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## **Spatial-temporal trends and risk factors for under-nutrition and obesity among children (<5 years) in South Africa, 2008-2017: findings from a nationally representative longitudinal panel survey**



# Manuscripts

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## **Title page**

## **Spatial-temporal trends and risk factors for under-nutrition and obesity among children (<5 years) in South Africa, 2008-2017: findings from a nationally representative longitudinal panel survey**

## **Running title: under-nutrition and obesity among children in South Africa**

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#### **Summary**

Objectives: To assess space-time trends in the burden of malnutrition and associated risk factors among children under 5 years of age in South Africa

Design: national panel survey

Setting: national, community based

Participants: Community based sample of children and adults. Sample size: 3,254 children in wave 1 (2008) to 4,710 children in wave 5 (2017).

Primary outcomes: Stunting, wasting/thinness and obesity among children (<5). Classification were based on anthropometric (height and weight) z-scores using WHO growth standards.

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sting, wasting/thinness and obesity among children (<5). Classif<br>
and weight) z-scores using WHO growth standards.<br>
and  $2017$  there was a significant decline nationally in stunting p<br>
m 11.0% to 7.6% (p=0.007 Results: Between 2008 and 2017 there was a significant decline nationally in stunting prevalence among children under 5 years of age from 11.0% to 7.6% ( $p=0.007$ ), while thinness/wasting (5.2% to 3.8%,  $p=0.131$ ) and obesity (14.5% to 12.9%, p=0.312) decreased insignificantly. Stunting prevalence appears relatively evenly spread across South Africa, while obesity is more pronounced in the east of the country and thinness/wasting more pronounced in the west. Only 16/ 52 districts had an estimated wasting prevalence below the 2025 target threshold of 5% in 2017.African ethnicity, male gender, low birth weight, lower socio-economic and maternal/paternal education status and residence in a rural area were significantly associated with stunting. Children living in a lower income and food insecure household with young malnourished mothers were significantly more likely to be thin/wasted while African children, with higher birth weights, living in lower income households in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape were significantly more likely to be obese.

Conclusions: While improvements in stunting have been observed, thinness/wasting and obesity prevalence remain largely unchanged. The geographic and socio-demographic heterogeneity in childhood malnutrition has implications for equitable attainment of global nutritional targets for 2025. Many districts appeared to have dual epidemics of under and over nutrition (high within district heterogeneity and inequality). Effective public health planning and tailored interventions are required at the sub-national level to address this challenge.

**Keywords:** nutritional status, nutritional transition, undernutrition, obesity, children, South Africa

#### **Strengths and limitations of this study**

- Utilises data from a nationally representative repeated panel data at individual/household level over a 10 year period (5 survey waves).
- Employed a fully Bayesian space-time shared component model to produce more stable estimates of malnutrition burden at provincial and district level among children under five years of age in South Africa.
- Panel design allows assessment of change in malnutrition burden within the same individuals/households observed at multiple time points.
- Missing or invalid weight/height measurements may have introduced selection bias if not missing at random, and may thus have affected both the internal validity and the representativeness the findings.
- As primary panel study was not designed/powered for provincial and lower geographic level analysis, we cannot discount the resultant impact on precision/random variability when analysing at provincial/district level (administrative tier just below province) and further stratification by socio-demographic correlates.

## **Background**

alid weight/height measurements may have introduced selection<br>ay thus have affected both the internal validity and the represen<br>el study was not designed/powered for provincial and lower ge<br>t the resultant impact on precis Despite reductions in malnutrition 150.8 million children (22.2%) under five are stunted and a further 50.5 million children are wasted <sup>1</sup>. Furthermore rapidly rising trend in overweight and obesity in children and adults <sup>2-4 5</sup> has emerged as one of the most serious global public health issues of the 21<sup>st</sup> century <sup>6</sup>. Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) has among the highest levels of child malnutrition<sup>1</sup> globally. This problem is particularly illustrated by South Africa  $^7$ , a middle income country with high levels of wealth/economic inequality that is undergoing rapid socioeconomic and lifestyle changes that have precipitated a nutritional transition, high prevalence of overweight/obesity in children 8 . The dual burdens of undernutrition and overweight/obesity are not distributed in a spatially homogenous manner<sup>9</sup>, and the health risks associated with malnutrition vary by age, gender, ethnicity and geographical location <sup>10</sup> .

Progress to tackle all forms of child malnutrition remain much too slow <sup>1</sup>. In order to support the delivery of public health interventions that will be most effective at reducing malnutrition, an understanding of the geographical distribution of malnutrition is required. Limited data are collected at lower administrative unit level making it difficult to identify specific groups of high-risk individuals and thus, determine the most suitable and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Child malnutrition is defined as a pathological state as a result of inadequate nutrition, including undernutrition due to insufficient intake of dietary energy and other key nutrients resulting in stunting (low height for age) or wasting (low weightfor-length) and overweight and obesity due to excessive consumption of dietary energy and reduced levels of physical activity.

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cost-effective opportunities and solutions. Previous studies of nutritional status of the South African population have mostly focused on adults <sup>11 12</sup>. Here we use a large, nationally-representative data from multiple rounds of the National Income Dynamics Study over the period 2008 to 2017 to assess space-time trends in the burden of malnutrition and associated risk factors among children under 5 years of age in South Africa.

#### **Methods**

## **Data**

is en five panel (cross-sectional) waves of the South African Nation<br>
first national panel study in South Africa. SA-NIDS was under<br>
int Research Unit based at the School of Economics at the Unive<br>
1008, 2010-11, 2012, 201 Data were taken from the five panel (cross-sectional) waves of the South African National Income Dynamics Study (SA-NIDS)<sup>13</sup>, the first national panel study in South Africa. SA-NIDS was undertaken by the South African Labour and Development Research Unit based at the School of Economics at the University of Cape Town. The surveys took place in 2008, 2010-11, 2012, 2014-15 and 2017. These are named waves 1-5 respectively. A detailed description of the data collection methods can be found elsewhere <sup>26</sup>. In short, a stratified, two-stage random cluster sample design was employed to sample households for inclusion at baseline using proportionally allocated stratification, based on the 52 district councils (DCs) in South Africa. Within each DC (primary sampling unit [PSU]), clusters of dwelling units were systematically drawn <sup>14</sup>. The household level response rate was 69% and the individual response rate within households was 93%. Survey enumerators attempt to collect weight and height measurements of all individuals (including children) in selected households.

#### **Study population**

We restricted our analysis to children  $\leq$  years of age.

#### **Outcomes**

We calculated height for age (HA) and BMI-for-age (BA) z-scores using the WHO 2007 growth standards <sup>1516</sup>. We generated z-scores by transformation of child anthropometric data using the "lambda mu sigma" method ('zanthro' function in Stata 15). As recommended, weight-for-length was used in children 0 to  $\leq$  years of age, and BMI-for-age in children 2 years of age and older <sup>17</sup>. We defined obesity as weight-for-length z-score  $\geq +2$  for children under 2 years of age and BMI for age z-score of  $>2+$  for children age 2 and older <sup>17</sup>. We defined wasting as weight-for-length z-score < -2 for children under 2 years of age and thinness as BMI for age z-score < -2 for children 2 years and older. Stunting was defined as HA z-score of < -2.

#### **Geographic and socio-demographic variables**

To identify relevant inequalities under-nutrition and obesity indicators were stratified temporally (survey year), geographically (province and residence location type: urban informal settlements, urban formal, tribal/rural) and by important socio-demographic categories (Gender: Female/Male; ethnicity: Black/African, Coloured, Indian/Asian, White/Caucasian; Maternal: age; education status; body mass index; household socio-economic status (income) classified into quantiles [1=lowest, 5=highest].

#### **Data analysis**

Analyses were performed using Stata software version 15 [StataCorp. 2017. Stata Statistical Software: Release 15. College Station, TX: StataCorp LLC]. Clustering, as well as survey design effects, were accounted for using sample weights to estimate standard error and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) around mean anthropometric zscore point estimates, both overall and stratified by other socio-demographic variables such ethnicity and gender, socio-economic status, and residence location type. Extrapolated population totals of malnourished children  $($  < 5) by yearly age were estimated using the survey weights.

ataCorp LLC]. Clustering, as well as survey design effects, were<br>atte standard error and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) around m<br>oth overall and stratified by other socio-demographic variables s<br>and residence location type *Space-time Bayesian modelling*: Furthermore, we employed a Bayesian joint (shared component) space-time binomial model <sup>18</sup> to estimate stable malnutrition prevalence rates at provincial and district levels across the 5 waves. The model splits the risk of malnutrition into three spatio-temporal components: a shared component for all three malnutrition types (stunting, thinness/wasting and obesity) and two additional components that capture that unshared differences between the three types. The model formulation contains an additive decomposition for the shared part, space–time interaction terms common to the three malnutrition types and additional heterogeneity terms. This methodology was employed in an attempt to stabilise estimates at district level given that the primary sampling design was not developed to provide point estimates at this level of geographic disaggregation. Survey weighted prevalence's were applied to sample size totals by district and panel to obtain a survey weighted numerator count by malnutrition type in the binomial distribution. The joint space-time was fitted in WINBUGS using Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation and non-informative priors. The full model code is provided in the Supplementary Material (1). The model was run until the Monte Carlo error for each parameter of interest was less than 5% of the sample standard deviation. Posterior prevalence estimates (and 95% Bayesian credibility intervals) of undernutrition and obesity levels at provincial and district level were mapped using ArcGIS 10.6.1 [ESRI 2011. ArcGIS Desktop: Release 10. Redlands, CA: Environmental Systems Research Institute].

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*Risk factors analysis*: Two-way tabulations of key socio-demographic covariates, year and child nutritional status were performed using the 'svy: tab' function to produce survey weighted prevalence estimates. Tests of independence for complex survey data survey (weighted Pearson's chi-square test) was utilised to assess the significance of bivariate associations between malnutrition burden and year as well as socio-demographic covariates.

**Ethical approval**: Approval for the primary study was granted by the Ethics Committee of the University of Cape Town. The current analysis is a secondary data analysis of an open access dataset and does not require further ethical approval.

Follow Movement: As this was a data analysis utilising secondary data development of the research question was not informed by the search dyperticipants in the design of this study. Study participants we study. Results wi **Patient and Public Involvement:** As this was a data analysis utilising secondary data from a national community based panel survey, the development of the research question was not informed by the study subjects. Likewise, we could not involve study participants in the design of this study. Study participants were not involved in conduct of the primary study. Results will be disseminated in the form of peer reviewed article as well as through presentation to senior members of our National Department of Health and KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health.

#### **Results**

#### **Study population**

The sample of children <5 years of age in the 7,301 households included in the SA-NIDS survey increased from 3,254 children at baseline (2008) to 4,710 children in wave 5 (2017) (Supplementary Material 2). With the exception of children under 1 year of age and survey wave 2 in 2010/11, valid weight and height measurements were taken from 85-90% of children sampled between the age of 1 and 5 on average.

#### **Temporal changes in burden of malnutrition from 2008 to 2017)**

Between 2008 and 2017, the prevalence of stunting among children aged under 5 years decreased significantly from 11.0% to 7.6% (p=0.007) (Table 1). Over the same period, both the prevalence of wasting/thinness (and the prevalence of obesity decreased non-significantly (from 5.2 to 3.8%,  $p= 0.131$  and 14.5% to 12.9%,  $p= 0.312$ respectively). The prevalence of thinness was significantly ( $p<0.001$ ) higher in children under 2 years of age (8%) in 2008; 6% in 2017) compared to 4% in 2008 and 3% in 2017 among children 2 years and older. The prevalence of obesity was also significantly (p<0.001) higher among children under 2 years of age and increased over the study period (18.4% in 2008 vs 21.7 in 2017, p=0.331).

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#### **Space-time burden of malnutrition at provincial and district level**

ee State (7.6%) (Figure 2a). By 2017 2017 the highest burden w<br>d by Northern Cape (4.9%) and North West (4.6%) (Figure 2b).<br>Provinces were above the 5% target threshold for wasting in 20<br>re the exceptions). There appeared *Under nutrition:* In 2008 and 2017, the highest prevalence of stunting was estimated in the Free State (17.1% and 10.5% respectively) followed by Eastern Cape (14.7% and 8.5% respectively) and Limpopo (14.0% and 9.3% respectively) (Figure 1 – panel a1). One district respectively in Free State (Mangaung Metropolitan), Limpopo (Vhembe) and Northern Cape (Pixley ka Seme) had an estimated stunting prevalence in excess of 15% in 2017 (Figure 1– panel a2). Gauteng had the highest burden of thinness/wasting in 2008 (9.6%) followed by North West province (9.3%) and Free State (7.6%) (Figure 2a). By 2017 2017 the highest burden was observed in Western Cape (at 5.6%) followed by Northern Cape (4.9%) and North West (4.6%) (Figure 2b). The estimates suggest that at provincial level 7 of 9 provinces were above the 5% target threshold for wasting in 2017 (only Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal were the exceptions). There appeared to be a general gradient of higher burden of thinness/wasting in the western half of country in 2017 (lower burden in KwaZulu-Natal and northern districts of Eastern Cape) (Figure 2b). The three highest wasting prevalence districts in 2017 were Amathole [EC] (12.6%), Siyanda [NC] (11.4%) and Eden [WC] (10.9%) (Figure 2b). Similarly, to the provincial level finding above, only 16 of 52 districts had an estimated wasting prevalence below 5% in 2017.

*Obesity*: In 2008, the highest prevalence of obesity was estimated in Eastern Cape (22.5%) followed by Western Cape (18.4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (17.6%) (Figure 3a). A decade later in 2017, the highest prevalence of childhood obesity was still estimated to be in the Eastern Cape (15.6%), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (15.1%)and Western Cape (15.0%). In contrast to the wasting gradient highlighted above (higher burden in the western half of the country), the burden of obesity in 2017 appeared to be much higher in the eastern half of the country (particularly KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape) (Figure 3b). The 4 highest obesity prevalence districts in 2017 were located in KwaZulu-Natal (Sisonke [26.2%] and eThekwini Metropolitan [25.7%) and Eastern Cape (Buffalo City Metropolitan [29.1%] and O.R Tambo [25.9%]).

**Figure 1:** Bayesian posterior prevalence by province (and wave) and district level prevalence (equal intervals, 2017) of stunting among children <5 years

**Figure 2:** Bayesian posterior prevalence by province (and wave) and district level prevalence (equal intervals, 2017) thinness/wasting among children <5 years

Figure 3: Bayesian posterior prevalence by province (and wave) and district level prevalence (equal intervals, 2017) of obesity among children <5 years

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#### **Factors associated with child nutritional status**

A bivariate analysis of demographic, maternal, socio-economic and household factors at individual nutritional status level suggests that African ethnicity ( $p<0.001$ ), male gender ( $p=0.002$ ), low birth weight ( $\leq 0.001$ ), residing in lower socio-economic status household (p<0.001), province of residence (p=0.012), lower maternal/paternal education status ( $p \le 0.001$ , 0.020 respectively) and residence in a rural/tribal authority area ( $p \le 0.001$ ) were significantly associated with stunting (Table 2). Children living in lower income households (p=0.053), lower food security (as measured through child hunger in last year) (p<0.001), province of residence (p=0.002), having a younger mother (<20) ( $p=0.012$ ) and mother having a lower BMI classification ( $p=0.005$ ) was significantly associated with thinness/wasting status. Children of African ethnicity (p<0.001), higher birth weight (p=0.006), living in lower income households (p=0.001) in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape (p<0.001) as well as paternal educational attainment  $(p=0.033)$  were significantly associated with obesity status (Table 2).

#### **Discussion**

red through child hunger in last year) (p<0.001), province of res<br>p=0.012) and mother having a lower BMI classification (p=0.00<br>s/wasting status. Children of African ethnicity (p<0.001), higher<br>households (p=0.001) in KwaZ *Main findings :* The present study illustrates that while stunting has declined among South African children over the last 10 years, wasting and obesity appear largely unchanged, suggesting that development and public health interventions have had a variable impact. Stunting prevalence appears relatively evenly spread across South Africa, but obesity burden is more pronounced in the east of the country, whereas thinness/wasting is more pronounced in the west, with only 16 of 52 districts with estimated wasting prevalence below the 5% (WHO 2025 target threshold) in 2017. A concerning pattern observed was the increase prevalence of obesity in children under the age of two years. Key socio-demographic factors associated with malnutrition status were identified which likely underpins the spatial patterns (and heterogeneity) observed across the country. African children with lower birth weights residing in lower income households in rural areas with less educated mothers and fathers were particular more likely to be stunted. Children in lower income, food insecure households with malnourished young mothers appeared particularly more likely to be thin/wasted while African children, with higher birth weights, living in lower income households in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape were also more likely to be obese.. Furthermore, low household income appeared to be positively associated with all 3 nutritional types. Declining childhood stunting rates from 2008-2017 may well have resulted from government initiatives to support food security and child health (among other things), but our findings of distinct geographic and socio-demographic variability in undernutrition and obesity rates suggest that tacking malnutrition in South Africa is complex.

Models and targets for nationally-driven intervention need to be carefully specified according to local environments and socio-economic profiles.

*Contribution to existing literature :* Two previous studies in South Africa among primary school aged children dating back 25+ years (1993and 1994 respectively) utilised cross sectional data<sup>1920</sup>, thus limiting insight into temporal trends. Furthermore, the study by Jinabhai et al. <sup>19</sup> was restricted to KwaZulu-Natal limiting national representativeness. Another cross sectional study in South African in 2001-2003 among primary school children in five South African Provinces suggested that relative to 1993 prevalence of undernutrition had decreased while obesity had increased<sup>20 21</sup>. Thus these previous data are now outdated, were largely focused on primary school aged children as well as cross sectional in nature and geographically restricted.

<sup>21</sup>. Thus these previous data are now outdated, were largely focustions cross sectional in nature and geographically restricted.<br>
tial-temporal Bayesian shared component analysis of malnutritic geographically representat This is also the first spatial-temporal Bayesian shared component analysis of malnutrition trends among children in South Africa utilising geographically representative repeated panel data over a 10-year period. The current study focusing on children under 5 year of age suggests that there is prominent geographic heterogeneity in malnutrition burden in South Africa in this youngest age group. This is in line with findings from other settings in Africa that have documented similar spatial heterogeneity  $^{22}$  and persistence of these malnutrition inequalities has been demonstrated in an 80 country study further highlighting this ongoing public health conundrum 23 24. Our results demonstrate a strong west to east gradient of higher underweight burden on the western side of South Africa and greater obesity on the eastern seaboard (Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal). A map of poverty and inequality in South Africa<sup>2</sup> illustrates the co-existence of high levels of poverty and inequality in many parts of KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape with high levels of overweight/obesity. This is further confirmed by our individual child level analysis which suggested a significantly higher obesity prevalence in lower income households. Metropolitan areas displayed high levels of nutritional inequality that complement national studies of poverty and inequality <sup>25</sup> .

Under and over nutrition status appeared positively associated with lower household income classification. This finding of stunting and wasting disproportionately affecting the poor has been often demonstrated <sup>26</sup>. Other studies in Africa in particular have documented similar patterns i.e. children living in low SES households, children who live in peripheral areas and whose mothers had little or no schooling were at significantly higher risk of malnutrition <sup>27</sup>. The inconsistent challenges facing health authorities are occurring in the face of rapid urbanization

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and industrialization that simultaneously attract both the rich and the poor to live in the same geographic districts <sup>28</sup>. The heterogeneous geographic relationship between household income and undernutrition is also affected by the allocation of household income that is a function of maternal education, access to markets, infrastructure and sanitation <sup>29</sup>. Additionally, these data suggest that there is a strong and highly significant association between higher food insecurity (child hunger frequency in the preceding year) and increased thinness/wasting. Community and government based packages of support need to be highly targeted to the poorest and most food insecure households to further reduce inequality in this regard and maximise reductions in malnutrition.

at children with low birth weight (due to pre-term delivery, fetal<br>tion of the two) were significantly more likely to be stunted that<br>ted in many other low and middle income settings (for example<br>risk factors for LBW <sup>31</sup> Our findings suggest that children with low birth weight (due to pre-term delivery, fetal/intrauterine growth restriction or a combination of the two) were significantly more likely to be stunted than normal weight babies and this has been demonstrated in many other low and middle income settings (for example <sup>30</sup>). Socioeconomic status/factors are known risk factors for LBW <sup>31</sup>and may in part explain the significant association found between stunting and lower household income. South Africa has the higher number of incident and prevalent HIV infections globally <sup>32</sup>. A further important contextual risk factor for LBW is maternal HIV status. A systematic review and large observational studies focussing on low and middle incoming countries, suggest a strong and significant association between maternal HIV infection and LBW 33 34. Evidence from South Africa also suggests the anthropometric z-score of HIV-infected children appear to be consistently lower when compared to HIVexposed but uninfected children <sup>35</sup>. We also observed a significantly higher prevalence of stunting among male children which has been demonstrated previously in a meta-analysis for sub-Saharan Africa <sup>36</sup>, the suggested cause of which might be that male children are more vulnerable to health inequalities relative to female children of the same age. Strengthening community-based packages of care and community health worker (CHW) performance/skills in rural and high burden geographies are key strategies to improve primary health care delivery through better identification of women at higher risk of poor birth outcomes (e.g. HIV positive, history of previous poor birth outcomes and/or currently malnourished), higher referral rates for facility births, and improved linkage to other health as well as social services <sup>37</sup>. Lastly given the high adolescent fertility rates in many parts of South Africa <sup>38</sup>, there is also much scope to improve CHW identification of households with higher risk malnourished adolescent girls prior to pregnancy to ensure more optimal linkage to government and social support to ensure adequate nutrition as well as improved awareness regarding family planning practices e.g. ensuring adequate birth spacing 39.

Obesity in children has a complex aetiology that includes a wide range of socioeconomic, demographic, environmental and cultural variables <sup>40</sup>such as household composition, mother's education, household income,

The final department income indicate the majnet of the content of the majnet of the example of the examples of the majnet of household size, environmental factors, rural versus urban location, and sanitation <sup>941</sup>. The high burden of obesity is likely associated with a progressive increases in the per capita food supply and consumption of high calorific foods (e.g. fat, sugar, fast and/or processed foods) in South Africa<sup>42</sup>. This rapidly changing dietary pattern has, in part, been attributed to urbanisation, growing and expanding supermarkets /formal food retailers, and the availability of fast/processed foods <sup>43</sup>. An interesting finding in these data was the significant positive association between child obesity status and residing in a lower income household. This association has been demonstrated previously 44-46 and this evidence base is growing. This conforms with the idea that lower and higher income households/families often have a higher obesity risk than middle income households i.e. so called U-shaped association. Lower income or economically deprived families often replace health fresh food options with cheaper and more calorific processed foods <sup>45</sup>. Multiple studies have demonstrated that the majority of low-income South Africans have a low dietary diversity, and, therefore, consume a limited food range consisting predominantly of a starchy staple such as bread and maize, with low intakes of vegetables and fruit <sup>42</sup>. Future work will characterise food purchasing patterns (and changes over time) among households in South Africa which will be compared with paired longitudinal anthropometric measurements to identify specific dietary patterns associated with child nutritional status.

Lastly and contextually, body mass is culturally influenced in South Africa, and the high level of obesity in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape may at least in part be a result of cultural beliefs that associate overweight with wealth and good health <sup>47</sup>. Geographic patterns of higher obesity in South Africa appeared to overlap areas of high poverty particular on the eastern side of the country<sup>3</sup> and thus not solely concentrated among higher socioeconomic households.

*Strengths:* To our knowledge this is the first spatial-temporal analysis of malnutrition trends among children under five years of age in South Africa. We used standardised anthropometric measurements of children and their mothers from a nationally representative repeated panel data over a 10-year period. The panel nature of the design allows assessment of change in malnutrition burden within the same individuals/households observed at multiple time points. A further strength was the implementation of a fully Bayesian space-time shared component model to produce more stable joint estimates of malnutrition by province, district and year.

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*Weaknesses* : The study has several limitations. Firstly, missing or invalid weight/height measurements (especially in wave 2, and among infants – Supplementary Material 2) may have introduced selection bias (if not missing at random), and may thus have affected both the internal validity and the representativeness the findings in the broader South African context. Secondly as the primary panel study was not designed/powered for provincial and lower geographic level analysis, we cannot discount the resultant impact on precision/random variability when analysing at provincial/district level (administrative tier just below province) and further stratification by socio-demographic correlates. Thirdly, we cannot discount the effect of inter-observer variability across different study districts, despite extensive interviewer training and standardization of study protocols. All anthropometric measurements (e.g. weight, height) were taken in duplicate in NIDS <sup>26</sup> which would have ensured better reliability.

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ght, height) were taken in duplicate in NIDS <sup>26</sup> which would have been the viewer reades: Estimating the cost of child malnutrit<br>
and no locally-determined c *Cost of malnutrition, policy and research needs*: Estimating the cost of child malnutrition in South Africa is extremely complicated and no locally-determined cost data exist. Data from the United States, suggest that the incremental lifetime direct medical cost for a 10-year-old obese child relative to a 10-year-old normal weight child ranges from USD 12 660 to USD 19 630 <sup>49</sup>. Estimates of the cost of treating wasted children are approximately USD 200 per child while stunting has been consistently linked to worse economic outcomes in adulthood  $51$  and estimates suggest that, on average, the future per capita income penalty for a stunted individual could be as large as 9-10% in SSA <sup>52</sup>. Urgent investments are needed to accelerate the reduction of all forms of malnutrition, as well as to curb the obesity epidemic among young children in South Africa. There is also considerable evidence indicates that childhood wasting and stunting can be reduced by 60% and 20% respectively using ten nutritionspecific interventions <sup>53</sup>, with an estimated return on investment (ROI) of 18:1, i.e. for USD 1 spent on implementing effective programmes there would be USD 18 return in future economic benefits <sup>54</sup>. Very few obesity prevention interventions targeting children have been effective and a comprehensive multifaceted strategy tackling diet, physical inactivity, coupled with psychosocial support and local food environment change may prove more effective. Nutrition policies tackling child obesity must promote household nutrition security and healthy growth, decrease overconsumption of nutrient-poor foods, better shield children from increasingly pervasive marketing of energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods and sugar sweetened beverages as well as reduction of growing physical inactivity <sup>55</sup> .

Our findings suggest the need to implement evidence-based child health strategies and policy (e.g. further social grant support to vulnerable and impoverished households) that is tailored to specific geographies and socially

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disadvantaged sub-populations. Integrated nutrition programs in low and middle income countries (LMIC) have had a substantial impact on child nutrition and health via a combination of multisector targeted interventions <sup>56</sup>. Furthermore implementation and/or strengthening of school-based food program can provide a launching pad for preventive programs including education and awareness, provision of healthier/more nutrition food options and micronutrient supplementation, deworming, increased immunization coverage and improved growth monitoring as well as counselling <sup>56</sup>. This may be especially true of obese children where the highest prevalence was observed in higher income households with higher food purchasing power and where local food environments are likely is likely to be an important contextual determinant. A higher prevalence of child thinness/wasting among younger mothers (<25) in poorer, food insecure household, highlights the importance of policies that enable younger mothers to adequately care for their children in all settings.

#### **Conclusions**

For the contextual determinant. A inglict prevalence of emid animiess, and the contextual determinant. A inglict prevalence of emid animiess are for their children in all settings.<br>
all all settings.<br>
all all settings and The heterogeneity of malnutrition is a feature of spatial inequality and rapid urbanization that has manifested in widening levels of inequality in South Africa's districts and a need to reassess where nutrition programmes need to be further decentralised to the highest risk municipalities and local communities to maximise effectiveness. This work provides the first district level ranking of childhood overweight, thinness/wasting and stunting and allows a differentiated pro-active tailored intervention to be developed for each municipal district. The dual epidemic of undernutrition and overweight/obesity requires differential geographical policy inputs in metropolitan areas and districts across the rural-urban divide. The current and future health cost of malnutrition among South African children cannot be overstated. There is an urgent need to address nutrition problems among preschool aged children in South Africa and other low and middle income countries. Effective public health planning and geographically/contextually tailored interventions are required at sub-national level to address this challenge. The analytical framework employed in this study we believe will have definite utility in other settings.

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#### **Authors' contributions**

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All authors contributed to the conception and design of the study. BS performed the analysis and initial interpretation of the findings. BS drafted the manuscript. All authors reviewed and provided input to revise the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for submission.

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## **Competing interests**

None declared.

## **Patient consent for publication**

Not required.

## **Ethics approval**

For publication<br>
Publication<br>
Publication<br>
Rowsel and hence ethical approval was not necessary.<br>
Rowsel at https://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/cat. This study utilised open access data and hence ethical approval was not necessary.

### **Data availability statement**

Data are publically available at https://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/NIDS/about

## **Tables**

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**Table 1: Burden of stunting, thinness/wasting and obesity among children by age and survey round**



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2008) p=0.131; obesity (2017 vs 2008) p=0.312

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iv: Significance tests (survey weighted logistic regression) among children 0-5: stunting (2017 vs 2008) p=0.007; thinness/wasting (2017 vs

## **Table 2:** Demographic, socio-economic and maternal factors associated with nutritional status among children

under 5 years, 2008-2017





we I guestionance i: only included in wave 1 questionnaire

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al) Obesity prevalence province and survey wave





#### **Supplementary Material**

**Supplementary 1:** Win BUGS code for Bayesian joint (shared component) space-time binomial model model {

 $\int$  in 1 : N ) { for( j in 1 : T ) { #Likelihood

> stunted[i,j] ~ dbin(p1[i,j],tot[i,j]) logit(p1[i,j])<-alpha1+mu[i,j,1]

 $\text{thin}[i,j] \sim \text{dbin}(p2[i,j], \text{tot}[i,j])$  $logit(p2[i,j]) < -a$ lpha2+mu[i,j,2]

obese[i,j] ~ dbin(p3[i,j],tot[i,j]) logit(p3[i,j])<-alpha3+mu[i,j,3]

mu[i,j,1:3]~dmnorm(eta[i,j,],Sigma.inv[,])

#Joint modelling eta[i,j,1]<-lambda[i]\*delta+xi[j]\*kappa+nu[i,j] eta[i,j,2]<-lambda[i]/delta+xi[j]/kappa+nu[i,j]+beta1[i]+gamma1[j] eta[i,j,3]<-lambda[i]/delta+xi[j]/kappa+nu[i,j]+beta2[i]+gamma2[j]

}

}

# - Space

lambda[1:52]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],tau.lambda) beta1[1:52]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],tau.beta1) beta2[1:52]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],tau.beta2)

for(k in 1:240) {weights[k]<-1}

# - Time:

Procession Clay Clay xi[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],tau.xi) gamma1[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],tau.gamma1) gamma2[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],tau.gamma2)

for(t in 1:1) { weights.t[t] <- 1;



## } for(t in 2:(T-1)) {

weights.t[2+(t-2)\*2] <- 1; adj.t[2+(t-2)<sup>\*2</sup>] <- t-1 weights.t[ $3+(t-2)^*2$ ] <- 1; adj.t[3+(t-2)\*2] <- t+1; num.t[t] <- 2

## } for(t in T:T) {

 weights.t[(T-2)\*2 + 2] <- 1; adj.t[(T-2)\*2 + 2] <- t-1; num.t[t] <- 1 }

 $\frac{m}{2}$  (priors)<br>for(i in 1:N){  $\frac{1}{2}$  for(j in 1:T){ #Space-time Interaction Modelling (priors)

```
nu[i,j]~dnorm(0, tau.nu)
RRnu[i,j]<-exp(nu[i,j])
prob.nu[i,j]<-step(nu[i,j]) }
```
}

#Hyperprior specification

tau.lambda~dgamma(0.5, 0.0005) tau.xi~dgamma(0.5, 0.0005) tau.beta1~dgamma(0.5, 0.0005) tau.beta2~dgamma(0.5, 0.0005) tau.gamma1~dgamma(0.5, 0.0005) tau.gamma2~dgamma(0.5, 0.0005) tau.nu~dgamma(0.5, 0.0005)

Sigma.inv[1:3,1:3]~dwish(B[,],3) log(delta)<-logdelta log(kappa)<-logkappa logdelta~dnorm(0,0.2) logkappa~dnorm(0,0.2) B[1,1]<-0.01 B[2,2]<-0.01 B[3,3]<-0.01 B[1,2]<-0 B[1,3]<-0 B[2,1]<-0 B[2,3]<-0 B[3,1]<-0

alpha1~dflat() alpha2~dflat() alpha3~dflat()

B[3,2]<-0

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**Supplementary 2 :** Description of the study sample across survey rounds

# **BMJ Open**

## **Spatial-temporal trends and risk factors for under-nutrition and obesity among children (<5 years) in South Africa, 2008-2017: findings from a nationally representative longitudinal panel survey**





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Utilises data from a nationally representative repeated panel data at individual/household level over a 10-

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  $\overline{4}$  year period (5 survey waves).  $\overline{7}$  Employed a fully Bayesian space-time shared component model to produce more stable estimates of  $\overline{9}$  malnutrition burden at provincial and district level among children under five years of age in South Africa. Panel design allows assessment of change in malnutrition burden within the same individuals/households observed at multiple time points. Missing or invalid weight/height measurements may have introduced selection bias if not missing at alid weight/height measurements may have introduced selection<br>ay thus have affected both the internal validity and the represen<br>el study was not designed/powered for provincial and lower ge<br>t the resultant impact on precis random, and may thus have affected both the internal validity and the representativeness the findings. As primary panel study was not designed/powered for provincial and lower geographic level analysis, we cannot discount the resultant impact on precision/random variability when analysing at provincial/district level (administrative tier just below province) and further stratification by socio-demographic correlates. **Background** Despite reductions in malnutrition 150.8 million children (22.2%) under five are stunted and a further 50.5 million 67 children are wasted <sup>1</sup>. Furthermore rapidly rising trend in overweight and obesity in children and adults  $2-4.5$  has 68 emerged as one of the most serious global public health issues of the 21<sup>st</sup> century <sup>6</sup>. Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) has 69 among the highest levels of child malnutrition<sup>1</sup> globally. This problem is particularly illustrated by South Africa  $^7$ , a middle income country with high levels of wealth/economic inequality that is undergoing rapid socioeconomic and lifestyle changes that have precipitated a nutritional transition, high prevalence of overweight/obesity in children 8 . The dual burdens of undernutrition and overweight/obesity are not distributed in a spatially 73 homogenous manner<sup>9</sup>, and the health risks associated with malnutrition vary by age, gender, ethnicity and 74 geographical location <sup>10</sup>. 75 Progress to tackle all forms of child malnutrition remain much too slow <sup>1</sup>. In order to support the delivery of public health interventions that will be most effective at reducing malnutrition, an understanding of the geographical distribution of malnutrition is required. Limited data are collected at lower administrative unit level making it difficult to identify specific groups of high-risk individuals and thus, determine the most suitable and 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Child malnutrition is defined as a pathological state as a result of inadequate nutrition, including undernutrition due to insufficient intake of dietary energy and other key nutrients resulting in stunting (low height for age) or wasting (low weightfor-length) and overweight and obesity due to excessive consumption of dietary energy and reduced levels of physical activity.

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#### BMJ Open



 cost-effective opportunities and solutions. Previous studies of nutritional status of the South African population have mostly focused on adults <sup>11 12</sup>. Here we use a large, nationally-representative data from multiple rounds of the National Income Dynamics Study over the period 2008 to 2017 to assess space-time trends in the burden of malnutrition and associated risk factors among children under 5 years of age in South Africa.

**Methods**

## **Data**

- Data were taken from the five panel (cross-sectional) waves of the South African National Income Dynamics Study (SA-NIDS)<sup>13 14</sup> (http://www.nids.uct.ac.za/nids-data/data-access;
- [https://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/NIDS/\)](https://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/NIDS/about), the first national panel study in South Africa.
- interive panel (cross-sectional) waves of the South African Nation<br>
http://www.mids.uct.ac.za/nids-data/data-access:<br>
t.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/NIDS/), the first national p.<br>
en by the South African Labour and D SA-NIDS was undertaken by the South African Labour and Development Research Unit based at the School of Economics at the University of Cape Town. The surveys took place in 2008, 2010-11, 2012, 2014-15 and 2017. These are named waves 1-5 respectively. A detailed description of the data collection methods can be found elsewhere <sup>26</sup>. In short, a stratified, two-stage random cluster sample design was employed to sample households for inclusion at baseline using proportionally allocated stratification, based on the 52 district councils (DCs) in South Africa<sup>13</sup>. Within each DC (primary sampling unit [PSU]), clusters of dwelling units were systematically drawn. The household level response rate was 69% and the individual response rate within households was 93%. Survey enumerators attempt to collect weight and height measurements of all individuals (including children) in selected households.

#### **Study population**

We restricted our analysis to children  $\leq$  years of age.

#### **Outcomes**

100 We calculated height for age (HA) and BMI-for-age (BA) z-scores using the WHO 2007 growth standards <sup>15 16</sup>. We generated z-scores by transformation of child anthropometric data using the "lambda mu sigma" method ('zanthro' function in Stata 15). As recommended, weight-for-length was used in children 0 to  $\leq$  years of age, and BMI-for-age in children 2 years of age and older <sup>17</sup>. We defined obesity as weight-for-length z-score  $\geq +2$  for children under 2 years of age and BMI for age z-score of  $>2+$  for children age 2 and older <sup>17</sup>. We defined wasting as weight-for-length z-score < -2 for children under 2 years of age and thinness as BMI for age z-score < -2 for children 2 years and older. Stunting was defined as HA z-score of  $\leq$  -2. 

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  $\overline{2}$  $\overline{3}$   $\overline{4}$  **Geographic and socio-demographic variables**  $\overline{7}$  To identify relevant inequalities under-nutrition and obesity indicators were stratified temporally (survey year),  $\overline{9}$  geographically (province and residence location type: urban informal settlements, urban formal, tribal/rural) and by important socio-demographic categories (Gender: Female/Male; ethnicity: Black/African, Coloured, Indian/Asian, White/Caucasian; Maternal: age; education status; body mass index; household socio-economic status (income) classified into quantiles [1=lowest, 5=highest]. Example 11 and States of Ukcare version 15 [StateCorp. 2017. State Statistical Corp LLC]. Given the multistage random sampling design of seign effects were accounted for using sample weights to estimately share accounted f **Data analysis** Analyses were performed using Stata software version 15 [StataCorp. 2017. Stata Statistical Software: Release 15. College Station, TX: StataCorp LLC]. Given the multistage random sampling design of the primary study, clustering and survey design effects were accounted for using sample weights to estimate standard error and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) around mean anthropometric z-score point estimates, both overall and stratified by other socio-demographic variables such ethnicity and gender, socio-economic status, and residence location type. Extrapolated population totals of malnourished children (< 5) by yearly age were estimated using the survey weights. *Space-time Bayesian modelling*: We assessed for the presence of univariate and bivariate spatial autocorrelation for the three anthropometric classifications using Moran's I statistics. This analysis was performed using GeoDa 124 <sup>18</sup>. Based on these tests it appeared that there was no prominent bivariate spatial autocorrelation between the three measures but that each measure was significant heterogeneous across space to warrant the use of a spatial model (Supplementary Material 1). We employed Bayesian spatial-temporal modelling approach in an attempt to stabilise estimates at district level given that the primary sampling design was not developed to provide point estimates at this level of geographic disaggregation and resultant zero prevalence estimates for particular districts and waves. We choose a Bayesian spatial-temporal formulation to model each of the anthropometric outcomes independently using an autoregressive 131 approach, suggested by a recent methodological comparison <sup>19</sup>, which fuses ideas from autoregressive time series to link information in time and by spatial modelling to link information in space. We also opted for an autoregressive model which only included the spatial term for every period and did not include a heterogeneous 134 term which resulted in a more parsimonious description of risk <sup>20</sup>. 

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 The prior distribution on the temporal correlation parameter (ρ) was chosen to ensures the stationarity of the time series, considering that it has an order 1 autoregressive structure. We chose inverse gamma distributions for the 167 variance parameters with values of 0.5 and 0.0005 as suggested by Wakefield et al <sup>22</sup>.

d Gelman-Rubin statistics/plots<sup>23</sup> were used to assess model controut for each parameter of interest was less than 5% of the sam al 3). For model validation, we firstly compared the observed an adequacy and fit (using mod Survey weighted prevalences were applied to sample size totals by district and panel to obtain a survey weighted 169 numerator counts  $(Y_{ii}$  above) by malnutrition type in the binomial distribution. The space-time models were fitted in WINBUGS using Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation and non-informative priors. The full WINBUGS model code is provided in the Supplementary Material (2. We used two-chain MCMC simulation for 172 parameter estimation and Gelman-Rubin statistics/plots <sup>23</sup> were used to assess model convergence/stability and 173 where the Monte Carlo error for each parameter of interest was less than 5% of the sample standard deviation (Supplementary Material 3). For model validation, we firstly compared the observed and fitted prevalence values to assess overall model adequacy and fit (using model Deviance Information Criterion [DIC] and comparison of 176 observed vs fitted prevalence estimate) and secondly, performed an out of sample validation using a random 10% sample with observed data. These additional analyses can be found in the Supplementary Material 4. The model was run until the Monte Carlo error for each parameter of interest was less than 5% of the sample standard deviation. Posterior prevalence estimates and 95% Bayesian credibility intervals for stunting, thinness/wasting and obesity t provincial and district level were mapped using ArcGIS 10.6.1 [ESRI 2011. ArcGIS Desktop: Release 10. Redlands, CA: Environmental Systems Research Institute].

 *Risk factors analysis*: Survey weighed two-way tabulations of key socio-demographic covariates, year and child nutritional status were performed to produce correctly weighted prevalence estimates. Tests of independence for complex survey data survey (weighted Pearson's chi-square test) was utilised to assess the significance of bivariate associations between malnutrition burden and year as well as socio-demographic covariates.

 **Ethical approval**: Approval for the primary study was granted by the Ethics Committee of the University of Cape Town. The current analysis is a secondary data analysis of an open access dataset and does not require further ethical approval.

 **Patient and Public Involvement:** As this was a data analysis utilising secondary data from a national community based panel survey, the development of the research question was not informed by the study subjects. Likewise, we could not involve study participants in the design of this study. Study participants were not involved in conduct of the primary study. Results will be disseminated in the form of peer reviewed article as well as through presentation to senior members of our National Department of Health and KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health. 58 192 60 193
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 of thinness/wasting in the western half of country in 2017 (lower burden in KwaZulu-Natal and northern districts of Eastern Cape) (Figure 2b). The three districts with the highest posterior median smoothed prevalence of wasting in 2017 were Amathole [EC] (12.6%), Siyanda [NC] (11.4%) and Eden [WC] (10.9%) (Figure 2b). Similarly, to the provincial level finding above, only 16 of 52 districts had an estimated wasting prevalence below 5% in 2017.

siech cape (16.476) and Kwazant-Istaan (17.076) (Figure 3a). Fildhood obesity was still estimated to be in the Eastern Cape (1.<br>and Western Cape (15.0%). In contrast to the wasting gradient alf of the country), the burden *Obesity*: In 2008, the highest posterior median smoothed prevalence of obesity was estimated in Eastern Cape (22.5%) followed by Western Cape (18.4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (17.6%) (Figure 3a). A decade later in 2017, the highest prevalence of childhood obesity was still estimated to be in the Eastern Cape (15.6%), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (15.1%)and Western Cape (15.0%). In contrast to the wasting gradient highlighted above (higher burden in the western half of the country), the burden of obesity in 2017 appeared to be much higher in the eastern half of the country (particularly KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape) (Figure 3b). The 4 highest obesity prevalence districts in 2017 were located in KwaZulu-Natal (Sisonke [26.2%] and eThekwini Metropolitan [25.7%) and 236 Eastern Cape (Buffalo City Metropolitan [29.1%] and O.R Tambo [25.9%]).

 **Figure 1:** Bayesian posterior median smoothed prevalence of stunting by province (and wave) and district level prevalence (equal intervals, 2017) among children <5 years

**Figure 2:** Bayesian posterior median smoothed prevalence of thinness/wasting by province (and wave) and

district level prevalence (equal intervals, 2017) among children <5 years

 **Figure 3:** Bayesian posterior median smoothed prevalence of obesity by province (and wave) and district level prevalence (equal intervals, 2017) among children <5 years

**Factors associated with child nutritional status**

 A bivariate analysis of demographic, maternal, socio-economic and household factors at individual nutritional 247 status level suggests that African ethnicity ( $p<0.001$ ), male gender ( $p=0.002$ ), low birth weight ( $<0.001$ ), residing in lower socio-economic status household (p<0.001), province of residence (p=0.012), lower maternal/paternal 249 education status (p<0.001, 0.020 respectively) and residence in a rural/tribal authority area (p<0.001) were significantly associated with stunting (Table 2). Children living in lower income households (p=0.053), lower food security (as measured through child hunger in last year) (p<0.001), province of residence (p=0.002), having a 252 younger mother  $(\leq 20)$  (p=0.012) and mother having a lower BMI classification (p=0.005) was significantly

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253 associated with thinness/wasting status. Children of African ethnicity (p<0.001), higher birth weight (p=0.006), living in lower income households (p=0.001) in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape (p<0.001) as well as paternal educational attainment (p=0.033) were significantly associated with obesity status (Table 2).

**Discussion**

For all the country, whereas thinned in the cast of the country, whereas thinned with only 16 of 52 districts with estimated wasting prevalence 17. A concerning pattern observed was the increase prevalence of the socio-dem *Main findings*: The present study illustrates that while stunting has declined among South African children over the last 10 years, wasting and obesity appear largely unchanged, suggesting that development and public health interventions have had a variable impact. Stunting prevalence appears relatively evenly spread across South Africa, but obesity burden is more pronounced in the east of the country, whereas thinness/wasting is more pronounced in the west, with only 16 of 52 districts with estimated wasting prevalence below the 5% (WHO 2025 target threshold) in 2017. A concerning pattern observed was the increase prevalence of obesity in children under the age of two years. Key socio-demographic factors associated with malnutrition status were identified which likely underpins the spatial patterns (and heterogeneity) observed across the country. African children with lower birth weights residing in lower income households in rural areas with less educated mothers and fathers were particular more likely to be stunted. Children in lower income, food insecure households with malnourished young mothers appeared particularly more likely to be thin/wasted while African children, with higher birth weights, living in lower income households in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape were also more likely to be obese. Furthermore, low household income appeared to be positively associated with all 3 nutritional types. Declining childhood stunting rates from 2008-2017 may well have resulted from government initiatives to support food security and child health (among other things), but our findings of distinct geographic and socio-demographic 272 variability in undernutrition and obesity rates suggest that tackling malnutrition in South Africa is complex. Models and targets for nationally-driven intervention need to be carefully specified according to local environments and socio-economic profiles. 26 264 28 265 

**Contribution to existing literature**: Two previous studies in South Africa among primary school aged children 276 dating back 25+ years (1993and 1994 respectively) utilised cross sectional data<sup>24 25</sup>, thus limiting insight into 277 temporal trends. Furthermore, the study by Jinabhai et al. <sup>19</sup> was restricted to KwaZulu-Natal limiting national representativeness. Another cross sectional study in South African in 2001-2003 among primary school children in five South African Provinces suggested that relative to 1993 prevalence of undernutrition had decreased while 280 obesity had increased<sup>25 26</sup>. Thus these previous data are now outdated, were largely focused on primary school aged children as well as cross sectional in nature and geographically restricted. 

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> This is also the first spatial-temporal Bayesian shared component analysis of malnutrition trends among children in South Africa utilising geographically representative repeated panel data over a 10-year period. The current study focusing on children under 5 year of age suggests that there is prominent geographic heterogeneity in malnutrition burden in South Africa in this youngest age group. This is in line with findings from other settings in 286 Africa that have documented similar spatial heterogeneity and persistence of these malnutrition inequalities has 287 been demonstrated in an 80 country study further highlighting this ongoing public health conundrum <sup>28 29</sup>. Our results demonstrate a strong west to east gradient of higher underweight burden on the western side of South Africa and greater obesity on the eastern seaboard (Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal). A map of poverty and 290 inequality in South Africa <sup>2</sup> illustrates the co-existence of high levels of poverty and inequality in many parts of KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape with high levels of overweight/obesity. This is further confirmed by our individual child level analysis which suggested a significantly higher obesity prevalence in lower income households. Metropolitan areas displayed high levels of nutritional inequality that complement national studies of 294 poverty and inequality .

> or on the caster scaotial (caster) capture and Kwazana-Natai).<br>
> ca<sup>2</sup> illustrates the co-existence of high levels of poverty and ine<br>
> Eastern Cape with high levels of overweight/obesity. This is fundly<br>
> andly sis which sug Under and over nutrition status appeared positively associated with lower household income classification. This 296 finding of stunting and wasting disproportionately affecting the poor has been often demonstrated <sup>31</sup>. Other studies in Africa in particular have documented similar patterns i.e. children living in low SES households, children who live in peripheral areas and whose mothers had little or no schooling were at significantly higher risk of 299 malnutrition <sup>32</sup>. The inconsistent challenges facing health authorities are occurring in the face of rapid urbanization and industrialization that simultaneously attract both the rich and the poor to live in the same geographic districts 301 <sup>33</sup>. The heterogeneous geographic relationship between household income and undernutrition is also affected by the allocation of household income that is a function of maternal education, access to markets, infrastructure and sanitation <sup>34</sup>. Additionally, these data suggest that there is a strong and highly significant association between higher food insecurity (child hunger frequency in the preceding year) and increased thinness/wasting. Community and government based packages of support need to be highly targeted to the poorest and most food insecure households to further reduce inequality in this regard and maximise reductions in malnutrition.

> Our findings suggest that children with low birth weight (due to pre-term delivery, fetal/intrauterine growth restriction or a combination of the two) were significantly more likely to be stunted than normal weight babies and

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elmatch<sup>1</sup>. We also observed a signinearity inglier prevalence is<br>demonstrated previously in a meta-analysis for sub-Saharan Ai<br>that male children are more vulnerable to health inequalities re<br>ening community-based package this has been demonstrated in many other low and middle income settings (for example <sup>35</sup>). Socioeconomic 310 status/factors are known risk factors for LBW <sup>36</sup>and may in part explain the significant association found between stunting and lower household income. South Africa has the higher number of incident and prevalent HIV 312 infections globally <sup>37</sup>. A further important contextual risk factor for LBW is maternal HIV status. A systematic review and large observational studies focussing on low and middle incoming countries, suggest a strong and significant association between maternal HIV infection and LBW 38 39. Evidence from South Africa also suggests the anthropometric z-score of HIV-infected children appear to be consistently lower when compared to HIV-316 exposed but uninfected children <sup>40</sup>. We also observed a significantly higher prevalence of stunting among male 317 children which has been demonstrated previously in a meta-analysis for sub-Saharan Africa <sup>41</sup>, the suggested cause of which might be that male children are more vulnerable to health inequalities relative to female children of the same age. Strengthening community-based packages of care and community health worker (CHW) performance/skills in rural and high burden geographies are key strategies to improve primary health care delivery through better identification of women at higher risk of poor birth outcomes (e.g. HIV positive, history of previous poor birth outcomes and/or currently malnourished), higher referral rates for facility births, and improved linkage 323 to other health as well as social services <sup>42</sup>. Lastly given the high adolescent fertility rates in many parts of South 324 Africa <sup>43</sup>, there is also much scope to improve CHW identification of households with higher risk malnourished adolescent girls prior to pregnancy to ensure more optimal linkage to government and social support to ensure adequate nutrition as well as improved awareness regarding family planning practices e.g. ensuring adequate birth spacing <sup>44</sup> .

 Obesity in children has a complex aetiology that includes a wide range of socioeconomic, demographic, environmental and cultural variables <sup>45</sup>such as household composition, mother's education, household income, 330 household size, environmental factors, rural versus urban location, and sanitation  $9\frac{46}{1}$ . The high burden of obesity is likely associated with a progressive increases in the per capita food supply and consumption of high calorific foods (e.g. fat, sugar, fast and/or processed foods) in South Africa<sup>47</sup>. This rapidly changing dietary pattern has, in part, been attributed to urbanisation, growing and expanding supermarkets /formal food retailers, and the 334 availability of fast/processed foods <sup>48</sup>. An interesting finding in these data was the significant positive association between child obesity status and residing in a lower income household. This association has been demonstrated 336 previously  $49-51$  and this evidence base is growing. This conforms with the idea that lower and higher income households/families often have a higher obesity risk than middle income households i.e. so called U-shaped association. Lower income or economically deprived families often replace health fresh food options with cheaper

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339 and more calorific processed foods <sup>50</sup>. Multiple studies have demonstrated that the majority of low-income South Africans have a low dietary diversity, and, therefore, consume a limited food range consisting predominantly of a 341 starchy staple such as bread and maize, with low intakes of vegetables and fruit . Future work will characterise food purchasing patterns (and changes over time) among households in South Africa which will be compared with paired longitudinal anthropometric measurements to identify specific dietary patterns associated with child nutritional status.

 Lastly and contextually, body mass is culturally influenced in South Africa, and the high level of obesity in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape may at least in part be a result of cultural beliefs that associate overweight with 347 wealth and good health . Geographic patterns of higher obesity in South Africa appeared to overlap areas of high 348 poverty particular on the eastern side of the country<sup>3</sup> and thus not solely concentrated among higher socio-economic households.

stem Cape may at least in part be a result of cultural beliefs that<br><sup>52</sup>. Geographic patterns of higher obesity in South Africa appear<br>e eastern side of the country<sup>3</sup> and thus not solely concentrated at<br>*l*edge this is th *Strengths:* To our knowledge this is the first spatial-temporal analysis of malnutrition trends among children under five years of age in South Africa. We used standardised anthropometric measurements of children and their mothers from a nationally representative repeated panel data over a 10-year period. The panel nature of the design allows assessment of change in malnutrition burden within the same individuals/households observed at multiple time points. A further strength was the implementation of a fully Bayesian space-time shared component model to produce more stable joint estimates of malnutrition by province, district and year.

 *Weaknesses* : The study has several limitations. Firstly, missing or invalid weight/height measurements (especially in wave 2, and among infants – Supplementary Material 2) may have introduced selection bias (if not missing at random), and may thus have affected both the internal validity and the representativeness the findings in the broader South African context. Secondly as the primary panel study was not designed/powered for provincial 360 <sup>13</sup>and lower geographic level analysis, we cannot discount the resultant impact on precision/random variability when analysing at provincial/district level (administrative tier just below province) and further stratification by socio-demographic correlates. Thirdly, we cannot discount the effect of inter-observer variability across different study districts, despite extensive interviewer training and standardization of study protocols. All anthropometric measurements (e.g. weight, height) were taken in duplicate in NIDS <sup>26</sup> which would have ensured better reliability.

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ity epidemic among young children in South Africa. There is a<br>
wasting and stunting can be reduced by 60% and 20% respective<br>
with an estimated return on investment (ROI) of 18:1, i.e. for U<br>
programmes there would be USD *Cost of malnutrition, policy and research needs*: Estimating the cost of child malnutrition in South Africa is extremely complicated and no locally-determined cost data exist. Data from the United States, suggest that the incremental lifetime direct medical cost for a 10-year-old obese child relative to a 10-year-old normal weight child ranges from USD 12 660 to USD 19 630 <sup>53</sup>. Estimates of the cost of treating wasted children are approximately 370 USD 200 per child <sup>54</sup> while stunting has been consistently linked to worse economic outcomes in adulthood <sup>55</sup> and estimates suggest that, on average, the future per capita income penalty for a stunted individual could be as large 372 as  $9-10\%$  in SSA <sup>56</sup>. Urgent investments are needed to accelerate the reduction of all forms of malnutrition, as well as to curb the obesity epidemic among young children in South Africa. There is also considerable evidence indicates that childhood wasting and stunting can be reduced by 60% and 20% respectively using ten nutrition-375 specific interventions <sup>57</sup>, with an estimated return on investment (ROI) of 18:1, i.e. for USD 1 spent on 376 implementing effective programmes there would be USD 18 return in future economic benefits <sup>58</sup>. Very few obesity prevention interventions targeting children have been effective and a comprehensive multifaceted strategy tackling diet, physical inactivity, coupled with psychosocial support and local food environment change may prove more effective. Nutrition policies tackling child obesity must promote household nutrition security and healthy growth, decrease overconsumption of nutrient-poor foods, better shield children from increasingly pervasive marketing of energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods and sugar sweetened beverages as well as reduction of 382 growing physical inactivity <sup>59</sup>.

 Our findings suggest the need to implement evidence-based child health strategies and policy (e.g. further social grant support to vulnerable and impoverished households) that is tailored to specific geographies and socially disadvantaged sub-populations. A higher prevalence of child thinness/wasting among younger mothers (<25) in poorer, food insecure household, highlights the importance of policies that enable younger mothers to adequately care for their children in all settings. Integrated nutrition programs in low and middle income countries (LMIC) have had a substantial impact on child nutrition and health via a combination of multisector targeted interventions <sup>60</sup>. Furthermore implementation and/or strengthening of school-based food program can provide a launching pad for preventive programs including education and awareness, provision of healthier/more nutrition food options and micronutrient supplementation, deworming, increased immunization coverage and improved growth 392 monitoring as well as counselling . This may be especially true of obese children where high prevalence was observed in higher income households with higher food purchasing power and where local food environments are likely is likely to be an important contextual determinant. A further contextual trend which may further compound

 this problem is the rapidly rising median household income observed over the period (from ZAR1400 in 2008 to ZAR 3640 by 2017).

## **Conclusions**

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by the method intervention to be developed for each municip<br>
ion and overweight/obesity requires differential geographical po<br>
s the rural-urban divide. The current and future health cost of m<br>
y substantial based on previ The heterogeneity of malnutrition is a feature of spatial inequality and rapid urbanization that has manifested in widening levels of inequality in South Africa's districts and a need to reassess where nutrition programmes need to be further decentralised to the highest risk municipalities and local communities to maximise effectiveness. This work provides the first district level ranking of childhood overweight, thinness/wasting and stunting and allows a differentiated pro-active tailored intervention to be developed for each municipal district. The dual epidemic of undernutrition and overweight/obesity requires differential geographical policy inputs in metropolitan areas and districts across the rural-urban divide. The current and future health cost of malnutrition among South African children is likely substantial based on previous costing estimates. There is an urgent need to address nutrition problems among preschool aged children in South Africa and other low and middle income countries. Effective public health planning and geographically/contextually tailored interventions are required at sub- national level to address this challenge. The analytical framework employed in this study we believe will have definite utility in other settings. 16 401 18 402 

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# 568 **Tables**

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## 569 **Table 1: Burden of stunting, thinness/wasting and obesity among children by age and survey round**



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571 iv: Significance tests (survey weighted logistic regression) among children 0-5: stunting (2017 vs 2008) p=0.007; thinness/wasting (2017 vs

2008) p=0.131; obesity (2017 vs 2008) p=0.312 56 572

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# 575 **Table 2:** Demographic, socio-economic and maternal factors associated with nutritional status among children

576 under 5 years, 2008-2017

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 $577$  i: only included in wave 1 question 34

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## **Supplementary Material**

## **Supplementary 1: Spatial autocorrelation analyses for the 3 anthropometric outcomes (univariate and bivariate)**

## *Pairwise correlation for anthropometric outcomes and bivariate spatial autocorrelation*

We have performed additional supplementary analyses (suing GeoDa: Anselin L, Syabri I, Kho Y. GeoDa: an introduction to spatial data analysis. Geographical analysis. 2006 Jan;38(1):5 -22) which assesses pairwise correlation/association between the 3 outcomes as well as bivariate Moran's I to assess if there was significant spatial autocorrelation between the outcomes. This analysis suggests that there is no significant association between stunting and thinness/wasting while there is weak positive but significant spatial autocorrelation between stunting and obesity prevalence as well as weak negative spatial correlation between thinness and obesity (please see detailed analyses below).







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```
Prob > |t| = 0.0227. gllamm thin svy obese svy , i(id)
number of level 1 units = 256
number of level 2 units = 52
Condition Number = 10.976401
gllamm model 
log likelihood = 324.36079
      ------------------------------------------------------------------------------
    thin svy | Coef. Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval]
-------------
+----------------------------------------------------------------
                                                                                                -.1467062 .0111022
 obese_svy | 
-
.067802 .040258 
-1.68 0.092 
 _cons | .0602269 .0078037 7.72 0.000 .0449319 .0755218
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
    Example at Level 1<br>
1 0004427874 (1,00044278)<br>
1 ances and covariances of randon effects<br>
1 var (1): .00018259 (1,00023176)<br>
Workerst -0.144<br>
The street is the street of the street is a street of the street is a street of 
Variance at level 1
  ------------------------------------------------------------------------------
    .00447574 (.00044278)
Variances and covariances of random effects
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***level 2 (id)
     var(1): .00018259 (.00023176)
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**EXECUTE:**<br> **EXECU** 

--- stunted\_svy | Coef. Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval]

+---  **year | -.0153423 .0033894 -4.53 0.000 -.0219855 -.0086992** \_cons | .1563577 .0112694 13.87 0.000 .1342702 .1784453 --

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With regards to the shared temporal effect this we think can be retained as all 3 outcomes appear to have a

negative coefficient associated with increasing panel or wave .

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Variances and covariances of random effects

. gllamm stunted svy year , i(id)

number of level 1 units = 256 number of level 2 units = 52 Condition Number = 31.724715

permutations: 99999 pseudo p-value: 0.020230

 $log$  likelihood = 293.64743

Variance at level 1

\*\*\*level 2 (id)

gllamm model

.00590475 (.00052191)

var(1): 8.887e-19 (4.854e-11)

. gllamm thin svy year , i(id) number of level 1 units = 256 number of level 2 units = 52 Condition Number = 37.175479

log likelihood = 327.11892

gllamm model

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## *Univariate spatial autocorrelation*

Based on the univariate Moran's I statistics for each anthropometric outcome there appeared to be significant spatial heterogeneity present for all 3 outcomes.

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stunted[j,i]  $\sim$  dbin(p1[j,i],child[j,i]) logit(p1[j,i])< -mediainter1+inter1[j]+theta.ST1[j,i]

 $\mathbf{1}$  $\overline{2}$  $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$  $\overline{4}$ 5 6 7 8 9

```
E_{\text{sat(11)}}^{\text{at(11)}}thin[j,i] \sim dbin(p2[j,i],child[j,i])
                  logit(p2[j,i])<
-mediainter2+inter2[j]+theta.ST2[j,i]
                 obese[j,i] \sim \text{dbin}(p3[j,i],\text{child}[j,i])logit(p3[j,i])<
-mediainter3+inter3[j]+theta.ST3[j,i]
                  }
         }
#Spatio
-temporal effect for the first wave
   theta.S1[1,1:N]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],prec.spat[1])
   theta.S2[1,1:N]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],prec.spat[2])
   theta.S3[1,1:N]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],prec.spat[3])
  for(i in 1:N){
         theta.ST1[1,i]<-pow(1-ro1*ro1,-0.5)*theta.S1[1,i]
         theta.ST2[1,i]<-pow(1-ro2*ro2,-0.5)*theta.S2[1,i]
         theta.ST3[1,i]<
-pow(1
-ro3*ro3,
-0.5)*theta.S3[1,i]
         }
#Spatio
-temporal effect for the subsequent waves
  for(j in 2:T){
     for(i in 1:N}
theta.ST1[j,i]<-ro1*theta.ST1[j-1,i]+theta.S1[j,i]
                  theta.ST2[j,i]<
-ro2*theta.ST2[j
-1,i]+theta.S2[j,i]
                  theta.ST3[j,i]<-ro3*theta.ST3[j-1,i]+theta.S3[j,i]
                  }
          theta.S1[j,1:N]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],prec.spat[1])
         theta.S2[j,1:N]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],prec.spat[1])
         theta.S3[j,1:N]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],prec.spat[1])
         }
#Weights for CAR
for(k in 1:240) {
         weights[k] < -1}
#Prior distribution
s for the global time trends
inter1[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],prec.inter[1])
inter2[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],prec.inter[2])
inter3[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],prec.inter[3])
for (t \text{ in } 1:1) {
weights.t[t] \langle - 1;
adj.t[t] < -t+1;num.t[t] < 1}
for (t \in 2:(T-1)) {
weights.t[2+(t-2)*2] <- 1;
adj.t[2+(t-2)*2] <- t-1
weights.t[3+(t-2)*2] <- 1;
adj.t[3+(t-2)*2] <- t+1;
num.t[t] < 2}
for (t \text{ in } T: T) {
weights.t[(T-2)*2 + 2] <-1;
adj.t[(T-2)*2 + 2] <- t-1;
num.t[t] < 1}
```
60

#Prior distribution s for the precision parameters in the model for $(i$  in  $1:3$ }{ prec.spat[i]~dgamma(0.5, 0.005) prec.inter[i]~dgamma(0.5, 0.005) } #Prior distribution s for the mean risk for each outcome for every district and period mediainter1~dflat() mediainter2~dflat()

mediainter3~dflat() #Prior distribution s for the temporal dependence parameters for each outcome

 $\text{rol}\text{-}\text{dunif}(-1,1)$  $ro2$ ~dunif(-1,1)  $ro3$ ~dunif $(-1,1)$ 

}}

## **Supplementary 3: Model convergence**



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## **Supplementary 4: Model fit and out of sample validation**

*Overall model fit*



*Comparison of survey prevalence versus model fitted prevalence by anthropometric measure*



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. spearman stunted svy stuntedvpost if validation sample2==1 Number of obs = 37 Spearman's rho = 0.4445

Test of Ho: stunted svy and stuntedvpost are independent  $Prob > |t| = 0.0058$ 

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**Supplementary 5 :** Description of the study sample across survey rounds

#### **Supplementary 6: Sensitivity analyses for missing weight and height**

Summary: A comparison of missing weight/height proportions by various socio -demographic variables suggests that many were likely missing at random. Distributions of race, gender, household income, low birthweight, food security status, mother education category and father education category were not significantly different when comparing children with missing weight/height measurements to those with a valid weight/height measurement (please see analysis output below). However, age did significantly differ by missing status in that infants (<1 year of age) were significantly more likely to have a missing weight/height measurement compared to children aged 1 - 4 years. There also appeared to be significant differences in missing weight/height status by province of residence i.e. children in Mpumalanga, Western Cape fir example had higher proportions of missing weight/height measurements among children under 5 (p<0.001). Furthermore, missing weight/height measurements for children were more significantly more likely among those children with younger mothers (<25 years of age).

```
svy: tab race missing height weight if race \sim=0, row ci
(running tabulate on estimation sample)
Number of strata = 53 Number of obs = 16,649Number of PSUs = 1,076 Population size = 25,331,414
```
Design df  $=$  1,023

For performance interval for row proportion)<br>
Some interval for row proportion]<br>
ii2(3)<br>
2.49, 2551.53) = 32.5162<br>
extination sample)<br>
extination sample)<br>
: 53<br>
1,218<br>
Population size = 28,35<br>
besign df<br>
: 52<br>
: 1,218<br>
Pop --- | missing\_height\_weight<br>| missing\_height\_weight race | 0 1 Total ---------- +-- African | .8129 .1871 1 | [.8006,.8246] [.1754,.1994] | Coloured | .7803 .2197 1 | [.7437,.8129] [.1871,.2563] | Asian/In | .7593 .2407 1 | [.5708,.882] [.118,.4292] | White | .74 .26 1 | [.643,.8182] [.1818,.357] | Total | .8066 .1934 1 | [.7945,.8181] [.1819,.2055] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected  $chi2(3)$  = 32.5162 Design -based F(2.49, 2551.53)= 1.7810 P = 0.1588 . svy: tab gender\_ missing\_height\_weight if race\_~=0, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata =  $\begin{array}{ccc} 53 & \times & \text{Number of obs} & = & 19,138 \\ 1,218 & \text{Population size} & = & 28,354,881 \end{array}$ Population size =  $28,354,881$ <br>Design df =  $1.165$ Design df  $=$  1,165 --- | missing height weight gender | 0 1 Total ---------- +-- Male | .8065 .1935 1 | [.7926,.8196] [.1804,.2074] | Female | .8102 .1898 | [.7951,.8245] [.1755,.2049]<br>|
| 8083.  $\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c} & & & & \end{array}$  .8083 | [.7972,.819] [.181,.2028] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected  $chi2(1)$  = 0.4400 Design -based F(1, 1165) = 0.1697 P = 0.6805 . svy: tab age missing height weight, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata =  $53$  Number of obs =  $19,201$ Number of PSUs  $= 1,227$  Population size  $= 28,456,616$ Design df  $=$  1,174 --- | missing\_height\_weight age | 0 1 Total ---------- +-- 0 | .4596 .5404 1 | [.4362,.4832] [.5168,.5638] | 1 | .8581 .1419 1 | [.8308,.8816] [.1184,.1692] | 2 | .8764 .1236 1 | [.8573,.8933] [.1067,.1427] | |<br>3 | .8952 .1048 1  $\begin{bmatrix} .8726, .9142 \end{bmatrix}$   $\begin{bmatrix} .0858, .1274 \end{bmatrix}$ 

|

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For peer review only 4 | .9015 .0985 1 | [.8847,.916] [.084,.1153] | Total | .8083 .1917 1 | [.7972,.8189] [.1811,.2028] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected  $chi2(4)$  = 3267.7805 Design -based F(3.41, 3999.27)= 238.9174 P = 0.0000 . svy: tab hh\_inc missing height weight, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata = 53 Number of obs = 18,289<br>Number of PSUs = 1,195 Population size = 26,887,499 Population size =  $26,887,499$ Design df  $=$  1,142 --- | missing\_height\_weight hh inc  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  1 Total ---------- +-- 1 | .8032 .1968 1 | [.7792,.8251] [.1749,.2208] | 2 | .8286 .1714 1 | [.8012,.853] [.147,.1988] | 3 | .8289 .1711 1 | [.8084,.8475] [.1525,.1916] | |
| 4 | .8076 .1924 1 | [.7751,.8365] [.1635,.2249] | 5 | .7862 .2138 1  $[.7578, .812]$   $[.188, .2422]$  | Total | .8096 .1904 1 | [.7982,.8205] [.1795,.2018] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected  $chi2(4)$  = 32.2620 Design -based F(3.67, 4186.36)= 1.9756 P = 0.1017 . svy: tab province missing height weight, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata =  $53$  Number of obs =  $19,201$ Number of PSUs  $= 1,227$  Population size  $= 28,456,616$ Design df  $= 1,174$ --- | missing height weight province | 0 1 Total ---------- +-- Eastern | .8421 .1579 1 | [.819,.8627] [.1373,.181] | |
| Free Sta | .833 .167 1 | [.7968,.8638] [.1362,.2032] | Gauteng | .7866 .2134 1 | [.7637,.8078] [.1922,.2363] | KwaZulu 1 .8448 .1552 .1  $[.8255, .8624]$   $[.1376, .1745]$  | Limpopo | .8422 .1578 1 | [.8184,.8634] [.1366,.1816] Mpumalan | .7557 .2443 .2443 | [.7187,.7892] [.2108,.2813]

1.037, 0090143) = 9.0210<br> **Example 1.038**<br> **Example 1.128**<br> **Example 1.128**<br> **Example 1.128**<br> **Example 1.128**<br> **Example 1.128**<br> **Example 1.128**<br> **Example 1.138**<br> **Example 1.139**<br> **Example 1.1396**<br> **Example 1.1396**<br> **Examp**  | North We | .8011 .1989 1 | [.7725,.827] [.173,.2275] | Northern | .7921 .2079 1 | [.7674,.8149] [.1851,.2326] | Western | .7422 .2578 1  $[.7064, .775]$   $[.225, .2936]$  | Total | .8083 .1917 1 | [.7972,.8189] [.1811,.2028] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected chi2(8) = 171.9467 Design -based F(6.89, 8090.45)= 9.8218 P = 0.0000 . svy: tab LBW missing height weight, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata =  $\sqrt{53}$  Number of obs =  $16,606$ Number of PSUs  $= 1,128$  Population size  $= 24,829,511$ Design df  $=$  1,075 -- missing\_height\_weight LBW | 0 1 Total ---------- +-- 0 | .8164 .1836 1 | [.8044,.8278] [.1722,.1956] | 1 | .8106 .1894 1 | [.7788,.8388] [.1612,.2212] | Total | .8158 .1842 | 1 | [.8045,.8266] [.1734,.1955] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected  $chi2(1)$  = 0.3369 Design  $= 0.1307$   $P = 0.7178$ . svy: tab foodsecurity proxy missing height weight, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata =  $\begin{array}{ccc} 53 & \text{Number of obs} & = & 5,017 \\ \text{Number of PSUs} & = & 438 & \text{Population size} & = & 8,843,019 \end{array}$ Number of PSUs  $=$  438 Population size  $=$  8,843,019  $Design df = 385$ -- foodsecur | missing\_height\_weight ity\_proxy | 0 1 Total ---------- +-- 1 | .7719 .2281 1 | [.7467,.7952] [.2048,.2533] | 2 | .8019 .1981 1 | [.7352,.8551] [.1449,.2648] | 3 | .7596 .2404 1 | [.6983,.8119] [.1881,.3017] | 4 | .8284 .1716 1 | [.7561,.8825] [.1175,.2439] |  $\begin{array}{ccc} | & & \\ 5 & | & \end{array}$  .7869 .2131 1 | [.6923,.8583] [.1417,.3077]  $\begin{array}{c|c} & | & \\ \hline \texttt{Total} & | & \end{array}$  $.7751$  .2249  $1$  | [.753,.7959] [.2041,.247] ---

Key: row proportion

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**Supplementary 7: Full posterior prevalence estimates with 95% Bayesian uncertainty intervals (UIs) by district and year. Also includes exceedance probabilities for the 5% target threshold for wasting prevalence.**



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For performance the performance of 1988] Wenn using a chi-square test with 2x9 cells (n explore the performance performance o We performed a post hoc power analysis to assess the minimum effect size detectable among infants which has the smallest number of observations. The post hoc power analysis suggests that the sample size in the smallest age group has the power to detect a small effect size (w~0.1 based on Cohens rules of thumb [Cohen, 1988]) when using a chi-square test with 2x9 cells (maximum number of cells tested in our analyses i.e. binary nutritional classification versus province of residence) with 80% power and 5% alpha or type I error.

**χ<sup>2</sup> tests -** Goodness-of-fit tests: Contingency tables

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Cohen, J (1988) Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

A summary guideline for effect size determinations is also provided in Kotrlik, JW and Williams, HA (2003) The incorporation of effect size in information technology, learning, and performance research. *Information Techology, Learning, and Performance Journal* **21(1)** 1 -7.



# **BMJ Open**

# **Spatial-temporal trends and risk factors for under-nutrition and obesity among children (<5 years) in South Africa, 2008-2017: findings from a nationally representative longitudinal panel survey**





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Utilises data from a nationally representative repeated panel data at individual/household level over a 10-

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  $\overline{4}$  year period (5 survey waves).  $\overline{7}$  Employed a fully Bayesian space-time shared component model to produce more stable estimates of  $\overline{9}$  malnutrition burden at provincial and district level among children under five years of age in South Africa. Panel design allows assessment of change in malnutrition burden within the same individuals/households observed at multiple time points. Missing or invalid weight/height measurements may have introduced selection bias if not missing at alid weight/height measurements may have introduced selection<br>ay thus have affected both the internal validity and the represen<br>el study was not designed/powered for provincial and lower ge<br>t the resultant impact on precis random, and may thus have affected both the internal validity and the representativeness the findings. As primary panel study was not designed/powered for provincial and lower geographic level analysis, we cannot discount the resultant impact on precision/random variability when analysing at provincial/district level (administrative tier just below province) and further stratification by socio-demographic correlates. **Background** Despite reductions in malnutrition 150.8 million children (22.2%) under five are stunted and a further 50.5 million 68 children are wasted <sup>1</sup>. Furthermore rapidly rising trend in overweight and obesity in children and adults  $2-4.5$  has 69 emerged as one of the most serious global public health issues of the  $21<sup>st</sup>$  century <sup>6</sup>. Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) has 70 among the highest levels of child malnutrition<sup>1</sup> globally. This problem is particularly illustrated by South Africa  $^7$ , a middle income country with high levels of wealth/economic inequality that is undergoing rapid socioeconomic and lifestyle changes that have precipitated a nutritional transition, high prevalence of overweight/obesity in children 8 . The dual burdens of undernutrition and overweight/obesity are not distributed in a spatially 74 homogenous manner<sup>9</sup>, and the health risks associated with malnutrition vary by age, gender, ethnicity and 75 geographical location <sup>10</sup>. Progress to tackle all forms of child malnutrition remain much too slow 1 . In order to support the delivery of public health interventions that will be most effective at reducing malnutrition, an understanding of the geographical distribution of malnutrition is required. Limited data are collected at lower administrative unit level making it difficult to identify specific groups of high-risk individuals and thus, determine the most suitable and 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Child malnutrition is defined as a pathological state as a result of inadequate nutrition, including undernutrition due to insufficient intake of dietary energy and other key nutrients resulting in stunting (low height for age) or wasting (low weightfor-length) and overweight and obesity due to excessive consumption of dietary energy and reduced levels of physical activity.

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cost-effective opportunities and solutions. Previous studies of nutritional status of the South African population have mostly focused on adults <sup>11 12</sup>. Here we use a large, nationally-representative data from multiple rounds of the National Income Dynamics Study over the period 2008 to 2017 to assess space-time trends in the burden of malnutrition and associated risk factors among children under 5 years of age in South Africa.

**Methods** 

We include a Strengthening the Reporting of Observational studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement <sup>13</sup> checklist in Supplementary Material 1.

**Data**

Data were taken from the five panel (cross-sectional) waves of the South African National Income Dynamics Study (SA-NIDS)<sup>14 15</sup> (http://www.nids.uct.ac.za/nids-data/data-access;

The Five panel (cross-sectional) waves of the South African Nation<br>
http://www.nids.uct.ac.za/nids-data/data-access;<br>
tt.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/NIDS/), the first national p.<br>
en by the South African Labour and [https://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/NIDS/\)](https://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/NIDS/about), the first national panel study in South Africa. SA-NIDS was undertaken by the South African Labour and Development Research Unit based at the School of Economics at the University of Cape Town. The surveys took place in 2008, 2010-11, 2012, 2014-15 and 2017. These are named waves 1-5 respectively. A detailed description of the data collection methods can be found elsewhere <sup>14</sup>. In short, a stratified, two-stage random cluster sample design was employed to sample households for inclusion at baseline using proportionally allocated stratification, based on the 52 district councils (DCs) in South Africa<sup>14</sup>. Within each DC (primary sampling unit [PSU]), clusters of dwelling units were systematically drawn. The household level response rate was 69% and the individual response rate within households was 93%. Survey enumerators attempted to collect weight and height measurements of all individuals (including children) in selected households.

**Study population** 

We restricted our analysis to children  $\leq$  years of age.

#### **Outcomes**

103 We calculated height for age (HA) and BMI-for-age (BA) z-scores using the WHO 2007 growth standards <sup>1617</sup>. We generated z-scores by transformation of child anthropometric data using the "lambda mu sigma" method ('zanthro' function in Stata 15). As recommended, weight-for-length was used in children 0 to  $\leq$  years of age, and BMI-for-age in children 2 years of age and older <sup>18</sup>. We defined obesity as weight-for-length z-score  $\geq +2$  for

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  $\overline{3}$ 107 children under 2 years of age and BMI for age z-score of  $>2+$  for children age 2 and older <sup>18</sup>. We defined wasting as weight-for-length z-score < -2 for children under 2 years of age and thinness as BMI for age z-score < -2 for  $\overline{7}$  children 2 years and older. Stunting was defined as HA z-score of < -2.  $\overline{9}$  **Geographic and socio-demographic variables** To identify relevant inequalities under-nutrition and obesity indicators were stratified temporally (survey year), geographically (province and residence location type: urban informal settlements, urban formal, tribal/rural) and ographic categories (Gender: Female/Male; ethnicity: Black/Afi<br>ucasian; Maternal: age; education status; body mass index; hous<br>d into quantiles [1=lowest, 5=highest].<br><br><br><br><br>add using Stata software version 15 [StataCorp. 201 by important socio-demographic categories (Gender: Female/Male; ethnicity: Black/African, Coloured, Indian/Asian, White/Caucasian; Maternal: age; education status; body mass index; household socio-economic status (income) classified into quantiles [1=lowest, 5=highest]. **Data analysis** Analyses were performed using Stata software version 15 [StataCorp. 2017. Stata Statistical Software: Release 15. College Station, TX: StataCorp LLC]. Given the multistage random sampling design of the primary study, clustering and survey design effects were accounted for using sample weights to estimate standard error and 95% 121 confidence intervals (CIs) around mean anthropometric z-score point estimates, both overall and stratified by other socio-demographic variables such ethnicity and gender, socio-economic status, and residence location type. Extrapolated population totals of malnourished children (< 5) by yearly age were estimated using the survey weights. *Space-time Bayesian modelling*: We assessed for the presence of univariate and bivariate spatial autocorrelation 126 for the three anthropometric classifications using Moran's I statistics. This analysis was performed using GeoDa <sup>19</sup>. Based on these tests it appeared that there was no prominent bivariate spatial autocorrelation between the three 128 measures but that each measure was **significantly** heterogeneous across space, warranting the use of a separate spatial-temporal model for each nutritional outcome. These additional analyses are presented in Supplementary Material 2. 

 We employed Bayesian spatial-temporal modelling approach in an attempt to stabilise estimates at district level given that the primary sampling design was not developed to provide point estimates at this level of geographic disaggregation and resultant zero prevalence estimates for particular districts and waves. We choose a Bayesian spatial-temporal formulation to model each of the anthropometric outcomes independently using an autoregressive approach. We employed a Bayesian hierarchical binomial model that simultaneously attempts to estimate the 

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 stable spatial and temporal structured patterns and as well as from these stable components using an unstructured 137 space-time interaction term <sup>20</sup>.

138 Let  $Y_{1ij}$ ,  $Y_{2ij}$  and  $Y_{3ij}$  be the number of stunted, thin and obese children respectively for the ith area and jth 139 period,  $i = 1,...,I$ ,  $j = 1,...,J$ , and  $n_{ij}$  the total number of children sampled in a given area and period. We assumed 140 that  $Y_{1ij}$ ,  $Y_{2ij}$  and  $Y_{3ij}$  follow binomial distributions i.e.  $Y_{1ij} \sim$  binomial  $(n_{1ij}, \pi_{1ij})$ ,  $Y_{2ij} \sim$  binomial  $(n_{2ij}, \pi_{2ij})$ ,  $Y_{3ij} \sim$ 141 binomial  $(n_{3ij}, \pi_{3ij})$ ,  $i = 1,..., 53$ ,  $j = 1,..., 5$ , where  $\pi$  it is the risk (prevalence) of stunting, thinness or obesity in region i in period j. We define the logit of the prevalence for a given anthropometric outcome as follows:

- 143  $logit (\pi_{1ij}) = \alpha_1 + \phi_{1i} + \gamma_{1j} + \nu_{1ij}$
- 144  $logit (\pi_{2ij}) = \alpha_2 + \phi_{2i} + \gamma_{2j} + \nu_{2ij}$
- 145  $logit (\pi_{3ij}) = \alpha_3 + \phi_{3i} + \gamma_{3j} + \nu_{3ij}$ 
	- $v \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2 v)$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, I$  and  $j = 1, \ldots, J$ 
		- $\phi \sim \text{CAR}$ . normal  $(\sigma^2_{\phi})$ , for i=1,...,I
	- $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, ..., \gamma_J) \sim \text{CAR}$ .normal $(\sigma^2 \gamma) \alpha \sim \text{Uniform}(-\infty, +\infty)$

+  $\phi_{1i}$  +  $\gamma_{1j}$  +  $\nu_{1ij}$ <br>
+  $\phi_{2i}$  +  $\gamma_{2j}$  +  $\nu_{2ij}$ <br>
+  $\phi_{3i}$  +  $\gamma_{3j}$  +  $\nu_{3ij}$ <br>  $\sigma^2$ ,), i = 1, ..., 1 and j=1,...,I<br>  $\sigma_1$  and  $(\sigma^2 \phi)$ , for i=1,...,1<br>  $\sigma_2$  or  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  and  $\sigma_3$  +  $\n$ 149 where  $\alpha_{1-3}$  are the overall baseline risk (intercept) for each nutritional outcome,  $\phi_{1-3}$ , the spatial random effects, assume intrinsic Gaussian conditionally autoregressive distributions <sup>21</sup> (abbreviated above as CAR.normal), 151 whereby the spatially correlated random effect of the  $i<sup>th</sup>$  region  $(\varphi_i)$  is based on the sum of its weighted neighbourhood values. We used an adjacency matrix of common boundaries (neighbours) of a given region when modelling this parameter. The CAR approach can also be used to model the temporal random effects. A first-order (pre and post) random walk CAR.normal, utilising a period adjacency matrix, was used as prior distributions for 155 the temporal random effects,  $\gamma_{1-3}$ . The heterogeneous or unstructured random effects are represented by  $v_{1-3}$  and were included to ensure sufficient flexibility for estimates in close regions that is not captured by the spatially structured terms. We assumed uniform priors for the model intercepts to ensure model identifiability. As the CAR.normal distribution is parameterised to include a sum-to-zero constraint on the random effects, we thus 159 included a separate intercept term,  $\alpha$ , in each model, which were assigned improper uniform priors (on the whole real line) using the dflat() distribution function in WinBUGS. We chose inverse gamma distributions for the 161 variance parameters above with values of 0.5 and 0.0005 as suggested by Wakefield et al <sup>22</sup>:

 $\sigma^2$ <sub>ν</sub>,  $\sigma^2$ <sub>φ</sub>,  $\sigma^2$ <sub>γ</sub>  $\sim$  Gamma(0.5,0.0005)

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 To aid interpretation of prevalence point estimates in line with WHO 2025 nutritional targets we also estimated exceedance probabilities associated with the target thresholds for each nutritional outcome, namely: 40% reduction in stunting from 2012 to 2015, reduce and maintain wasting to <5% by 2025 and no increase in obesity 166 by 2025 <sup>23</sup>. We employed Richardson's criterion, in which probabilities in excess of 0.8 were deemed to be 167 significant <sup>24</sup>.

iS using Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation and no<br>code is provided in the Supplementary Material (3). A summary<br>ented in Supplementary 4. Sensitivity of the estimates to prior sp<br>s with different hyper parameters Survey weighted prevalence's were applied to sample size totals by district and panel to obtain a survey weighted 169 numerator counts for each outcome  $(Y_{1ii}$ ,  $Y_{2ii}$ ,  $Y_{3ii}$  above) from the binomial distribution. The space-time models were fitted in WINBUGS using Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation and non-informative priors. The full WINBUGS model code is provided in the Supplementary Material (3). A summary of the space-time random effect posteriors is presented in Supplementary 4. Sensitivity of the estimates to prior specification was assessed 173 by repeating the analysis with different hyper parameters (Supplementary 4). We used two-chain MCMC 174 simulation for parameter estimation, a burn-in of 10000 iterations, and Gelman-Rubin statistics/plots <sup>25</sup> were used to assess model convergence/stability and where the Monte Carlo error for each parameter of interest was less 176 than 5% of the sample standard deviation (Supplementary Material 5). For model validation, we firstly compared the observed and fitted prevalence values to assess overall model adequacy and fit (using model Deviance Information Criterion [DIC] and comparison of observed vs fitted prevalence estimate) and secondly, performed an out of sample validation using a random 10% sample with observed data (Supplementary Material 6). The model was run until the Monte Carlo error for each parameter of interest was < 5% of the sample standard deviation. Posterior prevalence estimates and 95% Bayesian credibility intervals for stunting, thinness/wasting and obesity at provincial and district level were mapped using ArcGIS 10.6.1 [ESRI 2011. ArcGIS Desktop: Release 10. Redlands, CA: Environmental Systems Research Institute].

 *Risk factors analysis*: Survey weighed two-way tabulations of key socio-demographic covariates, year and child nutritional status were performed to produce correctly weighted prevalence estimates. Tests of independence for complex survey data survey (weighted Pearson's chi-square test) was utilised to assess the significance of bivariate associations between malnutrition burden and year as well as socio-demographic covariates.

 **Ethical approval**: Approval for the primary study was granted by the Ethics Committee of the University of Cape Town. The current study is a secondary data analysis of an open access dataset and does not require further ethical approval.

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 **Patient and Public Involvement:** As this was a data analysis utilising secondary data from a national community based panel survey, the development of the research question was not informed by the study subjects. Likewise, we could not involve study participants in the design of this study. Study participants were not involved in conduct of the primary study. Results will be disseminated in the form of peer reviewed article as well as through presentation to senior members of our National Department of Health and KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health.

**Results**

## **Study population**

 $\le$ 5 years of age in the 7,301 households included in the SA-NIE<br>ne (2008) to 4,710 children in wave 5 (2017) (Supplementary M<br>der 1 year of age and survey wave 2 in 2010/11, valid weight an<br>% of children sampled between The sample of children <5 years of age in the 7,301 households included in the SA-NIDS survey increased from 3,254 children at baseline (2008) to 4,710 children in wave 5 (2017) (Supplementary Material 7). With the exception of children under 1 year of age and survey wave 2 in 2010/11, valid weight and height measurements were taken from 85-90% of children sampled between the age of 1 and 5 on average (Supplementary Material 7). An additional sensitivity analysis comparing distributions of various socio-demographic characteristics by missing weight/height status was also performed (Supplementary Section 8). These findings suggest that children with missing weight/height were largely missing at random, with the exception of age and province. A summary of the characteristics of the study sample by year can be found in Table 1.

#### **Temporal changes in burden of malnutrition from 2008 to 2017)**

 Between 2008 and 2017, the prevalence of stunting among children aged under 5 years decreased from 11.0% to 7.6% (p=0.007) (Table 2). Over the same period, both the prevalence of wasting/thinness (and the prevalence of obesity decreased (from 5.2 to 3.8%,  $p= 0.131$  and 14.5% to 12.9%,  $p= 0.312$  respectively). The prevalence of thinness was higher (p<0.001) in children under 2 years of age (8% [95%CI: 5.0-11.8%] in 2008; 6% [95%CI: 4.1-9.1%] in 2017) compared to 4% (95%CI: 3.2-6.2%) in 2008 and 3% (95%CI: 2.0-4.5%) in 2017 among children 2 years and older . The prevalence of obesity was also higher among children under 2 years of age and increased over the study period (18.4% [95%CI: 13.7-24.1%] in 2008 vs 21.7% [95%CI: 19.3-24.2%]in 2017,  $p=0.091$ ).

#### **Space-time burden of malnutrition at provincial and district level**

 *Under nutrition:* In 2008, the highest prevalence of stunting was estimated in the Free State (18% .1followed by Eastern Cape (14.8%) and Limpopo (14.0%) . By 2017 the highest prevalence of stunting was still observed in

 Free State (10%) followed by Northern Cape (9.6%) and Limpopo (8.5%) (Figure 1 – panel a1). One district in Free State (Lejweleputswa), 2 in Limpopo (Capricorn; Mopani) and one each in Northern Cape (Siyanda), North West (Dr Kenneth Kaunda), Eastern Cape (O.R.Tambo) and KwaZulu-Natal (Uthungulu) had a posterior median smoothed prevalence of stunting in excess of 10% in 2017 (Figure 1– panel a2, Supplementary 9). Forty-three (or 83%) of districts achieved a 17% reduction (necessary reduction over the period to achieve 40% reduction from 2012 to 2025) in stunting prevalence from 2012 to 2017. Of these 43 districts, 19 (or 44%) significantly achieved 226 this threshold based on exceedance probability  $(p>0.80)$ .

Figure 2a). By 2017, the highest burden was observed in Wester<br>
6) and North Cape (4.9%) (Figure 2b) i.e.2 of 9 provinces were :<br>
2017. There appeared to be a general gradient of higher burden<br>
in 2017 (lower burden in Kw 227 North West province had the highest burden of thinness/wasting in 2008 (10.1%) followed by Gauteng (9.5%) and Western Cape (8.2%) (Figure 2a). By 2017, the highest burden was observed in Western Cape (at 5.8%) followed 229 by Northern West (5.0%) and North Cape (4.9%) (Figure 2b) i.e.2 of 9 provinces were still above the 5% target threshold for wasting in 2017. There appeared to be a general gradient of higher burden of thinness/wasting in the western half of country in 2017 (lower burden in KwaZulu-Natal and northern districts of Eastern Cape) (Figure 232 2b). Our estimates suggest that 38/52 (or 73%) districts in 2017 were below the 5% target prevalence threshold compared to 21/52 (or 40%) in 2012. Based on exceedance probability associated with the 5% target threshold, approximately half (or 18/38) of the aforementioned districts with an estimated thinness/wasting prevalence below 5% in 2017 where below this threshold with high probability (exceedance p>0.8) (Supplementary 9). Three of the five districts with the highest posterior median smoothed prevalence of wasting in 2017 were located in Western Cape (City of Cape Town [6.8%]; Central Karoo [6.4%]; Eden [6.1%]) with the remaining two in the top five located in Eastern Cape (Buffalo City [7.9%]) and Gauteng (Sedibeng [6.6%]) (Supplementary 9). *Obesity*: In 2008, the highest posterior median smoothed prevalence of obesity was estimated in Eastern Cape (22.5%) followed by KwaZulu-Natal (18.3%) and Western Cape (18.1%) (Figure 3a). A decade later in 2017, the 241 highest prevalence of childhood obesity was still estimated to be in the Eastern Cape (16.7%), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (15.6%)and Western Cape (15.0%). Six districts had an increase in obesity from 2012 to 2017, namely: 3 in Limpopo (Capricorn, Vhembe, Waterberg), 1 in Free State (Mangaung), 1 in Eastern Cape (Amathole) and 1 in North West (Bojanala) (Supplementary 9). In contrast to the wasting gradient highlighted above (higher burden in the western half of the country), the burden of obesity in 2017 appeared to be much higher in the eastern half of the country (particularly KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape) (Figure 3b), with the exception of certain districts in Western Cape. Eight of the tope 10 highest obesity prevalence districts in 2017 were located in KwaZulu-Natal (Sisonke [21.4%], Ugu [20.8%], Uthungulu [18.6%] and iLembe [18.0%) and Eastern Cape (Buffalo City Metropolitan [22.8%], Amathole [19.6%], Chris Hani [18.5%[O.R Tambo [17.9%]). The other two 55 247 

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ans, 2011) among ennated systems<br>tift child nutritional status<br>demographic, maternal, socio-economic and household factors at<br>t African ethnicity (p<0.001), male gender (p=0.002), low birth<br>c status household (p<0.001), p districts in the 10 highest obesity prevalence districts in 2017 were located in Western Cape (Overberg [22.0%] and City of Cape Town  $[18.5\%]$ ) (Supplementary 9). **Figure 1:** Bayesian posterior median smoothed prevalence of stunting by province (and wave) and district level prevalence (equal intervals, 2017) among children <5 years **Figure 2:** Bayesian posterior median smoothed prevalence of thinness/wasting by province (and wave) and district level prevalence (equal intervals, ) among children  $\leq$  years **Figure 3:** Bayesian posterior median smoothed prevalence of obesity by province (and wave) and district level prevalence (equal intervals, ) among children  $\leq$  years **Factors associated with child nutritional status** A bivariate analysis of demographic, maternal, socio-economic and household factors at individual nutritional status level suggests that African ethnicity ( $p<0.001$ ), male gender ( $p=0.002$ ), low birth weight ( $\leq 0.001$ ), residing in lower socio-economic status household ( $p<0.001$ ), province of residence ( $p=0.012$ ), lower maternal/paternal education status (p<0.001, 0.020 respectively) and residence in a rural/tribal authority area (p<0.001) were significantly associated with stunting (Table 3). Children living in lower income households ( $p=0.053$ ), lower food security (as measured through child hunger in last year) ( $p<0.001$ ), province of residence ( $p=0.002$ ), having a younger mother (<20) (p=0.012) and mother having a lower BMI classification (p=0.005) was significantly

living in lower income households ( $p=0.001$ ) in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape ( $p<0.001$ ) as well as paternal educational attainment ( $p=0.033$ ) were significantly associated with obesity status (Table 3).

associated with thinness/wasting status. Children of African ethnicity ( $p<0.001$ ), higher birth weight ( $p=0.006$ ),

#### **Discussion**

*Main findings*: The present study illustrates that while stunting has declined among South African children over the last 10 years, wasting and obesity appear largely unchanged, suggesting that development and public health interventions have had a variable impact. Stunting prevalence appears relatively evenly spread across South Africa, but obesity burden is more pronounced in the east of the country, whereas thinness/wasting is more pronounced in the west. In terms of progress towards WHO 2025 nutritional targets, 14 of 52 (27%) districts had an estimated wasting prevalence still exceeding 5% prevalence in 2017 as well as 17% (9/52) and 12% (6/52) districts not attaining the relative reduction in stunting prevalence required or with an increase in obesity prevalence respectively from 2012 to 2017. A further concerning pattern observed was the increasing prevalence

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> of obesity in children under the age of two years. Key socio-demographic factors associated with malnutrition status were identified which likely underpins the spatial patterns (and heterogeneity) observed across the country. African children with lower birth weights residing in lower income households in rural areas with less educated mothers and fathers were particular more likely to be stunted. Children in lower income, food insecure households with malnourished young mothers appeared particularly more likely to be thin/wasted while African children, with higher birth weights, living in lower income households in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape were also more likely to be obese. Furthermore, low household income appeared to be positively associated with all 3 nutritional types. Declining childhood stunting rates from 2008-2017 may well have resulted from government initiatives to support food security and child health (among other things), but our findings of distinct geographic and socio- demographic variability in undernutrition and obesity rates suggest that tackling malnutrition in South Africa is complex. Models and targets for nationally-driven intervention need to be carefully specified according to local environments and socio-economic profiles.

bod standing rates nonr 2006-2017 may wen nave restance non-<br>ad child health (among other things), but our findings of distinct<br>in undernutrition and obesity rates suggest that tackling malnut<br>regets for nationally-driven **Contribution to existing literature**: Two previous studies in South Africa among primary school aged children 292 dating back 25+ years (1993and 1994 respectively) utilised cross sectional data<sup>26 27</sup>, thus limiting insight into 293 temporal trends. Furthermore, the study by Jinabhai et al. <sup>19</sup> was restricted to KwaZulu-Natal limiting national representativeness. Another cross sectional study in South African in 2001-2003 among primary school children in five South African Provinces suggested that relative to 1993 prevalence of undernutrition had decreased while 296 obesity had increased<sup>27 28</sup>. Thus these previous data are now outdated, were largely focused on primary school aged children as well as cross sectional in nature and geographically restricted.

 This is also the first spatial-temporal Bayesian shared component analysis of malnutrition trends among children in South Africa utilising geographically representative repeated panel data over a 10-year period. The current study focusing on children under 5 year of age suggests that there is prominent geographic heterogeneity in malnutrition burden in South Africa in this youngest age group. This is in line with findings from other settings in Africa that have documented similar spatial heterogeneity <sup>29</sup> and persistence of these malnutrition inequalities has 303 been demonstrated in an 80 country study further highlighting this ongoing public health conundrum  $30^{31}$ . Our results demonstrate a strong west to east gradient of higher underweight burden on the western side of South Africa and greater obesity on the eastern seaboard (Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal). A map of poverty and

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306 inequality in South Africa <sup>2</sup> illustrates the co-existence of high levels of poverty and inequality in many parts of KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape with high levels of overweight/obesity. This is further confirmed by our individual child level analysis which suggested a significantly higher obesity prevalence in lower income households. Metropolitan areas displayed high levels of nutritional inequality that complement national studies of 310 poverty and inequality .

ave documented similar patterns i.e. children living in low SES<br>and whose mothers had little or no schooling were at significant<br>onsistent challenges facing health authorities are occurring in the<br>t simultaneously attract Under and over nutrition status appeared positively associated with lower household income classification. This finding of stunting and wasting disproportionately affecting the poor has been often demonstrated 33. Other studies in Africa in particular have documented similar patterns i.e. children living in low SES households, children who live in peripheral areas and whose mothers had little or no schooling were at significantly higher risk of malnutrition . The inconsistent challenges facing health authorities are occurring in the face of rapid urbanization and industrialization that simultaneously attract both the rich and the poor to live in the same geographic districts <sup>35</sup>. The heterogeneous geographic relationship between household income and undernutrition is also affected by the allocation of household income that is a function of maternal education, access to markets, infrastructure and sanitation <sup>36</sup>. Additionally, these data suggest that there is a strong and highly significant association between higher food insecurity (child hunger frequency in the preceding year) and increased thinness/wasting. Community and government based packages of support need to be highly targeted to the poorest and most food insecure households to further reduce inequality in this regard and maximise reductions in malnutrition. Our findings suggest that children with low birth weight (due to pre-term delivery, fetal/intrauterine growth

restriction or a combination of the two) were significantly more likely to be stunted than normal weight babies and this has been demonstrated in many other low and middle income settings (for example ). Socioeconomic status/factors are known risk factors for LBW <sup>38</sup>and may in part explain the significant association found between stunting and lower household income. South Africa has the higher number of incident and prevalent HIV infections globally <sup>39</sup>. A further important contextual risk factor for LBW is maternal HIV status. A systematic review and large observational studies focussing on low and middle incoming countries, suggest a strong and significant association between maternal HIV infection and LBW . Evidence from South Africa also suggests the anthropometric z-score of HIV-infected children appear to be consistently lower when compared to HIVexposed but uninfected children . We also observed a significantly higher prevalence of stunting among male

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> 333 children which has been demonstrated previously in a meta-analysis for sub-Saharan Africa <sup>43</sup>, the suggested cause of which might be that male children are more vulnerable to health inequalities relative to female children of the same age. Strengthening community-based packages of care and community health worker (CHW) performance/skills in rural and high burden geographies are key strategies to improve primary health care delivery through better identification of women at higher risk of poor birth outcomes (e.g. HIV positive, history of previous poor birth outcomes and/or currently malnourished), higher referral rates for facility births, and improved linkage to other health as well as social services <sup>44</sup>. Lastly given the high adolescent fertility rates in many parts of South 340 Africa <sup>45</sup>, there is also much scope to improve CHW identification of households with higher risk malnourished adolescent girls prior to pregnancy to ensure more optimal linkage to government and social support to ensure adequate nutrition as well as improved awareness regarding family planning practices e.g. ensuring adequate birth spacing <sup>46</sup> .

> The material stope to improve CTTW identification of notaschotas with n<br>pregnancy to ensure more optimal linkage to government and s<br>For a simproved awareness regarding family planning practices e<br>a complex aetiology that Obesity in children has a complex aetiology that includes a wide range of socioeconomic, demographic, environmental and cultural variables <sup>47</sup>such as household composition, mother's education, household income, 346 household size, environmental factors, rural versus urban location, and sanitation 948. The high burden of obesity is likely associated with a progressive increases in the per capita food supply and consumption of high calorific foods (e.g. fat, sugar, fast and/or processed foods) in South Africa<sup>49</sup>. This rapidly changing dietary pattern has, in part, been attributed to urbanisation, growing and expanding supermarkets /formal food retailers, and the 350 availability of fast/processed foods <sup>50</sup>. An interesting finding in these data was the significant positive association between child obesity status and residing in a lower income household. This association has been demonstrated 352 previously <sup>51-53</sup> and this evidence base is growing. This conforms with the idea that lower and higher income households/families often have a higher obesity risk than middle income households i.e. so called U-shaped association. Lower income or economically deprived families often replace health fresh food options with cheaper 355 and more calorific processed foods <sup>52</sup>. Multiple studies have demonstrated that the majority of low-income South Africans have a low dietary diversity, and, therefore, consume a limited food range consisting predominantly of a 357 starchy staple such as bread and maize, with low intakes of vegetables and fruit <sup>49</sup>. Future work will characterise food purchasing patterns (and changes over time) among households in South Africa which will be compared with paired longitudinal anthropometric measurements to identify specific dietary patterns associated with child nutritional status.

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 Lastly and contextually, body mass is culturally influenced in South Africa, and the high level of obesity in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape may at least in part be a result of cultural beliefs that associate overweight with 3 wealth and good health <sup>54</sup>. Geographic patterns of higher obesity in South Africa appeared to overlap areas of high poverty particular on the eastern side of the country 3 and thus not solely concentrated among higher socio-economic households.

 *Strengths:* To our knowledge this is the first spatial-temporal analysis of malnutrition trends among children under five years of age in South Africa. We used standardised anthropometric measurements of children and their mothers from a nationally representative repeated panel data over a 10-year period. The panel nature of the design allows assessment of change in malnutrition burden within the same individuals/households observed at multiple time points. A further strength was the implementation of a fully Bayesian space-time shared component model to produce more stable joint estimates of malnutrition by province, district and year.

ry representative repeated panter data over a To-year period. The annge in malnutrition burden within the same individuals/househ trength was the implementation of a fully Bayesian space-time s<br>nt estimates of malnutrition *Weaknesses* : The study has several limitations. Firstly, missing or invalid weight/height measurements (especially in wave 2, and among infants – Supplementary Material 7) may have introduced selection bias (if not missing at random), and may thus have affected both the internal validity and the representativeness the findings in the 5 broader South African context. Secondly as the primary panel study was not designed/powered for provincial  $6<sup>14</sup>$ and lower geographic level analysis, we cannot discount the resultant impact on precision/random variability when analysing at provincial/district level (administrative tier just below province) and further stratification by socio-demographic correlates. Thirdly, we cannot discount the effect of inter-observer variability across different study districts, despite extensive interviewer training and standardization of study protocols. All anthropometric  $\alpha$  measurements (e.g. weight, height) were taken in duplicate in NIDS  $^{26}$  which would have ensured better reliability.

2 Cost of malnutrition, policy and research needs: Estimating the cost of child malnutrition in South Africa is extremely complicated and no locally-determined cost data exist. Data from the United States, suggest that the incremental lifetime direct medical cost for a 10-year-old obese child relative to a 10-year-old normal weight child 5 ranges from USD 12 660 to USD 19 630<sup>55</sup>. Estimates of the cost of treating wasted children are approximately <sup>56</sup> USD 200 per child <sup>56</sup> while stunting has been consistently linked to worse economic outcomes in adulthood <sup>57</sup> and estimates suggest that, on average, the future per capita income penalty for a stunted individual could be as large

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 as 9-10% in SSA <sup>58</sup>. Urgent investments are needed to accelerate the reduction of all forms of malnutrition, as well as to curb the obesity epidemic among young children in South Africa. There is also considerable evidence indicates that childhood wasting and stunting can be reduced by 60% and 20% respectively using ten nutrition-391 specific interventions <sup>59</sup>, with an estimated return on investment (ROI) of 18:1, i.e. for USD 1 spent on 392 implementing effective programmes there would be USD 18 return in future economic benefits <sup>60</sup>. Very few obesity prevention interventions targeting children have been effective and a comprehensive multifaceted strategy tackling diet, physical inactivity, coupled with psychosocial support and local food environment change may prove more effective. Nutrition policies tackling child obesity must promote household nutrition security and healthy growth, decrease overconsumption of nutrient-poor foods, better shield children from increasingly pervasive marketing of energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods and sugar sweetened beverages as well as reduction of 398 growing physical inactivity <sup>61</sup>.

denote) pointes dechting that obesty must promote household<br>e overconsumption of nutrient-poor foods, better shield childrer<br>
energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods and sugar sweetened beverag<br>
vity <sup>61</sup>.<br>
eneed to implement e Our findings suggest the need to implement evidence-based child health strategies and policy (e.g. further social grant support to vulnerable and impoverished households) that is tailored to specific geographies and socially disadvantaged sub-populations. A higher prevalence of child thinness/wasting among younger mothers (<25) in poorer, food insecure household, highlights the importance of policies that enable younger mothers to adequately care for their children in all settings. Integrated nutrition programs in low and middle income countries (LMIC) have had a substantial impact on child nutrition and health via a combination of multisector targeted interventions <sup>62</sup>. Furthermore implementation and/or strengthening of school-based food program can provide a launching pad for preventive programs including education and awareness, provision of healthier/more nutrition food options and micronutrient supplementation, deworming, increased immunization coverage and improved growth monitoring as well as counselling <sup>62</sup>. This may be especially true of obese children where high prevalence was observed in higher income households with higher food purchasing power and where local food environments are likely is likely to be an important contextual determinant. A further contextual trend which may further compound this problem is the rapidly rising median household income observed over the period (from ZAR1400 in 2008 to ZAR 3640 by 2017).

## **Conclusions**

The heterogeneity of malnutrition is a feature of spatial inequality and rapid urbanization that has manifested in widening levels of inequality in South Africa's districts and a need to reassess where nutrition programmes need to be further decentralised to the highest risk municipalities and local communities to maximise effectiveness. 55 414 57 415

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# **Authors' contributions**

BS contributed to the conceptualisation/design, methodology, data analysis, drafted the initial manuscript and

- approved the final version of the manuscript. KS, RG, EL, PS and FT reviewed/edited the manuscript for critically
- important intellectual content and approved the final version of the manuscript. AD and RS participated in funding
- acquisition, conceptualisation/design, supervision, critically reviewed/edited the manuscript for critically
- important intellectual content and approved the final version of the manuscript.

## **Funding**

onceptualisation/design, methodology, data analysis, drafted the<br>on of the manuscript. KS, RG, EL, PS and FT reviewed/edited the<br>ontent and approved the final version of the manuscript. AD and<br>sation/design, supervision, c This study forms part of the Sustainable and Healthy Food Systems (SHEFS) project supported by the Wellcome Trust's Our Planet, Our Health programme (grant number 205200/Z/16/Z). The funders of the study had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation or writing of the report.

# **Competing interests**

None declared.

# **Patient consent for publication**

Not required.

# Ethics approval

This study utilised open access data and hence ethical approval was not necessary.

# **Data availability statement**

Data are publically available at https://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/NIDS/about

# 590 **Tables**

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# 591 **Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of sampled children by survey round**



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a) Obesity prevalence by province and survey wave

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### **Supplementary Material**

Supplementary 1: STROBE Statement-Checklist of items that should be included in reports of crosssectional studies



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### **Supplementary 2 : Spatial autocorrelation analyses for the 3 anthropometric outcomes (univariate and bivariate)**

### *Pairwise correlation for anthropometric outcomes and bivariate spatial autocorrelation*

We have performed additional supplementary analyses (suing GeoDa: Anselin L, Syabri I, Kho Y. GeoDa: an introduction to spatial data analysis. Geographical analysis. 2006 Jan;38(1):5 -22) which assesses pairwise correlation/association between the 3 outcomes as well as bivariate Moran's I to assess if there was significant spatial autocorrelation between the outcomes. This analysis suggests that there is no significant association between stunting and thinness/wasting while there is weak positive but significant spatial autocorrelation between stunting and obesity prevalence as well as weak negative spatial correlation between thinness and obesity (please see detailed analyses below).

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256<br>
EVALUATE:<br>
EVALUAT
. spearman stunted svy thin svy
 Number of obs = 256<br>Spearman's rho = 0.0729Spearman's rho =Test of Ho: stunted svy and thin svy are independent
   Prob > |t| = 0.2452. gllamm stunted svy thin svy, i(id)
number of level 1 units = 256
number of level 2 units = 52
Condition Number = 14.594452gllamm model 
log likelihood = 283.93295
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
 stunted svy | Coef. Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval]
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+----------------------------------------------------------------
 thin_svy | .0385636 .0726234 0.53 0.595 
-.1037757 .1809028
 _cons | .1082981 .0061531 17.60 0.000 .0962381 .120358
          ------------------------------------------------------------------------------
Variance at level 1
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
   .00637033 (.00056306)
Variances and covariances of random effects
   ------------------------------------------------------------------------------
***level 2 (id)
var(1): 2.643e-24 (5.133e-14)
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Moran's I: -0.037

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190 0.50 1.90 3.30<br>sturt\_svy<br>9<br>290100<br>For peer review only chees\_svy<br>256



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 $Prob > |t| = 0.0227$ . gllamm thin\_svy obese\_svy , i(id) number of level 1 units = 256 number of level 2 units = 52 Condition Number = 10.976401 gllamm model  $log$  likelihood = 324.36079 --- thin svy | Coef. Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval] ------------- +-- **-.1467062 .0111022 obese\_svy | - .067802 .040258 -1.68 0.092**  \_cons | .0602269 .0078037 7.72 0.000 .0449319 .0755218 -- For perfection of the street of the stre Variance at level 1 -- .00447574 (.00044278) Variances and covariances of random effects -- \*\*\*level 2 (id) var(1): .00018259 (.00023176) --  $\frac{8}{3}$  $1,80$  $\ddot{\mathbf{o}}$  $\frac{6}{6}$ agged obese\_svy 0.60 ö  $-0.60$ g ۳ ကု  $-1.80$  $-3$ 

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> permutations: 99999 pseudo p-value: 0.020230



With regards to the shared temporal effect this we think can be retained as all 3 outcomes appear to have a negative coefficient associated with increasing panel or wave .



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*Univariate spatial autocorrelation*

Based on the univariate Moran's I statistics for each anthropometric outcome there appeared to be significant spatial heterogeneity present for all 3 outcomes.









**Supplementary 3**: Win BUGS code for Bayesian space -time binomial model

```
[i,j] ~ dbin(p3[i,j],child[i,j])<br>
53[i,j]) ~ alpha3+phi3[i]+gamma3[j]+nu3[i,j]<br>
53[i,j]) <-alpha3+phi3[i]+gamma3[j]+nu3[i,j]<br>
51 <-step((1-p1[i,5]/p3[i,3]-0.17) #17% is target reduction by 2<br>
\# assuming target 40% redu
model {
          for(i in 1 : N) {
                    for(j in 1: T) {
                    #Likelihood
                    stunted[i,j] \sim \text{dbin}(p1[i,j], \text{child}[i,j])logit(p1[i,j])<
-alpha1+phi1[i]+gamma1[j]+nu1[i,j]
                    thin[i,j] \sim dbin(p2[i,j],child[i,j])
                     logit(p2[i,j])<
-alpha2+phi2[i]+gamma2[j]+nu2[i,j]
                     exceedance2[i,j]<-step(p2[i,j]-0.05) # reduce and maintain wasting to < 5\%obese[i,j] \sim \text{dbin}(p3[i,j], \text{child}[i,j])logit(p3[i,j])<
-alpha3+phi3[i]+gamma3[j]+nu3[i,j]
                    }
          exceedance1[i,5]<-step((1-p1[i,5]/p1[i,3])-0.17) #17% is target reduction by 2017 from 2012
                                                                    # assuming target 40% reduction by 2025
          exceedance3[i,5]<
-step(p3[i,5]/p3[i,3]
                                                                   # no increase in obesity from 2012 to 2017
          }
# 
- Space
phi1[1:52]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],tau.phi[1])
phi2[1:52]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],tau.phi[2])
phi3[1:52]~car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],tau.phi[3])
for(k in 1:240) {weights[k]<-1}
# 
- Time:
gamma1[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],tau.gamma[1])
gamma2[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],tau.gamma[2])
gamma3[1:T]~car.normal(adj.t[],weights.t[],num.t[],tau.gamma[3])
for(t in 1:1) {
          weights.t[t] \langle -1;adj.t[t] < -t+1;num.t[t] < 1}
for(t in 2:(T-1)) {
          weights.t[2+(t-2)*2] <- 1;
          adj.t[2+(t-2)*2] <- t-1
          weights.t[3+(t-2)*2] <-1;
          adj.t[3+(t-2)*2] < -t+1;num.t[t] \langle - 2
          }
for(t in T:T) \{weights.t[(T-2)*2 + 2] <-1;
          adj.t[(T-2)*2 + 2] <- t-1;
          num.t[t] < -1}
#Space
-time Interaction terms
for(i in 1:N)\{for(j in 1:T){
          nu1[i,j]~dnorm(0, tau.nu[1])nu2[i,j]~dnorm(0, tau.nu[2])nu3[i,j]~dnorm(0, tau.nu[3])
```






#### *Temporal random effects (gamma)*



#### b)

<sup>2</sup> Wave<br>
<sup>3</sup> Wave<br>
<sup>4</sup> Wave<br>
onal sensitivity analysis to confirm whether the choice of hyper<br>
estimates. For the variance parameters, namely  $\sigma^2$ <sub>v</sub>,  $\sigma^2$ <sub>*φ*</sub>,  $\sigma^2$ <sub>*γ*</sub> we a<br>
tributions as recommended by Wakefie We concluded an additional sensitivity analysis to confirm whether the choice of hyper parameter may have affected the prevalence estimates. For the variance parameters, namely  $\sigma^2$ <sub>ν</sub>,  $\sigma^2$ <sub>φ</sub>,  $\sigma^2$ <sub>γ</sub> we assumed Gamma(0.5,0.0005) distributions as recommended by Wakefield (Wakefield J, Best N, Waller L. Bayesian approaches to disease mapping. Spatial epidemiology: methods and applications 2000:104 -07.) for the Baysian prevalence/exceedance probability estimates presented in the main text. We also tested whether changes to this prior may have affected the estimates. Other choices for this prior (Lawson A, Browne W, Vidal Rodeiro C. Disease Mapping with WinBUGS and MLWin. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons; 2003) that are commonly used include .

Gamma (0.001, 0.001)

Gamma (0.01,0.01)

Pairwise scatterplots of the posterior prevalence for the various gamma distribution choices for the hyper parameters below suggest that the model estimates were largely insensitive to the choice of distribution assumed:









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### **Supplementary 6: Model fit and out of sample validation**

*Overall model fit*

#### **Dbar = post.mean of -2logL; Dhat = -2LogL at post.mean of stochastic nodes**



*Comparison of survey prevalence versus model fitted prevalence by anthropometric measure*



 $\bullet$ 

.3

 $\circ$ Observed prevalence of thinness/wasting<br>2.<br>.4  $\circ$  Model fitted prevalence of thinness/wasting<br>
y p2 if thin\_svy-=0<br>
191<br>
0.9019<br>
svy and p2 are independent<br>
0.0000<br>
y p2<br>
256<br>
0.2972<br>
0.0000<br>
0.0000<br>
0.0000  $\overline{0}$  . spearman thin\_svy p2 if thin\_svy~=0 Number of  $obs =$  Spearman's rho  $=$  Test of Ho: thin\_svy and p2 are independent  $Prob$  >  $|t|$  = . spearman thin svy p2 Number of  $obs =$  Spearman's  $rho =$  Test of Ho: thin\_svy and p2 are independent  $Prob > |t| =$  

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95% uncertainty interval for the predicted posterior prevalence, 2 8/37 (78%) for thinness/wasting and 3 1/37 (84%) for obesity.





. spearman stunted\_svy stuntedvpost if validation\_sample2==1

Test of Ho: stunted\_svy and stuntedvpost are independent<br>Prob >  $|t| = 0.0058$ 

Number of  $obs =$  37<br>Spearman's rho = 0.4445

Spearman's rho  $=$ 

 $Prob > |t| = 0.05$ 

 

 

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**Supplementary 7 :** Description of the study sample across survey rounds

### **Supplementary 8: Sensitivity analyses for missing weight and height**

Summary: A comparison of missing weight/height proportions by various socio -demographic variables suggests that many were likely missing at random. Distributions of race, gender, household income, low birthweight, food security status, mother education category and father education category were not significantly different when comparing children with missing weight/height measurements to those with a valid weight/height measurement (please see analysis output below). However, age did significantly differ by missing status in that infants (<1 year of age) were significantly more likely to have a missing weight/height measurement compared to children aged 1 - 4 years. There also appeared to be significant differences in missing weight/height status by province of residence i.e. children in Mpumalanga, Western Cape fir example had higher proportions of missing weight/height measurements among children under 5 (p<0.001). Furthermore, missing weight/height measurements for children were more significantly more likely among those children with younger mothers (<25 years of age).



. svy: tab race missing height weight if race ~=0, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample)

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 $\begin{bmatrix}\n 0.022 \\
 0.0341\n \end{bmatrix}\n \begin{bmatrix}\n 1.1366, .18161\n \end{bmatrix}\n \begin{bmatrix}\n 1.2108, .28131\n \end{bmatrix}\n \begin{bmatrix}\n 1.2108, .28131\n \end{bmatrix}\n \begin{bmatrix}\n 1.2108, .28131\n \end{bmatrix}\n \begin{bmatrix}\n 1.2108, .28131\n \end{bmatrix}\n \begin{bmatrix}\n 1.2108, .22751\n \end{bmatrix}\n \begin{bmatrix}\n 1.2117, .2$ Design df  $=$  1,174 --- | missing\_height\_weight province | 0 1 Total ---------- +-- Eastern | .8421 .1579 1 | [.819,.8627] [.1373,.181] | Free Sta | .833 .167 1 | [.7968,.8638] [.1362,.2032] | Gauteng | .7866 .2134 1  $\left[ .7637, .8078 \right]$   $\left[ .1922, .2363 \right]$  | KwaZulu .8448 .1552 1 | [.8255,.8624] [.1376,.1745] | Limpopo | .8422 .1578 1  $\begin{bmatrix} .8184, .8634 \end{bmatrix}$  [.1366, .1816] | Mpumalan | .7557 .2443 1 | [.7187,.7892] [.2108,.2813] | North We | .8011 .1989 1 | [.7725,.827] [.173,.2275] | Northern | .7921 .2079 1 | [.7674,.8149] [.1851,.2326] | Western | .7422 .2578 1  $[.7064, .775]$   $[.225, .2936]$  | |
| Total | .8083 .1917 | 1  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 &$ --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected chi2(8) = 171.9467 Design -based F(6.89, 8090.45)= 9.8218 P = 0.0000 . svy: tab LBW missing height weight, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata =  $\begin{array}{rcl} 53 & \text{Number of obs} & = & 16,606 \\ \text{Number of PSUs} & = & 1,128 \end{array}$  Population size =  $24,829,511$ Number of PSUs =  $1,128$ <br>Design df  $= 1,075$ -- missing\_height\_weight LBW  $\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & - & 1 & 1 \end{array}$  Total ---------- +--  $0 \quad 1 \quad .8164 \quad .1836 \quad 1$  | [.8044,.8278] [.1722,.1956] |  $\frac{1}{1}$  .8106 .1894 .1894 | [.7788,.8388] [.1612,.2212] | Total | .8158 .1842 1 | [.8045,.8266] [.1734,.1955] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson:<br>Uncorrected chi2(1) Uncorrected  $chi2(1)$  = 0.3369 Design -based F(1, 1075) = 0.1307 P = 0.7178 . svy: tab foodsecurity proxy missing height weight, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata =  $53$  Number of obs =  $5,017$ <br>Number of PSUs =  $438$  Population size =  $8,843,019$ Population size =  $8,843,019$ Design df  $=$  385

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(12(3)  $\frac{1}{2}$  2(3)  $\frac{1}{2}$  2(4)  $\frac{1}{2}$  2(4)  $\frac{1}{2}$  2(4)  $\frac{1}{2}$  2(4)  $\frac{1}{2}$  1(1)  $\frac{$  0 | .8043 .1957 1  $[$  [.7537,.8466] [.1534,.2463] | 1 | .7848 .2152 1 | [.7529,.8136] [.1864,.2471] | 2 | .7976 .2024 1 | [.7848,.8098] [.1902,.2152] | 3 | .8122 .1878 1 | [.7734,.8457] [.1543,.2266] | |
| Total | .7982 .2018 .2018 | [.7868,.8092] [.1908,.2132] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected  $chi2(3)$  = 3.7648 Design-based  $F(2.41, 2688.60) = 0.5454$  P = 0.6124 . svy: tab fth\_educat missing\_height\_weight, row ci (running tabulate on estimation sample) Number of strata =  $\begin{array}{ccc} 53 & 53 \\ 755 & 8 \end{array}$  Number of obs =  $\begin{array}{ccc} 4,574 \\ 4,574 \end{array}$ <br>Number of PSUs =  $\begin{array}{ccc} 755 & 800 \\ 755 & 800 \end{array}$ Population size =  $8,485,206$ <br>Design df =  $702$ Design df -- fth\_educa | missing\_height\_weight t | 0 1 Total ---------- +-- 0 | .9417 .0583 1 | [.732,.9896] [.0104,.268]  $\frac{1}{1}$  $-7923$  .2077 ...  $\left[ .7634, .8185 \right]$   $\left[ .1815, .2366 \right]$  $\blacksquare$  2 | .803 .197 1 | [.759,.8406] [.1594,.241] |  $\begin{array}{c|c}\n 3 & 7618 \\
 \hline\n 1382\n \end{array}$  | [.6661,.8368] [.1632,.3339] | Total | .7948 .2052 | [.7719,.8159] [.1841,.2281] --- Key: row proportion [95% confidence interval for row proportion] Pearson: Uncorrected  $chi2(3)$  = 3.8826 Design-based  $F(2.17, 1522.03) = 0.5250$   $P = 0.6062$ 

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**Supplementary 9: Full posterior prevalence estimates with 95% Bayesian uncertainty intervals (UIs) by district and year. Also includes exceedance probabilities for 17% reduction in stunting from wave 3 (2012) to wave 5 (2017 ) - to achieve 40% reduction from 2012 to 2025, 5% target threshold for wasting prevalence and no increase in obesity from wave 3 (2012) to wave 5 (2017) as per 2025 nutritional targets.**







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## **Supplementary 10: post hoc power analysis**

We performed a post hoc power analysis to assess the minimum effect size detectable among infants which has the smallest number of observations. The post hoc power analysis suggests that the sample size in the smallest age group has the power to detect a small effect size ( $w^{\sim}0.1$  based on Cohens rules of thumb [Cohen, 1988]) when using a chi-square test with 2x9 cells (maximum number of cells tested in our analyses i.e. binary nutritional classification versus province of residence) with 80% power and 5% alpha or type I error.

**χ<sup>2</sup> tests -** Goodness-of-fit tests: Contingency tables



Cohen, J (1988) Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

A summary guideline for effect size determinations is also provided in Kotrlik, JW and Williams, HA (2003) The incorporation of effect size in information technology, learning, and performance research. *Information Techology, Learning, and Performance Journal* **21(1)** 1 -7.



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