

1 **Malaria diagnosis in rural healthcare facilities and treatment-seeking behavior in malaria**  
2 **endemic settings in western Kenya**

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15 **Abstract**

16 Accurate diagnosis and timely treatment are central requirements for effective malaria  
17 management in communities. However, in resource-constrained settings, healthcare facilities are  
18 likely to be few, inaccessible, and ill-equipped with frequent drug or rapid diagnostic test kit (RDT)  
19 shortages. This may jeopardize much-needed quality care for patients and may have an impact on  
20 treatment-seeking behavior among the local population. The study's goal is to determine  
21 treatment-seeking behavior, malaria diagnosis and treatment, and likely treatment-seeking  
22 determinants in the local population. Passive case detection, which targeted all patients with  
23 suspected malaria cases, was conducted in ten public healthcare facilities over a three-month  
24 period. Monthly malaria cases, methods of diagnosis and antimalarial drug availability were

25 assessed. A household-based survey was also carried out. Structured questionnaires were used to  
26 collect data from household heads. Malaria knowledge, treatment seeking behavior, and predictors  
27 of malaria treatment-seeking were all determined. Three of the seven dispensaries lacked a  
28 laboratory to conduct microscopy-based diagnosis. These three dispensaries also experienced  
29 frequent RDT stock-outs, which resulted in a clinical diagnosis of malaria. The majority of local  
30 residents with fever (50.3%) purchased antimalarial drugs from a chemist. About 37% of fever  
31 patients sought treatment at healthcare facility while the remaining 12.7% did nothing. In irrigated  
32 areas, 45.5% (46/64) of fever patients sought treatment at healthcare facilities, compared to 25%  
33 (18/64) in non-irrigated areas ( $p = 0.009$ ). Most children aged below 5 who had fever (77.7%)  
34 were taken to healthcare facility for treatment compared to 31.4% of older children or 20.9% of  
35 adults (0.0001). Predictors of treatment seeking included access to healthcare facility (OR = 16.23,  
36 95% CI: 2.74-96.12), and ability to pay hospital bill (OR = 10.6, 95% CI: 1.97- 57). Other factors  
37 that influenced health-seeking behavior included the severity of symptoms, the age of the fever  
38 patient and knowledge of malaria symptoms.

## 39 **Introduction**

40 Malaria is still a major public health challenge in sub-Saharan Africa, with young children  
41 suffering the highest morbidity and mortality rates [3, 22, 58]. The debilitating nature of the disease  
42 is exacerbated by the overlap of malaria symptoms with those of other diseases [9, 21, 46]. As a  
43 result, accurate diagnosis combined with timely medication remains the primary life-saving  
44 intervention and means of reducing transmission [3, 55] Previously, the World Health  
45 Organization recommended treating any febrile patient with antimalarial drugs in the absence of  
46 microscopy or malaria diagnostic test kits [56]. However, this was later revised to emphasize  
47 parasite-based diagnosis in all ages. The widespread adoption of malaria diagnostic test kits (RDT)

48 in healthcare facilities, as well as a decrease in febrile illness caused by malaria, prompted the  
49 revision [12, 56]. In addition, the emergence of drug-resistant malaria parasites due to drug  
50 overuse, possibly led to the implementation of the ‘test and treat’ strategy [19, 43, 57]. Microscopy  
51 and RDT kits were the two diagnostic tools widely used in healthcare facilities. Malaria RDT kits  
52 were relatively easy to use in malaria diagnosis [35]. This made parasitological diagnosis of  
53 malaria possible, especially in resource-poor healthcare facilities where microscopy diagnosis was  
54 a challenge [11].

55 In an effort to streamline with WHO recommendation, the Kenyan ministry of health  
56 endorsed the test and treat policy in all patients presenting with fever [32]. This ensures that only  
57 malaria-confirmed cases receive antimalarial treatment, as well as proper management of fever  
58 patients suffering from non-malarial illnesses [32]. Most importantly, it is prudent to minimize  
59 indiscriminate antimalarial prescription [61, 62]. However, treatment of suspected malaria based  
60 on clinical diagnosis is increasingly becoming common in most resource-poor African settings [4,  
61 39, 48]. This situation has been aggravated by a number of factors, including ill-equipped  
62 healthcare facilities [26] and self-treatment among populations.

63 Significant reductions in parasite prevalence have been reported in Homa Bay county,  
64 where malaria infection was previously always above 20% [7, 31, 42]. Accurate diagnosis and  
65 proper treatment-seeking culture are critical for maintaining such gains and possibly reaching  
66 malaria-free Kenya, as envisioned in Kenya’s malaria strategy 2019-2023 [34]. However, studies  
67 investigating malaria diagnosis practice at the healthcare facilities and treatment-seeking around  
68 this region are limited. The study therefore seeks to investigate the probable challenges faced by  
69 healthcare facilities with regard to diagnosis and treatment as well as treatment-seeking behavior

70 among the local population. The findings of the study will further guide the ministry of health and  
71 other stakeholders determine the best way to manage malaria disease.

## 72 **Methods**

### 73 **Study site**

74 The study was conducted in two sub-counties (Rachuonyo south and Rangwe) of Homa Bay  
75 county, Kenya. The County is situated in the southern part of former Nyanza Province and lies  
76 between latitude 0.15<sup>0</sup>S and 0.52<sup>0</sup> S and between longitude 34<sup>0</sup> E and 35<sup>0</sup> E. The government of  
77 Kenya initiated an irrigation scheme in parts of Homa Bay county to boost food production and  
78 household income [36]. The study targeted households within the irrigated (Oluch-Kimira  
79 irrigation scheme) and non-irrigated areas (5- 10 km away from irrigation scheme). The study area  
80 experiences semi-arid climatic conditions where daily temperatures range between 26<sup>0</sup>C and 34<sup>0</sup>C  
81 during cold months (April and November) and hot months (January to March) respectively. It has  
82 two rainy seasons; long rains (April- June) and short rains (September- November) with rainfall  
83 ranging between 250mm and 1200mm annually.

84 The major economic activity is subsistence farming where crops such as rice, maize beans  
85 cabbages and variety of fruits are grown. Other economic activities practiced in the area include  
86 small scale businesses, fishing, while some are government employees. Malaria transmission  
87 within the county is perennial with a parasite prevalence of 27%. [30] The primary vector control  
88 strategy in this county has been long lasting insecticide treated nets, but in February 2018 indoor  
89 residual spray program using Actellic insecticide was implemented [45]. Significant progress in  
90 malaria reduction has been reported since the implementation of IRS [42].

### 91 **Study design and measures**

92 The study was a cross-sectional household and healthcare facility-based survey. Healthcare facility  
 93 survey was carried out between October 2019 and December 2019 coinciding with the short rainy  
 94 season. Healthcare facilities with a minimum catchment population of 3000 people were selected.  
 95 As a result, ten government healthcare facilities were identified and recruited into the study due to  
 96 low cost or free services offered there. Table 1 further describes the total number of villages,  
 97 households and population per healthcare facility. According to the Kenya national guidelines for  
 98 diagnosis, treatment, and control, all patients in all age groups with suspected malaria should  
 99 undergo a parasite-based diagnosis before treatment [32]. Microscopy and malaria rapid diagnostic  
 100 test kits (RDT) were some of the recommended malaria diagnostic tools particularly in resource-  
 101 poor areas [32]. The study therefore aimed to determine the average monthly clinical malaria cases  
 102 and to assess the available diagnostic techniques for suspected malaria cases. The study targeted  
 103 all patients with suspected malaria attending the ten government-based healthcare facilities and  
 104 agreed to sign informed consent or assent form (for minors aged <18 years old). Besides, the  
 105 patient had to be a resident of the study area in order to participate. Clinical officer in charge of  
 106 each healthcare facility provided information on Artemether Lumefantrine (AL) availability. AL  
 107 is the recommended first-line drug for the treatment of uncomplicated *Plasmodium* infections in  
 108 Kenya [32].

109 Table 1. List of the 10 healthcare facilities within the study area

Name	level	Catchment population			Type of malaria diagnosis offered
		No. of villages	No. of households	Total population	
Nyarut	Dispensary	18	792	3,774	RDT, clinical
Kodula	Dispensary	12	930	6,797	RDT, clinical
Omboga	Dispensary	25	2165	9,937	RDT, clinical
Ngegu	Dispensary	20	1614	7,760	RDT, microscopy
Nyagoro	Health center	34	3203	15,583	RDT, microscopy
Nyalkinyi	Health center	20	2147	10,730	RDT, microscopy

Okiki Amayo	Dispensary	10	477	3,142	RDT, microscopy
Adiedo	Dispensary	29	1727	9,234	RDT, microscopy
Obwanda	Dispensary	16	927	4,864	RDT, microscopy
Kandiego	Sub-county hospital	51	2809	15,338	RDT, microscopy

## 110 **Household survey**

111 Household-based survey was conducted in the month of July 2020, near the end of long rains,  
112 when malaria transmission typically at its peak. Households were the study units in the selected  
113 villages. A total of 240 households were considered sufficient to answer study objectives and were  
114 randomly selected using a two-stage cluster sampling design as previously described [15]. First,  
115 the ten health facilities served a total of 208 villages in both irrigated and non-irrigated areas. There  
116 were 73 villages in irrigated area and 135 villages in non-irrigated areas. Based on the number of  
117 households in each village, 12 villages (6 from each region) were randomly selected. The second  
118 stage involved household selection. All households in the 12 identified clusters (villages) were  
119 assigned unique numbers by the study team. Thereafter, 20 households in each of the 12 clusters,  
120 were chosen at random.

121 Trained interviewers distributed structured questionnaires to the household heads. All 240  
122 household heads responded to questions regarding knowledge, attitude and practice towards  
123 malaria. However, to determine the treatment seeking behavior, only households that had reported  
124 cases of fever accompanied by headache or joint pains or both in the two weeks preceding data  
125 collection, were interviewed. The household head provided information on the family members  
126 who had fever (age, gender and severity of fever). The household head also answered questions  
127 about treatment-seeking behavior on behalf of febrile patients, bed net ownership, and use. The  
128 integrity of nets was physically examined. Health-seeking behavior was the primary outcome of  
129 the study. The operational definition of treatment-seeking behavior was considered to be seeking  
130 treatment at health facility or self-medication using antimalarial drugs bought from a chemist. The

131 proportion of participants who did nothing to treat their fever was also recorded. We also enquired  
132 whether antimalarial drugs were available in healthcare facilities for fever patients seeking  
133 treatment, or if they were referred to a chemist.

134 Potential covariates to treatment seeking behavior such as easy access to hospital, ability  
135 to pay hospital bills, the nature of symptoms (severe or mild), age group, whether the house was  
136 sprayed (IRS), knowledge of malaria symptoms, region of residence (irrigated or non-irrigated),  
137 household head level of education and use of a bed net were considered and included in a predictive  
138 model. The level of education for the household head was categorized into no education, primary  
139 education, secondary education and college education. Assessment of knowledge of malaria  
140 symptoms was based on the ability of the household head to link fever or headache to malaria.

#### 141 **Data analysis**

142 The data were coded, entered in Excel sheet, and analyzed using GMP Pro 16. Demographic  
143 characteristic of participants, knowledge, attitude and practice towards malaria were summarized  
144 using descriptive statistics. Differences in proportions were compared using either Fisher's exact  
145 test or Chi-square test. To assess treatment-seeking behavior, we first used descriptive analysis to  
146 determine the difference among those who sought treatment at health facility versus those who  
147 used antimalarial drugs bought from the chemist or those who did nothing to manage the fever.  
148 We then used multiple logistic regression to identify the factors that influence treatment-seeking  
149 behavior.

#### 150 **Ethical consideration**

151 The current study was part of a larger survey on "Environmental Modifications in sub-Saharan  
152 Africa: Changing Epidemiology, Transmission and Pathogenesis of *Plasmodium falciparum* and  
153 *P. vivax* malaria" whose ethical review and approval (MSU/DRPI/MUERC/00456/17) was

154 obtained from Maseno University (Kenya) Ethics and Research Committees and University of  
155 California, USA. Written informed consent was obtained from the parent/guardian of each  
156 participant under 18 years of age.

## 157 **Results**

### 158 **Socio-demographic characteristics of study participants in household survey**

159 We visited 240 households with a total population of 1,142 people (574 from irrigated and 568  
160 from non-irrigated areas). Children under the age of 5 constituted 20.2% (231/1142), followed by  
161 children aged 5 to 14 years (32.9%, 376/1142), and those aged 15 years and older constituted 46.8  
162 (535/1142). The mean household size was 4.8 people, with a range of 1-11 individuals per  
163 household. The majority of the respondents were females (76.3%, n =183) as indicated in table 2.  
164 Most of the respondents (58.8%, n = 141) had a primary education, while the least (4.2%, n = 10)  
165 had a college education. The overall bed net ownership by study participants was 93.3% (224/240).  
166 Irrigated area had significantly higher bed net ownership of 98.3% compared to that of non-  
167 irrigated area (88.3%) (Fisher's exact test = 0.003). The proportion of households having 1 LLIN  
168 for two people was 37.5% (45/120) in irrigated compared to 24.2% (29/120) in non-irrigated area  
169 ( $\chi^2= 5.0$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = 0.03$ ). Bed net usage survey indicated that in most households (83.3% in  
170 irrigated and 73.7% in non-irrigated area), all family members used bed net. Although bed net  
171 ownership and usage was above average in the study area, the majority of the households (59.2%  
172 in irrigated and 57.5% in non-irrigated areas) had nets which were torn. Indoor residual spray  
173 coverage was at 66.7% (80/120) in irrigated and 69.2% (83/120) in non-irrigated areas.

174 Table 2. Demographic information of the households visited and the household heads

Variables	Irrigated (n =120) n (%)	Non-irrigated (n = 120) n (%)	p-value
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Sex of respondent			
Male	26 (21.7)	31 (21.8)	0.5
Female	94 (78.3)	89 (74.2)	
Education			
No education	14 (11.7)	10 (8.3)	0.5
Primary	61 (50.8)	80 (66.7)	0.02
Secondary	36 (30.0)	29 (24.2)	0.38
College	9 (7.5)	1 (0.8)	0.019
Bed net ownership	118 (98.3)	106 (88.3)	0.003
All family members sleep under bed net?			
Yes	100 (83.3)	88 (73.7)	0.08
No	20 (16.7)	32 (26.7)	
1 LLIN for 2 people	45 (37.5)	29 (24.2)	0.03
IRS in the last 6 months?			
Yes	80 (66.7)	83 (69.2)	0.8
No	40 (33.3)	37 (55.8)	

175 **Monthly clinical malaria and diagnosis routine at the healthcare facilities**

176 The majority of public healthcare facilities 70% (7/10) in the study area are dispensaries which are  
177 headed by clinical officers and provide only outpatient services. Health centers and a hospital  
178 which are headed by at least one doctor and provide inpatient services accounts for 20% (2/10)  
179 and 10% (1/10) respectively. A total of 1264 suspected malaria cases in the 10 healthcare facilities  
180 were recorded during a period of 3 months. Out of the 1264 cases, 76.7% (972/1264) were  
181 diagnosed by microscopy, 4.2% (53/1264) by RDT kits while 18.9% (239/1264) were clinically  
182 diagnosed. The overall clinical malaria cases were 19.7% (65/330), 18.2% (109/600), and 21%  
183 (70/334) during October, November and December respectively as illustrated in table 3

184 Table 3. Monthly suspected and confirmed malaria cases from the 10 selected health facilities  
185 within the study area

Type of diagnosis	October 2019		November 2019		December 2019	
	Suspected malaria	Positive n (%)	Suspected malaria	Positive n (%)	Suspected malaria	Positive n (%)
Microscopy	241	39 (16.2)	466	70 (15.0)	265	47 (17.7)
RDT	27	3 (11.1)	21	5 (23.8)	5	0 (0)

Clinical	62	23 (38.0)	113	34 (30.1)	64	23 (35.6)
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186 During the three months of the study, three dispensaries (Nyarut, Omboga, and Kodula),  
 187 did not have RDT kits and thus relied on clinical symptoms to confirm suspected malaria cases.  
 188 The number of cases confirmed by clinical diagnosis was always greater than 30% during the 3  
 189 months of the study. Microscopy confirmed cases, however, accounted for less than 20% of all  
 190 cases during the same time period. For example, during the month of October 2019, the proportion  
 191 of suspected malaria which were confirmed by microscopy was 16.2% (39/241) compared 38%  
 192 (23/62) clinically confirmed cases ( $p = 0.0005$ ). During the month of November 2019, the  
 193 proportion of microscopy confirmed cases was 15% (70/466) compared to 30.1% (34/113) cases  
 194 confirmed clinically ( $p = 0.0003$ ). Similarly, during the month of December 2019, cases confirmed  
 195 by microscopy were 17.7% (47/265) while those confirmed clinically were 35.6% (23/64) ( $p =$   
 196  $0.0025$ ) (Table 4).

197 Table 4. Comparison between Slide positivity rate (SPR) and clinically confirmed cases at health  
 198 care systems

	October 2019		November 2019		December 2019	
	Confirmed cases n (%)	p-value	Confirmed cases n (%)	p-value	Confirmed cases n (%)	p-value
SPR	39 (16.2)	0.0005	70 (15.0)	0.0003	47 (17.7)	0.0025
Clinical	23 (38.0)		34 (30.1)		23 (35.6)	

199 **Knowledge, attitude and practice of household heads towards malaria**

200 Table 5 summarizes the knowledge, attitude and practice of respondents towards malaria. The  
 201 majority of respondents (77%), indicated that malaria is transmitted by the bite of any mosquito.  
 202 Other means of malaria transmission mentioned included the bite of infected mosquito (11.3%),  
 203 and contaminated water (5.4%). About 8.3% however, indicated that they did not know how  
 204 malaria is transmitted. With regards to malaria symptoms, the following symptoms were identified

205 by the village residents; fever 177 (73.8%), headache 171 (71.3%), joint pains 120 (50%) and  
 206 vomiting 95 (39.6%). Children under the age of 5 years, were mentioned as the most vulnerable  
 207 174 (72.5%) group. Other vulnerable groups included, pregnant women 108 (45%), the elderly 50  
 208 (20.8%), everyone 63 (26.3%), and older children 4 (1.7%). The majority of participants 288  
 209 (95%) indicated that the use of treated bed-nets was the best way to control malaria. Other control  
 210 methods mentioned included: mosquito coils/ repellants 47 (19.6%), indoor residual spray 44  
 211 (18.3%), chemoprophylaxis 32 (13.3%), and keeping food clean 22 (9.2%). The knowledge about  
 212 mosquito breeding habitat was assessed and the findings indicate that 95% (228/240) of the study  
 213 participants were aware that stagnant water is the most suitable breeding place of mosquitos. The  
 214 other breeding place mentioned was bushes at 66.7% (166/240). Attitude towards malaria was also  
 215 assessed and 95.4% (229/240) of the participants indicated that malaria was a serious disease while  
 216 4.6% (11/240) mentioned that malaria is a mild disease. Approximately 93.8% (225/240) indicated  
 217 that it was very important to follow malaria treatment prescription given by the doctor, while 6.2%  
 218 (15/240) indicated that it was not important.

219 Table 5. Knowledge, attitude, and practice towards malaria

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Frequency (%)</b>
<b>How can malaria be transmitted (n= 240)</b>	
Bite of any mosquito	185 (77)
Bite of infected mosquito	27 (11.3)
Contaminated water	13 (5.4)
Do not know	20 (8.3)
<b>Malaria symptoms known (n= 240)</b>	
Fever	177 (73.8)
Headache	171 (71.3)
Joint pains	120 (50)
Vomiting	95 (39.6)
Chills	19 (7.9)
Loss of appetite	15 (6.3)
Common cold	44 (18.3)
Do not know	2 (0.8)
<b>Who are most vulnerable towards malaria (n = 240)</b>	

Everyone	63 (26.3)
Children below 5 years old	174 (72.5)
Pregnant women	108 (45)
Children above 5 years	4 (1.7)
Adults	50 (20.8)
Don't know	8 (3.3)
<b>Malaria control methods (n = 240)</b>	
Insecticide treated nets	228 (95)
Indoor residual spray	44 (18.3)
Mosquito coils/ repellants	47 (19.6)
Window screen	4 (1.7)
Chemoprophylaxis	32 (13.3)
Avoid playing in the cold	14 (5.8)
Do not know	6 (2.5)
Keeping food clean	22 (9.2)
<b>Breeding places of mosquito (n = 240)</b>	
Stagnant water	228 (95)
Bushes	160 (66.7)
Do not know	8 (3.3)
<b>How serious is malaria to human health (n = 240)</b>	
Very serious	229 (95.4)
Mild	11 (4.6)

## 220 **Treatment-seeking pattern among study participants**

221 Treatment-seeking behavior among fever patients is described in table 4. Out of the 240  
 222 households visited, 44% (106/240) households reported to have had fever cases in the previous 2  
 223 weeks. The total number of people who experienced fever cases were 15.1% (173/1142). The  
 224 irrigated areas had a significantly higher number of fever patients (17.6%, n = 101) compared to  
 225 that of non-irrigated (12.8%, n = 72) ( $\chi^2 = 5.0$ , df = 1, p = 0.03). Among these 173 individuals,  
 226 37.0% (n = 64) sought treatment at the health facility, 50.3% (n = 87) used antimalarial drugs  
 227 bought from the chemist while 12.7% (n = 22) did nothing to manage the fever. The proportion of  
 228 individuals seeking treatment at a health facility for fever cases were more common in irrigated  
 229 (45.5%, n = 46) than in non-irrigated areas (25%, n = 18) ( $\chi^2 = 6.8$ , df = 1, p = 0.009) as shown in  
 230 table 6. Malaria was confirmed in 65.6% (42/64) of the febrile patients who sought treatment at

231 healthcare facilities. Due to drug stock-outs in some healthcare facilities, 87.7% (30/42) of the  
 232 malaria-confirmed patients were directed to purchase antimalarial drugs from a chemist. In non-  
 233 irrigated areas, most fever patients who did not seek treatment at healthcare facilities, bought drugs  
 234 at the local chemists. For instance, pharmacy-purchased medications were used by 59.7% (43/72)  
 235 of fever patients in non-irrigated areas compared to 43.6% (44/101) of fever patients in irrigated  
 236 ( $\chi^2 = 3.8$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ). Similarly, the proportion of those who did nothing or waited to get  
 237 better when they experienced fever was 10.9% in irrigated and 15.3% in non-irrigated areas ( $\chi^2 =$   
 238  $0.4$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = 0.5$ ).

239 Treatment seeking behavior differed significantly among age groups. The majority of  
 240 children aged < 5 years (77.7%) were taken to a health facility for treatment compared to 31.4%  
 241 and 20.9% of children aged 5-14 years old and those aged  $\geq 15$  years respectively ( $\chi^2 = 37.07$ ,  $df$   
 242  $= 2$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). However, use of antimalarial drugs purchased from a chemist for fever-related  
 243 cases was highest among adults (59.7%), followed by 58.6% of children aged 5-14, and lowest  
 244 among children under the age of 5 (16.7%) ( $\chi^2 = 20.6$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Approximately 5.6%,  
 245 10% and 19.4% of children under the age of 5, children aged 5-14 and those aged  $\geq 15$  years old,  
 246 respectively, did not receive any form of treatment and instead their caregivers just waited for the  
 247 fever to subside ( $\chi^2 = 4.8$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p = 0.09$ ).

248 Table 6 Malaria treatment seeking behavior (n = 173)

	Hospital	p-value	Chemist	p-value	Do nothing	p-value
<b>Region</b>						
Irrigated	46/101 (45.5%)	0.009	44/101 (43.6%)	0.05	11/101 (10.9%)	0.5
Non-irrigated	18/72 (25%)		43/72 (59.7%)		11/72 (15.3%)	
<b>Age group</b>						
<5 yrs.	28/36 (77.7%)	< 0.0001	6/36 (16.7%)	< 0.0001	2/36 (5.6%)	0.09

5-14 yrs.	22/70 (31.4%)	41/70 (58.6)	7/70 (10%)
≥ 15 yrs.	14/67 (20.9%)	40/67 (59.7%)	13/67 (19.4%)

249 **Factors related to treatment-seeking**

250 Fever patients were either treated at a health facility, used drugs bought from a chemist, or did  
 251 nothing. Access to a health facility was one of the factors that influenced participants' decision to  
 252 seek treatment at a health facility. Those who had easy access to a hospital were more likely to  
 253 seek treatment there (OR = 16.23, p = 0.002). than those who had a challenge accessing the health  
 254 facility as indicated in table 7. Additional hospital costs, such as consultation fees or the cost of  
 255 laboratory tests, influenced whether or not the patient sought treatment at the hospital. For  
 256 example, those who indicated that paying medical bills was not a challenge to them, were more  
 257 likely to seek treatment at the health facility (OR = 10.6, p = 0.006) than those who could not  
 258 afford such costs. Those who experienced severe symptoms in the previous 2 weeks were more  
 259 likely to seek treatment at the hospital (OR = 7.5, p = 0.037) than those who had mild symptoms.  
 260 Care givers of under 5-year-old fever patients were also more likely to take their children to health  
 261 facility for treatment (OR = 17.8, p = 0.008) than those caregivers of older children and adults.

262 With regard to use of antimalarial drugs bought at the chemist, family members from  
 263 houses which were not sprayed (IRS), were more likely to buy antimalarial drugs from the chemist  
 264 (OR = 3.14, p = 0.025) than those from sprayed households. Study participants who experienced  
 265 mild fever or headache, were more likely to buy antimalarial drugs from the chemist (OR = 10.09,  
 266 p = 0.001) than those who experienced severe fever or headache. Knowledge of malaria symptoms  
 267 also played key role towards buying of antimalarial. Those who believed that fever or headache  
 268 was due to malaria, were more likely to buy drugs at the chemist (OR = 5.72, p = 0.002) than to

269 go to hospital for treatment. Caregivers of older children or adults were 4 times more likely to buy  
 270 antimalarial drugs at the chemist (OR = 4.82, p = 0.03) than seeking treatment at the hospital.

271 Table 7. Nominal logistic fit for treatment seeking behavior

<b>Hospital treatment</b>			
Variable	Level	Odds ratio 95% CI	p-value
Easy access to hospital	Yes	16.23 (2.74-96.12)	0.002
	No	1.00	-
Ability to pay hospital bills	Yes	10.60 (1.97-57.1)	0.006
	No	1.00	-
Severe symptoms	Yes	7.55 (1.12-50.80)	0.037
	No	1.00	-
Age group	< 5yrs	17.81 (2.12-149.7)	0.008
	≥5 yrs.	1.00	-
<b>Buy drugs at the chemist</b>			
House sprayed (IRS)	Yes	1.00	-
	No	3.14 (1.15-8.57)	0.025
Mild symptoms	Yes	12.09 (2.70-54.24)	0.001
	No	1.00	-
Knowledge of malaria symptoms	Yes	5.72 (1.87-17.49)	0.002
	No	1.00	-
Age group	<5yrs	1.00	-
	≥5yrs	4.82 (1.19-19.61)	0.03

272 1 = Reference value

## 273 Discussion

274 This study assessed the rural population’s knowledge, attitude, and practice regarding malaria, as  
 275 well as treatment-seeking behavior and predictors of treatment-seeking in a resource-poor setting  
 276 where malaria is endemic. Malaria knowledge and proper treatment seeking behavior are critical  
 277 components of malaria control or elimination strategies. [17] . As a result, the findings of this study  
 278 may have a positive impact on the current malaria control strategies, which have been intensified  
 279 in order to reduce disease rates in the study area. Our findings revealed a community that is well-  
 280 versed in malaria transmission, symptoms, and control methods. In most malaria endemic regions,  
 281 the majority of residents are aware about malaria transmission and symptoms [2, 40].

282           Despite widespread knowledge of malaria control methods, study’s findings revealed that  
283           only a small percentage of households met the requirement of “one LLIN for every two people”.  
284           A minimum coverage of 60% is required for LLINs to provide optimal protection [24]. The present  
285           study's 30.8% universal coverage ownership of LLINs was lower than the coverage (45%)  
286           recorded right after the completion of the 2017 mass distribution of nets. [33]. The survey was  
287           done three years after the previous mass distribution, thus most nets must have worn out and  
288           stopped being used, lowering the proportion of persons who had nets. Furthermore, the majority  
289           of nets surveyed had holes, decreasing nets' ability to offer effective protection.

290           The findings further indicated that the majority of participants consider malaria to be a  
291           serious disease, acknowledge stagnant water as the suitable breeding place for mosquitoes, and are  
292           aware of the groups of people who are most vulnerable to malaria. This high level of knowledge  
293           in malaria disease may be attributed to the community’s location in a malaria endemic region  
294           where the disease is common, and also the fact that the majority of the respondents (90%) had at  
295           least a primary education. This is comparable to other studies conducted in southeastern Iran [2],  
296           in Mozambique [13], Northwestern Ethiopia [14], and Bangladesh [49].

297           According to the study findings, 44% of the total households surveyed had at least one  
298           fever patient. More than a half of these febrile cases were treated with antimalarial drugs obtained  
299           from a local chemist. This is similar to studies in in Indonesia [16], Ghana [5], India [50],  
300           Myanmar [53], and Bangladesh [2] where majority of febrile patients reportedly preferred self-  
301           medication over hospital-based treatment. In the current study, key predictors of self-treatment  
302           included knowledge of malaria symptoms, severity of symptoms, and age of febrile patients. The  
303           study area being a malaria endemic region, the majority of people are frequently exposed to  
304           *Plasmodium* infections. As a result, many participants who were familiar with malaria symptoms,



305 were more likely to delay or fail to seek treatment at a health facility when fever developed. This  
306 finding is comparable to studies conducted in Ethiopia [18, 52]. However, the current study  
307 findings, contradicted previous research that found that knowledge about malaria increased the  
308 likelihood of early treatment-seeking in a health facility [29, 59]. The study further demonstrated  
309 that patients with mild symptoms were more likely to buy drugs from a chemist or do nothing. In  
310 all regions where malaria transmission is perennial, most people, particularly older children and  
311 adults, may be asymptomatic or exhibit mild clinical symptoms of malaria due to acquired  
312 immunity to the disease [6, 28, 54]. Therefore, people with mild malaria symptoms may delay or  
313 avoid seeking treatment at the hospital as previously reported [20].

314 Access to healthcare facilities, ability to pay hospital bills, severity of symptoms, and age  
315 of fever patients were factors that predicted treatment-seeking at healthcare facilities. The ease of  
316 access to healthcare facilities has been reported in previous studies to encourage treatment-seeking  
317 at healthcare facilities [16, 25, 37, 60]. Easily accessible health facilities may not require  
318 transportation or may require only a small amount of money; as a result, the majority of people  
319 find it easy to access them. Similarly, unavailability of money to pay for hospital bills such as  
320 laboratory tests charges discouraged some participants to seek treatment at these public healthcare  
321 facilities. Financial constraints have been reported in previous studies to have a significant impact  
322 on treatment-seeking at healthcare facilities [50, 51].

323 The study's findings also demonstrated that young children with fevers, were more likely  
324 to be taken to the healthcare facility by their caregivers than older children or adults. This could  
325 be due to the majority of respondents being aware that children under the age of five are more  
326 vulnerable to malaria than older children or adults, as previously reported [1, 8]. Individuals who  
327 are more susceptible to malaria are more likely to experience severe symptoms. In the current

328 study, most participants indicated that malaria is a serious disease. This could be the most plausible  
329 explanation for why the majority of people with severe symptoms sought treatment at healthcare  
330 facilities. This is comparable to a study in Cameroon in which people could only visit healthcare  
331 facilities if they experienced severe symptoms [27].

332 According to survey findings, some dispensaries were resource constrained. Chronic  
333 challenges that plagued the day-to-day operations of most of these dispensaries included a lack of  
334 well-equipped laboratories, RDT kits stock-outs, and antimalarial drug shortages. These  
335 challenges if not addressed, may have an impact on treatment seeking behavior. For example,  
336 patients who are referred to some distant healthcare facilities for proper checkups may resort to  
337 buying drugs at local chemists due to a lack of funds for transportation. Similarly, drug shortages  
338 in healthcare facilities are likely to hamper effective treatment seeking as reported in previous  
339 studies [10]. For instance, in irrigated areas, the majority of fever patients sought treatment at  
340 healthcare facilities compared to fever patients in non-irrigated areas. This could be due to a  
341 combination of factors, including limited access to healthcare facilities and the types of services  
342 provided at those facilities. For example, in irrigated areas, the majority of people have easy access  
343 to healthcare, as opposed to non-irrigated areas. Secondly, as opposed to non-irrigated areas, most  
344 healthcare facilities in the irrigated areas had well-established laboratories for conducting quality  
345 malaria diagnosis. These two factors may influence the treatment seeking behavior of local  
346 residents [16, 17]. Another plausible explanation could be income disparities between irrigated  
347 and non-irrigated households. A recent study conducted by Omondi, Ochwedo (41) in the same  
348 study area, discovered that household income in irrigated areas was higher than in non-irrigated  
349 areas.

350 World Health Organization recommends that all suspected malaria cases be confirmed  
351 through microscopy or the use of rapid diagnostic test kits before antimalarial drugs are  
352 administered [57]. Particularly in malaria-endemic areas, where the majority of febrile illnesses  
353 may not be caused by malaria [12, 23]. Although we did not re-examine to confirm the accuracy  
354 of clinically diagnosed cases, it was apparent that dispensaries that relied on clinical diagnosis  
355 reported a significantly higher number of malaria cases than those that used microscopy. This  
356 raises concerns about over-diagnosis of malaria cases, which could lead to indiscriminate use of  
357 antimalarial drugs or non-treatment of other illnesses with similar symptoms to malaria [38, 44,  
358 47].

### 359 **Conclusion**

360 The study findings indicate that most people from this region have good knowledge about malaria.  
361 However, the majority of fever patients self-treat with drugs purchased from local chemists.  
362 Access to healthcare facilities, knowledge of malaria symptoms, age of febrile patients, severity  
363 of symptoms, and income were all likely factors influencing treatment seeking behavior.  
364 Antimalarial drugs and RDT kits stock outs were common challenges to some dispensaries. The  
365 Ministry of Health should consider launching a community-based awareness campaign to educate  
366 local population about the importance of seeking medical attention at a healthcare facility. The  
367 ministry of health should also consider improving access to healthcare facilities as well as quality  
368 services in terms of diagnosis and drug availability.

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