

1 **Title**

2 **Effects of Malaria in the First Trimester of Pregnancy on Poor Maternal and Birth**
3 **Outcomes in Benin**

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28 Using data from a Beninese preconceptional cohort, malaria in the 1st trimester of pregnancy
29 had a direct and negative effect on maternal anaemia late in pregnancy. Repeated infections
30 starting in the 1st trimester tended to increase the low birthweight risk.

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42 **Abstract**

43 **Background.** In sub-Saharan Africa, malaria in the first half of pregnancy is harmful for both
44 the mother and her foetus. However, malaria in the 1st trimester of pregnancy, when women
45 are usually not protected against malaria, has been little investigated. For the first time, we
46 assessed the effects of malaria in the 1st trimester on maternal and birth outcomes using a
47 preconceptional study design.

48 **Methods.** From June 2014 to March 2017, 1214 women of reproductive age were recruited
49 and followed monthly until 411 became pregnant. Pregnant women were then followed from
50 5-6 weeks of gestation until delivery. Path analysis was used to assess the direct effect (i.e.,
51 not mediated by malaria in the 2nd or 3rd trimester) of malaria in the 1st trimester on maternal
52 anaemia and poor birth outcomes. The cumulative effect of infections during pregnancy on
53 the same outcomes was also evaluated.

54 **Results.** The prevalence of malaria infection in the 1st trimester was 21.8%. Malaria in the 1st
55 trimester was significantly associated with maternal anaemia in the 3rd trimester (adjusted
56 odds ratio [aOR]: 2.25, 95% CI 1.11, 4.55). While we did not evidence any direct effect of 1st
57 trimester malaria infections on birth outcomes, their association with infections later in
58 pregnancy tended to increase the risk of low birthweight.

59 **Conclusions.** Malaria infections in the 1st trimester were highly prevalent and have
60 deleterious effects on maternal anaemia. They highlight the need for additional preventive
61 measures starting in early pregnancy, or even before conception.

62 **Key words:** Malaria infection, first trimester, maternal anaemia, poor birth outcomes,
63 preconceptional cohort, Africa

65 **Introduction**

66 Over 125 million pregnancies are exposed to malaria each year, with sub-Saharan Africa
67 (SSA) accounting for 25% of this total burden [1]. While the overall consequences of malaria
68 in pregnancy on maternal and birth outcomes have been well documented [2], the influence of
69 the timing, particularly the effect of infections in the 1st trimester, remains under-investigated.
70 However, this period may be critical for the foetus, since parasite sequestration into the
71 placenta may occur as early as 8 weeks of gestation (wg) [3], with subsequent alterations of
72 placental development and function [4–7]. Furthermore, women are not, or insufficiently,
73 protected against malaria during this period since the recommended strategies—Intermittent
74 Preventive Treatment (IPTp) with sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine (SP) and long-lasting
75 insecticide treated nets (LLITNs) [8]—are usually provided beginning in the 2nd trimester.

76 Most studies have demonstrated malaria's deleterious effects in the first half of pregnancy on
77 maternal and perinatal outcomes [9–12]. Only a few of these assessed malaria in the 1st
78 trimester specifically [13–17], and some have methodological limitations. A study in the
79 largest cohort of women in Southeast Asia found malaria in the 1st trimester of pregnancy to
80 be strongly associated with miscarriage [14], but not with other poor birth outcomes [15].

81 To assess the effect of malaria in the 1st trimester on maternal and birth outcomes, a
82 prospective cohort of women followed from preconception to delivery was established as part
83 of the “REtard de Croissance Intra-utérin et PALudisme” (RECIPAL). We evaluated the
84 effect of malaria infections in the 1st trimester on preterm birth (PTB), small-birthweight-for-
85 gestational age (SGA), low birthweight (LBW) and maternal anaemia in the 3rd trimester of
86 pregnancy.

87 **Methods**

88 **Ethics Statement**

89 This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the “Institut des Sciences Biomédicales
90 Appliquées” and the Ministry of Health in Benin. Before recruitment, the study was explained
91 in the local language to each woman, and her voluntary consent was obtained.

92 **Study design**

93 The study methodology and sample size calculation have been widely described elsewhere
94 [18]. Briefly, women of reproductive age (WRA) were recruited at the community level and
95 followed monthly for a maximum of 24 months until becoming pregnant. The subsample of
96 women who became pregnant was then followed up monthly at study health facilities from
97 early pregnancy to delivery. The study started in June 2014, and follow-up was completed in
98 August 2017. It was conducted in the districts of Sô-Ava and Abomey-Calavi, South Benin,
99 where malaria is hyperendemic [19], and *P. falciparum* is the most common species.

100 *Preconceptional follow-up*

101 Demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, as well as reproductive history and
102 anthropometric measurements, were collected at enrolment. Malaria screening using a thick
103 blood smear (TBS) and haemoglobin (Hb) level determination were performed once at
104 enrolment. Women were then visited at home monthly, where the first day of last menstrual
105 period (LMP) was recorded and a urinary pregnancy test was performed.

106 *Gestational follow-up*

107 As soon as the pregnancy was confirmed, clinical, obstetrical, and anthropometric data were
108 collected monthly until delivery. Pregnant women received a new LLITN at their first
109 antenatal care (ANC) visit; its use was recorded at subsequent visits. Each month, malaria
110 screening was performed using a TBS; proteinuria, glycosuria and urinary infection were

111 detected using a urine dipstick test. Besides, women were encouraged to attend the maternity
112 clinic outside the scheduled visits if symptomatic. A TBS and a rapid diagnostic test (*P.*
113 *falciparum* + pan rapid test SD Bioline Ag®, IDA foundation, the Netherlands; Biosynex®,
114 France) were performed in case of fever or symptoms suggestive of malaria. A venous blood
115 sample was collected in the 1st and 3rd trimesters for Hb determination. The first ultrasound
116 scan (US) for dating the pregnancy was performed between 9–13 wg. The final gestational
117 age (GA) estimation was based either on LMP or first US following INTERGROWTH-21st
118 methodology [20]. TBS and rapid diagnostic test (RDT) were performed in cases of fever or
119 malaria-like symptoms.

120 Newborns were weighed within 1 hour after birth on an electronic digital scale with an
121 accuracy of 2g (SECA, Germany). Maternal, placental and cord blood was screened for
122 malaria using TBS.

123 Women with uncomplicated malaria were treated with oral quinine in the 1st trimester and
124 artemether-lumefantrine in the 2nd and 3rd trimesters. Those with severe malaria received
125 intravenous artesunate until oral medication could be tolerated. Anaemic pregnant women
126 were either treated with oral ferrous sulfate or transfused, depending on the severity. As
127 recommended, IPTp administration was scheduled from the 2nd trimester onward. All
128 medications for acute diseases during pregnancy were paid for by the project.

129 *Laboratory procedures*

130 The Lambaréné technique was used to quantify parasitaemia, with an estimated detection
131 threshold of 5 parasites/ μ L. Slides were read by 2 qualified microscopists [21]. Hb level was
132 measured with a HemoCue®.

133 **Statistical analysis**

134 Our main objective was to evaluate how the timing of malaria infection during pregnancy
135 affected maternal and birth outcomes. The primary outcomes were: LBW (birthweight <2500
136 g), PTB (GA at birth <37 wg), SGA (birthweight <10th percentile for GA using
137 INTERGROWTH-21st charts [22]), and maternal anaemia in the third trimester (Hb
138 concentration \leq 110 g/L). The secondary outcome was a composite of PTB, LBW, SGA, or
139 stillbirth.

140 Malaria infection was defined as either a positive TBS or a positive RDT. Women's exposure
141 was analyzed in two ways: (i) the occurrence of at least of one malaria infection in each
142 trimester of pregnancy (\leq 14 wg, 15-27 wg, and \geq 28 wg, for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd trimester,
143 respectively); and (ii) a composite variable including both the timing and number of malaria
144 infections during pregnancy (women not infected during the entire pregnancy, women
145 infected at least once in the 1st trimester but not later on, women infected both in the 1st
146 trimester and in the 2nd or 3rd trimester, and women infected at least once in the 2nd or 3rd
147 trimester but not in the 1st trimester).

148 First, we studied the association between each maternal and birth outcome and the occurrence
149 of malaria in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd trimesters using path analysis regressions [23,24]. Path
150 analysis allowed us to take into account the chronology of malaria infections during
151 pregnancy in order to assess both the direct and indirect effect (i.e., mediated by malaria in the
152 2nd and 3rd trimester) of malaria in the 1st trimester. The potential confounding factors
153 considered included maternal sociodemographic, medical conditions and obstetrical
154 complications during pregnancy, nutritional status before and during pregnancy, number of
155 ANC visits, number of IPTp intakes and use of LLITN, and rainy season at delivery. Women
156 were classified as underweight (body mass index (BMI) before conception <18.5 kg/m²),
157 normal weight (BMI between 18.5-24.9 kg/m²), overweight (BMI between 25-29.9 kg/m²) or
158 obese (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²). Gestational weight gain was considered normal when between 12.5-

159 18 kg, 11.5-16 kg, 7-11.5 kg and 5-9 kg in underweight, normal, overweight and obese
160 women, respectively [25]. Variables were eliminated step-by-step using the backward
161 selection procedure. Only variables whose *P* value was less than 0.05 were retained.

162 Secondly, we assessed the cumulative effect of malaria infections during pregnancy using the
163 composite variable. The proportion of maternal and birth outcomes was compared between
164 the four groups of women using chi2 (Fisher's exact) test.

165 Stata version 13 for Windows (Stata Corp., College Station, TX) was used for all statistical
166 analyses.

167 **Results**

168 The flowchart (Figure 1) shows that 1214 WRAs were recruited: 411 (33.8%) became
169 pregnant, 359 (29.6%) completed the preconceptional follow-up without conceiving, and 444
170 (36.6%) did not complete it. Of the 411 pregnant women, 273 (66.4%) completed the follow-
171 up until delivery; most of the remaining women had either a miscarriage (17.5%) or withdrew
172 their consent (11.2%). The median GA at miscarriage diagnosis was 7 wg. Maternal age,
173 gravidity, education, socioeconomic status, pre-pregnancy BMI, and malaria and anaemia
174 status before conception were similar between women who completed (n=273) and those who
175 did not complete (n=138) follow-up until delivery (Table 1).

176 *Women's characteristics and malaria infection before and during pregnancy*

177 The median duration of follow-up before conception was 3.9 months (Interquartile range,
178 1.77-7.49). The mean age was 26.8 years and 21.3% were primi- or secundigravidae. More
179 than half of women (57.2%) were anemic before conception and 32.4% had an abnormal
180 BMI. The prevalence of malaria infection before conception was 6.3%.

181 The median GA at the 1st ANC visit was 6.4 wg (range, 2.4-19.3). Women benefited from a
182 mean of 8.9 scheduled ANC visits; 58% were anaemic in the 3rd trimester of pregnancy. The
183 proportion of women with at least one malaria infection, including both scheduled and
184 unscheduled visits, was 43.1%; 22.1% of these infections were symptomatic. Forty women
185 (14.7%) had two or more malaria infections during pregnancy. The geometric mean parasite
186 density among infected women was 757 parasites/ μ L (range: 12–138,600). Women were
187 more likely to be infected with malaria in early pregnancy than before conception (Figure 2).
188 Malaria infection was more prevalent during the 1st trimester than in the 2nd and the 3rd
189 trimesters (21.8% vs. 17.7%, and 14.6%, respectively). The risk of malaria infection
190 decreased steadily from the 1st trimester to the end of pregnancy, with a more pronounced
191 decrease from the middle of the 3rd trimester (Figure 2; score test for trend of odds, P=0.002).
192 The proportion of women with malaria infection in the 1st trimester only, malaria infection in
193 the 1st trimester and in the 2nd or 3rd trimester, and infection in the 2nd or 3rd trimester only,
194 were 12.7%, 9.2%, and 21.5%, respectively. Placental malaria was detected in 6.4% of
195 women.

196 During pregnancy, more than 97% of women declared having slept under an ITN the night
197 before the visit; 62.9% and 13.9% of women received two and three doses of SP-IPTp,
198 respectively. The 1st, 2nd and 3rd dose of SP-IPT were administered at a mean of 23.3 (\pm 4.8)
199 wg, 29.9 (\pm 4.9) wg, and 34.4 (\pm 3.7) wg, respectively.

200 The prevalence of PTB, SGA, and LBW were 8.9%, 20.4% and 9%, respectively. The
201 stillbirth rate was 19.5 per 1000 live births. Overall, 29.7% of newborns presented at least one
202 poor birth outcome (Table 2).

203 *Effect of malaria on maternal and birth outcomes*

204 Placental malaria was significantly associated with LBW (aOR: 5.29; 95% CI, 1.42–19.7).
205 Moreover, the prevalence of LBW was significantly higher among women with several
206 malaria infections during pregnancy compared to non-infected women (30% vs. 10.8%,
207 P=0.01).

208 Using path models adjusted for potential confounders, we showed a significant direct effect of
209 malaria in the 1st trimester on maternal anaemia in the 3rd trimester (aOR: 2.25; 95% CI, 1.11–
210 4.55) (Table 3). We did not evidence any direct effect of malaria in the 1st trimester on PTB,
211 SGA or LBW. We also did not detect any direct effect of malaria in either the 2nd or 3rd
212 trimester except for SGA, which was unexpectedly lower in women infected in the 3rd
213 trimester of pregnancy.

214 Figure 3 presents the crude association between malarial infections by timing and number
215 during pregnancy and adverse pregnancy outcomes. We observed that the proportion of PTB,
216 SGA, LBW, poor birth outcome, and maternal anaemia was highest among women with
217 several infections starting in the 1st trimester. This trend was significant for LBW (Fisher
218 exact test, P=0.002).

219 *Others factors associated with maternal and birth outcomes*

220 Low maternal age, residence in the Sô-Ava district, being illiterate, low socioeconomic status,
221 low pre-pregnancy BMI, low gestational weight gain, short stature, short birth interval, primi-
222 or secundigravidity, and low number of IPTp doses were also significantly associated with a
223 higher risk of poor maternal and birth outcomes (Supplementary Table S1, S2).

224 **Discussion**

225 To our knowledge, this is the first study to assess the effect of malaria in the 1st trimester on
226 maternal and birth outcomes in SSA using a specific study design. Tracking women prior to

227 conception allowed us to detect the earliest malaria infections during pregnancy. Also, GA
228 could be estimated by early ultrasound scan to accurately determine the timing of malaria
229 infections. Moreover, unlike previous studies, we used path analysis to assess the direct effect
230 of malaria in the 1st trimester on pregnancy outcomes, independently of its indirect effect
231 mediated by malaria in the 2nd and 3rd trimesters.

232 We confirmed that microscopic malaria was highly prevalent in the 1st trimester compared to
233 the preconception period, with most infections occurring before 6 wg [26]. The proportion of
234 women infected with malaria was highest in the 1st trimester and decreased as the pregnancy
235 progressed. This result has been reported elsewhere in SSA [27,28] and Southeast Asia [15].
236 In our study, the decrease in malaria prevalence from the middle of the 2nd trimester is likely
237 explained by the administration of IPTp. It is noteworthy that this decrease started far earlier
238 than IPTp administration. One explanation is the high proportion of LLITN use from the first
239 ANC visit. In a previous analysis, we had shown that LLITN use in the 1st trimester was
240 associated with a decreased risk of malaria infection [29]. Another explanation is that monthly
241 malaria screening and immediate treatment of infected women probably contributed to the
242 reduction of malaria prevalence throughout pregnancy. Finally, we cannot exclude the
243 possibility that women could better control pregnancy-associated parasites as the pregnancy
244 evolved [7,30].

245 We found a significant direct effect of malaria in the 1st trimester on maternal anaemia in the
246 3rd trimester. This result agrees with a previous study in the same area, which showed a higher
247 risk of anaemia at delivery in women infected with malaria before 4 months of pregnancy
248 [10]. Women infected both in the 1st trimester and later in pregnancy had the highest risk of
249 anaemia in late pregnancy, suggesting a cumulative effect throughout pregnancy.

250 Our hypothesis that malaria in the 1st trimester had an independent effect on birth outcomes
251 was based on previous studies that reported a higher risk of LBW and foetal growth
252 restriction [9–12], as well as impaired placentation [31,32], in women infected before 4-5
253 months of pregnancy. Few studies have specifically assessed the effect of malaria in the 1st
254 trimester of pregnancy, and these found no association between malarial infections in the 1st
255 trimester and SGA, PTB or LBW [14–17], although one [14] showed a strong association
256 with miscarriage. However, in most studies women were recruited late in the 1st trimester or
257 early in the 2nd trimester with potential misclassifications (categorizing women infected in
258 early pregnancy as non-infected). Additionally, women attending their first ANC visit early
259 may have had particular characteristics such as a high education level or economic status
260 [33,34], leading to selection bias.

261 In our study, we did not find evidence for any direct effect of microscopic malaria in the 1st
262 trimester on poor birth outcomes. However, these infections appeared to contribute to the
263 cumulative effect of malaria during pregnancy on birth outcomes. Indeed, women infected
264 both in the 1st trimester and in the 2nd or 3rd trimester had a significantly higher risk of LBW
265 compared to women infected in the 2nd and 3rd trimester only. This result agrees with previous
266 findings emphasizing the cumulative effect of microscopic malaria infections [35,36].

267 Our study presents some limitations that should be considered. First, the analysis included
268 only 20 (7.3%) primigravidae, who are the most likely to have poor birth outcomes related to
269 malaria. Secondly, we recorded a high number of miscarriages, which partly contributed to
270 the cohort attrition. At the end, birth outcomes were evaluated in only 66% of women, leading
271 to a probable lack of power for the final analyses. Besides, we cannot exclude a survivor bias
272 due to the exclusion of women with a miscarriage from the analysis, although preliminary
273 results do not seem to suggest any effect of early malaria on miscarriage. Finally, regular
274 screening and treatment of infected women may have contributed to reducing both the

275 exposure of women to malaria and the prevalence of malaria infections in early pregnancy.
276 Immediate treatment of—usually undetected—asymptomatic infections, which represented
277 nearly 80% of all infections, is likely to have attenuated the observed effect of 1st trimester
278 infections on maternal and birth outcomes and biased our results toward the null hypothesis.

279 During RECIPAL follow-up, women were also screened monthly for submicroscopic
280 infections using Polymerase Chain Reaction which have been suggested to be associated with
281 adverse pregnancy outcomes [37–39]. Additional analyses are currently ongoing to assess the
282 effect of submicroscopic infections, particularly those occurring in the 1st trimester.

283 IPTp with SP and LLITN are efficacious strategies to prevent malaria in pregnancy, but
284 remain under implemented. In this study, only 14% of women received the three IPTp doses
285 recommended in Benin and IPTp was generally administered late during pregnancy. Our
286 results suggest a cumulative effect of malaria infections starting in the 1st trimester on
287 pregnancy outcomes. These results argue in favour of starting preventive strategies against
288 malaria from the very beginning of pregnancy. The assessment of new safe drugs that could
289 be administered in the 1st trimester is warranted. Also, preconceptional strategies such as
290 vaccination against VAR2CSA-parasites [40] or drug-related strategies administered before
291 conception significant for reducing the prevalence of malaria infections in the 1st trimester.

292 **Conflict of interest.**

293 None declared

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298 **Authors contributions.**

299 A.M, M.C, and V.B conceived and designed the study. A.M and V.B analyzed the data. A.M.,
300 E.Y., G.A., G.C., M.A., B.V., D.S., N.F., A.G., Y.MP, N.FF., D.D., and V.B. contributed
301 reagents/materials/analysis tools. A.M., M.C., and V.B. drafted and finalized the manuscript.
302 The final manuscript was read and approved by all authors.

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420 **Figure legends**

421 **Figure 1.** Study profile

422 * Study completion: follow-up from enrolment until the end of the study (24-month follow-up
423 without pregnancy for women recruited before December 2014 or monthly follow-up without
424 pregnancy for women recruited between December 2014 and December 2016), excluding
425 consent withdrawal, migration and lost to follow-up.

426 **Figure 2.** Variation in risk estimates (odds) of malaria throughout the pregnancy. Risk of
427 malaria infection (solid line) and its 95% confidence interval (dash lines).

428 Abbreviation: BC, before conception.

429 **Figure 3.** Prevalence of poor maternal and birth outcomes according to both the timing and
430 number of microscopic malaria infections during pregnancy. Women infected at least once in
431 the 1st trimester but not later on (12.7%, 33/260), women infected both in the 1st trimester and
432 in the 2nd or 3rd trimester (9.3%, 24/260), women infected at least once in the 2nd or 3rd
433 trimester but not in the 1st trimester (21.5%, 56/260), women without malaria during the
434 whole pregnancy (56.5%, 147/260). The statistical significance of differences between groups
435 was determined using the non-parametric fisher exact test.; * Significant association ($P \leq$
436 0.05)

Table 1. General characteristics of pregnant women of RECIPAL cohort, Southern Benin, 2014-2017

Characteristics		Pregnant women with complete follow-up (n=273)	Pregnant women with incomplete follow-up (n=138)	P value ^{\$}
		Mean [#] (± SD) or %	Mean [#] (± SD) or %	
Age (years)	All participants	26.8 (± 4.9)	26.7 (± 5.3)	0.95
	< 23 y	20.2%	23.9%	0.56
	23-30 y	60.4%	55.1%	
	> 30 y	19.4%	21.0%	
Ethnic group	Toffin	74.3%	70.3%	0.65
	Fon	7.7%	8.0%	
	Aïzo	12.9%	17.4%	
	Others ^a	5.1%	4.3%	
Education	Illiterate	71.4%	68.8%	0.65
Socioeconomic status*	Low	34.8%	32.6%	0.43
	Middle	38.5%	44.9%	
	High	26.7%	22.5%	
Gravidity	1	7.4%	9.4%	0.16
	2	13.9%	20.3%	
	≥3	78.7%	70.3%	
ITN possession	Yes	97.1%	95.7%	0.57
Pre-pregnancy BMI (kg/m ²)	All participants	22.8 (± 4.2)	23.5 (± 4.7)	0.14
	< 18.5	9.2%	10.1%	0.14
	18.5-25	67.6%	58.0%	
	≥ 25	23.2%	31.9%	
Anaemia before conception	Yes	57.2%	48.5%	0.12
Median (range) gestational age at the first ANC visit (weeks) ^b	All participants	6.4 (2.4-19.3)	6.2 (2.3-15.4)	0.42
Number of ANC visits during pregnancy ^c	All participants	8.9 (± 1.8)	-	-
Number of unscheduled ANC visits	All participants	2.1 (± 1.3)	-	-

Table 1. General characteristics of pregnant women of RECIPAL cohort, Southern Benin, 2014-2017 (Continued)

Characteristics		Pregnant women with complete follow-up (n=273)	Pregnant women with incomplete follow-up (n=138)	P value ^{\$}
		Mean [#] (± SD) or %	Mean [#] (± SD) or %	
Number of IPTp doses	All participants	1.8 (± 0.7)	-	-
	0	3.7%	-	-
	1	19.5%	-	-
	2	62.9%	-	-
	≥ 3	13.9%	-	-
HIV status	Positive	1.5%	1.4%	0.87
Anaemia in the 3 rd trimester of pregnancy	Yes	58.1%	-	-
Anaemia during pregnancy	≥ 1 episode(s)	69.5%	-	-
Gestational weight gain [†]	Adequate	28.7%		
	Lower than recommended	62.1%		
	Higher than recommended	9.2%		
Gestational hypertension	≥ 1 episode(s)	2.6%	-	-
Short stature (height < 155 cm)	Yes	27.9%	31.2%	0.49
Malaria infection before conception	Yes	6.3%	5.1%	0.82
Malaria infection during pregnancy	≥ 1 episode(s)	43.1%	-	-
	1 st trimester	21.8%	-	-
	2 nd trimester	17.7%	-	-
	3 rd trimester	14.6%	-	-
Clinical malaria infection during pregnancy ^d	≥ 1 episode(s)	22.1%	-	-
Placental malaria infection	Yes	6.4%	-	-

Abbreviations: SD, standard deviation; IQR, interquartile range; ITN, insecticide-treated bed net; BMI, body mass index; ANC visit, antenatal care visit.

^{\$} Student's t-test and χ^2 test were used for comparing continuous and categorical variables, respectively

[#] Arithmetic mean

* Socioeconomic status was approximated using a synthetic score combining occupation and ownership of assets, which was then categorized according to the tertiles.

[†] Gestational weight gain was considered as adequate when the total weight gain during pregnancy was between 12.5-18 kg, 11.5-16 kg, 7-11.5 kg and 5-9 kg in underweight women (pre-pregnancy BMI < 18.5 kg/m²), normal weight women (pre-pregnancy BMI between 18.5 and 24.9 kg/m²), overweight women (pre-pregnancy BMI between 25.0 and 29.9 kg/m²) and obese women (pre-pregnancy BMI ≥ 30 kg/m²), respectively. Above and under these ranges, it was considered as "higher than recommended" and "lower than recommended", respectively (IOM guidelines, 2009)

(^a) Other ethnic groups: Yoruba, Adja, Goun, Ahoussa, Cotafon, Mahi, Sahoue; (^b) Nonparametric equality-of-medians test was used for comparison. Gestational age was estimated using ultrasound scan or last menstrual period; (^c) Including both scheduled and unscheduled visits; (^d) Positive thick blood smear or rapid diagnostic test with an axillary temperature ≥ 37.5°C or history of fever in the last 24 hours

Table 2. Characteristics at birth of the 273 newborns* included in the analysis. RECIPAL cohort, Southern Benin, 2014-2017

Characteristics		Mean [#] (± SD) or %
Gender	Male	52.9%
Stillbirth	Per 1000 live births	19.5
Preterm birth (< 37 weeks) [£]	Yes	8.9%
Small birthweight for gestational age ^{‡ †}	Yes	20.4%
Birthweight (g) [‡]		3028.7 (± 414.2)
	< 2500	9.0%
Birth length (cm)		48.3 (± 2.6)
Birth head circumference (cm)		34.0 (± 1.5)
Positive thick blood smear in cord blood	Yes	0.9%
Poor birth outcome ^{‡ §}	Yes	29.7%

* Low birthweight and small birthweight for gestational age (N=256), preterm birth (N=268), poor birth outcome (N=273)

[#] Arithmetic mean.

[£] Twins included

[‡] Stillbirths and twins were excluded for estimating the prevalence of low birthweight and small birthweight for gestational age.

[†] Small birthweight for gestational age: < 10th percentile of birthweight for gestational age using INTERGROWTH-21st charts.

[§] Stillbirth, preterm birth, small birthweight for gestational age or low birthweight.

Table 3. Effect of malaria according to the timing of infections during pregnancy on maternal anaemia and poor birth outcomes. Multivariate analysis using path analysis*

Microscopic malaria infection	% of maternal anaemia ^{&#}	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
		OR	95% CI	<i>P</i>	aOR	95% CI	<i>P</i>
1st trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 204)	54.9	1			1		
Yes (N= 58)	74.1	2.35	(1.23, 4.51)	0.01	2.25	(1.11, 4.55)	0.02
2nd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N = 220)	57.3	1			1		
Yes (N = 47)	63.8	1.32	(0.69, 2.53)	0.41	1.01	(0.49, 2.03)	0.99
3rd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N = 227)	56.8	1			1		
Yes (N = 38)	71.1	1.86	(0.88, 3.94)	0.10	1.44	(0.65, 3.19)	0.37
Microscopic malaria infection	% of preterm birth [†]	OR	95% CI	<i>P</i>	aOR	95% CI	<i>P</i>
1st trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 204)	8.3	1			1		
Yes (N= 58)	10.3	1.27	(0.48, 3.38)	0.63	0.93	(0.34, 2.56)	0.90
2nd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 220)	9.1	1			1		
Yes (N= 47)	8.5	0.93	(0.30, 2.86)	0.90	0.77	(0.24, 2.46)	0.66
3rd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 227)	9.2	1			1		
Yes (N=38)	7.9	0.84	(0.24, 2.97)	0.79	0.60	(0.16, 2.21)	0.44
Microscopic malaria infection	% of SGA [‡]	OR	95% CI	<i>P</i>	aOR	95% CI	<i>P</i>
1st trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 196)	21	1			1		
Yes (N= 54)	18.5	0.85	(0.40, 1.84)	0.67	0.72	(0.31, 1.66)	0.43
2nd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 212)	19.4	1			1		
Yes (N= 43)	25.6	1.42	(0.66, 3.96)	0.36	1.35	(0.58, 3.1)	0.48
3rd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 215)	22.8	1			1		
Yes (N= 38)	8.1	0.30	(0.09, 1.01)	0.06	0.24	(0.06, 0.86)	0.03

Table 3. Effect of malaria according to the timing of infections during pregnancy on maternal anaemia and poor birth outcomes. Multivariate analysis using path analysis* (Continued)

Microscopic malaria infection	% of low birthweight [§]	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
		OR	95% CI	<i>P</i>	aOR	95% CI	<i>P</i>
1st trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 196)	8.7	1			1		
Yes (N= 54)	11.1	1.30	(0.49, 3.50)	0.59	1.10	(0.38, 3.0)	0.90
2nd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 212)	9.0	1			1		
Yes (N= 43)	9.3	1.03	(0.33, 3.21)	0.95	0.78	(0.24, 2.57)	0.69
3rd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 215)	9.3	1			1		
Yes (N= 38)	8.1	0.86	(0.24, 3.05)	0.82	0.65	(0.17, 2.43)	0.52
Microscopic malaria infection	% of poor birth outcome ^{£§}	OR	95% CI	<i>P</i>	aOR	95% CI	<i>P</i>
1st trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 208)	21.6	1			1		
Yes (N= 58)	21.1	0.97	(0.50, 1.87)	0.93	0.83	(0.41, 1.68)	0.61
2nd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 223)	15.8	1			1		
Yes (N= 48)	20.5	1.38	(0.70, 2.71)	0.35	1.24	(0.61, 2.56)	0.55
3rd trimester of pregnancy							
No (N= 228)	17.0	1			1		
Yes (N= 39)	9.2	0.49	(0.20, 1.18)	0.11	0.44	(0.18, 1.09)	0.08

Abbreviations: OR, odds ratio; aOR, adjusted odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; SGA, small birthweight for gestational age

* Influence of the timing of malaria infections was assessed on 256 pregnant women for low birthweight and SGA, on 268 pregnant women for preterm birth and maternal anaemia and on 273 pregnant women for poor birth outcome. The multivariate analysis was adjusted for the number of antenatal care visits using an "offset option". Reference class was absence of malaria infection.

& Maternal anaemia in the 3rd trimester of pregnancy was defined as a haemoglobin level < 110 g/L ; it was assessed at a mean of 33 weeks of gestation (range 24.2-40.4)

Adjusted for maternal age, education, residence area, gravidity, household density, birth interval, number of antenatal care visits, anaemia in the 1st trimester of pregnancy and socioeconomic status.

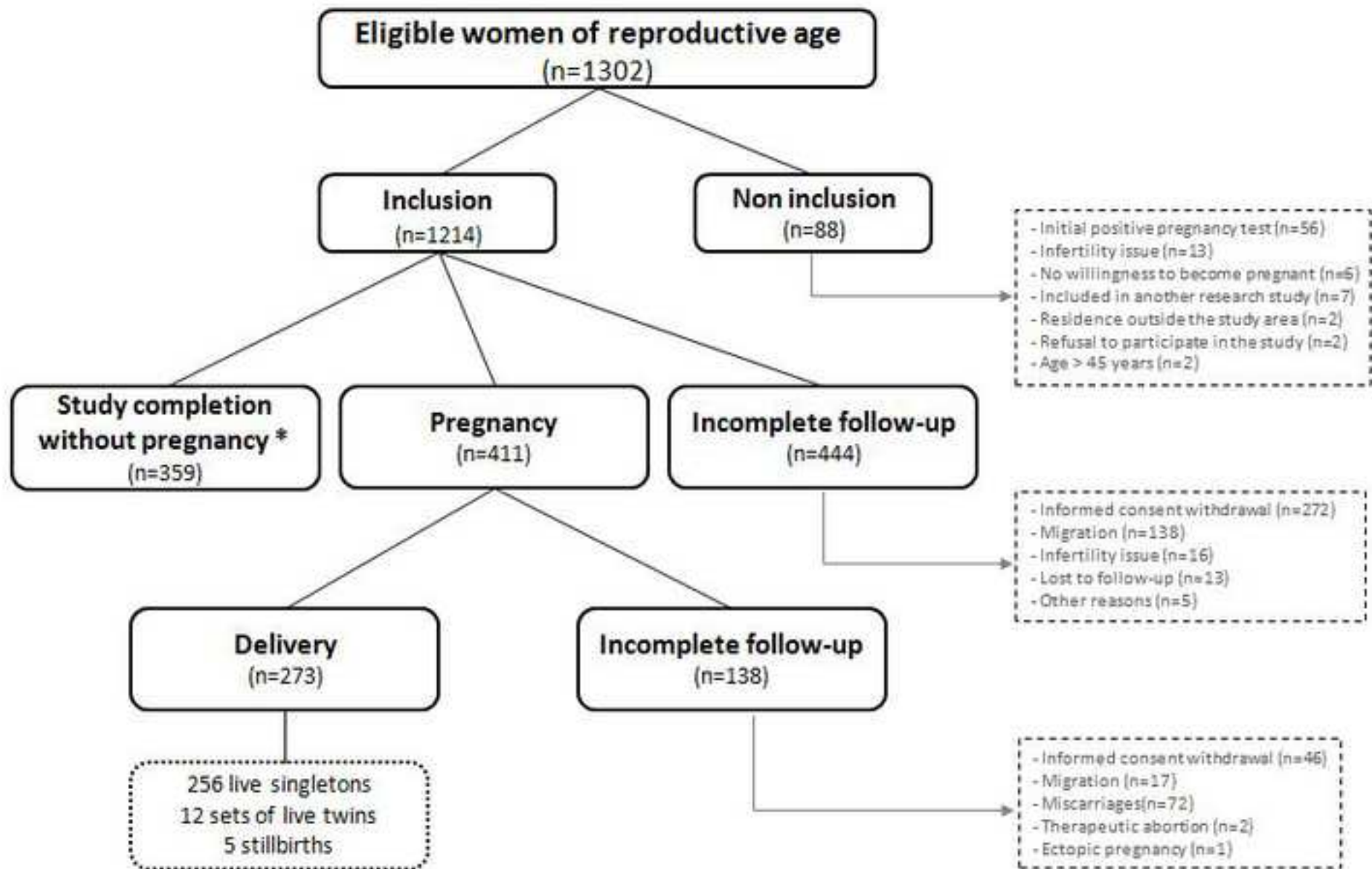
† Adjusted for residence area, socioeconomic status, maternal nutritional status, urinary infection and number of IPTp intakes.

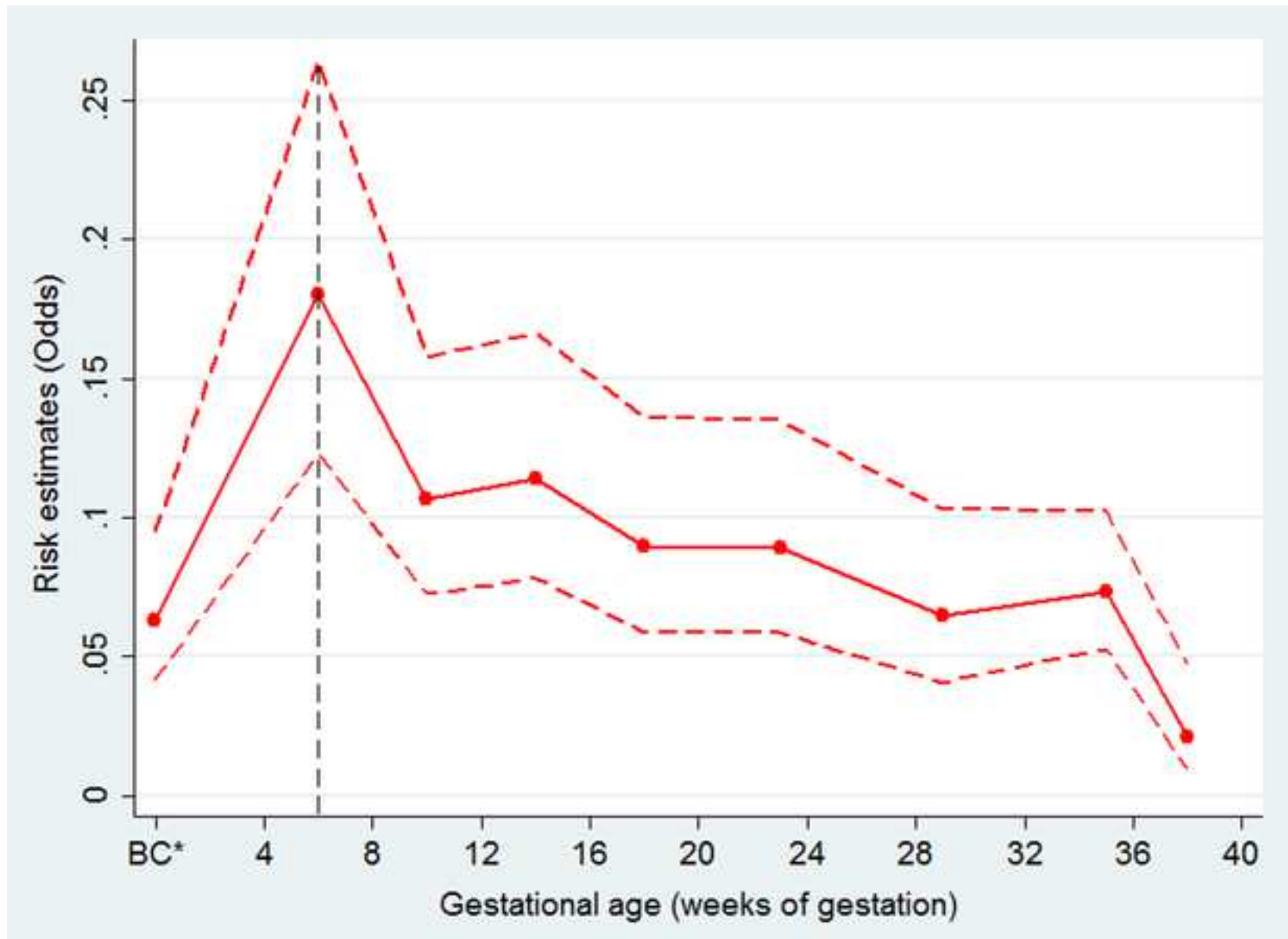
‡ Adjusted for residence area, maternal age, marital status, education, maternal short stature, birth interval, maternal anaemia and number of antenatal care visits.

§ Adjusted for maternal age, gravidity, birth interval, pre-pregnancy body mass index, newborn's sex and number of antenatal care visits

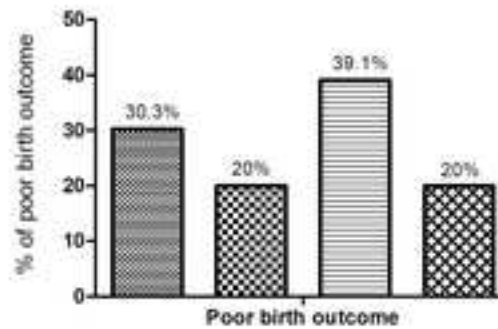
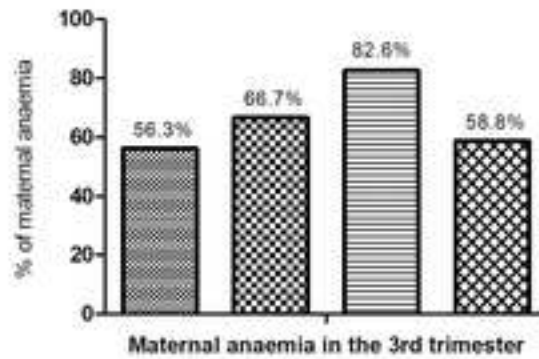
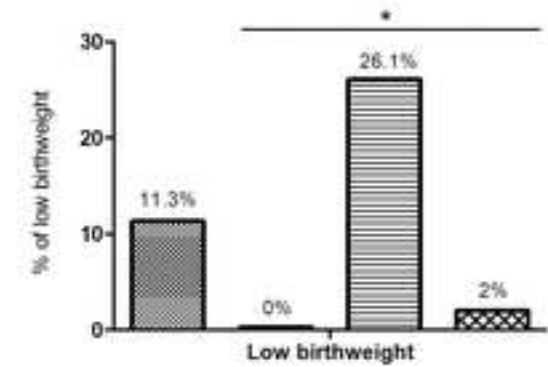
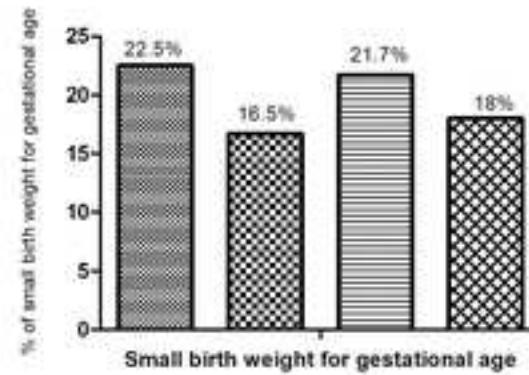
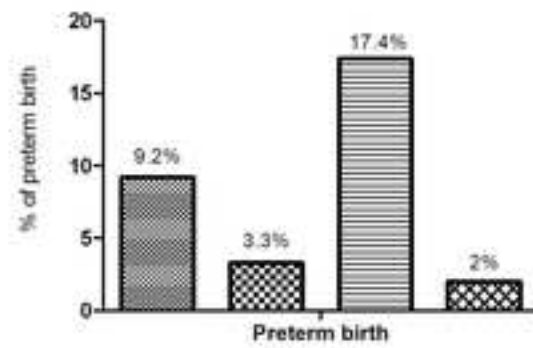
£ Adjusted for residence area, maternal age, birth interval, maternal short stature, maternal anaemia, number of IPTp doses and number of antenatal care visits

§ Stillbirth, preterm birth, SGA (using INTERGROWTH-21st charts) or low birthweight.





Gestational age	BC	6	10	14	18	23	29	35	38
Cases	24	31	28	30	24	24	19	38	6
Controls	382	172	262	263	268	270	293	517	285
Odds	0.06	0.18	0.11	0.11	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.07	0.02
Lower odds	0.04	0.12	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.01
Upper odds	0.09	0.26	0.16	0.17	0.14	0.13	0.10	0.10	0.04
Odds ratio	1	2.87	1.70	1.81	1.42	1.41	1.93	1.17	0.33



- No malaria infection during the whole pregnancy
- ▨ Malaria infection in the 1st trimester
- ▤ Malaria infection in the 1st and 2nd or 3rd trimester
- ▩ Malaria infection in the 2nd or 3rd trimester

Supplementary Table S1. Additional analysis. Logistic regression on maternal and sociodemographic factors associated with maternal anaemia in the 3rd trimester of pregnancy (N=273)

Factors	% of maternal anaemia*	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis [‡]			
		OR	95% CI	P	aOR	95% CI	P	
Maternal age (years)								
	23-30	50.9%	1		1			
	< 23	77.8%	3.37	1.65-6.87	0.003	3.48	1.62-7.47	0.006
	> 30	60.4%	1.47	0.78-2.76		1.37	0.68-3.74	
Residence area								
	Akassato	42.6%	1					
	Sô-Ava	63.5%	2.34	1.34-4.09	0.003			
Education level								
	Literate	48.1%	1		1			
	Illiterate	62.3%	1.79	1.04-3.05	0.03	1.82	1.01-3.31	0.05
Gravidity								
	Multigravidae	56.8%	1					
	Primigravidae	75.0%	2.28	0.80-6.45	0.12			
Birth interval								
	> 12 months (in multigravidae)	54.1%	1					
	0-12 months (in multigravidae)	56.2%	0.92	0.45-1.85	0.10			
	No previous pregnancy (primigravidae)	76.7%	2.56	1.05-6.23				
Socioeconomic status								
	High	50.0%	1					
	Middle	54.9%	1.21	0.66-2.23	0.05			
	Low	68.1%	2.13	1.13-4.02				
Household density*								
	< 5	52.5%	1					
	≥ 5	64.6%	1.65	1.01-2.70	0.05			
Anaemia in the 1 st trimester of pregnancy								
	No	44.4%	1			1		
	Yes	75.0%	3.75	2.21-6.36	<0.001	3.63	2.09-6.30	<0.001

Supplementary Table S1 (continued)

Factors	% of maternal anaemia ^{&}	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
		OR	95% CI	<i>P</i>	aOR	95% CI	<i>P</i>
Malaria during pregnancy	No	50.9%	1			1	
	≥ 1 episode(s)	67.8%	2.03	1.22-3.35	0.01	1.94	1.11-3.37
Timing of malaria infections	No infection	54.4%	1				
	In the 1 st trimester only	69.7%	1.92	0.86-4.33	0.05		
	In the 2 nd or 3 rd trimester only	59.3%	1.22	0.65-2.29			
	In the 1 st trimester and 2 nd or 3 rd trimester	83.3%	4.18	1.36-12.8			

Abbreviations: OR, odds ratio; aOR, adjusted odds ratio; CI, confidence interval

£ Final model after backward selection procedure

* Household density: number of people living in the household

& Maternal anaemia in the 3rd trimester of pregnancy was defined as an haemoglobin level < 110 g/L

Supplementary Table S2. Additional analysis. Logistic regression on maternal and gestational factors associated with low birthweight (N=256)

Factors		% of LBW	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
			OR	95% CI	P	aOR	95% CI	P
Maternal age (years)	23-30	7.2%	1					
	< 23	17.0%	2.62	1.02-6.74	0.08			
	> 30	6.0%	0.82	0.22-3.05				
Gravidity	Multigravidae	8.1%	1					
	Primigravidae	20.0%	2.84	0.86-9.35	0.09			
Birth interval	> 12 months (in multigravidae)	6.8%	1			1		
	0-12 months (in multigravidae)	8.6%	1.28	0.35-4.76	0.02	1.24	0.25-6.09	0.04
	No previous pregnancy (primigravidae)	24.1%	4.36	1.57-12.1		4.17	1.33-13.0	
Pre-pregnancy BMI (kg/m ²)	18.5-25	9.7%	1					
	≤ 18.5	18.2%	2.06	0.63-6.81	0.13			
	≥ 25	3.4%	0.33	0.07-1.48				
Gender	Male	6.6%	1					
	Female	26.7%	5.12	1.44-18.1	0.01			
Placental malaria	No	6.6%	1			1		
	Yes	26.7%	5.12	1.44-18.1	0.01	5.29	1.42-19.7	0.01
Timing of malaria infection	None	11.3%	1					
	In the 1 st trimester only	-	-	-				
	In the 2 nd or 3 rd trimester only	2.0%	0.17	0.02-1.24	0.02			
	In the 1 st trimester and 2 nd or 3 rd trimester	26.1%	2.78	0.96-8.07				

Abbreviations: OR, odds ratio; aOR, adjusted odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; BMI, body mass index
 - No case of LBW among women infected in the first trimester only