

# Climate variability and Ross River virus transmission in Townsville Region, Australia, 1985–1996

Shilu Tong<sup>1</sup>, Wenbiao Hu<sup>1</sup> and A. J. McMichael<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> School of Public Health, Queensland University of Technology, Kelvin Grove, Australia

<sup>2</sup> National Centre for Epidemiology and Population Health, Australian National University, Canberra, Australia

## Summary

**BACKGROUND** How climate variability affects the transmission of infectious diseases at a regional level remains unclear. We assess the impact of climate variation on the Ross River virus (RRv) transmission in the Townsville region, Queensland, north-east Australia.

**METHODS** We obtained population-based information on monthly variations in RRv cases, climatic factors, sea level, and population growth between 1985 and 1996. Cross-correlations were computed for a series of associations between climate variables (rainfall, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, relative humidity and high tide) and the monthly incidence of RRv disease over a range of time lags. We assessed the impact of climate variability on RRv transmission using the seasonal auto-regressive integrated moving average (SARIMA) model.

**RESULTS** There were significant correlations of the monthly incidence of RRv to rainfall, maximum temperature, minimum temperature and relative humidity, all at a lag of 2 months, and high tide in the current month. The results of SARIMA models show that monthly average rainfall ( $\beta = 0.0007$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ) and high tide ( $\beta = 0.0089$ ,  $P = 0.04$ ) were significantly associated with RRv transmission and maximum temperature was also marginally significantly associated with monthly incidence of RRv ( $\beta = 0.0412$ ,  $P = 0.07$ ), although relative humidity did not seem to have played an important role in the Townsville region.

**CONCLUSIONS** Rainfall, high tide and maximum temperature were likely to be key determinants of RRv transmission in the Townsville region.

**keywords** climate change, cross-correlation function, Ross River virus, seasonal auto-regressive integrated moving average, time series

## Introduction

Ross River virus (RRv) disease is endemic in all states of Australia (Russell 1998). RRv causes a debilitating disease characterized by arthritis, rash, and constitutional symptoms such as fever, fatigue and myalgia (Curran *et al.* 1997). The natural vertebrate hosts for this arboviral disease include marsupial animals (e.g. kangaroos and wallabies, etc.) and possibly other animals (e.g. dogs, cats and possums). RRv usually incubates for 7–9 days. Incubation may be as long as 21 days or as short as 3 days (Harley *et al.* 2001). Vectors that transmit this disease comprise *Aedes/Ochlerotatus* (17 species), *Culex* (five species), *Anopheles* (two species), *Coquillettidia* (two species), *Mansonia* (one species), *Triperoides* mosquitoes (one species) and others (Russell 1998). The disease caused by RRv was first recognized in New South Wales in the late 1920s (Nimmol 1928), although the virus and its association with disease were not identified until the early 1960s

(Nimmol 1928; Shope & Anderson 1960). RRv, an alphavirus was first isolated by Doherty and colleagues from *Ochlerotatus vigilax* mosquitoes collected near the Ross River at Townsville region in northern Queensland in 1959 (Doherty *et al.* 1963). The single largest reported outbreak occurred in the South Pacific islands in 1979–1980, during which more than 50 000 people were affected (Aaskov *et al.* 1981).

The RRv disease is the most prevalent vector-borne disease in Australia. For example, over the last 11 years (1992–2002), 48 242 laboratory confirmed cases of RRv infection were reported (Australian Department of Health and Aged Care 2003). Several studies have examined the relationship between climate variation and vector-borne diseases (McMichael *et al.* 1996; Tong *et al.* 1998; Hales *et al.* 2002), and models have been developed to assess the potential impact of future climatic change on the transmission of arboviral diseases (McMichael *et al.* 1996). Since the early 1970s, time series methods, in particular

ARIMA and seasonal auto-regressive integrated moving average (SARIMA) models, which have the ability to cope with stochastic dependence of consecutive data, have become well-established in commerce and industry (Helfenstein 1991, 1996). In ARIMA and SARIMA models, an important concept is that of stationarity, which implies that the probability structure of the series does not change with time. Many epidemiological time series data are not stationary and they often exhibit trends. However, experience in economics and more recently in epidemiology has shown that the time series of differences (i.e. each value in the series is replaced by the difference between that value and the preceding value) is often stationary (Helfenstein 1991). Box and Jenkins have extended the concepts to cope with time series that contain seasonal variations. In particular, a time series with seasonal non-stationarity may be transformed to stationary data by taking seasonal differences into account (Bowie & Prothero 1981; Helfenstein 1991).

Time series analyses have been increasingly used in epidemiological research (Bowie & Prothero 1981; Helfenstein 1986, 1991, 1996; Catalano & Serxner 1987; Allard 1998; Checkley *et al.* 2000; Nobre *et al.* 2001; Abeku *et al.* 2002; Borghi *et al.* 2002; Clancy *et al.* 2002; Dominici *et al.* 2002; Hajat & Haines 2002; Pope *et al.* 2002). In this paper, we used a time series model to examine the association between climate variation and RRv transmission in the Townsville region, Australia.

## Methods

Townsville region is situated in the tropics of north Queensland and located approximately 1380 km north of Brisbane (the state's capital) (Fig. 1). Townsville region, comprising Townsville and Thuringowa with a population exceeding 130 000 in 2001, is the largest regional centre in Queensland (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002), in which RRv transmission has been highly active over recent years.

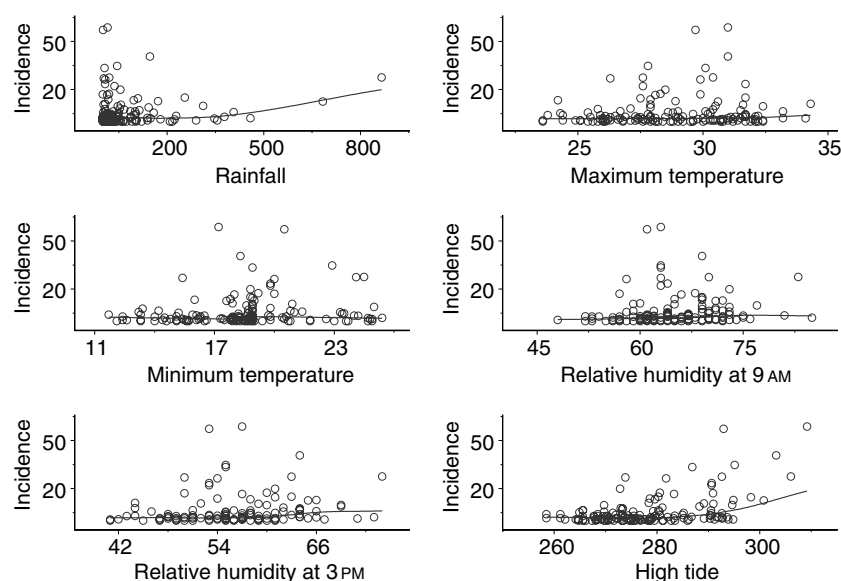
The computerized data set on monthly notified RRv cases in Queensland for the period of 1985–1996 and information on notification (including place and time of onset) were obtained from the Queensland Department of Health. The data on RRv cases had been collected for the National Notifiable Diseases Surveillance System, which is conducted under the auspices of the Communicable Diseases Network Australia, New Zealand. The quality of routinely collected RRv data, assuming constancy over time, is generally regarded as valid information for a large-scale assessment of the impact of climatic variations (McMichael *et al.* 1996). Climate, sea level and population data were obtained from the Australian Bureau of

Meteorology, Queensland Transport Department, and the Australian Bureau of Statistics, respectively. Climate data consisted of monthly average maximum and minimum temperature, monthly average rainfall, relative humidity at 9 AM and 3 PM and high tides.

To examine whether climate variation was associated with the RRv transmission, cross-correlations were used to compute a series of correlations between climate variables and the incidence of RRv disease over a range of time lags (a time lag was defined as the time span between a climatic observation and the incidence of RRv) (Chatfield 1975). The SARIMA model was used to estimate the independent contribution of each climate variable in this study as it was assumed that there was a dose–response relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables. Three steps were undertaken in the modelling of the relationship between climate variation and the RRv transmission in Townsville region. First, SARIMA models were developed using the monthly incidence of RRv as dependent variable and the monthly averages of climate variables and high tides as independent variables after seasonal difference was smoothed to make a drifting series stationary. Secondly, the goodness-of-fit of the models was checked for adequacy, using both time series (i.e. auto-correlation functions of residuals which are defined as the differences between the actual values and the forecasted values) and classical tools (i.e. to check the normality of residuals) (Tabachnick & Fidell 2001). Finally, the model developed was verified by dividing the data file into two data sets: the data between January 1985 and December 1994 were used to construct a SARIMA model and those



**Figure 1** Location of Townsville region, Queensland, Australia.



**Figure 2** The relationships between monthly incidence of Ross River virus and climate variables in Townsville region between 1985 and 1996.

data between January 1995 and December 1996 were then used to verify that particular model.

## Results

Figure 2 shows the associations between monthly incidence rates of RRv infection and rainfall, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, relative humidity and high tide in the Townsville region between 1985 and 1996. Climate variability (e.g. rainfall, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, relative humidity) was positively associated with the RRv, as also was high tide.

The results of the cross-correlations show that climate variables (including tidal level) were significantly associated with the incidence of RRv. The significant associations were found for rainfall ( $r = 0.43$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), maximum temperature ( $r = 0.16$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), minimum temperature ( $r = 0.23$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), and relative humidity ( $r = 0.24$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) at a lag of 2 months, and high tide ( $r = 0.31$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) in the current month in Townsville region (Table 1). The results of SARIMA models show that the incidence of RRv disease was significantly associated with rainfall ( $\beta = 0.0007$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ), and high tide ( $\beta = 0.0089$ ,  $P = 0.04$ ). Maximum temperature was also marginally significantly associated with monthly incidence of RRv ( $\beta = 0.0412$ ,  $P = 0.07$ ) in the Townsville region after adjustment for other covariates (Table 2).

Figure 3 shows that there was no significant auto-correlation between residuals at different lag times in the SARIMA model. The graphic analysis of residuals shows that the residuals in the model appeared to fluctuate randomly around zero with no obvious trend in variation

as the predicted incidence values increased. Thus, no violation of assumptions was apparent.

The SARIMA models were also verified using the data over the period of January 1995 to December 1996 after

**Table 1** Cross-correlation coefficients between climate variables and incidence of Ross River virus (RRv) in Townsville region, Australia\*

Lag (months)	MaxT	MinT	Rainfall	Rh9am	HT
0	0.070	0.050	-0.174†	-0.219†	0.306†
1	-0.023	0.106	0.076	0.129	0.224†
2	0.161†	0.227†	0.427†	0.244†	0.134
3	0.071	-0.093	0.033	0.088	-0.015
4	0.126	0.035	-0.033	-0.016	-0.159†

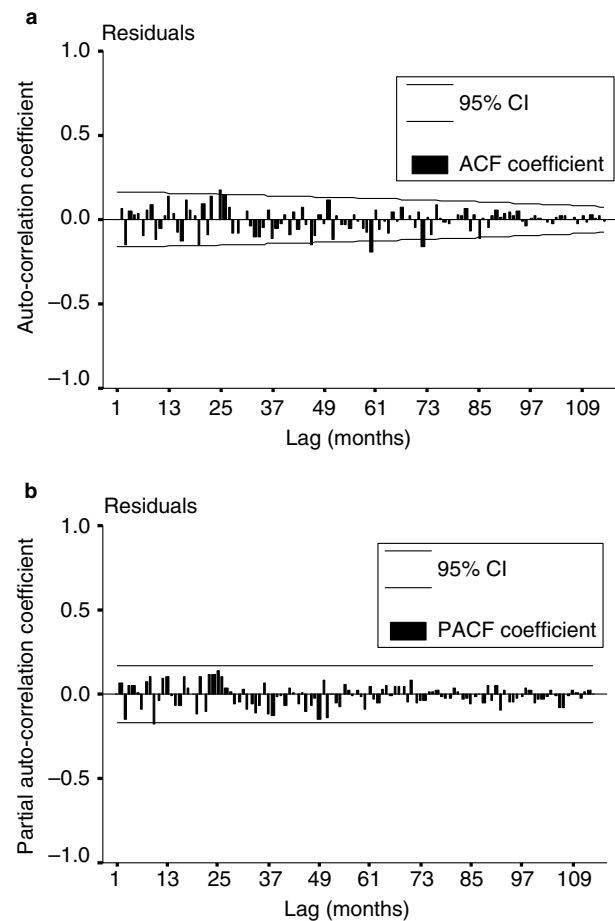
\* MaxT, maximum temperature; MinT, minimum temperature; Rh9am, relative humidity at 9 AM; HT, high tide.

† Significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

**Table 2** Regression coefficients of climate variables on the monthly incidence of Ross River virus (RRv) disease in Townsville region, Queensland\*

Variable	$\beta$	SE	P-value
Intercept	-3.4874	1.2534	0.01
Rainfall	0.0007	0.0001	0.01
High tide	0.0089	0.0044	0.04
Maximum temperature	0.0412	0.0222	0.07
Relative humidity	0.0040	0.0063	0.52

\* Minimum temperature was not significantly associated with RRv transmission when it was used to replace maximum temperature in a separate model ( $P = 0.20$ ).

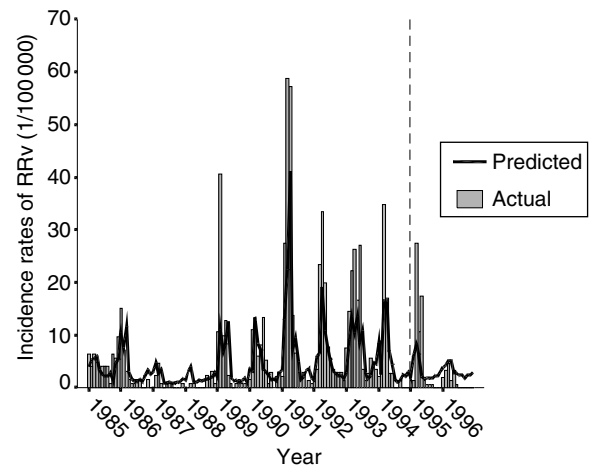


**Figure 3** Auto-correlation (a) and partial auto-correlation (b) of residuals (ACF, auto-correlation function; PACF, partial auto-correlation function).

the models had been constructed with the data compiled between January 1985 and December 1994. Figure 4 indicates that the predicted values and the actual incidence rates of RRv matched well.

## Discussion

Although global climate change may pose a significant threat to the control and prevention of infectious disease, little empirical research has been conducted in this field. Some recent studies suggest that climate variation is associated with changes in the occurrence of various vector-borne and waterborne diseases (Lindsay & Mackenzie 1996; Tong *et al.* 1998; Curriero *et al.* 2001; Tong & Hu 2002; Woodruff *et al.* 2002). We found that rainfall and high tides are among the major determinants in the transmission of RRv infection in Townsville region, Australia.



**Figure 4** The validated seasonal auto-regressive integrated moving average (SARIMA) model of climate variation in Townsville region (validation period: January 1995–December 1996, i.e. to the right of the vertical dotted line).

The incidence of RRv infection fluctuates with the seasons and is usually associated with warmer and more humid weather. In general, epidemic activity is more often observed in temperate areas with heavy rainfall or flooding, whereas in tropical Australia transmission occurs throughout the year (Mackenzie *et al.* 1998). Nevertheless, distinct epidemics do occur in northern Australia, especially associated with heavy monsoonal rainfalls.

Clearly, precipitation is one of the important elements for the breeding and development of mosquitoes (Hennessy & Whetton 1997). All mosquitoes have aquatic larval and pupal stages and therefore require water for breeding (Lindsay & Mackenzie 1996; McMichael *et al.* 1996). Considerable evidence has accrued to show that heavy rainfall and flooding can lead to increased mosquito breeding and outbreaks of arboviral disease in Australia (McMichael *et al.* 1996; Liehne 1998). Examples are readily available for RRv outbreaks in various parts of Australia (Liehne 1998). Our study corroborated previous observations and indicated that rainfall is one of the key predictors of RRv transmission. However, climate models predict that, under likely scenarios of climate change, little rainfall change will occur in the Townsville area, with a range of annual rainfall change of  $-4$  to  $+4\%$  by 2030 and  $-12$  to  $+12\%$  by 2070 (Whetton 2001). Therefore, there may be no increase of RRv cases resulting from rainfall change in that region. However, the possible future impact of rainfall on the transmission of RRv disease should be estimated cautiously, as many socio-ecological factors can also influence the balance of

RRv transmission cycles. Future climate changes in adjoining regions of Australia may affect the transmissibility of RRv in those areas.

High tides and rise in sea level have been implicated as important precursors of outbreaks of RRv (McManus *et al.* 1992; Lindsay *et al.* 1993; Weinstein 1997). Tidal inundation of salt marshes is a major source of water for breeding of the important arbovirus vectors *O. vigilax* and *O. camptorhynchus*. Adult females of both species lay their eggs on soil, mud substrate and the plants around the margins of their breeding sites. The eggs hatch when high tides subsequently inundate sites. Large populations of adult mosquitoes can emerge in as soon as 8 days after a series of spring tides (Lindsay & Mackenzie 1996). There is good evidence that a rise in sea level may contribute to a major outbreak of RRv. Our results corroborate the previous findings, indicating that sea level is an important factor in the transmission of RRv in Townsville region.

Temperature changes affect RRv transmission and epidemic potential by altering the vectors' reproduction or biting rate; by shifting a vectors' geographic range or distribution; by altering the extrinsic incubation periods (EIPs) of the pathogen; and by increasing or decreasing vector–pathogen–host interaction and thereby affecting host susceptibility (McManus *et al.* 1992). In this study, temperature was only marginally associated with the incidence of RRv. This may be because the Townsville region is located in the tropical zone and the monthly maximum temperature is usually high (more than 20 °C). Hence, temperature does not play the same important role, as do rainfall and sea level. Additionally, in a recent study, it was found that rearing temperature seemed unimportant to vector competence for mosquito species *O. vigilax* found in Townsville (Kay & Jennings 2002). Our epidemiological finding appeared to provide compelling support to the laboratory data.

Relative humidity influences longevity, mating, dispersal, feeding behaviour and oviposition of mosquitoes (McMichael *et al.* 1996). At high humidity, mosquitoes generally survive for longer and disperse further. Therefore, they have a greater chance of feeding on an infecting animal and surviving to transmit a virus to humans or other animals. Relative humidity also directly affects evaporation rates from vector breeding sites. Clearly, humidity is another factor contributing to outbreaks of RRv disease, particularly in normally arid regions (Lindsay & Mackenzie 1996). In this study, however, relative humidity did not appear to have played a major role in the RRv transmission, possibly because the Townsville region is on the coast and usually not dry.

The RRv disease epidemics are commonly driven by environmental conditions such as heavy rainfall, flooding and tidal inundation of marshes (and probably levels of host immunity as well) (Lindsay & Mackenzie 1996; Harley *et al.* 2001). The fact that RRv outbreaks often occur suddenly after such events has led researchers to investigate the mechanism of RRv transmission more closely. For example, Lindsay *et al.* (1993a) have indicated that there is a strong evidence that the virus can persist in the environment during adverse conditions (dry season) by vertical transmission in desiccation-resistant mosquito (*Aedes/Ochlerotatus*) eggs. They isolated the virus from male mosquitoes prior to an outbreak implying that vertical transmission is a likely explanation for the sudden recurrence of virus activity after heavy rainfall. The incubation period in humans ranges from 5 to 21 days but is usually 7–9 days (Harley *et al.* 2001), which also helps rapid transmission once the outbreak starts.

Research outcomes from this study may be used to assist public health decision making and environmental health risk management. Early warning based on forecasts could assist in improving vector control, community intervention and personal protection. A practical model for estimating the probability of epidemic occurrence in relation to socio-ecological change can help decision makers to determine where and when RRv disease is likely to occur, so that response can be made promptly and limited resources can be mobilized and allocated more effectively and efficiently.

### Acknowledgements

The authors thank three anonymous reviewers for their thoughtful comments; the Queensland Department of Health, Australian Bureau of Meteorology, Queensland transport and the Australian Bureau of Statistics for providing the data on notified RRv cases, climate, sea level and population growth between 1985 and 1996, respectively. This study was partly funded by the National Health and Medical Research Council, Queensland Health and Queensland University of Technology.

### References

- Aaskov JG, Mataika JU, Lawrence GW *et al.* (1981) An epidemic of Ross River virus infection in Fiji, in 1979. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 30, 1053–1059.
- Abeku TA, de Vlas SJ, Borsboom G *et al.* (2002) Forecasting malaria incidence from historical morbidity patterns in epidemic-prone areas of Ethiopia: a simple seasonal

S. Tong *et al.* **Climate variability and Ross River virus transmission in Townsville, Australia**

- adjustment method performs best. *Tropical Medicine and International Health* 7, 851–857.
- Allard R (1998) Use of time-series analysis in infectious disease surveillance. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 76, 327–333.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (2002) *Queensland Year Book*. Watson Ferguson & Company, Brisbane, Australia.
- Australian Department of Health and Aged Care (2003) [http://www1.health.gov.au/cda/Source/Rpt\\_4.cfm](http://www1.health.gov.au/cda/Source/Rpt_4.cfm) (accessed 21/10/03).
- Borghi J, Guinness L, Ouedraogo J & Curtis V (2002) Is hygiene promotion cost-effective? A case study in Burkina Faso. *Tropical Medicine and International Health* 7, 960–969.
- Bowie C & Prothero D (1981) Finding causes of seasonal diseases using time series analysis. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 10, 87–92.
- Catalano R & Serxner S (1987) Time series designs of potential interest to epidemiologists. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 126, 724–731.
- Chatfield C (1975) *The Analysis of Time Series: Theory and Practice*. Chapman & Hall, London.
- Checkley W, Epstein LD, Gilman RH *et al.* (2000) Effect of El Niño and ambient temperature on hospital admissions for diarrhoeal disease in Peruvian children. *Lancet* 355, 442–450.
- Clancy L, Goodman P, Sinclair H & Dockery DW (2002) Effect of air-pollution control on death rates in Dublin, Ireland: an intervention study. *Lancet* 360, 1184–1185.
- Curran M, Harvey B, Crerar S *et al.* (1997) Australia's notifiable disease status, 1996. Annual report of the national notifiable disease surveillance system. *Communicable Disease Intelligence* 21, 281–307.
- Curriero FC, Patz JA, Rose JB & Lele S (2001) The association between extreme precipitation and waterborne disease outbreaks in the United States, 1948–1994. *American Journal of Public Health* 91, 1194–1199.
- Doherty RL, Whitehead RH & Gorman BM (1963) The isolation of a third group A arbovirus in Australia, with preliminary observations on its relationship to epidemic polyarthritis. *Australian Journal of Science* 26, 183–184.
- Dominici F, McDermott A, Zeger SL & Samet JM (2002) On the use of generalized additive models in time-series studies of air pollution and health. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 156, 193–203.
- Hajat S & Haines A (2002) Associations of cold temperatures with GP consultations for respiratory and cardiovascular disease amongst the elderly in London. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 31, 825–830.
- Hales S, de Wet N, Maindonald J & Woodward A (2002) Potential effect of population and climate changes on global distribution of dengue fever: an empirical model. *Lancet* 360, 830–834.
- Harley D, Sleigh A & Ritchie S (2001) Ross River virus transmission, infection, and disease: a cross-disciplinary review. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 14, 909–932.
- Helfenstein U (1986) Box-Jenkins modelling of some viral infectious diseases. *Statistics in Medicine* 5, 37–47.
- Helfenstein U (1991) The use of transfer function models, intervention analysis and related time series methods in epidemiology. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 20, 808–815.
- Helfenstein U (1996) Box-Jenkins modelling in medical research. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 5, 3–22.
- Hennessy KJ & Whetton P (1997) *Development of Australian Climate Change Scenarios*. Australian Medical Association and Greenpeace International, Canberra.
- Kay BH & Jennings CH (2002) Enhancement or modulation of the vector competence of *Ochlerotatus vigilax* (Diptera: Culicidae) for Ross River virus by temperature. *Journal of Medical Entomology* 39, 99–105.
- Liehne PF (1998) *Climatic Influences on Mosquito-borne Diseases in Australia*. CSIRO, Australia.
- Lindsay M & Mackenzie J (1996) Vector-borne viral diseases and climate change in the Australia region: major concerns and public health response. In: *Climate Change and Human Health in the Asia-Pacific Region* (eds P Curson, C Guest & E Jackson) Australian Medical Association and Greenpeace International, Canberra, Australia, pp. 47–62.
- Lindsay MD, Mackenzie JS & Condon RJ (1993) Ross River virus outbreaks in western Australia: epidemiological aspects and the role of environmental factors. In: *Health in the Greenhouse: the Medical and Environmental Health Effects of Global Climate Change* (ed. C Ewan) AGPS, Canberra, pp. 85–100.
- Lindsay MD, Broom AK, Wright AE, Johansen CA & Mackenzie JS (1993a) Ross River virus isolations from mosquitoes in arid regions of Western Australia: implication of vertical transmission as a means of persistence of the virus. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 46, 686–696.
- Mackenzie JS, Brook AK, Hall RA *et al.* (1998) Arboviruses in the Australian region, 1990 to 1998. *Communicable Disease Intelligence* 22, 93–100.
- McManus TJ, Russell RC, Wells PJ *et al.* (1992) Further studies on the epidemiology and effects of Ross River virus in Tasmania. *Arbovirus Research Australia* 6, 68–72.
- McMichael AJ, Haines A, Kovats RS & Slooff R (1996) *Climate Changes and Human Health*. WHO, Geneva.
- Nimmol JR (1928) An unusual epidemic. *Medical Journal of Australia* 1, 422–425.
- Nobre FF, Monteiro AB, Telles PR & Williamson GD (2001) Dynamic linear model and SARIMA: a comparison of their forecasting performance in epidemiology. *Statistics in Medicine* 20, 3051–3069.
- Pope CA, Burnett RT, Thun MJ *et al.* (2002) Lung cancer, cardiopulmonary mortality, and long-term exposure to fine particulate air pollution. *JAMA* 287, 1132–1141.
- Russell RC (1998) Vectors versus humans in Australia – Who is on top down under? An update on vector-borne disease and research on vectors in Australia. *Journal of Vector Ecology* 23, 1–46.
- Shope RE & Anderson SG (1960) The virus aetiology of epidemic exanthem and polyarthritis. *Medical Journal of Australia* 47, 156–158.

S. Tong *et al.* **Climate variability and Ross River virus transmission in Townsville, Australia**

- Tabachnick BG & Fidell LS (2001) *Time-series Analysis: Using Multivariate Statistics*. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, Mass.
- Tong SL & Hu WB (2002) Different responses of Ross River virus to climate variability between coastline and inland cities in Queensland, Australia. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine* **59**, 739–744.
- Tong SL, Bi P, Parton K, Hobbs J & McMichael AJ (1998) Climate variability and transmission of epidemic polyarthritis. *Lancet* **351**, 1100.
- Weinstein P (1997) An ecological approach to public health intervention: Ross River virus in Australia. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **105**, 364–366.
- Whetton P (2001) *Climate Change in Australia*. CSIRO Atmospheric Research, Melbourne.
- Woodruff RE, Guest CS, Garner MG *et al.* (2002) Predicting Ross River virus epidemics from regional weather data. *Epidemiology* **13**, 384–393.

**Authors**

**Shilu Tong** (corresponding author) and **Wenbiao Hu**, School of Public Health, Queensland University of Technology, Kelvin Grove, Qld. 4059, Australia. Tel.: +61 7 3864 9745; Fax: +61 7 3864 3369; E-mail: s.tong@qut.edu.au, w2.hu@qut.edu.au

**A. J. McMichael**, National Centre for Epidemiology and Population Health, Australian National University, Canberra, ACT 0200, Australia. E-mail: tony.mcmichael@ann.edu.au