

1 **Geohelminth infections and Nutritional Status of Mbororo Children 2 - 15 years**  
2 **in the Bafmeng Health Area, North West Cameroon**

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 **Background**

17 Geohelminth infections are endemic in Cameroon affecting millions of people and have serious  
18 nutritional and developmental effects especially among children.

19 **Aims:**There is paucity of information on the prevalence, risk factors and nutritional effect of  
20 geohelminths on minority nomadicMbororocommunities in Cameroon, which is addressed herein  
21 amongst children 2-15 years in the BafmengHealth Area.

22 **Materials andMethods**

23 Across-sectional community basedstudy was conducted between April 2021 and June 2021 in which  
24 263 children, within the age 2-15 years were randomly recruited and a structured questionnaire was  
25 administered to them and their caregivers to obtainsocio-demographic data, hygienic practices and  
26 knowledge of caregivers regarding geohelminth infections. A single-stool samplewas obtained from  
27 each child and analyzed using the Kato-Katz technique and anthropometric measurements were also  
28 obtained and usedto compute nutritional indices using the World Health Organization Anthro

29 software. Bivariate and multivariate logistic regression were used to identify risk factors of  
30 geohelminth infections.

### 31 **Results**

32 The prevalence of geohelminth infections was 14.4% (38); *Ascaris lumbricoides* (11.41%), *Trichuris*  
33 *trichuira* (2.7%), and hook worm (0.4%). A total of 61.2% (161) of the children were malnourished;  
34 underweight (28.5%), stunting (19.0%), severe stunting (11.0%), severely underweight (1.9%), and  
35 wasting (0.8%). Geohelminth infection was not associated with nutritional status ( $P=0.4$ ) but it was  
36 significantly ( $p=0.004$ ) associated with males (21.9%) than females (8.7%). The use of unsafe water  
37 ( $P=0.03$ , AOR: 2.01, CI: 1.04 - 1.77) and dumping of waste around the compound ( $P=0.01$ ,  
38 AOR=1.35, CI: 0.13 - 0.95) were risk factors significantly associated with geohelminth infection.  
39 Majority of the caregivers (75.3%) had good knowledge on the transmission and prevention of  
40 geohelminths.

### 41 **Conclusion**

42 On a whole, the prevalence of geohelminth infection is low and malnutrition is high amongst  
43 Mbororo children. Long-term control strategies should focus on improvements on environmental  
44 hygiene, provision of portable water along side nutritional interventions.

### 45 **Keywords**

46 Geohelminth Infections, Nutritional Status, Mbororo children, Bafmeng Health Area

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### 50 **Abbreviations:**

51 BAZ: Body Mass Index for A

52 HAZ: Height for Age

53 PSAC: Pre-School Age Children

54 SAC: School Aged Children

55 SD: Standard Deviation  
56 WASH: Water, Hygiene and Sanitation  
57 DALYS: Disability-Adjusted Life Years  
58 BHA: Bafmeng Health Area  
59 W.H.O: World Health Organization  
60 WAZ: Weight for Age  
61 WHZ: Weight for Height  
62 COR: Crude odd ratio  
63 AOR: adjusted odd ratio

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## 66 INTRODUCTION

67 Geohelminth infections affect billions of people with serious human, social and monetary burden especially in  
68 countries of the tropics [1]. Many people are usually infected by multiple pathogens and infections are  
69 noticeably attributed to unsafe water, inadequate sanitation and poor housing conditions [2]. Transmission is  
70 often by ingestion of ova found in contaminated soil or water for *Ascaris lumbricoides*, *Trichuris trichiura*  
71 while hookworm infection (*Ancylostoma duodenale* and *Necator americanus*) is by skin penetration, and they  
72 constitute the most common causes of geohelminth infection [3]. Globally, over 2 billion people have been  
73 affected by geohelminths [4] and a further 4 billion people are estimated to be at risk [5]. In 2017, the global  
74 burden of the disease was estimated at 1.9 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) [6].

75 The disease is endemic in Cameroon affecting over 10 million people and is common amongst countryside  
76 dwellers especially in children between 5 – 15 years [7]. Geohelminths have been known to cause alteration in  
77 the normal human gastrointestinal flora and aggravation of nutritional disturbances either by reducing food  
78 intake and/or increasing nutrient wastage through vomiting, diarrhea, or blood loss [8]. These intestinal worms  
79 have been shown to play a significant role in childhood malnutrition, leading to growth retardation, cognitive

80 impairment, and poor academic performance, resulting in a poorer quality of life and less ability to contribute  
81 to society [9].

82 The national prevalence of geohelminthiasis in Cameroon stood at 20.6% and the national prevalence of  
83 moderate to heavy infection intensity of the disease was 2.8% in 2018 [10]. In Cameroon, there are about 9.02  
84 million pre-school age children (PSAC) and school age children (SAC) in need of preventive chemotherapy  
85 [11]. Data regarding geohelminth infections and malnutrition in minority and pastoralist communities like the  
86 Mbororos in Cameroon is unavailable. The indigenous Mbororos constitute a significant proportion inhabiting  
87 hard to reach rural settings, which makes it difficult to achieve regular prophylactic chemotherapy amongst  
88 PSAC and SAC. Their environment usually presents unique challenges, such as lack of portable drinking  
89 water and when tap water is available they are usually far away from the homes, which increases the risk of  
90 contamination with geohelminth during transportation. Children usually practice poor personal hygiene such as  
91 not washing their hands after visiting the toilet or before eating, eating unwashed fruits and vegetables,  
92 consume unpasteurized milk, practice geophagy and move about barefooted, which increases their risk of  
93 contracting geohelminth infections. Families typically have close and frequent animal contact, a migratory  
94 lifestyle, poor infrastructure, and have limited access to health care facilities, which also increases the risk of  
95 worm infections. Few studies have been carried out in Mbororo communities and current evidence is lacking  
96 with regards to the prevalence, risk factors of geohelminthic infections and its effect on Mbororo children.  
97 This study aimed at providing data on the prevalence of geohelminth infections and nutritional status of  
98 Mbororo children aged 2 - 15 years residing in the Bafmeng health area, North West region of Cameroon.

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## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 102 Study Area

103 The study was carried out in Mbororo communities within Bafmeng Health Area (BHA) under Wum health  
104 district, in the North West region of Cameroon. This health area is a typical rural settlement which is poorly  
105 accessible and harbors many Mbororo settlements. The main health facility providing primary health care  
106 services in the area is the Bafmeng Medicalized Health Center. The BHA lies between longitude

107 10°08'30"E and 10°16'30"E and latitudes 6°20'08" and 6°26'30"N and has an estimated population of  
108 about 18,738 inhabitants [12]. The area has an agrarian-based economy that consists of cattle rearing,  
109 maize, plantain and beans cultivation. Mbororo families, which may be polygamous, live in a  
110 compound made of a collection of mud-brick buildings roofed with either grass or corrugated  
111 aluminum sheets. Each compound consists of a central building where the father, older male children,  
112 and guests live and smaller peripheral buildings for each wife and their younger children. Most of the  
113 homes have latrine and the inhabitants obtain water for domestic chores and drinking from nearby  
114 springs and streams. The major means of transportation is by the use of motorcycles.

### 115 **Study Design**

116 It was a community based cross-sectional descriptive study carried out from April to June 2021, which  
117 targeted Mbororo children aged 2 -15 years and their primary caregivers in Bafmeng health area. This age  
118 group represents the pre-school aged and school aged children who are at high risk of infection with  
119 geohelminths. A simple random sampling technique was used to select five (Kiy, Imo, Iseh, Ipalim and  
120 Hausa Quarter) out of the eight quarters/sub-villages (Kiy, Imo, Iseh, Ipalim, Hausa Quarter, Akain,  
121 Nyos and Aloha) that were included in the study. The name of each quarter/sub-village was written in a  
122 separate piece of paper. Each piece of paper was then twisted and put in a box; the papers were then  
123 thoroughly mixed and six papers were randomly picked. The name of each of the randomly selected  
124 quarter/sub-village was recorded in a sheet of paper. In each quarter/sub-village, Mbororo  
125 settlements were conveniently selected based on the population density and accessibility or nearness  
126 to a motorable road to enable easy transportation of stool samples to the health facility for analysis.  
127 Since these settlements were dispersed, all the households in each selected settlement were included  
128 in the study to enable the attainment of the targeted sample size. One child was selected in each  
129 household and in case there was more than one child that met the inclusion criteria in a household, a  
130 simple random technique was used to select the child for the study. In polygamous homes, one child  
131 was selected if all the family members shared a common meal and were under the responsibility of  
132 the head of the household, otherwise they were considered separate households and a child was

133 selected from each of the households. Anthropometric measurements and stool sample was obtained  
134 from the recruited child and a questionnaire was administered to the child and his or her caregiver.  
135 Children who were ill or who had lived in the study area for less than a month or who took anti-parasitic  
136 medications less than a month before the study were excluded.

### 137 **Sample size**

138 The sample size was determined using the Fischer's formula. A prevalence of geohelminths among  
139 children obtained from a previous study carried out in a rural community within the North West  
140 Region of 19% [13] was used in the calculation and a sample size of 240 was obtained. Assuming a  
141 non-response rate of 10%, the targeted sample size was 270.

### 143 **Ethical Consideration**

144 This study was ethically approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Faculty of Health Sciences,  
145 University of Buea (Ref. No.2021/138804/UB/SG/IRB/FHS). Administrative clearance was obtained from the  
146 Regional Delegation of Public Health for the North West region, (Ref. No. 125/ATT/NWR/RDPH/BRIGAD)  
147 and written informed consent was obtained from the caregivers and assent was obtained from all the children  
148 recruited in to this study.

### 150 **Questionnaire administration**

151 A structured questionnaire was used to collect data using a face-to-face method from each primary  
152 caregiver/child after assent/consent was obtained. The questionnaire was used to obtain data on  
153 socio-demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of primary caregivers/households, hygienic/behavioral  
154 practices of children, information on water and environmental conditions, transmission and prevention of  
155 geohelminth infection. The questionnaire was adopted and modified from previous survey questionnaires from  
156 two studies [14,15]. Participants were met at their homes for questionnaire administration and anthropometric  
157 measurements. Each pair of participant was interviewed separately in a language they best understood (English,  
158 Pidgin English and Fulfulde).

## 159 **Anthropometric Measurements**

160 This was done following the method described by a study in Ethiopia [16]. The procedure for measurement  
161 was explained to the child and caregiver. The child's weight (Kg) and height (cm) were then measured using a  
162 mechanical weighing balance (P.M HANA HK, LTD) with a precision of 1kg and a measuring tape with a  
163 precision of 0.1cm respectively. Children were weighed and measured alone in bare foot and with light  
164 clothing while standing. Children who resisted measurements (mostly 2years old) were weighed together with  
165 the mother or caregiver, the caregiver was then weighed alone and the difference between the two  
166 measurements was recorded as the child's weight.

167 Age, height and weight were then used to calculate the following indicators: a) Height-for age Z-score (HAZ)  
168 to assess stunting; b) Weight-for-age Z-score (WAZ) to assess underweight; c) Height-for-age Z-score (WHZ)  
169 to assess wasting; c) Body mass-index-forage Z-score (BAZ) to assess thinness. Calculations were done using  
170 the WHO AnthroPlus software version 1.0.4 and WHO Anthro software version 3.2.2 (WHO, Geneva,  
171 Switzerland). BAZ was used as a complement to HAZ for children 10 to 15years [17]. Nutritional status was  
172 classified based on the WHO 2007 growth reference in to the following; Stunting:  $HAZ < -2$  SD, Severe  
173 stunting:  $HAZ < -3$  SD; Wasting:  $WHZ < -2$  SD, Sever wasting:  $WHZ < -3$  SD; Under-weight:  $WAZ < -2$  SD,  
174 Severe underweight:  $WAZ < -3$  SD. The weight status of adolescents was evaluated by calculating the body  
175 mass index (BMI)-for-age percentile in comparison to a reference population and was classified as follows:  
176 Normal (5–85th percentile), underweight (<5th), or overweight (>85th) [18]. A child with at least one of the  
177 three (stunting, wasting or underweight) categories of nutritional status was considered malnourished.

## 178 **Collection and processing of stool samples**

179 After filling the questionnaire, a labeled screw capped plastic stool container and an A4 sheet of paper was  
180 provided to the caregiver or child. The procedure for stool collection was explained to the caregiver/child. In  
181 case the child was unable to produce the sample at the time of the survey, the household was revisited for the  
182 sample.

183 The stool was processed on a microscope slide following the Kato-Katz technique [Ref].The slides were  
184 stained with malachite green and examined within 60 minutes of preparation using the  $\times 10$ , and  $\times 40$

185 objectives of the microscope. Two laboratory technicians examined slides that were suspected to have  
186 geohelminths and the ova were counted and reported. The total number of eggs counted were multiplied by 24  
187 (for a 41.7mg template) to obtain the number of eggs per gram of stool. The intensity of geohelminth infection  
188 was classified based on the number of eggs per gram [19].

### 189 **Assessment of knowledge of geohelminths**

191 The assessment of knowledge of prevention and transmission of geohelminthiasis was done by allocating a  
192 score of 1 for a true response and 0 for a false response to each question on knowledge. The total scores were  
193 determined by aggregating the scores from all the correct responses to questions on knowledge. The scores of  
194 the total number of correct responses were then used to determine whether a participant had good or poor  
195 knowledge using the method proposed in a previous study [20].

### 196 **Statistical Analysis**

197 Data from questionnaires was keyed in to Excel version 2013 and exported to SPSS version 25 for analysis.  
198 Data was summarized and presented in frequency tables (categorical variables). The Chi-square test or  
199 Fischer's exact test were used to explore associations between variables. Logistic regression was used to  
200 explore associations between socio-demographic, socioeconomic factors, hygienic practices, and  
201 environmental variables with geohelminth infections. p<0.05 was considered significant and odds ratios at 95%  
202 confidence interval were used to indicate the precision and strength of association.

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## 204 **RESULTS**

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### 206 **Demographic characteristics of study participants**

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208 A total of 280 participants were recruited from the five Mbororo settlements selected for the study (Table 1).  
209 The settlement of Ise had the highest number of participants 88 (33.5%), followed by Ipalim 63 (23.9%) and  
210 the least number of participants came from Hausa Quarter<sup>25</sup> (9.5%). After enrolment, 17 participants  
211 (children) were dropped from the study due to inability to provide stool samples for analysis (n=14) and  
212 recent consumption of worm medications (n = 3). The age of participants ranged from 2 to 15 years (8.17 ±

213 3.83) and 149 (56.7%) of the children were females. Majority (37.6%) of the children were in the aged range  
 214 of 10 – 15 years. One hundred and fifty-seven of the children (59.7%) were out of school.

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 216 **Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of children recruited in the study.**

Variable	Frequency (%)
<b>Age Category (Years)</b>	
PSAC (2 – 5)	83 (31.6)
SAC (6 – 9)	81 (30.8)
Adolescents (10 – 15)	99 (37.6)
<b>Sex</b>	
Male	114 (43.3)
Female	149 (56.7)
<b>Child Schooling</b>	
Yes	106 (40.3)
No	157 (59.7)
<b>Settlement</b>	
Ise	88(33.5)
Ipalim	63(23.9)
Imo	48(18.2)
Kiy	39(14.8)
Hausa Quarter	25(9.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>263(100)</b>

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219 **Socio-demographic characteristics of caregivers**

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 221 The mean age of caregivers was  $34.40 \pm 9.13$ . Majority (95.1%) of the caregivers were housewives and 81.4%  
 222 of them had no formal education (Table 2). More than half of caregivers (89.7%) were married and 52.5% of  
 223 those married were in polygamous homes.

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225 **Table 2. Socio-demographic characteristics of caregivers at the Bafmeng health area.**

Variable	Frequency (%)
<b>Occupation</b>	
House wife	250 (95.1)
Others	13 (4.9)
<b>Marital Status</b>	
Married	236 (89.7)
Separated	10 (3.8)
Widow	17 (6.5)
<b>Marriage type</b>	
Monogamy	138 (52.5)
Polygamy	125 (47.5)
<b>Can read and write</b>	
Yes	47 (17.9)
No	216 (82.1)
<b>Level of Education</b>	
No formal education	214 (81.4)
Primary	35 (13.3)
Secondary	14 (5.3)

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228 **Socio-economic characteristics of caregivers**

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230 | A high proportion (99.6%) of caregivers lived in mud block houses with earthed floors (Table 3). The pit  
 231 | latrine was the most common toilet type (99.6%). More than 90% of homes had no electricity and averagely,  
 232 | more than six persons lived in a household with majority of caregivers earning less than 11000 FCFA per  
 233 | month.

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236 **Table 3. Socio-economic characteristics of caregivers in the Bafmeng health area.**

Variable	Frequency (%)
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<b>Type of house</b>	
Mud block	262(99.6%)
Cement block	1(0.4%)
<b>Type of floor</b>	
Earth	188(71.5%)
Cement	74(28.1%)
Tiles	1(0.4%)
<b>Type of toilet</b>	
Pit latrine	262(99.6%)
Flushing toilet	1(0.4%)
<b>Presence of electricity</b>	
Yes	5(1.9%)
No	258(98.1%)
<b>Ownership of domestic animals</b>	
Yes	254(96.6%)
No	9(3.4%)
<b>Number of persons in the household</b>	
< 6	112(42.6%)
≥ 6	151(57.4%)
<b>Monthly income</b>	
< 11000FCFA	135(51.3%)
≥ 11000FCFA	128(48.7%)

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238 **Behavioral and hygienic practices of Mbororo children**

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240 Majority of the children (91.3%) reported that, they had received deworming medications in the past but not  
 241 within one month from the study date (Table 4). A total of (98.8%) of the children practice hand hygiene and  
 242 (79.8%) of these children consumed unpasteurized milk. Forty six percent of households utilized water from  
 243 springs for drinking and other household chores. Walking barefoot was not a common practice (6.8%) among  
 244 the children in the communities visited.

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249 **Table 4. Hygienic and behavioural practices of Mbororo children surveyed in the BHA.**

Variable	Frequency (%)
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<b>Child dewormed in the past</b>	
Yes	240 (91.3)
No	23 (8.7%)
<b>Hand washing before meals and after defecation</b>	
Yes	260 (98.9%)
No	3 (1.1%)
<b>Use of toilet paper during defecation</b>	
Yes	33 (12.5%)
No	230 (87.5%)
<b>Eating of unwashed fruits and vegetables</b>	
Yes	141 (53.6%)
No	122 (46.4%)
<b>Consumption of uncooked meat</b>	
Yes	74 (28.1%)
No	186 (70.7%)
<b>Consumption of unpasteurized milk</b>	
Yes	210 (79.8%)
No	53 (20.2%)
<b>Walking barefooted</b>	
Yes	18 (6.8%)
No	245 (93.2%)
<b>Untrimmed nails</b>	
Yes	35 (13.3%)
No	228 (86.7%)
<b>Soil eating habits</b>	
Yes	37 (14.1%)
No	226 (85.9%)
<b>Waste disposal site</b>	
Pit hole	54 (20.5%)
Around the house	184 (70.0%)
River	25 (9.5%)

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**Source of drinking water**

Spring	123 (46.8%)
Stream	102 (38.8%)
Public tap	38 (14.4%)

**Water treatment before drinking**

Yes	29 (11.0%)
No	234 (89.0%)

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252 **Prevalence and intensity of geohelminth infection**

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254 The overall prevalence of infection was 14.4% (95%, CI 4.05 to 4.33) Table 5. The most frequent  
255 infection was *A. lumbricoides* (11.4%, 95%, CI: 3.80 to 4.04) followed by *T. trichiura* (2.3%, 95%,  
256 CI 3.79 to 3.85) and hookworm (0.4%, 95% CI 2.40 to 2.41). Less than 1% (0.4) of the infected  
257 children had polyparasitism and all infected children had light intensity infections with mean egg per  
258 gram of stool being 78.3 ±893. The prevalence of geohelminth infection did not vary by age  
259 ( $P=0.910$ ) in this study, although infection occurred mostly in pre-school children ( $n=15$ ). The  
260 prevalence of infection differed significantly by sex ( $P=0.004$ ) and was highest among male children  
261 (21.9%).

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264 **Table5. Prevalence and intensity of Geohelminthiasis among Mbororo children by sex and age.**

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	Sex			Age group (Years)		
	Male n=114	Female n=149	Total n= 263	(2 – 5) n=83	(6 – 9) n=81	(10 – 15) n=99
<b>Prevalence of infection</b>	<b>n (%)</b>	<b>n (%)</b>	<b>n (%)</b>	<b>n (%)</b>	<b>n (%)</b>	<b>n (%)</b>
Any geohelminth	25 (21.9)	13(8.7)	<b>38 (14.4)</b>	14 (16.8)	16 (19.7)	8 (8.1)

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<i>P value</i>	0.004			0.910		
<i>Ascaris lumbricoides</i>	19 (16.6)	11(7.3)	<b>30 (11.4)</b>	13 (15.6)	11 (13.5)	6 (6.1)
<i>Trichuris trichiura</i>	5(4.3)	2(1.3)	<b>7(2.7)</b>	1(1.2)	6 (7.4)	1(1.1)
Hookworm	1(0.8)	0(0)	<b>1(0.4)</b>	0(0)	0 (0)	1(1.1)
<b>Polyparasitism</b>						
<i>A. lumbricoides</i> + <i>T. trichiura</i>	1(0.8)	0(0)	<b>1(0.4)</b>	0(0)	1(1.2)	0(0)
<b>Intensity of any geohelminth</b>						
Light (78.3 ±893)	24 (21.0)	13 (8.7)	<b>37 (14.1)</b>	14 (16.8)	15 (18.5)	8(8.1)

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272 **Prevalence of Malnutrition among study participants**

273 The overall prevalence of malnutrition was 61.2% (95%, CI: 5.28 to 6.50)Table6. The prevalence of  
274 stunting, severe stunting, and wasting was 19.0% (95%, CI: 4.55 to 4.93), 11.0% (95%, CI: 0.48 to  
275 0.7), and 0.8% (3.40 to 3.42) respectively. Underweight was observed in 28.5% (95%, CI: 5.18 to  
276 5.76) and 1.9% (95%, CI: 5.33 to 5.37) of the study participants were severely underweight.

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**Table6. Nutritional status of Mbororo children in the BHA.**

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<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency (%)</b>					
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Malnutrition	
Yes	161 (61.2)
No	102 (36.8)
Stunting (< - 2 SD)	50 (19.0)
Severe stunting (< -3 SD)	29 (11.0)
Wasting (< -2 SD)	2 (0.8)
Underweight (< -2 SD)	75 (28.5)
Severe underweight (< - 3 SD)	5 (1.9)

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282 **Effect of age, sex and Geohelminth infection on nutritional status**

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284 The prevalence of stunting did not differ significantly ( $P=0.1$ ) by sex and PSAC were the most  
 285 stunted (51.8%), compared to SAC (44.4%) and adolescents (0.0%)but this difference was  
 286 statistically significant ( $P=0.2$ ). Underweight was more prevalent among male children(36.8%) than  
 287 in females(25.5%) and this difference was significant ( $P=0.04$ ). Underweight was also more  
 288 prevalent among SAC(40.7%) compared to the other age groups, however this difference was not  
 289 significant ( $P=0.05$ ). The frequency of malnutrition washigher in male children (71.9%) compared to  
 290 their female counterparts (53.0%) but this difference was not significant ( $P=0.09$ ). The SAC had the  
 291 highest prevalence of malnutrition (85.1%). The relationship between helminth infection and  
 292 nutritional status was investigated and chi square analysis showed that there was no significant  
 293 association between geohelminth infections and malnutrition among the study participants ( $P=0.4$ ).  
 294 Out of the thirty eight children who were infected with at least one geohelminth, 29 of them were  
 295 malnourished.

296 **Table 7. Association of age, sex and geohelminth infections with nutritional status of Mbororo**  
 297 **children in the BHA.**

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Parameter	Category	n (%)	Stunting (n=79)	Wasting (n=2)	Underweight (n=80)	Malnourished
	Male	114(43.3%)	40(35.0%)	0(0%)	42(36.8%)	82 (71.9%)

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Sex	Female	149(56.6%)	39(26.1%)	2(1.3%)	38(25.5%)	79(53.0%)
	<i>P value</i>	-	0.10	-	0.04	0.09
Age group (years)	2 - 5	83(31.5%)	43(51.8%)	2(2.4%)	21(25.3%)	66(79.5%)
	6 - 9	81(30.7%)	36(44.4%)	-	33(40.7%)	69 (85.1%)
	10 - 15	99(37.6%)	0 (0%)	-	26(29.2%)	26 (26.2%)
	<i>P value</i>	-	0.20	-	0.050	0.08
Geohelminthiasis	Positive	38(14.4%)	14(36.8%)	1(2.6%)	14(36.8%)	29 (76.3%)
	Negative	225(85.5%)	65(28.8%)	1(0.4%)	66(29.3%)	132 (58.6%)
	<i>P value</i>	-	0.09	-	0.330	0.40

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299 **n:** Frequency, PSAC: 2-5years, SAC: 6-9 years, adolescents: 10-15 years

### 300 **Behavioural, Environmental and Socio-economic risk factors of geohelminth infections**

301 Bivariate analysis revealed that geohelminth infections were significantly ( $P=0.006$ ) associated with  
 302 male children (21.9%) than female children (8.7%) Table 8. Children who consume unpasteurized  
 303 milk were 2.28 times more at risk of geohelminth infection than those who do not. Likewise,  
 304 participants who had the habit of walking barefooted were 2.5 times more likely to be infected with  
 305 geohelminths, than their counterparts who put on shoes. Base on age group, adolescents (8%) had a  
 306 significantly ( $P=0.02$ ) lower prevalence of geohelminth infection than SAC (18.55%). However,  
 307 gender and age group were considered as potential confounders in the model and as such were not  
 308 included in the multivariate analysis. Other variables which showed  $P values \leq 0.25$  in the bivariate  
 309 analysis were used in the multivariate analysis and they were; sex, age group, child schooling or not,  
 310 use of tissue paper when visiting the toilet, consumption of unpasteurized milk, walking barefoot,  
 311 and water source.

312

313

314

315 **Table8. Bivariate analyses of risk factors of geohelminth infections among Mbororo children at**  
 316 **the BHA.**

317

Variable	Category	Geohelminth infection status		Bivariate Analysis, COR (95% CI)	<i>P- value</i>
		Yes n=38	No n=225		
Child sex	Male	25(21.9%)	90(78.9%)	0.35 (0.17 – 0.74)	<b>0.006</b>
	Female	13(8.7%)	135(90.6%)		

Children age group	2 - 5	14(16.8%)	69(83.1%)	0.89 (0.40 – 1.20)	0.420
	6 - 9	15(18.5%)	66(81.4%)	0.38 (0.15 – 0.96)	<b>0.020</b>
	10 - 15	8(8.0%)	91(91.9%)	1	
Child schooling	No	27(17.1%)	130(82.8%)	1.99 (0.92 - 4.31)	<b>0.080</b>
	Yes	10(9.4%)	96(90.5%)	1	
Has received deworming medicine in past.	No	5(21.7%)	18(78.2%)	1.80 (0.62 – 5.20)	<b>0.250</b>
	Yes	32(13.3%)	208(86.6%)	1	
Hand washing before eating and after defecation.	No	0(0%)	3(100%)	0.86 (0.66–1.13)	0.990
	Yes	37(14.2%)	223(85.7%)	1	
Use of toilet paper when visiting the toilet.	No	36(15.6%)	194(84.3%)	5.93 (0.78 – 4.84)	<b>0.080</b>
	Yes	1(3.0%)	32(96.9%)	1	
Consumption of unwashed fruits and vegetables.	Yes	19(13.4%)	122(86.5%)	0.90 (0.44 – 1.80)	0.760
	No	18(14.7%)	104(85.2%)	1	
Consumption of uncooked meat.	Yes	12(16.2%)	62(83.7%)	1.24 (0.59 – 2.63)	0.560
	No	25(13.3%)	162(86.6%)	1	
Consumption of unpasteurized milk	Yes	33(15.7%)	177(84.2%)	2.28 (0.14 – 1.29)	<b>0.130</b>
	No	4(7.5%)	49(92.4%)	1	
Walking barefoot	No	32(13.0%)	213(86.9%)	1	
	Yes	5(27.7%)	13(72.2%)	2.5 (0.13 – 1.16)	<b>0.090</b>
	Yes	5(14.2%)	30(85.7%)	0.98 (0.35 – 2.71)	0.960
Untrimmed nails	No	32(14.0%)	196(85.9%)	1	
	Yes	7(18.9%)	30(81.0%)	0.65 (0.26 – 1.62)	0.360
Child's soil eating habit	No	30(13.2%)	196(86.7%)	1	
	Polygamou s	18(14.4%)	107(85.6%)	0.94 (0.47 – 1.90)	0.880
Family type	Monogamo us	19(13.7%)	119(86.2%)	1	
	No formal education	30(14.0%)	184(85.9%)	1.00 (0.17 – 5.87)	1.000
Caregiver's educational level	Primary	5(14.2%)	30(85.7%)	0.97 (0.20 – 4.50)	0.970
	Secondary	2(14.2%)	12(85.7%)	1	
Number of persons in the household	≥ 6	23(15.2%)	128(84.7%)	1.25 (0.61 – 2.57)	0.520
	< 6	14(12.5%)	98(87.5%)	1	
Caregiver's knowledge on STH transmission and prevention	Poor	8(12.3%)	57(87.6%)	1.22 (0.52 – 2.82)	0.630
	Good	29(14.6%)	169(85.3%)	1	

318

319

320 After adjusting for confounders in the multivariate analysis, it was observed that participants who

321 drank water from unsafe sources such as springs and wells were significantly ( $P=0.03$ ) associated

322 with geohelminth infection (15.1%) than those who drank water from safe source such as tap and

323 bottled water (7.8%) Table 9. Likewise, children who dump dirt around their compound were  
 324 significantly ( $P=0.01$ ) associated with a higher prevalence of geohelminth infection (13.0%), than  
 325 those who through dirt in pit holes (11.1%). However, the highest odds of infection (AOR=5.63, 95  
 326 CI: 0.78 – 4.04) was observed among children who reported of not using a tissue paper when visiting  
 327 the toilet, than their counterparts, but this difference was not statistically significant ( $P=0.08$ ).

328  
 329

330 **Table9. Multivariate analysis of risk factors of geohelminth infections among Mbororo**  
 331 **children in the BHA.**

Variable	Category	Geohelminth infection status		Multivariate Analysis, AOR (95% CI)	P-value
		Yes	No		
Child schooling	No	27(17.1%)	130(82.8%)	1.74 (0.75 – 4.05)	0.190
	Yes	10(9.4%)	96(90.5%)	1	
Has ever received deworming medications in the past	No	5(21.7%)	18(78.2%)	1.75 (0.53 – 5.79)	0.350
	Yes	32(13.3%)	208(86.6%)	1	
Use of toilet paper when visiting the toilet	No	36(15.6%)	194(84.3%)	5.63 (0.78 – 4.04)	0.080
	Yes	1(3.0%)	32(97%)	1	
Consumption of unpasteurized milk	Yes	33(15.7%)	177(84.2%)	1.43 (0.13 – 1.36)	0.150
	No	4(7.5%)	49(92.4%)	1	
Walking barefoot	Yes	5(27.7%)	13(72.2%)	1.38 (0.12 – 1.18)	0.090
	No	32(13.0%)	213(86.9%)	1	
Water source	Unsafe	34(15.1%)	191(84.8%)	2.01 ( 1.04 – 1.77)	0.030
	Safe	3(7.8%)	35(92.1%)	1	
	Around the compound	24(13.0%)	160(86.9%)	1.35 (0.13 – 0.95)	
Waste disposal	River	7(30.4%)	16(69.5%)	0.32 (0.09 – 1.13)	0.070
	Pit hole	6(11.1%)	48(88.9%)	1	

332

333 AOR: Adjusted odds ratio

334 CI: Confidence Interval

335 COR: CRUDE odds ratio

336 1: Comparison group

337

338 **Caregiver's knowledge regarding the transmission and prevention of geohelminth infections**

339 Out of the 263 caregiver's interviewed, majority 198 (75.3%) of them had good knowledge regarding  
 340 the transmission and prevention of intestinal worm infection and 250 (95.1%) of them could identify  
 341 a sign/symptom of worm infection Table 10. However, only 8 (3%) of them knew the different  
 342 species of worms that cause geohelminthiasis and more than half of the caregivers (53.2%) did not  
 343 know that soil eating habits and walking barefoot can lead to geohelminthiasis. Majority of  
 344 caregivers (82.9%) reported that they use concoctions to treat worm infections.

345

346 **Table 10. Caregiver’s knowledge of the transmission and prevention of geohelminth infections.**

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Frequency (%)</b>
<b>Knowledge category</b>	
Good ( $\geq 70\%$ )	198(75.3)
Poor ( $< 70\%$ )	65(24.7)
<b>Causes of worm infection</b>	
Known	8(3.0)
Unknown	255(97.0)
<b>Knows a sign/symptom of worm infection</b>	
Yes	250(95.1)
No	13(4.9)
<b>Knows eating soil and walking barefoot can lead to worm infection</b>	
Yes	123(46.7)
No	140(53.2)
<b>Use of concoctions to treat geohelminthiasis</b>	
Yes	218(82.9)
No	45(17.1)

347

348

349 **DISCUSSION**

350 The overall prevalence of geohelminth infection among Mbororo children in Bafmeng Health Area  
351 was 14.4%, and all infected children experienced light-intensity infections. The low prevalence of  
352 geohelminth infection in this study, can be attributed to the deworming program occasionally  
353 implemented by the ministry of public health in this locality. This finding is the same as the 14.44%  
354 obtained from a similar study carried out in 2018 in Tiko, located in the South West Region of  
355 Cameroon [21]. The results of this study are also in line with previous studies in the North West and  
356 West regions of Cameroon where a prevalence of 18.3% and 11.6% respectively were reported [13]  
357 and [22]. However, the overall prevalence of geohelminth infection was lower, when compared to  
358 values reported by two other studies [23, 24] carried out in some rural localities in the South West  
359 Region of Cameroon, where a higher prevalence of 46.2% and 31.0% respectively was  
360 observed among children. This difference in prevalence can be explained by variations in  
361 socio-economic status, behavioral practices, seasonal differences and frequency of deworming  
362 campaigns.

363

364 *Ascaris lumbricoides* was the most prevalent parasitic worm (11.4%) followed by *Trichuris trichiura*  
365 (2.7%) and hookworm (0.4%). The observation that *Ascaris lumbricoides* was the most dominant  
366 geohelminth, followed by *Trichuris trichiura* and hookworm is in agreement with previous studies  
367 conducted in Loum, located in the Littoral Region of Cameroon [25]. Ascariasis is most common  
368 probably because it is easily transmitted through ingestion of contaminated food or water. The ova of  
369 *A. lumbricoides* is also more resistant to desiccation compared to the ova of other geohelminths. This  
370 increases the chances of contamination and transmission to humans, hence leading to predominance  
371 of the disease. The hookworms (*A. duodenale* and *N. americanus*) had the lowest prevalence (0.4%),  
372 this might be due to the fact that walking barefoot was not a common practice among the children  
373 involve in this study.

374

375 Male children were significantly more infected when compared to their female counterparts (21.9%  
376 vs 8.7%). This can be explained by the fact that, male children are more exposed to outdoor  
377 environments which may be contaminated with helminths ova, due to improper disposal of human  
378 wastes. Children within the age group 6 – 9 years were the most infected (n=16) and they represent  
379 the school aged group which were at a higher risk of contracting the geohelminthiasis. Usually  
380 school age children are usually separated from their parents while in school, but they have a very low  
381 knowledge of hygienic practices which may expose them to infection during their interactions with  
382 one another.

383

384 There was a significantly high levels of malnutrition (61.2%) and underweight (28.5%) was the most  
385 common nutritional disorder. Stunting and wasting had prevalence of 19.0% and 0.8% respectively  
386 and severe stunting and severe underweight among participants was 11.0% and 1.9% respectively.  
387 The high level of malnutrition is similar to what is reported in Cameroon Demographic Health  
388 Survey, where the prevalence of stunted children was 29.0%, wasted 4.0% and underweight 11.0%  
389 [26]. Based on gender, males were more malnourished compared to their female counterparts (71.9%  
390 vs. 53.0%). These data is consistent with the results of similar studies carried out among Fulani  
391 children in Cameroon [27] and Nigeria [28, 29]. The high prevalence may be because these  
392 communities are among the underserved group in terms of access to health services and are  
393 characterized by poor feeding habits. However, females were more malnourished, compared to males  
394 in a study carried out in Fouban [26].

395 A total of 18.0% of all geohelminth infected children were malnourished but there was no significant  
396 association ( $p > 0.05$ ) between geohelminthiasis and nutritional status among the study participants.  
397 This is consistent with the findings of Garba *et al.* [30] in Ngoundere, Cameroon and Meremet *al.*  
398 [31] in Ethiopia. However, contrary to the findings of this study, Moncayo *et al.*, 2018 [32] in rural  
399 Honduras and Mbuh *et al.*, 2013 [33] in Douala, reported that geohelminth infections among children

400 were associated with reduced anthropometric indices. Helminth-induced malnutrition is usually  
401 chronic and associated with moderate to heavy infection intensities of intestinal worms, but the  
402 current study found light infections among all infected participants and this could be the reason for  
403 the absence of significant association of nutritional status with helminthic infection.

404

405 This study identified drinking of unsafe water sources and disposal of waste around the compound as  
406 risk factors significantly associated with STH infections among the study participants. This is in  
407 agreement with the fact that improvements of water hygiene and sanitation facilities and appropriate  
408 health-seeking behavior are essential for achieving sustained control and elimination of STH and  
409 many other NTDs at large [34]. In line with the result of this study, a systematic review and  
410 meta-analysis also stated that "access to piped water was associated with lower odds of *A.*  
411 *lumbricoides* and *T. trichiura* infection" [14]. Children who did not use a tissue paper after  
412 defecation were 5.63 times more at risk of being infected by geohelminths compared to those who  
413 use tissue paper, though this was not statistically significant. These results are similar to that  
414 obtained by Dzuneet *al.*, 2020[35] in a study carried out in Banjoun.

415

416 Over 70% of caregivers had an overall good knowledge on the risks factors and preventive measures  
417 of geohelminthic infection; 95.1% of the caregivers knew at least one sign and symptom of intestinal  
418 worm infection. This was consistent with findings from other studies in Cameroon [36] and Thailand  
419 [37] in 2011 and 2015 respectively. However, these findings were contrary to those of a study carried  
420 out in Nigeria [38], in 2011 which reported that less than half of the participants had appropriate  
421 knowledge. These findings are also contrary to the results of a study carried out in Bangladesh [39]  
422 where a high proportion of caregivers had inadequate knowledge. The difference in these findings  
423 could be explained by increase awareness and sensitization campaign efforts made by health

424 authorities through the creation national control programmes, health information from media and  
425 awareness by health staff and community health workers.

## 426 **CONCLUSION**

427 A low prevalence of geohelminth infection (14.4%) was observed amongMbororo children in the  
428 Bafmeng Health Area, and risk factors for the disease were; drinking of water from unsafe water  
429 sources and discarding waste around the compound.However, a high level of malnutrition (61.2%)  
430 was observed among the children, which comprised of underweight (28.5%), stunting (19.0%),  
431 severe stunting (11%), and wasting (0.8%)but there was no significant association between  
432 geohelminth infection and nutritional status.

433

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## 438 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

439 The authors declare that they no competing interest over this work.

440

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## 444 **AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS**

445 IK: Conceived the topic, Collected the data, participated in writing the proposal, data analysis and  
446 interpretation and contributed in the write-up of the final manuscript. RBN: Conceived the topic,  
447 participated in writing the proposal, data analysis and interpretation and wrote the first draft of the

448 manuscript. TN: Assisted in data analysis and interpretation and contributed in the write-up of the  
449 final manuscript.. All the authors read and approved the final manuscript.”

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