

1 **Title page**

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3 **Climatic Factors in Relation to Diarrhea for Informed Public Health Decision-Making: A**
4 **Novel Methodological Approach**

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32 **Abstract**

33 Background: Diarrheal disease is one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality globally,
34 particularly in children under 5 years of age. Factors related to diarrheal disease incidence
35 include infection, malnutrition, and exposure to contaminated water and food. Climate factors
36 also contribute to diarrheal disease.

37 Objectives: We aimed to explore the relationship between temperature, precipitation and diarrhea
38 case counts of hospital admissions among vulnerable communities living in a rural setting in
39 South Africa.

40 Methods: We applied a novel approach of ‘contour analysis’ to visually examine simultaneous
41 observations in frequencies of anomalously high and low diarrhea case counts occurring in a
42 season and assigning colors to differences that were statistically significant based on chi-squared
43 test results.

44 Results: There was a significantly positive difference between high and low ‘groups’ when there
45 was a lack of rain (0 mm of cumulative rain) for 1 to 2 weeks in winter for children under 5.

46 Diarrhea prevalence was greater among children under 5 years when conditions were hotter than
47 usual during winter and spring.

48 Discussion: Dry conditions may lead to increased water storage raising the risks of water
49 contamination. Reduced use of water for personal hygiene and cleaning of outdoor pit latrines
50 affect sanitation quality. Rural communities require adequate and uninterrupted water provision
51 and healthcare providers should raise awareness about potential diarrheal risks especially during
52 the dry season.

53

54 **Keywords:** diarrheal disease, climate change, hygiene, temperature, South Africa, environmental
55 health.

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57

58 **Introduction**

59 An estimated 3.4 million people die from diarrheal and other water-related diseases each year
60 [1]. Diarrheal disease is responsible globally for 21% of deaths per year in children younger
61 than 5 years of age [2] and is ranked as the third leading cause of death in this age group in South
62 Africa [3]. The transmission of diarrheal disease is determined by factors related to, among
63 others, weather variables, the vector and agent, socio-economic and ecological conditions, and
64 intrinsic human immunity [4].

65 Several infectious water-borne diseases, including diarrheal disease, are linked to
66 fluctuations in weather and climate [5] and usually exhibit typical seasonal patterns in which the
67 role of temperature and rainfall has been documented [6] but not always in agreement. Both
68 floods and droughts can increase the risk of diarrheal diseases, although the evidence for the
69 effects of drought on diarrhea is inconclusive [7]. Major causes of diarrhea, i.e. cholera,
70 cryptosporidium, *E. coli* infection, giardia, shigella, typhoid, and viruses such as hepatitis A, are
71 associated with heavy rainfall and contaminated water supplies [8]. In the tropics, diarrheal
72 diseases typically peak during the rainy season. A significant association of non-cholera diarrhea
73 related hospital visits was found with high and low rainfall and with high temperature in Dhaka,
74 Bangladesh [9]. In Senegal, there were two annual peaks in diarrheal incidence: one during the
75 cold dry season and one during the rainy season. Thiam et al. [10] observed a positive
76 association of diarrheal incidence with high average temperature of 36 °C and above, and high
77 cumulative monthly rainfall at 57 mm and above. In Vietnam, considerable spatial heterogeneity
78 existed in the risk of all-cause for diarrhoea across districts investigated with low elevation and
79 differential responses to flooding and air temperature, and humidity drove further spatial
80 heterogeneity in diarrheal disease risk [11]. In Ecuador, heavy rainfall events were associated
81 with increased diarrhoea incidence following dry periods and decreased diarrhoea incidence
82 following wet periods [12].

83 Children and especially children under 5 years of age, are particularly susceptible to
84 diarrheal disease. In a study using Demographic and Health Survey data from 14 Sub-Saharan
85 countries, regional prevalence of diarrhoea in children under three years of age was considered in
86 relation to variations in precipitation and temperature [13]. Results showed that shortage of
87 rainfall in the dry season increased the prevalence of diarrhoea across Sub-Saharan Africa. Such
88 shortages occur in many regions when rainfall is average to below-average relative to the long-

89 term monthly-mean. The results also showed that an increase in monthly-average maximum
90 temperature raises the prevalence of diarrhoea while an increase in monthly minimum
91 temperature reduces the number of diarrheal cases [13]. Maximum temperature and extreme
92 rainfall days were also reported as strongly related to diarrhoea-associated morbidity with the
93 impact of maximum temperature on diarrhoea-associated morbidity appearing primarily among
94 children (0–14 years) and older adults (40–64 years), but with relatively less effects on adults
95 (15–39 years) [14].

96 Since diarrheal disease is a major cause of morbidity and mortality, particularly among
97 children under 5 years of age in developing countries and given that climate change-related
98 health consequences of diarrheal diseases are projected to pose significant risks to future
99 populations [15] we set out to explore the relationship between climate factors (temperature and
100 precipitation) and diarrhoea prevalence among vulnerable rural communities in South Africa
101 located in a subtropical setting, using a novel approach. In this study, we used “contours” to
102 visualize frequencies of diarrhoea anomalies occurring in a season and assigned colors to
103 differences that were statistically significant based on chi-squared test results. Meteorologists
104 and oceanographers apply this technique called ‘contour analysis’ to visually explain
105 simultaneous observations [16]. Isopleths, or lines of equal value, are used in contour analysis to
106 link places of equal parameter. The use of “contours” or “contour plots” is seen in climate-
107 related research, for instance, to consider weather patterns [17]. To the best of our knowledge,
108 this is the first-time contour analysis has been used in climate-based-health research for public
109 health decision-making. The results may be useful for integration into early warning systems that
110 use climate and other relevant information towards prevention of diarrhoea.

111

112 **Methods**

113 *Data*

114 Handwritten hospital admission records for 1 January 2002 to 31 December 2016 were collected
115 from two large, public hospitals, namely Nkhensani Hospital and Maphutha L. Malatjie Hospital,
116 located in Mopani District Municipality in Limpopo Province, South Africa (Figure 1). Hospital
117 records were scanned using an SV 600 overhead snap scanner, pages were saved as soft copies
118 as .pdf files and later printed for double data entry into an electronic database using EpiData
119 (version 3.1). Each hospital admission record included patient’s name and surname, patient’s

120 residential address, patient's date of birth, patient's age, date of admission and reason for
121 admission.

122 All diarrhea cases were extracted from the hospital admission records database for cases
123 defined as diarrhoea using the criteria and terms provided by a South African medical doctor.
124 Abdominal distention was not included since it could be associated with a variety of medical
125 conditions other than diarrhoea. Data were unavailable in 2006 for both hospitals as well as at
126 one hospital for weeks 1-23 in 2002 and weeks 1-40 in 2007. Despite the missing data mentioned
127 above, our analyses could still be applied with the missing values (we did not replace missing
128 values with zero) since we focused on anomalously high and low counts of daily admissions. It
129 should be emphasized that the count for total admissions is not necessarily the total admissions at
130 that hospital for that day / month / year but rather a total of the admissions that were captured by
131 the hospital staff, collected by the researchers and entered by the data enterers. Cases of
132 diarrhoea were summed as counts per week and diarrhoea weekly case counts were used in the
133 contour analysis, described below.

134 Daily precipitation and temperature data were obtained from the South African Weather
135 Service monitoring stations in the same District Municipality in which the two public hospitals
136 were located. Table 1 presents the mean weekly precipitation and temperature by season for
137 2002 to 2016 for the study site. Precipitation data were available from one station in the District
138 Municipality. Daily precipitation levels (mm) were summed to generate a weekly rainfall value.
139 For temperature, data from 8 stations (namely Hoedspruit Air force Base, Tzaneen-Westfalia
140 Estate, Levubu, Giyani, Tshivhasie Tea Venda, Tshanowa Primary School, Mukumbani Tea
141 Estate and Punda Maria) at longitudes between 30.1 and 31.1° E and latitudes between 22.6 and
142 24.3° S in the District Municipality were extracted and applied in the study. Data from all these
143 stations were used to calculate a spatially-averaged temperature for the study area. Daily
144 minimum and maximum temperature (°C) values were then temporally averaged to generate
145 weekly temperature values for minimum (Tmin) and maximum (Tmax) temperatures. For the
146 contour analysis, weekly rainfall, Tmin and Tmax were used.

147

148 *Contour analysis*

149 As an initial step for the analysis, we compared the climate variables, namely temperature and
150 precipitation, between high and low diarrhea case count anomalies from hospital admissions,

151 which were calculated by removing the climatological mean and linear trend of the case counts.
152 The original time series was decomposed into three components: (i) Seasonal patterns that
153 repeated with a fixed period of time (defined according to season as stated below) considered on
154 a monthly scale and deemed as the climatological means; (ii) The underlying trend which could
155 relate to the effort of collecting diarrhea data, the effect of some intervention or population
156 growth, etc.; and (iii) The residuals of the original time series after the seasonal and trend series
157 were removed referring to the “noise”, “irregular” or “remainder”, which is thus termed as the
158 random component, i.e. the anomalies. Anomalies were therefore calculated according to
159 Equation 1:

$$160 \quad A(t) = X(t) - S(t) - T(t) \quad [1]$$

161 Where: A is the Anomaly, S is the seasonal component, T is the trend component, and t is time
162 (or week). High weekly anomalies were inferred as ‘higher than normal’ diarrhea case counts
163 and low anomalies were inferred as ‘lower than normal’, where ‘normal’ refers to the long-term
164 average for the corresponding period/week i.e. the first component discussed above. In addition,
165 we discarded anomalies that were less than one standard deviation from the mean to retain
166 anomalously extreme high or low incidence. Then we segregated the high and low incidence
167 (case count anomalies) by season. Seasons were defined as spring: September-October-
168 November (abbreviated as SON); summer: December-January-February (DJF); autumn: March-
169 April-May (MAM); and winter: June-July-August (JJA).

170 For all weeks within each season, across the data set, we counted for precipitation how
171 many times it rained on average ‘y’ mm over ‘x’ consecutive weeks (with x going from 1 to 10
172 weeks, and y for decile increments of the range of precipitation values) and tested these findings
173 for statistically significant differences between the two groups of incidence category (i.e. high or
174 low). The differences of how many times it rained in the high and low groups were plotted as
175 contour lines. Differences with statistical significance, based on a chi-squared test for counts and
176 using a Monte Carlo test [18] with 1 000 replicates to compute p-values at alpha level 0.01, were
177 plotted. We repeated this approach for consecutive weeks with weekly Tmax and Tmin. For both
178 precipitation and temperature, we also looked at lagged effects of each climate variable, for 0 to
179 8 weeks lag (chosen *a priori*) [9, 19], i.e. lag 3 means "temperature or rain 3 weeks prior to
180 diarrhea counts of a certain week". Contour plots were made for individuals of 5 years and older

181 and for children under 5 years of age (i.e. 0 to 4 years), separately. All analyses were done in R
182 version 3.2.2 [20]

183

184 *Ethics Statement*

185 Permission to conduct the study was granted by the Limpopo Department of Health (REF 4/2/2),
186 the management staff of Nkhensani Hospital and Maphutha L. Malatjie Hospital. Permission was
187 granted by the South African Weather Service for use of the climate data. The South African
188 Medical Research Council Research Ethics Committee approved the study protocol (EC005-
189 3/2014).

190

191 **Results**

192 *Hospital admission counts*

193 Between 2002 and 2016 (inclusive) the total numbers (as captured for this study) of diarrhea
194 hospital admission case counts at the two hospitals for individuals aged 5 years and older and for
195 children under 5 years of age, separately, were 8 885 and 2 343, respectively. Figure 2 shows the
196 high and low weekly diarrhea case count anomalies during the 14-year period for (a) individuals
197 aged 5 years and older and (b) children under 5 years of age.

198

199 *Precipitation and diarrhea case counts for individuals 5 years and older*

200 We applied ‘contour analysis’ to the anomalously high and low weekly diarrhea count groups for
201 individuals aged 5 years and older and compared these groups by counting consecutive weekly
202 total rainfall. Figure 3 shows significant positive differences for different lags for JJA (dry
203 season). At lags of 2, 3 and 6 weeks, cumulative rain of 8 – 14 mm for 6 to 10 consecutive weeks
204 showed positive differences between high and low groups (orange colors). In the beginning of
205 the rainy season SON, significant differences were seen in cumulative rain of up to 14 mm for 10
206 consecutive weeks for up to 2 weeks lag (Figure 4). In the rainy season (DJF), cumulative rain of
207 40 - 52 mm for 8 to 9 consecutive weeks showed significant differences between high and low
208 groups up to 1-week lag (Supplementary Figure S1). Similar levels of cumulative rain were seen
209 in MAM, however, for lags of 5 to 8 weeks (Figure S2).

210

211 *Precipitation and diarrhea case counts for children under 5 years of age*

212 For children under 5 years of age, significant differences between the high and low groups
213 showed different patterns in all seasons compared to the older age group. The most remarkable
214 difference - evident by the 'red cells' in Figure 5 for most lags - indicated that there was a
215 significantly positive difference when there was a lack of rain (0 mm of cumulative rain) for 1 to
216 2 weeks in JJA. Also, 5 or more consecutive weeks of 7 to 21 mm of cumulative rain showed
217 significantly positive differences at most lags. For SON, significant differences were seen most
218 noticeably at a lag of 5 weeks with 4 to 9 weeks of consecutively no rain (Figure 6). Significant
219 differences were not seen in DJF (Figure S3) and MAM showed differences only at 4 and 8 for 8
220 to 10 weeks of consecutive cumulative rain of 14 – 26 mm (Figure S4).

221

222 *Temperature and diarrhea case counts for individuals aged 5 years and older*

223 There were no statistically significant associations between temperature (Tmin and Tmax) and
224 high and low anomalies in case counts of diarrhea among individuals aged 5 years and older
225 (Data not shown).

226

227 *Temperature and diarrhea case counts for children under 5 years of age*

228 Among children under 5 years of age, there were some differences of Tmin and Tmax between
229 the high and low groups for seasons JJA and SON. For JJA, 1 week of Tmin at 12 °C at 2 to 3
230 weeks lag and 16 °C at 8 weeks lag showed significant positive differences between high and
231 low groups (Figure S5). For Tmax, 1 to 2 weeks of consecutive temperatures reaching 24 °C
232 showed positive differences between the two groups at 3 to 4 weeks lag (Figure S6). As for
233 SON, 9 to 10 weeks of consecutive Tmax of 26 °C showed positive significant differences at 5-,
234 7- and 8-weeks lag (Figure S7). Seasons DJF and MAM did not show any significant
235 differences.

236

237 **Discussion**

238 We set out to explore the relationship between precipitation / temperature and case counts of
239 diarrhea hospital admissions using a novel approach of 'contour analysis' to visually explain
240 simultaneous statistically significant observations in frequencies of anomalously high and low
241 diarrhea case counts occurring in a season. Previous studies have used alternate statistical
242 methods of analysis, such as time series regression [21,22] to consider the relationship between

243 precipitation and diarrhea, and temperature and diarrhea. In those studies, the datasets were
244 significantly larger in size compared to the data available in our study and there were fewer
245 missing data probably because of electronic record-keeping which is not common practice in
246 rural, African hospitals and clinics. We successfully implemented contour analysis for the first
247 time with meteorological and public health data. This method of analysis is therefore of great
248 potential value for use with relatively small- and medium-sized datasets and where the hospital
249 admissions data are constrained due to missing information - partially because of data being
250 handwritten and not electronically captured. In time series analysis, for example, the approach
251 would be to either remove all data prior to the complete year of missing data (in our study this
252 was the year 2006) or use data imputation. In our analyses, we did not need to remove the data
253 because our analysis was not affected by such missing data, instead, we treated missing values as
254 missing (not zeroes) and focused on the anomalously high and low diarrhea counts.

255 Our most statistically significant findings were for children under 5 years of age in whom
256 we saw a high prevalence of diarrhea when conditions were either wetter than average during the
257 rainy season or drier than average during the dry season, as well as when temperatures were
258 higher than normal. Children may be particularly vulnerable to diarrhea transmission when
259 conditions are very dry and hot. A similar finding was seen in Nigeria where rotavirus was also
260 most prevalent (95 % of all cases) during the dry season [23]. Similarly, in Botswana, diarrhea
261 incidence is high in both the wet and dry seasons, but it was unexpectedly highest in the dry
262 season with a 20 % increase over the yearly mean [24]. In the latter study, the authors
263 hypothesized that the dry (and hot) conditions encouraged the activity and density of flies that
264 transmitted diarrhea-causing microorganisms. We surmise that in Limpopo, South Africa, the
265 warmer and drier conditions may lead to water shortages, lower availability of safe water sources
266 [25] and increased water storage (perhaps not hygienically maintained), reducing personal use
267 (and cleaning) of outdoor pit latrines, thereby reducing sanitation quality and personal hygiene.
268 In addition, the wetter conditions may lead to increased risks of water contamination. Under-
269 developed infrastructure and illegal connections to water supply pipes may also lead to
270 contaminated water [26]. It is possible that children under the age of 5 are more vulnerable to
271 such conditions. However, these assumptions remained to be verified among the communities
272 served by the two hospitals from which data were drawn for use in the analyses presented here.

273 Based on the contour analysis results and associations found at certain lags, these results
274 could assist healthcare practitioners to issue seasonal warnings of potentially high diarrhea and
275 prevention measures in advance. For instance, separate warnings could be issued based on the
276 contour analysis for individuals older than 5 years and for children under 5. For the younger age
277 group, a warning could be issued for the winter season, up to 3 weeks in advance with up to 2
278 consecutive weeks of no rain. This warning can be updated on a weekly basis if there is still no
279 rain occurring in the coming weeks. Most importantly, the warning would still be in effect if
280 there is anomalous rain (7-21 mm) during the last 10 weeks prior to the winter season. Children
281 under 5 were also susceptible to changes in temperature. For instance, when minimum
282 temperature reaches 12 to 16 ° C, which is warmer than average for the winter season, it could
283 also result in higher cases of diarrhea in the children under 5 years of age. It could be that wet
284 and warmer conditions than average during winter co-vary and therefore anomalous winter rain
285 may lead to warmer temperatures for that season and therefore increase diarrhea prevalence.

286 Our study was constrained by the quantity and quality of the hospital admissions data that
287 were used to determine diarrhea prevalence. The medical records included those from the
288 children, female and male wards only. All the records were handwritten and posed numerous
289 challenges such as faded ink and handwriting being illegible, daily use of books leading to torn
290 pages and errors in recording, for example, a male patient captured in a female ward.
291 Misdiagnosis and misclassification were also evident in the hospital records, for example, where
292 there was no clear indication of the final diagnosis of health outcome when a patient was
293 discharged and where dates were entered incorrectly (the discharge date was sometimes captured
294 as being before the admission date). While it would have been informative to know the cause of
295 each diarrhea case, this information was not available from the hospitals, however, it is possible
296 that the dry, cold season diarrhea was of viral cause [27]. In almost all cases the sex was missing.
297 Therefore, it was not possible to use these data in our analyses. Despite those hurdles, the results
298 presented here are statistically significant and missing and incorrect reporting are unlikely to
299 drastically change the conclusions.

300 In summary, using a novel approach of analysis we detected trends in patterns of
301 precipitation and temperature in relation to diarrhea prevalence for two separate age groups.
302 Children under 5 years of age were especially vulnerable to diarrhea during very dry, hot
303 conditions as well as when conditions were wetter than usual. We noted that local living,

304 environmental and environmental health conditions may ‘overwhelm’ the typical climate-disease
305 patterns known to influence diarrheal disease. Dry conditions lead to changes in water
306 availability, use and storage and likely increase in the risk of diarrhea transmission in rural
307 settings, whereas wet conditions lead to water contamination. Rural communities require
308 adequate and uninterrupted water provision all-year round. Healthcare practitioners should help
309 to raise awareness about potential diarrheal risks especially during the dry season. In addition to
310 understanding climate-diarrhea patterns localized to specific settings and conveyed through early
311 warning systems, a significant proportion of diarrheal disease can be prevented through safe
312 drinking water and adequate sanitation and personal and food hygiene [1] which should remain a
313 priority especially in rural settings. Finally, there is an opportunity to use contour analysis in
314 public health and other sectors to improve planning and responses to, not only diarrhea, but other
315 infectious diseases.

316

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318

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329

330 **Conflict of Interest**

331

332 The authors declare they have no actual or potential conflicting interests.

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416

417

419 **Table 1.** Mean and standard error of weekly precipitation and temperature by season for 2002 to
420 2016 for the study site.

	Season			
	JJA	SON	DJF	MAM
Mean Tmax (° C)	24.0	28.7	29.7	26.9
Tmax SE	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Mean Tmin (° C)	11.1	16.2	19.3	15.6
Tmin SE	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Mean Prcp	0.6	7.4	19.5	6.9
Prcp SE	0.2	1.1	2.6	1.4

421

422

423 **Figure captions**

424 **Figure 1.** Location of the two hospitals in the study site in Limpopo Province, South Africa.

425

426 **Figure 2.** High and low weekly diarrhoea case count anomalies for (a) individuals aged 5 years
427 and older and (b) children under 5 years of age between 2002 and 2016. Anomalies were
428 normalized for comparison purposes.

429

430 **Figure 3.** Statistically significant contour differences in anomalously high and low diarrhoea
431 case counts for lag 0 to 8 weeks per consecutive weeks of precipitation among individuals aged 5
432 years and older for season JJA.

433

434 **Figure 4.** Statistically significant contour differences in anomalously high and low diarrhoea
435 case counts for lag 0 to 8 weeks per consecutive weeks of precipitation among individuals aged 5
436 years and older for season SON.

437

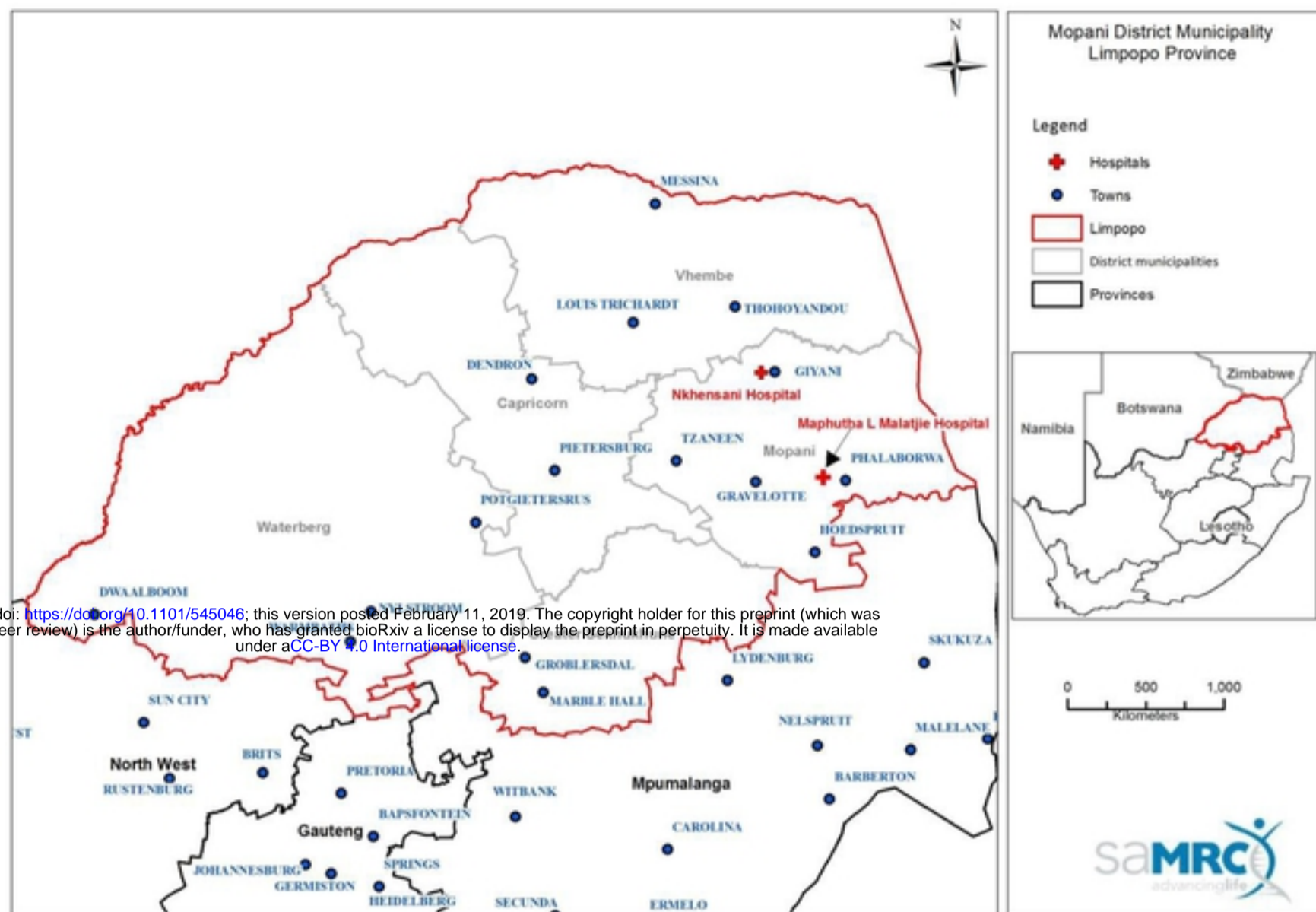
438 **Figure 5.** Statistically significant contour differences in anomalously high and low diarrhoea
439 case counts for lag 0 to 8 weeks per consecutive weeks of precipitation among individuals under
440 5 years of age for season JJA.

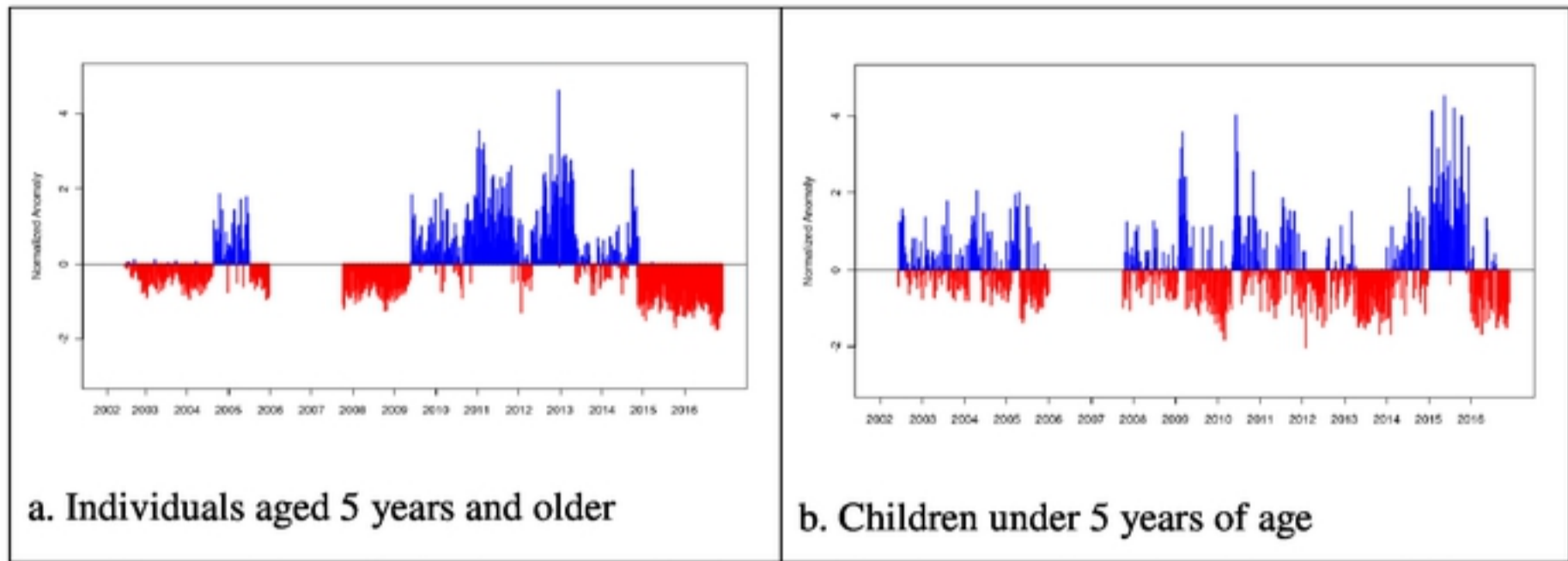
441

442 **Figure 6.** Statistically significant contour differences in anomalously high and low diarrhoea
443 case counts for lag 0 to 8 weeks per consecutive weeks of precipitation among individuals under
444 5 years of age for season SON.

445

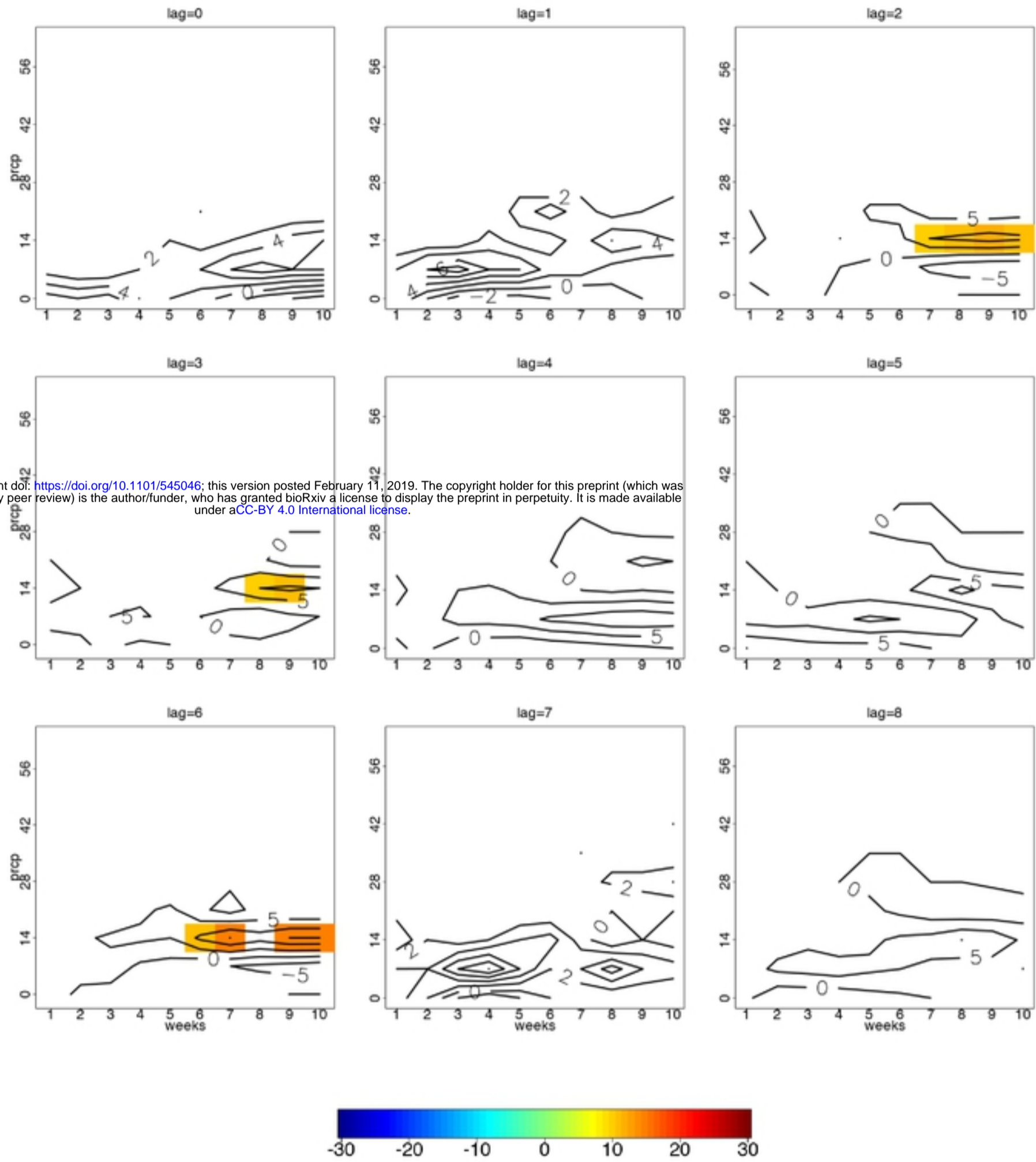
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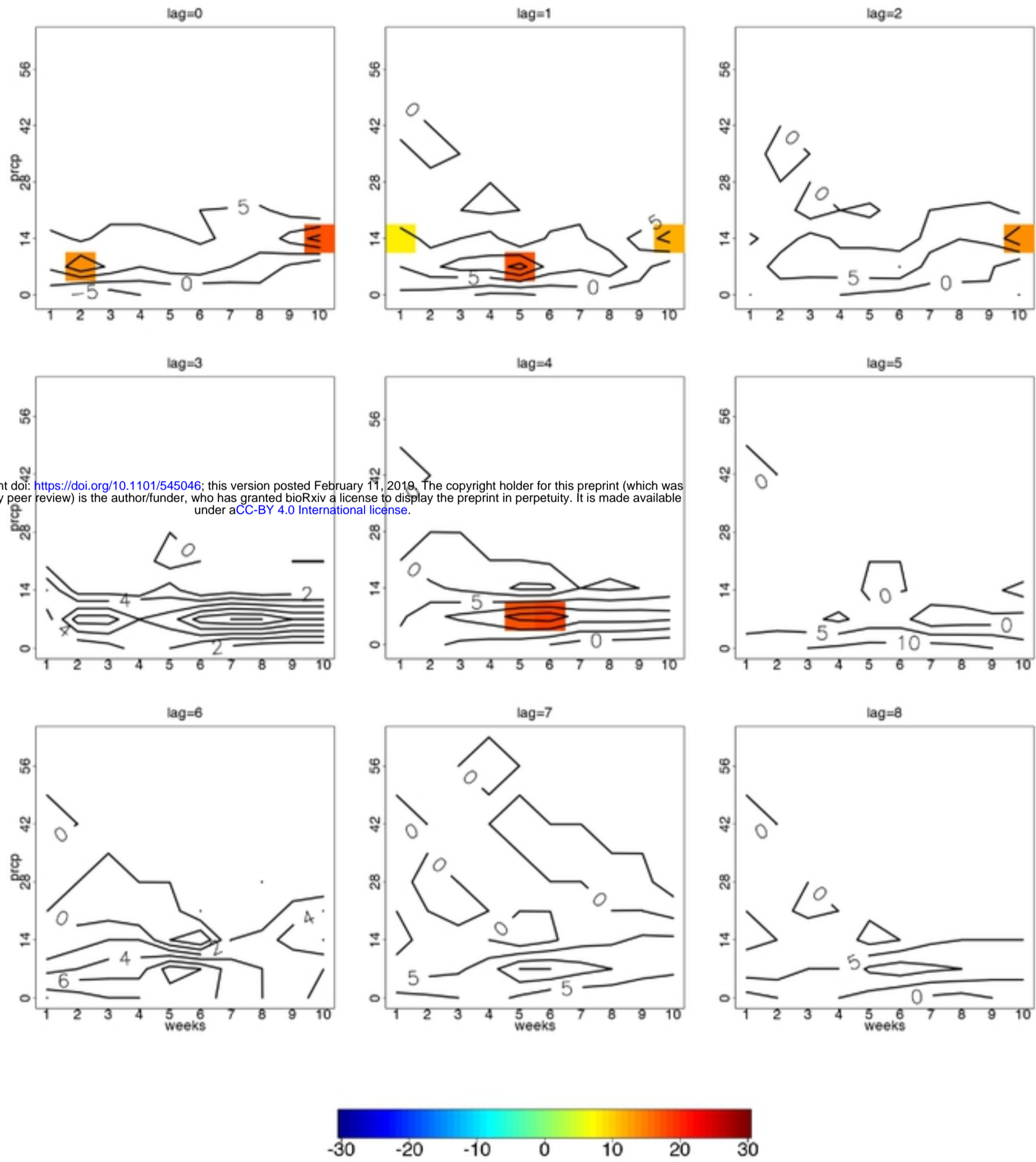
Note. The anomaly was obtained by removing the linear trend and seasonal climatology of the counts. Colors represent positive (blue) and negative (red) anomalies. Normalization entailed using the time series counts minus the mean of all counts then divided by the standard deviation.

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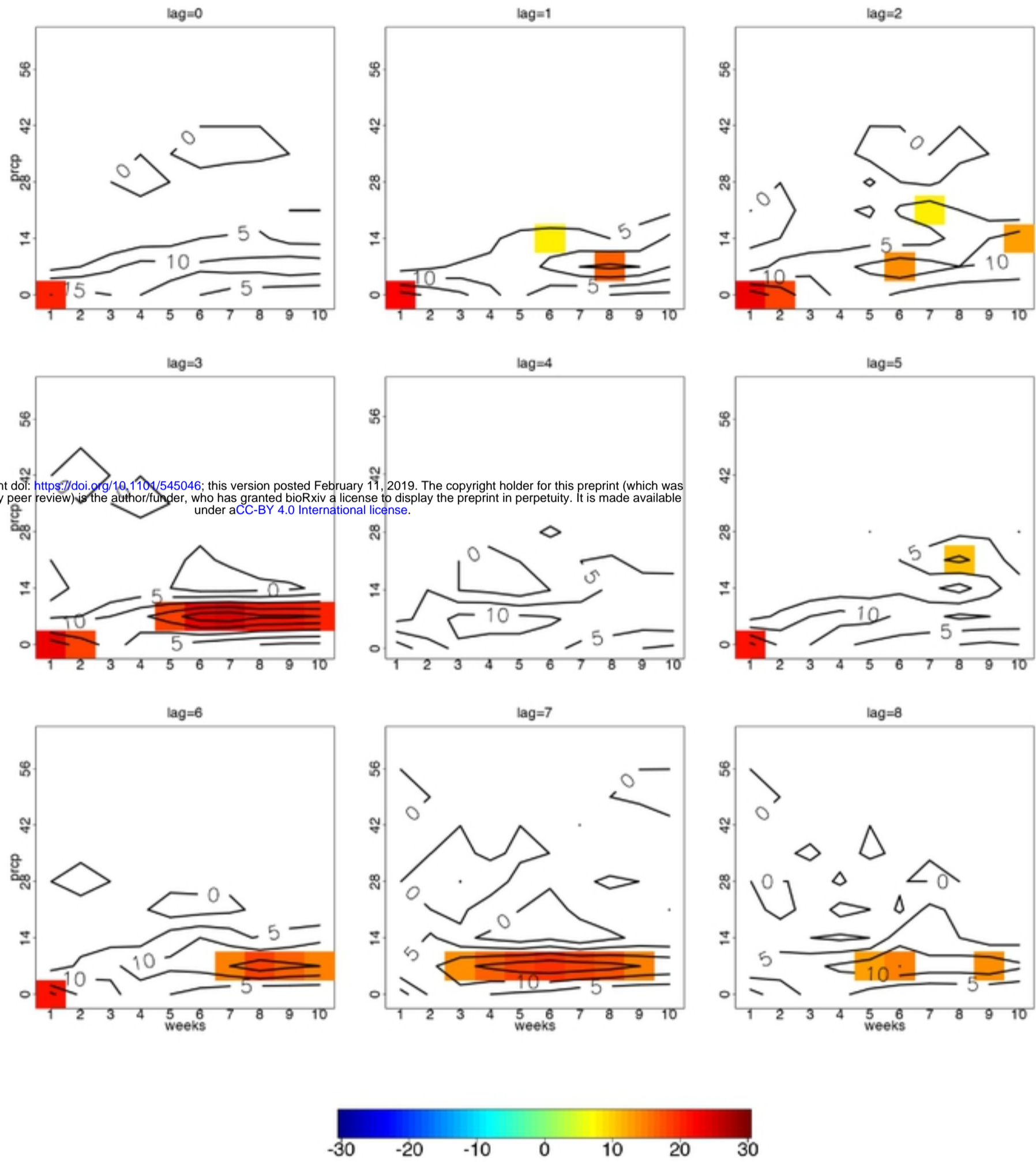
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Figure



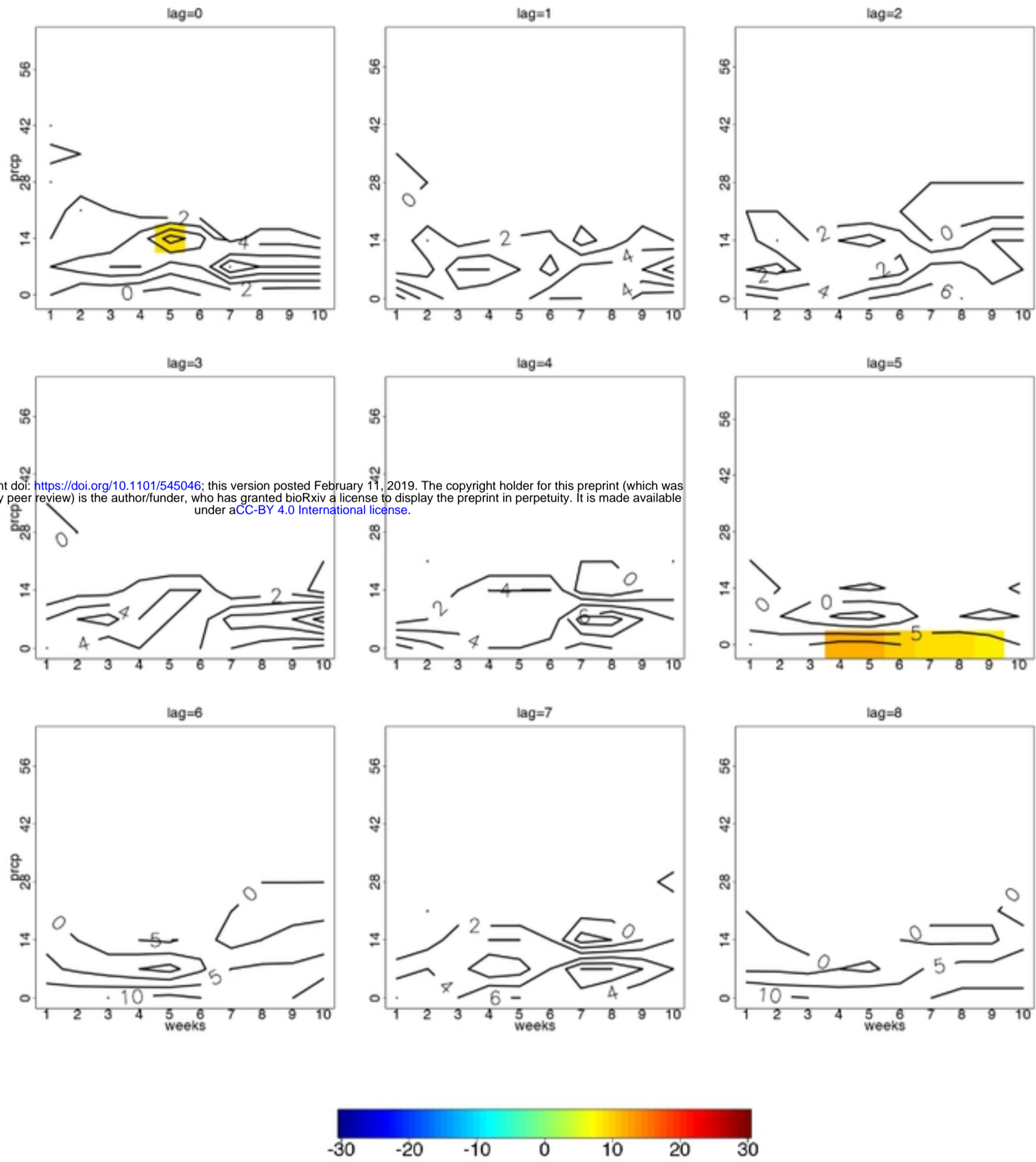
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Figure