



Queensland University of Technology
Brisbane Australia

This is the author's version of a work that was submitted/accepted for publication in the following source:

Banu, Shahera, Hu, Wenbiao , Hurst, Cameron, Guo, Yuming, Islam, Mohammad Zahirul , & Tong, Shilu (2012) Space-time clusters of dengue fever in Bangladesh. *Tropical Medicine & International Health*, 17(9), pp. 1086-1091.

This file was downloaded from: <http://eprints.qut.edu.au/67043/>

© Copyright 2012 Blackwell Publishing Ltd

The definitive version is available at www3.interscience.wiley.com

Notice: *Changes introduced as a result of publishing processes such as copy-editing and formatting may not be reflected in this document. For a definitive version of this work, please refer to the published source:*

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3156.2012.03038.x>

1 **Title:** Space-time clusters of dengue fever in Bangladesh

2 **Authors:** Shahera Banu¹, Wenbiao Hu², Cameron Hurst¹, Yuming Guo¹, Mohammad
3 Zahirul Islam³ and Shilu Tong¹

4 **Affiliations:**

5 1. School of Public Health and Social Works, Institute of Health and Biomedical Innovation,
6 Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, Australia

7 2. School of Population Health, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia

8 3. Griffith School of Environment, Griffith University, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia.

9 **Corresponding Author**

10 Prof. Shilu Tong, School of Public Health and Social Works, Institute of Health and
11 Biomedical Innovation, Queensland University of Technology, Kelvin Grove, QLD-4059,
12 Australia.

13 Telephone: 61 7 3138 9745.

14 Fax: 61 7 3138 3369.

15 E-mail: s.tong@qut.edu.au

16

17 **Keywords:** DF, Space-time cluster, scan statistic, Bangladesh

18 **Word count:** abstract = 189 words, Text = 2543 words, 2 figures, 1 table

19

20

21

22 **Summary**

23 **OBJECTIVE:** To examine the space-time clustering of dengue fever (DF)
24 transmission in Bangladesh using geographical information system and spatial scan statistics
25 (SaTScan).

26 **METHODS:** We obtained data on monthly suspected DF cases and deaths by district
27 in Bangladesh for the period of 2000-2009 from Directorate General of Health Services.
28 Population and district boundary data of each district were collected from national census
29 managed by Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics. To identify the space-time clusters of DF
30 transmission a discrete Poisson model was performed using SaTScan software.

31 **RESULTS:** The results indicate that space-time distribution of DF transmission was
32 clustered during three different periods 2000-2002, 2003-2005 and 2006-2009. Dhaka was
33 identified as the most likely cluster for DF in all three periods. Several other districts were
34 identified as significant secondary clusters. However, the geographic range of DF
35 transmission appears to have declined in Bangladesh over the last decade.

36 **CONCLUSION:** There were significant space-time clusters of DF in Bangladesh over
37 the last decade. Our results would prompt future studies to explore how social and ecological
38 factors may affect DF transmission and would also be useful for improving DF control and
39 prevention programs in Bangladesh.

40

41

42 **Introduction**

43 Dengue fever (DF) is one of the most important emerging arboviral diseases worldwide
44 (WHO 2000). The virus is transmitted through the bite of container breeding mosquitoes
45 *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* which are present in most tropical and subtropical
46 countries (Rigau-Perez *et al.* 1998). Symptoms of DF infections in human vary from mild flu
47 like DF to life threatening dengue hemorrhagic fever (DHF) or dengue shock syndrome
48 (DSS)(Gubler 2002). It has been estimated that about 50 million people worldwide become
49 infected with dengue virus annually. Globally, the geographic range of DF transmission has
50 increased dramatically in recent years (WHO 2000). It has been hypothesized that many
51 social and demographic changes such as population growth, urbanization, air travel and
52 climate change contribute to the increased incidence and geographical expansion of DF
53 transmission (Gubler 2002;Wu *et al.* 2007).

54
55 DF has become a serious public health concern in Bangladesh after the first large scale
56 outbreak occurred in 2000. However, evidence suggests that sporadic DF outbreaks occurred
57 in Bangladesh between 1964 and 1999 (Hossain *et al.* 2003;Rahman *et al.* 2002). Since 2000,
58 DF cases have been reported every year in all major cities of Bangladesh. More than 23,872
59 cases were reported to the Directorate General of Health Services (DGHS) and 233 were fatal
60 between 2000 and 2009. The worst outbreak was in 2002 with 6,132 cases and 58 deaths.
61 Both *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* were identified as potential vectors for DF
62 transmission in Bangladesh (Ali *et al.* 2003). A national guideline based on the WHO
63 protocol was developed by DGHS in 2000 to control DF transmission and reduce its
64 morbidity and mortality (DGHS 2000).

65

66 In absence of effective vaccine and specific treatment, vector control is the only way to
67 prevent DF transmission. Previous studies suggest that the risk of DF transmission varies
68 over space and time (Mammen *et al.* 2008;Thai *et al.* 2010;Tran *et al.* 2004). Therefore, an
69 identification of high risk areas can be useful for prioritizing DF surveillance and vector
70 control efforts in areas where they are most needed (Ali *et al.* 2003). In this study, we
71 investigated the spatial and temporal distribution of DF at a district level in Bangladesh
72 during 2000 - 2009. Our aim was to identify high risk clustering areas for DF transmission in
73 Bangladesh using space-time scan statistics and geographic information system.

74

75 **Methods**

76 **Study area**

77 Bangladesh is located in South Asia between latitude of 20-27°N and longitude of 88-
78 93°E. It is a low-lying, riverine country with a large marshy jungle coastline of 710 km on the
79 northern littoral of the Bay of Bengal. It is one of the most densely populated countries
80 (density 964.42/km²) in the world and covers 147,570 km². Bangladesh is divided into seven
81 administrative divisions and these are subdivided into districts. There are 64 districts in
82 Bangladesh, each further subdivided into Upazila or Thana. Dhaka is the capital and largest
83 city of Bangladesh. Other major cities include Chittagong, Khulna, Rajshahi, Sylhet and
84 Barisal. Bangladesh has a tropical monsoon climate characterized by wide seasonal variation
85 in rainfall, temperatures and humidity. Regional climatic differences in this flat country are
86 minor. Four seasons are generally recognized; hot (21.7⁰C-35.5⁰C), muggy summer from
87 June to August; humid and rainy autumn from September to November; cool (11.7⁰C -
88 26.8⁰C) and dry winter from December to February; and warm spring from March to May.
89 About 80 % of Bangladesh's rain falls during the wet monsoon season from June to
90 November.

91 **Data collection**

92 As DF is a notifiable disease in Bangladesh, any DF case detected based on the
93 “clinical case definitions” of National guidelines for clinical management of dengue
94 syndrome must be reported to the DGHS through the Civil Surgeon of the district. A DF
95 suspected case is defined by the presence of acute fever accompanied by any two of the
96 following clinical symptoms such as headache, myalgia, arthralgia, rash, positive tourniquet
97 test and leucopenia, absence of any other febrile illness and high index of suspicion based
98 on period, population and place (DGHS 2000). We obtained computerized datasets
99 containing the number of monthly suspected DF cases and deaths by district in Bangladesh
100 for the period of 1 January 2000 to 31 December 2009 from DGHS. There has been no
101 significant change in the dengue reporting system since 2000 in Bangladesh. Relevant
102 population data and electronic boundaries of each district were retrieved from the national
103 census database managed by Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS). District information
104 includes district name, code, area (km²), digital boundaries and base maps. The district
105 population were generated from the 2001 and 2010 census data and for the remaining years,
106 the district population were estimated based on linear interpolation (Kulldorf 2010). This
107 study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee, Queensland University of
108 Technology.

109

110

111 **Statistical analysis**

112 A space-time statistical analysis was applied to detect high risk clusters of DF using
113 SaTScan software (version 9). Case files generated using monthly aggregated numbers of DF
114 cases for each district was used in data analysis. Population and coordinates data were also
115 used as inputs in SaTScan. We fit a discrete Poisson regression model to identify space-time

116 clusters after adjustment for the uneven geographical density of district population (Kulldorf
117 2010;Kulldorf *et al.* 1998).

118

119 For cluster specification in space-time analyses, three parameters were set for cluster
120 size: the maximum circle radius in the spatial window, maximum temporal window and the
121 proportion of the population at risk. Of the 64 districts 99% of them were within a 40 km
122 radius. Thus, 40 km was chosen as the maximum circle radius for all analyses. Space-time
123 analyses were also performed using 10 km, and 20 km of maximum circle radius and the
124 results obtained were very similar to those using 40 km. The analyses were conducted using a
125 maximum spatial cluster size of 50% of the population at risk in the spatial window and a
126 maximum of 50% of the study period in the temporal window. Because of the differences in
127 population densities across Bangladesh, it was decided to limit the spatial cluster size to 50%
128 of the population at risk. The spatial clusters were also defined to cover less than 25% and
129 10% of total population at risk and similar results were obtained to the 50% of the population
130 limit, which suggests that the maximum cluster size is adequate to be limited by 50% of the
131 population at risk. The most likely and secondary likely clusters were detected through the
132 likelihood ratio test. Significance of the clusters was evaluated with Monte Carlo simulation
133 which was set to 9999. MapInfo Professional (version 10.0) was used to display space-time
134 clusters.

135

136 **Results**

137 **DF epidemics and outbreaks**

138 The epidemic pattern of DF fluctuated from 2000 to 2009 with major outbreaks in 2000
139 and 2002 (Figure 1). The monthly number of DF cases ranged from 0 to 3,281 (mean =
140 197.7, standard deviation = 454.05) and the highest number of cases was reported in August
141 2002. DF outbreaks in Bangladesh after 2002 showed a decreasing trend. Although DF
142 outbreaks were regular in Bangladesh, a one year inter-epidemic period between outbreaks
143 was apparent. The monthly number of DF deaths ranged from 0 to 33 and no death was
144 recorded after 2006. Figure 1 also shows a striking variation in monthly numbers of districts
145 with DF infection from 2000 to 2009. Peaks in DF cases generally coincided with high
146 monthly numbers of districts with DF.

147

148

149 **Disease clusters**

150 The cluster analyses show that the space-time distribution of DF was clustered during
151 three different periods 2000-2002, 2003-2005 and 2006-2009. Using the maximum spatial
152 cluster size of 50% of the population at risk and a circle radius of 40 km, Dhaka district was
153 identified as the most likely cluster and Khulna and Chittagong as secondary clusters (Figure
154 2). Another two districts (Barisal and Jhenaidah) were identified as secondary clusters in
155 2000 during August to October but those clusters were not found in later years (Figure 2). All
156 clusters were identified between June - November which represents a rainy monsoon season
157 in Bangladesh.

158

159 Table 1 shows the names of districts included in each cluster, radius (km), observed
160 cases, expected cases, Relative Risk (RR) and log-likelihood ratio. The highest risk for the
161 most likely cluster (Dhaka) was found in 2004-2005 during June - November (RR= 233.3, $p <$
162 0.05) and the risk was attenuated in 2006 during June -November (RR=119.8, $p <$ 0.05) and
163 was lowest in 2000-2002 (RR= 43.48, $p <$ 0.05). For secondary clusters the RR ranged from
164 2.56 to 21.63 and the highest risk was identified for Khulna in 2000 during August -
165 November (RR= 21.64, $p <$ 0.05) which reduced to 9.53 in 2006 - 2009.

166

167 **Spatial dispersion of DF**

168 We attempted to identify whether changes in DF transmission varied with latitude and
169 longitude of district centroids in the periods 2000-2002, 2003-2005 and 2006-2009. A logistic
170 regression model was constructed with the dichotomous outcome variable defined as whether
171 or not an increase of DF cases occurred in each district between the three periods. Longitude
172 and latitude of district centroids were entered as explanatory variables. The results indicate
173 that changes of DF transmission were not significantly associated with geographic variation
174 (i.e latitude and longitude) during 2000-2002, 2003-2005 and 2006-2009.

175

176 **Discussion**

177 The results of this study indicate a significant variation in spatiotemporal distribution of
178 DF in Bangladesh. The geographic extent of notified DF cases has declined in Bangladesh
179 over the study period. Dhaka was identified as the highest risk area for DF transmission in
180 Bangladesh.

181

182 Space-time cluster analysis is a valuable tool to examine how spatial patterns change
183 over time. This study shows that DF transmission in Bangladesh was clustered in three
184 different periods and provides a clear pattern of DF clustering within this country. Dhaka was
185 identified as the most likely cluster for DF transmission. It may be because Dhaka is the
186 largest city in Bangladesh with a high population density. DF can be easily transmitted by
187 mosquitoes in this area. Several other districts (Chittagong and Khulna) in the southern part
188 of the country were identified as secondary clusters (Figure 1). These are also the fastest
189 growing cities located close to seaport and airport. Apart from population density, the
190 movement of infected individuals and/or mosquitoes into this region from overseas through
191 air travel or by ship may increase the chance of DF transmission (Sutherst 2004). However,
192 rainwater collection for domestic purposes is not a common practice in Bangladesh, about
193 35.5% household of the southwest coastal region of the country found to use rainwater due to
194 arsenic contamination in the ground water and high salinity problem (Ferdausi and Bolkland
195 2000). The storage of rainwater in uncovered containers in this area might increased the risk
196 of DF transmission by providing suitable mosquito breeding habitat (Beebe *et al.* 2009).
197 Climatic variation and socio-economic factors may also play an important role in promoting
198 DF transmission (Hu *et al.* 2011;Hu *et al.* 2012). Further investigation in these high risk areas
199 is required to understand the dynamics of DF transmission and to discover the role of
200 biological, social and environmental factors in the transmission of DF.

201

202 We found that the geographic range of DF clusters has declined in Bangladesh over the
203 last decade (Figures 2). We speculate that the effective management of DF patients according
204 to the national dengue guidelines and huge public awareness after the first outbreak in 2000
205 might have helped to reduce DF transmission in Bangladesh (Rahman *et al.* 2002). There is
206 no routine dengue vector control programme in Bangladesh. Though, irregular mosquito

207 control activities exist in some cities in Bangladesh which is not specifically for *Aedes*
208 mosquitoes (Chepesiuk 2003). According to Dhaka City Corporation (DCC), they spray
209 adulticide and larvicide in every summer in the areas with high mosquito population. DCC
210 also sprays insecticide indoor and outdoor in the notified area when a DF outbreak occurs.
211 Besides vector control measures, socio-economic changes, population immunity and changes
212 in viral strain and fitness may also contribute to the decreased DF incidence in Bangladesh
213 (Cummings *et al.* 2009;Podder *et al.* 2006). Further research is needed to identify possible
214 reasons for declining trend of DF in Bangladesh.

215

216 Dhaka was constantly identified as the most likely cluster and very few districts were
217 identified as secondary clusters for DF transmission in Bangladesh in recent years. We
218 believe that patients detected with DF in other districts might have acquired infections during
219 their visits to Dhaka and symptoms manifested when they returned to their home districts.
220 Although virus was transmitted to other districts through infected patients, it might not
221 continue its transmission due to the reduced number of vectors and the reduced number of
222 virus populations in the dry season (Aaskov *et al.* 2006;Cummings *et al.* 2004;Williams *et al.*
223 2010). However, we were unable to identify the origin of DF transmission in Bangladesh and
224 its spreading direction due to the lack of information on patient's location, their movement,
225 demographics and mosquito control activity. This should be a priority for future DF research
226 in Bangladesh.

227

228 This is the first study to examine the spatiotemporal pattern of DF in Bangladesh. It has
229 clearly demonstrated the heterogeneity of DF risk at the district level in Bangladesh and
230 revealed the spatiotemporal pattern of DF across the country. As cluster analysis could be an
231 important tool for decision makers to prioritize areas where more surveillance and disease

232 prevention efforts are required, our findings can be useful for the Bangladesh health authority
233 to further improve DF control and prevention strategies. Additionally, the method developed
234 in this study may have wider applications in the field of disease surveillance and risk
235 management.

236

237 Our study has three key limitations. Firstly, in our analysis, we used reported cases
238 aggregated at the district level, which prohibits analysis at a higher spatial resolution and may
239 lead to important local clusters being missed out. Secondly, there is likely variation in the
240 quality of the DGHS dengue surveillance data. Underreporting is possible in the DGHS data
241 when people infected by DF have subclinical infection and did not seek for medical attention.
242 Finally, we only identified potential DF clusters in this preliminary study, but did not explore
243 possible risk factors associated with clustering. However, our future research will focus on
244 the investigation of various climatic, ecological, and socio-demographic determinants of DF
245 in clustered areas.

246

247 **Conclusion**

248 In summary, this study demonstrates that DF transmission in Bangladesh was clustered
249 in different spatial and temporal settings and the geographic distribution of DF appears to
250 have contracted over recent years. The impact of socio-demographic changes and climatic
251 factors on DF transmission in clustered areas remains to be determined. Our findings can be
252 useful for the Bangladesh health authority to further improve DF control and prevention
253 strategies. Additionally, the cluster methods developed in this study may have wider
254 applications in the field of disease surveillance and risk management.

255

256

257 **Acknowledgments**

258 We thank to Director General of Health Services, Dhaka and Bangladesh Bureau of
259 Statistics for providing DF case record and census data respectively.

260

261 **Financial support**

262 The work was supported by QUT postgraduate scholarships (SB, YG), NMHRC postdoctoral
263 training fellowship (WH) and NMHRC research fellowship (ST).

264

265 **Conflict of interest**

266 We declare that we have no conflict of interest.

267

268 **References**

269 Aaskov J, Buzacott K, Thu H M, Lowry K & Holmes E C (2006) Long-Term Transmission
270 of Defective RNA Viruses in Humans and Aedes Mosquitoes. *Science* **311**, 236-238.

271 Ali M, Wagatsuma Y, Emch M & Breiman R F (2003) Use of a geographic information
272 system for defining spatial risk for dengue transmission in Bangladesh: role for Aedes
273 albopictus in an urban outbreak. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*
274 **69**, 634-640.

275 Beebe N W, Cooper R D, Mottram P & Sweeney A W (2009) Australia's Dengue Risk
276 Driven by Human Adaptation to Climate Change. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases* **3**,
277 e429.

278 Chepesiuk R (2003) Mosquito Mismanagement? *Environmental Health Perspectives* **111**,
279 A636.

280 Cummings D A T, Iamsirithaworn S, Lessler J T, McDermott A, Prasanthong R, Nisalak A,
281 Jarman R G, Burke D S & Gibbons R V (2009) The Impact of the Demographic
282 Transition on Dengue in Thailand: Insights from a Statistical Analysis and
283 Mathematical Modeling. *PLoS Medicine* **6**, e1000139.

284 Cummings D A T, Irizarry R A, Huang N E, Endy T P, Nisalak A, Ungchusak K & Burke D
285 S (2004) Travelling waves in the occurrence of dengue haemorrhagic fever in Thailand.
286 *Nature* **427**, 344-347.

287 DGHS (2000) *National Guidelines for Clinical Management of Dengue Syndrome*, Dhaka,
288 Bangladesh, Government of Bangladesh.

289 Ferdousi S A & Bolkland M W (2000) Rainwater harvesting for application in rural
290 Bangladesh. *26th WEDC conference, Water, Sanitation and Hygiene: Challenges of the*
291 *Millennium*. Dhaka, Bangladesh.

292 Gubler D J (2002) Epidemic dengue/dengue hemorrhagic fever as a public health, social and
293 economic problem in the 21st century. *Trends in Microbiology* **10**, 100-103.

294 Hossain M A, Khatun M, Arjumand F, Nisalak A & Breiman R F (2003) Serologic evidence
295 of dengue infection before onset of epidemic, Bangladesh. *Emerging Infectious*
296 *Diseases* **9**, 1411-1414.

297 Hu W, Clements A, Williams G & Tong S (2011) Spatial analysis of notified dengue fever
298 infections. *Epidemiology and Infection* **139**, 391-399.

299 Hu W, Clements A, Williams G, Tong S & Mengersen K (2012) Spatial Patterns and
300 Socioecological Drivers of Dengue Fever Transmission in Queensland, Australia.
301 *Environmental Health Perspectives* **120**, 260-266.

302 Kulldorf M (2010) SaTScan™ User Guide for Version 9.0. <http://www.satscan.org/>.

303 Kulldorf M, Athas W, Feuer E, Miller B & Key C (1998) Evaluating cluster alarms: A Space-
304 Time Scan Statistic and Brain cancer in Los Alamos, New Mexico. *American Journal*
305 *of Public Health* **88**, 1377-1380.

306 Mammen M P, Pimgate C, Koenraadt C J M, Rothman A L, Aldstadt J, Nisalak A, Jarman R
307 G, Jones J W, Srikiatkachorn A, Ypil-Butac C A, Getis A, Thammapalo S, Morrison
308 A C, Libraty D H, Green S & Scott T W (2008) Spatial and Temporal Clustering of
309 Dengue Virus Transmission in Thai Villages. *PLoS Medicine* **5**, e205.

310 Podder G, Breiman R F, Azim T, Thu H M, Velathanthiri N, Kymlowry L Q M & Aaskov J
311 G (2006) Short report: origin of dengue type-3 viruses associated with the dengue
312 outbreak in Dhaka, Bangladesh, in 2000 and 2001. *American Journal of Tropical*
313 *Medicine and Hygiene* **74**, 263-265.

314 Rahman M, Rahman K, Siddique A K, Shoma S, Kamal A H, Ali K S, Nisalak A & Breiman
315 R F (2002) First outbreak of dengue hemorrhagic fever, Bangladesh. *Emerging*
316 *Infectious Diseases* **8**, 738-740.

317 Rigau-Perez J G, Clark G G, Gubler D J, Reiter P, Sanders E J & Vorndam A V (1998)
318 Dengue and dengue haemorrhagic fever. *Lancet* **352**, 971-977.

319 Sutherst R W (2004) Global change and human vulnerability to vector-borne diseases.
320 *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* **17**, 136-173.

321 Thai K T D, Nagelkerke N, Phuong H L, Nga T T T, Giao P T, Hung L Q, Binh T Q, Nam N
322 V & De Vries P J (2010) Geographical heterogeneity of dengue transmission in two
323 villages in southern Vietnam. *Epidemiology and Infection* **138**, 585-591.

324 Tran A, Deparis X, Dussart P, Morvan J, Rabarison P, Remy F, Polidori L & Gardon J (2004)
325 Dengue spatial and temporal patterns, French Guiana, 2001. *Emerging Infectious*
326 *Diseases* **10**, 615-621.

327 WHO (2000) *Dengue Hemorrhagic Fever:Diagnosis,Treatment ,Prevention and Control*,
328 WHO,Geneva, Switzerland.

329 Williams C R, Bader C A, Kearney M R, Ritchie S A & Russell R C (2010) The Extinction
330 of Dengue through Natural Vulnerability of Its Vectors. *PLoS Neglected Tropical*
331 *Diseases* **4**, e922.

332 Wu P C, Guo H R, Lung S C, Lin C Y & Su H J (2007) Weather as an effective predictor for
333 occurrence of dengue fever in Taiwan. *Acta Tropica* **103**, 50-57.

334

335

336 **Figure1.** Monthly number of DF cases, deaths and districts with DF notification between
337 January 2000 and December 2009 in Bangladesh.

338 **Figure 2.** Space-time clusters of DF identified in three different periods in Bangladesh.

339 **Table 1.** Space-time clusters of DF in Bangladesh, 2000-2009.

