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RESEARCH ARTICLE

# A Long Neglected World Malaria Map: *Plasmodium* v Endemicity in 2010

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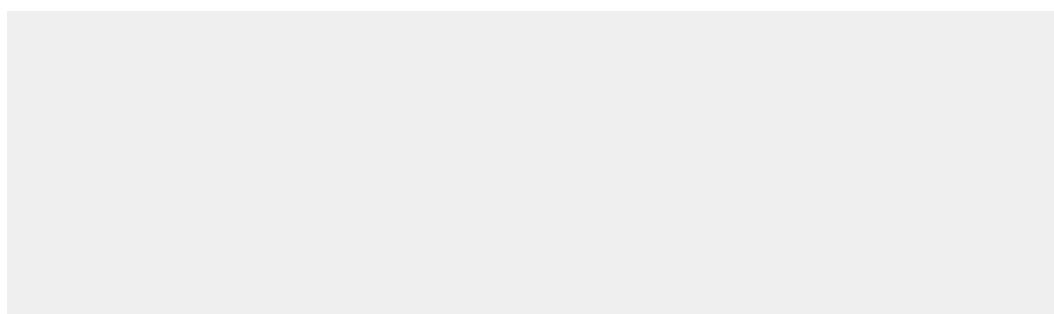


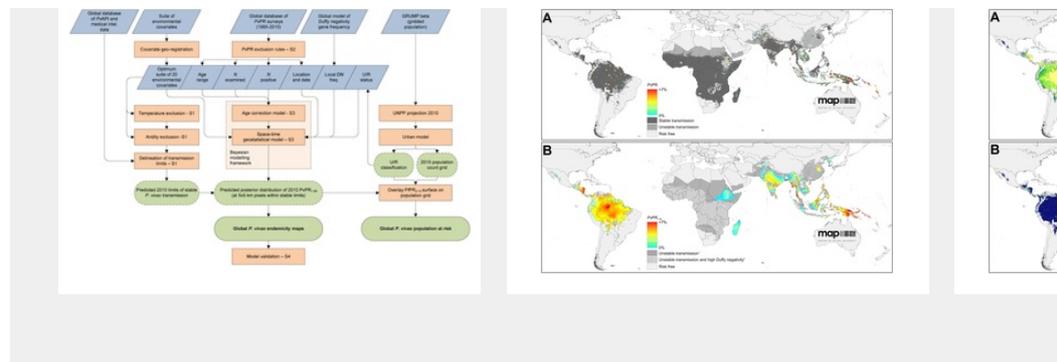
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## Abstract

### Background

Current understanding of the spatial epidemiology and geographic *Plasmodium vivax* is far less developed than that for *P. falciparum*, resulting in limited strategies for control and elimination. Here we present the first global map of *P. vivax* endemicity to map the global endemicity of this hitherto neglected parasite.

### Methodology and Findings

We first updated to the year 2010 our earlier estimate of the geographic distribution of *P. vivax* transmission. Within areas of stable transmission, an assembly of 9,000 *P. vivax* parasite rate (*PvPR*) surveys collected from 1985 to 2010 were analyzed using a spatiotemporal Bayesian model-based geostatistical approach to estimate the age-standardised to the 1–99 year age range (*PvPR*<sub>1–99</sub>) within every 5 arc-minute grid square. The model incorporated data on Duffy negative phenotype to suppress endemicity predictions, particularly in Africa. Endemicity was estimated in a relatively narrow range throughout the endemic world, with the point estimates rarely exceeding 7% *PvPR*<sub>1–99</sub>. The Americas contributed 22% of the global population at risk (PAR) to *P. vivax* transmission, but high endemic areas were generally sparsely populated and contributed only 6% of the 2.5 billion people at risk (PAR) globally. In the Americas, stable transmission was constrained to Madagascar and Papua New Guinea, contributing 3.5% of global PAR. Central Asia was home to 82% of global population at risk in high endemic areas coinciding with dense populations particularly in Myanmar. South East Asia contained areas of the highest endemicity, particularly in Papua New Guinea and contributed 9% of global PAR.

### Conclusions and Significance

This detailed depiction of spatially varying endemicity is intended to inform the needed paradigm shift towards geographically stratified and evidence-based strategies for *P. vivax* control and elimination.

## Author Summary

*Plasmodium vivax* is one of five parasites causing malaria in humans across a larger swathe of the globe and potentially affects a larger than its more notorious cousin, *Plasmodium falciparum*, it receives a research attention and financing: around 3%. This neglect, coupled more complex nature of *vivax* biology, means important knowledge our current ability to control the disease effectively. This patchy knowledge recognised as a cause for concern, in particular as the global challenge of malaria elimination which, by definition, includes *P. vivax* common *Plasmodium* species as well as *P. falciparum*. Particularly the absence of an evidence-based map describing the intensity of *P. vivax* in different parts of the world. Such maps have proved important for malaria diseases in supporting international policy formulation and regional planning, implementation, and monitoring. In this study we present an effort to map the global endemicity of *P. vivax*. We assembled data from nearly 1000 worldwide in which communities had been tested for the prevalence of *P. vivax*. Using a spatial statistical model and additional data on environmental factors such as Duffy negativity, a blood disorder that protects against *P. vivax*, we estimated infection prevalence in every 5×5 km grid square across areas at risk. This provides new insight into the geographical patterns of the disease, with the highest endemicity in South East Asia and small pockets of Africa, and an endemic setting predominating in Africa. This new level of detailed information contribute to a wider shift in our understanding of the spatial epidemiology of this important parasite.

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## Introduction

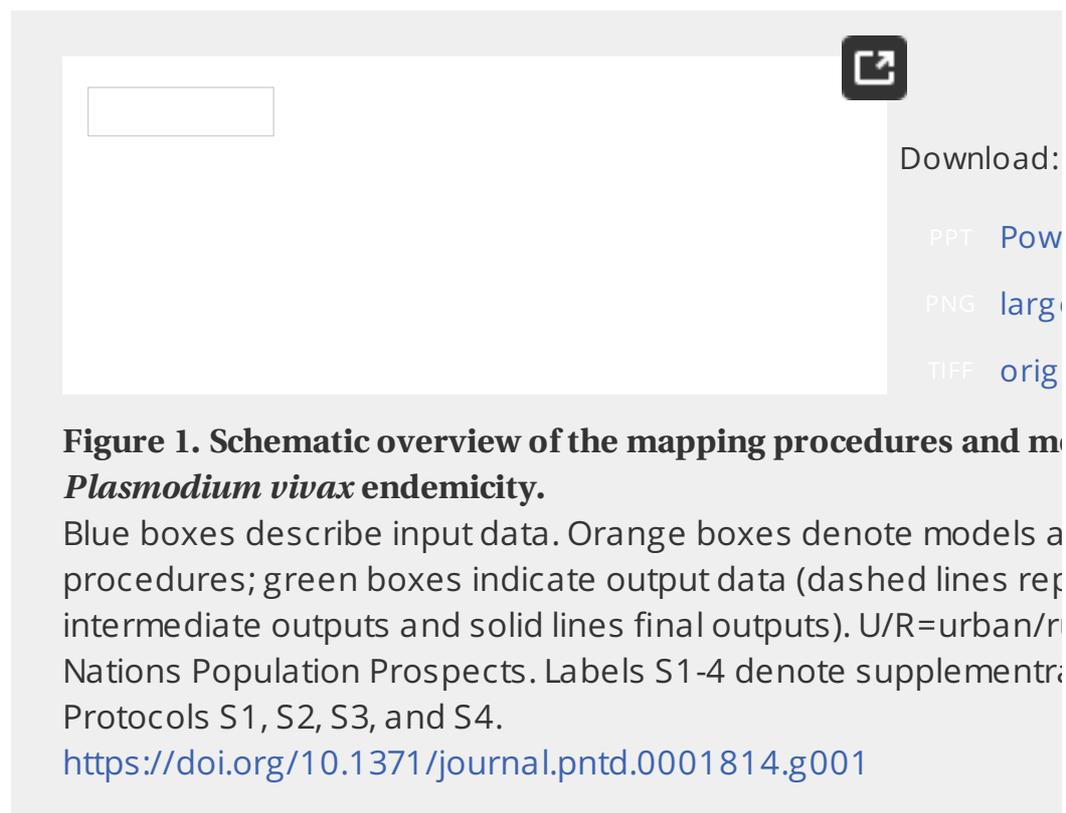
The international agenda shaping malaria control financing, research, and implementation is increasingly defined around the goal of regional elimination. This ambition ostensibly extends to all human malarias, but whilst recent research attention for *Plasmodium falciparum*, the knowledge of the biology of the major human malaria, *Plasmodium vivax*, is far less developed in almost all settings [7]–[11]. During 2006–2009 just 3.1% of expenditures on malaria research and development were committed to *P. vivax* [12]. The notion that control strategies developed primarily for *P. falciparum* in holoendemic Africa can be transferred successfully to *P. vivax* is, however, increasingly acknowledged as incorrect [13]. Previous eradication campaigns have demonstrated that *P. vivax* frequently becomes entrenched long after *P. falciparum* has been eliminated [18]. The priority of *P. vivax* on the global health agenda has risen further as evidence accumulates in some settings to cause severe disease and death [19]–[25], and of the large numbers of people living at risk [26].

Amongst the many information gaps preventing rational strategies for the elimination of *P. vivax*, the absence of robust geographical assessments of risk is particularly conspicuous [9], [27]. The endemic level of the disease, the burden on children, adults, and pregnant women; the likely impact of control measures; and the relative difficulty of elimination goals. Despite the importance of these issues, there has been no systematic global assessment of *P. vivax* endemicity. The Malaria Atlas Project was initiated in 2005 with an initial focus on *P. falciparum* that has led to global maps [28]–[30] for this parasite being used for policy planning at regional to international levels [4], [31]–[36]. Here we report the outcome of an equivalent project to generate a comprehensive evidence base for *P. vivax* infections worldwide, and to generate global risk maps for this parasite. We build on earlier work [26] defining the global range of the disease and the geographical classifications of populations at risk to now assess the levels of endemicity for these several billion people live. This detailed depiction of geographical risk is intended to contribute to a much-needed paradigm shift towards geographical and evidence-based planning for *P. vivax* control and elimination.

Numerous biological and epidemiological characteristics of *P. vivax* challenges to defining and mapping metrics of risk. Unlike *P. falciparum*, a dormant hypnozoite liver stage that can cause clinical relapse episodes, periodic events manifest as a blood-stage infection clinically indistinguishable from primary infection and constitute a substantial, but geographically variable, total patent infection prevalence and disease burden within different regions [39]–[41]. The parasitemia of *P. vivax* typically occurs at much lower levels than those of falciparum malaria, and successful detection by any given method is much less likely. Another major driver of the global *P. vivax* landscape is the Duffy negativity phenotype [42]. This inherited blood condition confers protection against *P. vivax* infection and is present at very high frequencies in the majority of African populations, although is rare elsewhere [43]. These factors, among others, mean that the methodological framework for mapping *P. vivax* endemicity and interpretation of the resulting maps, are distinct from those already established for *P. falciparum* [28], [29]. The effort described here strives to accommodate these distinctions in developing a global distribution of endemic vivax malaria.

## Methods

The modelling framework is displayed schematically in Figure 1. In brief, the process involves: (i) updating of the geographical limits of stable *P. vivax* transmission based on recent reporting data and biological masks; (ii) assembly of all available *P. vivax* data globally; (iii) development of a Bayesian model-based geostatistical model of *P. vivax* endemicity within the limits of stable transmission; and (iv) a model-based validation of the results. Details on each of these stages are provided below with more extensive information included as Protocols S1, S2, S3, and S4.



## ***vivax* in 2010**

The first effort to systematically estimate the global extent of *P. vivax*, define populations at risk was completed in 2009 [26]. As a first step we have updated this work with a new round of data collection for the updated data assemblies and methods are described in full in Protocol S1. This work first involved the identification of 95 countries as endemic for these, *P. vivax* annual parasite incidence (PvAPI) routine case reports from 17,893 administrative units [44]. These PvAPI and other medical data were combined with remote sensing surfaces and biological models to identify areas where extreme aridity or temperature regimes would limit or prevent (see Protocol S1). These components were combined to classify the likelihood to experience zero, unstable (PvAPI < 0.1% per annum), or stable (PvAPI > 0.1% per annum) *P. vivax* transmission. Despite the very high population frequency and prevalence of *P. vivax* across much of Africa, the presence of autochthonous transmission has been confirmed by a systematic literature review for 42 African countries and therefore treated Africa in the same way as elsewhere in this initial analysis. Countries were deemed to have stable *P. vivax* transmission unless the biological model data suggested otherwise.

## **Creating a Database of Georeferenced PvPR Data**

As with *P. falciparum*, the most globally ubiquitous and consistently measured indicator of *vivax* endemicity is the parasite rate (PvPR), defined as the proportion of sampled individuals in a surveyed population with patent parasitemia in the blood as detected *via*, generally, microscopy or rapid diagnostic tests. Rapid diagnostic tests can provide lower sensitivity and specificity than conventional blood smears and neither technique provides accuracy comparable to molecular methods (e.g. polymerase chain reaction, PCR), the inclusion of both microscopic and molecular parasite rate data was considered important to maximise data availability across the endemic world.

To map endemicity within the boundaries of stable transmission, we conducted an exhaustive search and assembly of georeferenced PvPR survey data from informal literature sources and direct communications with data generators [46]. Full details of the data search strategy, abstraction and inclusion criteria, georeferencing and fidelity checking procedure are included in Protocol S2. The database, completed on 25<sup>th</sup> November 2011, consisted of 9,970 georeferenced spatiotemporally unique data points, spanning the period 1985–2010. The spatial distribution of these data and further summaries by survey characteristics (source, time period, age group, sample size, and type of diagnostic method) are provided in Protocol S2.



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## Figure 2. The spatial distribution of *Plasmodium vivax* malaria endemicity

Panel A shows the 2010 spatial limits of *P. vivax* malaria risk defined by further medical intelligence, temperature and aridity masks. Areas are stable (dark grey areas, where  $PvAPI \geq 0.1$  per 1,000 pa), unstable (medium grey areas, where  $PvAPI < 0.1$  per 1,000 pa) or no risk (light grey, where  $PvAPI = 0$  per 1,000 pa). The community surveys of *P. vivax* prevalence conducted in January 1985 and June 2010 are plotted. The survey data are plotted on a continuum of light green to red (see map legend), with zero-value areas in white. Panel B shows the MBG point estimates of the annual *P. vivax* prevalence in 2010 within the spatial limits of stable *P. vivax* malaria transmission, using the same colour scale. Areas within the stable limits in (A) that were predicted with a certainty ( $>0.9$ ) to have a  $PvPR_{1-99}$  less than 1% were classed as low risk, which Duffy negativity gene frequency is predicted to exceed 90% in hatching for additional context.

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## Modelling *Plasmodium vivax* Endemicity within Regional Transmission

We adopt model-based geostatistics (MBG) [47], [48] as a robust and flexible framework for generating continuous surfaces of malaria endemicity from retrospectively assembled parasite rate survey data [28], [29], [49]. This is a special class of generalised linear mixed models, with endemicity value at each pixel predicted as a function of a geographically-varying mean and variance, and proximal data points. The mean can be defined as a multivariate function of environmental correlates of disease risk. A covariance function is used to model the spatial or space-time heterogeneity in the observed data, which defines appropriate weights assigned to each data point when predicting endemicity. This framework allows the uncertainty in predicted endemicity values at each pixel, depending on the observed variation, density and sample size at different locations and the predictive utility of the covariate suite. Predictions where survey data are dense, recent, and relatively homogenous will be precise with low uncertainty, whilst regions with sparse or mainly old surveys, or where endemicity rates are extremely variable, will have greater uncertainty. When implemented using Bayesian inference and a Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm, uncertainty in the final predictions as well as all model parameters can be represented by predictive posterior distributions [50].

We developed for this study a modified version of the MBG framework for predicting *P. falciparum* endemicity [28], [29], with some core aspects of the model remaining unchanged and others altered to capture unique aspects of *P. vivax* transmission and epidemiology. The model is presented in full in Protocol S3. As in [49], we adopt a space-time approach to allow surveys from a wide

predictions of contemporary risk. This includes the use of a spatiotemporal function which is parameterised to downweight older data appropriate for a seasonal component in the covariance function, although we note that transmission is often only weakly represented in *PvPR* in part because of the effect of relapses occurring outside peak transmission seasons [51]. Five covariates were included to inform prediction of the mean function, including expectations of the major environmental factors modulating endemicity: (i) an indicator variable defining areas as urban or rural based on the Global Urban Mapping Project (GRUMP) urban extent product [52], [53]; (ii) a long-term vegetation index product as an indicator of overall moisture availability for oviposition and survival [54], [55]; and (iii) a *P. vivax* specific index of suitability derived from the same model used to delineate suitable areas for vector survival and sporogony [45].

## Age Standardisation

Our assembly of *PvPR* surveys was collected across a variety of ages and ages of *P. vivax* infection status can vary systematically in different age groups. Within a community, it was necessary to standardise for this source of variation so that surveys to be used in the same model. We adopted the same model as described [56] and used previously for *P. falciparum* [28], [29], where infection prevalence is expected to rise rapidly in early infancy and childhood before declining in early adolescence and adulthood. The magnitude of these age profile features are likely distinct between different endemic settings [51], [57], and so the model was parameterised for the assembly of 67 finely age-stratified *PvPR* surveys (Protocol S2), with each survey fitted in a Bayesian model using MCMC. The parameterised model was then applied to the observed survey prevalences to a standardised age-independent model, and then further allowed the output prevalence prediction for any arbitrary age range. We chose to generate maps of all-age infection prevalence defined as individuals of age one to 99 years (thus  $PvPR_{1-99}$ ). We excluded those less than one year of age from the standardisation because of the effect of maternal antibodies, and because parasite rate surveys are difficult to perform on young infants. We deviated from the two-to-ten age range used for [28], [29] because the relatively lower prevalences has meant that surveys are commonly carried out across all age ranges.

## Incorporating Duffy Negativity

Since Duffy negative individuals are largely refractory to *P. vivax* infection, population frequencies of this phenotype have a dramatic suppressive effect on endemicity, even where conditions are otherwise well suited for transmission. The predominance of Duffy negativity in Africa has led to a historical period where it is absent from much of the continent, and a dearth of surveys or routine testing for the parasite have served to entrench this mantra [59]. However, recent evidence of autochthonous *P. vivax* transmission across the continent [26], and the fact that it preclude any areas at risk *a priori*. Instead, we used a recent map of

negativity phenotypic frequency [43] and incorporated the potential blood group directly in the MBG modelling framework. The mapped population fraction at each location was excluded from the denominator data, such that any *P. vivax* positive individuals were considered to be Duffy positive population subset. Thus in a location with 90% Duffy positive individuals in a survey of 100 would give an assumed prevalence of 90% positives. Correspondingly, prediction of PvPR was then restricted to the proportion at each pixel, with the final prevalence estimate re-converted to the total population. This approach has two key advantages. First, predicted PvPR at any location could never exceed the Duffy positive proportion, therefore ensuring consistency between the *P. vivax* and Duffy negativity maps. Second, where data were sparse across much of Africa, the predictions could effectively be derived from the Duffy negativity map because predictions of PvPR were restricted to a narrower range of possible values.

## Model Implementation and Map Generation

The *P. vivax* endemic world was divided into four contiguous regions based on biogeographical, entomological and epidemiological characteristics. Africa formed separate regions, whilst Asia was subdivided into Central and South-Eastern sub-regions with a boundary at the Thailand-Malaysia border (see Figure 1). This regionalisation was implemented in part to retain computational feasibility given the large number of data points, but also to allow model parameterisations to capture regional endemicity characteristics. Within each region, a model was fitted using a bespoke MCMC algorithm [60] to generate predictions at every 5×5 km pixel within the limits of stable transmission. The predicted PvPR in 2010 and model outputs represent an annualised average across 10 years. Model output consisted of a predicted posterior distribution of PvPR at each pixel. A continuous endemicity map was generated using the mean of the posterior distribution as a point estimate. The uncertainty associated with predictions was summarised by maps showing the ratio of the posterior distribution (IQR) to its mean. The IQR is a simple measure of the precision with which PvPR was predicted, and standardisation by the mean produced an uncertainty measure not affected by underlying prevalence levels and more illustrative of regional performance driven by data densities in different locations. This uncertainty was weighted by the underlying population density to produce a secondary map highlighting those areas where uncertainty is likely to be most operationally important.

## Refining Limits Definition and Population at Risk Estimation

In some regions within the estimated limits of stable transmission, PvPR was found to be extremely low, either because of a dense abundance of surveillance data showing no infections or, in Africa, because of very high coincident Duffy negativity frequencies. Such areas are not appropriately described as being within the limits of stable transmission and so we defined a decision rule whereby pixels predicted with high certainty (probability >0.9) of being less than 1% PvPR<sub>1-99</sub> were assigned to a 'no transmission' class, thereby modifying the original transmission limits. These augmented

were combined with a 2010 population surface derived from the GF [53] to estimate the number of people living at unstable or stable risk and region. The fraction of the population estimated to be Duffy negative pixel was considered at no risk and therefore excluded from these

## Model Validation

A model validation procedure was implemented whereby 10% of the model region were selected using a spatially declustered random sample. These subsets were held out and the model re-fitted in full using the remaining data. Model predictions were then compared to the hold-out data points. Different aspects of model performance were assessed using validation metrics described previously [28], [29]. The validation procedure is detailed

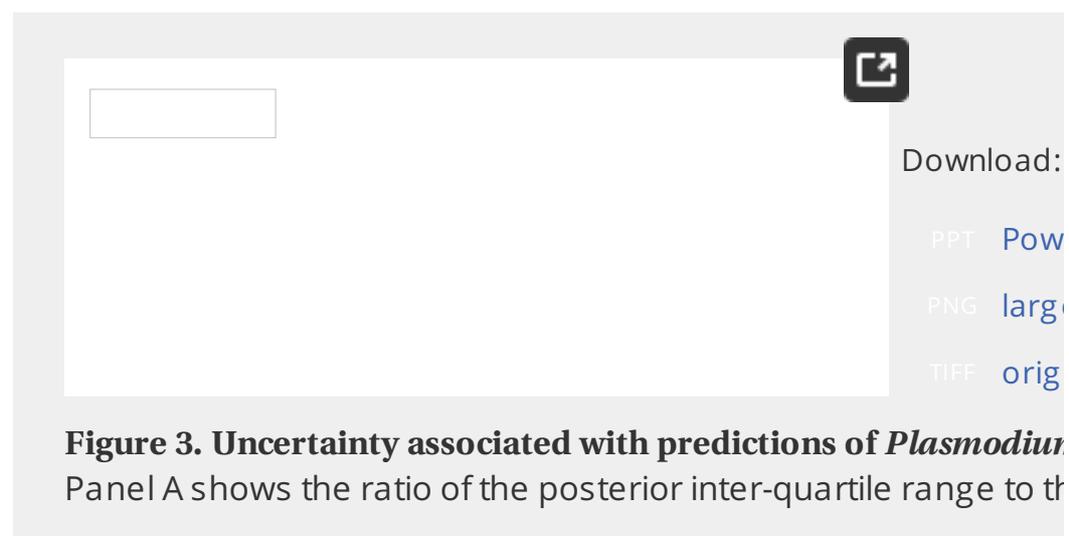
## Results

### Model Validation

Full validation results are presented in Protocol S4. In brief, examining the bias in the generation of the *P. vivax* malaria endemicity point-estimate showed minimal overall bias in predicted PvPR with a global mean error of -0.43 (Africa 0.03, Central Asia -0.43, South East Asia -0.43), with values in percentage scale (see Protocol S4). The global value thus represents a tendency to underestimate prevalence by just under half of one percent. The absolute error, which measures the average magnitude of prediction errors, was 2.37 (Africa 0.53, Central Asia 1.52, South East Asia 3.37), again in units of

### Global *Plasmodium vivax* Endemicity and Populations

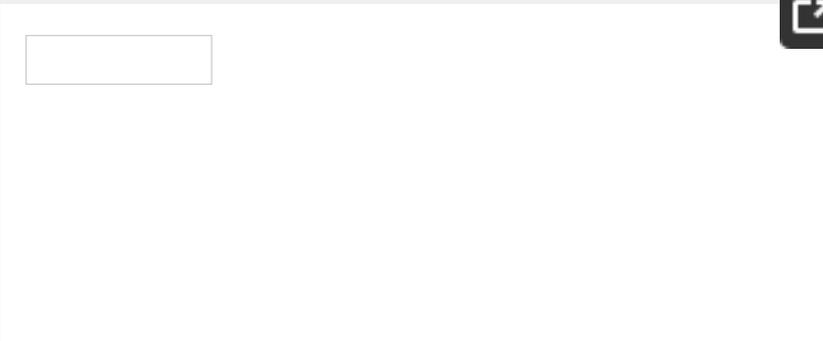
The limits of stable and unstable *P. vivax* transmission, as defined using exclusion masks and medical intelligence data are shown in Figure 2. The surface of *P. vivax* endemicity predicted within those limits is shown in Figure 3A and the uncertainty map (posterior IQR:mean ratio) is shown in Figure 3A and a weighted version in Figure 3B.



prediction at each pixel. Large values indicate greater uncertainty predicts a relatively wide range of  $PvPR_{1-99}$  as being equally plausible surrounding data. Conversely, smaller values indicate a tighter range of values have been predicted and, thus, a higher degree of certainty in the prediction. Panel B shows the same index multiplied by the underlying population and rescaled to 0–1 to correspond to Panel A. Higher values indicate greater uncertainty and large populations.

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We estimate that *P. vivax* was endemic across some 44 million square kilometers, or approximately a third of the Earth's land surface. Around half of this area was in Africa (51%) and a quarter each in the Americas (22%) and Asia (27%). Due to the uneven distribution of global populations, coupled with the protective effect of Duffy negativity in Africa, meant that the distribution of populations at risk was different. An estimated 2.48 billion people lived at any risk of *P. vivax* malaria, of which a large majority lived in Central Asia (82%) with much smaller numbers in South Asia (9%), the Americas (6%), and Africa (3%). Of these, 1.52 billion lived in areas of unstable transmission where risk is very low and case incidence is less than 1 per 10,000 per annum. The remaining 964 million people at risk live in areas of stable transmission, representing a wide diversity of endemic levels. The geographic distribution of populations in each risk class was similar to the total at risk, such that the majority in both classes lived in Central Asia (Table 1).



**Table 1. Area and populations at risk of *Plasmodium vivax* malaria**

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001814.t001>

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## ***Plasmodium vivax* Endemicity in the Americas**

Areas endemic for *P. vivax* in the Americas extended to some 9.5 million square kilometers, of which the largest proportion was in the Amazonian region of Brazil. Interestingly, only a relatively small fraction of these areas (15%) exhibited stable transmission, suggesting a polarisation between areas of stable transmission and those where the disease is absent altogether (Table 1). The regions of stable endemicity were found in Amazonia and in Central America – primarily in Honduras – with predicted mean  $PvPR_{1-99}$  exceeding 7% in all three regions. An important feature of *P. vivax* throughout the Americas is that its distribution is approximately inverse to that of the population. This is particularly true in the Amazonian region of Brazil, where the population is concentrated in the coastal and inland areas, while the disease is endemic in the Amazonian region.

populous endemic countries of the region, Brazil and Mexico, and the Americas contributed 53% of the land area experiencing stable transmission, yet they housed only 5% of the global population at that level of risk.

Uncertainty in predicted  $PvPR_{1-99}$  was relatively high throughout the region (Figure 3B). This reflects the heterogeneous landscape of endemicity and the generally scarce availability of parasite rate surveys in the region (Figure 3B). However, when this uncertainty is weighted by the underlying population (Figure 3B), its significance on a global scale is placed in context: because the high-risk areas are sparsely populated, the population-weighted uncertainty was concentrated in parts of Africa and much of Asia.

### ***Plasmodium vivax* Endemicity in Africa, Yemen and Saudi Arabia**

Our decision to assume stable transmission of *P. vivax* in Africa unless biological mask data confirmed otherwise meant that much of the Sahel and Sahara was initially classified as being at stable risk (Figure 2A). However, implementing the MBG predictions of  $PvPR_{1-99}$  throughout this range of transmission intensity *posteriori* those areas likely to fall below an endemicity threshold of 2%. The majority of stable risk areas were downgraded to unstable (Figure 2B). On the final maps, 92% of endemic Africa was at unstable risk, with the majority of stable risk areas in Ethiopia, and parts of South Sudan and Somalia making up most of the remaining stable risk. Even in these areas, endemicity was uniformly low, with point estimates rarely exceeding a point estimate of 2%  $PvPR_{1-99}$ . We augmented the map with an additional overlay mask delineating areas where Duffy negativity prevalence has been predicted to exceed 90% (Figure 2B). The impact of Duffy negativity on the estimated populations at risk is profound: of the 840 million people at risk in areas within which transmission is predicted to occur, only 86 million are at risk, contributing just 3% to the global total (Table 1).

Uncertainty in predicted  $PvPR_{1-99}$  followed a similar pattern to the point estimates and predictions themselves (Figure 3B). Certainty around the very low point estimates covering most of the continent was extremely high – reflecting the precision gained by incorporating the Duffy negativity information to the model. The paucity of *P. vivax* parasite rate surveys on the continent. The point estimates of endemicity in Madagascar and northern East Africa were predicted to be high. In the population-weighted uncertainty map (Figure 3B), the lower point estimates in Madagascar reduced the index on that island whereas the densely populated highlands remained high.

### ***Plasmodium vivax* Endemicity in Central and South East Asia**

Large swathes of high endemicity, very large population densities and the presence of Duffy negativity combine to make the central and southern regions of Asia by far the most globally significant for *P. vivax*. We estimate that these regions contributed nearly half (46%) of the global population at risk, and two-thirds of the population at stable risk. China is another major contributor with 19% of the global population at risk, primarily in unstable transmission regions, whilst Indonesia and Palau

contributed a further 12%. Within regions of stable transmission, endemicity was found to be extremely heterogeneous (Figure 2B). Areas where the point estimate of endemicity exceeded 7% were found in small pockets of India, Myanmar, Indonesia, and the Philippines, with the largest such region located in Papua New Guinea.

The uncertainty map (Figure 3A) reveals how the most precise predictions were associated with areas of uniformly low endemicity and abundant surveillance data, such as Afghanistan and parts of Sumatra and Kalimantan in Indonesia. Countries with higher or more heterogeneous endemicity, such as throughout the Americas, were the most uncertain. The population-weighted uncertainty map (Figure 3B) was also substantively, indicating how the populous areas of Indonesia, for example, were relatively precisely predicted whereas India, China, and the Philippines had high per-capita uncertainty.

## Discussion

The status of *P. vivax* as a major public health threat affecting the world's poorest regions is becoming increasingly well documented. The mantra of *P. vivax* as a very rarely threatening and relatively benign disease [7], [10] has been challenged by evidence suggesting that it can contribute a significant proportion of malaria-related disease and death attributable to malaria in some settings [61]. Some studies have pointed especially to very young children being a major source of transmission [62]. In some hospital-based studies have reported comparable mortality rates for children classified with severe *P. vivax* and severe *P. falciparum* [21], [24], [63]. The growing lethal threat by this parasite comes with evidence of failing chemoprophylaxis during the acute attack [64] and overdue acknowledgement of the practical limitations of the only available therapy against relapse [65]. As the international community increasingly ambitious targets to minimise malaria illness and death, the goal to progressively eliminate the disease from endemic areas [1]–[6], the burden of *P. vivax* becomes increasingly untenable.

Here we have presented the first systematic attempt to map the global distribution of *P. vivax* endemicity using a defined evidence base, transparent methods, and measured uncertainty. These new maps aim to contribute to a more comprehensive appraisal of the importance of *P. vivax* in the broad context of malaria elimination policies, as well as providing a practical tool to support decision-making at national and sub-national levels.

### Interpreting *P. vivax* Endemicity in 2010

In 2010, areas endemic for *P. vivax* covered a huge geographical range across all major continental zones and extending into temperate climates. In regions where important pockets of high endemicity are present, the majority of areas of high transmission coincide with lower population densities, diminishing the impact of the disease on the continent to global populations at risk. In Africa the protection conferred by the lack of negativity to most of the population means the large swathes of the continent where transmission may occur contain only small populations at biological

primarily in Asia where very large populations coincide with extensive regions, and as a result nine out of every ten people at risk of *P. vivax* on the continent.

A number of important contrasts arise when comparing this map with the iteration for *P. falciparum* [28]. Perhaps most obvious are the lower levels of endemicity at which *P. vivax* tends to exist within populations experiencing high transmission. We used a cartographic scale between 0% and 7% to represent variation in *P. vivax* endemicity, although point estimates exceeded 7% in some localised areas. For *P. falciparum* the equivalent scale spanned 0% to 70%, an approximate order-of-magnitude difference in prevalence of parasitemia. In part, this difference reflects the decision to standardise our predicted prevalence range, and values would have been higher if we had opted for the range used for *P. falciparum*. This difference might be accentuated by the faster acquisition of immunity to *P. vivax* than *P. falciparum* in the most highly endemic areas. A number of other biological and epidemiological differences between the two species also mean these lower apparent levels of endemicity must be interpreted with caution. One factor is the lower sensitivities of microscopy and RDT diagnoses for *P. vivax* infection prevalence, because infections tend to be associated with lower parasite densities which increase the likelihood of false negative diagnoses. Studies in both high and low endemic settings have found microscopy to underestimate prevalence by a factor of up to three when compared with molecular methods [69]–[72]. The decreasing cost and time implications of molecular diagnostics mean that these gold standard diagnostic techniques become the standard for large scale surveys in the future. A global map of PCR-positive parasitemia rates would certainly reveal a larger underlying reservoir of infections and, possibly, more distinct differences in patterns of endemicity than we are able to resolve currently using sensitive diagnostic methods.

The lower parasite loads must be interpreted in the context of implications for clinical disease. For example, *Plasmodium vivax* is known to induce clinical disease at comparatively lower parasite densities than *P. falciparum*, a feature associated with inflammatory responses of greater magnitude [16]. *P. vivax* is also comparable to *P. falciparum* in its potential to cause anaemia regardless of lower parasite densities. A combination of dyserythropoiesis and repeated bouts of haemolysis were observed in a hospital-based study at a site in eastern Indonesia of hypo- to meso-endemic transmission of both species showed far lower frequencies of parasitemia among inpatients classified as having not serious, serious, and fatal malaria. The diagnosis of *P. vivax* compared to *P. falciparum* [24]. Further, the major risk factor for describing severe and fatal illness with a diagnosis of *P. vivax* malaria is parasitemia >5,000/uL. In contrast, the World Health Organization threshold for severe illness attributable to hyperparasitemia with *P. falciparum* is >200,000/uL. The relationship between prevalence and risk of disease and transmission for *P. vivax* is distinct from that for *P. falciparum*, and it is weighted more heavily towards higher risks at much lower parasite densities and levels of prevalence of parasitemia.

The capacity of *P. vivax* hypnozoites to induce relapsing infections has

important implications. First, because dormant liver stage infections are not included in routine parasite rate surveys, our maps do not capture the potential of asymptomatic infections sequestered in each population. Evidence that this hidden reservoir may be substantially larger than previously thought, given the latency *P. vivax* phenotypes both prevalent and geographically widespread, contributing to clinical disease until activated, these dormant hypnozoites play a vital role in sustaining transmission since they are refractory to blood chemotherapy and interventions to reduce transmission. Hypnozoite survival ability of *P. vivax* to survive in climatic conditions that cannot sustain asexual transmission. Second, the *P. vivax* parasite rates observed in populations with both new and relapsing infections, although the two are almost never distinguished, This confounds the relationship between observed infection prevalence and transmission intensity such as force of infection or the entomologic index. This, in turn, has implications for the use of transmission models seeking to optimise control options for *P. vivax* [2], [9], [27], [74]. The current unimolecular diagnostic method for detecting hypnozoites [75] and our resulting estimates of size and geographic distribution of this reservoir therefore remain important knowledge gaps limiting the feasibility of regional elimination [9]. It is also worth noting that conventional parasite rate data do not measure multiplicity of infection, an additional potential confounding effect between observed infection prevalence and transmission intensity.

### ***P. vivax* in Africa and Duffy Polymorphism**

Our map of *P. vivax* endemicity and estimates of populations at risk is heavily influenced by a single assumption: that the fraction of the population that is Duffy negative for the Duffy antigen [43] is refractory to infection with *P. vivax*. While empirical evidence is growing, however that *P. vivax* can infect and cause disease in Duffy negative individuals, as reported in Madagascar [76] and mainland Africa [77]–[80] as well as outside Africa [81], [82]. Whether the invasion of Africa via antigen-independent pathways is a newly evolved mechanism, or whether it has been overlooked by the misdiagnosis of *P. vivax* in Africa as *P. ovale* remains unresolved [9], [42], [59]. Whilst this accumulated evidence stands in contrast to the simplifying assumption of complete protection in Duffy negative individuals, currently no evidence to suggest that such infections are anything other than unlikely to have any substantive influence on the epidemiology or incidence of *P. vivax* at the population scale throughout most of Africa. We also note that our model for a protective effect in Duffy-negative heterozygotes, and that such protection has been observed in some settings [83]–[86]. The movement within Africa of human populations from diverse ethnographic backgrounds to contemporary patterns of Duffy negativity and, in principle, could yield populations with substantially reduced protection from *P. vivax* infection in the future. The implications for our map of population movement go beyond the effect of the carriage of parasites from high to low endemic regions, for example, migrant workers, may play an important role in sustaining transmission in some areas. Further research is required to investigate such processes.

## Mapping to Guide Control

There exists for *P. falciparum* a history of control strategies linked to strata of endemicity, starting with the first Global Malaria Eradication [88] and undergoing a series of refinements that now feature in control and elimination efforts. Most recently, stratification has been supported and gained from mathematical models linking endemic levels to optimal control options, and timelines for elimination planning [2], [89]–[95]. For *P. vivax* control options are rarely differentiated by endemicity, and there is no consensus around how this may be done. In part, the absence of a strata of *P. vivax* endemicity stems from the biological complexities and factors that prevent direct interpretation of infection prevalence as a metric of endemicity. It is also to some extent inevitable that the dogma of unstratified control propagating: risk maps are not created because control is not differentiated by endemicity, but that differentiation cannot proceed without reliable

As well as providing a basis for stratified control and treatment, the maps presented here have a number of potential applications in combination with risk maps. First, there is an urgent need to better identify regions where endemicity is coincident with significant population prevalence of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency (G6PDd). This inherited blood disorder precludes the use of primaquine chemotherapy policy for *P. vivax* because primaquine, the only registered drug against the hypnozoite liver stage is contra-indicated in G6PDd individuals and can cause severe and potentially fatal haemolytic reactions [96], [97]. A map of G6PDd prevalence is now available (Howes et al, submitted) which can be overlaid on the endemicity maps presented here to provide a rational basis for control outcomes and setting appropriate testing and treatment protocols. In most clinical infections are managed without differentiating the causal species: combining the endemicity maps for *P. vivax* and *P. falciparum* to inform unified strategies for malaria control programs and policy [28]. For example, that artemisinin-based combination therapy (ACT) be adopted for presumptively diagnosed malaria in areas coendemic for both species, and a separate ACT/chloroquine treatment strategy [98]. Further, in some regions 50% of patients diagnosed with falciparum malaria go on to experience relapse malaria in the absence of risk of reinfection [99]. This high prevalence of relapse malaria also justifies presumptive therapy with primaquine against relapse with *P. vivax* malaria where the two species occur at relatively high frequencies. Specific cross-parasite treatment considerations hinge on robust risk maps for both species.

## Future Challenges in *P. vivax* Cartography

Numerous research and operational challenges remain unaddressed. A key challenge is vital insights into the geographical distribution of *P. vivax* and its impact on human health. Perhaps the highest priority is to improve understanding of the link between infection prevalence and clinical burden in both *P. vivax* mono-endemic settings and in settings coendemic with *P. falciparum*. Official estimates of national and regional

for *P. vivax* remain reliant on routine case reporting of unknown fide crudely distinguished from *P. falciparum* [100]. It is illuminating that endemic countries were able to provide vivax-specific routine case there is a clear mandate for strengthening the routine diagnosis ar cases. Cartographic approaches to estimating *P. vivax* burden can t role in triangulating with these estimates to provide insight into the disease independent of health system surveillance and its attenda [101]–[105]. There is also a particular need to define burden and cl associated with *P. vivax* in pregnancy [9], [106] and other clinically v most notably young children. Linking infection prevalence to clinica need to better understand the contribution of relapsing infections t magnitude of this contribution is known to be highly heterogeneous: pattern is poorly measured and causal factors only partially unders

Further challenges lie in understanding how *P. falciparum* and *P. vivax* human hosts and how these interactions manifest at population lev maps for each species reveals a complete spectrum from areas en parasite through to others where both species are present at broad identifying these patterns of coendemicity is an important first step terms of risks of coinfection and clinical outcomes, antagonistic me elevated severe disease risk, or cross-protective mechanisms of ac remain disputed [20], [107]–[109].

## Conclusions

To meet international targets for reduced malaria illness and death cause of regional elimination, the malaria research and control con longer afford to neglect the impact of *P. vivax*. Its unique biology and present challenges to its elimination that greatly surpass those of it cousin, *P. falciparum*. Making serious gains against the disease will strengthening of the evidence base on almost every aspect of its b control and treatment. The maps presented here are intended to cc They are all made freely available from the MAP website [110] along individual maps for every malaria-endemic country. Users can acce images or download the global surfaces for use in a geographical i allowing them to integrate this work within their own analyses or pr overlays and displays. We will also make available, where permissi obtained, all underlying *P. vivax* parasite rate surveys used in this w

## Supporting Information

### Protocol S1.

#### Updating the global spatial limits of *Plasmodium vivax* malaria tra

S1.1 Overview. S1.2 Identifying Countries Considered *P. vivax* Malari

Updating National Risk Extents with *P. vivax* Annual Parasite Inciden

Masks of Transmission Exclusion. S1.5 Risk Modulation Based on M  
S1.6 Assembling the *P. vivax* Spatial Limits Map. S1.7 Refining Region  
Transmission after MBG Modelling. S1.8 Predicting Populations at R  
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001814.s001>  
(DOC)

### **Protocol S2.**

**The Malaria Atlas Project *Plasmodium vivax* parasite prevalence data**  
Assembling the PvPR Data. S2.2 Database Fidelity Checks. S2.3 Data  
PvPR Input Data Set. S2.5 Age-Standardisation. S2.6 Regionalisation  
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001814.s002>  
(DOC)

### **Protocol S3.**

**Bayesian model-based geostatistical framework for predicting PvPR**  
Inference. S3.2 Model Overview. S3.3 Formal Presentation of Model.  
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001814.s003>  
(DOC)

### **Protocol S4.**

**Model validation procedures and additional results.** S4.1 Creation of  
Procedures for Testing Model Performance. S4.3 Validation **Results**  
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001814.s004>  
(DOC)

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## Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: PWG SIH. Performed the  
APP DLS. Analyzed the data: PWG APP DLS IRFE CAG KEB. Contribute  
reagents/materials/analysis tools: IRFE CLM CAG MFM KEB APP AJT R  
IMJKB. Wrote the paper: PWG.

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