

# A Bayesian Geo-Additive Modeling of Childhood Anemia in India

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## Research article

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**Title: “A Bayesian Geo-Additive Modeling of Childhood Anemia in India”**

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## Abstract

**Background:** The geographical differences that caused anaemia can be partially explained by the variability in environmental factors, particularly nutrition and infections. The studies failed to explain the non-linear effect of the continuous covariates on childhood anaemia. The present paper aimed to investigate the risk factors of childhood anaemia in India with focus on geographical spatial effect.

**Methods:** Geo-additive logistic regression models were fitted to the data to understand fixed as well as spatial effects of childhood anaemia. Logistic regression was fitted for the categorical variable with outcomes (anaemia ( $Hb < 11$ ) and no anaemia ( $Hb \geq 11$ )). Continuous covariates were modelled by the penalized spline and spatial effects were smoothed by the two-dimensional spline.

**Results:** At 95% posterior credible interval, the influence of unobserved factors on childhood anaemia is very strong in the Northern and Central part of India. However, most of the states in North Eastern part of India showed negative spatial effects. A U-shape non-linear relationship was observed between childhood anaemia and mother's age. This indicates that mothers of young and old ages are more likely to have children who are anaemic; in particular mothers aged 15 years to about 25 years. Then the risk of childhood anaemia starts declining after the age of 25 years and it continues till the age of around 37 years, thereafter again starts increasing. Further, the non-linear effects of duration of breastfeeding on childhood anaemia show that the risk of childhood anaemia decreases till 29 months thereafter increases.

1 **Conclusion:** Strong evidence of residual spatial effect to childhood anaemia in India.  
2 Government child health programme should gear up in treating childhood anaemia by  
3 focusing on known measurable factors such as mother's education, mother's anaemia status,  
4 family wealth status, child fever, stunting, underweight, and wasting which have been found  
5 to be significant in this study, attention should also be given to effects of unknown or  
6 unmeasured factors to childhood anaemia at the community level. Special attention to these  
7 unmeasurable factors should be focused in the states of central and northern India which have  
8 shown significant positive spatial effects.

9 **Keywords:** Spatial effects, Geo-additive logistic regression, P-splines, Childhood anaemia.  
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## 12 **Background**

13 Anemia among children is still a major public health concern in both developed and  
14 developing countries. Anemia is a condition in which the number and size of red blood cells  
15 or haemoglobin concentration is lower than the established cut-off value (1). Haemoglobin is  
16 essential to carry oxygen and if the body has abnormal or low red blood cells or not enough  
17 haemoglobin level, there will be a reduced capacity of the blood to carry oxygen to the body  
18 tissues. Globally, anemia affects 1.6 billion people, of which 47.4% were preschool-age  
19 children (2). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), anemia is considered a  
20 severe public health problem if the prevalence is 40 percent or more (2). In India, 58.5%  
21 percent of children between the age of 6 months to 5 years were anemic during 2015-2016  
22 (3). Moreover, studies have acknowledged the high prevalence of anaemia in low and  
23 middle-income countries (4), with 67.6% and 65.6% preschool-age children in Africa and  
24 South-East Asia suffered from anaemia (2).

1 Iron is an essential element of haemoglobin, and iron deficiency is the most common cause of  
2 anaemia. However, deficiency in micronutrient-rich diet, Vitamin A, and Vitamin B12 could  
3 be the reason for iron deficiency (5). Also, disease like diarrhea (6), malaria (7), helminth  
4 infection, and hookworms (5) increased the risk of anemia. In India, due to various socio-  
5 economic, cultural, and religious beliefs, dietary food habits also vary amongst the  
6 population. Dietary pattern is an essential factor associated with iron intake and absorption.  
7 For example, a vegetarian diet may increase the risk of anemia due to the lack of iron  
8 fortification (8). Existing literature have also shown that socio-economic factors such as  
9 lower maternal education, low economic status (9), and demographic factors such as age and  
10 sex of a child (10) affect anaemia. Maternal health status during pregnancy had a significant  
11 impact on the health and nutritional status of the child. Evidence from previous studies  
12 reported that maternal anaemia, and child nutritional statuses such as wasting, stunting and  
13 underweight increased the risk of anaemia (11,12). During the first 5 years of life, children  
14 are most vulnerable to iron-deficiency anaemia because of the increased iron requirements  
15 due to their rapid growth (13). Iron deficiency anaemia in children is a serious concern  
16 because it may increase childhood morbidity, impaired growth development, and have long  
17 term effects on cognitive development and school performance (13).

18 Accounting for geographical heterogeneity of anaemia and the possible cause of  
19 heterogeneity is vital for the allocation of health resources to prevent and control anaemia.  
20 According to Koissi & Högnäs, (2013) ignorance of geographical heterogeneity due to  
21 unobserved characteristics could lead to biased estimation of the parameters (14).  
22 Geographical heterogeneity could be the effect of the unmeasured factors, which means that  
23 the geographical differences of factors that caused anaemia can be partially explained by the  
24 variability in environmental (15). Malaria which caused anaemia are known to be associated  
25 with altitude and weather conditions such as temperature and rainfall (16). Similarly, soil-

1 transmitted helminth infection, which caused anaemia is influence by the distance to water  
2 bodies, surface temperature, index of vegetation and rainfall (17). There are a number of  
3 studies using different statistical models such as multilevel and spatial mixed model to  
4 determine the effect of geographical heterogeneity on childhood anaemia in India (9,10);  
5 however, all these studies have overlooked the advantage of using the bivariate spline in  
6 modelling geographical heterogeneity. Specifically, the above model failed to explain the  
7 non-linear effect of the continuous covariates on childhood anaemia.

8 Thus, the pioneering contribution of this study would be to explore the spatial variation of  
9 anaemia among children aged 6 to 59 months using the spatial mixed model by assuming the  
10 flexible approach of bivariate splines. More, specifically we want to explore the spatial  
11 effects on childhood anaemia which arise due to the unmeasured factors. Identifying the  
12 spatial clustering of anaemia and its associated risk factors may help improving the allocation  
13 of health resources.

## 14 **Methods**

### 15 *Study area and data*

16 The study used the fourth round of the Indian National Family and Health Survey (2015-  
17 2016) which adopted a multi-stage stratified cluster sampling design (18). A total of 699686  
18 eligible women between 15-49 years of age completed the interview. The whole data for the  
19 present study use child as the unit of analysis, rather than the mother itself. Information was  
20 available on 259627 children born in the last five years preceding the survey. The present  
21 study excluded the two union territories, Andaman & Nicobar and Lakswdeep as their  
22 borders are not connected to the map of India as this will create problem in the estimation of

1 spatial effects. Children with missing haemoglobin level were dropped from the analysis.  
2 With this criterion the final analytical sample size of children was 208707.

3 The covariates in the present study were selected based on previous study (15). The outcome  
4 variable used in the analysis was based on the categorization of haemoglobin level of children  
5 adjusted for altitude giving a binary variable where children whose haemoglobin level was  
6 less than 11Hb was categorised as being anaemic otherwise not anaemic. Mother educational  
7 level, household wealth index, child cough, child fever, received vitamin A, mother anaemia  
8 status, child stunting, wasting, underweight, child birth weight, child birth order, family size,  
9 child age, mother age. Duration of breast feeding, child age, and mother age were treated as  
10 continuous variables. However, the standard -2SD cut off values of z-scores categorization of  
11 height for age, weight for height, and weight for age were used to characterize stunting,  
12 wasting and underweight respectively.

### 13 *Statistical analysis*

14 Multiple logistic regression model was employed to select potential covariates for childhood  
15 anaemia prior to spatial analysis. A significance level of 20% was set for the selection of  
16 potential covariates to allow for selection of more variables to be used in the further analysis  
17 of spatial modelling.

18 Geo-additive logistic regression models were fitted to the data to understand fixed as well as  
19 spatial effects of childhood anaemia. If  $p_{ij}$  is the probability that child  $j$  from location  $i$  being  
20 anaemic, then child anaemic status which is binary is distributed as *Bernoulli*( $p_{ij}$ ). The  
21 following models were fitted to estimate fixed and spatial effects.

$$22 \text{MO: } \textit{logit}(p_{ij}) = z_i' \beta$$

1  $M1: \text{logit}(p_{ij}) = z'_i \beta + f_1(u_{i1}) + f_1(u_{i2}) + \dots + f_1(u_{ip})$

2  $M2: \text{logit}(p_{ij}) = z'_i \beta + f_{\text{spatial}}(S_i)$

3  $M3: \text{logit}(p_{ij}) = z'_i \beta + f_1(u_{i1}) + f_1(u_{i2}) + \dots + f_1(u_{ip}) + f_{\text{spatial}}(S_i)$

4 All categorical and continuous variables were treated as fixed effects in *M0*. In case of *M1*,  
5 categorical variables were employed as fixed effects and continuous variables were modelled  
6 by non-parametric smooth functions  $f_{jS}$ . Model *M2* included a spatial effect of the state where  
7 a child belongs in addition to the fixed effects of categorical variables. Finally, *M3* was a  
8 combination of *M1* and *M2*. The smooth functions  $f_{jS}$  were assigned with P-spline priors and  
9 the spatial component  $f_{\text{spatial}}(S_i)$  with Markov random field prior (19,20). A fully integrated  
10 Bayesian approach was adopted to estimate the parameters and the estimated posterior odds  
11 ratio (OR) can be interpreted as the odds ratio from the logistic regression models. The  
12 models were fitted using the freely available package *bamlss* (21) in *R* (*R* Core Team, 2020).  
13 A total of 40,000 MCMC iterations and 10,000 number of burn in samples were used in the  
14 analysis. Convergence of models were checked through autocorrelations and sampling paths.  
15 Finally, models were compared by Deviance Information Criterion (*DIC*) values (22), where  
16 the model with the smallest value is the preferred one. The *DIC* is calculated as  
17  $DIC = \bar{D} + p_D$ , where  $\bar{D}$  is the posterior mean of the model deviance, which gives a  
18 measure of goodness of fit, and  $p_D$  is the effective number of parameters describing the  
19 complexity of the model and controls for penalty for model over fitting.

## 20 **Results**

### 21 *Descriptive results*

1 **Table 1** provides prevalence of childhood anaemia according to region and states in India.  
 2 Northern, central and, eastern regions show high prevalence of anaemia compared to other  
 3 regions. The prevalence is above 60% in these three regions. The states of Chandigarh and  
 4 Haryana show relatively high prevalence of anaemia of about 73% and 72% in northern  
 5 region. In the central region, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh show relatively high  
 6 prevalence of anaemia. Jharkhand and Bihar are the states in eastern region having relatively  
 7 high prevalence of anaemia of about 70% and 64% respectively. Most of the states in the  
 8 north-eastern region show comparatively low prevalence of anaemia ranging from 24% to  
 9 57%. The states of Karnataka and Telangana show relatively high prevalence of anaemia  
 10 above 60%. The overall prevalence of anaemia in India is about 58%.

11 **Table 1: State variation of childhood anaemia**

Region/State	Percentage of children (Anaemic)	Number of cases with anaemic children
<b>Northern</b>	62.2	21,765
Chandigarh	72.7	112
Haryana	72.3	4,725
Himachal Pradesh	58.1	1,324
Jammu and Kashmir	59.6	3,986
Delhi	61.3	627
Punjab	57.3	2,544
Rajasthan	60.9	8,447
<b>Central</b>	63.0	41,351
Chhattisgarh	42.9	3,060
Madhya Pradesh	69.7	14,015
Uttar Pradesh	63.8	21,468
Uttarakhand	59.1	2,808
<b>Eastern</b>	61.2	27,158
Bihar	63.6	13,332
Jharkhand	70.1	7,002
Odisha	48.6	4,393
West Bengal	55.6	2,431
<b>North-Eastern</b>	35.8	10,504
Arunachal Pradesh	53.3	1,956
Assam	35.7	2,838
Manipur	24.2	1,153
Meghalaya	48.7	1,706
Mizoram	23.9	975
Nagaland	26.2	908
Sikkim	56.6	457

Tripura	48.1	511
<b>Southern</b>	54.7	10,806
Andhra Pradesh	58.2	1,246
Karnataka	62.1	3,818
Kerala	36.0	742
Puducherry	43.8	408
Tamil Nadu	51.5	3,461
Telangana	64.3	1,131
<b>Western</b>	58.2	8,524
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	83.9	220
Daman & Diu	72.4	205
Goa	48.3	174
Gujarat	63.7	3,839
Maharashtra	52.9	4,086
<b>India</b>	57.6	120,108

1

2 **Table 2** provides a comparison of childhood anaemia across categorical covariates and a test  
3 of significance difference between categories of each covariate by chi-square test. It is  
4 evident that children from rural, mother with low education, household of poor economic  
5 condition show higher prevalence of anaemia than respective counterparts. There is a clear  
6 significant difference in childhood anaemia between levels of place of residence, mother's  
7 education and household wealth. But the sex of child does not show any significance  
8 difference in childhood anaemia. Children with fever shows a tendency of higher prevalence  
9 of anaemia. It can also be seen that consumption of vitamin A supplement during childhood  
10 is helpful to reduce prevalence of anaemia. Under nutrition of children also shows an increase  
11 in prevalence of anaemia. At 5% level of significance the categorical variables, place of  
12 residence, mother's education, household economic status, child fever, vitamin A, stunting,  
13 wasting, underweight and, mother's anaemic status are all associated with childhood anaemic  
14 without controlling for other covariates. The categorical variables child birth order,  
15 household size, child birth weight show a non-significant effect on childhood anaemia at 20%  
16 level of significance in the preliminary analysis. Therefore, only categorical variables listed  
17 in **Table 2** are included in the spatial logistic regression model in **Table 4**.

1 **Table 2: Prevalence of childhood anaemia by fixed covariates with effect coding used in**  
 2 **model**

Factor	N (%)	<i>P</i> *	Effect coding
Place of residence		<0.001	
Urban	27,338 (55.2)		1
Rural	92,770 (58.3)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Sex of the child		0.644	
Male	62,486 (57.5)		1
Female	57,622 (57.6)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Mother's education		<0.001	
Primary	17,845 (58.3)		1
Secondary	50,460 (54.1)		2
Higher	9,467 (50.1)		3
No education	42,336 (64.3)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Wealth index		<0.001	
Poor	28,395 (57.6)		1
Middle	23,422 (56.2)		2
Rich	18,677 (53.9)		3
Richest	14,804 (52.9)		4
Poorest	34,810 (63.2)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Fever		<0.001	
Yes	16,729 (60.9)		1
No	103,295 (57.1)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Missing	84 (52.8)		
Cough		0.220	
Yes	13,887 (57.1)		1
No	106,159 (57.6)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Missing	62 (54.9)		
Child received vitamin A		>0.001	
Yes	38,674 (58.1)		1
No	80,003 (57.3)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Missing	1,431 (57.1)		
Stunting		<0.001	
Yes	50,438 (62.7)		1
No	64,015 (53.6)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Missing	5,655 (63.9)		
Underweight		<0.001	
Yes	45,252 (63.7)		1
No	69,201 (53.7)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Missing	5,655 (63.9)		
Wasting		<0.001	
Yes	8,814 (64.1)		1
No	105,639 (56.8)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Missing	5,655 (63.9)		
Mother anaemic		<0.001	
Yes	48,928 (67.8)		1
No	70,787 (52.1)		-1 <sup>R</sup>
Missing	393 (58.1)		

3 <sup>R</sup>: Reference category; \*: *p*-value of chi-square test of independence.

1

2 *Model selection*

3 The selection of the most preferred model is based on the deviance information criterion  
4 (DIC) and deviance values. Model with the smallest values of DIC and deviance is the  
5 preferred model. With this criteria, model *M3* is the preferred model (**Table 3**). Therefore,  
6 interpretations of results (**Table 4**) and discussions are based on model *M3*.

7 **Table 3: Model comparison by deviance information criterion (DIC)**

Model Fit	Deviance	pD	DIC
M0	171173.90	19.79	171154.10
M1	170885.30	37.71	170847.60
M2	165233.90	51.77	165182.10
M3	164909.50	69.92	164839.60

8 *3.3 Fixed effects*

9 Table 4 shows fixed effects to childhood anaemia. Place of residence, mother’s education,  
10 poorest, rich, richest categories of household wealth, fever, cough, child under nutrition and  
11 mother’s anaemic status are fixed effects variables which are significant to childhood  
12 anaemia. The fixed effects coefficient for fever is positive, which indicates that children with  
13 fever are likely to increase the risk of childhood anaemia. Children who take vitamin A  
14 supplement decrease the likelihood of becoming anaemic. Children from rich or richest  
15 quintile of household wealth also have lesser risk of childhood anaemia than those who  
16 belong to poorest quintile. Children who are malnourished increase the risk of childhood  
17 anaemia. Mother’s anaemic status has a positive effect on childhood anaemia. This means  
18 that children whose mothers are anaemic have higher risk of being anaemic than those whose  
19 mothers are not anaemic.

20 **Table 4: Fixed effects on children anaemia in India**

Variable	Mean	SD	10%	Median	90%
Place of residence					

Rural <sup>R</sup>					
Urban	0.0359*	0.008	0.0262	0.0355	0.0461
Sex of child					
Female <sup>R</sup>					
Male	0.0074	0.006	-0.0003	0.0075	0.0148
Mother's education					
No education <sup>R</sup>					
Primary	0.0563*	0.014	0.0386	0.0564	0.0740
Secondary	-0.0358*	0.010	-0.0481	-0.0361	-0.0229
Higher	-0.1843*	0.016	-0.2056	-0.1844	-0.1625
Wealth index					
Poorest <sup>R</sup>					
Poor	0.0740*	0.012	0.0585	0.0736	0.0893
Middle	0.0069	0.012	-0.0079	0.0071	0.0222
Rich	-0.0904*	0.013	-0.1072	-0.0904	-0.0736
Richest	-0.1332*	0.017	-0.1548	-0.1330	-0.1125
Child had fever					
No <sup>R</sup>					
Yes	0.0326*	0.010	0.0200	0.0327	0.0451
Child had cough					
No <sup>R</sup>					
Yes	-0.0594*	0.010	-0.0723	-0.0596	-0.0466
Child received vitamin					
A					
No <sup>R</sup>					
Yes	-0.0041	0.007	-0.0125	-0.0042	0.0042
Child stunted					
No <sup>R</sup>					
Yes	0.0999*	0.007	0.0903	0.1000	0.1091
Child underweight					
No <sup>R</sup>					
Yes	0.0797*	0.008	0.0698	0.0795	0.0899
Child wasted					
No <sup>R</sup>					
Yes	0.0387*	0.012	0.0235	0.0387	0.0541
Mother anaemic					
No <sup>R</sup>					
Yes	0.2715*	0.007	0.2632	0.2714	0.2803

1 <sup>R</sup>: Reference category. \*:Statistically significant at 5% alpha.

2 *Non-linear effects*

3 Another reason behind the geo-additive modelling is the ability to incorporate non-linear  
4 effects of continuous variables. In the present study, we incorporated non-linear effects of age  
5 of child, mother's age and, duration of breast feeding.

1 Child age has non-linear effect to childhood anaemia (**Fig 1**). It is evident from **Fig 1** that as  
2 child age increases, its effect on child anaemia decreases, which indicates, older children are  
3 less likely to have the risk of childhood anaemia. The risk of having anaemia is much higher  
4 in younger children aged about 6 months to about 15 months and decreases thereafter.

5 **Fig 1. Non linear effect of child age to childhood anaemia. Lower and Upper lines indicate 95%**  
6 **confidence interval**

7 Mother age also has a non-linear effect to childhood anaemia (**Fig 2**). The functional  
8 relationship between childhood anaemia and mother age depicts almost a U shape. This  
9 indicates that mothers of young and old ages are more likely to have children who are  
10 anaemic; in particular mothers aged 15 years to about 25 years. Then the risk of childhood  
11 anaemia starts declining after the age of 25 years and it continues till the age of around 37  
12 years, thereafter again starts increasing.

13 **Fig 2. Non linear effect of mother age to childhood anaemia. Lower and Upper lines indicate**  
14 **95% confidence interval**

15 **Fig 3** shows the non-linear effects of duration of breast feeding on childhood anaemia. The  
16 risk of childhood anaemia decreases till 29 months, thereafter increases. This indicates  
17 improvement in childhood anaemia with increase in duration of breast feeding. The credible  
18 intervals are wider at extreme ages because of small cases of observations.

19 **Fig 3. Non linear effect of duration of breast feeding to childhood anaemia. Lower and Upper**  
20 **lines indicate 95% confidence interval.**

21 *Spatial effects*

22 **Fig 4** displays the estimates of the spatial effects of childhood anaemia, with colour range  
23 goes from black to white representing low to high risk of childhood anaemia. Spatial effects  
24 represent unobserved influences, such as environmental and climatic factors, availability of  
25 good transport facility, and access to good services for child health. The figure clearly shows  
26 evidence of residual spatial effects of childhood anaemia in India with most of states show

1 significant positive/negative effects with respect to the 95% posterior credible interval map  
2 (Fig 5). With respect to 80% posterior credible interval more states show significant spatial  
3 effects (Fig 6). Most of states in northern and central regions show significant positive spatial  
4 effects with respect to 95% credible interval. However, almost all states in north-eastern  
5 region of India show significant negative spatial effects with regard to the 80% credible  
6 interval (Fig 6).

7 **Fig 4. Residual spatial effect to childhood anaemia. Colour ranges from black to white**  
8 **representing low to high risk of childhood anaemia.**

9  
10 **Fig 5. The 95% credible intervals map for prevalence of anaemia. White: negative effect; light**  
11 **black: insignificant effect; black: positive effect.**

12  
13 **Fig 6. The 80% credible intervals map for prevalence of anaemia. White: negative effect; light**  
14 **black: insignificant effect; black: positive effect.**

## 15 **Discussion**

16 In India Childhood anaemia cuts across all the sections of society with varying intensity. Its  
17 prevalence as per the WHO classification is the indication that it is a severe public health  
18 problem for India. Except for Mizoram, Manipur, Nagaland, Assam, and Kerala for all the  
19 states and union territories (UTs,) anaemia is a matter of concern, whereas for states like  
20 Haryana, Jharkhand, and Madhya Pradesh it is of extremely serious concern. These three  
21 states need to revisit existing programs targeting to address the child health in general and  
22 anaemia in particular.

23  
24 Anaemia has a close link with the food habit. Food habit is closely associated with culture  
25 and the nature. Geographical settings decide the nature of food supply and the micronutrients.  
26 Within the same geographical settings culture may encourage or discourage some group of  
27 population to consume or avoid certain nutritious food. For example tribal culture of  
28 northeast India approves consumption of varieties of insects, whereas for non-tribals

1 consumption of such insects is considered as taboo. Probably because of this reason the tribal  
2 dominated states like Mizoram, Manipur, and Nagaland have very low prevalence of anaemic  
3 children. However, our finding contradicts other studies in India that children from lowest  
4 socioeconomic strata have more likelihood of suffering from anaemia (9,23) and Nepal (24).

5

6 The prevalence of anaemia among children in rural areas is comparatively higher than their  
7 counter part in India. Rural mass in India might be less aware about the balanced diet which  
8 has potentials to improve the hemoglobin count. Because as high as one third of rural  
9 population in India are illiterate. Ignorance of food items relating to iron content food stuff  
10 may also add to the problem of anaemia in rural areas. This indicates that mass media  
11 campaign to address anaemia should emphasize pictorial and or audio-visual means, rather  
12 than on the written leaflets. A distinct negative relationship between wealth quintile and child  
13 anaemia is quite evident. This is indicative of the fact that economically poorer households  
14 may not be able to afford to procure nutritious food. This calls for better public distribution  
15 system which provides subsidized food in India. The system need to keep an eye on  
16 regularity, quantity, quality, etc.

17

18 Uneducated mothers are less equipped with knowledge of hygiene and proper knowledge of  
19 child care. Unhealthy feeding habit can lead to various types of food related health problems.  
20 Feeding practice is closely associated with diarrhoeal disease and studies exhibit that there is  
21 positive relationship between diarrhoea and anemia. Unlike earlier studies (8,10) no  
22 significant association is noted between sex of the child and prevalence of anaemia in the  
23 present study. Children who take vitamin A supplement decrease the likelihood of becoming  
24 anaemic. But earlier study (8) did not find significant statistical association between vitamin  
25 A intake and childhood anaemia. In India, poor and illiterate families leave their baby on the

1 mud floor. The crawling baby in absence of any care taker may put to mouth anything it  
2 comes to his hand. Such activities may lead to various infections, morbidities, that is why  
3 younger children have more likelihood of suffering from anaemia. Other studies also indicate  
4 that younger children have more chances of having anaemia (15,24). Very young mothers  
5 definitely are less educated and relatively old mothers might take child rearing for granted, as  
6 they may already have older children. Other study also indicates U-shape relationship  
7 between mother's age and the childhood anaemia (15) and others (10,25) found children born  
8 to young mothers are more likely to be anaemic.

9

10 In India usually the educated and rich women, due to various reasons, do not practice  
11 exclusive breast feeding. Exclusive breast feeding in India is usually practiced among the less  
12 educated and poor women, as a result a positive association between exclusive breast feeding  
13 and childhood anaemia is observed. However, this finding contradicts studies conducted  
14 elsewhere (26).

15

## 16 **Conclusions**

17 There is strong evidence of residual spatial effect to childhood anaemia in India. Government  
18 child health programme should gear up in treating childhood anaemia by focusing on known  
19 measurable factors such as mother's education, mother's anaemia status, family wealth status,  
20 child fever, stunting, underweight, and wasting which have been found to be significant in  
21 this study, attention should also be given to effects of unknown or unmeasured factors to  
22 childhood anaemia at the community level. Special attention to these unmeasurable factors  
23 should be focused in the states of central and northern India which have shown significant  
24 positive spatial effects.

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### List of Abbreviation

**DIC**- Deviance Information Criterion

**WHO**- World Health Organisation

**OR**- Odds Ratio

**UTs**- Union Territories

**HSC**- Holendro Singh Chungkham

**SPM**- Strong P Marbaniang

**PKN**- Pralip Kumar Narzary

### Declarations

**Ethical approval and consent to participate:** The 2015-16 Indian Demographic Health Survey data are available to the public by request from the DHS website <https://dhsprogram.com/methodology/survey/survey-display-355.cfm>. We submitted a request to the DHS by mentioning the objectives of this study and thereafter was granted the permission to download the dataset.

**Consent for publication:** Not applicable

**Availability of data and materials:** The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are available in the Website of Demographic Health Survey <https://dhsprogram.com/methodology/survey/survey-display-355.cfm>

**Competing interest:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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**Author's contributions:** HSC, SPM conceived the study, involved in the study design, data analysis, interpret the data, drafted the manuscript. PKN drafted the manuscript. All authors read and agreed on the submitted final manuscript.

**Acknowledgement:** Not applicable

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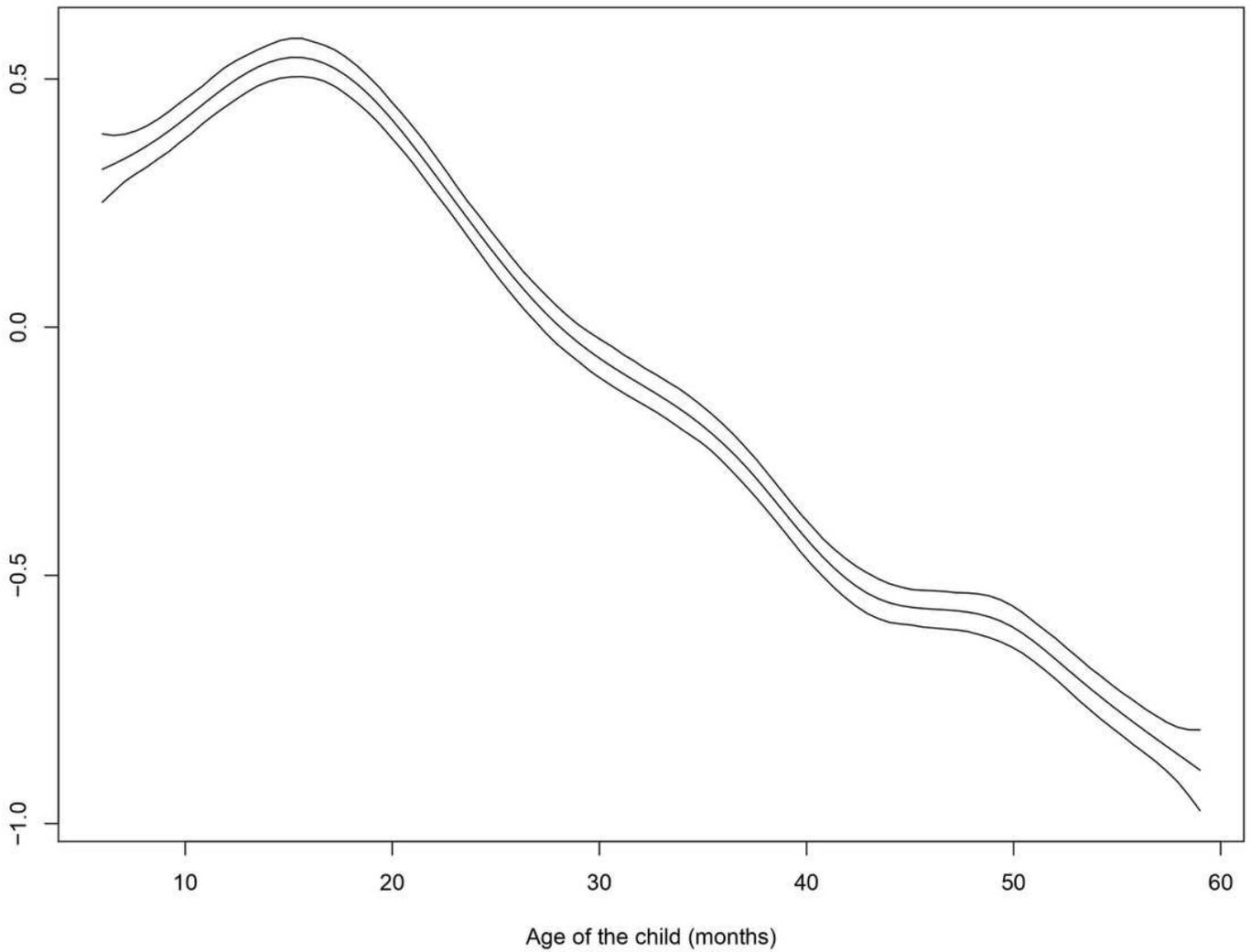
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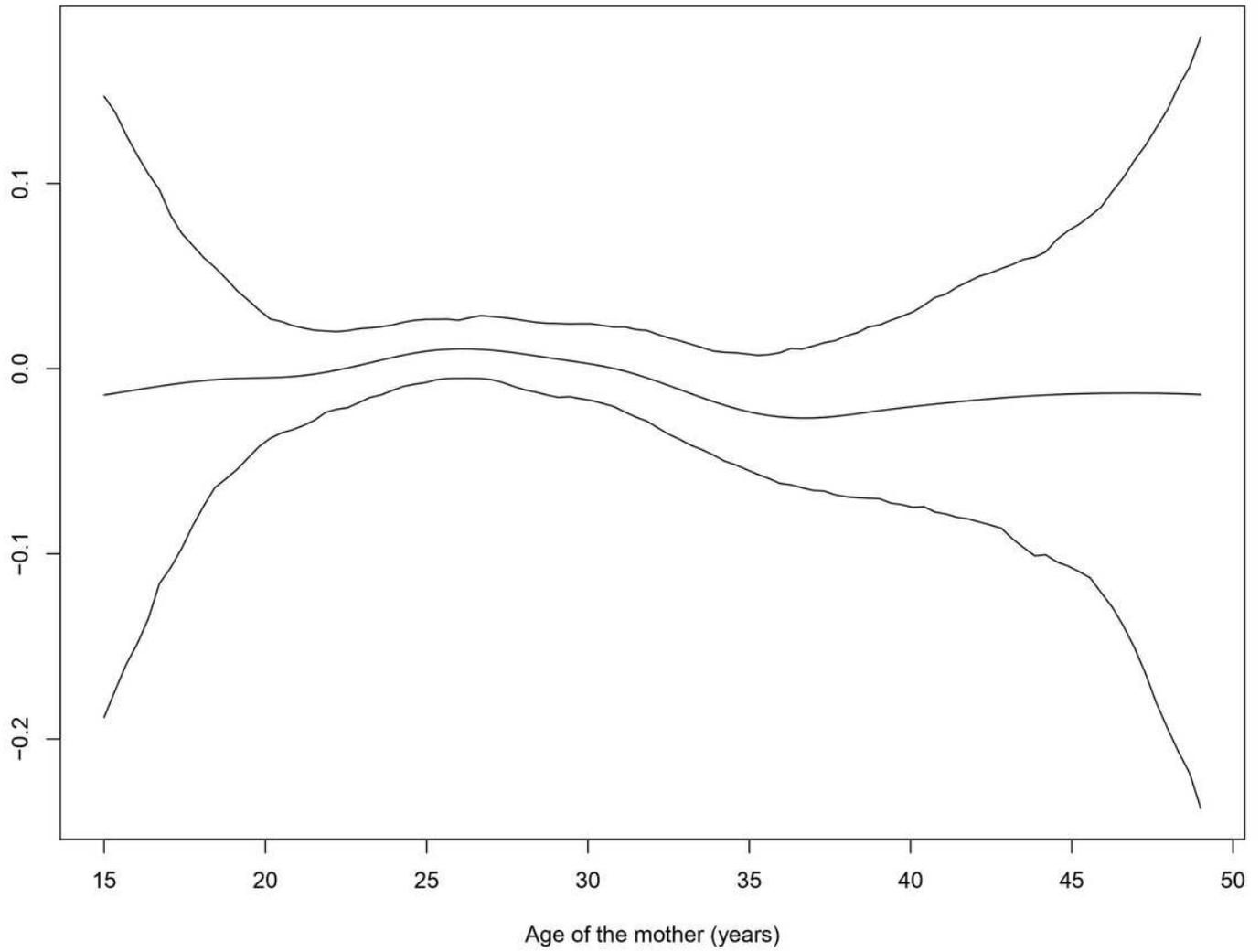
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# Figures



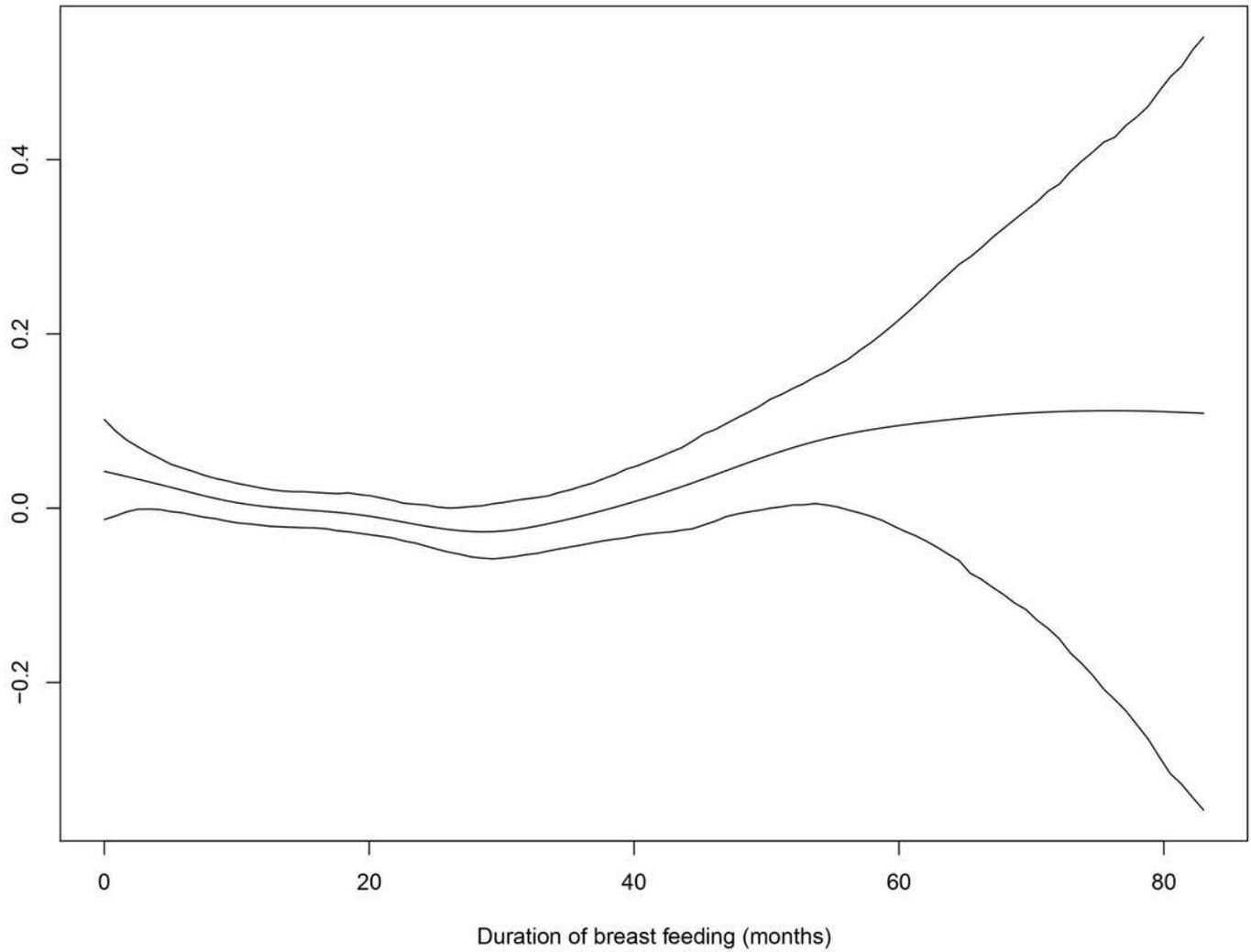
**Figure 1**

Non linear effect of child age to childhood anaemia. Lower and Upper lines indicate 95% confidence interval



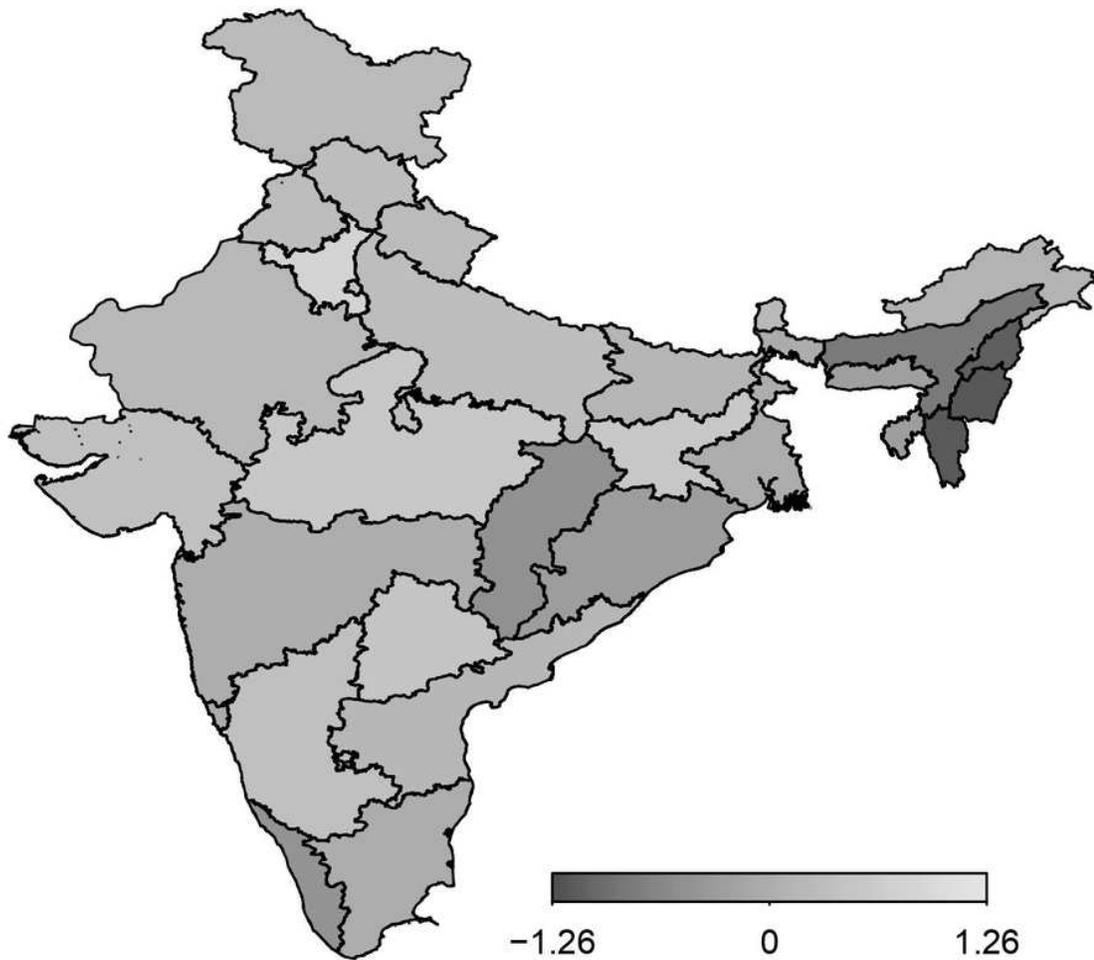
**Figure 2**

Non linear effect of mother age to childhood anaemia. Lower and Upper lines indicate 95% confidence interval



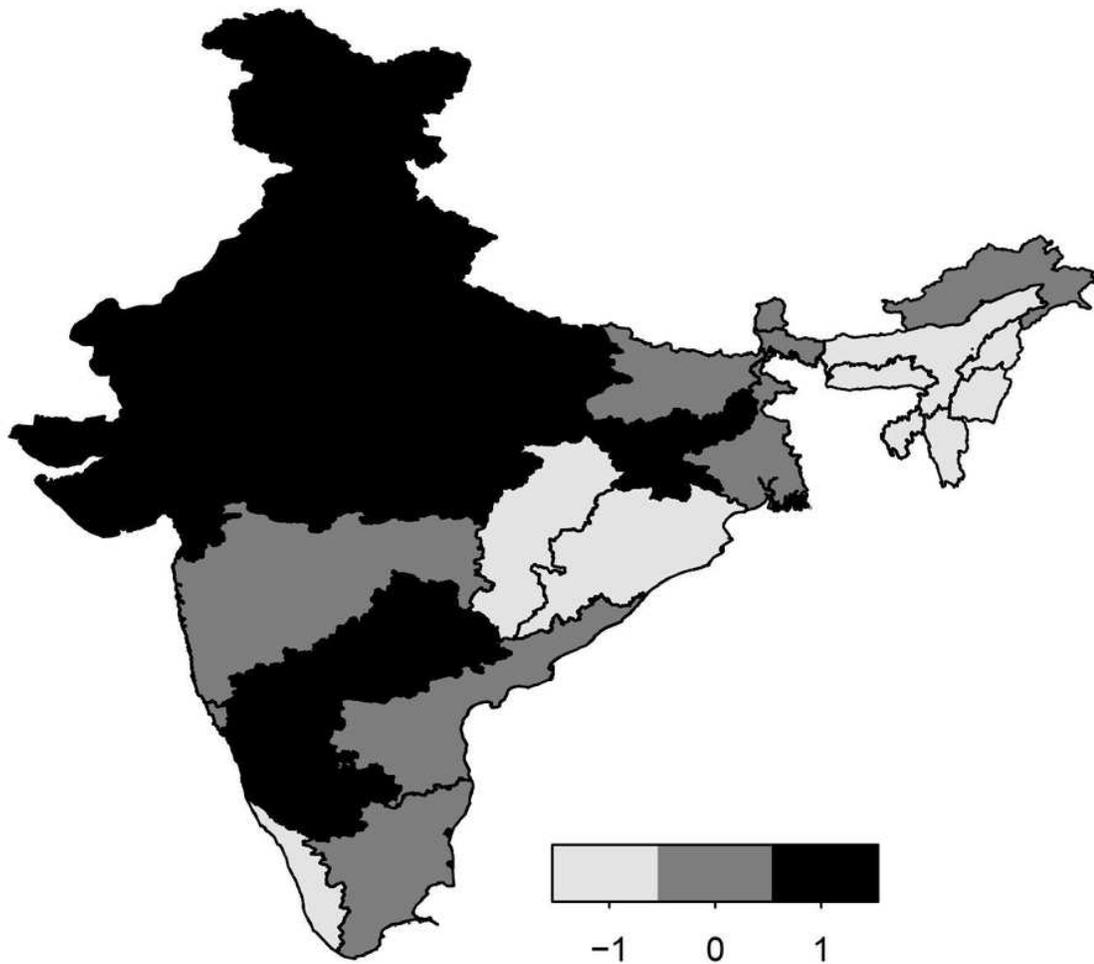
**Figure 3**

Non linear effect of duration of breast feeding to childhood anaemia. Lower and Upper lines indicate 95% confidence interval.



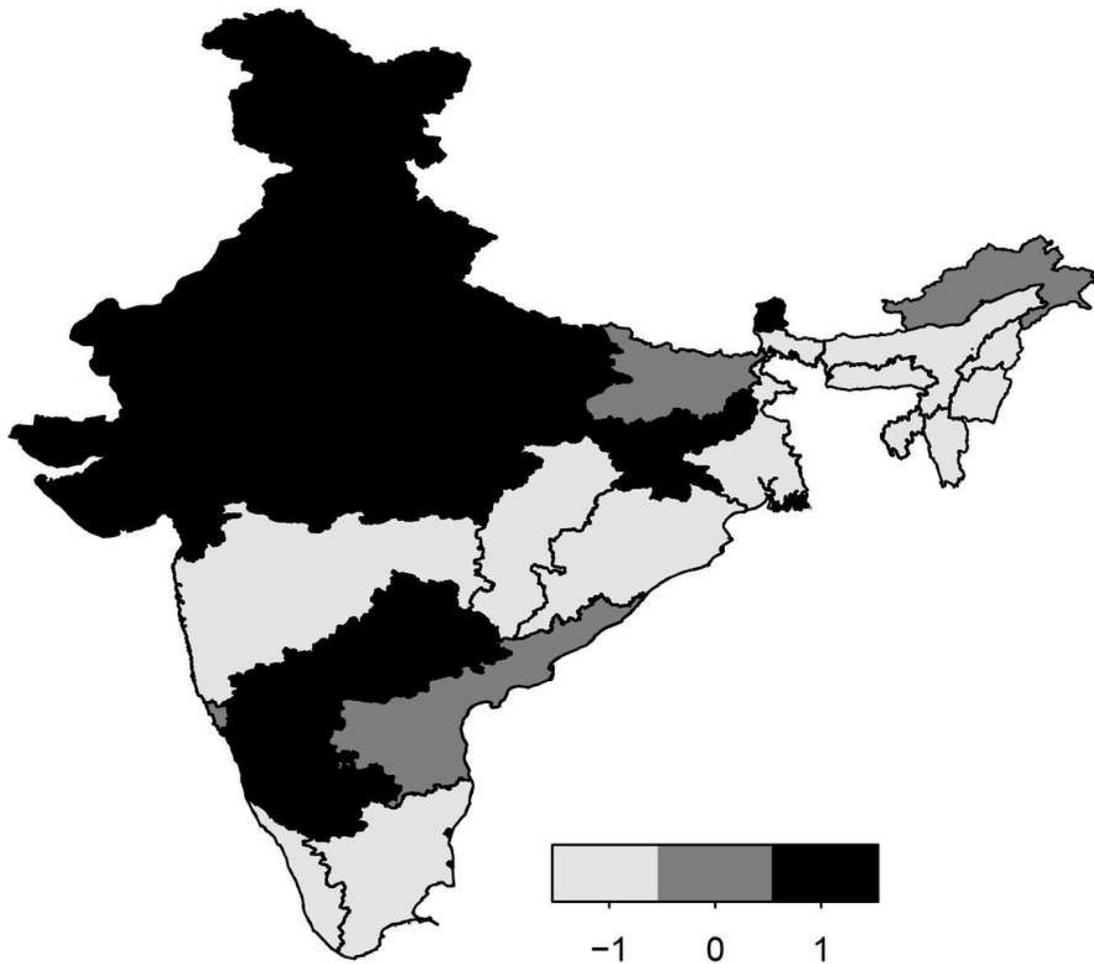
**Figure 4**

Residual spatial effect to childhood anaemia. Colour ranges from black to white representing low to high risk of childhood anaemia. 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 5**

The 95% credible intervals map for prevalence of anaemia. White: negative effect; light black: insignificant effect; black: positive effect. 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 6**

The 80% credible intervals map for prevalence of anaemia. White: negative effect; light black: insignificant effect; black: positive effect. 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.