

# Estimating Malaria Attributable Fractions With Changing Transmission Intensity: Bayesian Latent Class Vs Logistic Models

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## Research Article

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1 **Estimating malaria attributable fractions with changing transmission**  
2 **intensity: Bayesian latent class vs logistic models.**

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13 **Abstract:**

14 Background

15 Asymptomatic carriage of malaria parasites is common in high transmission intensity areas and confounds  
16 clinical case definitions for research studies. This is important for investigations that aim to identify immune  
17 correlates of protection from clinical malaria. The proportion of fevers attributable to malaria parasites is  
18 widely used to define different thresholds of parasite density associated with febrile episodes. We  
19 investigated whether varying intensity of malaria transmission had a significant impact on parasite density  
20 thresholds. We used the same dataset to explore an alternative statistical approach using the probability  
21 of developing fevers as a choice over threshold cut-offs as the former has been reported to increase  
22 predictive power.

23 Methods

24 Data from children monitored longitudinally between 2005 and 2017 from Junju and Chonyi in Kilifi, Kenya  
25 were analysed. We compare the performance of Bayesian-latent class and logistic power models in  
26 estimating malaria attributable fractions and probabilities of having fever given a parasite density with  
27 changing malaria transmission intensity. Zero-inflated beta regressions were used to assess the impact of  
28 using probabilities to evaluate anti-merozoite antibodies as correlates of protection compared with  
29 multilevel binary regression.

### 30 Results

31 Malaria transmission intensity declined from over 49% to 5% between 2006 and 2017 respectively. During  
32 this period, malaria attributable fraction varied between 27%-59% using logistic regression compared to  
33 10%-36% using the Bayesian latent class approach. Both models estimated similar patterns of fevers  
34 attributable to malaria with changing transmission intensities. The former performed well in estimating the  
35 probabilities of having fever, while the latter was efficient in determining the parasite density threshold.  
36 However, compared to the logistic power model, the Bayesian algorithm yielded lower estimates for both  
37 attributable fractions and probabilities of fever. In modelling the association of merozoite antibodies and  
38 clinical malaria, both approaches resulted in comparable estimates, but the utilization of probabilities had  
39 a better statistical fit.

### 40 Conclusions.

41 Malaria attributable fractions varied with an overall decline in the malaria transmission intensity in this  
42 setting but did not significantly impact the outcomes of analyses aimed at identifying immune correlates of  
43 protection. These data confirm the statistical advantage of using probabilities over binary data.

44

45 Keywords: case definition, malaria, attributable fractions, probability

## 46 **Background**

47 Asymptomatic carriage of malaria parasites is highly prevalent in areas with high malaria  
48 transmission as a result of naturally acquired immunity (1). It is therefore likely that, in  
49 such areas, an individual with a non-malarial fever has coincidental parasitemia. Since  
50 the likelihood of having fever generally increases with parasite density (2–4) the  
51 assumption is that fever in the presence of parasitemia necessarily constitutes a clinical  
52 malaria. However, in high transmission settings (5) parasitemia accompanied by fever  
53 may not be adequate to define an episode of clinical malaria and may lead to differential  
54 misclassification. Besides causing an over-estimation of malaria burden in an area (2,6),  
55 the misclassification complicates immunological and clinical trials where clinical malaria  
56 cases are an endpoint or one of the outcome variable. As an outcome variable it is  
57 particularly important for identifying correlates of protection from clinical episodes to  
58 inform vaccine development.

59 To overcome this problem of misdiagnosis, different studies have based the case  
60 definition of malaria on fever with parasite density above a locally defined threshold.  
61 Computation of malaria attributable fractions (MAF) or the proportion of fevers due to  
62 malaria parasites has been used to define different thresholds for parasitemia (3,4).

63 The classical method for deriving the attributable fraction is a simple numerator  
64 denominator approach (7) which is prone to bias when applied in high malaria  
65 transmission areas (6). In high transmission settings, individuals may have parasites and  
66 not show clinical signs of malaria. Logistic regression models are typically used to handle

67 this bias. They determine the risk of the outcome as a continuous function of parasite  
68 density (2,3), and have been widely used to obtain attributable fractions against a range  
69 of outcomes with parasitemia as the exposure variable (2,3,8–10). Additionally, a  
70 Bayesian latent class model of two-component mixture distributions was proposed to  
71 improve the estimation of attributable fractions (4). The latent class model was developed  
72 to handle the limitation of imprecise or negative attributable fractions occasionally  
73 observed in standard logistic regression models (6).

74 Malaria transmission intensity has been found to strongly influence the attributable  
75 fractions. In a study conducted in two areas with different transmission intensities in Kilifi  
76 at the coast of Kenya, a MAF of 50.2% derived for Ngerenya, the low transmission site  
77 and 47.9% for Chonyi, the high transmission site. In this study, the logistic regression  
78 method was applied and derived a parasite density threshold of 2500 parasites/ $\mu$ L of  
79 blood as the most appropriate to distinguish malaria attributable fevers from fevers due  
80 to other causes in both settings. Following this study, this threshold has been widely  
81 applied in the definition of malaria cases in various studies conducted along the Kenyan  
82 coast (8,11–14).

83 Significant reductions in malaria transmission and admissions have been reported over  
84 the last decade in endemic countries in Africa (15) and in particular at the Kenyan coast  
85 (12,16,17). Based on this observed reduction in transmission and the influence of  
86 transmission intensity on the malaria attributable fractions, we conducted the present  
87 study to determine the variation of malaria attributable fractions over time.

88 We also estimated the probability of fever as a function of parasite density and the  
89 optimal parasite thresholds using logistic regression (4,18). The estimated probabilities  
90 of fever have been used in determining risk of developing clinical episodes in malaria  
91 vaccine trials. In these trials, the probabilities estimated from a Bayesian latent class  
92 model were proposed as a better approach to compare the placebo and control groups  
93 (19,20).

94 Several articles (21–25) have pointed out problems associated with the categorization of  
95 data. These include not only the loss of information on variation and statistical power,  
96 but also an increased risk of type I errors and poor predictive performance (22,23,25).  
97 In this study, we explore the utilization of probability estimates from Bayesian latent class  
98 models as an alternative to dichotomizing individuals using a selected parasite density  
99 threshold.

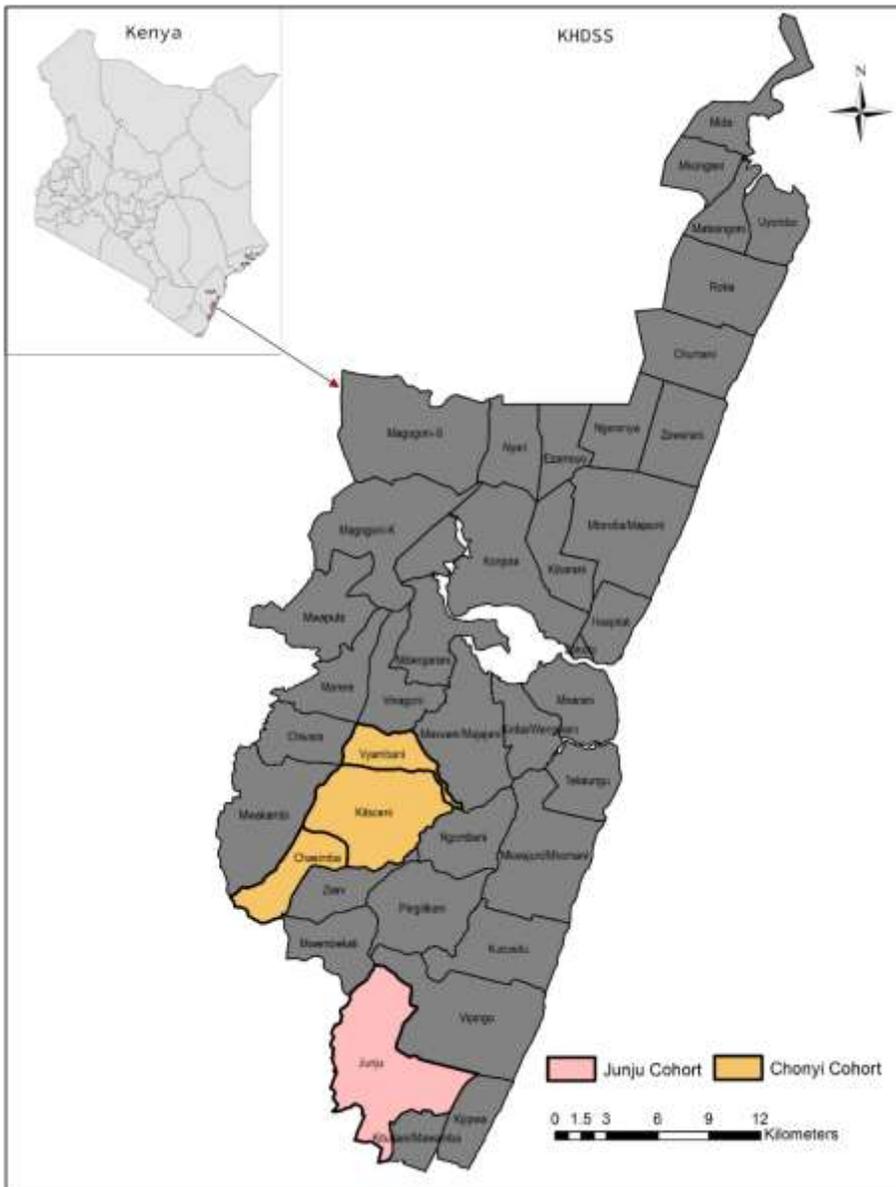
## 100 **Methods**

### 101 **Study area and population**

102 We used cohort data from Junju and Chonyi sub-counties in Kilifi County, which is part of  
103 the Kilifi Health and Demographic Surveillance System (KHDSS) on the coastal region of  
104 Kenya, Figure 1 (26). The area has two malaria transmission seasons May-July and  
105 November-December. For Junju the data were prospectively collected from participants  
106 aged 1 to 15 years old between 2005 and 2017 (inclusive) who were initially recruited  
107 into a malaria vaccine trial (FP9 ME-TRAP and MVA-ME TRAP, Bejon et al. 2006).The

108 Chonyi dataset had 286 children aged between 0-10years collected in October 2000 and  
109 was only used for model comparison (28).

110



111

112 *Figure 1: Junju and Chonyi study sites in the Kilifi Health and Demographic Surveillance System (KHDSS)*

113

#### 114 **Malaria parasite prevalence cross-sectional survey**

115 A cross-sectional malaria survey was done every year at the beginning of the malaria  
116 season (March-May) for the Junju cohort as shown in Table 1 except for 2005 and 2006  
117 where the surveys were done during the malaria season for a vaccine trial. For the Chonyi  
118 cohort, the cross-sectional malaria survey was done in October 2000. Parasitemia was  
119 determined by thin smear microscopy. In both studies, the participants were followed up  
120 both actively with weekly home visits by trained field workers and passively at health  
121 facilities to identify clinical episodes of malaria. Blood smears were prepared to determine  
122 parasite densities for any child who had a fever (axillary temp  $\geq 37.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for the cross-  
123 section surveys and follow-up surveillance, respectively. The Government of Kenya-  
124 recommended first-line treatment was used for treatment episodes of malaria.

125 For the parasitemia determination by microscopy, the number of asexual-stage  
126 parasites/200 leukocytes was counted, and parasitemia estimated based on actual or  
127 assumed (8,000 leukocytes/ $\mu\text{L}$ ) leukocyte count measured for each blood smear.

#### 128 **Statistical analysis**

129 A case-control analysis of the relationship between the risk of fever and parasite density  
130 was carried out separately for each year using logistic regression and Bayesian latent  
131 class models using R (29) and OpenBugs (30) respectively. Additionally, the analysis was  
132 repeated in each age group using the overall dataset. Cases corresponded to fever  
133 episodes detected by passive or active case detection and controls were those collected

134 during the cross-sectional surveys or the individuals with parasites and no fever during  
135 follow-up.

### 136 Logistic regression

137 A logistic regression model was fit to the data modelling the risk of fever as a continuous  
138 function of the parasite density. The model was of the form  $\text{logit}(\pi_i) = \alpha + f(x_i)$  where  
139  $\pi_i$  is the probability that observation  $i$  with parasite density  $x_i$  is a (fever) case. Along  
140 with  $f(x_i) = \beta x_i^\tau$ , a smooth monotonic function of  $x_i^\tau$  where  $\tau$  is the power  
141 transformation of the parasite density. This power function  $\tau$  was tested at different  
142 values between 0.10 and 0.90 with a precision of 0.01 and the value that maximized the  
143 log-likelihood best was chosen. The malaria attributable fraction (MAF),  $\lambda$ , was estimated  
144 using the slope coefficient of the logistic regression;  $\lambda = (1/N) \sum_1^i (R_i - 1) / R_i$  where  
145  $R_i = \exp[f(x_i)]$  and the standard error estimated using the bootstrap approach with 1000  
146 bootstrap samples. The logistic model was also used to estimate the probability of each  
147 individual case of fever being attributable to malaria using  $\lambda_{ind} = (R_i - 1) / R_i$  (2).

### 148 Bayesian latent class

149 For the Bayesian latent class model, the parasite density was resolved to a mixture of  
150 two multinomial distributions. One component  $g_1(\cdot)$  corresponds to non-malaria fever  
151 episodes and the other component,  $g_2(\cdot)$  to children with clinical malaria episodes (fever  
152 and parasites). Parasite levels during the cross-sectional bleed were available and were

153 used as the training sample, i.e., a sample that comes from the component of the mixture  
 154 corresponding to children without fever but who may have parasites. The data was then  
 155 divided into  $K$  ordered categories over the range of the parasite density  $\mathbf{X}$ . This was  
 156 followed by counting the of test samples  $\mathbf{n} = (n_0, n_1, \dots, n_{k-1})$  and control samples (non-  
 157 fever cases)  $\mathbf{m} = (m_0, m_1, \dots, m_{k-1})$ . Then the MAF,  $\lambda$ , was then estimated from the two  
 158 multinomial distributions,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \theta_i &= P(x \in \text{category } i \mid P_1), \\
 \phi_i &= P(x \in \text{category } i \mid P_2), \quad (1.1) \\
 \lambda &= P(x \in P_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

160 The parameters  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are the distributions functions of the components  $g_1(\cdot)$  and  
 161  $g_2(\cdot)$  respectively. The category-specific attributable fractions were obtained using,

$$\lambda_i = P(x \in P_2 \mid x \in \text{category } i) = \frac{\lambda \phi_i}{(1-\lambda)\theta_i + \lambda \phi_i}. \quad (1.2)$$

163 To estimate the probability,  $\lambda_{ind}$ , of each individual case of fever being attributable to  
 164 malaria local and piece-wise cubic polynomial models were used. The models were fitted  
 165 using category-specific MAF,  $\lambda_c$ , together with the category-specific midpoint of parasite  
 166 density. This was followed by predicting the individual  $\lambda_{ind}$  using their parasite density  
 167 measurements from the results of various model fitting functions.

168 Sensitivity and specificity of various cut-off values for parasite density were estimated by

169  $\frac{n_c \lambda_c}{N \lambda}$  and  $\frac{1 - n_c (1 - \lambda_c)}{N (1 - \lambda)}$  respectively where  $n_c = \sum_{i=c}^K n_i$ ,  $\lambda_c = \frac{(\sum_{i=c}^K \lambda_i n_i)}{n_c}$ ,  $n_i$  the

170 number of fever cases in the category  $i$  and  $c$  represents the parasite density category

171 of which it is the selected cut-off in logistic regression or the lower bound for the category

172 in latent class models.

### 173 Association with protection.

174 Multi-level logistic and zero-inflated models were used to investigate the association

175 between high versus low merozoite antibodies and clinical malaria. Various antibody

176 concentrations were applied as cutoffs to define the high and low responders (28). The

177 results were used to compare the performance of probability and binary outcomes. The

178 zero inflated approach was used since we had a probability mass at zero due to the non-

179 febrile participants. Specifically, for the probability outcome, we compared results from

180 the Maximum Likelihood (MLE) and Bayesian inference estimations (28,31,32).

## 181 **Results**

### 182 Study population

183 A total of 4,722 participants were recruited in Junju, Kilifi County from 2005 to 2017.

184 Approximately 300 or more participants were followed up each year with average

185 recruitment age of 6.5 years (ranging between 1 month old to 16 years) as shown in

186 Table 1. Each child had on average 2.94 test occurrences during follow-up giving rise to  
 187 a total of 14,404 events during the entire study period.

188 Temporal distribution of fever and parasite density

189 Table 1 shows the distribution of fevers (axillary temperature of  $\geq 37.5^{\circ}C$ ) at all the  
 190 cross-sectional surveys. Approximately 1,034 (2.19%) occasions of fever were reported  
 191 during the cross-sectional surveys. A decreasing trend of fevers was observed over the  
 192 study period except for 2005 and 2006 where the samples were collected specifically for  
 193 a vaccine trial (33). The prevalence of *P. falciparum* was also artificially high during this  
 194 period since the participants were recruited during the malaria season. A decline in the  
 195 prevalence of *P. falciparum* parasite was observed between 2006 to 2013 from 30.21%  
 196 to 8.78%. This was followed by a slight increase in 2014 and 2015 then another decline  
 197 in 2016 to 4.32% in 2017.

198 *Table 1: Prevalence's of Plasmodium falciparum positivity, fever, and presumptive malaria (fever + parasitemia) in*  
 199 *the pre-transmission season cross-sectional survey and the number of active follow-up events in the Junju Cohort. ¶*  
 200 *Participants were recruited for the original vaccine study in 2005 and 2006 and sampling of participants extended*  
 201 *into the high transmission season each year. \*Excluded in the main analysis due to health workers' strike.*

Year	Samples (n)	Mean age in years (min-max)	<i>P. falciparum</i> (%)	Fever (%)	Presumptive malaria (%) †	Active follow-up events (n)
<b>2005¶</b>	372	3.9 (1-9.0)	49.05%	0.81%	0.54%	1029
<b>2006¶</b>	300	4.5 (1.5-9.5)	31.21%	0.67%	0.33%	615
<b>2007</b>	339	4.8 (<1-11.0)	15.93%	3.24%	1.18%	1816
<b>2008</b>	341	5.4 (<1-12.0)	29.62%	3.52%	3.52%	884
<b>2009</b>	352	5.8 (<1-13.0)	20.17%	2.56%	1.14%	958
<b>2010</b>	377	6.5 (<1-14.0)	27.59%	3.98%	2.65%	957
<b>2011</b>	377	7.1 (<1-12.7)	23.08%	1.86%	1.33%	891
<b>2012*</b>	399	7.1 (<1-13.7)	16.79%	1.75%	0.50%	696

<b>2013</b>	410	7.5 (<1-14.7)	8.78%	1.46%	0.24%	1483
<b>2014</b>	404	8.2 (<1-15.7)	14.25%	1.49%	0.50%	1619
<b>2015</b>	400	8.3 (<1-16.5)	17.36%	1.25%	0.25%	1319
<b>2016</b>	316	7.8 (<1-15.0)	11.61%	1.27%	-	1087
<b>2017</b>	335	7.1 (<1-15.0)	4.32%	1.19%	-	1050
<b>Total</b>	<b>4722</b>	<b>78.2 (1-198)</b>	<b>20.69%</b>	<b>2.19%</b>	<b>1.06%</b>	<b>14404</b>

202 Relationship of fever to parasitaemia over time

203 The probability that a fever case was malaria attributable at a given parasite density  $\lambda$   
204 changed gradually over the study period as shown in Figure 2. The MAF was estimated  
205 using the Bayesian Latent class model and logistic regression. The Bayesian latent class  
206 gave a lower MAF estimate, Bland-Altman bias =0.20( 0.16-0.24), compared to the  
207 logistic model. After estimating the sensitivities and specificities of different parasite  
208 densities, the optimal parasite cut-off was selected using the logistic regression for the  
209 different years [Supplementary Table 1]. However, the number of malaria positive  
210 individuals did not vary significantly with the new thresholds compared to the previously  
211 defined 2500p/ $\mu$ l threshold [Supplementary Figure 1], despite the changing patterns.  
212 Notably, the Bayesian latent class approach and the logistic power models approximated  
213 a similar pattern of MAF but the estimates were lower in the former model. Comparable

214 patterns were also observed in the probabilities,  $\lambda_i$ , predicted from the individual parasite  
 215 densities [Supplementary Figure 1].

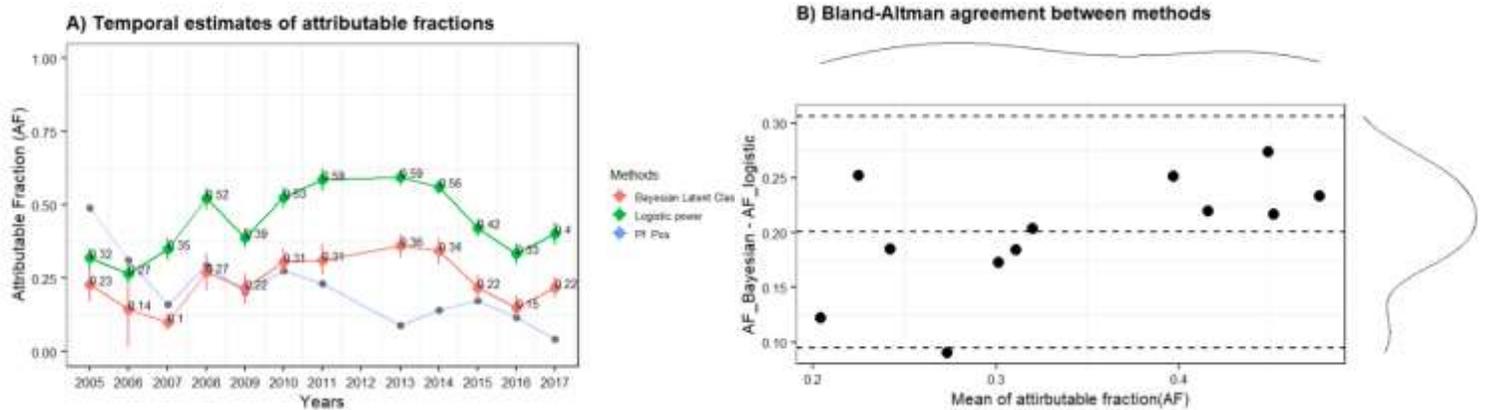


Figure 2: A) Temporal estimates of attributable fraction (AF) from 2005 to 2017 using Bayesian Latent class models and logistic power models. Pf. Pos is the prevalence of parasite positivity during the cross-sectional bleed. B) Bland-Altman plot of agreement

216

217 Non-febrile individuals.

218 An interval estimate for the prevalence of malaria fever was estimated using the Bayesian  
 219 latent class model. The Bayesian individual probabilities for non-febrile participants with  
 220 parasitemia were adjusted using the interval estimate for the prevalence of malaria fever.  
 221 This is shown in Supplementary Figures 2 and 3 where non-febrile cases had a lower,  $\lambda_i$   
 222 ,compared to the febrile cases for the parasite positive individuals. Detailed  
 223 implementation of the methodology is included in the repository as OpenBUGS and R  
 224 codes.

225 Impact of age on MAF.

226 The MAF estimates were higher for older age groups than the children <1 year as shown  
 227 in Figure 3A below. Additionally, the predicted individual probabilities declined with age

228 as shown in Figure 3B and likewise the logistic power model had higher estimates and  
 229 smaller range than the Bayesian latent class predictions [Supplementary Figure 4]. This  
 230 shows as expected that the age groups of 1-5 years and 5-10 years had a higher  
 231 probability of having malaria compared to the other age groups. The younger age groups  
 232 had a higher specificity and sensitivity intersection (Figure 3C) indicating a lower parasite  
 233 density threshold for clinical episodes compared to the older age groups.

234 To assess whether the variation in case definitions had a significant impact on the  
 235 estimates of correlates of protection. The performance of the predicted probabilities from

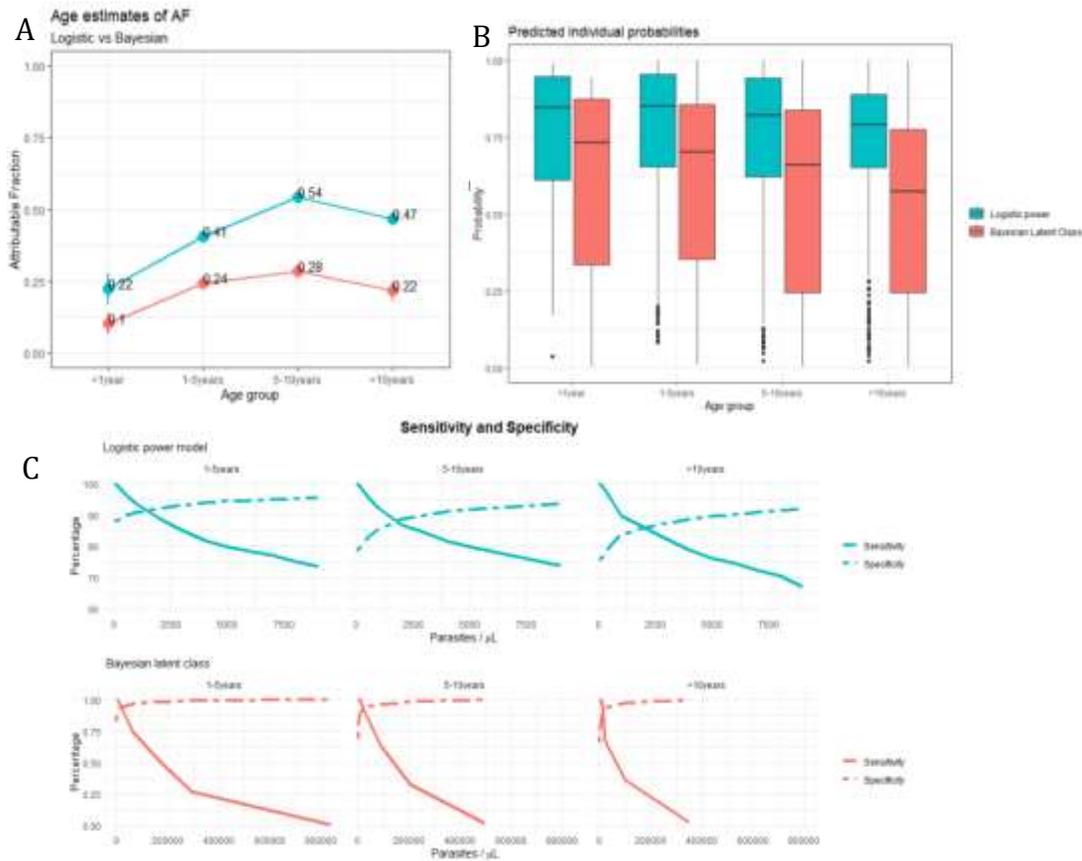


Figure 3: Malaria attributable fractions and probabilities over age group for all the study participants

236 the Bayesian latent class approach and the binary outcome based on the newly defined  
 237 parasite density thresholds plus fever were compared. Data on antibody responses to

238 selected *Plasmodium falciparum* merozoite antigens for a study done in Kilifi was used  
 239 for the comparison. Specifically, the data had antibody measurements for the survey  
 240 conducted in Junju in the year 2008 and a subset of the Chonyi cohort in the year 2000  
 241 (28).

242 A cut-off of 2500 parasites/ $\mu$ l [Supplementary Table 1] plus fever was used to define the  
 243 binary outcome (malaria positive, parasites  $\geq$  2500 parasites/ $\mu$ L or negative otherwise).  
 244 The loess predicted probabilities from Bayesian latent class models were used as the  
 245 response variable to fit the zero-one inflated beta regressions. Table 2 shows that using  
 246 the probability as the outcome gave comparable point estimates with the binary outcome.  
 247 The binomial multilevel models however, had high standard errors and Bayesian  
 248 Information Criterion (BIC) values.

249 *Table 2: A comparison of a binary and probability outcome using high vs low antibody levels in Junju 2008 and*  
 250 *Chonyi 2000 cohort. Coef. – Regression Coefficients, SE- Standard Error and BIC – Bayesian Information Criterion,*

		Binary Outcome		Probability Outcome		Probability Bayesian
		Coef. (SE)	BIC	Coef. (SE)	BIC	Coef. (SE)
<b>Junju Cohort</b>	AMA1	-0.30 (0.32)	427.73	-0.22 (0.20)	416.026	-0.23 (0.19)
	MSP2	0.09 (0.34)	428.6	-0.04 (0.20)	417.3474	-0.04 (0.21)
	MSP3	-0.24 (0.35)	428.18	-0.16 (0.19)	415.947	-0.19 (0.21)
<b>Chonyi Cohort</b>	AMA1	0.18 (0.34)	426.8972	-0.24 (0.11)	390.0447	-0.26 (0.13)
	MSP2	-0.67 (0.54)	425.4389	-0.33 (0.14)	401.3226	-0.34 (0.15)
	MSP3	0.68 (0.35)	423.5147	-0.11 (0.12)	410.5933	-0.12 (0.14)

## 251 **Discussion**

252 In areas with high malaria transmission, differences in the prevalence of malaria fever  
253 can occur due to change in transmission intensities or differences in levels of immunity  
254 in various subsets of the population like age groups (3). The present study shows a  
255 variation of transmission intensity over time, and how this contributes to variation in the  
256 MAF. A previous study done in Kilifi showed that immunity to malaria is affected by age  
257 and transmission (3). The study compared Chonyi, a high transmission area and  
258 Ngerenya, a low transmission area. The sites had a variable age-specific clinical disease  
259 pattern with Ngerenya having a higher MAF compared to Chonyi overall and specifically  
260 for the older age group of 5-19years. Shifting MAF was also observed with changing  
261 transmission patterns in the current study. A shift in malaria transmission intensities and  
262 malaria epidemiology has been reported in different endemic areas (15,34). Therefore, it  
263 is important to review MAF and case definitions with changing transmission settings.  
264 Furthermore, transmission intensity correlates with the rate of acquisition of natural  
265 immunity (35). A decrease in malaria transmission intensity led to reduced immunity  
266 which would result in a higher tendency to acquire malaria attributable fevers at lower  
267 parasite densities as was observed in this study.

268 A strong rationale for developing malaria vaccines comes from cohort studies, which show  
269 that individuals continuously exposed to malaria develop immunity that initially prevents  
270 death from severe disease, and subsequently recurrent illness (1,13). The main  
271 assumption in defining correlates of protection to inform vaccine development is that  
272 malaria case definition is non-biased. Many of the studies classify the participants into

273 two groups (clinical malaria case and non-case) using a defined parasitemia threshold  
274 plus fever (2,3,8–10). The optimal parasite density threshold is selected from maximum  
275 combined sensitivity and specificity after fitting the case definition models (2).  
276 Additionally, the models estimate the probabilities individual episodes of fever are malaria  
277 attributable at a given density of parasitemia (2,4,18).

278 The logistic power model is the widely used technique for case definition (Atieli et al.  
279 2011; Dicko et al. 2005; Mwangi et al. 2005; Olotu et al. 2010; Tom Smith, Schellenberg,  
280 and Hayes 1994) and rarely the Bayesian latent class model (4,18). However, in this study  
281 the logistic approach was observed to give higher but comparable pattern estimates with  
282 the Bayesian latent class model. Similarly, this was observed in a study done by  
283 Vounatsou et. al comparing the logistic power and Bayesian latent class model (4). The  
284 logistic model approach, however, has been reported to have a limitation of estimating  
285 imprecise standard errors and negative probabilities sometimes (6). Comparatively, in  
286 this present study, the logistic approach also gave high probability estimates with narrow  
287 variation in the low parasite densities compared to the latent class model. In vaccine  
288 studies, the latent class was reported to help in identifying possible biases in efficacy  
289 estimates since it utilizes the whole range of possible parasite density cut-offs (20). An  
290 inverse relationship of clinical malaria and age has been shown (12,36), similarly, this  
291 was observed with the estimated probabilities which decreased with age.

292 Continuous variables, like the probabilities we use here have been shown to have more  
293 variation information and statistical power and are sometimes preferred over the  
294 categorization of data (23). Several articles (21–24) have also pointed out problems

295 associated with the categorization of data. In this present study, we compare the  
296 performance of using probability and binary outcome model the association with clinical  
297 malaria (28). Assuredly, the probability model had a good statistical fit; lower BIC  
298 estimates and standard errors and gave comparable coefficients with the binary model.  
299 Also, the point estimates were similar to what was reported by Murungi et. al in the 2008  
300 study from the same cohort (28). In this study however, they reported risk ratios that  
301 were estimated using a modified Poisson regression (37) and here we report coefficients  
302 both of them showing a lower risk of disease for individuals with high antibody  
303 measurements.

#### 304 **Conclusion:**

305 The present study shows the importance of reviewing malaria case definitions and  
306 attributable fractions with changing malaria transmissions. Additionally, we show the  
307 utilization of probabilities estimated from the case definition models in modeling the  
308 association of correlates of disease. Results from Junju and Chonyi Kilifi data verify the  
309 validity of using the probability outcome to identify correlates of disease protection while  
310 still having a better statistical fit. The computational time to fit the zero-inflated models  
311 was higher compared to the binary-based regression models and a training class is  
312 required for the latent class models which can be a limitation for some cohort designs.

313 Approaches to estimate individual's marginal probabilities of clinical malaria over a given  
314 follow-up time would be of importance for creating parsimonious models. Further studies  
315 to compare the probabilities estimated from models utilizing the quantitative nature of

316 the parasite densities without grouping the data in conjunction with changing  
317 transmission would be valuable.

## 318 **Ethics Declarations**

### 319 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

320 The research was given ethical approval by the University of Witwatersrand's Human  
321 Research Ethics Committee (Medical) (Clearance Certificate No. M190121) and KEMRI-  
322 Scientific and Ethics Review Unit (SERU) (Approval numbers KEMRI SSC No. 3139).  
323 Informed consent was collected from parents/guardians before the beginning of  
324 recruitment. All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and  
325 regulations.

### 326 **Consent for publication**

327 Not applicable

### 328 **Availability of data and materials**

329 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the  
330 corresponding author on reasonable request. The scripts used for the current study are  
331 available in the GitHub repository, [https://github.com/Keniajin/case\\_definition](https://github.com/Keniajin/case_definition).

### 332 **Competing interests**

333 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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347 **Authors' contributions**

348 Conception and Design of the work: KM, IN, AT, JM, EM and FO. Analysis: KM, JM and AT.  
349 Funding Acquisition: EM, SK and FO. Interpretation of data: KM, IN, SK, EM and FO. Work  
350 drafting: KM and FO. Review and Editing: KM, IN, AT, JM, RK, DO, LN, JT, SK, EM and FO.  
351 Project administration: LN. Software: KM, JM and AT. Supervision: EM, SK and FO. Validation:  
352 SK, EM and FO. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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