# **CHAPTER 6:**

# **Statistical and Spatial Analyses**

# 6.1 Variables statistically associated with cholera

The results presented in this chapter can be broadly grouped into two levels. On one level, statistics offered indications that some of the selected study variables have positive correlations to the incidence of cholera at a community level. At another level the results revealed certain spatial relationships between certain variables and the incidence of cholera. The justifications offered by statistical correlations were not always in accord with the spatial portrayal of the study database. This does not imply that the results from one type of analysis contradicted the other. Rather, when considered holistically, each set of results complimented the understanding of the complex disease picture presented by the cholera epidemic of 2000-2004.

Derived values that were calculated from the variables included in the study database using SAS (version 8.2) are presented in Tables 6.1 and 6.2. These derived values formed the basis of all the statistical correlations performed on the study database. All the variables that were included in the study database were assessed statistically. The relationships between the study variables and the incidence of cholera were performed through Partial Spearman's Correlations using SAS (version 8.2). It was decided to perform all the correlations at the Magisterial District (MD) level and not at the placename level or the District Council (DC) level. This is because at the place-name level, the points generated along the regression line will be overwhelming (2 741 place-names) to decipher a correlation. Also a bias may be introduced considering the fact that some place-names existed where not a single cholera case was reported. At the DC level, the points along the regression line will be too few (11) as there are only 10 DC and the Metropolis of Ethikweni (Durban). Thus, the decision to use MDs struck a compromise with 52 points (52 MDs in KZN) presented along the regression line while evaluating the correlations.

Table 6.1: Derived values of the cholera situation in the DCs of KZN.

Abbrevi	ations									
DC	DC - Name	PopTotperDC	PopTotKZN	Popprop	CholTotperDC	CholTotKZN	Cholprop	CholDTotperDC	CholDTotKZN	CholDprop
Durban	eThekweni Metropolitan	2605482	7923346	32.8836	2951	136337	2.1645	51	460	11.087
DC21	Ugu	618047	7923346	7.8003	7491	136337	5.4945	18	460	3.913
DC22	UMgungundlovu	863095	7923346	10.8931	1527	136337	1.12	17	460	3.6957
DC23	Uthukela	523976	7923346	6.6131	10303	136337	7.557	49	460	10.6522
DC24	Umzinyathi	419238	7923346	5.2912	6239	136337	4.5762	48	460	10.4348
DC25	Amajuba	406672	7923346	5.1326	849	136337	0.6227	20	460	4.3478
DC26	Zululand	648555	7923346	8.1854	14062	136337	10.3141	23	460	5
DC27	Umkhanyakude	441172	7923346	5.568	7919	136337	5.8084	35	460	7.6087
DC28	Uthungulu	698851	7923346	8.8201	71275	136337	52.2785	115	460	25
DC29	iLembe	486736	7923346	6.1431	13357	136337	9.797	83	460	18.0435
DC43	Sisonke	211522	7923346	2.6696	364	136337	0.267	1	460	0.2174

DC = District Council

PopTotperDC = Population Total per DC  $PopTotKZN \ = \\$ Population Total in KZN Popprop = Population by proportion CholTotperDC =Cholera Total per DC CholTotKZN = Cholera Total in KZN Cholprop = Cholera by Proportion CholDTotperDC = Cholera Deaths Total per DC  $CholDTotKZN \,=\,$ Cholera Deaths Total in KZN CholDprop =Cholera Deaths by proportion

Table 6.2: Derived values of the cholera situation in the MDs of KZN.

						~: ·	CL IDE ( ) CD	CL IDE (VCC)	CI ID
MD	PopTotperMD	_		_	CholTotKZN		CholDTotperMD	CholDTotKZN	CholDprop
Alfred	106632				136262	0.5394	2	460	1
Babanango	35690	7681847		348	136262	0.2554	2	460	
Bergville	106154	7681847	1.38188	184	136262	0.1350	2	460	0.4348
Camperdown	187559	7681847	2.44159		136262	0.0903	4	460	0.8696
Chatsworth	189884	7681847	2.47185	47	136262	0.0345	1	460	0.2174
Dannhauser	57678	7681847	0.75084	150	136262	0.1101	6	460	1.3043
Dundee	85332	7681847	1.11083	1514	136262	1.1111	5	460	1.0870
Durban	546124	7681847	7.10928	311	136262	0.2282	10	460	2.1739
Estcourt	144439	7681847	1.88026	1313	136262	0.9636	19	460	4.1304
Eshowe	178015	7681847	2.31735	25047	136262	18.3815	48	460	10.4348
Glencoe	24123	7681847	0.31403	681	136262	0.4998	4	460	0.8696
Hlabisa	169288	7681847	2.20374	5817	136262	4.2690	5	460	1.0870
Impendle	37052	7681847	0.48233	9	136262	0.0066	0	460	
Inanda	722470	7681847	9.40490	659	136262	0.4836	10	460	2.1739
Ingwavuma	154230	7681847	2.00772	1177	136262	0.8638	26	460	5.6522
Ixopo	104763	7681847	1.36377	791	136262	0.5805	0	460	
Klipriver	188478	7681847	2.45355	6050	136262	4.4400	22	460	4.7826
Kranskop	45319	7681847	0.58995	1957	136262	1.4362	7	460	1.5217
Lions-River	35627	7681847	0.46378	5	136262	0.0037	0	460	
Lower-Tugela	167916	7681847	2.18588	1729	136262	1.2689	13	460	2.8261
Lower-Umfolozi	215633	7681847	2.80705	5872	136262	4.3093	10	460	2.1739
Mahlabathini	121861	7681847	1.58635	2711	136262	1.9895	6	460	1.3043
Mapumulo	132312	7681847	1.72240	4680	136262	3.4346	32	460	6.9565
Mooi-River	22569	7681847	0.29380	27	136262	0.0198	0	460	
Mount-Currie	41980	7681847	0.54648	6	136262	0.0044	0	460	
Msinga	142798	7681847	1.85890	3309	136262	2.4284	24	460	5.2174
Mthonjaneni	72669	7681847	0.94598	23773	136262	17.4465	33	460	7.1739
Mtunzini	179265	7681847	2.33362	10456	136262	7.6735			5.4348

Table 6.2(cont)

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MD	PopTotperMD	PopTotKZN	Popprop	CholTotperMD	CholTotKZN	Cholprop	CholDTotperMD	CholDTotKZN	CholDprop
Ndwendwe	123721	7681847	1.61056	2768	136262	2.0314	27	460	5.8696
New-Hanover	69410	7681847	0.90356	152	136262	0.1115	3	460	0.6522
Newcastle	237220	7681847	3.08806	692	136262	0.5078	14	460	3.0435
Ngotshe	35223	7681847	0.45852	881	136262	0.6465	4	460	0.8696
Nkandla	123852	7681847	1.61227	10559	136262	7.7490	15	460	3.2609
Nongoma	170808	7681847	2.22353	9148	136262	6.7135	6	460	1.3043
Nqutu	179432	7681847	2.33579	965	136262	0.7082	16	460	3.4783
Paulpietersburg	57930	7681847	0.75412	8	136262	0.0059	0	460	
Pietermaritzburg	549825	7681847	7.15746	879	136262	0.6451	11	460	2.3913
Pinetown	435745	7681847	5.67240	301	136262	0.2209	12	460	2.6087
Polela	71880	7681847	0.93571	241	136262	0.1769	0	460	
Port-Shepstone	205605	7681847	2.67650	1369	136262	1.0047	11	460	2.3913
Qutu	1069	7681847	0.01392	0	136262	0	0	460	
Richmond	60724	7681847	0.79049	34	136262	0.0250	1	460	0.2174
Simdlangentsha	86367	7681847	1.12430	876	136262	0.6429	1	460	0.2174
Ubombo	119749	7681847	1.55886	1010	136262	0.7412	6	460	1.3043
Umbumbulu	162583	7681847	2.11646	379	136262	0.2781	1	460	0.2174
Umlazi	339305	7681847	4.41697	0	136262	0	0	460	
Umvoti	80612	7681847	1.04938	576	136262	0.4227	5	460	1.0870
Umzinto	219392	7681847	2.85598	4556	136262	3.3436	5	460	1.0870
Underberg	16177	7681847	0.21059	5	136262	0.0037	1	460	0.2174
Utrecht	22916	7681847	0.29831	3	136262	0.0022	0	460	
Vryheid	74811	7681847	0.97387	352	136262	0.2583	1	460	0.2174
Weenen	21631	7681847	0.28159	1027	136262	0.7537	4	460	0.8696

# **Abbreviations:**

CholTotperMD =Cholera Total per MD Magisterial District MD =CholTotKZN =Cholera Total in KZN PopTotperMD = Population Total per MD Cholprop = Cholera by proportion PopTotKZN =Population Total in KZN CholDTotperMD =Cholera Deaths Total per MD Popprop = Population by proportion CholDTotKZN = Cholera Death Total in KZN

A comprehensive list of all the correlation results from the derived values of the variables represented in the study database is presented in Table 6.3 a-k.

Table 6.3 a-k: Partial Spearman's Correlations of the socio-economic, demographic and climatic variables used in the study.

### a. Household categories

		Traditional	Conventional	Informal	Temporary	Homeless
%CIR	Correlation	0.27255*	0.20283	0.24916	0.17161	0.38525*
	P-value	0.0978	0.22200	0.13140	0.3029	0.0169
%Mortality	Correlation	-0.2344	-0.18859	-0.25270	-0.24099	-0.18469
	P-value	0.1566	0.25680	0.12580	0.145	0.267

In the household categories, the homeless had the highest positive correlation to the incidence of cholera, followed by those that reside in traditional houses. Being homeless is synonymous to being poor (Table 6.3a). Homeless individuals would obviously not afford the basic services of water and sanitation thus making them vulnerable to diseases associated with the lack of such services. Individuals residing in traditional households are also associated with a low standard of living. And as far as the availability of basic services is concerned, their most probable water supply would be the natural water sources, which may carry high contamination loads, and their sanitation options would be rudimentary at best, further suggesting that households in these categories have a high risk to infectious diseases that are associated with the lack of clean water and adequate sanitation. The association of low standards of households, be it in the rural or urban/periurban squatter/slum dwellings have been previously linked to the incidence of cholera in countries like Philippines (Velimirovic *et al.*, 1975); Mozambique (Aragon *et al.*, 1994); Peru (Franco *et al.*, 1997); Brazil (Gerolomo and Penna, 2000); Tanzania (Acosta *et al.*; 2001) and Bangladesh (Ali *et al.*, 2002).

## b. Water services/options

		Piped water (In house)	Piped water (Within yard)	Public tap	Water tank	Borehole	River/Stream
%CIR	Correlation	0.3691*	-0.0760	0.13152	0.06354	0.33617*	0.50754*
	P-value	0.0267	0.6594	0.4445	0.7128	0.045	0.0016
%Mortality	Correlation	-0.56253	0.1571	0.43711*	0.09951	-0.40562	-0.63153
	P-value	0.0004	0.3602	0.0077	0.5636	0.0141	<0.0001

Within the water service categories, river water, piped water (in house) and borehole water had positive correlations to the %CIR of cholera (Table 6.3b). In comparison, river water had the strongest positive correlation to the incidence of cholera (r = 0.507, p = 0.0016), stressing the risk polluted natural water sources pose to communities' dependant on them. The risks associated with using polluted water from rivers, stream and springs has been long recognised and widely documented (Tshibangu, 1987; Sitas, 1986; Bradley *et al.*, 1996; Shapiro *et al.*, 1999; Patel and Isaäcson, 1989).

There was a positive correlation between having piped water (in house) and the incidence of cholera (r = 0.369, p = 0.026). The use of tap water inside a house was also documented as a potential risk factor in a prospective hospital-based, case-control study in Southern Tanzania, (Acosta *et al*; 2001). The risk of contracting an infectious disease like cholera in households with piped water (in house) may highlight an indirect association with the lack of education in matters of basic hygiene especially when handling water. More so in rural areas where even when a piped water supply within the house or mostly within a close proximity to the house is available, water would still be stored and used from containers such as buckets and drums (Tshibangu, 1987; Patel and Isaäcson, 1989). As such, the disinfection and cleanliness of the containers where the water is stored is important to reduce the risk of contracting infectious diseases like diarrhoea and cholera (Sánchez and Taylor, 1997; Quick *et al.*, 1999; Sobsey *et al.*, 2003). Another aspect to consider with the piped water (in house) service is that, although the database records the presence of piped water in a dwelling, it may just be

reflecting the fact that the infrastructure for piped water exists. In reality, the data does not guarantee that there is a supply of water nor does it guarantee that the quality of water is of the standard acceptable for human consumption. The various reports at the start of the cholera epidemic claiming that households had their water supplies terminated because of non-payment also adds credence to the notion that having piped water inside a dwelling does not necessarily guarantee a supply of clean water (Hemson, 2000; Morris, 2001; Cottle *et al.*, 2002 Pauw, 2003).

Water sourced from borehole also had a strong positive correlation to the incidence of cholera (r = 0.336, p = 0.045), implying that the water sourced from the boreholes might have been of questionable quality, possibly contaminated with cholera causing microorganisms. A possible explanation for this could be the heavy rains that were recorded in the KZN region just before the start of the cholera epidemic (Kriner, 2001; Sidley, 2001). The surface run off that resulted from the heavy rains may have eventually contaminated the water table, which is usually the source of the water from boreholes A similar situation was also being experienced in neighbouring Mozambique in 2001when heavy rains had flooded rural areas together with their pit latrines and sewage systems (Bateman, 2002). Likewise, the risk of cholera was expected to increase after the heavy rains contaminated water sources.

### c. Sanitation services

		Flush toilet	Pit latrine	Bucket system	Other	None
%CIR	Correlation	0.01655	0.01785	0.30015	NOT	0.41089
	P-value	0.9204	0.9141	0.0634	CONSIDERED	0.0094
%Mortality	Correlation	-0.0717	-0.07219	-0.27802		-0.28575
	P-value	0.6645	0.6623	0.0866		0.0778

There was no positive correlation between the use of flush toilets and pit latrines and the %CIR of cholera (Table 6.3c). The sanitation options that were positively correlated to the %CIR of cholera were the bucket toilet system (r = 0.300, p = 0.063) and no

sanitation (r = 0.410, p = 0.009). Among all the sanitation options, the most positive statistical correlation was that of no sanitation. Individuals or households without basic sanitation most often have no option but to use their surrounding environments, be it terrestrial and/or aquatic, indiscriminately for this purpose. Therefore, communities with a high proportion of households lacking in sanitation facilities face higher risks to infectious diseases that may be transmitted as a result of improperly disposed untreated sewage. Individuals that defecate indiscriminately on land or in aquatic environments contribute significantly to environmental pollution. Environmental pollution in communities already lacking in adequate sanitation further exacerbates the public health of disadvantaged communities.

# d. Refuse collecting services

		Serviced	Self serviced	No service
%CIR	Correlation	0.01643	0.01095	0.39147*
	P-value	0.9198	0.9466	0.0125
%Mortality	Correlation	-0.20846	-0.19878	-0.41631
	P-value	0.1968	0.2188	0.0075

The positive correlation between no refuse removal service and %CIR of cholera ( $r = 0.39 \, p = 0.013$ ) is in support of shortfalls in environmental sanitation (Table 6.3d). The difference in the correlation between those who have some sort of refuse service and those that do not emphasise the importance of environmental sanitation in improving the basic hygiene of a community and thereby reducing the risk of infectious diseases like cholera.

The different types of health services and energy options considered in the study did not show any significant correlations to the %CIR of cholera nor the % mortality due to cholera (Table 6.3e). The same can be said with the energy options (Table 6.3f). All the income groups were negatively correlated to %CIR of cholera except for the high-income group (Table 6.3g). The positive correlation (r = 0.293 p = 0.078) of the high-income

# e. Health services

		Hospital	Clinic	Mobile Base	Satellite Clinic
%CIR	Correlation	-0.15905	0.10646	0.00602	-0.09437
	P-value	0.3767	0.5554	0.9735	0.6014
%Mortality	Correlation	0.07113	-0.12927	-0.02359	0.07175
	P-value	0.6941	0.4734	0.8963	0.6915

# f. Energy options

		Electricity	Petrochemicals	Other
%CIR	Correlation	0.11558	0.13245	0.25672
	P-value	0.4776	0.4152	0.1098
%Mortality	Correlation	0.12011	0.11322	-0.25612
	P-value	0.4604	0.4867	0.1107

# g. Income categories

		None	Low	Medium	High	Very high	Unknown
%CIR	Correlation	-0.06033	-0.1637	-0.21763	0.29336	-0.27931	-0.15607
	P-value	0.7228	0.333	0.1957	0.078	0.0941	0.3563
%Mortality	Correlation	-0.0342	0.13706	0.02116	-0.15118	0.0756	0.09921
	P-value	0.8407	0.4186	0.9011	0.3718	0.6565	0.5591

# h. Age group categories and cholera age group categories

	0-4 yrs	5-9 yrs	10-14 yrs	15-19 yrs	20-29 yrs	30-39 yrs	40-59 yrs	60-74 yrs	75-95 yrs
CAC1T				•	_	-		-	
Correlation	0.01593								
P-value	0.6348								
CAC2T									
Correlation		-0.00398							
P-value		0.9129							
CAC3T									
Correlation			-0.00978						
P-value			0.7795						
CAC4T									
Correlation				-0.00314					
P-value				0.9268					
CAC5T									
Correlation					0.01786				
P-value					0.5662				
CAC6T									
Correlation						-0.00816			
P-value						0.8002			
CAC7T									
Correlation							-0.0063		
P-value							0.8409		
CAC8T									
Correlation								-0.02815	
P-value								0.4202	
CAC9T									
Correlation									0.01805
P-value									0.687

University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) group (R6 000-16 000) may be an indication on a particular aspect of the life style of this income group, such as the ability to afford to travel from one area to another. As such, individuals of this income group can afford to travel around, thus run the risk of being exposed to infections en route, especially during the holiday seasons when visiting communities that may be vulnerable to diseases like cholera.

No statistical significant correlation could be established between the age groups and the %CIR of cholera (Table 6.3h) even though the individual age group graphs (Figures 5.4-5.13) revealed patterns that indicated some age groups were more affected than others. This means that there was no statistical proof to support the belief that the most affected age groups (i.e. 0-4 years, 10-14 years and 15-19 years) were particularly at risk to cholera infection, thus implying that all the age groups carried the same degree of risk to contracting cholera. The fact that some age groups appeared to be more affected than others may just be an indication of their representative proportion to the overall provincial population. That is, there will be more young people affected because they are more young people making up the population of KZN (Chapter 4: Figures 4.2-4.3).

### i. Population density

%CIR	Correlation	-0.36029
	P-value	0.0102

There was a negative correlation between population density and %CIR of cholera (Table 6.3i). The assessment of the correlation coefficients of the population density of individual MD to %CIR also showed a negative or no correlation, save for the three positive correlations of the MDs of Babanango (r = 0.62355 p = 0.013), Newcastle (r = 0.88571 p = 0.0188) and Pinetown (r = 0.43238 p = 0.0135) (Table 6.3j). From the general results of the study database, a correlation may have been expected between population density and %CIR of cholera. Such a correlation may well exist, if one MD was to be assessed in isolation from the other MDs. A collective analysis of all the MDs does not however support a significant correlation between population density and %CIR of cholera (Table 6.3j).

# University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) j. Correlation of the Population density for the individual MDs

MD (Total cholera)	Correlation	P-value
Alfred	-0.27896	0.1355
Babanango	0.62355*	0.013
Bergville	-0.54165	0.0063
Camperdown	-0.6314	0.0372
Chatsworth	-1	<.0001
Dannhauser	-1	-
Dundee	0.0382	0.8804
Durban	0.26158	0.0943
Escourt	-0.2833	0.8756
Eshowe	0.21565	0.0614
Glencoe	-0.4	0.6
Hlabisa	0.11751	0.4367
Impendle	-0.94868	0.0513
Inanda	-0.06221	0.655
Ingwavuma	0.16036	0.2871
Іхоро	-0.07741	0.7255
Klipriver	0.16368	0.4053
Kranskop	0.16724	0.4243
Lions River	-0.86603	0.3333
Lower Tugela	0.15634	0.5631
Lower Umfolozi	0.1713	0.1831
Mahlabathini	0.24148	0.0566
Mapumulo	-0.01961	0.8881
Mooi River	-0.31623	0.6838
Mount Currie	-	-

... continues

# j. (continued)

Msinga	-0.08781	0.5318		
Mthonjaneni	0.0759	0.6461		
<u> </u>				
Mtunzini	0.02912	0.8207		
Ndwendwe	-0.08163	0.6796		
New Hanover	-0.09303	0.7518		
Newcastle	0.88571*	0.0188		
Ngotshe	0.5	0.6667		
Nkandla	-0.00431	0.972		
Nongoma	0.017472	0.087		
Nqutu	-0.02963	0.8332		
Paulpietersburg	-0.5	0.6667		
Pietermaritzburg	-0.07598	0.6693		
Pinetown	0.43238*	0.0135		
Polela	-0.31022	0.3264		
Port Shepstone	0.15111	0.3053		
Qutu	-	-		
Richmond	-0.55907	0.2488		
Simdlangentsha	0.74003	0.0038		
Ubombo	0.3371	0.0385		
Umbumbulu	-0.12403	0.6239		
Umlazi	-	-		
Umvoti	-0.51138	0.0893		
Umzinto	-0.16175	0.1778		
Underberg	-1	-		
Utrecht	-	-		
Vryheid	1	< 0.0001		
Weenen	-0.77143	0.0724		

<sup>-</sup> No *r* or *p* values available.

### k. Climatic variables

		Min. temperature	Max. temperature	Ave. temperature	Rainfall	Humidity
%CIR	Correlation	0.03889	0.034411	0.0393	0.04042	0.0371
	P-value	-	-	-	-	-

<sup>-</sup> No *p* values available.

From the data interpretation of Chapter 5, among the climatic variables, only the annual rainfall pattern showed a probable relationship to cholera when plotted against the cholera cases of the entire epidemic period. However, statistically, the Partial Spearman's correlation did not establish a good correlation between the %CIR of cholera and the climatic variables of rainfall, temperature (minimum, maximum and average) or humidity (Table 6.3k). There may have been a correlation with the climatic variables within specific months when cholera was at its peak but not when the entire database was statistically assessed. There may also have been a correlation with the climatic variables if only certain places that reported high cholera case were considered. Both these possibilities have limitations of the sample size being too small for statistical assessment. In general, statistical verification that clearly link climatic variables to the incidence of cholera has been ambiguous in several studies in the past (Kamal, 1963; Singh et al., 1998, Pascual et al., 2002). Recently Koelle et al., (2005) put forward a mathematical model that demonstrate an interplay of environmental forcing, i.e. climate variability, and temporary immunity to explain the inter-annual disease cycles present in a four-decade cholera time series from Matlab, Bangladesh. Thus, if to have such long term data (four decades) is a pre-requisite for seeing a relationship between climatic variables and cholera, this would be a limitation to most researchers in the field, especially so in developing countries where retrieval of long-term data may not always be feasible.

It should be noted that a regression analysis was not pursued because statistically insubstantial  $r^2$  values (< 0.25) were returned for all variables investigated. There was no  $r^2$  value greater than 0.0017 in the regression model that included all the socioeconomic variables that had a correlation to the %CIR of cholera (refer Table 6.4). Notwithstanding though the p-values were positive, they were not strong.

Table 6.4: An extract of the Partial Spearman's correlations of the variables that were positively associated with the %CIR of cholera.

% CIR →	Correlation	P-value (p<0.05)
Variable↓		
Traditional house	0.27255	0.0978
Homeless	0.38525	0.0169
Piped water	0.36910	0.0267
Borehole	0.33617	0.0450
River water	0.50754	0.0016
Bucket toilet	0.30015	0.0634
Unspecified sanitation	0.41089	0.0094
No refuse service	0.39147	0.0125
Income: R6,000–R16,000/month	0.29336	0.0780

# 6.2 The spatial approach

The variables that were statistically established to have a positive correlation to the incidence of cholera presented guidance as to the types of GIS maps to be generated (Table 6.4). Thus, a GIS map was created for all the variables that were found to have a correlation with the incidence of cholera. By and large, the purpose of these maps was to portray the spatial characteristics of the epidemic. The GIS maps presented here were generated from a combination of outputs from the spreadsheet analyses, as well as the statistically derived data. Maps 5 to 26 are a result of a combination of two features. As a basis, they illustrate the socio-economic or climatic conditions of the study area at the time. In addition there was also superimposition of the cholera cases onto the socio-economic or climatic variables in question. This exercise formed the basis for examining how the different variables spatially correlated to the incidence of cholera. The statistical outcome of the previous section may or may not be in agreement with all the spatial relationships revealed by the GIS maps. Nonetheless, the challenge was to highlight the possible relationships between the incidence of cholera and the various socio-economic and climatic from a spatial perspective.

# 6.2.1 Spatial GIS mapping

With regards to this study, all the census socio-economic variables surveyed, include the various categories represented by water and sanitation services, refuse collection, source of energy, income, types of dwelling and health facilities. The spatial perspective of the possible relationships of the statistically correlated variables to the incidence of cholera also gives a general depiction of the socio-economic status of the study area of KZN (Maps 6 to 17). In addition, these maps were also superimposed with all the reported cholera cases such that each map served a double purpose; i.e. to illustrate a particular variable and how it spatially related to the incidence of cholera. This was done for ease of comparing between the various MDs at a glance. The choice of GIS maps presented here are those where the particular socio-economic variable had a positive correlation with %CIR of cholera or those that revealed an interesting spatial connection with the distribution of cholera cases in the affected areas, as was the case with the climatic variables.

## 6.2.2 Demographic variables and cholera

# 6.2.2.1 Population

Urban areas like the Durban Metropolis and the MD of Pietermaritzburg were the most populated for obvious reasons of being central business districts (CBDs), accommodating 5.7-9.4% of the provincial population (Map 6). The most populated non-urban MD situated closest to the foci of the epidemic was that of Lower Umfolozi, accommodating 2.3-3.1% of the provincial population, while the rest of the neighbouring MDs accommodated between 1.1-2.3% (Map 6). The areas that reported high cholera incidence were also relatively densely populated, accommodating 1.7–3.1% of the total KZN population when compared to other MDs (Map 6).

The spatial trend demonstrated the cholera spread to be more among densely populated communities than in the sparsely populated ones. Cholera being an infectious disease will understandably require a direct or indirect contact between a patient/carrier of the disease and the susceptible person. The chance of contracting the disease is thus higher if a patient/carrier of the disease is placed among a large pool of susceptible individuals within a community. With the exception of the urban areas, the population density was

University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) highest in the MD of Lower Umfolozi, with 38-57 persons residing per km<sup>2</sup> as compared to the other MDs where relatively high cholera cases were also reported (Map 6). Most of the affected MDs had population densities of between 4-57 persons per sq km, indicating that even if an MD may accommodate between 1.7-2.3% of the provincial population, it does not necessarily mean that the population density will be high, as this factor also depends on the habitable land area of the particular MD in question. Therefore on average, larger areas tend to portray lower population densities and vice versa (Map 7). To add credence to this observation is the fact that areas that reported high cholera cases were in the majority rural in nature.

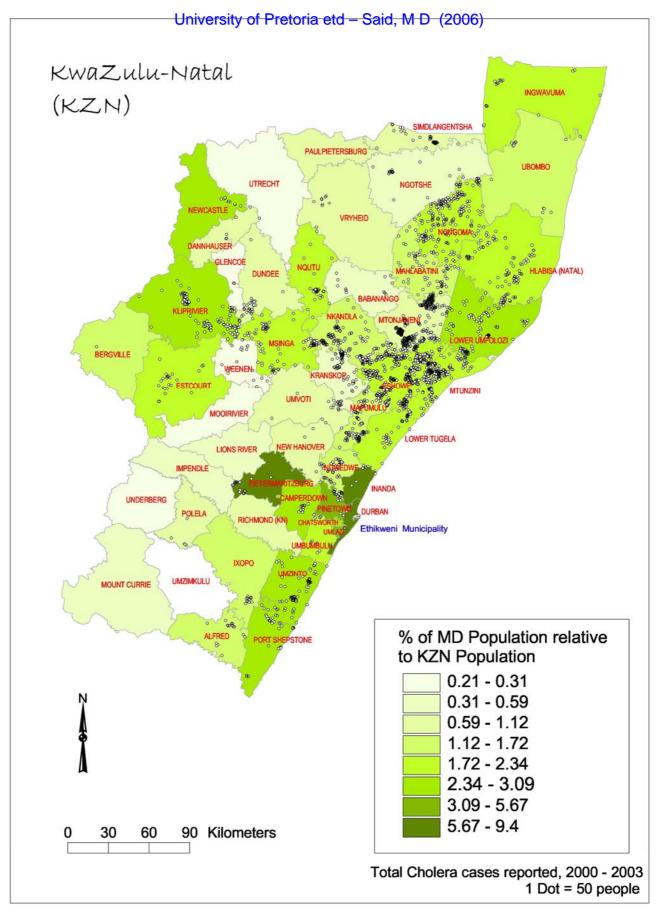
# **6.2.2.2** Housing

The housing situation was such that most areas (excluding the Durban Metropolis and other urban centres) had at least 12% of the dwellings being of the traditional type, whereas in some areas the proportion is up to 95% (Map 8). The areas with the cholera case clusters had 42-95% of the dwellings being of the traditional type; indicative of a predominantly rural setting.

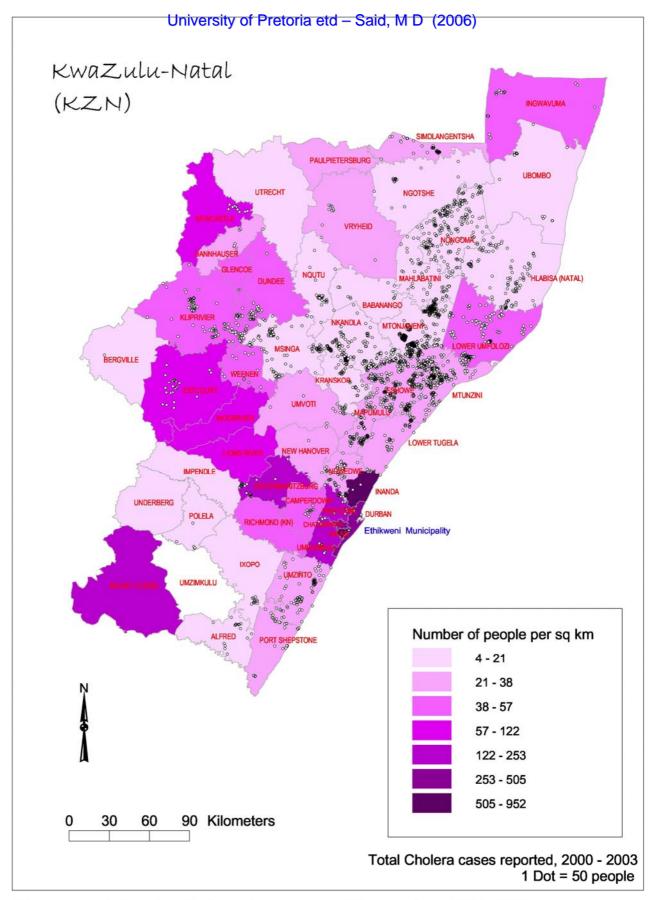
The statistical results positively correlated living in a traditional house type to the %CIR of cholera (r= 0.272 p= 0.09). Acosta et al. (2001) also observed similar correlation in a study in Tanzania, whereby living in a mud house was significantly associated with cholera. The same areas also had relatively high population densities of 17 - 99 persons/sq km with 0.01-0.12% of their population classified as homeless (Maps 7 and 9). This was exacerbated by the fact that between 30-87% of people within individual MDs of KZN had no form of income implying a general state of poverty in the areas where such individuals lived (Map 10). The housing situation depicted here together with the high level of unemployment is consistent to a state of affairs that implies that most households would probably not afford basic services like water, sanitation and refuse collection.

#### Socio-economic variables and cholera

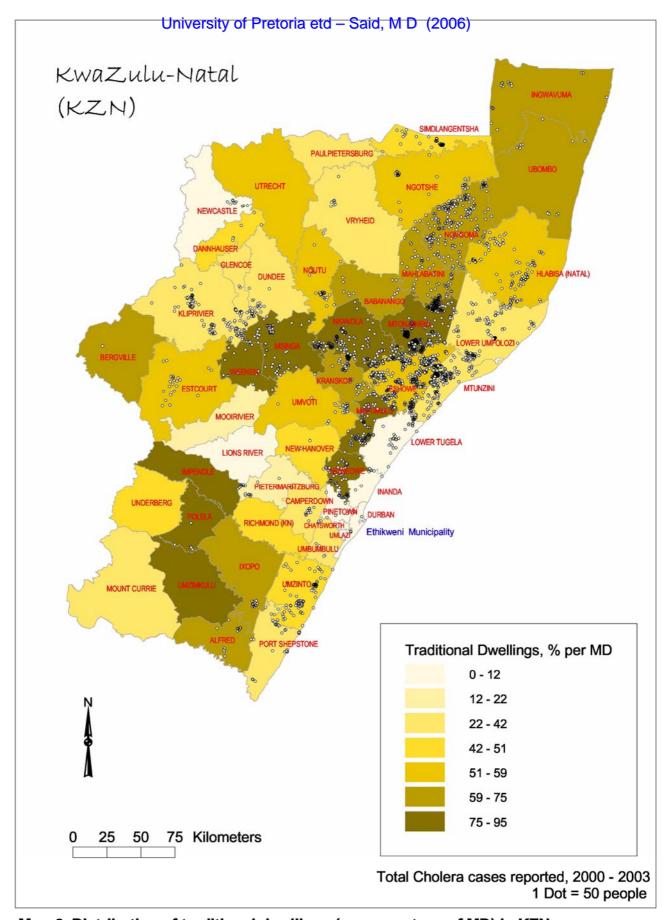
The socio-economic variables of water, sanitation and refuse service categories were the basic types of services considered in the study (refer Table 5.4). Per se, all the GIS maps presented here spatially demonstrate the type of basic services that were positively correlated to the incidence of cholera. The names of the 52 MDs are also



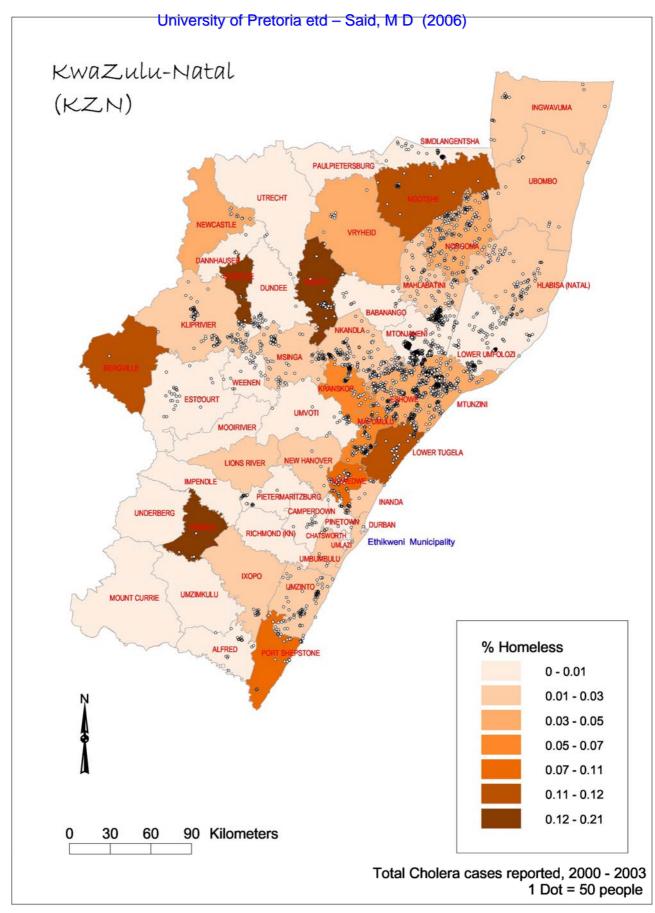
Map 6: The proportion of people per MD (as percentage) in relation to total KZN population



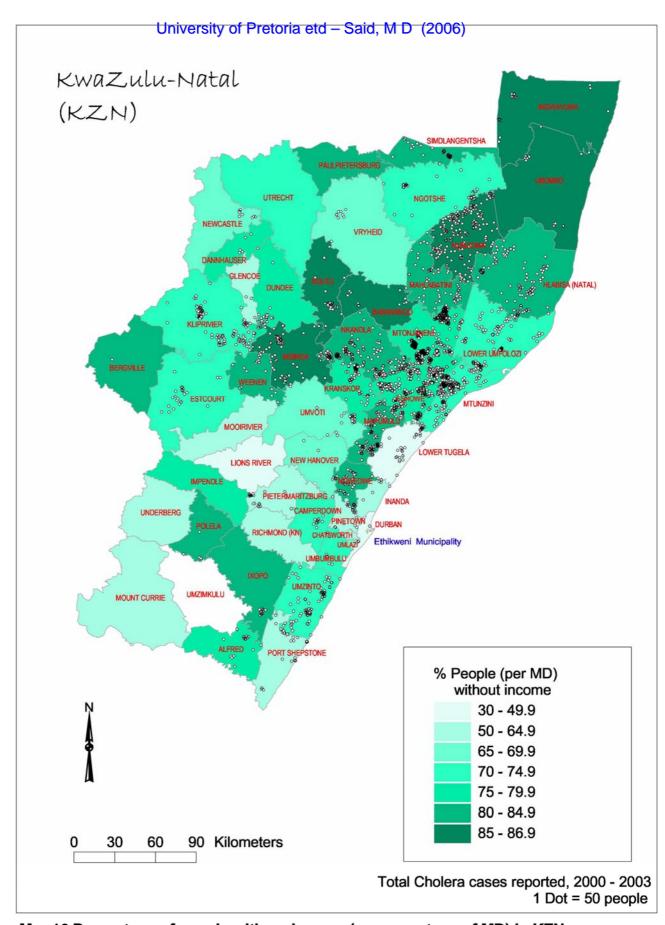
Map 7: Population density (people per square kilometer) per MD in KZN



Map 8: Distribution of traditional dwellings (as percentage of MD) in KZN



Map 9: Distribution of homeless persons (as percentage of MD) in KZN



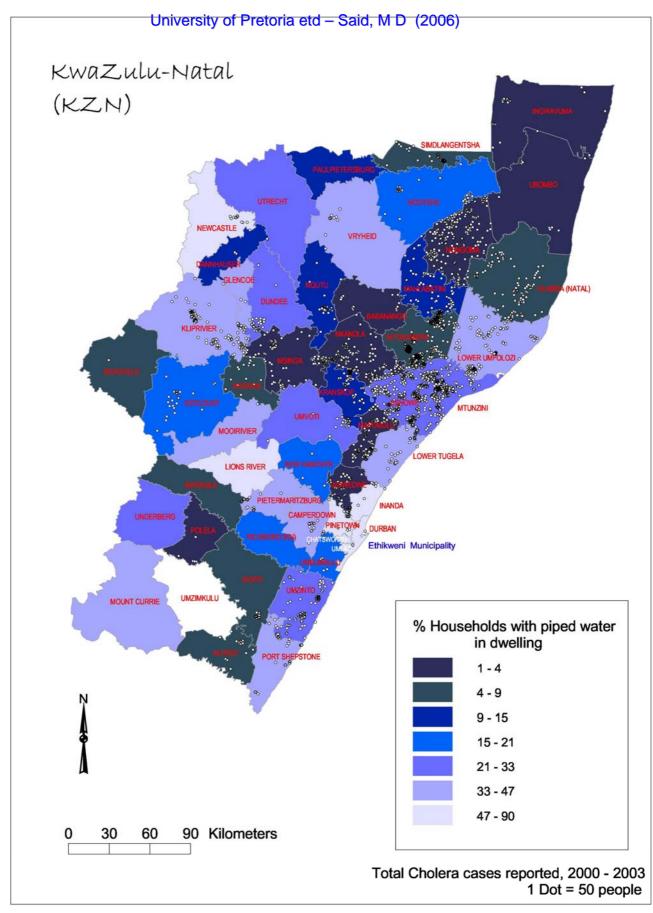
Map10:Percentage of people with no income (as percentage of MD) in KZN

University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) included in these maps to make comparison between the different MDs straightforward. The maps also include a colour-coded legend to show the different levels of basic services available in the different MDs.included in these maps to make comparison between the different MDs straightforward. The maps also include a colour-coded legend to show the different levels of basic services available in the different MDs.

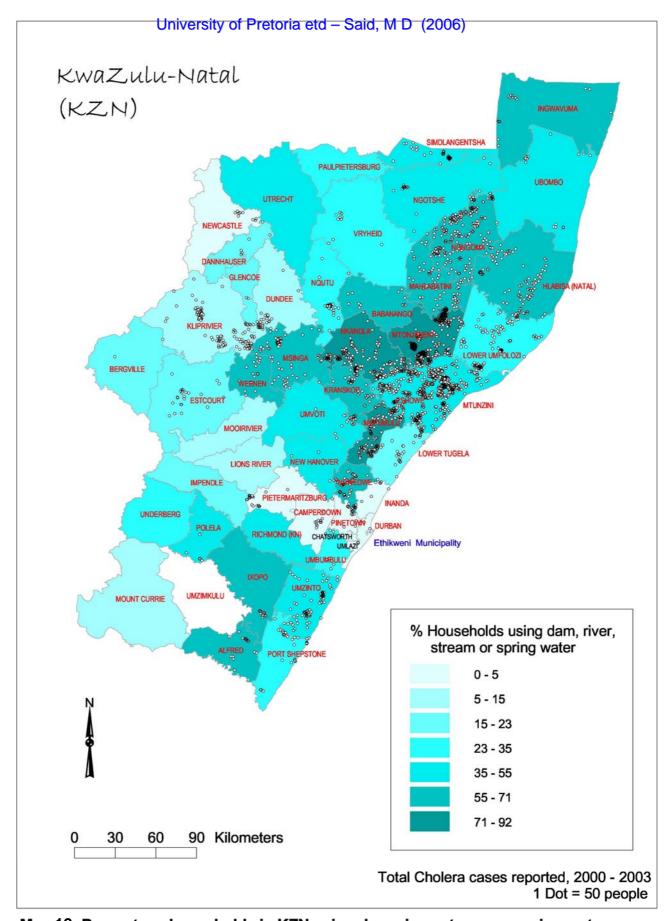
### 6.2.3.1 Water

There was a total of seven water services/options considered in the study, of which three were positively associated with the incidence of cholera, i.e. having piped water inside the dwelling, using boreholes and using water from rivers, dams, streams and springs. The distribution of water services in KZN was such that only 15-47% had piped water in their dwellings, 6-14% depended on boreholes while the majority at 23-55% sourced their water from rivers, streams and springs (Maps 11 to 13). The most affected areas had between 1 - 33% of households with piped water in their dwelling. In the MDs of Eshowe and Mtunzini where most of the cholera cases were reported, there were 21-33% of household with piped water in their dwelling which means two thirds of the population in that area sourced their water from sources external to their households (Map 11).

As cholera spread out of its original foci in the MDs of Eshowe and Mtunzini (Figure 5.1) to the north, south and west, the next most affected MDs of Nongoma, Hlabisa, Nkandla, Mtonjaneni, Msinga, Mapumulu and Ndwendwe had a mere 1-9% of households with piped water in their dwelling (Map 11). Although Lower Umfolozi was better off with 33-47% coverage of households with piped water in their dwellings, it was not spared, considering the high number of cholera cases that were reported. Thus, if the areas where cholera was first reported had relatively better off households as far as piped water was concerned, it is then safe to assume that the areas where cholera spread to were even more vulnerable to the infection, as is clearly seen in the MDs neighbouring Eshowe, Mtunzini and beyond (Map 11). The MDs named above as having the least percentage of households with piped water in their dwelling were the ones with the high proportion of households (55-92%) using water from natural sources like rivers, dams, streams or springs (Map 12). Among the water service categories, the natural water option had the strongest statistical correlation (r = 0.507 p = 0.0016) to



Map 11: Percentage households in KZN with piped water in their dwellings



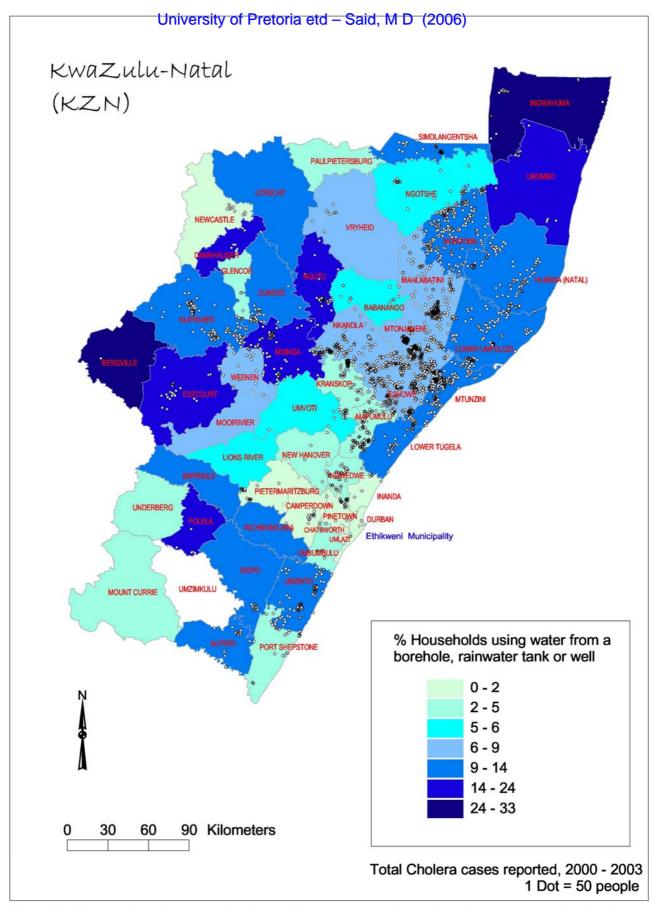
Map 12: Percentage households in KZN using dam, river, stream or spring water

University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) to the %CIR of cholera. This spatial scenario is in agreement with the reports of people getting cholera because they could not afford to pay for water and had thus to resort to natural water sources which were most probably polluted with pathogens including the cholera organisms (Ka-Min, 2000; Nhlapo-Hlope, 2001; Sidley, 2001; Cottle and Deedat 2002).

The spatial distribution of cholera cases in KZN corresponded well with areas that have households using boreholes (Map 13), concurring with the positive correlation between the use of boreholes and %CIR of cholera (0.336 p = 0.045). The MDs of Hlabisa, Lower Umfolozi, Mtunzini, Lower Tugela, Nongoma, Msinga and Klipriver had 9-14% of households using boreholes. While the MDs of Eshowe, Nkandla, Mtonjaneni and Mahlabatini had 6-9% of households using boreholes. It is quite probable then that if the natural water sources around the areas where cholera was rampant were polluted, this could have affected the quality of water sourced from boreholes as explained in 6.1. Especially in the event that the borehole water was for domestic purposes without first being treated either by boiling or adding bleach after it was sourced. There was also the possibility of wells and boreholes being polluted because of the heavy rains and the subsequent surface run off that occurred around the same time period as the cholera epidemic (Kriner, 2001; Bateman, 2002). Environmental pollution could also have exacerbated the contamination of groundwater that recharges wells and boreholes. Inevitably then, people using untreated water from these sources were at risk of contracting waterborne diseases such as cholera.

### 6.2.3.2 Sanitation

Five types of sanitation services/options were considered and correlated with the %CIR of cholera. It was reasonable to assume that sanitation options like the flush or chemical toilets were mostly available in the urban areas because of the high maintenance costs associated with them. Also, a flush toilet would require that a household have access to piped water and be connected to a sewage disposal system; such as a septic tank or to a municipal sewer, as a necessity for the operation of the system. The proportion of households with pit latrines ranged from 8.8 - 97% within the individual MDs, thus probably the most widely distributed sanitation option (Map 14). As it were, initial expenses of setting up a pit latrine are reasonable and within

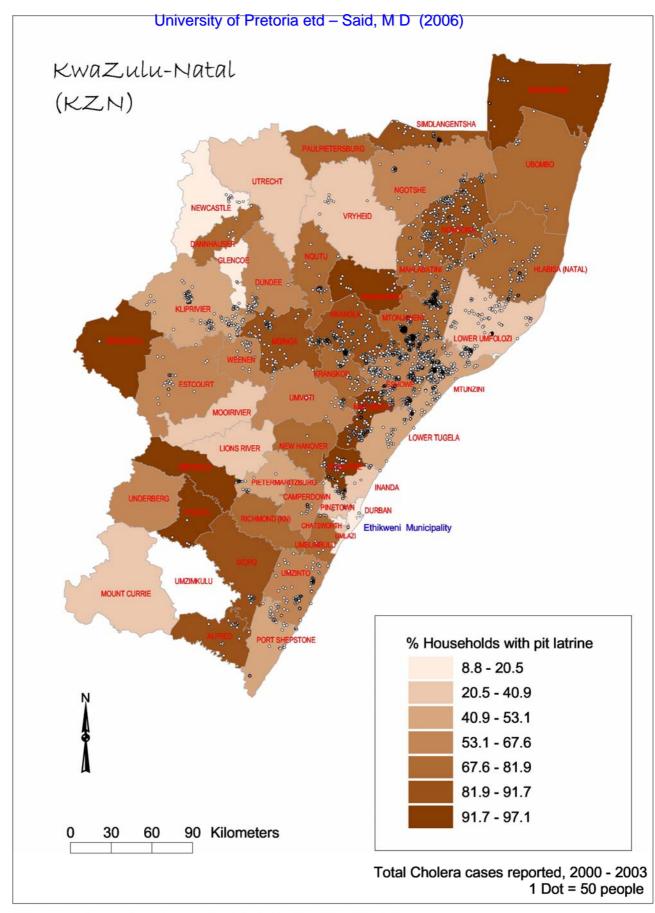


Map 13: Percentage households in KZN using water from boreholes, rainwater tanks or well

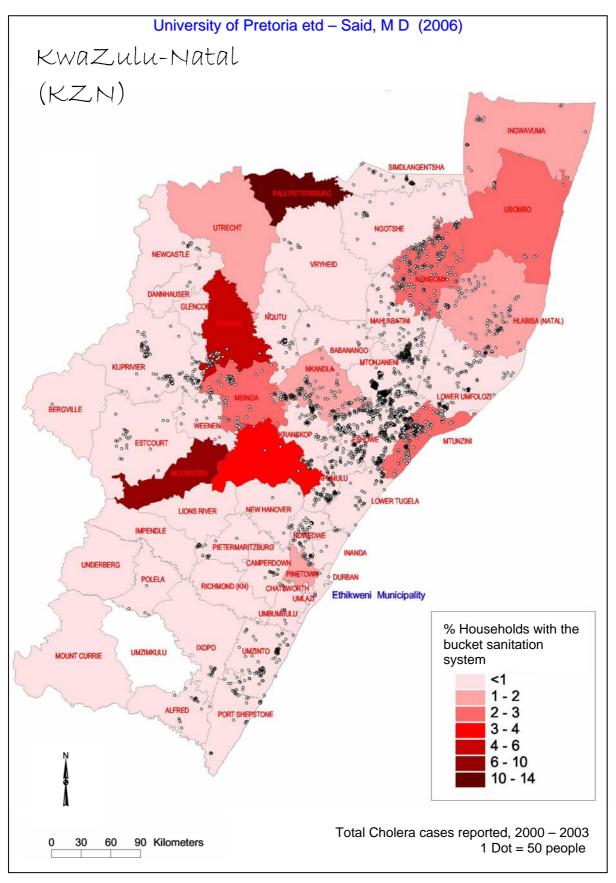
University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) reach of most community sanitation programs or government funded housing schemes. Also, once set up, the system provides for adequate sanitation over a lengthy period of time with minimum maintenance requirements. Incidentally, this wide range in the proportion of availability of pit latrines, with the lowest being 8.8% and the highest being 97% is also a direct indication of the availability of piped water in the individual MDs of KZN. This relationship can be seen when comparing the services illustrated on Map 11 (% households with piped water) and those on Map 14 (% households with pit latrines); that, MDs with a low coverage of piped water in households generally have a high provision of pit latrines. For obvious reasons that such households would most probably not be able to maintain nor afford a sanitation option like a flush toilet that is dependent on the availability of piped water.

MDs that reported high cholera case clusters had 1-3% of households using the bucket toilet (Map 15). The MDs of Mtunzini, Nongoma, Nkandla and Hlabisa, which reported high number of cholera cases, had 3-4% of households using bucket toilets as a sanitation option. Similarly, all the other MDs of KZN had a proportion of households using the bucket toilet even if it was at less than 1%. This is a point of concern considering that the bucket toilet has been documented to have a high potential to expose households to unsanitary conditions particularly in areas where the bucket maintenance (emptying) service is not regularly provided by the local authorities concerned (DWAF; 2002a).

On the negative extreme spectrum of the sanitation options is the 1-6.3% of households in the most affected MDs having had no specified form of sanitation (Map 16). Thus, the environmental pollution pressure in the affected areas is high as households turn to rudimentary means, like using the open areas/bushes in their environs for sanitation purposes. An important aspect to consider especially in an epidemic environment, is that people with no specified sanitation options will probably also include disease carriers who may continuously seed the aquatic and terrestrial environmental with pathogens like V. cholerae. Therefore, in support of the type and distribution of sanitation options or lack thereof and the associated risks, the use of bucket toilets was positively correlated to %CIR of cholera (r = 0.30 p = 0.063). Similarly, on the other extreme, households with unspecified sanitation were also positively correlated to



Map 14: Percentage households in KZN with pit latrines



Map15: Percentage households in KZN with bucket sanitation system

University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) %CIR of cholera (r = 0.411 p = 0.0094). The spatial demonstration provided by Maps 14 - 16 clearly highlight that the worst affected cholera areas were also the ones with a high proportion of households that require serious attention as far as their sanitation needs are concerned.

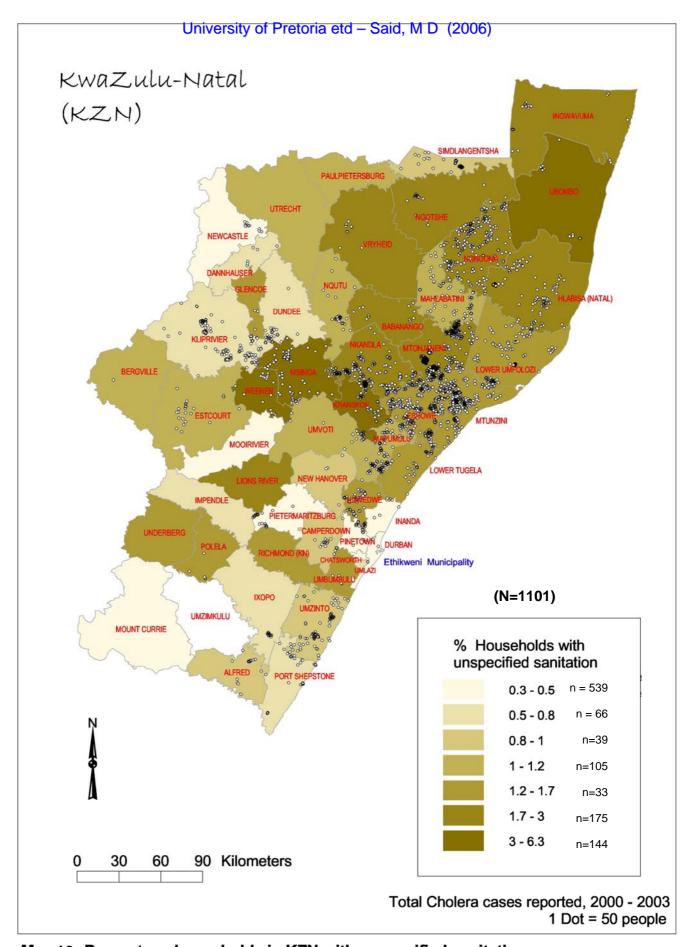
# 6.2.3.3 Refuse

Lack of water and sanitation are always implicated first as the primary driving factors during epidemics of cholera. Environmental pollution that can come about as a result of the lack of refuse services is not usually directly connected to epidemics of cholera as such. The general picture in KZN as far as the refuse situation is concerned is that almost 80% of the MDs (excluding Durban) in KZN (i.e. 42 of the 52 MDs) have 8-55% of their households with no refuse removal services (Map 17). The MDs where the bulk of the cholera cases were reported from have at best 12-17% of households with no refuse removal service. While the rest of the MDs have between 42-55% of households with no refuse removal services.

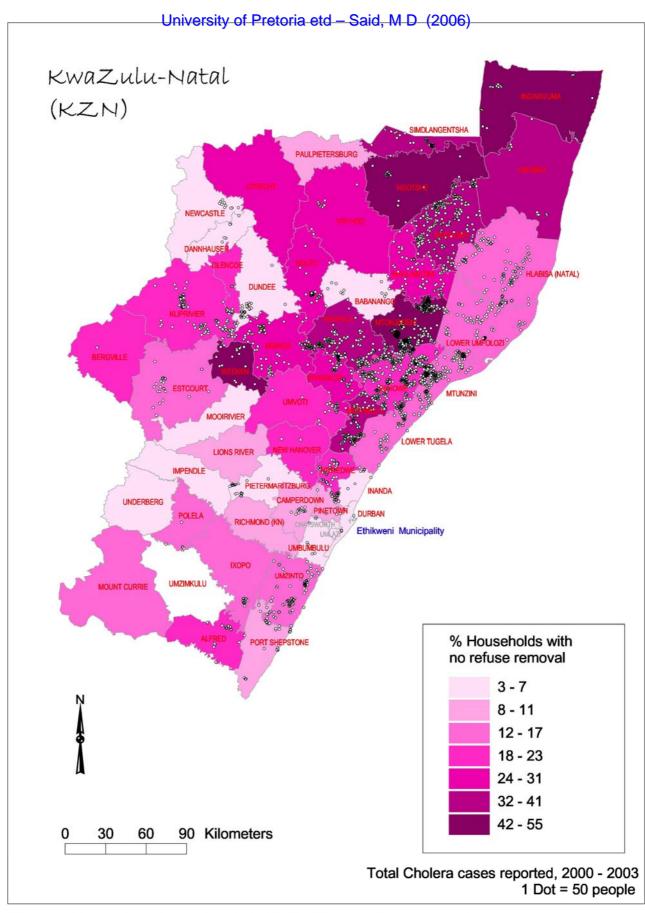
The spatial illustration of the areas with cholera cases clusters in relation to the refuse removal situation is presented in Map 17. Most of cholera cases clusters concur with the least serviced areas within the various MDs (Map 17). This observation is supported by the positive correlation (r=0.39 p 0.01) between %CIR of cholera and lack of refuse services. Thus the question; what type of refuse disposal do most of these households opt for? This state of affairs implies a significant level of indiscriminate refuse disposal, which may inevitably lead to environmental pollution. Thus in light of the cholera epidemic in question, indiscriminate environmental pollution may as well have acted as a significant environmental factor in the transmission of cholera.

# 6.2.4 Climatic variables and cholera

The spatial representation of the climatic variables of rainfall, relative humidity and maximum temperature during the major peak of the cholera epidemic follows. Maps 18-26 demonstrated a significant concurrence at the spatial level. The climatic maps were slightly different in that each of the three climatic variables was followed over a three-month period of November, December and January (NDJ). In addition, only the



Map 16: Percentage households in KZN with unspecified sanitation



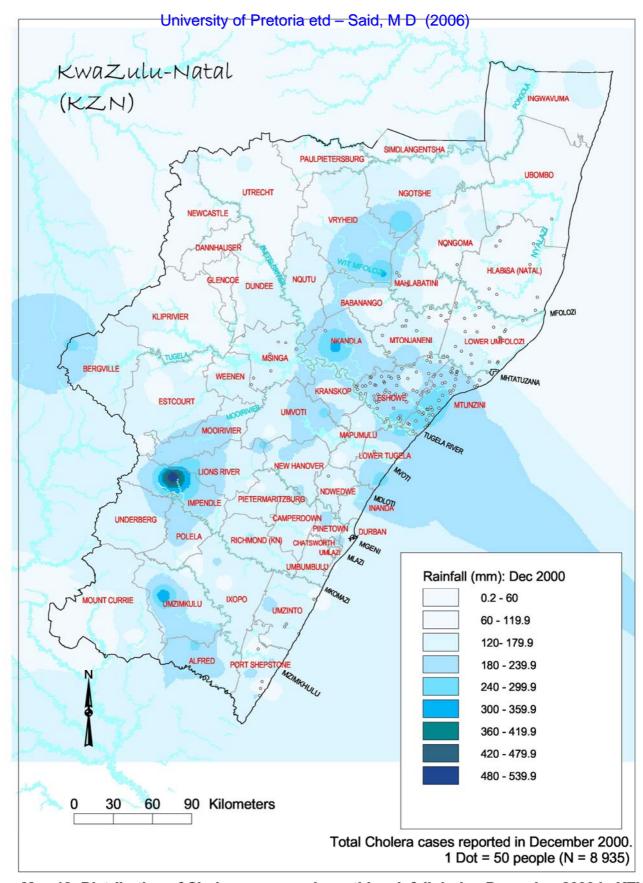
Map 17: Percentage households in KZN with no refuse removal services

University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) cholera cases that were reported during the individual month in question were superimposed on the specific climatic conditions of the time.

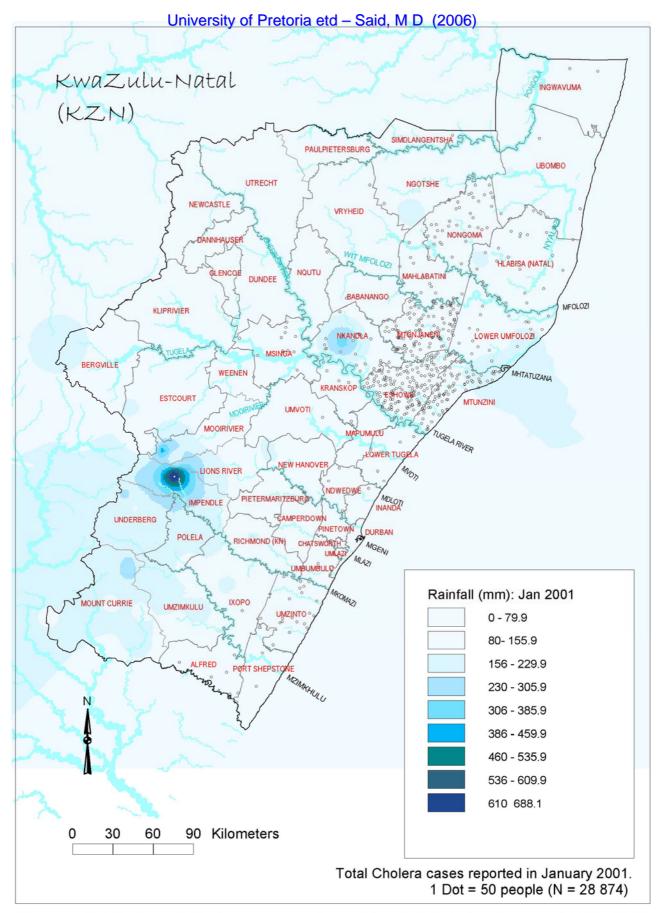
# 6.2.4.1 Rainfall

In December 2000, the bulk of the cholera case clusters were in the Mtunzini and Eshowe areas, where rainfall of up to 299.9 mm was recorded. A few cases were reported to the north and even less to the south where the rainfall was less (up to 119.9 mm). The spatial picture of the rainfall pattern in December 2000 concurred with the disease foci as seen in Map 18. The fact that statistical correlations linked inadequate sanitation or lack of it to the cholera outbreak makes probable that the heavy rains of December 2000 may have also contributed to the initial spread of the disease. In that the effluent resulted from environmental pollution was carried off into rivers and streams that people depend on for their livelihood. With the presence of cholera in the communities, such conditions inevitably supported further transmission of the disease.

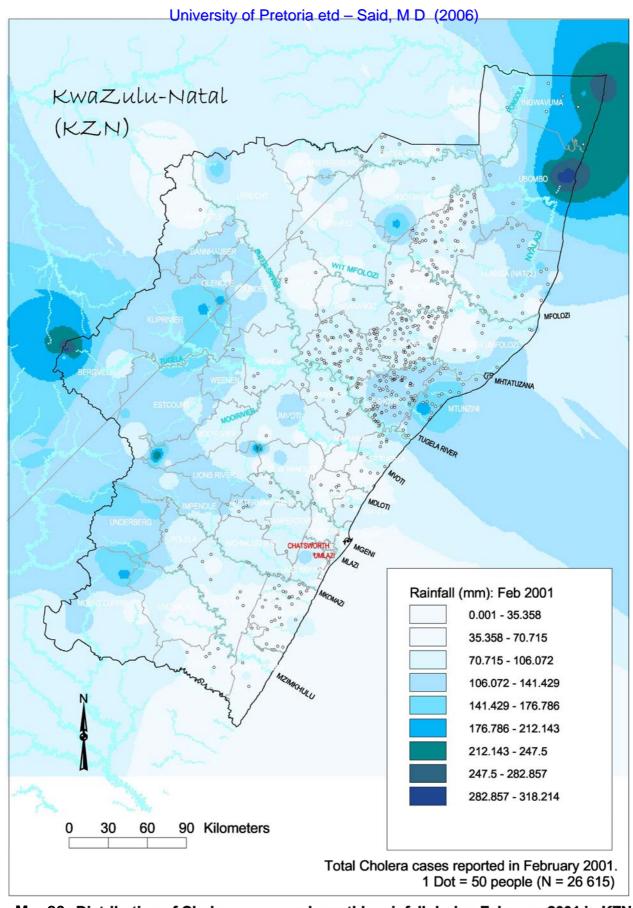
The rains had subsided but not the spread of cholera, possibly because; the rains of the previous month had provided an adequate trigger for cholera to reach epidemic proportions. January 2001 saw an unpredictable situation with an increase of new cases radiating more to the north than to the south of the disease foci along the coastline of KZN (Map 19); affecting the communities of Mtunzini, Eshowe and Mtonjaneni. By February 2001, the heavy case clustering seen around Mtunzini, Eshowe and Mtonjaneni eased slightly, even though the rains did return in the same month, measuring up to 212 mm (Map 20). The effect of the February 2001 rains did not appear to contribute to the disease picture as those of reported in December 2000. This could be attributed to the intervention measures of augmenting health facilities with additional medical personnel to support in the surveillance. Additional intervention measures of establishment of rehydration centres, stock piling medical supplies (ORS, Intravenous fluids, gloves, soap and other essential medical supplies), use of awareness campaigns, distribution of bleach to purify water and water tankers to supply water to rural communities also contributed to reducing the case numbers.



Map 18: Distribution of Cholera cases and monthly rainfall during December 2000 in KZN



Map 19: Distribution of Cholera cases and monthly rainfall during January 2001 in KZN

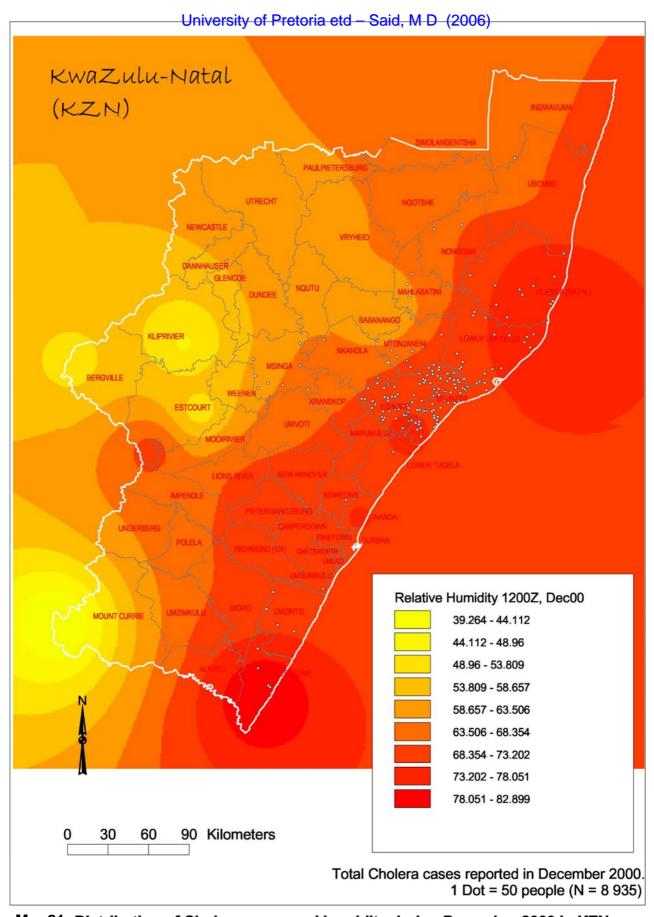


Map20: Distribution of Cholera cases and monthly rainfall during February 2001 in KZN

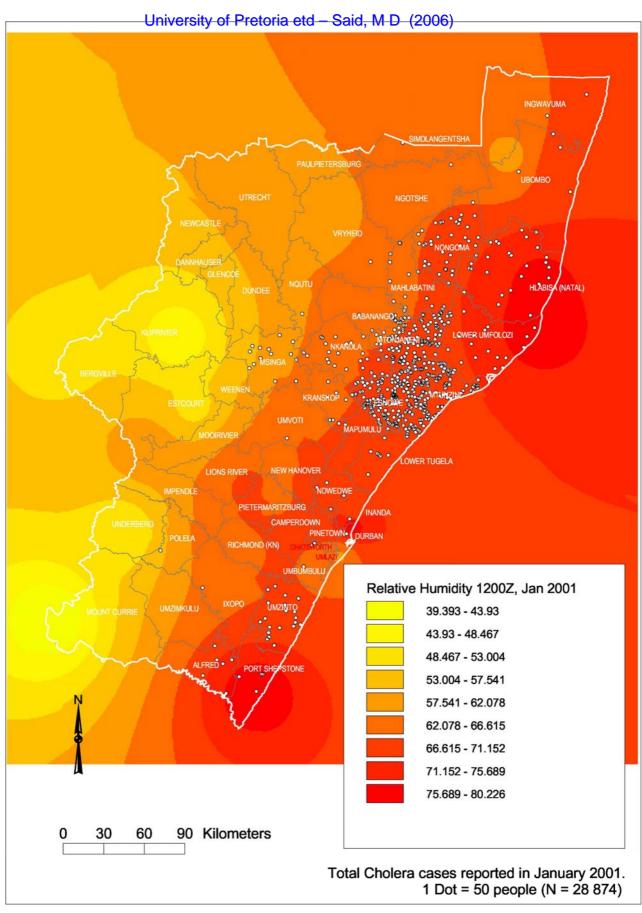
### 6.2.4.2 Relative Humidity

High humidity levels were reported in the months of December, January and February 2000/01 in KZN (Maps 21-23). The disease focus was amidst a longitudinal belt of humidity of between 73–83% during December 2000. The heavy rains reported during the same month (Map 18) along the coastal border of KZN probably also contributed to these high humidity conditions. Very few cases were reported beyond the longitudinal belt of 63-68% humidity. In the following month of January, the increase in cholera cases coincided with humidity levels of 62-76% along the eastern coastal border of KZN. The areas around Eshowe, Mtunzini and Mtonjaneni experienced higher humidity of between 71-76%.

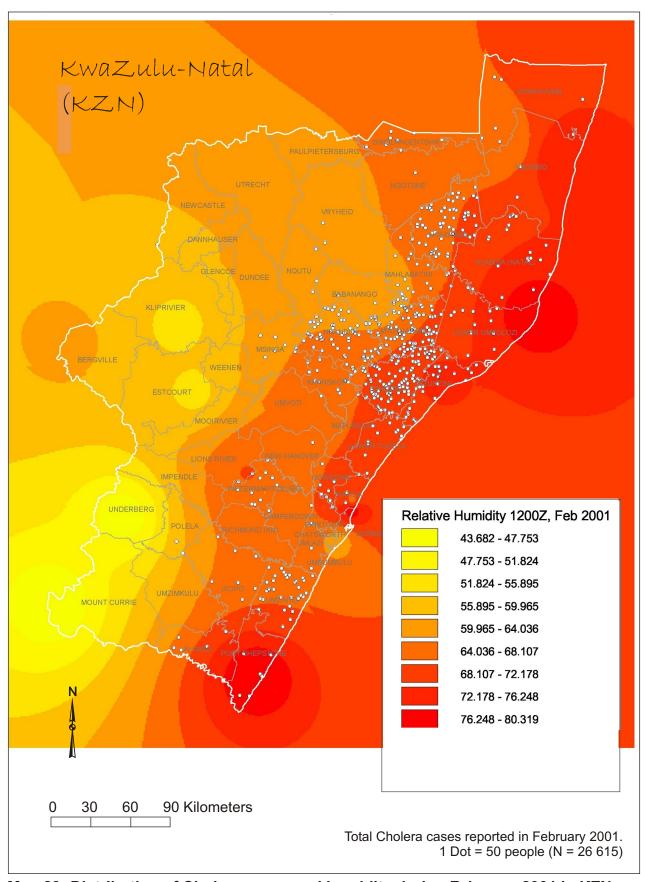
Most of the case clusters that were reported to the north, south and west of the disease foci were confined to areas with humidity levels of at least 62%. The humidity levels in February 2001 were more or less similar to those of January 2001, with most of the case clusters confined to areas with humidity levels of 64% or above. There was not a single case cluster that was reported in areas with humidity below 50%, even with the cases reported to the interior of the province. The initial cholera cases seem to correspond with high humidity (>60%) probably as a result of the heavy rains and from evaporation due to the high temperatures of the time (Maps 24-26). These conditions are known to play an important role in the occurrence of many infectious diseases (Epstein, 2001; Lipp *et al.*, 2002). In the case of *V. cholerae*, warm and humid regions have been known to encourage the proliferation of the organisms rapidly to the level of an infective dose (Huq and Colwell, 1996; Pascual *et al.*, 2002).



Map21: Distribution of Cholera cases and humidity during December 2000 in KZN



Map22: Distribution of Cholera cases and humidity during January 2001 in KZN

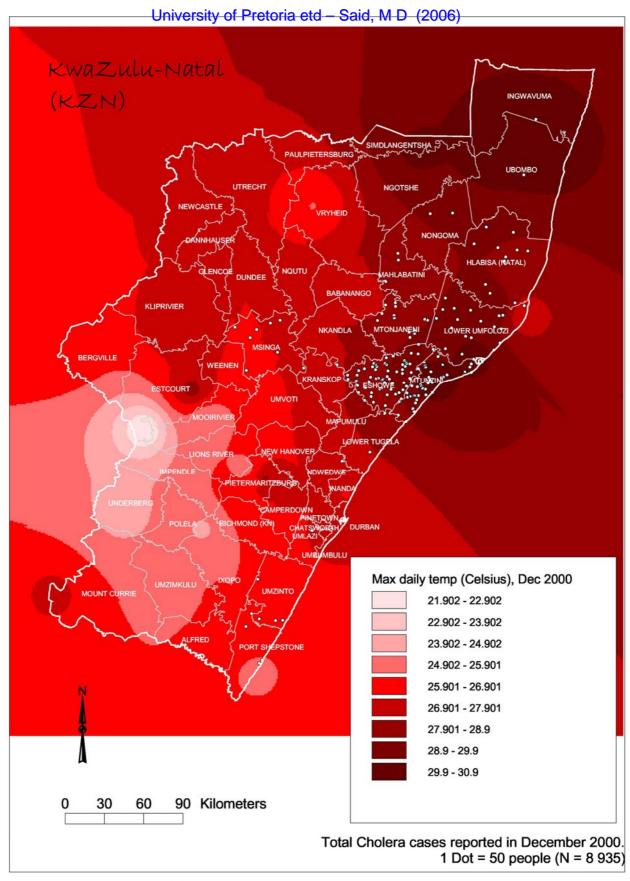


Map 23: Distribution of Cholera cases and humidity during February 2001 in KZN

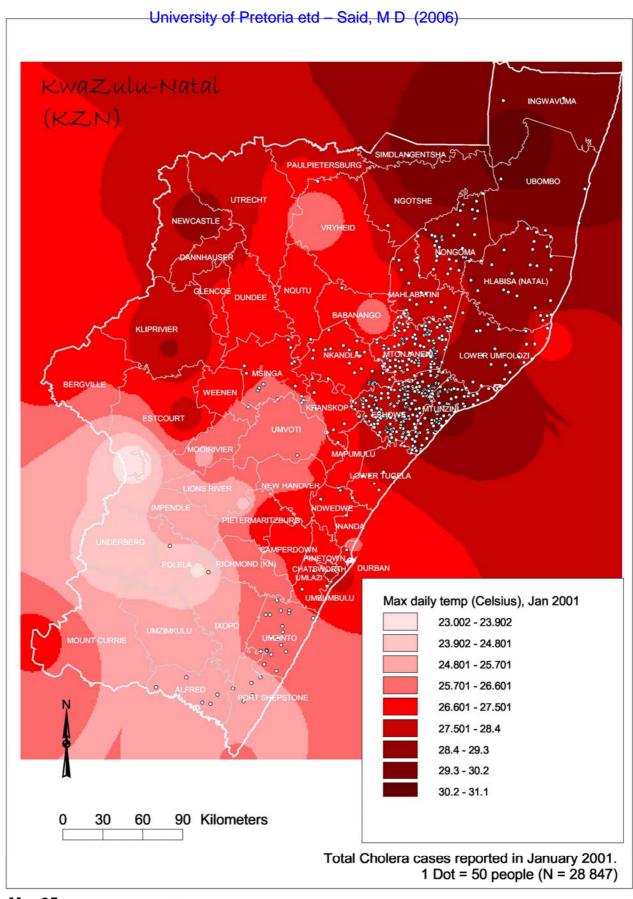
## 6.2.4.3 Maximum temperature

In the months of December – February 2000/2001, the maximum temperature in KZN ranged between 25-32°C (Maps 24-26). In the Mtunzini and Eshowe areas where most of the cases of December 2000 were reported from, the maximum temperatures ranged between 27-30°C (Map 24). It was much warmer though towards the north-eastern coastal border of the province. The maximum temperatures in Eshowe, Mtunzini and Mtonjaneni were the same in the following month of January 2001; with warmer conditions still persisting in the northeast while the southeast depicted slightly milder maximum temperatures between 23-27°C (Map 25). By February 2001, the disease foci in the above-mentioned areas had maximum temperatures of between 27-29°C (Map 26). Overall, the maximum temperature fluctuations between December-February 2000/2001 were minimal with a more or less 1°C change.

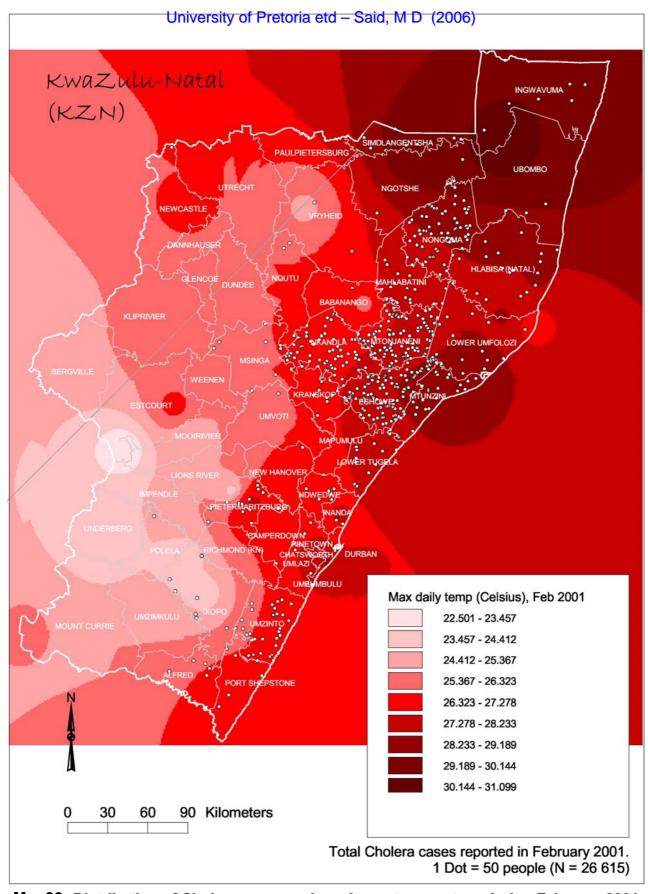
The climatic maps (Maps 18-26) depict that cholera started in the coastal MDs that experienced high rainfall, humidity and maximum temperatures. The disease then spread to the interior, where less rain, low humidity and milder maximum temperatures were recorded. The climatic conditions of the coastal MDs were ideal for cholera in that high temperatures, high humidity and the estuarine environments, were optimum for the growth of V. cholerae. Such conditions were supported by Lipp et al., (2002) when they reviewed cholera as a model for climate related infectious disease. Hug and Colwell (1996) also reported that warm and humid regions supported the rapid proliferation of *V. cholerae* to the level of an infective dose. During a cholera outbreak in Lima, Peru, Speelmon et al., (2000) demonstrated that high ambient temperature was positively correlated with the number of cholera cases. Louis et al., (2003) supported the role that marine ecology and estuarine environments play in the survival of V. cholerae. Results from their sampling experiments in the northern Chesapeake Bay frequently detected V. cholerae during the warmer months and where the salinity is lower (Baumann et al., 1984, Colwell et al., 1977; Hood et al., 1981; Tamplin et al., 1990).



Map24: Distribution of Cholera cases and maximum temperature during December 2000 in KZN



Map25: Distribution of Cholera cases and maximum temperature during January 2001 in KZN

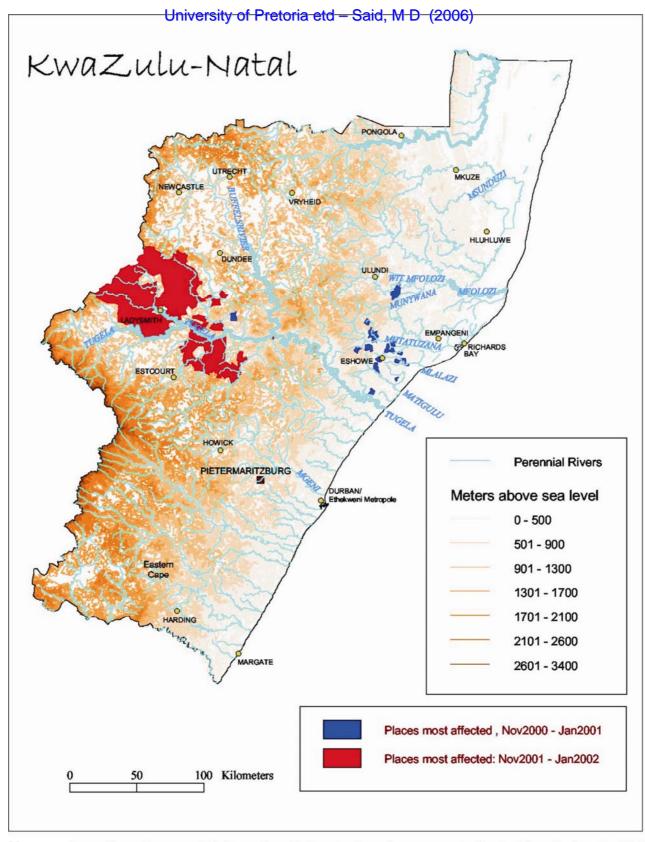


Map26: Distribution of Cholera cases and maximum temperature during February 2001 in KZN

# University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) 6.3 Spatial modelling for ranking high-risk cholera areas

There were a total of 2 741 place-names (communities) listed in the attribute database. Among these, 1 316 (48%) place-names did not report cholera; 176 place-names reported only 1 case (6.4%). At the higher scale of reporting, only 47 (4.7%) placenames reported between 251 to over 4000 cases, which the rest of the case ranges being represented within the remainder, 1202 place-names (40.8%). This shows that less than 5% of the listed communities of KwaZulu-Natal had reported cholera in numbers above 250 cases. Thus, for the purpose of spatial modelling of high risk cholera areas, a total of 30 place names were selected; with 15 place names that ranked highest during the major peak and the rest during the minor peak. All of the 15 top places of the major peak belonged to DC28, save for one that belonged to DC23 (Map 27). During the minor peak, 10 places belonged to DC23 and the remainder 5 to DC24. Thus indicating that even during the major peak, cholera already had a foothold in DC23. Tables 6.5 and 6.6 give a case profile of the places over the December-February 2000/01 period. Almost all the 30 top places, except for Mtunzini, had a progressive increase in cholera case reports from November to January of 2000-2002. This cholera case progression compared with the upward trend of the peaks of 2000/01 and 2001/02 respectively. The spatial positioning of the 30 top places also revealed an additional aspect of their locality, i.e. being close to the main rivers of KZN or their tributaries (Map 27). An association that was statistically supported, i.e. river water as a risk factor for the incidence of cholera.

A break down of the water and sanitation services between the top 15 places of the major and the top 15 places of the minor peak is detailed in Figures 6.1 and 6.2 respectively. These water and sanitation aspects were also incorporated in the spatial modelling process. DC28 was worst off than DC23 in the basic services sector. 44.3% of the households in DC28 used rivers water as compared to 19.1% in DC23 while 48% of households in DC 23 had piped water compared to 26.5% in DC28. The availability of the piped water facility is also indirectly reflected in the sanitation sector where more households in DC23 (34.9%) had flush toilets compared to those in DC28 (27.9%). There were more households in DC28 (69.8%) with pit latrines than in DC23 (60.2%).



Map 27: Location of perennial rivers in relation to the places most affected by cholera in KZN

Mean: 16

Maximum: 95

Variance: 881

Standard Deviation: 30

Piped water on stand

Standard Deviation: 925

Minimum: 0

Range: 95

Sum: 4955

Count: 15

### WATER SUPPLY for top 15 places (First Peak) in mostly DC28 Piped water in house MAJOR PEAK Count: 15 Mean: 97 Maximum: 1277 Minimum: 0 Summary Range: 1277 pipe in house 1451 Variance: 107785 pipe outside 236 Standard Deviation: 328 river 2818 Public Tap public tap 1400 borehole 337 Sum: 1400 Count: 15 other 59 Mean: 93 water tank 58 6359 =Total Maximum: 1316 Minimum: 0 0.9%-Range: 1316 Variance: 114596 0.9%-Standard Deviation: 339 5.3% 22.8% Water Tank Sum: 58 pipe in house 22.0% Count: 15 □pipe outside Mean: 4 □river □public tap Maximum: 29 borehole Minimum: 0 other Range: 29 water tank Variance: 83 Standard Deviation: 9 44.3% Borehole or tank Sum: 337 Count: 15 Mean: 22 Maximum: 121 Minimum: 0 3000 Range: 121 Variance: 1096 2500 Standard Deviation: 33 Water from river 2000 Sum: 2818 Count: 15 1500 Mean: 188 Maximum: 741 1000 Minimum: 0 Range: 741 500 Variance: 40013 Standard Deviation: 200 Water - other sources river public borehole other water pipe house outside Sum: 59 Count: 15

Mean: 4

Maximum: 17

Minimum: 0

Variance: 29

Standard Deviation: 5

Piped water on stand

Range: 17

Sum: 236

Count: 14

Mean: 17

Maximum: 191

Variance: 2649

Standard Deviation: 51

Minimum: 0

Range: 191

### NATER SUPPLY for top 15 places (Second Peak) in mostly DC23 SECOND PEAK Piped water in house MINOR PEAK Count: 15 Mean: 407 Maximum: 5425 Minimum: 0 Summary Range: 5425 pipe in house 6110 Variance: 1937900 pipe outside 4955 Standard Deviation: 1392 river 4416 public tap Public Tap 3809 borehole 3328 Sum: 3809 Count: 15 247 other Mean: 254 199 23064 = Total water tank Maximum: 1639 Minimum: 0 Range: 1639 101.98% Variance: 176995 14.4% Standard Deviation: 421 26.5% Water Tank pipe in house Sum: 199 Count: 15 ■pipe outside □river Mean: 13 16.5% □public tap Maximum: 99 ■ borehole Minimum: 0 other Range: 99 water tank Variance: 662 Standard Deviation: 26 21.5% Borehole or tank 19.1% Sum: 3328 Count: 15 Mean: 222 Maximum: 990 Minimum: 0 7000 Range: 990 Variance: 91998 6000 Standard Deviation: 303 5000 Water from river Sum: 4416 4000 Count: 15 3000 Mean: 294 Maximum: 1696 E 2000 Minimum: 0 1000 Range: 1696 Variance: 220451 Standard Deviation: 470 pipe river public borehole other wate Water - other sources house outside tap Sum: 247 Count: 15

Mean: 330
Maximum: 3639
Minimum: 0
Range: 3639
Variance: 855924

Figure 6.1: The status of the water services/options for the top 15 places of the major and minor peaks respectively.

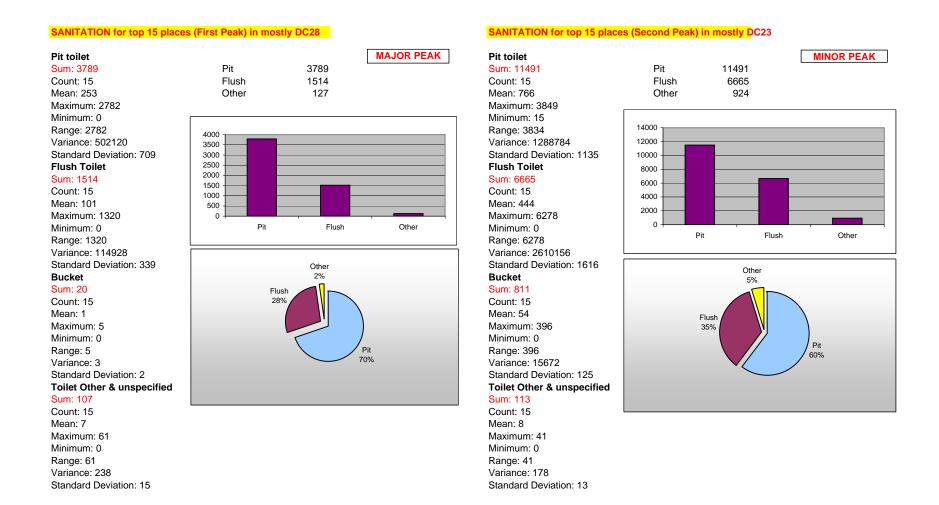


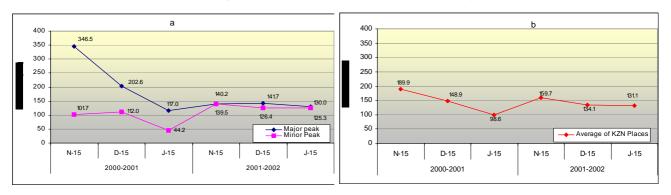
Figure 6.2: The status of the sanitation options for the top 15 places of the major and minor peaks respectively.

# University of Pretoria etd – Said, M D (2006) Table 6.5: Top 15 places that reported high cholera case numbers during the major peak.

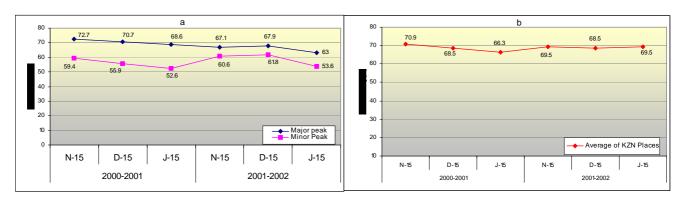
	Magisterial	District	Total cases				
Place-name	District	Council No.	00-04	Nov_00 cases	Dec_00cases	Jan_01 cases	Sub Total
Mfanefile	Mthonjaneni	28	4777	0	18	990	1008
Lumbi	Mthonjaneni	28	4168	0	6	1012	1018
Mpumaze	Eshowe	28	2857	0	498	1611	2109
Mabhudle	Eshowe	28	2476	201	379	690	1270
Endlondlweni	Eshowe	28	2201	402	595	699	1696
Izimpongo Eziphansi	Eshowe	28	1959	6	189	645	840
Emtembeni	Mthonjaneni	28	1953	0	66	801	867
Vongotho	Mtunzini	28	1848	21	513	990	1524
Emaqeleni	Eshowe	28	1701	3	111	465	579
Obanjeni	Msinga	23	1455	33	394	627	1054
Habeni	Eshowe	28	905	6	112	424	542
Mhlathuzana	Mtunzini	28	1166	6	121	515	642
Izikoshi	Mtunzini	28	832	102	306	355	763
Ngunundu	Eshowe	28	819	21	210	318	549
Gingindlovu	Mtunzini	28	783	117	271	210	598

Table 6.6: Top 15 places that reported high cholera case numbers during the minor peak.

Place-name	Magisterial District	District Council No.	Total cases 00-04	Nov_01 cases	Dec_01 cases	Jan_02 cases	Sub Total
Watersmeet	Klipriver	23	1081	6	178	589	773
Ezakheni	Klipriver	23	1052	1	173	447	621
Wittekleinfonteir	Klipriver	23	716	6	211	292	509
Peace Town	Klipriver	23	688	2	84	458	544
Modderspruit	Klipriver	23	566	0	32	120	152
Ekuvukeni	Glencoe	24	557	0	30	109	139
Weenen NU	Weenen	23	516	0	4	189	193
Klipriver NU	Klipriver	23	464	4	67	116	187
Rockeliff	Dundee	24	371	0	6	261	267
Mjinti	Klipriver	23	199	6	45	76	127
Imbangi- Somshoek	Dundee	24	316	0	10	256	266
Oqungweni	Msinga	23	265	0	50	92	142
Limehill	Dundee	24	244	0	65	106	171
Uitvaal	Dundee	24	120	2	26	58	86
Mziyonke	Klipriver	23	111	0	34	56	90

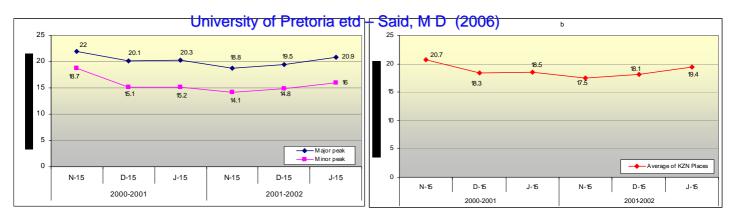


Figures 6.3a-b: A comparison of the average rainfall of the 30 most affected places in relation to that of the entire KZN province.

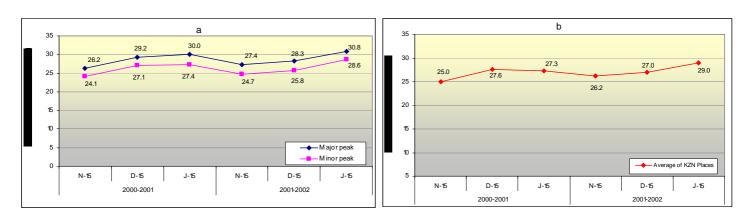


Figures 6.4a-b: A comparison of the average relative humidity of the 30 most affected places in relation to that of the entire KZN province.

At the climatic level, patterns to compare the average climatic profiles of the selected place-names to the averages of the rest of the place-names in the attribute database are illustrated in the graphs depicted by Figures 6.3-6.6. From November-January 2000/2001, the top 15 places had comparatively higher rainfall than that for the whole of KZN, though their rainfall averages were comparable during the minor peak months (6.3a-b). The heavy rains experienced in the top 15 places of the major peak could have stimulated the *V.cholerae* strains in the environmental reservoirs to multiply to infective proportions. Rainfall averages of the top 15 places of the minor peak were consistently lower than the provincial average during both the peaks. This indicated that the interior of the province experienced less rain than the provincial average.



Figures 6.5a-b: A comparison of the average minimum temperatures of the 30 most affected places in relation to that of the entire KZN province.



Figures 6.6a-b: A comparison of the average maximum temperatures of the 30 most affected places in relation to that of the entire KZN province.

During the major peak, the relative humidity was higher in the top 15 places of the major peak when compared to the provincial average (Figure 6.4a-b). This trend was reversed during the minor peak season whereby the top 15 areas that featured in the minor peak had generally lower humidity levels than the provincial average. This is to be expected considering these areas are more to the interior of the province where the topology is generally mountainous and the air more dry. Minimum and maximum temperatures of the top 15 places of the major peak were consistently higher than the provincial averages (Figures 6.5a-b and 6.6a-b). Thus indicating that these areas had warmer conditions during the epidemic peaks. A contrasting situation persisted with the top 15 places of the minor peak, whereby both the minimum and maximum temperatures were generally lower than the provincial averages (Figures 6.5a-b and 6.6a-b).

### **6.3.1** The spatial model

These consistent variations in the rainfall, humidity and temperature between the top 15 places of the major peak and the top 15 places of the minor peak suggested that two spatial models be developed depending on the height above sea level. This is because the two peaks occurred in two different geographical niches i.e. one near the coast and the other to the interior. The two peaks were also associated with contrasting climatic conditions as well as different socio-economic conditions (Figures 6.1 and 6.2). The two spatial models suggested were thus referred to as the Lowland and the Highland models respectively. The variables related to the lowlands model and the highlands models are illustrated in Figures 6.7 and 6.8 respectively. Table 6.7 gives additional information on the environmental and socio-economic factors used in the two models and subsequently in the creation of the risk maps.

From the original dataset, the average NDJs rainfall, humidity, minimum and maximum temperatures of 2000-2004 were calculated using filed calculations within ArcView GIS 3.3. Thus the averages used in the creation of risk maps are given in Table 6.7. Cholera cases were not included in the criteria, as they were not considered to be the disease drivers *per se*. In the context of the spatial model, cholera cases were rather a consequence of the environmental and socio-economic factors. Climatic and the socio-economically related factors of water and sanitation were considered as potential drivers of cholera outbreaks. Four different criteria were put forward in the creation of the risk maps. Table 5.8 gives a guide of what type of environmental and socio-economic factors made up of the 4 criteria, which are explained below:

- Criterion 1: Used all the highlighted factors of the 1<sup>st</sup> peak NDJ of 2000/01.
- Criterion 2: Used all the highlighted factors of the 2<sup>nd</sup> peak NDJ of 2001/02.
- Criterion 3a: Used the highlighted factors of the average NDJs of 2000/04 and the highlighted socio-economic factors of the 1<sup>st</sup> peak NDJ of 2000/01.
- Criterion 3b: Used the highlighted factors of the average NDJs of 2000/04 and the highlighted socio-economic factors of the 2<sup>nd</sup> peak NDJ of 2001/02.

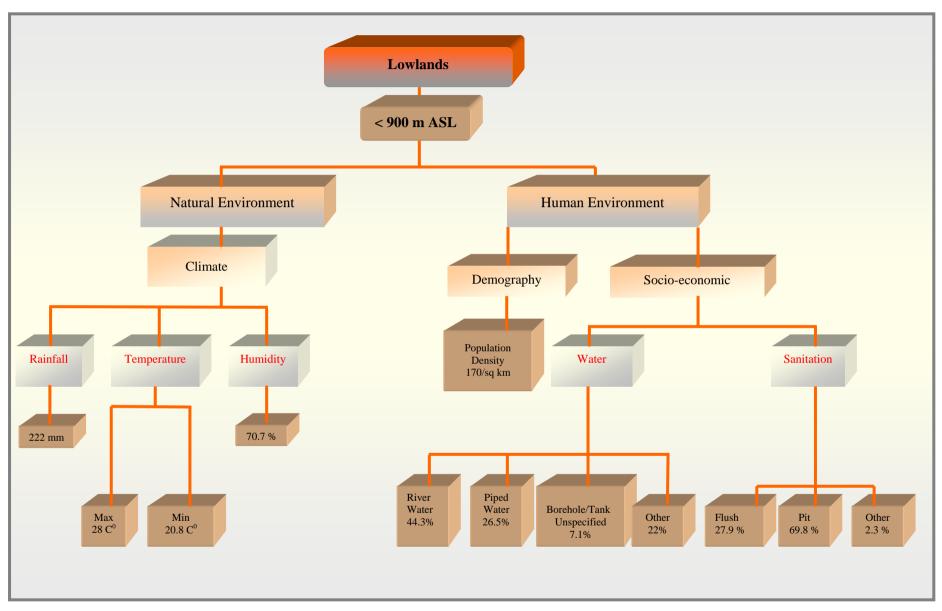


Figure 6.7: Flow diagram showing the climatic, demographic and socio-economic variables related to the Lowland Model.

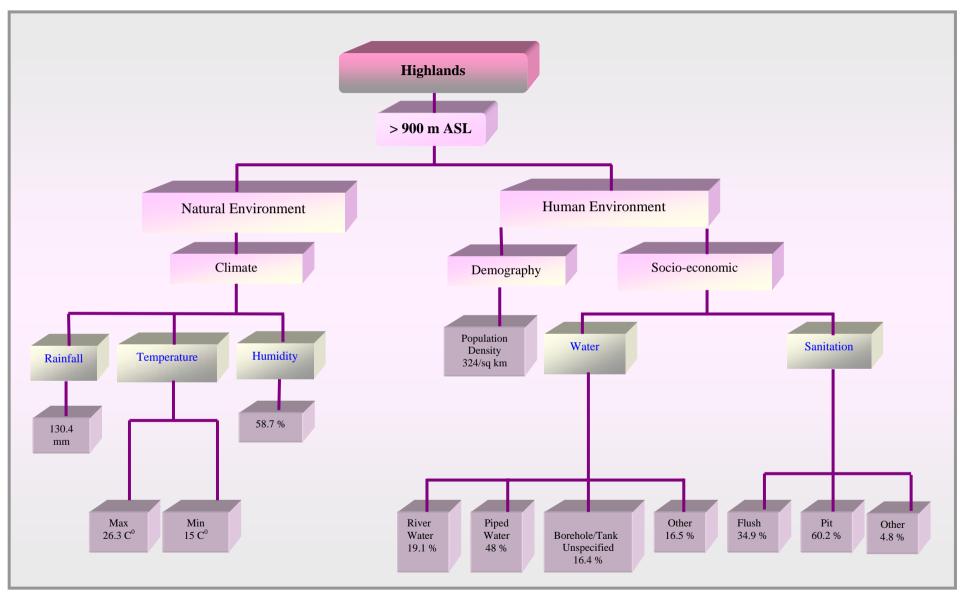
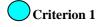


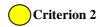
Figure 6.8: Flow diagram showing the climatic, demographic and socio-economic variables related to the Highland Model.

Table 6.7: Factors used in the creation of the spatial model to create risk maps

	Top 15 places	Top 15 places	All places	All places	All places	All places	Average (All places)
	1 <sup>st</sup> Peak NDJ 2000/01	2 <sup>nd</sup> Peak NDJ 2001/02	NDJ 2000/01	NDJ 2001/02	NDJ 2002/03	NDJ 2003/04	NDJ 2000/04
ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS							
Height - ASL	<900 m	>900 m		Varies from	sea level to	3 400 m	
Humidity	70.7 %	58.7%	68.6%	69.2%	65.8%	64.3%	67.0%
Rainfall	222 mm	130.4 mm	145.8 mm	141.6 mm	86.5 mm	114 mm	122 mm
Temperature							
- Maximum	28.0°C	26.2°C	26.6°C	27.4°C	27.3 °C2	27.6°C	27.2°C
- Minimum	20.8°C	15.0°C	19.2°C	18.4°C	17.4°C	17.6°C	18.15°C
- Variation	7.2°C	11.2°C	7.4°C	9.0°C	9.9°C	10.0°C	9.0°C
SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS							
Population Density / m <sup>2</sup>	171	324					
Population: Max density / m <sup>2</sup>	701	1610					
Water Supply							
-Piped water in house	22.8%	26.5%					
-Piped water in yard	3.7%	21.5%					
-River	44.3% <sup>a</sup>	19.1% <sup>b</sup>					
-Public Tap	22.0%	16.5%					
-Borehole	5.3%	14.4%					
-Other	1.8%	2.0%					
Sanitation							
-Flush	27.9%	60.2%					
-Pit	69.8% <sup>a</sup>	34.9% <sup>b</sup>					
-Other	2.3%	4.8%					
Cholera cases (NDJ)	15 059	4267					

\* NDJ = Nov-Dec-Jan \*ASL = Above Sea Level









Source: Values computed from primary and secondary data in GIS

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Boolean Operators were used in ArcView GIS 3.3 to make spatial queries on the 4 criteria put forward. This means that selecting the climatic and socio-economic factors making up each criterion tested each of the 4 criteria. Thus, depending on the criterion, the specific factors were selected using Boolean Operators in GIS Arcview. This process then sought for places (communities) that portrayed the specific factors selected for. Table 6.8 lists the outcome of the spatial queries according to the individual criteria and the NDJ data values of the four-year epidemic span, which is the selection of the number of places that showed high risk to cholera. Criterion 1 did not fit any other NDJ period other than that of the major peak i.e. NDJ 2000/01, indicating it was specific in seeking out only the place names that closely experienced the factors that fit it (Criterion 1). This implied that the factors making up Criterion 1 were probably due to the unusual climatic conditions of heavy rainfall; high humidity and high temperatures of the year 2000 create chance events. This led to Criterion 1 picking up the least number of places as compared to the other criteria (Map 29). Criterion 2, though relatively better than Criterion 1, was still not the ideal situation, considering that it did not select any places to be at risk of cholera in 2000/01, which was the year; the epidemic produced its major peak (Map 30).

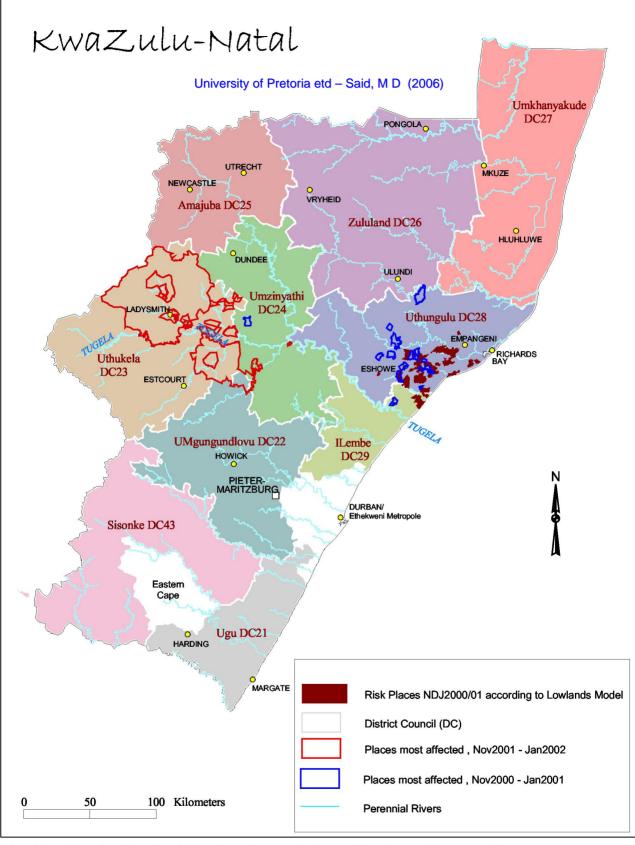
Table 6.8: The different selection criteria used in the risk assessment model versus the datasets of the Nov-Dec-Jan (NDJ) months of the 4 years.

	Data of NDJ	Data of NDJ	Data of NDJ	Data of NDJ
	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/4
Criterion 1	$\sqrt{}$	X	X	X
	(50 places)			
	Refer Map 29			
Criterion 2	X		X	
		(495 places)		(183 places)
		Refer Map 30		Refer Map 31
Criterion 3 a	$\sqrt{}$	X	X	X
	(368 places)			
	Refer Map 32			
Criterion 3 b		X	X	X
	(450 places)			
	Refer Map 33			

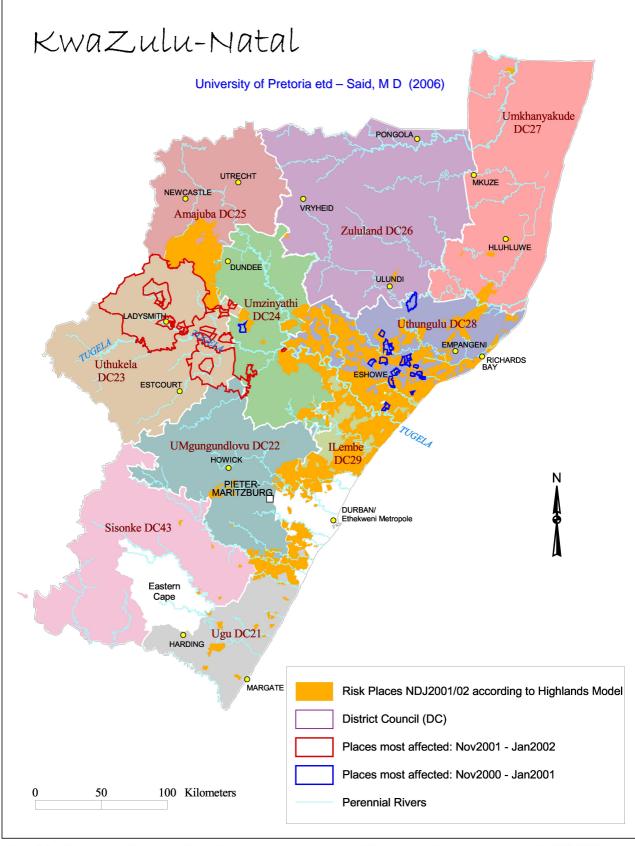
<sup>( ) =</sup> Number of places that showed high risk to cholera using the specific selection criterion.

The scenario depicted by Criterion 1 implied that the Lowlands Model was a chance event as all the factors differed from the other NDJ datasets throughout the 4 years (2000-04). For this reason, the Lowlands and the Highlands model were combined to one complete set (Criterion 3a/b) (Map 34). This was found to be more realistic as it compares well with the averages of the NDJs of the 4 epidemic years. This combined model was used in conjunction with either the water and sanitation factors of lowlands (Criterion 1); or those of the highlands (Criterion 2). Table 6.8 highlights the number of place names selected as high-risk areas using the 4 criteria suggested. The table also refers to the maps that spatially portray the selected high-risk areas using each of the criteria.

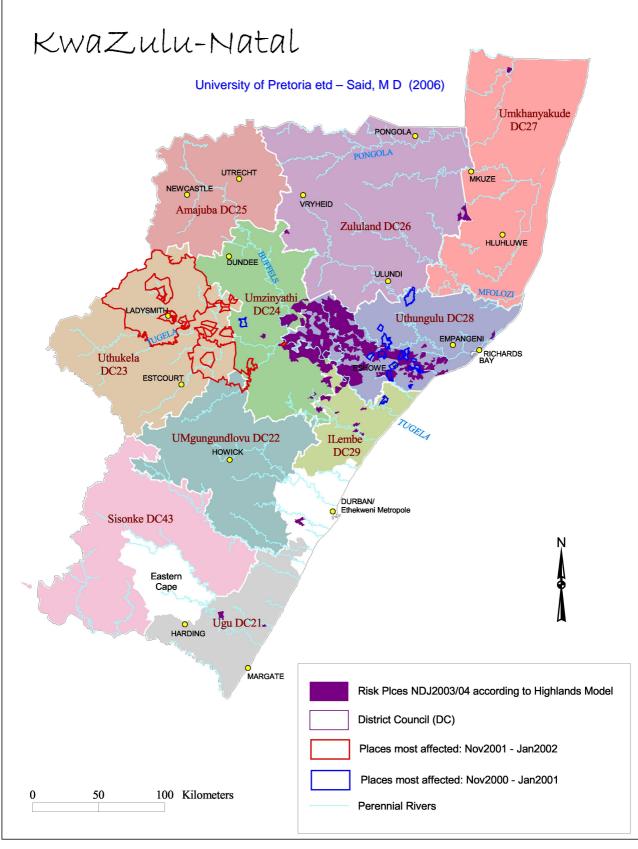
Maps 29-33 draw attention to the places that are at risk to cholera. Criterion 1 (Lowlands Model) versus the NDJ data of 2000/01 picked up the least number of places (50) as being at risk to cholera (Map 29). Most of the places highlighted to be at risk were positioned close to the places that were most affected during the major peak. This is to be expected, considering the closer a place is to a high disease incidence area, the higher the chances of cross transmission. In such instances, the transmission route may involve common travel routes, sharing of a common water resource e.g. rivers, dams and streams and environmental reservoirs of the pathogen that may be common to neighbouring communities. A total of 495 places were selected using Criterion 2 (Highlands Model) versus the NDJ data of 2001/02, which included places situated both in the lowland and those in the highland areas (Map 30). While the same Criterion 2 (Highlands Model) versus data of 2003/04, selected only 183 places, of which the bulk were confined to DC 28 (Map 31). Cholera risk areas selected by Criteria 3a and 3b were to a large extent consistent in that they both selected areas confined to DC 26, DC 27 and DC 28, though Criterion 3a selected for fewer places (368) than Criterion 3b which selected for more places (450) (Maps 32-33). A combination of the Criterion 3a and 3b selected for cholera risk areas both in the lowlands and in the highlands of KZN (Map 34). This meant the combined model was all-inclusive in its selection of cholera risk areas.



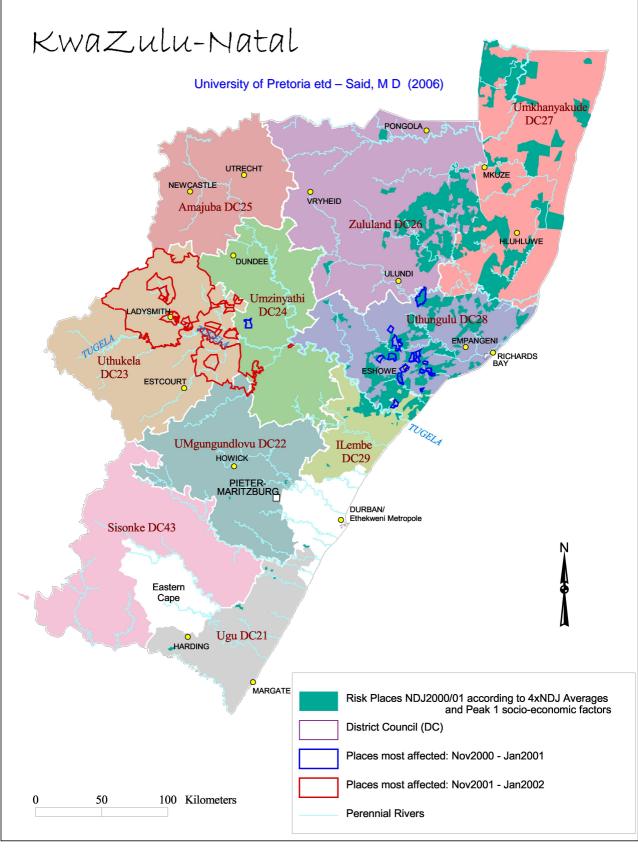
Map 29: Showing Cholera Risk Areas by applying the Lowlands Model during Peak 1 (NDJ2000/01)



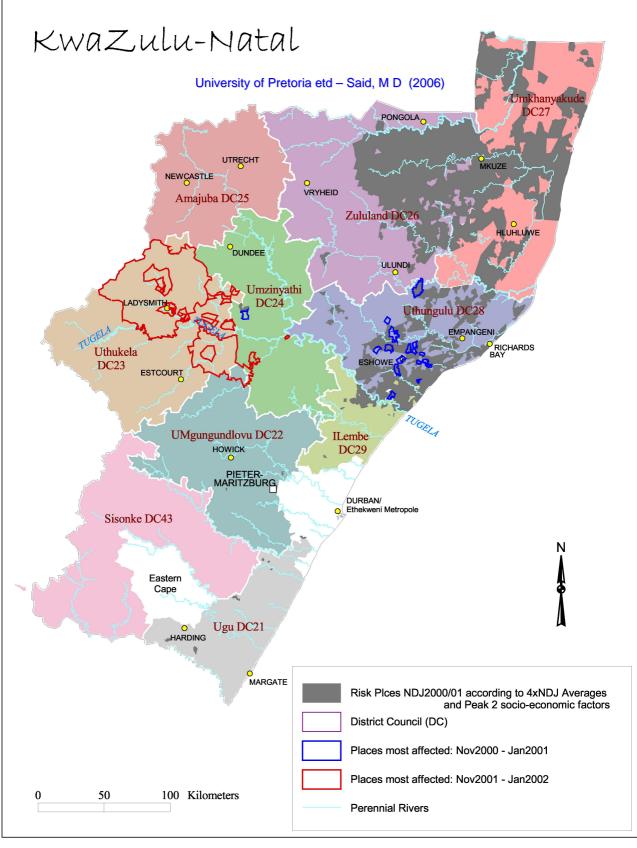
Map 30: Showing Cholera Risk Areas by applying the Highlands Model during NDJ2001/02



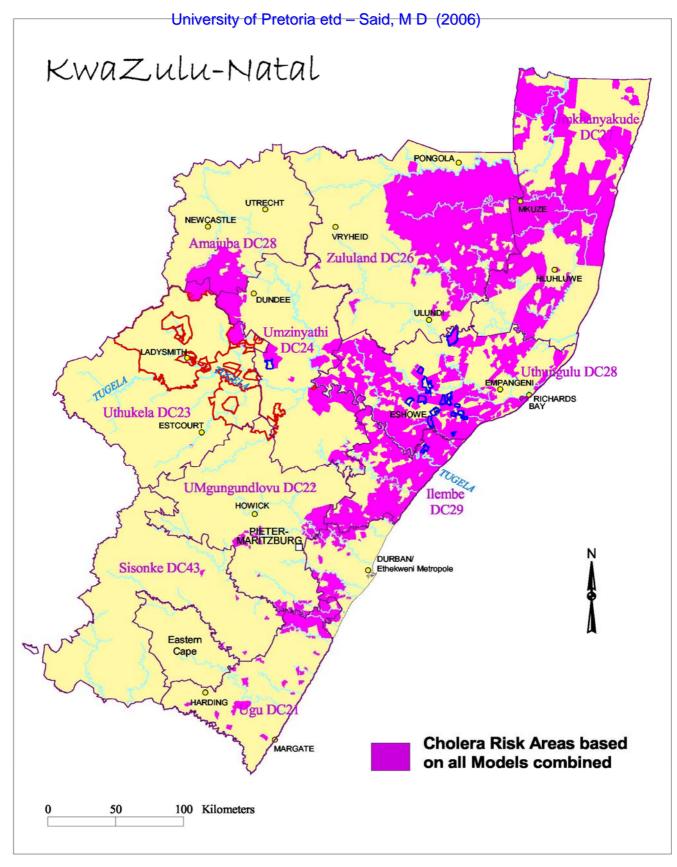
Map 31: Showing Cholera Risk Areas by applying the Highlands Model during NDJ2003/04



Map 32: Showing Cholera Risk Areas by applying the 4xNDJ Averages and Peak 1's socioeconomic factors



Map 33: Showing Cholera Risk Areas by applying the 4xNDJ Averages and Peak 2's socioeconomic factors



Map 34: Showing Cholera Risk Areas by applying the models on all NDJ's over the 4 year period 2000-2004

The results presented in this chapter were a continuation of the results from Chapter 5, which generally assessed the disease trend to portray the basic epidemic picture. Thus the analytical results and representations produced through statistical evaluations and spatial scenarios, give an altogether holistic portrayal of the cholera epidemic from all perspectives. In effect, these results put to test the validity of the hypothesis put forward that climatic conditions played a significant role in the spread of cholera in KwaZulu, Natal. And in addition, socio economic factors like sanitation, clean water supply, population density and public health services, contributed to the vulnerability of communities to the risk of cholera.

The spatial disease picture displayed a link between climatic seasons and the incidence of cholera. This seasonality link was also expressed in Chapter 5, Figure 5.3. The statistical challenge of the data did not support a direct link between climate and cholera for the province of KZN. Thus, the hypothesis was partially supported at the seasonal level at least. The second aspect of the hypothesis that factors like sanitation, clean water supply, population density and public health services, contributed to the vulnerability of communities to the risk of cholera was statistically supported in its entirety. Spatial modelling offered more insight that the statistically supported climatic and socio-economic aspects were indeed important factors in guiding cholera outbreak predictions in the future. The cholera model illustrated this as it selected for areas considered to be at high risk for cholera. Incidentally, this is in agreement with a previous study where most of these areas were implicated as high health risk areas due to faecal pollution (DWAF, 2002b). Chapter 7 discusses the significance of these results and interprets them further in order to understand the cholera epidemic of the magnitude that faced KZN.