# Knowledge of COVID-19 Symptoms, Transmission, and Prevention: Evidence from Health and Demographic Surveillance in Southern Mozambique

3

4 Ariel Nhacolo, MSc<sup>1</sup><sup>†</sup>, Zachary J. Madewell, PhD<sup>2\*</sup><sup>†</sup>, Jonathan A. Muir, PhD<sup>3</sup>, Charfudin Sacoor, MSc<sup>1</sup>,

- 5 Elisio G. Xerinda<sup>1</sup>, MD, Teodomiro Matsena, BSc<sup>1</sup>, Quique Bassat, MD<sup>1,4,5,6,7</sup>, Cynthia G. Whitney, MD<sup>3</sup>,
- 6 Inácio Mandomando, PhD<sup>1,4,8</sup>‡, and Solveig A. Cunningham, PhD<sup>3</sup>‡
- 7
- 8 †Co-first authors
- 9 ‡Co-senior authors
- 10
- 11 Affiliations
- 12 1. Centro de Investigação em Saúde de Manhiça, Maputo, Mozambique
- 13 2. Global Health Center, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA, United States
- 14 3. Emory University, Atlanta, GA, United States
- 15 4. ISGlobal Hospital Clínic, Unversitat de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain
- 16 5. Institutó Catalana de Recerca I Estudis Avançats, Barcelona, Spain
- Pediatrics Department, Hospital Sant Joan de Déu, Universitat de Barcelona, Esplugues, Barcelona,
   Spain
- 19 7. Consorcio de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Epidemiología y Salud Pública, Madrid, Spain
- 20 8. Instituto Nacional de Saúde, Maputo, Mozambique
- 21 \* Correspondence to: Zachary J. Madewell, Global Health Center, Centers for Disease Control and
- 22 Prevention, 1600 Clifton Rd NE, Mailstop H21-9, Atlanta, GA 30329-4027, USA; ock0@cdc.gov

# 23 ABSTRACT

24

Background: Over 230,000 COVID-19 cases and over 2,200 deaths have been reported in Mozambique though March 2023. Understanding community members' knowledge and perception of SARS-CoV-2 transmission and prevention is essential for directing public health interventions to reduce disease spread and improve vaccination coverage. Here, we aimed to describe knowledge of COVID-19 transmission, prevention, and symptoms among community residents in Mozambique.

30

31 Methods: We conducted a cross-sectional survey among 33,087 of 40,636 households (81.4%) in a 32 Health and Demographic Surveillance System in Manhica, Mozambique, at the tail end of the Delta 33 variant wave in September 2021 to the peak of Omicron cases in January 2022. Principal components 34 analysis was used to create scores representing knowledge of COVID-19 symptoms, transmission, and 35 prevention. Multiple imputation and quasi-Poisson regression were used to examine associations between 36 demographic characteristics and sources of COVID-19 information, and knowledge of COVID-19 37 symptoms, transmission, and prevention. We examined whether sources of COVID-19 information 38 mediated the relationship between educational attainment and knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and 39 prevention.

40

Results: Across this rural community, 98.2%, 97.0%, and 85.1% of household respondents reported 41 42 knowing how COVID-19 could be prevented, that SARS-CoV-2 can cause disease, and how SARS-CoV-43 2 is transmitted, respectively. Most recognized symptoms were cough (51.2%), headaches (44.9%), and 44 fever (44.5%). Most cited transmission mechanisms were droplets (50.5%) or aerosol (<5 µm diameter) 45 (46.9%) from an infected person. Most cited prevention measures were handwashing (91.9%) and mask-46 wearing (91.8%). Characteristics associated with greater knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention included having at least primary education, older age, employment, higher wealth, and 47 48 Christian religion. Respondents who had had COVID-19 symptoms were also more likely to have 49 knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention. Gathering information from TV, WhatsApp, 50 radio, and hospital mediated the relationship between educational attainment and knowledge scores.

51

52 **Conclusions:** Community public health measures to reduce infectious disease transmission are contingent 53 upon perceptions of risk and knowledge. These findings support the need for outreach and for 54 community-engaged messaging to promote prevention measures, particularly among people with low 55 education.

56 57

58 **Key words:** community; household; SARS-CoV-2; sub-Saharan Africa; health education; health 59 communication; Delta; Omicron

## 60 Background

61 Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) was first reported in Mozambique in March 2020. Since 62 then, there have been over 230,000 confirmed cases and over 2,200 deaths reported in Mozambique 63 through March 2023 [1], though the death toll could be much higher than official figures due to the 64 challenges experienced in the country's surveillance capacities and under-reporting [2].

65 Effective public health education programs are required to reduce the burden of COVID-19 and 66 the strain on healthcare system resources. Studies of COVID-19 in sub-Saharan Africa have demonstrated 67 positive associations between higher level of knowledge and practicing prevention measures [3, 4]. 68 Knowledge of COVID-19 transmission and disease was also positively associated with vaccination 69 coverage [5], which is one of the most effective strategies for protecting individuals against COVID-19 70 hospitalization and death [6, 7]. As of March 2023, 59.1% of Mozambique's population had completed a 71 primary COVID-19 vaccine series of BBIBP-CorV (Sinopharm, Beijing CNBG) (two doses), 72 Ad26.COV2.S (Janssen) (one dose), or ChAdOx1-S (Covishield) (two doses), but only 3.5% of these had 73 received a booster dose [1]. COVID-19 vaccines became available for adolescents aged 12-17 in 74 Mozambique in November 2022 [8].

75 Currently, there is limited information about knowledge of COVID-19 transmission, prevention, 76 and symptoms in Mozambique. Two cross-sectional surveys on knowledge, attitudes and practices (KAP) 77 among community healthcare workers in Mozambique using an online health platform [9] and among 78 adolescents using a cross-sectional survey in two provinces of Central Mozambique [10] found low 79 knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention measures, but these were done early in the 80 pandemic, before the emergence of more transmissible variants such as Delta and Omicron [11]. The 81 studies' generalizability was also limited by convenience samples and small sample sizes. We conducted 82 a population-based, representative study to evaluate factors associated with knowledge of COVID-19 83 symptoms, transmission, and prevention, in a rural setting of southern Mozambique. This approach is 84 important for reducing household transmission and improving vaccination coverage [12] and provides

85 information on how to tailor communication strategies to reduce community infectious disease86 transmission.

- 87
- 88 Methods
- 89 *Study design*

This study is part of a broader examination within the Child Health and Mortality Prevention Surveillance (CHAMPS) network to analyze the consequences of COVID-19 lockdowns for child health and mortality [13, 14]. Leveraging the established platform of the CHAMPS Network of Health and Demographic Surveillance Systems (HDSSs) [15], we administered a short questionnaire to all households in a rural district [16].

95

### 96 *Study setting and population*

97 Manhica is a district in Maputo Province, located about 85 km north of the capital city, Maputo. 98 An HDSS was established there in 1996 by the Manhica Health Research Center (CISM) and currently covers the entire Manhic  $\Box$  a District, which spans 2,380 km<sup>2</sup>. More information about the Manhic  $\Box$  a 99 100 HDSS has been published elsewhere [17]. With a population of 201,845 [17], Manhica is the second most populated district in Maputo Province after the Matola District (the capital of Maputo Province). The 101 102 major economic activity is sugarcane farming-Maragra and Xinavane are the main sugar factories in the 103 country. The health system in Manhica comprises one district hospital located in Manhica village, one 104 rural hospital located in the Xinavane administrative post, and 19 health centers.

Manhiça is a geographic corridor highly exposed to transmissible diseases such as HIV, and currently COVID-19, stemming from population migration. A large proportion of the Manhiça population migrate to the nearby capital city of Maputo or beyond to South Africa with regular return visits to their households in Manhiça. Moreover, the district is crossed by Mozambique's main road (National Road Number 1), which connects the Southern, Central, and Northern regions of the country as well as neighboring countries of South Africa, Eswatini, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Zambia, and Tanzania. The district

is also crossed by a railroad that connects to Maputo city and harbor. These transportation systems facilitate population migration and disease spread.

In each household, one household member was asked to participate on behalf of the household. Household members were eligible for inclusion if they resided at the residence between March 2020 and the date of interview. The questionnaire was conducted together with standard procedures for regular HDSS visits to all residences in the defined catchment area (census method) [17].

117

118 Data collection and quality assurance

119 A survey instrument was developed to collect information about households' experiences during 120 the COVID-19 lockdown, which included information on knowledge regarding COVID-19 symptoms, 121 transmission, and prevention. Questions were based on guidelines issued by the Ministry of Health for 122 COVID-19 prevention in Mozambique [18]. Interviewers asked open-ended questions and recorded 123 participants' responses. Data collection was conducted by HDSS fieldworkers during their regular visits 124 to the households between March 2021 and January 2022 through tablet-based in-person interviews with heads of households or their representatives if the heads were unavailable. These data were linked with 125 126 data from the HDSS questionnaires to incorporate socio-demographic data about the households: household size, number of children under 5 years of age, number of adults over 60 years, and number of 127 128 pregnant women; household assets; and materials used for constructing the houses (Supplemental 129 Methods, Figures S1-S2); variables about the head of household were age, sex, occupation, education, 130 religion, mother language, and marital status.

Fieldworkers and supervisors were trained on the use of this new module by the study coordinator. Data cleaning and quality assurance followed standard procedures for the HDSS, whereby 5% of households visited each week were revisited to confirm the recorded information. There was a script to filter errors at the time of uploading the data from the tablets to the server. Records with inconsistences were returned to the field for reconciliations.

136

#### 137 Measures

Head of household variables were: sex (female, male), age group (<18 years, 18-39 years, 40-64 138 139 vears, >65 years), religion (Catholic, Protestant, Christian unspecified, Zion church member, atheist, 140 Evangelical, other, don't know), language (Tsonga, Echuwabo, Cisena, Bitonga, other), education (higher 141 education, technical education, secondary education, primary education, no education), occupation 142 (retired/pensioner, does not work, professional, merchants, skilled manual, unskilled manual, 143 student/volunteer, other), marital status (single, married/de facto union, separated/divorced, widowed), 144 and had had COVID-19 symptoms since COVID-19 was first reported in Mozambique (yes, no). 145 Household variables were: household size (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6+), number of children under 5 years (0, 1, 2+), 146 number of adults over 60 years  $(0, 1, 2^+)$ , number of pregnant women  $(0, 1^+)$ , and wealth index, which 147 was derived from principal components analysis (PCA) (Supplemental Methods).

148 In accord with other KAP studies [19-22], we used PCA-based factor analysis to create scores for 149 assessing the degree of knowledge of COVID-19 symptoms, transmission, and prevention (Supplemental 150 Methods). The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index of sampling adequacy was 0.71, 0.73, and 0.83 for 151 knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention, so we concluded the sample size and data were 152 adequate for the PCAs [16]. The resultant compound factor for knowledge of symptoms included seven 153 variables that accounted for 32% of the variability in the data: difficulty breathing, dry cough, fever, 154 headaches, muscle pain, and sore throat (Table S1). The compound factor for knowledge of transmission 155 included eight variables that explained 29% of the variation: hugging, kissing, and droplets from an 156 infected person; and touching a fomite (objects or materials which are likely to carry infection, such as 157 clothes, utensils, and furniture), an infected person, or one's own eyes or nose, or mouth. The compound 158 factor for knowledge of prevention included eight variables that explained 31% of the data variability: 159 avoid crowded places, touching eves, touching mouth, touching nose, or traveling; social distancing; 160 quarantine; and wash hands with alcohol. Knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores 161 ranged from 0 to 3.3, 0 to 4.2, and 0 to 4.7, respectively, with higher scores representing greater 162 knowledge.

Our survey also asked participants what they would do if someone in their family had symptoms suggestive of COVID-19. Response categories included: go to the hospital, quarantine, call the hospital, call the community leader, and treat symptoms at home; respondents could have said yes to multiple categories. Sources of information about COVID-19 included: TV, SMS/WhatsApp, radio, hospital, community leaders.

168

# 169 Statistical Analysis

170 We reported frequency distributions of individual characteristics (age, sex, education, occupation, 171 religion, language, marital status) and household characteristics (wealth index, total number of household 172 members, number under 5 children, number above 60 adults, number of pregnant women). We also 173 reported frequencies and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) for knowledge of COVID-19 symptoms, 174 transmission, and prevention; management of suspected cases; and sources of information. There were 175 minimal missing data for demographic variables, between 0.1% (age) to 9.6% (education). Consistent 176 with other KAP studies [23-26], we used multiple imputation with predictive mean matching for these 177 missing data to retain statistical power and avoid selection bias (Supplemental Methods).

178 Quasi-Poisson regression was used to evaluate unadjusted and adjusted associations between 179 characteristics (age; sex; language; religion; marital status; education; occupation; wealth index; had 180 COVID-19 symptoms; number of household members, children under 5, older adults, and pregnant 181 women; sources of information) and knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores 182 (Supplemental Methods). Logistic regression was used to evaluate unadjusted and adjusted associations 183 between the same characteristics and whether the respondents had experienced symptoms associated with 184 COVID-19. Finally, we assessed whether sources of COVID-19 information mediated the relationship 185 between educational attainment and knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores 186 (Supplemental Methods). This analysis followed causal mediation analysis methods as previously described by VanderWeele [27] and has been used in other KAP studies [28-31]. All analyses were done 187 188 in R software, version 4.2.3 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

189

# 190 Results

191 The Manhica HDSS is home to 40,636 active households in 2021, of which 33,087 (81.4%) 192 responded to this survey (Figure 1). Respondents (18,823, 56.9%) were heads of household, their spouses 193 (7,905, 23.9%), children (3,025, 9.1%), or other family members (3,334, 10.1%). The majority of 194 respondents (72.4%) were female, and the median age was 38 years (interquartile range [IQR]: 27-53 195 years) (Table 1). More than half (54.4%) spoke Xirhonga, 34.5% were Zion church members, 70.0% had 196 primary or no education, and 73.5% were manual laborers. Median household size was 3 (IOR: 2–5). Of 197 all households, 43.5% had children under 5 years, 26.5% had adults over 60 years, and 3.0% had pregnant 198 women (Table 1). Eight percent (2,465/33,087) of respondents reported having had symptoms suggestive 199 of COVID-19 since the disease was first reported in Mozambique, most commonly flu-like symptoms 200 (50.4%, 1,242/2,465), dry cough (48.0%, 1,182/2,465), headaches (33.8%, 832/2,465), fever (27.0%, 201 665/2,465), and cough with sputum (21.9%, 541/2,465) (Table S2).

202 Nearly all (99.4%, 32,901/33,087) participants had heard of coronavirus, but 20.9% (6,926/33,087) were unfamiliar with the term COVID-19. Of all respondents, 98.2% reported knowing 203 204 how SARS-CoV-2 transmission could be prevented, 97.0% knew SARS-CoV-2 may cause disease, and 85.1% knew how SARS-CoV-2 is transmitted. The most commonly mentioned prevention measures were 205 206 washing hands with soap (91.9%) and wearing a facemask (91.8%), whereas least mentioned included 207 avoiding touching eyes (3.8%), nose (4.0%), and mouth (4.9%) (Figure 2). Most mentioned transmission 208 mechanisms were droplets (50.5%) and aerosol ( $<5 \,\mu m$  diameter) (46.9%) from an infected person; least 209 mentioned were touching eves or nose (9.2%), or mouth (10.7%). The most recognized COVID-19 210 symptoms were dry cough (51.2%), headaches (44.9%), and fever (44.5%); least mentioned were 211 nausea/vomiting (3.7%) and muscle or body aches (13.7%). Most participants (88.6%) indicated they 212 would take symptomatic family members to the hospital for treatment, whereas 3.8% stated they would 213 treat symptoms at home. The most cited sources of information regarding COVID-19 were television 214 (44.0%), community leaders (36.2%), and radio (33.7%) (Table S3).

215 Unadjusted analyses between demographics and sources of information, and PCA-derived 216 knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores are shown in Figure S3: these were positively correlated ( $r = 0.47 \sim 0.63$ ; p < 0.001) (Figure S4). Adjusting for all other variables in the 217 218 models (see Figure 3), knowledge of COVID-19 symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores were 219 highest among heads of household with higher ( $\beta$  coefficients: 0.43 ~ 0.47), technical (0.42 ~ 0.46), or 220 secondary  $(0.35 \sim 0.41)$  education with no education as reference; and cited TV  $(0.25 \sim 0.47)$ , radio (0.16)221 ~ 0.38), or SMS/WhatsApp (0.16 ~ 0.36) as sources of information for COVID-19. Sources of 222 information were significant mediators of the relationship between educational attainment and knowledge 223 of symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores (Tables S4-S6). Compared to participants with no 224 formal education, those with *primary* education were more likely to have cited TV, hospital, radio, 225 SMS/WhatsApp, and community leaders as sources of COVID-19 information than not cite them as 226 sources of information; the higher the education level, the more likely participants cited these as sources 227 of information. A significant proportion of the positive association between educational attainment and 228 knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores can be explained by mediators (TV, 229 SMS/WhatsApp, and radio sources of information): the higher the education level, the greater the impact 230 of these mediators on knowledge scores. Conversely, there was a significant negative natural indirect 231 effect for community leaders and hospital, which indicates these sources of information may have 232 attenuated the positive association of education on knowledge scores. Specifically, these sources of 233 information were associated with slightly reduced COVID-19 knowledge among those with higher 234 education.

In adjusted analyses, higher knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores were among participants who were 18-64 years ( $0.07 \sim 0.19$ ) with  $\geq 65$  as reference; were Roman Catholic, Protestant, or Evangelical ( $0.05 \sim 0.22$ ) with Zion church members as reference; were merchants ( $0.08 \sim 0.15$ ), retired/pensioners ( $0.17 \sim 0.18$ ), or professionals ( $0.07 \sim 0.12$ ) with unemployed as reference; and were in the poorer to richest wealth index quintiles ( $0.11 \sim 0.25$ ) with poorest as reference (Figure 3). Knowledge scores for all three indices were significantly lower for widowed ( $-0.10 \sim -0.09$ ) compared to

241 married participants. Furthermore, knowledge of symptoms and transmission, but not prevention, were

higher for those who had COVID-19 symptoms  $(0.10 \sim 0.11)$ . Knowledge of prevention and transmission

243 were higher for males than females  $(0.04 \sim 0.08)$ . Variance inflation factors for independent variables in

all three adjusted models were <1.3, so there was no evidence of collinearity (Table S7).

245 The adjusted odds of having had symptoms consistent with COVID-19 were higher for 246 participants with primary, secondary, technical, or higher education (aORs:  $1.74 \sim 6.56$ ) with no 247 education as reference; Catholics, Protestants, Christians, Evangelicals, and Atheists with Zion church 248 members as reference (aORs:  $1.44 \sim 2.02$ ); professionals (aOR: 1.30; 95% CI: 1.07-1.59) with 249 unemployed as reference; single (aOR: 1.20; 95% CI: 1.07-1.35) with married as reference; and reported 250 TV (aOR: 1.32; 95% CI: 1.19-1.47) as a source of COVID-19 information (Figure 5). The adjusted odds 251 of COVID-19 symptoms were lower for individuals in the richest wealth index quintile (aOR: 0.83, 95% 252 CI: 0.70, 0.98), were <18 years with  $\geq 65$  years as reference (aOR: 0.36, 95% CI: 0.24, 0.54) and who 253 learned about COVID-19 from hospital, radio, or community leaders (aORs:  $0.59 \sim 0.80$ ).

254

## 255 Discussion

256 Community public health measures to reduce infectious disease transmission are contingent upon 257 individual perceptions of risk and knowledge. In this census of over 33,000 household members in 258 Manhiça, Mozambique, almost everyone had heard of coronavirus, were aware of COVID-19 symptoms, 259 and knew how COVID-19 could be prevented. The most recognized COVID-19 symptoms were dry 260 cough, headaches, fever, difficulty breathing, and sore throat, consistent with findings from a systematic 261 review of COVID-19 knowledge in sub-Saharan Africa [4]. This study was conducted at the tail end of 262 the Delta variant wave in September through the peak of Omicron cases in January in Mozambique [32]. 263 The most common Delta symptoms reported in the ZOE COVID Study in the U.K. included runny nose, 264 headache, sneezing, sore throat, and loss of smell, whereas the most common Omicron symptoms were 265 runny nose, headache, sore throat, sneezing, and persistent cough [33]. There was high knowledge of 266 nonpharmaceutical prevention measures such as handwashing and mask-wearing, similar to a study in

Ethiopia [34], but less than half of household members reported social distancing and avoiding crowded places as prevention measures, which are among the most effective public health measures to prevent SARS-CoV-2 transmission [35, 36]. Approximately half of household members knew that SARS-CoV-2 may be transmitted from droplets or aerosol from an infected person, which is the primary mode of SARS-CoV-2 transmission [37]. We also found that knowledge of symptoms, transmission, and prevention scores were positively correlated and there were consistent results between the knowledge outcomes.

274 The finding that participants with higher education had greater knowledge of COVID-19 275 symptoms, transmission, and prevention is consistent with studies in Australia [38], Ethiopia [39], 276 Indonesia [40], and South Korea [41]. Other studies also found that higher education was associated with 277 COVID-19 vaccine acceptance [5, 42]. Mediation analyses demonstrated that TV, SMS/WhatsApp, and 278 radio sources of information were significant mediators in the relationship between educational 279 attainment and knowledge scores. Household heads with higher education were more likely to report TV, 280 SMS and radio as sources of COVID-19 information, which were associated with higher knowledge 281 scores. Only 20% of those with no education had a TV and 70% had a cellphone, whereas 86% with 282 higher/university education had a TV and 99% had a cellphone. These resource discrepancies may also 283 contribute to the finding that individuals in the higher wealth quintiles had higher knowledge scores. 284 Other studies found that lower education was associated with misinformation, which may in part explain 285 lower knowledge among this group as well [38, 43]. Participants with higher education also had the 286 highest odds of having COVID-19 symptoms compared to those with no education, perhaps suggesting 287 greater awareness of COVID-19 symptoms.

Older respondents had higher COVID-19 knowledge, consistent with other studies [40]. Older adults, particularly those with comorbidities, are at greater risk for severe illness, hospitalizations, and death from COVID-19: 70% of COVID-19-attributed deaths in the U.S. were among adults 70 years or older [44]. Other studies reported greater vaccination [5] and other preventive measures [45] among older adults compared to young adults. An online survey in Mozambique found that older participants were

293 more likely to accept COVID-19 vaccines [46]. Mozambique has a young population with a median age 294 of 17.6 years [47]. Although younger adults are less likely to be hospitalized with COVID-19 compared 295 to older adults, some develop severe disease, and they may be infectious without symptoms [48].

296 Other factors associated with higher COVID-19 knowledge scores included employment as 297 merchants, professionals, and unskilled manual laborers; and Catholic, Protestant, and Evangelical 298 religions. Additional outreach promoting information regarding COVID-19 transmission and prevention, 299 as well as vaccine safety and effectiveness, should be tailored to local communities in their language and 300 should engage community leaders [26]. Although not evaluated in this study, other KAP studies found 301 higher knowledge scores among individuals with positive HIV status, urban residence, and no previous 302 SARS-CoV-2 infection [10, 21]. Although we did not know HIV status of participants, this study was 303 conducted in a community with high HIV prevalence. It is conceivable that previous experiences with and 304 exposure to messaging for HIV and other endemic infectious diseases increased COVID-19 awareness in 305 Manhica. Additionally, individuals with HIV may have greater contact with the healthcare system, 306 increasing the opportunity to learn about COVID-19 from healthcare providers. Rural southern 307 Mozambique is also characterized by high levels of labor migration within Mozambique and to South 308 Africa, but this study did not assess how that affected COVID-19 knowledge.

This study had several limitations. This study is not designed to be representative of all 309 310 households in Mozambique; generalizability to a specific population is a feature of all population-based 311 sub-national studies [15, 49]. Still, these results have broader relevance to educating communities about 312 COVID-19 prevention. This was a cross-sectional study, which precludes establishing causal and 313 temporal relationships between demographics and knowledge scores. There may have been social 314 desirability bias in responses about knowledge. There may have been response bias if individuals with 315 greater knowledge of COVID-19 were more likely to participate than those with less knowledge. Finally, 316 there may have been recall bias due to the length of time in the study. Notwithstanding these limitations, 317 regional census entails that these findings are representative of the district. To our knowledge, there are

no other studies of knowledge of COVID-19 symptoms, transmission, and prevention among community
members in Mozambique.

320

# 321 Conclusions

In this census of over 33,000 community members in a rural district of Mozambique, most individuals had high knowledge of COVID-19 symptoms and prevention, but there was less knowledge about transmission. Messaging regarding COVID-19 in southern Mozambique effectively increased awareness of symptoms and prevention. These findings support the need for outreach and community engagement considering the target audience to promote COVID-19 prevention measures, particularly among vulnerable populations with lower educational status.

# 328 Abbreviations

- 329 CHAMPS: Child Health and Mortality Prevention Surveillance
- 330 HDSS: Health and Demographic Surveillance System
- 331 KAP: Knowledge, attitudes, and practices
- 332 PCA: principal components analysis
- 333 SAR: secondary attack rate
- 334 SMS: Short Message Service

# 335 **References**

336	1.	COVID-19 Mozambique [https://covid19.who.int/region/afro/country/mz]
337	2.	Wang H, Paulson KR, Pease SA, Watson S, Comfort H, Zheng P, Aravkin AY, Bisignano C,
338		Barber RM, Alam T: Estimating excess mortality due to the COVID-19 pandemic: a
339		systematic analysis of COVID-19-related mortality, 2020–21. The Lancet 2022,
340		<b>399</b> (10334):1513-1536.
341	3.	Yesuf M, Abdu M: Knowledge, attitude, prevention practice, and associated factors toward
342		COVID-19 among preparatory school students in Southwest Ethiopia, 2021. PLOS ONE
343		2022, <b>17</b> (1):e0262907.
344	4.	Nwagbara UI, Osual EC, Chireshe R, Bolarinwa OA, Saeed BQ, Khuzwayo N, Hlongwana KW:
345		Knowledge, attitude, perception, and preventative practices towards COVID-19 in sub-
346		Saharan Africa: A scoping review. PLOS ONE 2021, 16(4):e0249853.
347	5.	Abebe H, Shitu S, Mose A: Understanding of COVID-19 vaccine knowledge, attitude,
348		acceptance, and determinates of COVID-19 vaccine acceptance among adult population in
349		Ethiopia. Infection and drug resistance 2021, 14:2015.
350	6.	Shapiro J, Dean NE, Madewell ZJ, Yang Y, Halloran ME, Longini I: Efficacy estimates for
351		various COVID-19 vaccines: what we know from the literature and reports. MedRxiv 2021.
352	7.	Song S, Madewell ZJ, Liu M, Longini IM, Yang Y: Effectiveness of SARS-CoV-2 Vaccines
353		against Omicron Infection and Severe Events: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of
354		Test-Negative Design Studies. medRxiv 2023:2023.2002.2016.23286041.
355	8.	U.S. Government and Government of Mozambique Launch Adolescent Vaccine Campaign
356		with Pfizer-BioNTech COVID-19 Vaccines [https://mz.usembassy.gov/u-s-government-and-
357		government-of-mozambique-launch-adolescent-vaccine-campaign-with-pfizer-biontech-covid-
358		<u>19-vaccines/</u>
359	9.	Feldman M, Lacey Krylova V, Farrow P, Donovan L, Zandamela E, Rebelo J, Rodrigues M, Bulo

360 A, Ferraz C, Rodrigues H *et al*: **Community health worker knowledge, attitudes and practices** 

361		towards COVID-19: Learnings from an online cross-sectional survey using a digital health
362		platform, UpSCALE, in Mozambique. PLOS ONE 2021, 16(2):e0244924.
363	10.	Marotta C, Nacareia U, Estevez AS, Tognon F, Genna GD, De Meneghi G, Occa E, Ramirez L,
364		Lazzari M, Di Gennaro F: Mozambican adolescents and youths during the COVID-19
365		pandemic: knowledge and awareness gaps in the provinces of sofala and tete. In: Healthcare:
366		<i>2021</i> : MDPI; 2021: 321.
367	11.	Madewell ZJ, Yang Y, Longini IM, Jr., Halloran ME, Dean NE: Household Secondary Attack
368		Rates of SARS-CoV-2 by Variant and Vaccination Status: An Updated Systematic Review
369		and Meta-analysis. JAMA Netw Open 2022, 5(4):e229317.
370	12.	Madewell ZJ, Yang Y, Longini IM, Halloran ME, Dean NE: Factors associated with household
371		transmission of SARS-CoV-2: an updated systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA
372		network open 2021, <b>4</b> (8):e2122240-e2122240.
373	13.	Muir JA, Dheresa M, Madewell ZJ, Getachew T, Mengesha G, Whitney CG, Assefa N,
374		Cunningham SA: Household Hardships during the COVID-19 Pandemic: Examining
375		Household Vulnerability and Responses to Pandemic Related Shocks in Eastern Ethiopia.
376		medRxiv 2023:2023.2002.2001.23285322.
377	14.	Muir JA, Dheresa M, Madewell ZJ, Getachew T, Mengesha G, Whitney CG, Assefa N,
378		Cunningham SA: Food Insecurity amid COVID-19 Lockdowns: Assessing Sociodemographic
379		Indicators of Vulnerability in Harar and Kersa, Ethiopia. medRxiv
380		2023:2023.2001.2031.23284545.
381	15.	Cunningham SA, Shaikh NI, Nhacolo A, Raghunathan PL, Kotloff K, Naser AM, Mengesha
382		MM, Adedini SA, Misore T, Onuwchekwa UU: Health and Demographic Surveillance
383		Systems within the Child Health and Mortality Prevention Surveillance Network. Clinical
384		Infectious Diseases 2019, 69(Supplement_4):S274-S279.
385	16.	Nhacolo A, Magaço A, Amosse F, Hunguana A, Matsena T, Nhacolo A, Xerinda E, Bassat Q,
386		Sacoor C, Mandomando I et al: Perceptions and compliance with COVID-19 preventive

387		measures in Southern and Central regions of Mozambique: a quantitative in-person
388		household survey in the districts of Manhiça and Quelimane. medRxiv
389		2022:2022.2011.2017.22282473.
390	17.	Nhacolo A, Jamisse E, Augusto O, Matsena T, Hunguana A, Mandomando I, Arnaldo C,
391		Munguambe K, Macete E, Alonso P et al: Cohort Profile Update: Manhiça Health and
392		Demographic Surveillance System (HDSS) of the Manhiça Health Research Centre (CISM).
393		<i>Int J Epidemiol</i> 2021, <b>50</b> (2):395.
394	18.	Manual de prevencao da COVID-19 [https://www.misau.gov.mz/index.php/manuais-e-
395		material-educativo?download=322:manual-de-prevencao-a-covid-19]
396	19.	Hajj A, Domiati S, Haddad C, Sacre H, Akl M, Akel M, Tawil S, Abramian S, Zeenny RM,
397		Hodeib F et al: Assessment of knowledge, attitude, and practice regarding the disposal of
398		expired and unused medications among the Lebanese population. J Pharm Policy Pract
399		2022, <b>15</b> (1):107.
400	20.	Ayre J, Cvejic E, McCaffery K, Copp T, Cornell S, Dodd RH, Pickles K, Batcup C, Isautier JMJ,
401		Nickel B et al: Contextualising COVID-19 prevention behaviour over time in Australia:
402		Patterns and long-term predictors from April to July 2020 in an online social media sample.
403		<i>PLoS One</i> 2021, <b>16</b> (6):e0253930.
404	21.	Kwabla MP, Nyasordzi J, Kye-Duodu G, Ananga MK, Amenuvegbe GK, Otoo J, Nuertey DD,
405		Mensah EK, Asante-Afari K, Aboagye D et al: Factors associated with COVID-19 knowledge
406		among Ghanaians: A national survey. PLOS ONE 2022, 17(11):e0276381.
407	22.	Madewell ZJ, Chacón-Fuentes R, Jara J, Mejía-Santos H, Molina I-B, Alvis-Estrada JP, Ortiz M-
408		R, Coello-Licona R, Montejo B: Knowledge, attitudes, and practices of seasonal influenza
409		vaccination in healthcare workers, Honduras. Plos one 2021, 16(2):e0246379.
410	23.	Berhe NM, Van de Velde S, Rabiee-Khan F, van der Heijde C, Vonk P, Buffel V, Wouters E,
411		Van Hal G: Knowledge deficit and fear of COVID-19 among higher education students

17

412		during the first wave of the pandemic and implications for public health: a multi-country
413		cross-sectional survey. BMC Public Health 2022, 22(1):1144.
414	24.	Rizzo C, Campagna I, Pandolfi E, Croci I, Russo L, Ciampini S, Gesualdo F, Tozzi AE, Ricotta
415		L, Raponi M et al: Knowledge and Perception of COVID-19 Pandemic during the First
416		Wave (Feb-May 2020): A Cross-Sectional Study among Italian Healthcare Workers. Int J
417		Environ Res Public Health 2021, 18(7).
418	25.	Bikaki A, Machiorlatti M, Clark LC, Robledo CA, Kakadiaris IA: Factors Contributing to
419		SARS-CoV-2 Vaccine Hesitancy of Hispanic Population in Rio Grande Valley. Vaccines
420		(Basel) 2022, <b>10</b> (8).
421	26.	Madewell ZJ, Chacón-Fuentes R, Badilla-Vargas X, Ramirez C, Ortiz M-R, Alvis-Estrada J-P,
422		Jara J: Knowledge, attitudes, and practices regarding seasonal influenza vaccination during
423		pregnancy in Costa Rica: A mixed-methods study. Vaccine 2022, 40(48):6931-6938.
424	27.	VanderWeele T: Explanation in causal inference: methods for mediation and interaction:
425		Oxford University Press; 2015.
426	28.	Sengupta M, Dutta S, Roy A, Chakrabarti S, Mukhopadhyay I: Knowledge, attitude and
427		practice survey towards COVID-19 vaccination: A mediation analysis. Int J Health Plann
428		Manage 2022, <b>37</b> (4):2063-2080.
429	29.	Luz PM, Brown HE, Struchiner CJ: Disgust as an emotional driver of vaccine attitudes and
430		uptake? A mediation analysis. Epidemiol Infect 2019, 147:e182.
431	30.	Maloney P, Tietje L, Rung A, Broyles S, Couk J, Peters E, Straif-Bourgeois S: The mediating
432		effects of barriers to vaccination on the relationship between race/ethnicity and influenza
433		vaccination status in a rural Southeastern Louisiana medical center. J Prev Med Hyg 2022,
434		<b>63</b> (3):E482-e491.
435	31.	Granderath JS, Sondermann C, Martin A, Merkt M: Actual and Perceived Knowledge About
436		COVID-19: The Role of Information Behavior in Media. Front Psychol 2021, 12:778886.

18

# 437 32. WHO Coronavirus (COVID-19) Dashboard: Mozambique

- 438 [https://covid19.who.int/region/afro/country/mz]
- 439 33. Menni C, Valdes AM, Polidori L, Antonelli M, Penamakuri S, Nogal A, Louca P, May A,
- 440 Figueiredo JC, Hu C: Symptom prevalence, duration, and risk of hospital admission in
- 441 individuals infected with SARS-CoV-2 during periods of omicron and delta variant
- 442 dominance: a prospective observational study from the ZOE COVID Study. The Lancet
- 443 2022, **399**(10335):1618-1624.
- 444 34. Desalegn Z, Deyessa N, Teka B, Shiferaw W, Hailemariam D, Addissie A, Abagero A, Kaba M,
- Abebe W, Nega B *et al*: COVID-19 and the public response: Knowledge, attitude and
- 446 practice of the public in mitigating the pandemic in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. PLOS ONE
- 447 2021, **16**(1):e0244780.
- 448 35. Talic S, Shah S, Wild H, Gasevic D, Maharaj A, Ademi Z, Li X, Xu W, Mesa-Eguiagaray I,
- 449 Rostron J: Effectiveness of public health measures in reducing the incidence of covid-19,
- 450 SARS-CoV-2 transmission, and covid-19 mortality: systematic review and meta-analysis.
- 451 *bmj* 2021, **375**.
- 452 36. Madewell ZJ, Yang Y, Longini IM, Halloran ME, Dean NE: Household transmission of SARS453 CoV-2: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA network open* 2020, 3(12):e2031756454 e2031756.
- 455 37. Meyerowitz EA, Richterman A, Gandhi RT, Sax PE: Transmission of SARS-CoV-2: a review
  456 of viral, host, and environmental factors. *Annals of internal medicine* 2021, 174(1):69-79.
- 457 38. Pickles K, Cvejic E, Nickel B, Copp T, Bonner C, Leask J, Ayre J, Batcup C, Cornell S, Dakin T:
- 458 **COVID-19** misinformation trends in Australia: prospective longitudinal national survey.
- 459 *Journal of medical Internet research* 2021, **23**(1):e23805.
- 460 39. Yesse M, Muze M, Kedir S, Argaw B, Dengo M, Nesre T, Hamdalla F, Saliha A, Mussa T,
- 461 Kasim I et al: Assessment of knowledge, attitude and practice toward COVID-19 and

462		associated factors among health care workers in Silte Zone, Southern Ethiopia. PLOS ONE
463		2021, <b>16</b> (10):e0257058.
464	40.	Sulistyawati S, Rokhmayanti R, Aji B, Wijayanti SPM, Hastuti SKW, Sukesi TW, Mulasari SA:
465		Knowledge, attitudes, practices and information needs during the covid-19 pandemic in
466		indonesia. Risk Management and Healthcare Policy 2021, 14:163.
467	41.	Lee M, Kang B-A, You M: Knowledge, attitudes, and practices (KAP) toward COVID-19: a
468		cross-sectional study in South Korea. BMC public health 2021, 21(1):1-10.
469	42.	Shakeel CS, Mujeeb AA, Mirza MS, Chaudhry B, Khan SJ: Global COVID-19 vaccine
470		acceptance: a systematic review of associated social and behavioral factors. Vaccines 2022,
471		<b>10</b> (1):110.
472	43.	Madewell ZJ, Chacón-Fuentes R, Jara J, Mejía-Santos H, Molina I-B, Alvis-Estrada JP, Espinal
473		R: Knowledge, attitudes, and practices of seasonal influenza vaccination among older adults
474		in nursing homes and daycare centers, Honduras. PLOS ONE 2021, 16(2):e0246382.
475	44.	Goldstein JR, Lee RD: Demographic perspectives on the mortality of COVID-19 and other
476		epidemics. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 2020, 117(36):22035-22041.
477	45.	González-Herrera A, Rodríguez-Blázquez C, Romay-Barja M, Falcon-Romero M, Ayala A,
478		Forjaz MJ: Age differences in knowledge, attitudes and preventive practices during the
479		COVID-19 pandemic in Spain. Scientific Reports 2022, 12(1):1-8.
480	46.	Dula J, Mulhanga A, Nhanombe A, Cumbi L, Júnior A, Gwatsvaira J, Fodjo JNS, Faria de Moura
481		Villela E, Chicumbe S, Colebunders R: COVID-19 vaccine acceptability and its determinants
482		in Mozambique: An online survey. Vaccines 2021, 9(8):828.
483	47.	Population Division: World Population Prospects 2022 [https://population.un.org/wpp/]
484	48.	Ravindra K, Malik VS, Padhi BK, Goel S, Gupta M: Asymptomatic infection and transmission
485		of COVID-19 among clusters: systematic review and meta-analysis. Public Health 2022,
486		<b>203</b> :100-109.

20

487	49.	Clark S, Wakefield J, McCormick T, Ross M: Hyak Mortality Monitoring System: Innovative
488		Sampling and Estimation Methods–Proof of Concept by Simulation. Global Health,

- 489 *Epidemiology and Genomics* 2018, **3**.
- 490
- 491 Declarations

# 492 Ethics approval and consent to participate

The HDSS data collection has ethical approval from the Institutional Ethics Review Board for
Health (CIBS) and Internal Scientific Committee (CCI) at CISM, and the National Bioethics Committee
for Health (CNBS-Mozambique).

496 This study used part of the existing HDSS data, for which all the heads of households and 497 household members in Manhiça district have voluntarily agreed and signed a written detailed informed 498 consent for providing their demographic and socio-economic data, including that of their households and 499 their young dependents (children under the age of 18 years), in the context of HDSS. In relation to new 500 data, the study team obtained approval from CISM's CCI and CIBS to collect the data based on voicerecorded informed oral consent to minimize the risk of COVID-19 transmission when handling paper-501 502 based informed and signed consents between interviewers and interviewees. Data collection was mainly over the phone to minimize contacts due to COVID-19. Even during household visits (which were done 503 504 for participants unreachable by phone), informed consent was oral and voice-recorded to minimize the 505 risk of COVID-19.

All communications with study participants were done with the language of each participant's preference. Where the preferred language was not Portuguese, the fieldworkers translated the questionnaires *in situs* as in other studies that the HDSS and social science team has conducted. Where the fieldworker could not speak the participant's preferred language, a translator was sought in the household, or a suitable fieldworker conducted the communication at another time.

511 **Consent for publication:** Not applicable.

512 **Competing interests**: The authors declare no conflict of interests.

- 513 **Availability of data and materials:** The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are 514 available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.
- 515 **Funding:** This work was supported, in whole or in part, by grant OPP1126780 from the Bill & Melinda
- 516 Gates Foundation to Dr. Cynthia Whitney. Under the grant conditions of the Foundation, a Creative
- 517 Commons Attribution 4.0 Generic License has already been assigned to the Author Accepted Manuscript
- 518 version that might arise from this submission. CISM is supported by the Government of Mozambique and
- the Spanish Agency for International Development (AECID).
- 520 Authors' contributions: Conceptualization (AN, CS, TM, QB, IM), data curation (AN, CS, TM, QB,
- 521 IM), formal analysis (ZM, JM), investigation (AN, ZM, JM, CS, TM, QB, IM), methodology (AN, ZM,
- 522 JM, CS, TM, QB, IM, SC), project administration (AN, CS, TM, QB, IM, SC), resources (AN, CS, TM,
- 523 QB, IM), supervision (AN, QB, CW, IM, SC), visualization (ZM, JM), writing original draft
- 524 preparation (ZM, JM), writing review & editing (AN, ZM, JM, CS, TM, QB, CW, IM, SC).
- 525 Acknowledgements: CISM is supported by the Government of Mozambique and the Spanish Agency for
- 526 International Development (AECID). ISGlobal receives support from the Spanish Ministry of Science and
- 527 Innovation through the "Centro de Excelencia Severo Ochoa 2019-2023" Program (CEX2018-000806-S),
- 528 and support from the Generalitat de Catalunya through the CERCA Program.
- 529 **Disclaimer:** The findings and conclusions in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily
- 530 represent the views of the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

# 531 Figure Titles and Legends

- 532 Figure 1. Map of Manhiça District. Source: Created by the authors using Health and Demographic
- 533 Surveillance System (HDSS) cartographic data.
- 534 Figure 2. Knowledge of COVID-19 transmission, prevention and symptoms, and management of
- 535 suspected cases, Mozambique, September 2021 January 2022 (N=33,087). Error bars represent 95%
- 536 confidence intervals.
- 537 Figure 3. Adjusted<sup>a</sup> associations between demographics and sources of information, and knowledge

of prevention, symptoms, and transmission indices<sup>b</sup> derived from principal components analysis,

539 Mozambique, September 2021 – January 2022 (N=33,087). Points represent  $\beta$  coefficients and error

- bars represent 95% confidence intervals. <sup>a</sup>Adjusted for all other variables in the model. <sup>b</sup>Knowledge of
- 541 prevention includes: avoid crowded places, touching eyes, touching mouth, touching nose, or traveling;
- 542 social distancing; quarantine; and wash hands with alcohol. Knowledge of symptoms includes: difficulty
- 543 breathing, dry cough, fever, headaches, muscle pain, and sore throat. Knowledge of transmission
- includes: avoid crowded places, touching eyes, touching mouth, touching nose, or traveling; social
- 545 distancing; quarantine; and wash hands with alcohol.
- 546 Figure 4. Unadjusted and adjusted<sup>a</sup> associations between demographics and sources of information,
- 547 and had COVID-19 symptoms, Mozambique, September 2021 January 2022 (N=33,087). X-axis is
- shown on a log-scale. <sup>a</sup>Adjusted for all other variables in the model.

# Table 1. Descriptive statistics of individuals who participated in COVID-19 cross-sectional survey, Mozambique, September 2021 – January 2022, (N=33,087)

	Observed data		Imputed
	(N=33,087)		(N=33,087)
Characteristic	N	%	%
Individual characteristics			
Age (years) (N=33,046)			
<18	1,064	3.2	3.2
18-39	17,017	51.5	51.5
40-64	10,684	32.3	32.3
≥65	4,281	13.0	13.0
Female sex (N=32,153)	23,287	72.4	72.4
Language (N=31,852)			
Tsonga	29,787	93.5	93.5
Bitonga	482	1.5	1.5
Cisena	303	1.0	1.0
Echuwabo	348	1.1	1.1
Other	932	2.9	2.9
Religion (N=31,914)			
Catholic	2,791	8.7	8.7
Protestant	6,106	19.2	19.2
Christian unspecified	4,512	14.1	14.2
Zion church member	11.043	34.6	34.5
Atheist	1.992	6.2	6.2
Evangelical	4.687	14.7	14.7
Other	783	2.5	2.5
Education (N=29 924)	100	2.0	2.0
No education	3 050	10.2	10.3
Primary education	17 707	50.5	50.7
Secondary education	8 472	28.3	28.0
	211	1.0	20.0
Higher education	204	1.0	1.0
	294	1.0	0.9
	2.026	0.6	0.7
Does not work	3,030	9.0	9.7
	1,144	3.0	3.7
	909	2.9	2.9
Skilled manual	22,340	70.7	70.6
Merchants	112	2.4	2.4
Professional	1,671	5.3	5.3
Retired/pensioner	455	1.5	1.4
Other	1,270	3.8	3.8
Marital status (N=31,891)			
Single	5,856	18.4	18.4
Married/De facto union	17,332	54.4	54.4
Separated/divorced	3,896	12.2	12.2
Widowed	4,807	15.0	15.0
Had COVID-19 symptoms	2,465	7.5	7.5
Household characteristics			
Household size (32,744)			
1	4,240	13.0	13.2
2	4,272	13.0	13.1
3	4,833	14.8	14.8
4	5,153	15.7	15.7
5	4,841	14.8	14.7
≥6	9,405	28.7	28.5
Children under age 5			
0	18,686	56.5	56.5
1	10,552	31.9	31.9

≥2	3,849	11.6	11.6
Elderly over age 60			
0	24,316	73.5	73.5
1	7,219	21.8	21.8
≥2	1,552	4.7	4.7
Pregnant women			
0	32,105	97.0	97.0
≥1	982	3.0	3.0
Wealth index			
Poorest	6,618	20.0	20.0
Poorer	6,612	20.0	20.0
Middle	6,621	20.0	20.0
Richer	6,612	20.0	20.0
Richest	6,624	20.0	20.0
N=33.087 unless stated otherwise due to non-response			

549

550





50%

75%

25%

50.5 (49.9, 51.0)

46.9 (46.3, 47.4)

4.3 (4.0, 4.5)

3.8 (3.6, 4.0)

100%

Droplets from an infected person -Aerosol from an infected person -Touching an infected person's hands -Touching an infected person -Hugging an infected person -Kissing an infected person -Touching your mouth -

> Always wash hands with soap -Always wear a mask -Wash hands with alcohol always -Avoid crowded places -Avoid touching mouth -Avoid touching nose -Avoid touching eves -

Call the community leader -

Treat symptoms at home -

0%

Symptoms



