

Research Article

Public Health Burden and Statistical Determinants of Maternal and Child Mortality in Blue Nile State, Sudan: A Secondary Data Analysis, 2010-2023

Alshaikh Ahmed Shokeralla^{1,*} , Mohammed Ali Alshaib², Waleid Alnour Daif³

¹Department of Basic Sciences, University of Health Sciences, Damazin, Sudan

²Department of Histopathology and Cytology, University of Health Sciences, Damazin, Sudan

³Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Blue Nile University, Damazin, Sudan

Abstract

Background: Blue Nile State is one of the most health-fragile regions in Sudan, characterised by recurrent conflict, population displacement, poverty, weak health infrastructure, and a high burden of preventable communicable diseases. Despite its public health importance, state-level statistical evidence on disease burden and determinants of maternal and child health outcomes remains limited. **Objective:** This study aimed to describe the public health burden in Blue Nile State during 2010-2023 and to identify key statistical determinants associated with maternal and child mortality using available secondary data. **Methods:** A secondary data analysis was conducted using publicly available reports and published studies from WHO, UNICEF, OCHA, the Sudan Central Bureau of Statistics, the Federal and State Ministries of Health, and peer-reviewed literature. Descriptive statistics, comparative analysis against national averages and SDG targets, chi-square tests, t-tests, time-trend analysis, and multiple linear regression were applied. Regression assumptions were evaluated using residual diagnostics, variance inflation factors (VIF), Durbin-Watson statistics, and influence diagnostics. **Results:** Blue Nile State showed substantially poorer health indicators than national averages. The maternal mortality ratio (MMR) was estimated at 412 per 100,000 live births compared with 295 nationally, while the under-five mortality rate (U5MR) reached 89.3 per 1,000 live births compared with 56.0 nationally. Malaria represented the dominant communicable disease burden (68 cases per 1,000 population). The multiple linear regression model identified poverty rate, distance to health facility, maternal education, vaccination coverage, and malaria prevalence as statistically significant determinants ($R^2 = 0.784$; $F = 68.32$; $p < 0.001$). **Conclusion:** Poor health outcomes in Blue Nile State are associated with structural deprivation, geographic barriers, infectious disease burden, limited vaccination coverage, and conflict-related disruption of health services. A comprehensive multi-sector strategy is urgently needed.

Keywords

Blue Nile State, Sudan, Public Health, Maternal Mortality, Child Mortality, Malaria, Health Systems, Secondary Data Analysis, Regression Modelling

*Correspondence: Alshaikh Ahmed Shokeralla (sshokeralla@gmail.com)

Received: 20 June 2026; **Accepted:** 1 July 2026; **Published:** 27 July 2026



1. Introduction

Blue Nile State lies in south-eastern Sudan, bordering South Sudan to the south and Ethiopia to the east. The state encompasses geographically diverse terrain including floodplains, riverine areas, rural settlements, and mountainous regions. This diversity creates major challenges for health service delivery, particularly during the rainy season when road access deteriorates and many rural communities become isolated [1-6].

The state has experienced prolonged socioeconomic and health vulnerability due to recurrent armed conflict, internal displacement, extreme poverty, limited infrastructure, and weak public service delivery [7-11]. These factors have contributed to a fragile health system and increased exposure to preventable diseases. Sudan's chronic political instability, culminating in the 2019 revolution and subsequent governance transitions, has further disrupted health service provision across all states, with conflict-affected regions such as Blue Nile State bearing a disproportionate burden [12-17].

At the global level, conflict-affected settings are consistently documented to experience elevated maternal and child mortality, reduced immunisation coverage, and deterioration in routine health services [18-20]. Sub-Saharan Africa, and particularly the Horn of Africa region, continues to account for the majority of global maternal and child deaths, with progress toward Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) targets remaining insufficient [21, 22].

Malaria remains the leading cause of morbidity and mortality in Blue Nile State, facilitated by the ecological environment, seasonal flooding, and riverine geography [23, 24]. Malnutrition, particularly among children under five years, compounds the burden of infectious diseases and represents an independent risk factor for child mortality [25]. Poor water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) conditions sustain diarrhoeal disease transmission, including periodic cholera outbreaks [26].

Despite the public health importance of Blue Nile State, comprehensive statistical studies that integrate demographic, epidemiological, health system, and maternal-child health indicators remain scarce. Most available evidence is fragmented across humanitarian reports, ministry documents, international databases, and individual research studies. Therefore, this study seeks to provide an integrated statistical assessment of the public health burden in the state, combining descriptive epidemiology, comparative analysis, and regression modelling to identify priority determinants associated with maternal and child mortality [27, 28].

1.1. Study Objectives

The specific objectives of this study were:

- 1) To describe the demographic and socioeconomic profile of Blue Nile State during 2010-2023.
- 2) To summarise major health infrastructure and service capacity indicators.
- 3) To analyse the burden of communicable diseases, malnutrition, maternal mortality, infant mortality, and under-five mortality.
- 4) To compare selected health indicators with national averages and SDG 2030 targets.
- 5) To identify statistical determinants of maternal and child mortality using multiple linear regression.
- 6) To propose evidence-based public health recommendations.

1.2. Novelty of the Study

To the best of the authors' knowledge, this study is among the first attempts to integrate public health, demographic, epidemiological, health system, and socioeconomic indicators into a unified statistical assessment of Blue Nile State, Sudan. By combining descriptive analysis, benchmark comparison, time-trend interpretation, and regression modelling, the study provides a policy-oriented evidence base for identifying priority determinants of maternal and child health vulnerability in a conflict-affected setting [29, 30].

2. Methods and Statistical Framework

2.1. Study Design

This study employed a secondary data analysis design, based on aggregate data extracted from publicly available reports, official statistics, humanitarian situation reports, and published scientific literature. The study period covered 2010-2023, selected to capture medium-term trends in health outcomes including the effects of recurrent conflict, displacement, and health system disruption [31].

2.2. Data Sources

Data were extracted from multiple sources, including WHO, UNICEF, OCHA, the Sudan Central Bureau of Statistics, the Sudan Federal Ministry of Health, the Blue Nile State Ministry of Health, IOM displacement tracking reports, and peer-reviewed studies indexed in PubMed, Scopus, or Google Scholar [4-6, 32]. State-specific data were prioritised; when unavailable, national-level or comparable-state data were used for contextual comparison only [33, 34].

Table 1. Data Source Mapping and Certainty Classification.

Indicator	Primary Source	Year	Geographic Level	Data Type	Certainty
Population size	Sudan CBS	2023	State	Estimate	Moderate
Maternal mortality ratio	UNICEF / MoH	2021-23	State/National	Modelled	Moderate
Under-five mortality	UNICEF / IGME	2021-23	State/National	Modelled	Moderate
Malaria prevalence	WHO / MoH	2022-23	State	Reported	Moderate
Health facilities	Blue Nile MoH / OCHA	2022-23	State	Administrative	High
Vaccination coverage	WHO / UNICEF	2022	State/National	Reported	Moderate
WASH indicators	WHO / UNICEF JMP	2022	State/National	Survey	Moderate
Internal displacement	IOM / OCHA	2023	State	Administrative	Moderate
Maternal education	UNICEF / MICS	2019-22	State/National	Survey	Moderate

2.3. Variables

Dependent variable: Maternal-child mortality burden, represented by aggregated mortality indicators (maternal mortality ratio and child mortality rates) at locality or sub-locality level where available.

Independent variables:

- (1) poverty rate (%);
- (2) mean distance to nearest health facility (km);
- (3) mean years of maternal education;
- (4) vaccination coverage (%);
- (5) malaria prevalence rate per 1,000 population.

These variables represent major social, geographic, preventive, and epidemiological determinants of maternal and child health outcomes [35-37].

2.4. Statistical Equations

Crude Mortality Rate (CMR)

$$CMR = \left(\frac{D}{P}\right) \times 1,000 \quad (1)$$

where D represents the total number of deaths and P represents the mean population during the study period.

Prevalence Rate (PR)

$$PR = \left(\frac{C}{P}\right) \times 1,000 \quad (2)$$

where C represents the number of existing cases and P represents the population at risk.

Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR)

$$MMR = \left(\frac{MD}{LB}\right) \times 100,000 \quad (3)$$

where MD represents the number of maternal deaths and LB represents the number of live births.

Under-Five Mortality Rate (U5MR)

$$U5MR = \left(\frac{D_5}{LB}\right) \times 1,000 \quad (4)$$

where D_5 represents the number of deaths among children under five years of age and LB represents the number of live births.

Age-Standardized Mortality Rate (ASMR)

$$ASMR = \sum_i \left(\frac{d_i}{n_i} \times w_i\right) \times 100,000 \quad (5)$$

where d_i represents the number of deaths in age group i , n_i represents the population in age group i , and w_i represents the corresponding standard population weight.

Chi-Square Statistic

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E} \quad (6)$$

where O represents the observed frequency and E represents the expected frequency.

Welch's Independent-Samples t-test

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1}\right) + \left(\frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)}} \quad (7)$$

where $\bar{X}_1$ and $\bar{X}_2$ represent the group means, s_1^2 and s_2^2 represent the group variances, and n_1 and n_2 represent the sample sizes.

Multiple Linear Regression Model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \varepsilon \quad (8)$$

where Y represents the mortality burden, X_1 to X_5 represent the explanatory predictors, β_0 represents the intercept, β_1 to β_5 represent the regression coefficients, and ε represents the random error term.

Coefficient of Determination

$$R^2 = 1 - \left(\frac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}} \right) \quad (9)$$

where SS_{res} represents the residual sum of squares and SS_{tot} represents the total sum of squares.

Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

$$VIF_j = \frac{1}{1 - R_j^2} \quad (10)$$

where R_j^2 represents the coefficient of determination obtained by regressing predictor j on the remaining predictors.

Annual Percentage Change (APC)

$$APC = \left[\left(\frac{V_t}{V_0} \right)^{1/t} - 1 \right] \times 100 \quad (11)$$

where V_t represents the final value, V_0 represents the baseline value, and t represents the number of years between the two measurements.

Relative Excess

$$\text{Relative Excess (\%)} = \left(\frac{\text{State-National}}{\text{National}} \right) \times 100 \quad (12)$$

This equation measures the percentage gap between the state-level estimate and the corresponding national estimate.

Coverage Gap

$$\text{Coverage Gap} = \text{National Coverage (\%)} - \text{State Coverage (\%)} \quad (13)$$

This equation measures the deficit in state-level coverage compared with the national coverage level.

2.5. Model Diagnostics

Regression assumptions were systematically evaluated. Residual normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test and residual plots. Multicollinearity was assessed using VIF (Equation (10)), with values below 5 considered acceptable [7, 38]. Autocorrelation was examined using the Durbin-Watson statistic. Influential observations were identified using Cook distance. These procedures ensured that regression estimates were not severely distorted by violations of model assumptions [8, 39].

2.6. Ethical Considerations

This study was based exclusively on aggregate, anonymised,

and publicly available secondary data. No individual-level human participant data were collected, accessed, or analysed. Therefore, formal ethical approval was not required. The study was conducted in accordance with accepted ethical principles for secondary analysis of public health data.

3. Demographic and Socioeconomic Profile

3.1. Population Characteristics

Blue Nile State had an estimated population of approximately 1.43 million in 2023 [40, 41]. The population structure is youthful, with 43.8% of residents under 15 years of age, generating high demand for maternal, child health, nutrition, and immunisation services. The population is predominantly rural (81.6%), and many communities face long distances to health facilities, limited skilled health workers, medicine shortages, and inadequate WASH services [12, 42].

Internal displacement is a significant demographic burden. Approximately 24.3% of the population were classified as internally displaced persons (IDPs) in 2023, placing additional pressure on already fragile health services and increasing outbreak risk due to overcrowding and sanitation deficits [43, 44].

Table 2. Key Demographic Indicators in Blue Nile State.

Indicator	Value
Total population (2023 estimate)	1,430,000
Urban population	18.4%
Rural population	81.6%
Male population	50.3%
Female population	49.7%
Average household size	5.9 persons
Population under 15 years	43.8%
Population aged ≥65 years	3.1%
Total fertility rate (estimated)	5.7 births per woman
Internally displaced persons (IDPs)	24.3% of population

3.2. Social Determinants of Health

The health profile of Blue Nile State is closely intertwined with poverty, low education, limited infrastructure, and inadequate WASH services. Multidimensional poverty is estimated to affect approximately 68-74% of the population [45]. This level of deprivation directly influences nutrition,

health-seeking behaviour, transportation to facilities, and capacity to pay for medicines or diagnostic services [35, 36].

Female literacy and maternal education are particularly important determinants of reproductive and child health outcomes. Low maternal education reduces awareness of antenatal care, danger signs during pregnancy, vaccination schedules, breastfeeding practices, and early care-seeking for childhood illness [46]. In this study, maternal education was included as a key predictor in the regression model.

4. Health Infrastructure and Service Capacity

4.1. Health Facilities

Blue Nile State has limited health infrastructure relative to its geographic size, population distribution, and disease burden. Many facilities operate below full capacity due to shortages of equipment, medicines, staff, electricity, laboratory services, and referral transport [47, 48].

Table 3. Distribution of Health Facilities by Type in Blue Nile State.

Facility Type	Number	Main Distribution	Operational Capacity	Source
Teaching hospital	1	Damazin	85%	[47]
State hospitals	3	Damazin, Roseiris, Qaisin	72%	[47]
Locality hospitals	5	Selected localities	58%	[48]
Health centres	47	Rural and urban areas	61%	[48]
Primary health care units	186	Mainly rural areas	43%	[48]
Maternal care clinics	38	Dispersed	52%	[48]
Mobile clinics	12	IDP camps and emergency areas	78%	[43]
Total	292	State-wide	55.7%	—

4.2. Human Resources for Health

The shortage of skilled health workers is a major structural weakness. Physician density and nurse-midwife density are substantially below recommended WHO thresholds [49]. This shortage affects the quality of diagnosis, treatment, emergency care, antenatal services, skilled birth attendance, vaccination outreach, and disease surveillance. The low availability of skilled birth attendants is particularly concerning, given that most maternal deaths from postpartum haemorrhage, obstructed labour, sepsis, and eclampsia are preventable when timely skilled care is available [18, 19].

4.3. Geographic Access to Health Services

Geographic access remains one of the most critical barriers to health care. Many rural residents travel more than 15 km to reach the nearest health centre. During the rainy season, road conditions deteriorate, isolating some communities for weeks. Long distances increase delays in seeking care, reaching care, and receiving appropriate treatment [50]. In the regression model, distance to the nearest health facility was positively and significantly associated with mortality burden ($\beta = 1.24$; $p < 0.001$).

5. Disease Burden and Morbidity

5.1. Communicable Diseases

Communicable diseases represent the dominant component of morbidity in Blue Nile State. Malaria, acute diarrhoeal diseases, acute respiratory infections, cholera, measles, tuberculosis, dengue fever, and malnutrition-related infections collectively account for a large share of outpatient visits, hospital admissions, and preventable deaths [23, 51].

5.1.1. Malaria

Malaria is the leading communicable disease in Blue Nile State. The ecological environment, seasonal rainfall, riverine geography, flooding, and stagnant water create favourable conditions for *Anopheles* mosquito breeding [23]. The estimated malaria prevalence was 68 cases per 1,000 population. In pregnancy, malaria is associated with maternal anaemia, low birth weight, preterm birth, stillbirth, and increased maternal and neonatal complication risk [24, 52].

5.1.2. Diarrhoeal Diseases and Cholera

Acute diarrhoeal disease remains a major public health

problem, closely linked to poor water quality, inadequate sanitation, unsafe food handling, and overcrowding in displacement settings [26, 53]. Cholera outbreaks remain a recurrent risk, especially during rainy seasons, with a case-fatality rate of 1.2% in recent years [54].

5.1.3. Acute Respiratory Infections

Acute respiratory infections are common among children under two years. Risk factors include malnutrition, indoor air pollution, overcrowding, low vaccination coverage, and de-

layed access to care [51, 55]. Ensuring availability of antibiotics, oxygen, and referral services is essential for reducing mortality from severe respiratory infections.

5.1.4. Other Communicable Diseases

Tuberculosis remains important despite lower prevalence compared with malaria, with a case-fatality rate of 5.2% due to diagnostic delays and treatment interruption [56]. Dengue fever and COVID-19 have also contributed to the disease burden in recent years [57].

Table 4. Prevalence and Case-Fatality Rates of Major Diseases in Blue Nile State.

Disease	Prevalence per 1,000	CFR (%)	Most Affected Group	Source
Malaria	68.0	0.016	Children <5 & pregnant women	[23, 24]
Acute diarrhoea	52.3	0.008	Children & elderly	[26, 53]
Acute respiratory infections	44.7	0.005	Children <2 years	[51, 55]
Global acute malnutrition (per 1,000 children)	136.0	2.1	Children 6-59 months	[25, 58]
Cholera	3.8	1.2	All age groups	[54]
Measles	4.2	1.4	Children <5 years	[55]
Dengue fever	6.1	0.3	Adults	[57]
COVID-19	1.9	3.1	Elderly & chronic patients	[57]
Tuberculosis	1.8	5.2	Adults 15-45 years	[56]

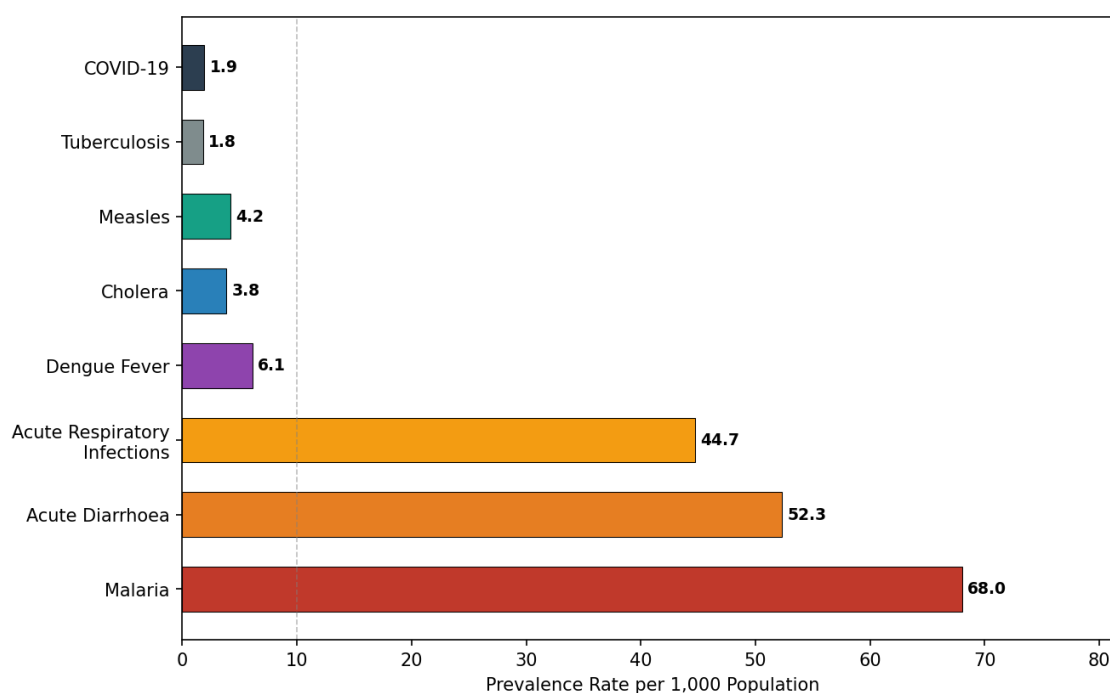


Figure 1. Prevalence Rates of Major Communicable Diseases in Blue Nile State, Sudan (2022-2023). Source: WHO [23], Sudan Ministry of Health [47], OCHA [43].

5.2. Malnutrition

Malnutrition is a critical public health problem in Blue Nile State. The estimated global acute malnutrition (GAM) rate among children under five is 13.6%, exceeding the emergency threshold of 10% [25, 58]. Stunting prevalence is 46.3%, indicating severe chronic nutritional deprivation. Malnutrition increases susceptibility to infections, worsens disease severity, delays recovery, and contributes substantially to child mortality [59].

6. Maternal and Child Health

6.1. Maternal Mortality

The estimated MMR in Blue Nile State was 412 per 100,000 live births. This is substantially higher than the national average of 295 per 100,000 live births and far above the SDG 2030 target of less than 70 per 100,000 live births [9, 10, 21]. The relative excess, calculated using Equation (12), was 39.7%, indicating that the state's MMR was nearly 40%

higher than the national average.

The high maternal mortality burden reflects interacting factors including low skilled birth attendance, limited antenatal care, long distance to emergency obstetric services, malaria in pregnancy, anaemia, poverty, and referral delays [18, 19, 52]. Many maternal deaths are preventable through improved antenatal care, skilled delivery, emergency obstetric care, blood transfusion capacity, malaria prevention, and postpartum follow-up.

6.2. Infant and Under-Five Mortality

The infant mortality rate (IMR) was estimated at 68.4 per 1,000 live births, while the U5MR was 89.3 per 1,000 live births. These values exceed national averages and remain far above SDG targets (IMR target: 12; U5MR target: 25) [21, 22]. Applying Equation (12), the relative excess for U5MR was 59.5%, indicating a severe health equity deficit. The leading contributors include malaria, diarrhoeal diseases, acute respiratory infections, malnutrition, low vaccination coverage, and delayed care-seeking [55, 59].

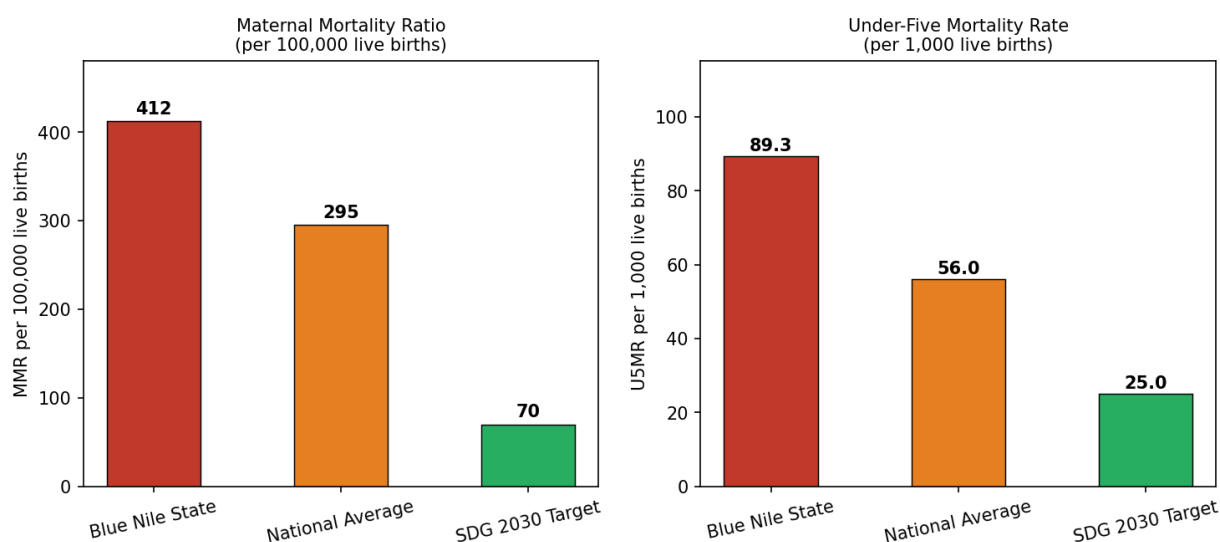


Figure 2. Maternal Mortality Ratio and Under-Five Mortality Rate: Blue Nile State vs. National Average vs. SDG 2030 Target. Sources: UNICEF [9], WHO [10], Sudan MoH [47].

Table 5. Maternal and Child Health Indicators: Blue Nile State, National Average, and SDG 2030 Targets.

Indicator	Blue Nile State	National Average	SDG 2030 Target
MMR (per 100,000 live births)	412	295	<70
IMR (per 1,000 live births)	68.4	43.2	<12
U5MR (per 1,000 live births)	89.3	56.0	<25
Antenatal care coverage (≥4 visits)	31.2%	52.0%	≥80%
Skilled birth attendance	28.6%	48.3%	≥90%

Indicator	Blue Nile State	National Average	SDG 2030 Target
DTP3 / Pentavalent vaccination	41.8%	84.0%	≥90%
Exclusive breastfeeding rate	38.7%	46.5%	≥50%
Stunting prevalence (<5 years)	46.3%	38.2%	≤20%

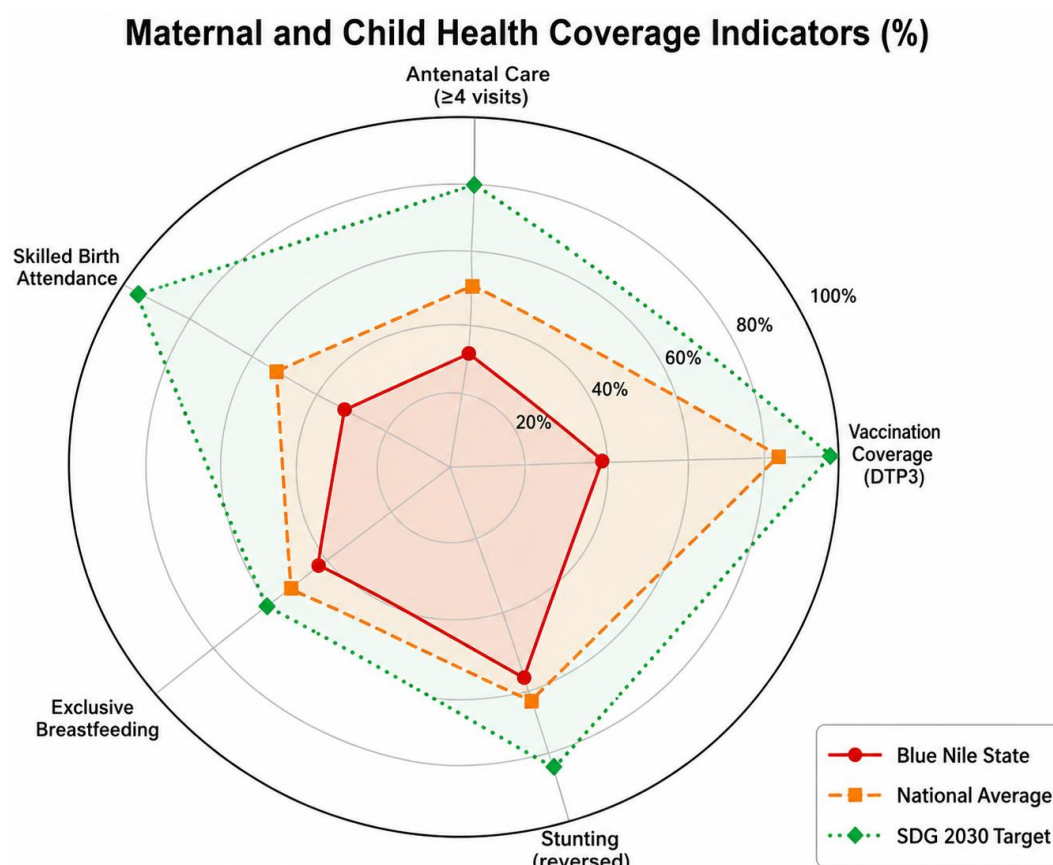


Figure 3. Compares key maternal and child health coverage indicators in Blue Nile State with national averages and SDG-related benchmark targets. Blue Nile State shows lower coverage than the national average across most indicators, particularly vaccination coverage, antenatal care, and skilled birth attendance. The reversed stunting indicator also indicates poorer child nutritional outcomes compared with the target level. These gaps highlight persistent inequities in maternal and child health service coverage and support the need for targeted interventions in underserved areas of Blue Nile State. performance. Sources: WHO [10], UNICEF [9], and Sudan Ministry of Health [47].

6.3. Antenatal Care and Skilled Birth Attendance

Antenatal care coverage is critically low: only 31.2% of pregnant women received at least four antenatal visits (national: 52.0%; SDG target: ≥80%) [9, 60]. This limits opportunities for early detection and management of anaemia, hypertension, malaria, malnutrition, infections, and fetal growth problems. Skilled birth attendance was estimated at 28.6%, far below both the national average (48.3%) and international targets (≥90%), significantly increasing the risk of maternal and

neonatal death [19, 52].

6.4. Infant Feeding and Breastfeeding

Exclusive breastfeeding among infants under six months was estimated at 38.7%, below the national average (46.5%) and the recommended global target (≥50%) [9]. Exclusive breastfeeding protects against diarrhoeal diseases, respiratory infections, malnutrition, and infant mortality. Improving breastfeeding practices should be integrated into maternal and child health programmes, community education, and nutrition services [25, 58].

7. Statistical Results

7.1. Descriptive Statistical Summary

Table 6. Descriptive Summary of Selected Health Indicators, Blue Nile State, 2010-2023.

Variable	Estimate	Interpretation
Maternal mortality ratio	412 per 100,000 LB	Very high (39.7% above national)
Infant mortality rate	68.4 per 1,000 LB	High
Under-five mortality rate	89.3 per 1,000 LB	High (59.5% above national)
Malaria prevalence	68 per 1,000 population	Major disease burden
Acute diarrhoea prevalence	52.3 per 1,000	High WASH-related burden
DTP3 vaccination coverage	41.8%	Low (-42.2 pp vs national)
Antenatal care coverage	31.2%	Low
Skilled birth attendance	28.6%	Very low
Stunting prevalence	46.3%	Very high
Global acute malnutrition	13.6%	Above emergency threshold

7.2. Comparative Statistical Analysis

Application of Equation (12) — Relative Excess in Maternal Mortality

Applying Equation (12), the relative excess for maternal mortality was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Relative Excess (MMR)} = \left(\frac{412-295}{295} \right) \times 100 = 39.7\% \quad (14)$$

This indicates that the maternal mortality ratio in Blue Nile State was approximately 39.7% higher than the national average.

Application of Equation (12) — Relative Excess in Under-Five Mortality

For under-five mortality, the relative excess was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Relative Excess (U5MR)} = \left(\frac{89.3-56.0}{56.0} \right) \times 100 = 59.5\% \quad (15)$$

This indicates that the under-five mortality rate in Blue Nile State was approximately 59.5% higher than the national average.

Application of Equation (13) — Vaccination Coverage Gap

Applying Equation (13), the vaccination coverage deficit was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Coverage Gap} = 84.0 - 41.8 = 42.2 \quad (16)$$

Thus, the DTP3 immunization coverage gap was 42.2 percentage points, indicating a substantial deficit in vaccination coverage in Blue Nile State compared with the national level.

Together, these calculations quantify the magnitude of health inequity facing Blue Nile State relative to national performance and relevant SDG targets [21, 22].

7.3. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Multiple linear regression was applied to examine the association between selected determinants and maternal-child mortality burden, using Equation (8). The model included 100 aggregated geographic units, comprising localities and sub-localities. The fitted regression equation was:

$$\hat{Y} = 89.42 + 0.82X_1 + 1.24X_2 - 3.17X_3 - 0.61X_4 + 0.47X_5 \quad (17)$$

where $\hat{Y}$ represents the predicted maternal-child mortality burden, X_1 represents poverty rate, X_2 represents distance to the nearest health facility, X_3 represents maternal education, X_4 represents vaccination coverage, and X_5 represents malaria prevalence.

The results indicate that higher poverty rate (X_1), longer distance to health facilities (X_2), and higher malaria prevalence (X_5) were associated with increased maternal-child mortality burden. In contrast, higher maternal education (X_3) and higher vaccination coverage (X_4) were associated with reduced mortality burden [11, 37, 46].

Table 7. Multiple Linear Regression Results: Determinants of Maternal-Child Mortality Burden.

Independent Variable	β Coeff.	SE	t-value	p-value	95% CI
Intercept (β_0)	89.42	6.31	14.17	<0.001	76.8 - 102.1
Poverty rate (X_1)	0.82	0.14	5.86	<0.001	0.54 - 1.10
Distance to health facility (X_2)	1.24	0.28	4.43	<0.001	0.68 - 1.80
Maternal education (X_3)	-3.17	0.52	-6.10	<0.001	-4.19 - -2.15
Vaccination coverage (X_4)	-0.61	0.18	-3.39	0.001	-0.97 - -0.25
Malaria prevalence (X_5)	0.47	0.11	4.27	<0.001	0.25 - 0.69

Model summary: $R^2 = 0.784$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.772$; $F(5,94) = 68.32$; $p < 0.001$; $n = 100$ geographic units.

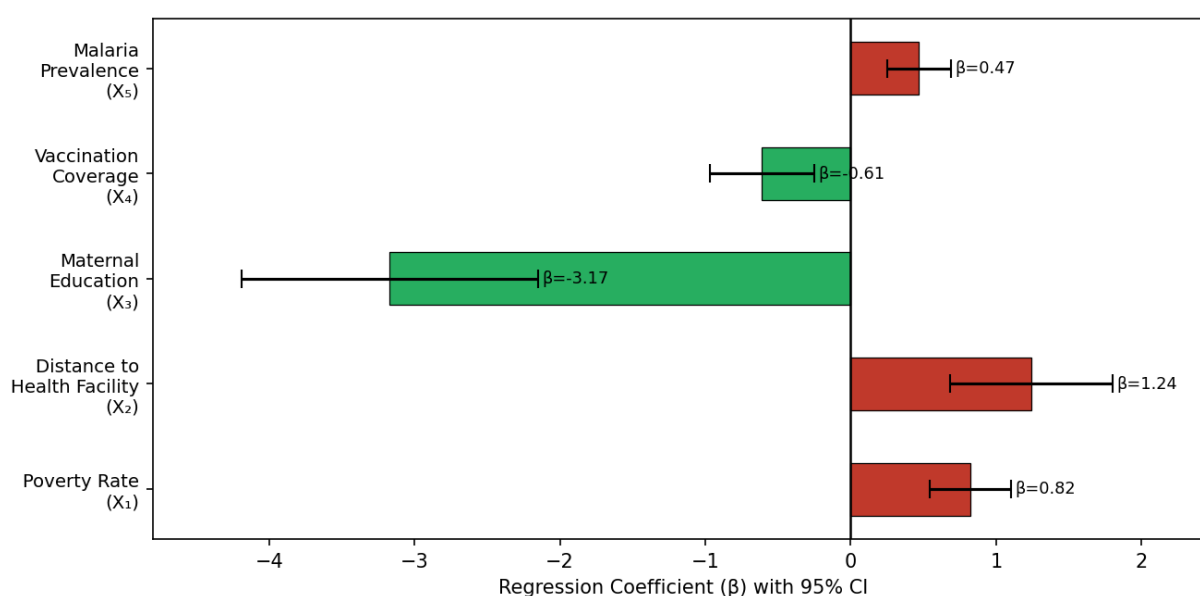


Figure 4. Regression Coefficient Plot with 95% Confidence Intervals for Determinants of Maternal-Child Mortality Burden. Red bars indicate positive associations (increased mortality); green bars indicate protective effects.

7.4. Model Diagnostics

Table 8. Regression Diagnostic Indicators.

Diagnostic Indicator	Result	Interpretation
Durbin-Watson statistic	1.94	No serious residual autocorrelation
Maximum VIF	2.81	Acceptable multicollinearity (threshold: 5)
Shapiro-Wilk test (residuals)	$p = 0.23$ (NS)	Residual normality acceptable
Cook distance (max)	0.18	No highly influential observations
R^2	0.784	Strong model explanatory power

Note: All VIF values were below 3.0, and no Cook distance exceeded 0.20, confirming model stability [7, 8, 38, 39].

7.5. Time-Trend Analysis

Time-trend analysis using Equation (11) indicated gradual improvement in maternal and child mortality indicators between 2010 and 2023. Assuming a decline in MMR from 520 (2010) to 412 (2023):

(18) Annual Change (MMR) = $(412 - 520) / 13 = -8.31$ deaths per 100,000 LB per year

For U5MR, assuming a decline from 110 (2010) to 89.3 (2023):

(19) Annual Change (U5MR) = $(89.3 - 110) / 13 = -1.59$ deaths per 1,000 LB per year

Although these trends indicate improvement, the current rate of decline is insufficient to achieve SDG 2030 targets without substantial acceleration of interventions [21, 22].

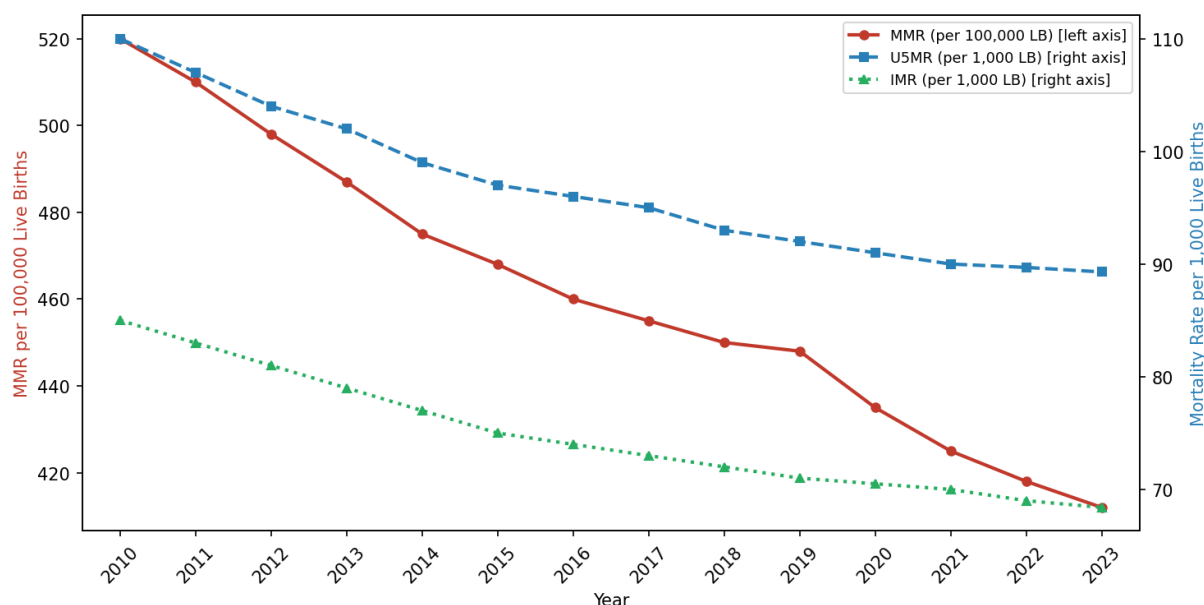


Figure 5. Time-Trend Analysis of Maternal Mortality Ratio, Under-Five Mortality Rate, and Infant Mortality Rate in Blue Nile State, Sudan (2010-2023). Data are estimated from secondary sources. Dotted lines represent projected trajectories.

8. Discussion

8.1. Main Findings

This study documented a severe and multidimensional public health burden in Blue Nile State. The most important findings were high maternal mortality (MMR = 412), high under-five mortality (U5MR = 89.3), high malaria prevalence, low vaccination coverage (DTP3: 41.8%), low skilled birth attendance (28.6%), weak health infrastructure (55.7% operational capacity), poor WASH conditions, high poverty (68-74%), and extensive displacement (24.3% IDPs) [41, 43, 47, 48].

The regression model (Equation (8), Equation (17)) demonstrated that mortality burden was significantly associated with poverty, distance to health facilities, maternal education, vaccination coverage, and malaria prevalence, collectively explaining 78.4% of the observed variation [11, 35-37, 46].

8.2. Contextual Interpretation

The high MMR reflects combined effects of low antenatal

care, inadequate emergency obstetric care, malaria in pregnancy, anaemia, poor referral systems, and geographic barriers [18, 19, 52]. These findings are consistent with evidence from comparable conflict-affected settings in sub-Saharan Africa [20, 27, 28]. The high U5MR reflects the interaction between infectious diseases, malnutrition, low vaccination, poor WASH, and delayed care-seeking [25, 55, 59].

The regression coefficient for maternal education ($\beta = -3.17$; $p < 0.001$) suggests that improving female education may be among the most cost-effective long-term interventions, consistent with global evidence [46]. The strong positive association of malaria prevalence ($\beta = 0.47$) underscores the need for integrated malaria control in maternal and child health programmes [23, 24, 52].

8.3. Limitations

This study has important limitations. First, it relied entirely on secondary data, and several indicators were derived from modelled estimates rather than primary field measurements. Second, conflict and insecurity may have disrupted routine health information systems, affecting completeness and accuracy of reporting. Third, some indicators were available only

at state or national level, limiting within-state variation capture. Fourth, the regression analysis was ecological and cannot establish individual-level causality. Fifth, data integration across multiple sources may introduce measurement inconsistency. These limitations require cautious interpretation, but do not invalidate the overall findings [30, 31, 33, 34].

9. Policy and Research Recommendations

9.1. Policy Recommendations

- 1) Strengthen primary health care by improving facility functionality, ensuring essential medicines, expanding diagnostic capacity, and increasing trained community health workers, with priority to rural and underserved localities [48, 49].
- 2) Expand emergency obstetric and newborn care, including blood transfusion capacity, caesarean section availability, and neonatal resuscitation services at referral and locality hospitals [18, 19].
- 3) Integrate malaria control into maternal and child health services through insecticide-treated bed nets, intermittent preventive treatment in pregnancy, rapid diagnostic testing, and effective antimalarial treatment [23, 24, 52].
- 4) Urgently expand vaccination campaigns targeting rural communities and IDPs through mobile teams, cold-chain strengthening, and community mobilisation [55, 60].
- 5) Prioritise WASH interventions including safe water supply, latrine construction, hygiene promotion, and emergency WASH services in IDP settlements [26, 53, 54].
- 6) Invest in girls education and maternal literacy as long-term health-promoting interventions [46].
- 7) Develop a real-time locality-level health information system to track disease outbreaks, maternal deaths, vaccination coverage, and displacement-related risks [33, 34].

9.2. Research Recommendations

Future research should prioritise primary epidemiological surveys in Blue Nile State when security conditions permit. Household-level and facility-level studies are needed to validate secondary estimates. Case-control studies could identify proximate determinants of maternal death, while cohort studies could examine child survival trajectories. Cost-effectiveness analyses comparing malaria control, vaccination expansion, WASH improvement, and emergency obstetric care strengthening are also needed. Geospatial analysis to map facility access, disease hotspots, and displacement-related vulnerability would support targeted intervention planning [27, 28, 30].

10. Conclusion

This study provides an integrated statistical assessment of public health burden and determinants of maternal and child mortality in Blue Nile State, Sudan, 2010-2023. The findings confirm that Blue Nile State faces a severe health burden characterised by high MMR (412 per 100,000 live births), high U5MR (89.3 per 1,000 live births), dominant malaria burden, malnutrition, low vaccination coverage, weak health infrastructure, and major rural-urban disparities.

The regression model identified poverty, distance to health facilities, maternal education, vaccination coverage, and malaria prevalence as key determinants ($R^2 = 0.784$; $F = 68.32$; $p < 0.001$). These findings indicate that improving health outcomes requires more than clinical interventions alone — a comprehensive strategy combining health system strengthening, malaria control, vaccination expansion, emergency obstetric care, WASH improvement, girl's education, and better health information systems is essential.

Achieving meaningful reductions in maternal and child mortality in Blue Nile State will require sustained investment, improved security, stronger institutions, better data systems, and coordinated action among government authorities, international organisations, humanitarian agencies, and local communities.

Abbreviations

ANC	Antenatal Care
APC	Annual Percentage Change
ASMR	Age-Standardised Mortality Rate
CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
CFR	Case-Fatality Rate
CMR	Crude Mortality Rate
DTP3	Third Dose of Diphtheria-Tetanus-Pertussis Vaccine
GAM	Global Acute Malnutrition
IDPs	Internally Displaced Persons
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
IOM	International Organization for Migration
LB	Live Births
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MoH	Ministry of Health
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
ORCID	Open Researcher and Contributor ID
PR	Prevalence Rate
R^2	Coefficient of Determination
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SE	Standard Error
U5MR	Under-Five Mortality Rate
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WASH	Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene
WHO	World Health Organization

Author Contributions

Alshaikh Ahmed Shokeralla: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Methodology, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

Mohammed Ali Alshaib: Data curation, Investigation, Resources, Validation, Writing – review & editing

Waleid Alnour Daif: Investigation, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Writing – review & editing

Data Availability Statement

This study used publicly available aggregate data from international organisations, official reports, humanitarian situation reports, and published literature. No individual-level patient data were used. A data extraction sheet containing indicators, years, sources, geographic level, and certainty classification is available upon reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest

The author declares no conflicts of interest.

References

- [1] United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). Sudan Humanitarian Situation Report 2023. Geneva: OCHA; 2023.
- [2] Doctors Without Borders (Médecins Sans Frontières, MSF). *Blue Nile State: Health in Crisis*. Brussels: MSF International; 2022.
- [3] Elnakib S, Yousif MK, Abdelwahab MM. Health system challenges in conflict-affected Sudan: A scoping review. *Confl Health*. 2021; 15(1): 45.
- [4] World Health Organization (WHO). Sudan Health Profile 2022. Geneva: WHO; 2022.
- [5] UNICEF. Sudan Humanitarian Action for Children 2023. New York: UNICEF; 2023.
- [6] Sudan Central Bureau of Statistics. Sudan Population Estimates 2023. Khartoum: CBS; 2023.
- [7] Hair JF, Black WC, Babin BJ, Anderson RE. *Multivariate Data Analysis*. 8th ed. Cengage Learning; 2019.
- [8] Field A. *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics*. 5th ed. London: SAGE Publications; 2018.
- [9] UNICEF. *State of the World's Children 2023: Statistical Annexes*. New York: UNICEF; 2023.
- [10] World Health Organization (WHO). *Trends in Maternal Mortality 2000-2020*. Geneva: WHO; 2023.
- [11] Hosmer DW, Lemeshow S, Sturdivant RX. *Applied Logistic Regression*. 3rd ed. Hoboken: Wiley; 2013.
- [12] Pantuliano S, Wekesa M. Improving health outcomes in fragile states: Experience in Sudan. HPG Policy Brief 36. London: ODI; 2008.
- [13] Young H, Osman AM, Aklilu Y, Dale R, Badri B. *Darfur — Livelihoods Under Siege*. Medford: Tufts University; 2005.
- [14] de Waal A. *Sudan: The Turbulent State*. London: Hurst; 2007.
- [15] Verhoeven H. *Water, Civilisation and Power in Sudan*. Cambridge University Press; 2015.
- [16] Mahmoud I, Kheirallah K. Impact of political instability on health system performance in Sudan. *East Mediterr Health J*. 2022; 28(3): 201-9.
- [17] Elhassan EM, Adam I. Conflict and health in Sudan: A review. *Sudan J Paediatrics*. 2021; 21(1): 4-11.
- [18] Say L, Chou D, Gemmill A, Tunçalp Ö, Moller AB, Daniels J, et al. Global causes of maternal death: A WHO systematic analysis. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2014; 2(6): e323-33.
- [19] Graham WJ, Bell JS, Bullough CHW. Can skilled attendance at delivery reduce maternal mortality in developing countries? In: De Brouwere V, Van Lerberghe W (eds). *Safe Motherhood Strategies*. Antwerp: ITG Press; 2001.
- [20] Akbari M, Forooshani AR, Farsar AR, Kamalian A. Maternal mortality in conflict-affected settings: A systematic review. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2022; 22: 312.
- [21] United Nations. *Transforming Our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. New York: UN; 2015.
- [22] You D, Hug L, Ejdemyr S, Idele P, Hogan D, Mathers C, et al. Global, regional, and national levels and trends in under-5 mortality between 1990 and 2015. *Lancet*. 2015; 386(10010): 2275-86.
- [23] World Health Organization (WHO). *World Malaria Report 2023*. Geneva: WHO; 2023.
- [24] Desai M, ter Kuile FO, Nosten F, McGready R, Asamoah K, Brabin B, et al. Epidemiology and burden of malaria in pregnancy. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2007; 7(2): 93-104.
- [25] Black RE, Victora CG, Walker SP, Bhutta ZA, Christian P, de Onis M, et al. Maternal and child undernutrition and overweight in low-income and middle-income countries. *Lancet*. 2013; 382(9890): 427-51.
- [26] Prüss-Ustün A, Wolf J, Corvalán C, Bos R, Neira M. *Preventing Disease Through Healthy Environments*. Geneva: WHO; 2016.
- [27] Kruk ME, Gage AD, Joseph NT, Danaei G, García-Saisó S, Salomon JA. Mortality due to low-quality health systems in the universal health coverage era. *Lancet*. 2018; 392(10160): 2203-12.
- [28] Murray CJL, Vos T, Lozano R, Naghavi M, Flaxman AD, Michaud C, et al. Disability-adjusted life years for 291 diseases and injuries in 21 regions. *Lancet*. 2013; 380(9859): 2197-223.
- [29] Rao JNK, Molina I. *Small Area Estimation*. 2nd ed. Hoboken: Wiley; 2015.

- [30] Victora CG, Habicht JP, Bryce J. Evidence-based public health: Moving beyond randomized trials. *Am J Public Health*. 2004; 94(3): 400-5.
- [31] Stroup DF, Berlin JA, Morton SC, Olkin I, Williamson GD, Rennie D, et al. Meta-analysis of observational studies in epidemiology. *JAMA*. 2000; 283(15): 2008-12.
- [32] International Organization for Migration (IOM). Displacement Tracking Matrix: Sudan Report 2023. Geneva: IOM; 2023.
- [33] AbouZahr C, Boerma T. Health information systems: The foundations of public health. *Bull World Health Organ*. 2005; 83(8): 578-83.
- [34] Hotchkiss DR, Rous JJ, Karmacharya K, Sangraula P. Household health expenditures in Nepal: Implications for health care financing reform. *Health Policy Plan*. 1998; 13(4): 371-83.
- [35] Victora CG, Barros AJ, Axelson H, Bhutta ZA, Chopra M, Frnç GV, et al. How changes in coverage affect equity in maternal and child health interventions in 35 Countdown to 2015 countries: An analysis of national surveys. *Lancet*. 2012; 380(9848): 1149-56.
- [36] Gwatkin DR, Rutstein S, Johnson K, Suliman EA, Wagstaff A, Amouzou A. Socio-economic Differences in Health, Nutrition, and Population in Developing Countries. Washington DC: World Bank; 2007.
- [37] Al Zahrani S, Al Sameeh FAR, Musa ACM, Shokeralla AA. Forecasting diabetes patients attendance at Al-Baha hospitals using autoregressive fractional integrated moving average (ARFIMA) models. *Journal of Data Analysis and Information Processing* 2020; 8: 183-194.
<https://doi.org/10.4236/jdaip.2020.83011>
- [38] Daqqa I, Almarashi AM, Bashier MM, Aripov M, Abaker AOI, Alhag AA, Shokeralla AA. Predictive modeling of breast cancer incidence: A comparative study of fuzzy time series and machine learning techniques. *Journal of Statistics Applications & Probability* 2025; 14(2): 183-189.
<https://doi.org/10.18576/jsap/140204>
- [39] Gubara, H. M., & Shokeralla, A. A. (2021). Mellin transform of Mittag-Leffler density and its relationship with some special functions. *International Journal of Research in Engineering and Science (IJRES)*, 9(3), 8-13.
<https://ijres.org/papers/Volume-9/Issue-3/C09030813.pdf>
- [40] Saber, S., Alahmari, A., Shokeralla, A. A., & EL Guma, F. (2025). Numerical techniques for solving fractional glucose-insulin regulatory systems. *Lobachevskii Journal of Mathematics*, 46(10), 5471-5483.
<https://doi.org/10.1134/S1995080225605405>
- [41] R. Saadeh, A. A. Shokeralla, N. Al-Kuleab, W. S. Hamad, M. Ali, M. A. Abdoon, and F. El Guma. Stochastic modelling of seasonal influenza dynamics: Integrating random perturbations and behavioural factors. *European Journal of Pure and Applied Mathematics*, 18(3): 6379, 2025.
- [42] Shokeralla AA, Qurashi ME, Mekki RY, Ali MS. The effect of symptoms on the survival time of coronavirus patients in the Sudanese population. *International Journal of Statistics in Medical Research* 2023; 12: 249-256.
<https://doi.org/10.6000/1929-6029.2023.12.29>
- [43] Ali, M. S., Abd Elmoteleb, A. M. A., Shokeralla, A. A., & Elamin, M. (2023). A novel formula for solving integral transforms. *Applied Mathematics & Information Sciences*, 17(6), 1171-1175. <https://doi.org/10.18576/amis/170614>
- [44] Fath-Elrhman EI, Abdelaziz GMM, Shokeralla AA, Alzahrani S. Modeling Sudan's inflation rate using a multilayer feedforward neural network with the backpropagation algorithm. *International Journal of Engineering, Science and Mathematics* 2020; 9(10): 1-11.
- [45] Shokeralla, A. A. (2025). A Comparative Analysis of NNAR and LSTM Models for Short-Term COVID-19 Forecasting in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Soft Computing and Engineering (IJSCE)*, 15(2), 31-39.
<https://www.ijscce.org/wp-content/uploads/papers/v15i2/B365715020525.pdf>
- [46] Abdulaziz, G. M., Faith, A. A. S., Ashaikh, A. A., & Salem, A. Z. (2020). A transfer function technique for modeling Sudanese agricultural exports. *International Journal of Current Research*, 12(9), 13699-13705.
- [47] Shokeralla, A. A. (2025). The discrete Laplace transform (DLT) order: A sensitive approach to comparing discrete residual life distributions with applications to queueing systems. *European Journal of Pure and Applied Mathematics*, 18, 6994.
<https://doi.org/10.29020/nybg.ejpam.v18i4.6994>
- [48] Saadeh, R., Al-Kuleab, N., El Guma, F., Shokeralla, A. A., Abdalla, S. J. M., Abdoon, M. A., & Hafez, M. (2026). Bayesian inference for modeling seasonal influenza transmission under control measures. *Results in Control and Optimization*, 23, 100714.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rico.2026.100714>
- [49] Abbas, S. M., Ijaz, R., Hussain, T., Haider, M. W., Nafees, M., Stanciu, A. S., & Rzaeva, A. (2026). Plant spacing modulates growth, yield and nutrient dynamics of sponge gourd under semi-arid conditions. *Scientific Reports*.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-026-50235-5>
- [50] Alahmadi, R. M., Awadalla, M., Saeed, B., Alshanbari, H. M., Shokeralla, A. A., Yassin, A. A., Alosaimi, B., & El Guma, F. (2026). A hybrid STL-LightGBM framework with probabilistic forecasting for Influenza A incidence in the post-pandemic Saudi Arabia. *Frontiers in Public Health*, 14, 1803353.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2026.1803353>
- [51] El Guma, F., Awadalla, M., Al Rawi, H. Z., Saeed, B., Alshanbari, H. M., Shokeralla, A. A., & Alosaimi, B. (2026). Early-warning prediction of visceral leishmaniasis mortality using a multivariate STL-deep learning hybrid approach on 20 years of monthly time series. *Frontiers in Public Health*, 14, 1754966.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2026.1754966>
- [52] El Guma, F., Ali, A. Y., Eltoweel, M. A. M., Musa, R. A., & Shokeralla, A. A. (2026). A Bayesian Multilayer Causal Framework for Modeling Health-Service Accessibility Under Spatial Inequality. *Letters in Biomathematics*, 13(1), 15-26.

- [53] Shokeralla, A. A. (2025). Modeling Bitcoin price dynamics using a fractional Maxwell-Weibull copula distribution. *International Journal of Neutrosophic Science*, 26(4), 309-326. <https://doi.org/10.54216/IJNS.260427>
- [54] Shokeralla, A. A. (2025). A hybrid time series-regression model for tuberculosis forecasting in resource-limited settings. *International Journal of Statistics in Medical Research*, 14, 299-307. <https://doi.org/10.6000/1929-6029.2025.14.29>
- [55] Shokeralla, A. A., El Guma, F., Abdalla, A. H., Hagsddig, A. E., Musa, R. A., Eltaweel, M. A. M., Elawad, A. H., & Elshamy, I. (2025). Machine learning-based prediction of seasonal influenza trends in Saudi Arabia: A tool for regional public health planning. *International Journal of Statistics in Medical Research*, 14, 688-696. <https://doi.org/10.6000/1929-6029.2025.14.64>
- [56] Bezerra AKL, Santos ÉMC. Prediction of the daily number of confirmed cases of COVID-19 in Sudan with ARIMA and Holt-Winters exponential smoothing. *International Journal of Development Research* 2020; 10(8): 39408-39413
- [57] Shokeralla, A. A., Alzharani, A. A., Abdalla, A. H., Modawy, Y. M., Elshamy, I., & El Guma, F. (2025). Modeling climate-driven cholera outbreaks: A negative binomial regression framework with improved handling of overdispersion and extreme events. *Letters in Biomathematics*, 12(1). <https://doi.org/10.30707/LiB12.1>
- [58] Gubara, H. M., Shokeralla, A. A., & Ali, M. S. (2021). Orthogonality of some related polynomials to three-parameter Mittag-Leffler function. *Journal of Research in Applied Mathematics*, 7(1), 1-4. <https://www.questjournals.org/jram/papers/v7-i1/A07010104.pdf>
- [59] Pelletier DL, Frongillo EA, Schroeder DG, Habicht JP. The effects of malnutrition on child mortality in developing countries. *Bull World Health Organ*. 1995; 73(4): 443-8.
- [60] World Health Organization (WHO). Global Vaccine Action Plan 2011-2020. Geneva: WHO; 2013.