
Nagongera HCIV (Tororo)	Baseline	13	22,859	14,676 (64.2)	14,516 (98.9)	799 (5.5)	3,682 (25.4)	3,722	286
	Evaluation	59	97,012	36,308 (37.4)	36,069 (99.3)	13,129 (36.4)	4,984 (13.8)	5,022	85
Amolatar HCIV (Amolatar)	Baseline	12	19,552	8,547 (43.7)	6,512 (76.2)	5,923 (91.0)	3,701 (56.8)	4,845	404
	Evaluation	59	89,779	24,889 (27.8)	21,849 (87.9)	19,459 (89.1)	4,822 (22.1)	5,854	99
Dokolo HCIV (Dokolo)	Baseline	12	25,570	12,854 (50.3)	8,875 (69.0)	8,212 (92.5)	5,211 (58.7)	7,889	657
	Evaluation	59	129,245	46,428 (35.9)	44,972 (96.9)	42,259 (94.0)	10,210 (22.7)	10,761	183
Orum HCIV (Otuke)	Baseline	11	16,120	9,324 (57.8)	8,929 (95.8)	3,990 (44.7)	5,974 (66.9)	6,236	567
	Evaluation	59	65,036	37,430 (57.6)	36,371 (97.2)	19,536 (53.7)	16,481 (45.3)	17,069	289
Alebtong HCIV (Alebtong)	Baseline	8	15,359	6,694 (43.6)	4,789 (71.5)	4,620 (96.5)	3,209 (67.0)	4,317	540
	Evaluation	59	94,055	40,821 (43.0)	36,211 (88.7)	32,327 (89.3)	12,037 (33.2)	13,869	235

535
536

Figures

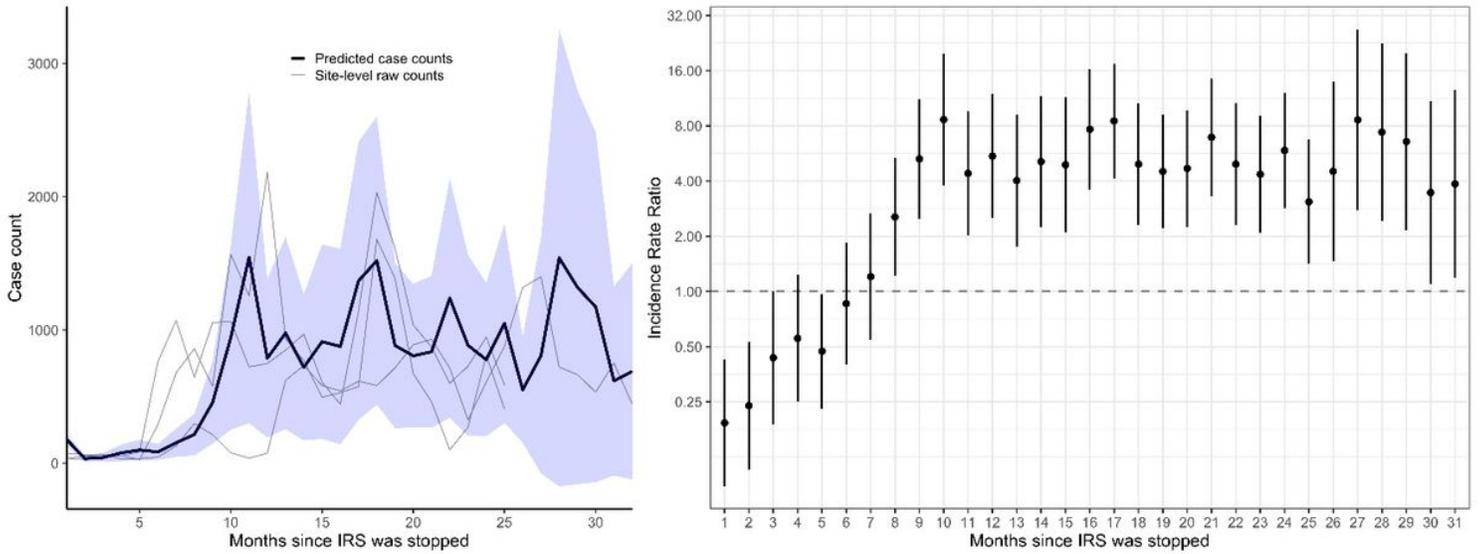


Figure 1

Adjusted IRR and predicted case counts from multilevel negative binomial model assessing the impact of withdrawing IRS after 5 years of sustained use. The blue shaded region represents the 95% confidence interval around the predicted case counts from the adjusted regression model. Vertical bars represent the 95% confidence interval around adjusted IRR.

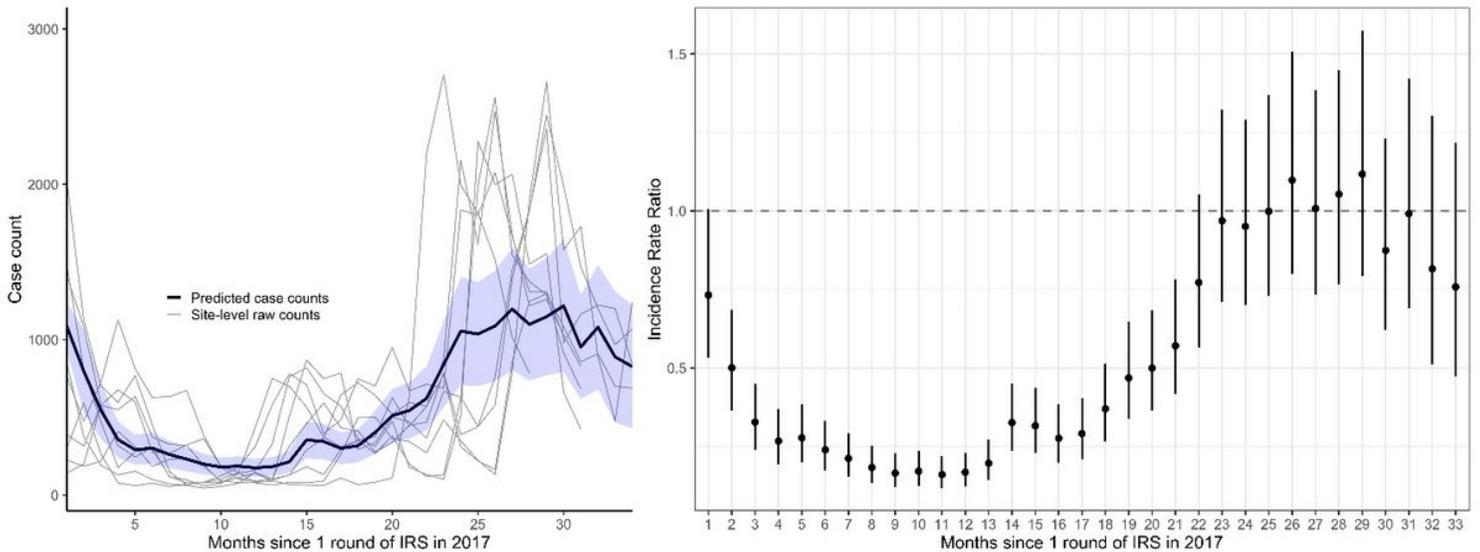


Figure 2

Adjusted IRR and predicted case counts from multilevel negative binomial model assessing the impact of restarting IRS with a single round. The blue shaded region represents the 95% CI around the predicted case counts from the adjusted regression model. Vertical bars represent the 95% CI around adjusted IRR.

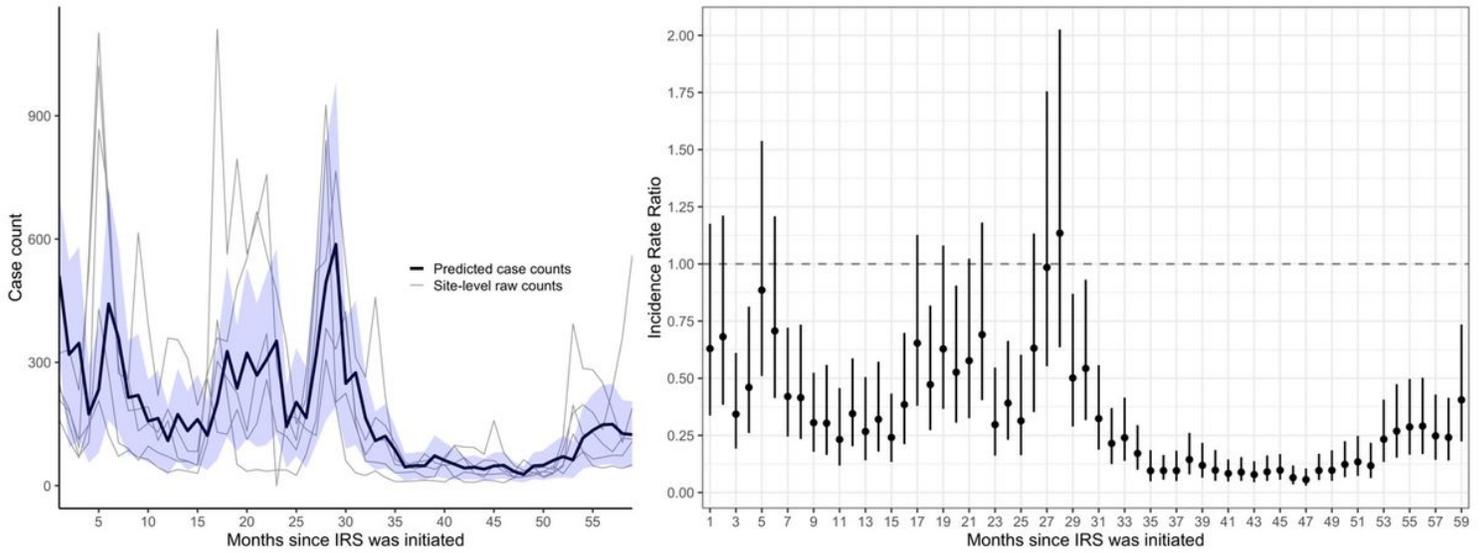


Figure 3

Adjusted IRR and predicted case counts from multilevel negative binomial model assessing the impact of initiating and sustaining IRS. The blue shaded region represents the 95% CI around the predicted case counts from the adjusted regression model. Vertical bars represent the 95% CI around adjusted IRR.

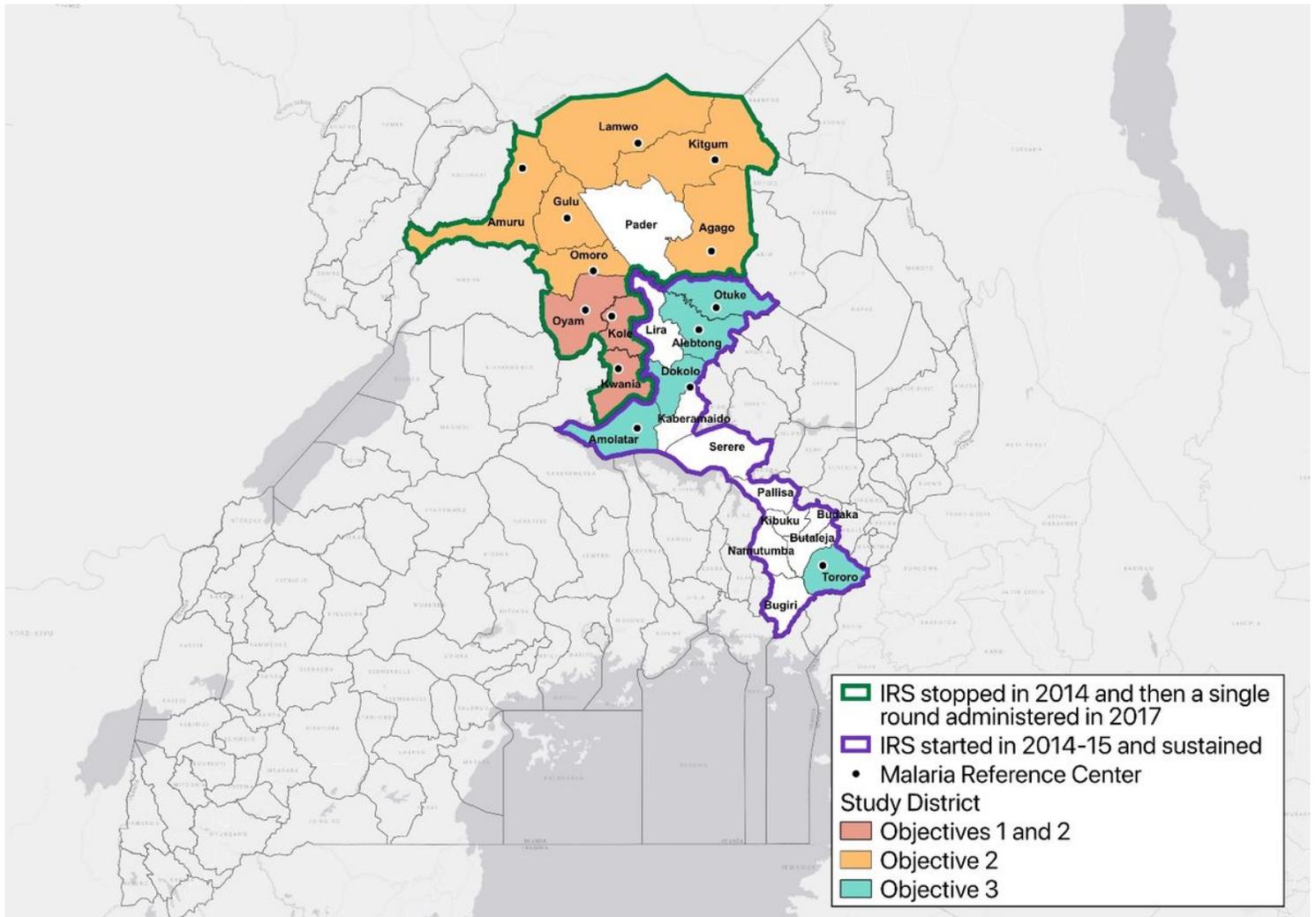


Figure 4

Map of Uganda showing study sites and IRS districts.

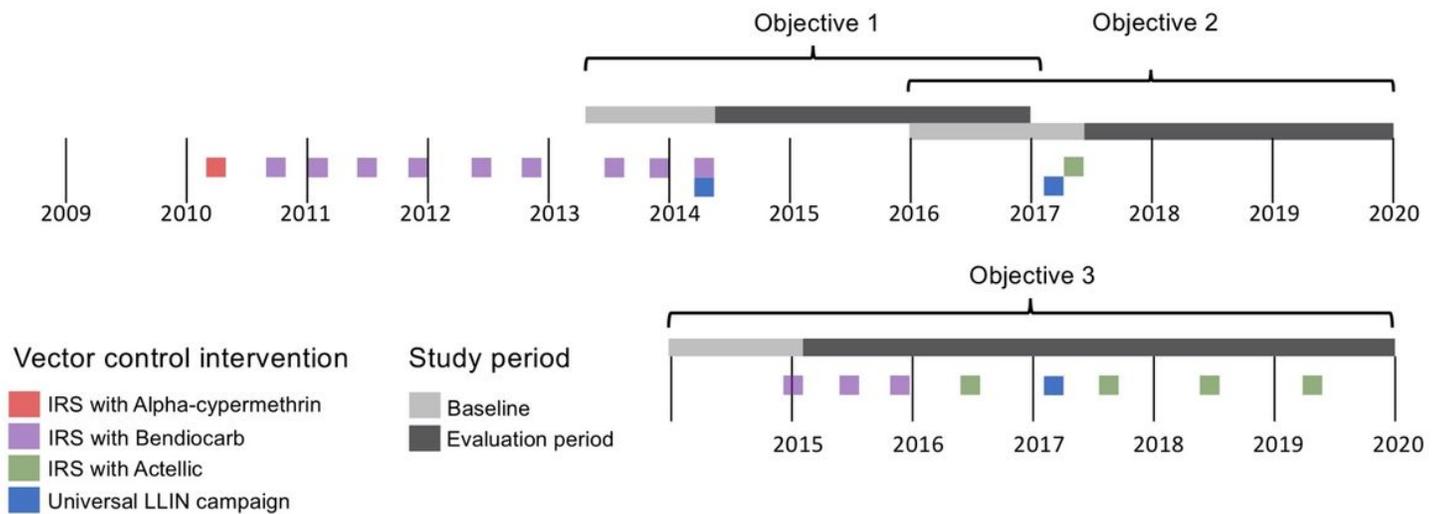


Figure 5

Timeline summarizing the dates of IRS campaigns, baseline 357 and evaluation periods. Objective 1 is to assess the impact of withdrawing IRS after five years of sustained use; Objective 2 is to assess the impact of restarting IRS with a single round; and Objective 3 is to assess the impact of initiating and sustaining IRS.

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [IRSprojectsupplements.pdf](#)