

Sociodemographic and Economic Traits That Affect Malaria Prevalence in Sussundenga Village, Mozambique.

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1. Introduction

Malaria is a serious and sometimes fatal disease caused by a *Plasmodium* parasite that commonly infects *Anopheles* mosquitos which feeds on humans. Although malaria can be a deadly disease, infection and death can be prevented [1]. Almost half of the world's population lives in areas at risk of malaria transmission. Six countries account for more than half of all malaria cases worldwide and Mozambique is among them [2].

In Mozambique, a country in sub-Saharan Africa, with a population of over 30 million inhabitants, malaria is one of the leading causes of mortality and morbidity. In 2018, Mozambique recorded the third largest number of malaria cases in the world, that is, 5 % of all cases globally [3]. However, the country has made little progress in malaria control.

Indoor residual spraying (IRS), insecticide treated bed nets (ITNs), and parasitological diagnosis in health facilities using rapid diagnostic test (RDTs) with effective artemisinin combination therapy (ACT) are the malaria intervention currently being used in Mozambique [4]. While all of these interventions are available, their implementation varies greatly geographically. The entire country uses RDTs with ACT as the standard of care in public health facilities. IRS is only used in Maputo Province where incidence and prevalence are the lowest, and Zambézia Province where incidence and prevalence are the highest. ITNs are only available at antenatal clinics, indicated for pregnant women and children under 5.

Manica Province in central Mozambique has the second highest malaria incidence in the country. In the first quarter of 2020 1,039,283 cases with an incidence per 1000 inhabitants of 371 and test positivity in health facilities of 65 % were reported [5]. Sussundenga village, in Manica Province is one of most affected areas, with 31,397 malaria cases reported in 2019. Sussundenga village lies directly along the Zimbabwe border, making evaluation of malaria transmission and control policies integral for regional efforts.

Malaria infection risk, disease severity, and clinical outcome depend on environmental, socio-demographic, economic, and behavioral factors [6, 7]. An association between malaria prevalence and socioeconomic status has been well established in Mozambique and other endemic countries. The prevalence of malaria is 43% in urban areas and 58% in rural areas, throughout Mozambique. pregnant women with higher education tend to be more protected against malaria (54 %) compared to without an education (59%) and, children from higher income families (58 %) tend to be more protected against malaria compared to children from lower income families (43 %) [8].

The WHO Global Technical Strategy for Malaria (GTS), the Roll Back malaria advocacy plan, the Action and Investment to defeat Malaria 2016/2030 (AIM) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) with target 3.3, all aims to reduce malaria cases, morbidity, and mortality by more than 90 % by 2030 [9].

43 While Mozambique has one of the highest incidences and prevalence of malaria in the
44 region and it accounts for nearly half of childhood deaths, little is known about the
45 epidemiology to inform appropriate and effective interventions [2]. This is one of two major
46 barriers to expanding control measures in the country with the other being limited funding.

47 Malaria transmission is notoriously heterogeneous and all interventions don't work in all
48 settings [10]. In Sussundenga Rural Municipality no studies on malaria are known and
49 understanding the epidemiology of the disease is crucial for informing the implementation
50 of the most appropriate and effective malaria interventions to achieve control.

51 Therefore, the objective of this study was to quantify and map the distribution of malaria
52 parasite prevalence and model its relationship with sociodemographic and economic
53 characteristics in Sussundenga Rural Municipality.

54

55 **2. Methods**

56

57 **2.1. Study area.**

58 The village of Sussundenga is a rural, agrarian community that shares a border with
59 Zimbabwe, and is 45 kilometers from the provincial capital of Chimoio (Figure 1).
60 Sussundenga has an estimated current population of 31,429 inhabitants, 47 % males and
61 53 % females, with an age distribution of 19.5 % from 0 to 4 years old, 29.9 % from 5- to
62 14-year-old, 20.5 % from 15 to 24 years old and 30.1 % with over 24 years old [11].

63 The climate is tropical with an average annual precipitation of 1200 mm. The rainy season
64 occurs from November to April. The average minimum temperature is 6.3°C in the month
65 of July and the average maximum temperature is 38.9°C in the month of January and the
66 annual average is 21.2°C [12]. The village is divided administratively in 17 residential
67 areas called "Bairros".

68

69 **2.2. Data collection**

70

71 GoogleEarth Pro™ satellite imagery was used to digitize and enumerate all household
72 structures in the village of Sussundenga. A random sample of 125 households was taken;
73 100 households for enrollment in the study and 25 households as backup for refusals and
74 errors in the digitizing process (misclassified non-household structures).

75 Coordinates of the households were extracted using a GPS device and maps of the
76 selected households to conduct study visits. The study involved two visits to the selected
77 households. The first was a notification visit where the study team introduced themselves
78 to the head of the household and explained the objectives and procedures of the study.
79 It is customary for the head of household to provide permission to the study team before
80 any activities take place at the household involving other household members. Once the
81 head of household gave permission, the study team conducted a household census with
82 the head of household and begin the process of individual informed consent with the

83 household residents, for all adult (18+ years) residents and parental permission and
84 assent from minors.

85 After obtaining consent from the household residents, the study team informed
86 participants when they will return the following day to conduct the study activities. The
87 only eligibility requirement was that the residents live in household full time. [IRB protocol
88 numbers]. Data collectors administered a questionnaire to collect basic demographics.

89
90 The study nurse collected current malaria specific symptoms by self-report and will took
91 participant's temperature using a thermometer. They then collected a finger prick blood
92 sample to administer a Rapid Diagnostic Test (RDT), RightSign Biotest[®], China. The
93 results were recorded and, in the event, that a participant was positive for malaria, the
94 study nurse referred them to the Sussundenga rural health center (RHC) for diagnosis
95 confirmation and treatment. The questionnaire was conducted using tablet computers
96 with the REDCap [Maker and country] mobile application. Data was stored in a secure
97 REDCap server hosted by the University of Minnesota.

98
99 **2.3. Data Analysis**

100 This study was a cross-sectional community-based survey. The analyses were conducted
101 on datasets downloaded from Research Electronic Data Capture (REDCap) to excel
102 spread sheet. As variables, a binary variable as the dependent variable malaria presence,
103 that is whether malaria was present (positive) to RDT or absent (negative) was used.

104 The explanatory variables were the following sociodemographic and economic traits: age,
105 adult or child, age category, sex, previous malaria treatment, employment, cell phone
106 ownership, education level, location (Bairro) and household size (Additional file 1). To
107 avoid redundancy, collinearity test was performed and variables with over 4 of variance
108 inflation factor (VIF) over 4 were dropped after investigation [13]. The malaria prevalence
109 was calculated dividing positive cases of malaria by the study population tested at the
110 time multiplied by 100.

111
$$Prevalence (\%) = \frac{Persons\ having\ malaria}{Population\ during\ the\ period} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

112
113 Point prevalence was calculated dividing the number of positive cases per "Bairro"
114 dividing by the total population of the Bairro, multiplied by 100 [14].

115
116
$$Point\ Prevalence (\%) = \frac{Persons\ malaria\ positive}{Population\ during\ the\ period} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

117 Chi-square for proportion of age group and sex was tested. To establish the relationship
118 between malaria prevalence and socio-demographic traits a simple logistic regression
119 analysis was performed. In logistic regression, the canonical link function (logit) for the
120 binominal distribution, of the unknown binomial probabilities are modeled as linear
121 function of the risk factors:

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$$X_i : g(P_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_i X_i \quad (3)$$

Where:

$G(P_i)$ = link function

P_i = likelihood of response for the i -th factor

β_0 = intercept

β_1 = coefficient

X_1 = independent variable

130 The model sensitivity (probability of a positive test given that the patient has malaria) of
131 the final model measures the proportion of positive that were correctly identified and was
132 calculated as:

$$Sensitivity(\%) = \frac{\text{Number of true malaria positive}}{\text{Number of true malaria positive} + \text{Number of false malaria negative}} \times 100 \quad (4.1)$$

134
135
136
137

The model Specificity (probability of a negative test given that the patient is well) of the
final model measures the proportion of negative case correctly identified and was
calculated as:

138

$$Specificity(\%) = \frac{\text{Number of true malaria positive}}{\text{Number of true malaria positive} + \text{Number of false malaria negative}} \times 100 \quad (4.2)$$

140
141
142

Positive Predictive Value (PPV) that is, whether the screened people who tested positive
do or do not actually have malaria was calculated as follows:

143

$$PPV(\%) = \frac{\text{Number of true malaria positive}}{\text{Number of true malaria positive} + \text{Number of false malaria negative}} \times 100 \quad (4.3)$$

145
146
147

Negative Predicted Value (NPV) that is the proportion of negative results in the diagnosis
test that are true negative results as calculated as follows:

148

149

$$NPV(\%) = \frac{\text{Number of true malaria negatives}}{\text{Number of true malaria negatives} + \text{Number of false malaria negative}} \times 100 \quad (4.4)$$

151

To test the importance of the sociodemographic traits on malaria prevalence, and for the
model development, logistic regression outcomes such as Scores statistic's, regression
coefficient's, significance levels of variable coefficients and, overall classification
accuracy were used [15]. All tests were carried out using SPSS IBM version 20 and
Bioestat version 5. ArcGis version 10.7.1. was used for spatial mapping.

157

158 **2.4. Ethical consideration**

159 This study is part of the Malaria Risk, Prevention, and Health Seeking Behaviors in
160 Sussundenga, Mozambique Project. All participants, or the guardians provided informed
161 written assent and consent prior to participation. To carry out the study approval from the
162 institutional Review (IRB) committee from the University of Minnesota and, from

163 Comissão Nacional de Bioética em Saúde (CNBS) from the Ministry of Health of
164 Mozambique, approval number 560/CNBS/19 .

165 **3. Results**

166 **3.1. Sample size and site, sex, age and, age group of participants.**

167 One-hundred, twenty-five selected were visited but only 100 were used for the study. Two
168 households refused to participate (1.6%), others were non-household structures (brick
169 ovens, stores) or were abandoned. Three hundred eighty-six participants were
170 interviewed but for the study 358 (93 %) were used. This was because, REDCAP only
171 allowed the inclusion of 12 people per household and in the study, there were aggregates
172 with more than 12 people, these were recorded in a separate notebook.

173 Seven out of the seventeen “Bairros” namely Nhamezara, Chicueu, 25 de Junho 1 and
174 2, 7 de Abril, Unidade and Nhamarenza were covered by the study (Figure 1C). The area
175 surveyed has 27,431 (87.3 %) of the total population of the village. There was an equal
176 distribution of the enrolled participants among sex, 55 % were female and 45 % males,
177 Chi-square = 0.081, P = 0.8872, DF = 1. No difference was found between female and
178 male positive cases, 53 and 47 % respectively, Chi-square = 0.180, P = 0.7772, DF = 1.

179 The age of participants varied from 1 to 80 years old, with a median of 17 years and, an
180 average of 21 standard deviation (SD) 16.2 years old. For the participants' education
181 level (n = 302), 35.1% had no education or less than primary (5 grades), 47.4 % had
182 primary or basic school (grades 5 to 10) and 17.5 % had secondary and higher education.

183 **3.2. Malaria prevalence and its spatial distribution**

184 Three hundred forty-two participants were tested for malaria and 108 tested positive for
185 malaria ((31.6 %). Figure 2.A. presents the positive and negative malaria cases and figure 2B,
186 the spatial distribution (point prevalence) of the malaria cases per Bairro. Bairro 7 de Abril
187 (0.9 %) and Chicuei (0.51 %) had the highest malaria prevalence, Bairros 25 de Junho 1
188 (0.31 %), and Nhamezara (0.47 %) had a moderate prevalence and, Bairros Nhamarenza
189 (0.18 %), Unidade (0.25 %) and 25 de Junho 2 (0.125 %) had the lowest malaria
190 prevalence.

191 **3.4. Malaria prevalence by age category**

192 In terms of age group, 0 to 4 comprised 8.5 % of the participants while 5 to 14, 15 to 24
193 and over 24 were 32.7, 28.5 and 30.4 % respectively. There was no difference between
194 age group of the sample and the estimated by Instituto Nacional de Estatística (INE), Chi-
195 square = 6.09 = P = 0.1073, DF = 3. Figure 3 presents the positive results for age
196 category. Half of the malaria positive cases occurred in age group 5 to 14. Comparing to
197 the sample and INE percentage for the age group, around 40 % more than expected. Age
198 group over 24 accounted for 17.6 % the cases, around 50 % less than expected. Age
199 groups 0 to 4 and 15 to 24 presented 11.1 and 21.3 % respectively. There is a difference
200 in positive malaria cases among groups, Chi-square = 17.527, P = 0.0075, Df = 6

201 **3.5. Association between malaria infection and sociodemographic and economic** 202 **traits.**

203 After testing for collinearity, the following variables were removed from the model:
204 population density and if the participant was an adult or child. The backward stepwise
205 predictor selection into the logistic model carried out produced a series of models.

206
207 Table 1 presents the model summary and the Nagelkeke's R^2 is 0.149 which suggesting
208 that the explained variation in malaria positive cases is approximately 15 %.

209
210 Table 2 presents the Hosmer and Lemeshow test, that test the model fitness and this
211 model fit the data.

212
213 Table 3 presents the classification table of the final model, that is, the model capability to predict
214 malaria positive cases, indicating a model accuracy of 72.3 % a modest improvement from the 0-
215 step model. The sensitivity of the final model in classifying malaria positive cases is 91.8 % and
216 specificity of the final model to classify malaria negative cases is 29.2 %, meaning that the final
217 model is able to predict 83.4 % of malaria positive cases and 26 % of malaria negative cases.

218
219 Table 4 presents the variable in the equation, with the regression coefficients and their respective
220 standard errors, the Wald test, the odd ratios and their confidence intervals. The model can be
221 written:

$$\text{Log}(p/1-p) = -1.296 - 0.080 \text{ sex} - 0.667 \text{ mal-treat} - 0.242 \text{ employment_paid} + 0.066 \text{ phone} - 0.132 \text{ education} + 0.629 \text{ hh size} - 0.304 \text{ age category} + 0.113 \text{ bairro}.$$

222
223
224
225 The increase in malaria treatment history ($b = -0.667$), having paid employment ($b = -$
226 0.242), increase in education level and age category ($b = -0.132$ and -0.304) will
227 decrease the probability of malaria positive cases in Sussundenga Village. The odds for
228 malaria history (0.513), employment (0.785), level of education (0.876) and age category
229 (0.738) indicates that and unit increase in these variables, the odds of malaria positive
230 cases will decrease by 48 %, 21.5 %, 12.4 %, 26.2 % respectively.

231 Figure 3 presents the residuals graph and linearity can be assumed. The data were
232 checked for outliers (normality) and in the residual normalized table (additional file 2) no
233 values above 2.0 were found implying that there were no outliers.

234 235 **4.0. Discussion**

236
237 In this study, malaria prevalence was 31.6 % for Sussundenga Village, higher than the
238 prevalence recorded in Chimoio city [16] of 20.1 % In the neighboring Zimbabwe, malaria
239 prevalence was 19.5 % in Mutare and 50.9 % in Mutasa districts in 2016. [17] and in
240 Zambia a study reported parasite prevalence between 0.7 and 1.8 % [18]. And 34 % in
241 Malawi [19].

242
243 This study recorded the highest malaria prevalence 50.0 % among age category 5 to 14
244 years old around 40 % more than expected from the sample and INE age categories. In
245 Rwanda the odds of infection by malaria was reported to be 1.817 time more likely among
246 age category 5 to 14 years, while the odds of infection were 57.3 % less likely among age

247 category 25 to 34 years [20]. In Kenya studies indicated that highest malaria prevalence
248 occurs in children between ages of 11 to 14 [21] while other study indicated age school
249 children from 5 to 18 years as the category [22]. Similar results were also reported in
250 Nigeria and Ghana [23, 24].

251
252 This finding differ from reports from Chimoio that reported 52 % of malaria cases in
253 children under five [16] and Sussundenga district 47.5 % in Mozambique. The difference
254 can be attributed to the fact that this study was carried out at community level while the
255 other studies were carried out from health center data. This study also indicates that age
256 group over 24 years presented 16 % of the infections, around 50 % less than expected
257 from the sample and INE age categories and this can be probably due to acquired
258 immunity.

259
260 In this study, there was a high variation in malaria cases and prevalence from “Bairro” to
261 “Bairro”. Malaria spatial distribution was also reported in other studied in Chimoio, Maputo
262 and Beira in Mozambique [25, 26, 27], in Comoros, Zambia, and Madagascar in Africa
263 [28, 29, 30] in Latin America [31] and in China [32]. Heterogeneity in spatial distribution
264 in small settlement area is probably caused by land use, landscape due human activities
265 in the settlement and the proximity of individuals to places with elevated vector presence
266 [15].

267
268 The variables for population density and if a participant was an adult or child were
269 removed from the model for redundancy. Age category and household size are good
270 proxies for these variables. An association between malaria prevalence and
271 socioeconomic status was established in Mozambique [8]. In this study it is suggested
272 that approximately 15 % of the variation in positive malaria cases can be attributed to
273 sociodemographic and economic traits. Previous study modelled the influence of climate
274 on malaria occurrence in Chimoio and indicated that environmental traits accounted for
275 malaria occurrence by 72.5 % [7], a study in Nigeria indicated 90 % f [33], and for Global
276 Fund also 90 % [34], implying that non-environmental factors such as sociodemographic,
277 economic, cultural and behavioral traits would be affected by remaining percentage,
278 consistent with this result.

279 This study suggests that recent diagnosis and treatment for malaria infection reduces the
280 odds of subsequent infection within the next month by 48 %. This reduction in odds is
281 likely due to prophylactic effect of ACT. It provides protection usually 2 weeks to 1 month
282 after completion. After repeated infections, the individual develops a certain degree of
283 immunity [35]. Different result was reported in Angola where. women who had previous
284 malaria during pregnancy also had a higher risk to contract malaria [36]. This is likely
285 because pregnant women may take SP rather than ACT. Pregnant women are also at
286 increased risk to malaria infection in general.

287 Having employment, the odds of malaria positive cases will decrease by 21.5 %.
288 Employed person will have more capability of purchasing preventive malaria means and
289 also Those employed are more likely to have better housing, which is protective. In India

290 malaria cases decreased with an increasing monthly income [37]. This result contradicts
291 findings in Indonesia that indicated that working participants were 1.2 times more likely to
292 have malaria than those who were not [38]. This could be due to type of employment.
293 Working outdoors can lead to increased risk.

294 In this study, the increase in level of education, the odds of malaria positive cases will
295 decrease by 12.4 %. Previous study in Mozambique indicated that pregnant women with
296 high levels of education tend to be more protected against malaria compared to non-
297 educated [8]. Similar results were reported in Malawi [19]. In India and Indonesia studies
298 did not find association between the education level and malaria occurrence [37,38]

299
300 Age category increase will decrease malaria positive cases by 26.2 %. This scenario is
301 common in endemic settings with high transmission and is an is indicative of absence or
302 ineffective control measures Similar results were reported in Vietnam and in Mozambique
303 [6, 7]. These variables were also found significant predictors in studies in Nigeria, Ghana,
304 Kenya, India and Indonesia [19, 24, 37,38]. When re-infected, patients present a mild
305 form of the diseases without symptoms. Natural active immunity is established after ten
306 or more *P. falciparum* infections, and there are sufficient to suppress symptoms and
307 clinical signs [39].

308
309 The model capability to predict malaria positive cases (model accuracy), was 72.3 % in
310 this study. Studies in Ghana reported 77.4 % [18]. The sensitivity of the final model in
311 classifying malaria positive identifying cases was 91.8 % and the final model was able to
312 predict 83.4 % (positive predictive value) meaning that the model is very effective in
313 predicting malaria positive cases. Studies in Iran reported 81.8 % positive predictive value
314 [40] and 52.72 % in Ghana [24].

315
316 **5. Limitations of the study**
317 Data collection for this study was conducted in December and January, rainy and wet
318 season during the peak transmission season so would have probably the highest number
319 of infections and results reflect this season and my not reflect malaria dynamics in dry
320 season. The RightSign Biotest^R test detects the protein antigen II rich in histidin of the
321 *Plasmodim falciparum* and can last over a month in the blood and can detected positive
322 cases in patients recently treated with malaria.

323
324 **6. Conclusion**
325 This study evaluated and estimated the sociodemographic and economic characteristics
326 that affect malaria prevalence in Sussundenga Village, Mozambique. Recent diagnosis
327 and treatment, having employment, level of education and age category can have lower
328 odds of infection. The model accuracy was 72.3 % and positive predictive value of that
329 the final model was able to predict 83.4 % implying that the model is robust. Targeting
330 malaria control at community level can contributed better than waiting for cases at health
331 centers and 5 to 14 years category should be addressed. This model indicates that 15 %

332 of malaria cases can be attributed to sociodemographic and economic traits while
333 previous studies indicated that environmental conditions would contribute with around 75
334 % on malaria cases. Further studies are needed specially in dry season and in other areas
335 of the district.

336 **Declarations**

337 **Ethics of approval and consent to participate**

338 This study is part of the Malaria Risk, Prevention, and Health Seeking Behaviors in
339 Sussundenga, Mozambique Project. All participants, or the guardians provided informed
340 written assent and consent prior to participation. To carry out the study approval from the
341 institutional Review (IRB) committee from the University of Minnesota and, from
342 Comissão Nacional de Bioética em Saúde (CNBS) from the Ministry of Health of
343 Mozambique, approval number 560/CNBS/19.

344 **Consent for publication**

345 N/A

346 **Availability of data and materials**

347 Data are available as additional file 1.

348 **Competing interests Competing**

349 The authors declare that that have no any competing interests

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353 **Authors contributions**

354 JLF contributed in supervising the data collection process, writhing the manuscript and
355 statistical analysis, DE contributed in English revision, AN contributed in confirmation and
356 treatment of positive malaria cases, RM contributed in Mapping, AT contributed in data
357 revision, AB and MB contributed in data collection and VM contributed in blood collection
358 RDT test.

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363

364

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Figures

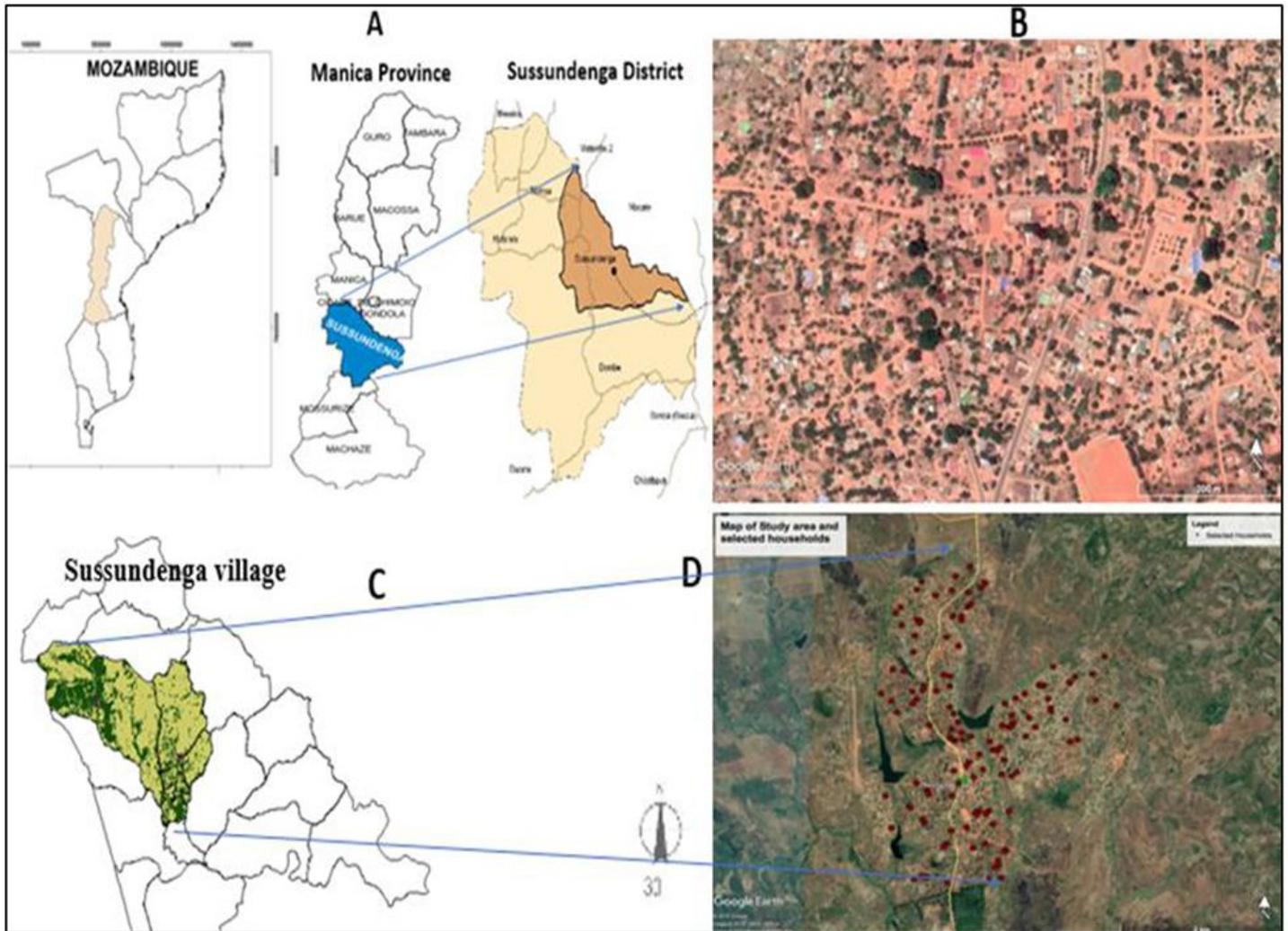


Figure 1

The village of Sussundenga is a rural, agrarian community that shares a border with Zimbabwe, and is 45 kilometers from the provincial capital of Chimoio (Figure 1). Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

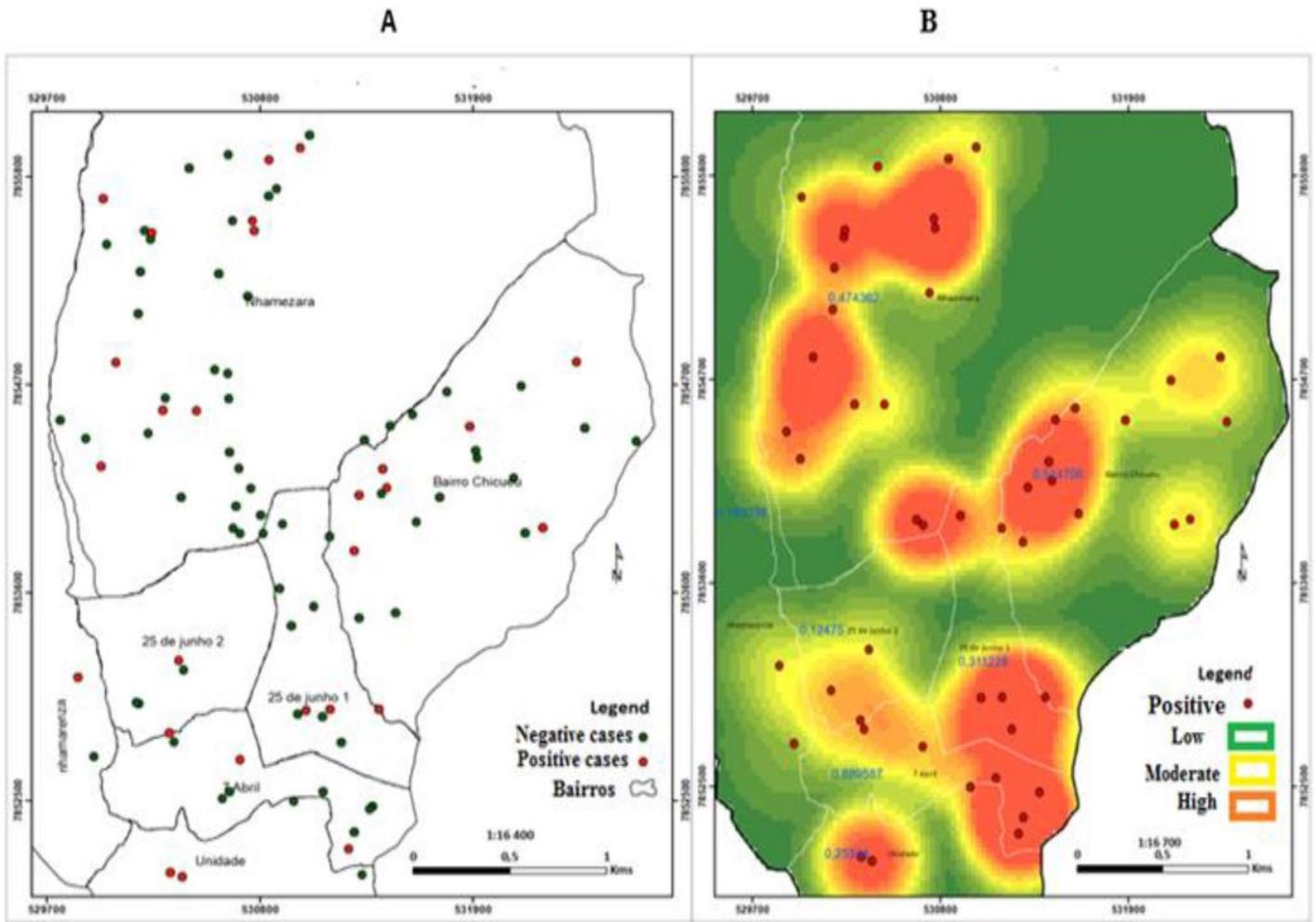


Figure 2

Three hundred forty-two participants were tested for malaria and 108 tested positive for malaria ((31.6 %). Figure 2.A. presents the positive and negative malaria cases and figure 2B, the spatial distribution (point prevalence) of the malaria cases per Bairro.

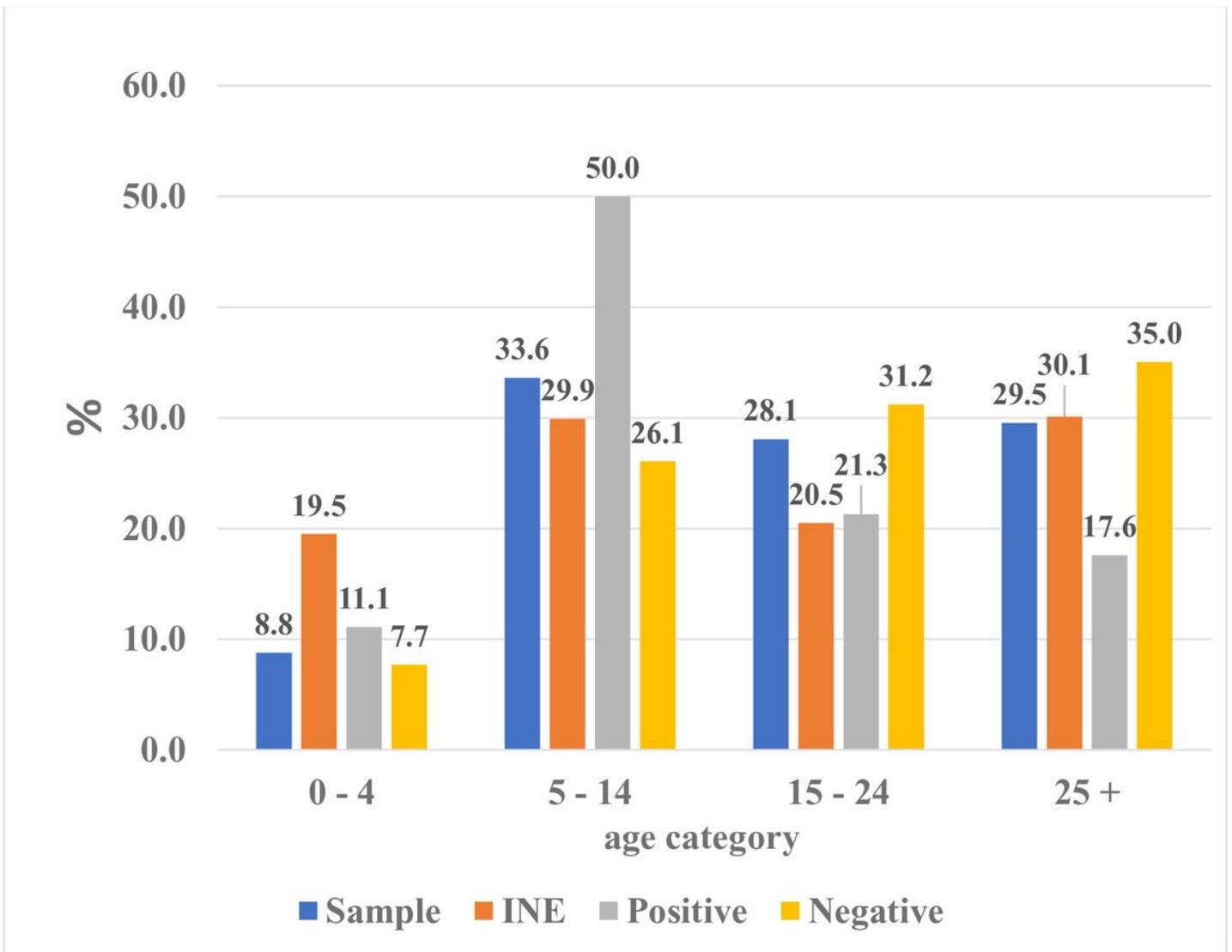


Figure 3

Figure 3 presents the residuals graph and linearity can be assumed. The data were checked for outliers (normality) and in the residual normalized table (additional file 2) no values above 2.0 were found implying that there were no outliers.

Supplementary Files

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- [00752Table4.docx](#)