Resurgence of malaria following discontinuation of indoor residual spraying of insecticide in a previously high transmission intensity area of Uganda

Saned Raouf BS¹, Arthur Mpimbaza MMED^{2,3}, Ruth Kigozi MPH³, Asadu Sserwanga MBChB³,

Denis Rubahika MBCh B^4 , Henry Katamba MBCh B^4 , Steve W. Lindsay Ph D^5 , Bryan K. Kapella

MD ⁶, Kassahun A. Belay MD⁷, Moses R. Kamya PhD⁸, Sarah G. Staedke MD⁹, Grant Dorsey

$MD¹⁰$

¹ University of Colorado School of Medicine, Aurora, CO, USA

² Child Health & Development Centre, Makerere University College of Health Sciences,

Kampala, Uganda

³Uganda Malaria Surveillance Project, Kampala, Uganda

⁴ National Malaria Control Program, Ministry of Health, Kampala, Uganda

⁵ School of Biological and Biomedical Sciences, Durham University, Durham, UK

⁶ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA, USA

 $⁷$ United States Agency for International Development, Kampala, Uganda</sup>

⁸ School of Medicine, Makerere University College of Health Sciences, Kampala, Uganda

 9 Department of Clinical Research, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London,

UK

¹⁰ Department of Medicine, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA

Corresponding author: Grant Dorsey, San Francisco General Hospital, 1001 Potrero Avenue, Building 30, Room 3420, San Francisco, CA, 94110, USA. Telephone number: +1-415-206- 4680. Email: grant.dorsey@ucsf.edu

ABSTRACT

Background

Indoor residual spraying (IRS) and long-lasting insecticidal nets (LLINs) are the primary tools for malaria prevention in Africa. It is not known whether reductions in malaria can be sustained after IRS is discontinued where there is high LLIN coverage. The aim of this study was to assess changes in malaria morbidity in a historically high transmission area of Uganda where IRS was discontinued after a four year period of effective control followed by a universal LLIN distribution campaign.

Methods

Individual-level malaria surveillance data were collected from one outpatient department and one inpatient setting in Apac District, Uganda from July 2009 through November 2015. Rounds of IRS were conducted approximately every six months from February 2010 through May 2014 followed by universal LLIN distribution in June 2014. Temporal changes in the malaria test positivity rate (TPR) were estimated during and after IRS using interrupted time series analyses.

Findings

Data include 65 421 outpatient visits and 13 955 pediatric inpatient admissions for which a diagnostic test for malaria was performed. In outpatients under five years, baseline TPR was 60- 80% followed by a rapid and then sustained decrease to 15-30%. Over 4-18 months following discontinuation of IRS, TPR increased by an average of 3∙30% per month (95% CI 1·88-4·73%) returning to baseline levels. Similar trends were seen in outpatients over five years of age and pediatric admissions.

Interpretation

Discontinuation of IRS in a historically high transmission intensity area was associated with a rapid increase in malaria morbidity to pre-IRS levels despite high coverage with LLINs.

Funding

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; National Institutes of Health

INTRODUCTION

Malaria control activities in sub-Saharan Africa has increased over the last decade resulting in substantial reductions in the burden of malaria. $1-3$ Despite these advances, the burden of malaria remains high with an estimated 215 million cases and 438,000 deaths in 2015, of which 88% of cases and 90% of deaths occurred in sub-Saharan Africa.⁴ The primary interventions for the prevention of malaria include long-lasting insecticidal nets (LLINs) and indoor residual spraying of insecticide (IRS). LLINs have been shown to reduce malaria morbidity and mortality across a range of epidemiological settings^{5,6}, and the World Health Organization (WHO) recommends universal coverage of populations at risk. The proportion of people living in sub-Saharan Africa with access to an LLIN in their household increased from 2% in 2000 to 67% in 2015, with LLINs estimated to have contributed to 68% of cases of malaria averted during this period.^{1,4} IRS has also been shown to be highly effective, but it is more resource-intensive and expensive to implement than distribution of LLINs.^{7,8} IRS has historically been used in low transmission and epidemic-prone areas of sub-Saharan Africa, but more recently has been expanded to higher transmission areas.⁹ However, despite this shift in policy, less than 10% of the population at risk in sub-Saharan Africa is currently protected by IRS.⁴

Uganda is emblematic of countries with the highest burden of malaria in sub-Saharan Africa, where progress in reducing malaria morbidity and mortality has been slowest and surveillance systems to monitor these trends often inadequate. LLINs have been the primary intervention for the prevention of malaria in Uganda and considerable effort has been made to achieving universal LLIN coverage, culminating in a universal LLIN distribution campaign conducted from 2013-14. Between 2009 and 2014 the proportion of households with at least one LLIN

increased from 47% to 90% and the average number LLINs per household increased from 0∙8 to 2⋅5.¹⁰ After decades of inactivity, IRS was adopted as a key component of Uganda's malaria control strategy in 2006. Initial efforts focused on epidemic prone areas in the southwestern part of the country. However, in 2008 the IRS program was moved to ten districts in northern Uganda with high transmission intensity. The IRS program initially utilized the pyrethroid class of insecticide, but in 2010 transitioned to carbamate insecticides due to the emergence of widespread pyrethroid resistance. The IRS program in northern Uganda achieved coverage levels consistently above 95% and resulted in marked reductions in the burden of malaria.^{11,12} In 2014, the IRS program was moved from the ten districts in the north to 14 districts in the central and eastern part of the country that had previously not been sprayed, with hope that gains in the north would be sustained following the universal LLIN distribution campaign.

This study utilizes data from an enhanced health facility-based malaria surveillance program established in an outpatient and inpatient setting in Apac District, one of the areas in northern Uganda where IRS was implemented, and later withdrawn. The study spans a 77-month period from July 2009 through November 2015, covering ten rounds of IRS before its discontinuation in May 2014, followed by universal distribution of LLINs in June 2014. Our primary objective was to evaluate trends in malaria morbidity before, during, and after the implementation of IRS.

METHODS

Study site and vector control interventions

The study was conducted in Apac District, an area with historically high malaria transmission intensity and an entomological inoculation rate estimated to be over 1,500 infectious bites per

person per year in 2002 (Figure 1), 13 one of the highest levels of malaria transmission recorded in the world. Malaria transmission is perennial in this area with peaks following the two annual rainy seasons, from [month] to [month] and from [month] to [month]. IRS was first implemented in Apac District in May 2008 with a single round of DDT followed by a two year gap before a $2nd$ round was conducted in February 2010 using the pyrethroid alpha-cypermethrin. Due to concerns for the emergence of pyrethroid resistance,¹² the formulation of IRS was switched to the carbamate bendiocarb in August 2010 with repeated rounds of spraying approximately every six months through May 2014. For each round of IRS the percentage of houses sprayed and population protected was over 90% (Table 1). A series of targeted LLIN distribution campaigns were conducted in the area between 2006 and 2010, followed by universal distribution campaign carried out in Apac District in June 2014 as part of a national program. According to a malaria indicator survey conducted in December 2014, 94% of households reported owning at least one LLIN and 77% of persons reported sleeping under an LLIN the prior evening in the mid-north region of Uganda, including Apac District.¹⁰

Health facility-based surveillance

Enhanced malaria surveillance was conducted at one outpatient facility (Aduku Health Center) and one pediatric inpatient facility including children under 14 years of age (Apac Hospital) as previously described.14,15 Briefly, for all patients seen at the facilities data were collected on demographics, whether malaria was suspected (outpatient facility only), whether a laboratory test for malaria was performed, the type of laboratory test performed (microscopy or rapid diagnostic test [RDT]), and the laboratory test result. Additional training and support was provided to maximize the proportion of patients with suspected malaria who underwent diagnostic testing at

the outpatient facility and among all children admitted at the inpatient facility. For inpatients, additional data was collected on disease severity. Patients with severe malaria were defined as having a positive diagnostic test and any of the following (based on data that was available): 1) severe anemia (hemoglobin $\lt 5$ g/dL), 2) coma, 3) jaundice, or 4) death during hospitalization. Patients with complicated malaria were defined as having a positive diagnostic test and any of the following: 1) any of the above criteria for severe malaria, 2) inability to breastfeed or drink, 3) convulsions, 4) lethargy, or 5) inability to sit up or stand.

Statistical analysis

All data were collected using standardized case record forms and entered using Microsoft Access (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, Washington, USA). Data were analyzed using STATA (version 13; STATA Corp., College Station, TX, USA). The primary outcome of interest was the test positivity rate (TPR), defined as the proportion of patients tested for malaria (denominator) who tested positive (numerator). The period of observation extended from July 2009 through November 2015 for outpatient surveillance and from June 2011 through November 2015 for inpatient surveillance. The exposure variable of interest was calendar time, evaluated as a categorical variable in relation to the time of IRS include a baseline period (July 2009 – August 2010), an initial period of effective IRS (September 2010 – February 2011), a sustained period of effective IRS (March 2011 – August 2014), and the 4-18 month period following IRS s discontinuation (September 2014 – November 2015). Temporal changes in the monthly TPR over time periods of interest were estimated by interrupted time series using ordinary leastsquares regression with Newey-West standard errors adjusted for seasonality, method of laboratory testing (microscopy vs. RDT) and autocorrelation. Analyses included only patients for

whom age was recorded. The outpatient surveillance data were stratified for patients under five years of age and those five years of age or older. Among inpatients with laboratory confirmed malaria, the probabilities of having complicated malaria, severe malaria, or death with malaria were compared between the periods of effective IRS and 4-18 months after IRS was discontinued using logistic regression controlling for age, monthly seasonality, and autocorrelation by including a quadratic term for the day of observation.

Role of the funding source

This work was supported by the U.S. President's Malaria Initiative, the Doris Duke Charitable Foundation and the National Institutes of Health. The funders of the study had no role in the study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of the report. The authors had the final responsibility for the decision to submit for publication.

RESULTS

Characteristics of the study population

Over the 77 month observation period, there were 126 260 patient encounters at the outpatient facility of which 67 634 (53.6%) were suspected of having malaria. Among patients with suspected malaria, 65 421 (96·7%) underwent laboratory testing. Laboratory testing was exclusively based on microscopy until 2012 when RDTs became available at the health center. Initially RDT use was low, but increased to 29·4% of diagnostic tests performed during the 4-18 month period after IRS was discontinued. Following the implementation of IRS there was a shift to an older age range among patients suspected and tested for malaria that then returned to baseline after IRS was discontinued (Table 2).

Over the 54 month inpatient observation period, 14 595 children under the age of 14 years were admitted to the hospital of which 13 955 (95·6%) underwent diagnostic testing for malaria. Among children tested for malaria, the proportion of testing based on RDTs was only 1·6% during the period of effective IRS, increasing to 33·0% during the 4-18 month period after IRS was discontinued. The age distribution of children admitted to the hospital was similar during the period before and after IRS was discontinued (Table 2).

Temporal changes in malaria morbidity in relation to IRS

For the outpatient surveillance data, July 2009 – August 2010 was considered the baseline period, which included the one round of IRS with the pyrethroid alpha-cypermethrin, which was not associated with a significant change in the TPR. During this period monthly TPRs ranged from 59-82% in patients under 5 years of age and 30-54% for patients five years and older (Figure 2). Following the $1st$ round of IRS with the carbamate insecticide bendiocarb in August 2010, there was a marked decrease in the TPR. From September 2010 – February 2011, there was an absolute decrease in the TPR of 5∙95% per month (CI -8·46 to -3·44%, p<0·0001) reaching 20% in patients under five years of age and 2∙73% per month (CI -4·59 to -0·86%, p=0·005) reaching 14% in patients five years and older (Figure 2, Table 3). Rounds of IRS with bendiocarb were repeated approximately every six months through May 2014 with a sustained reduction in TPR up to three months following the discontinuation of IRS. From March 2011 – August 2014, there was an absolute decrease in the TPR of 0∙42% per month (CI -0·70 to - 0·14%, p=0·004) reaching as low as 10% in patients under five years of age and 0∙42% per month (CI -0·61 to -0·24%, p<0·0001) reaching 4% in patients five years and older (Figure 2,

Table 3). A universal LLIN distribution campaign was conducted throughout the district the month following the last round of IRS. During the 4-18 months after IRS was discontinued there was a significant increase in the TPR, returning to baseline levels. From September 2014 – November 2015, there was an absolute increase in the TPR of 3∙30% per month (CI 1·88 to 4·73%, p<0·0001) reaching as high as 79% in patients under five years of age and 2∙71% per month (CI 1·94 to 3·49%, p<0·0001) reaching 65% in patients five years and older (Figure 2, Table 3).

Inpatient surveillance began in June 2011, when the $3rd$ round of IRS with bendiocarb was being administered. During the sustained period of effective IRS monthly TPRs among all children admitted to the hospital ranged from 17-86%, with an average of 56%. During the 4-18 months after IRS was discontinued, there was an absolute increase in the TPR of 6∙50% per month (CI 4·34 to 8·66%, p<0·0001) reaching 100% in August 2015 when all 420 children tested for malaria had a positive test (Figure 2, Table 3). Despite the marked increase in TPR following discontinuation of IRS, there was no evidence for worsening of disease severity. Comparing the 4-18 month period after IRS was discontinued to the sustained period of effective IRS among children with laboratory confirmed malaria, the probabilities of having complicated malaria (24.5% vs. 27.2%) and severe malaria (1.9% vs. 5.6%) were lower ($p<0.0001$ for both comparisons) and there was no significant change in the probability of death with malaria during hospitalization $(0.3\% \text{ vs. } 0.5\%, \text{ p=0.42})$

DISCUSSION

In a district of northern Uganda with historically high malaria transmission intensity, the

implementation of IRS with the carbamate bendiocarb was associated with a rapid and marked decline in the malaria TPR among outpatients, followed by a sustained decline over a four year period. Immediately following the discontinuation of IRS a universal LLIN distribution campaign was conducted in the district with the hopes that gains following IRS would be maintained. However, TPRs began to rise four months after IRS was discontinued, reaching pre-IRS levels within 18 months. Similar trends were seen following discontinuation of IRS among children admitted to the district hospital, although there was no evidence of worsening in disease severity.

LLINs and IRS are the most widely used interventions for the prevention of malaria in sub-Saharan Africa and the WHO recommends universal access to either of these preventive measures. 4 The benefits of LLINs have been well-established in several randomized controlled trials, with use of LLINs associated with reductions in the incidence of malaria of 50%, and child mortality of 20%.⁵ It has been estimated that the incidence of malaria decreased by 40% across sub-Saharan Africa between 2000 and 2015, and that LLINs were responsible for 68% of cases averted.¹ Historically, IRS has played a major role in the elimination of malaria in several countries outside of Africa and in greatly reducing the burden of malaria in parts of Africa with low or seasonal transmission.^{16,17} However, the evidence base for IRS impact when used alone in randomized controlled trials is limited.¹⁸ Recent cluster randomized trials from Africa comparing the impacts of IRS combined with LLINs versus either intervention alone have provided mixed results.¹⁹⁻²¹ Adding IRS to LLINs appears to be most effective in areas where LLIN coverage is low, pyrethroid resistance is high, and/or when using IRS with non-pyrethroid based insecticides. 22

In our study, the benefits of IRS with the carbamate bendiocarb were clear as evidenced by the dramatic decline in malaria morbidity after its initiation followed by an equally dramatic increase shortly after IRS was discontinued. The resurgence of malaria occurred despite a successful universal LLIN distribution campaign immediately following the discontinuation of IRS. There are several potential explanations for these findings. Perhaps of greatest concern is the recent emergence and spread of resistance to pyrethroids, the only class of insecticides currently available for LLINs. The emergence of high-level pyrethroid resistance among the primary vectors, *An. gambiae* s.s. and *An. arabiensis*, has been reported in Uganda and throughout other parts of Africa.^{23,24} Estimating the impact of pyrethroid resistance on the protective efficacy of LLINs under operational conditions remains a significant challenge. Also of concern are putative changes in vector behavior and shifts in the relative abundance of vector species, which may increase exposure risk during the early evening hours while people are outside of their bed nets and unprotected by LLINs.²⁵ One reassuring finding from our study was the lack of an increased risk of severe or complicated malaria among pediatric inpatients during the resurgence of malaria following discontinuation of IRS. This suggests that childhood immunity against severe forms of malaria did not wane at least during the first year after malaria began to resurge. However, following the discontinuation of IRS, the TPR among outpatient over the age of 5 years increased to levels higher than those observed before the initiation of effective IRS, suggesting a loss of some immunity to developing uncomplicated malaria.

In the last decade, the WHO has reaffirmed the importance of IRS as a primary intervention for reducing malaria transmission in sub-Saharan Africa, including hyperendemic areas. IRS

coverage for the at-risk population in sub-Saharan Africa increased from less than 2% in 2006 to 11% in 2010. However, the spread of pyrethroid resistance has lead many control programs to replace pyrethroids with more expensive alternatives such as carbamates or more recently pirimiphos-methyl CS (organophosphate), leading to downscaling of IRS programs. This has resulted in a reported 53% decrease in the number of houses sprayed between years of peak coverage and 2015 across 18 countries in sub-Saharan Africa supported by the U.S. President's Malaria Initiative.²⁶ Historically most malaria resurgences have been linked to weakening of control programs. In a systematic review of 75 malaria resurgence events in 61 countries occurring from the 1930s through the 2000s, withdrawal of IRS due to resource constraints, complacency, or the emergence of insecticide resistance was a major contributing factor.²⁷ Contemporary data from sub-Saharan Africa on the impact of discontinuing IRS is limited given that this has been a recent phenomenon. In a recent study from Benin, a shift from IRS with bendiocarb to LLIN distribution was associated with significant increases in entomological measures of transmission intensity.²⁸

Our study had several limitations. Most importantly were the observational study design and the lack of control group where IRS was not discontinued for comparison. Thus, we are unable to exclude the possibility that factors other than the discontinuation of IRS contributed to the resurgence of malaria seen. In addition, we used the TPR as our metric of malaria morbidity which is only a surrogate measure of malaria incidence in the community and can be influenced by external factors such as health facility attendance, selection bias for those referred for testing, and the accuracy of laboratory testing. Despite these limitations, it is likely that the observed changes in malaria morbidity at these two health facilities were related to starting and stopping

effective IRS given the longitudinal nature of the data, the magnitude of changes, and the consistency with which data was collected over an extended period of time.

Uganda and other countries in sub-Saharan Africa are now facing difficult decisions about the role of IRS when demands exceed the availability of resources. Current funding levels are insufficient to achieve full IRS coverage in Uganda and current gains in malaria reduction cannot be sustained if control measures are withdrawn or implemented based on limited data. In addition, the emergence of pyrethroid resistance has required countries to consider alternative classes of insecticide, which can be considerably more expensive. There is an urgent need to better define when IRS should be maintained, changed to different formulations, or can be safely discontinued or scaled back. This will require effective surveillance systems to monitor trends in disease burden and insecticide resistance. In this area of historically highly intense transmission the reductions in malaria achieved through effective IRS could not be maintained by LLINs alone. Additional interventions are needed to supplement LLINs when IRS is withdrawn from areas where malaria transmission was historically high.

Author contributions

Declaration of interests

We declare no competing interests.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all the staff in Aduku Health Center and Apac Hospital for their hard work.

References

1. Bhatt S, Weiss DJ, Cameron E, et al. The effect of malaria control on Plasmodium falciparum in Africa between 2000 and 2015. *Nature* 2015; **526**(7572): 207-11.

2. Noor AM, Kinyoki DK, Mundia CW, et al. The changing risk of Plasmodium falciparum malaria infection in Africa: 2000-10: a spatial and temporal analysis of transmission intensity. *Lancet* 2014; **383**(9930): 1739-47.

3. O'Meara WP, Mangeni JN, Steketee R, Greenwood B. Changes in the burden of malaria in sub-Saharan Africa. *Lancet Infect Dis*; **10**(8): 545-55.

4. World Health Organisation. World Malaria Report 2015. Geneva: World Health Organisation; 2015

5. Lengeler C. Insecticide-treated bed nets and curtains for preventing malaria. *Cochrane database of systematic reviews (Online)* 2004; (2): CD000363.

6. Lim SS, Fullman N, Stokes A, et al. Net benefits: a multicountry analysis of observational data examining associations between insecticide-treated mosquito nets and health outcomes. *PLoS Med* 2011; **8**(9): e1001091.

7. World Health Organisation. Indoor residual spraying: use of indoor residual spraying for scaling up global malaria control and elimination. Geneva: World Health Organisation, 2006.

8. West PA, Protopopoff N, Wright A, et al. Enhanced protection against malaria by indoor residual spraying in addition to insecticide treated nets: is it dependent on transmission intensity or net usage? *PLoS ONE* 2015; **10**(3): e0115661.

9. World Health Organisation. World Malaria Report 2014. Geneva: World Health Organisation; 2014.

10. Uganda Bureau of Statstics. Uganda Malaria Indicator Survey 2014-15. Uganda; 2015.

11. Kigozi R, Baxi SM, Gasasira A, et al. Indoor residual spraying of insecticide and malaria morbidity in a high transmission intensity area of Uganda. *PLoS ONE* 2012; **7**(8): e42857.

12. Steinhardt LC, Yeka A, Nasr S, et al. The effect of indoor residual spraying on malaria and anemia in a high-transmission area of northern Uganda. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2013; **88**(5): 855-61.

13. Okello PE, Van Bortel W, Byaruhanga AM, et al. Variation in malaria transmission intensity in seven sites throughout Uganda. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2006; **75**(2): 219-25.

14. Sserwanga A, Harris JC, Kigozi R, et al. Improved malaria case management through the implementation of a health facility-based sentinel site surveillance system in Uganda. *PLoS ONE* 2011; **6**(1): e16316.

15. Sserwanga A, Sears D, Kapella BK, et al. Anti-malarial prescription practices among children admitted to six public hospitals in Uganda from 2011 to 2013. *Malar J* 2015; **14**: 331.

16. Mabaso ML, Sharp B, Lengeler C. Historical review of malarial control in southern African with emphasis on the use of indoor residual house-spraying. *Tropical medicine & international health : TM & IH* 2004; **9**(8): 846-56.

17. Najera JA, Gonzalez-Silva M, Alonso PL. Some lessons for the future from the Global Malaria Eradication Programme (1955-1969). *PLoS Med* 2011; **8**(1): e1000412.

18. Pluess B, Tanser FC, Lengeler C, Sharp BL. Indoor residual spraying for preventing malaria. *Cochrane database of systematic reviews (Online)* 2010; (4): CD006657.

19. Corbel V, Akogbeto M, Damien GB, et al. Combination of malaria vector control interventions in pyrethroid resistance area in Benin: a cluster randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2012; **12**(8): 617-26.

20. Pinder M, Jawara M, Jarju LB, et al. Efficacy of indoor residual spraying with dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane against malaria in Gambian communities with high usage of long-lasting insecticidal mosquito nets: a cluster-randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2015; **385**(9976): 1436-46.

21. West PA, Protopopoff N, Wright A, et al. Indoor residual spraying in combination with insecticide-treated nets compared to insecticide-treated nets alone for protection against malaria: a cluster randomised trial in Tanzania. *PLoS Med* 2014; **11**(4): e1001630.

22. Lines J, Kleinschmidt I. Is malaria control better with both treated nets and spraying? *Lancet* 2015; **385**(9976): 1375-7.

23. Quinones ML, Norris DE, Conn JE, et al. Insecticide Resistance in Areas Under Investigation by the International Centers of Excellence for Malaria Research: A Challenge for Malaria Control and Elimination. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2015; **93**(3 Suppl): 69-78.

24. Ranson H, N'Guessan R, Lines J, Moiroux N, Nkuni Z, Corbel V. Pyrethroid resistance in African anopheline mosquitoes: what are the implications for malaria control? *Trends Parasitol* 2011; **27**(2): 91-8.

25. Gatton ML, ChLLINis N, Churcher T, et al. The importance of mosquito behavioural adaptations to malaria control in Africa. *Evolution* 2013; **67**(4): 1218-30.

26. Oxborough RM. Trends in US President's Malaria Initiative-funded indoor residual spray coverage and insecticide choice in sub-Saharan Africa (2008-2015): urgent need for affordable, long-lasting insecticides. *Malar J* 2016; **15**(1): 146.

27. Cohen JM, Smith DL, Cotter C, et al. Malaria resurgence: a systematic review and assessment of its causes. *Malar J* 2012; **11**: 122.

28. Osse RA, Aikpon R, Gbedjissi GL, et al. A shift from indoor residual spraying (IRS) with bendiocarb to long-lasting insecticidal (mosquito) nets (LLINs) associated with changes in malaria transmission indicators in pyrethroid resistance areas in Benin. *Parasit Vectors* 2013; **6**: 73.

Table 1. Details of indoor residual spraying of insecticide in Apac District

Table 2. Characteristics of study populations from outpatient and inpatient surveillance

^a Excludes patients with no age recorded

^b RDT performed if microscopy not done
^c Inpatient surveillance began June 2011

Table 3. Temporal changes in malaria test positivity rates in relation to IRS

 $^{\text{a}}$ Adjusted for seasonality and proportion of laboratory testing based on microscopy vs. RDT $^{\text{b}}$ Inpatient surveillance began June 2011

Figure Legends

Figure 1.

Map of Uganda with study district (red) and satellite image of the two study sites

Figure 2.

Temporal changes in malaria test positivity rates in relation to IRS. Where the red bar shows the timing of indoor residual spraying (IRS) with alpha-cypermethrin, yellow bars the timing of bendiocarb IRS spray rounds and blue, the mass deployment of long-lasting insecticidal nets.