

The Early Warning And Response System (EWARS-TDR) For Dengue Outbreaks: Can It Also Be Applied To Chikungunya And Zika Outbreak Warning?

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1 **The Early Warning and Response System (EWARS-TDR) for dengue outbreaks: can it also be**
2 **applied to chikungunya and Zika outbreak warning?**

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25 **Abstract.**

26 *Background.* In the Americas, endemic countries for *Aedes*-borne diseases such as dengue,
27 chikungunya, and Zika face great challenges particularly since the recent
28 outbreaks of CHIKV and ZIKV, all transmitted by the same insect vector *Aedes*
29 *aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*. The Special Program for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases (TDR-
30 WHO) has developed together with partners an early warning and Response System (EWARS) for
31 dengue outbreaks based on a variety of alarm signals with a high sensitivity and positive predictive
32 value (PPV). The question is if this tool can also be used for the prediction of Zika and chikungunya
33 outbreaks.

34 *Methodology.* We conducted in nine districts of Mexico and one large city in Colombia a
35 retrospective analysis of epidemiological data (for the outbreak definition) and of climate and
36 entomological data (as potential alarm indicators) produced by the national surveillance systems for
37 dengue, chikungunya and Zika outbreak prediction covering the following outbreak years: for dengue
38 2012-2016, for Zika 2015-2017, for chikungunya 2014-2016. This period was divided into a “run in
39 period” (to establish the “historical” pattern of the disease) and an “analysis period” (to identify
40 sensitivity and PPV of outbreak prediction).

41 *Results.* In *Mexico*, the sensitivity of alarm signals for correctly predicting an outbreak was 92% for
42 dengue, and 97% for Zika (chikungunya data could not be obtained in Mexico); the PPV was 68% for
43 dengue and 100% for Zika. The time period between alarm and start of the outbreak (i.e. the time
44 available for early response activities) was for dengue 6-8 weeks and for Zika 3-5 weeks. In *Colombia*
45 the sensitivity of the outbreak prediction was 92% for dengue, 93% for chikungunya and 100% for
46 Zika; the PPV was 68% for dengue, 92% for chikungunya and 54% for Zika; the prediction distance
47 was for dengue 3-5 weeks, for chikungunya 10-13 weeks and for Zika 6-10 weeks.

48 *Conclusion.* The implementation of an early warning and response system (EWARS) could predict
49 outbreaks of three *Aedes* borne diseases with a high sensitivity and positive predictive value and with
50 a lag time long enough for preparing an adequate outbreak response in order to reduce the
51 magnitude or avert the occurrence of outbreaks with

52 their elevated social and economic tolls.

53 **Keywords:** Zika, chikungunya, dengue outbreak, early warning, Colombia, Mexico

54

55 **Introduction**

56 The arbovirus diseases dengue, Zika and chikungunya are transmitted by the same insect vector
57 *Aedes aegypti* or *Ae. Albopictus*, they present an increasing public health concern in endemic
58 countries. 3,9 billion people living in 128 tropical or sub-tropical countries are at risk of being
59 infected with these viruses (1,2,3,4). Currently there is no specific pharmacological treatment nor an
60 effective vaccine for public health use so that vector management is the only measure of prevention
61 (5). These diseases have a high social and economic impact, particularly when they appear as
62 epidemic outbreaks. An estimate of the economic costs of a chikungunya outbreak in Colombia 2013
63 showed an approximate cost of 100 million dollars to the government (equivalent to 0.04% of the
64 national gross domestic product of 2013) (6). Estimates of the costs of an outbreak of dengue in 2011
65 were 12 million US\$ in Vietnam, 6.75 million US\$ in Indonesia, 4.5 million US\$ in Peru and 2.8 million
66 US\$ in the Dominican Republic (7). The Zika outbreaks occurring between 2015 and 2017 caused
67 losses of 7 to 18 Billion dollars in Latin America, including both the direct and indirect costs due to
68 microcephaly and Guillain-Barré syndrome (8). Therefore, the need for early outbreak detection
69 (when the outbreak has already started) or better outbreak prediction (when the outbreak has not
70 yet started) to initiate response activities and mitigate or even suppress an outbreak.

71 But early detection of outbreaks poses a challenge, since no universally accepted or proven sets of
72 early warning indicators exist (9,10). A systematic review showed that countries are generally
73 lacking outbreak prediction tools that can be implemented by fairly unskilled users, and can
74 automatically manage complex data sets (9,11). In reality, in most countries the early outbreak
75 detection -if any- is based on the increase of case numbers above a pre-established threshold
76 (meaning that the outbreak has started already). With this in mind, the Special Program for Research
77 and Training for Tropical Diseases (TDR) at the World Health Organization (WHO) initiated together
78 with research institutions, national dengue control services and academia in ten endemic partner

79 countries, the development of a web-based Early Warning and Response System (EWARS) for
80 dengue, with potential uses for other arbovirus disease outbreaks (9,12). After initial retrospective
81 analyses in 5 countries (Brazil, Mexico, Dominican Republic, Vietnam, Malaysia) (10,13) – typically
82 including calibration and prediction algorithm building using historical records of diseases and alarm
83 indicators – EWARS was tested prospectively. Subsequently, in Brazil, Mexico and Malaysia to
84 evaluate its qualitative and quantitative performance and user friendliness (13).
85 However, EWARS has never been tested for other emerging *Aedes*-borne diseases, such as
86 chikungunya and Zika. This study therefore aims to test the performance of EWARS for predicting
87 outbreaks of the three *Aedes* borne arbovirus diseases (dengue, chikungunya and Zika) using
88 available data of the national surveillance systems in our two target countries. The response
89 component of EWARS will not be covered in this paper.

90

91 **Methods**

92 **Description of study sites**

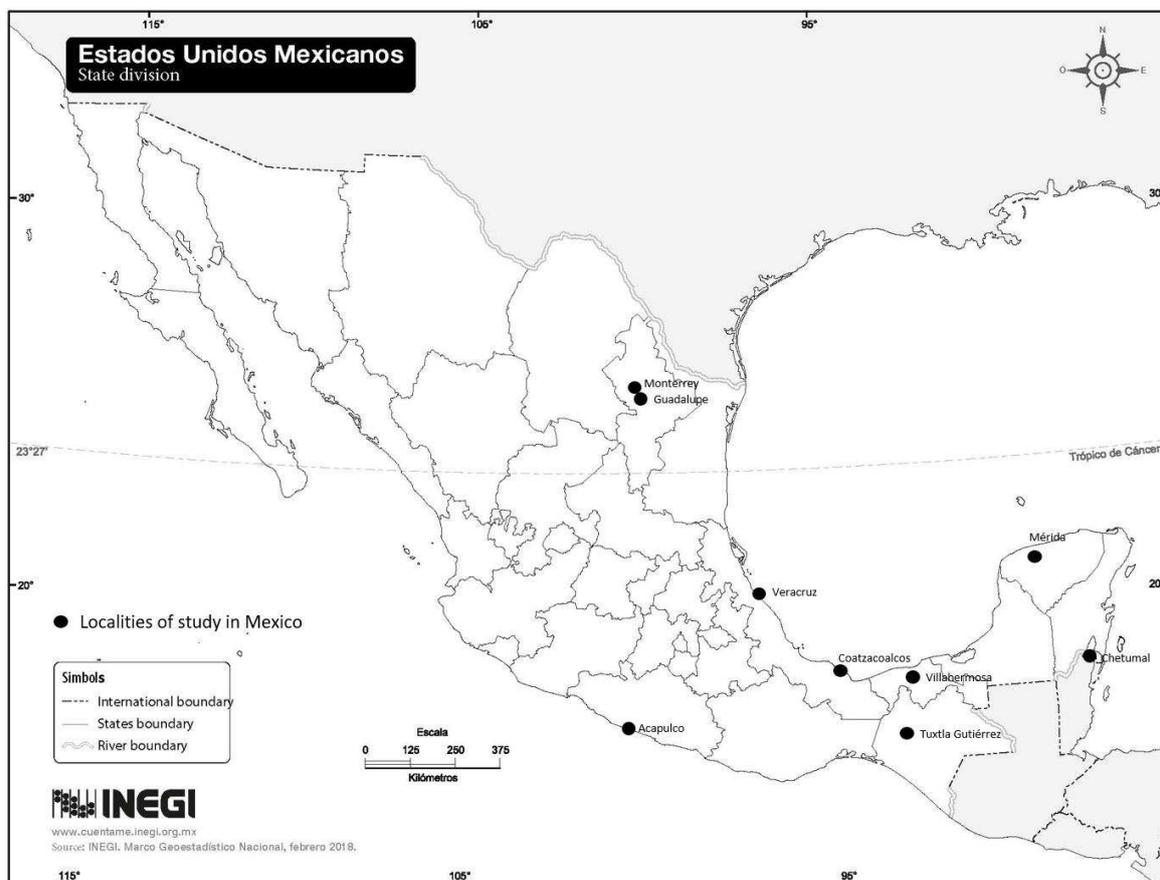
93 In both target countries the selection of study sites was dictated by the availability of information
94 from the National Surveillance System and National Meteorological Institutes (14,15).

95 In Mexico we received the data set from 9 districts (labelled as “localities”) for Zika and chikungunya
96 as well as weekly meteorological data. In Colombia, we received a complete data set including
97 weekly meteorological information and epidemiological data with individual notification for Zika and
98 chikungunya in the urban area of Cúcuta; In Mexico, from the 137 highly endemic urban districts (as
99 the 3 disease occur mainly in urban environments due to the opportunities of vector breeding), only
100 9 were analyzed because they had complete information records of disease and alarm indicators for
101 the past 5 years, essential for the EWARS process. The localities selected were Tuxtla Gutierrez,
102 Acapulco, Ciudad Guadalupe, Monterrey, Chetumal, Villahermosa, Coatzacoalcos, Veracruz and
103 Mérida (Map 1). The total population of these 9 districts is around 5 million inhabitants (16). All of

104 them possess suitable conditions for dengue vector breeding. The climate is tropical with average
105 annual temperatures around 24°C and rainfall above 1000 mm (except for Ciudad Guadalupe,
106 Monterrey, and Mérida with around 700 mm).

107

108 Map 1. Localities of study in Mexico



109

110

111 In Colombia, Cúcuta, the capital of the State ("departamento") of Norte de Santander was included
112 which has around 750.000 inhabitants, 1.176 Km² in area size and is located on the border area with
113 Venezuela (Map. 2). The climate is tropical (temperatures ranging between 21 and 36 °C; average
114 annual rainfall 655 mm; annual relative humidity between 70% and 75%) (17). While dengue
115 outbreaks have a long history in Cúcuta, outbreaks of CHIKV and ZIKV were reported only after 2014
116 and 2015, respectively (17).

117



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120

121 **Public Health Surveillance system**

122 In Mexico, the national surveillance system with its permanent notification of clinical cases of

123 dengue, chikungunya and Zika including neurological complications feeds into the online platform

124 SINAPE- National Epidemiological Surveillance System (for "Sistema Nacional de Vigilancia

125 Epidemiologica") where entomological data (ovitrap indexes) and response activities (entomological

126 platform) are registered. Both platforms receive on a weekly basis the information from all public

127 and private health centers. Since 2018, Mexico has the fully integrated EWARS tool for dengue

128 outbreak prediction in its national surveillance program, providing a national coverage of outbreak
129 prediction and response activities.

130 In Colombia, the National Public Health Surveillance System (SIVIGILA for “Sistema Nacional de
131 Vigilancia en Salud Pública”) provides systematic and timely information on the number of dengue,
132 Zika and chikungunya cases. The information gathered by the centers of health care of the public and
133 private health system, is compiled and transmitted to the SIVIGILA, which updates the results weekly.
134 The data for the present study corresponded to cases reported in the urban area of the city of
135 Cúcuta. Only cases with an individual report in SIVIGILA (form 217) and with complete information
136 required by the EWARS system were included in the analysis (18). Data were obtained from the local
137 surveillance system, with certified authorization. In Colombia, the EWARS for dengue is not yet been
138 established nationally but is being tested in the city of Cúcuta, which is the actual study setting.

139

140 **Overview of the EWARS**

141 The concept of the EWARS model is based on the Shewhart method (19) a method that adopts
142 systematic control charts, using the historic mean and standard deviation of the outcome variable to
143 define states of ‘in-control’ and ‘out-of-control’ throughout the model evaluation process. When
144 applied to dengue, an Endemic Channel chart is produced which represents the number of cases
145 within the expected normal range, or the ‘in-control’ state, while anything above this Endemic
146 Channel (or, moving average) is considered representative of an unusual number of cases and, an
147 ‘out-of-control’ state (i.e., an outbreak). The EWARS has advanced into an online tool (dashboard)
148 which facilitate more structured training, applications and experience sharing among a broader range
149 of users, also with the aid of a series of published computer-assisted user’s workbooks (10,20,21).
150 These user guides illustrate methodological, technical and operational aspects crucial for the tool
151 processing. This includes details of how both digital and paper-based surveillance records of diseases
152 and indicators can be prepared for applying in the tool. Figure 1 illustrates the elements of inputs
153 and outputs of the EWARS tool, which is divided into retrospective (a phase of sliding window time-

154 series cross-validation and algorithm building) and prospective (phase of inputting weekly alarm
155 information for generating the outbreak signals) components.

156

157 **Data collection of outbreak and alarm indicators**

158 In Mexico, the data collection started in January 2012 and continued until December 2018. The data
159 set has been provided by SINAVE and by the entomological online platform from the Secretary of
160 Health. In Colombia, Cúcuta, the study covered the period from January 2012 to December
161 2017. All reported cases of dengue, chikungunya and Zika were included using the standardized case
162 definitions by the Ministry of Health (MoH) and the National Institute of Health/INS corresponding to
163 the WHO definition (1) and PAHO definition for chikungunya and Zika (22, 23).

164 For the application of EWARS, the temporal unit was defined as the epidemiological 'week' (from
165 Sunday to Saturday) and the spatial unit was based on pre-existing administrative units (districts). At
166 least three years of surveillance data records were retained for the EWARS analysis including a
167 variable indicating the 'population size' of the corresponding districts.

168 Surveillance data on dengue, Zika and chikungunya recorded the individuals' place of residence, age,
169 sex, date of onset of symptoms, date of case registration at the health center or hospital and the
170 type of case ('probable', 'confirmed' by laboratory or by clinical symptoms and 'hospitalized' cases).

171 However, in the EWARS spread sheet we captured only district of residence, week of reporting and
172 type of case as well as potential alarm indicators such as meteorological and entomological
173 indicators:

174 *-Epidemiological (disease pattern):* weekly number of cases (probable cases for chikungunya and
175 Zika, hospitalized cases for dengue) and weekly averages of the age of the patients.

176 *-Meteorological (potential alarm indicators):* mean weekly outdoor air temperature (in Celsius),
177 relative humidity (in %), and total weekly rainfall (in mm).

178 *-Entomological (potential alarm indicators):* percentage of positive ovitraps (i.e. proportion of
179 positive ovitraps with *Aedes* eggs per week, average egg count per trap (Mexico only). (NB: Larval

180 indices were useless as alarm indicators as they are usually not collected in a systematic way as the
181 ovitrap system in Mexico (9).

182

183 **Data analysis**

184 *Analysis by the EWARS tool:*

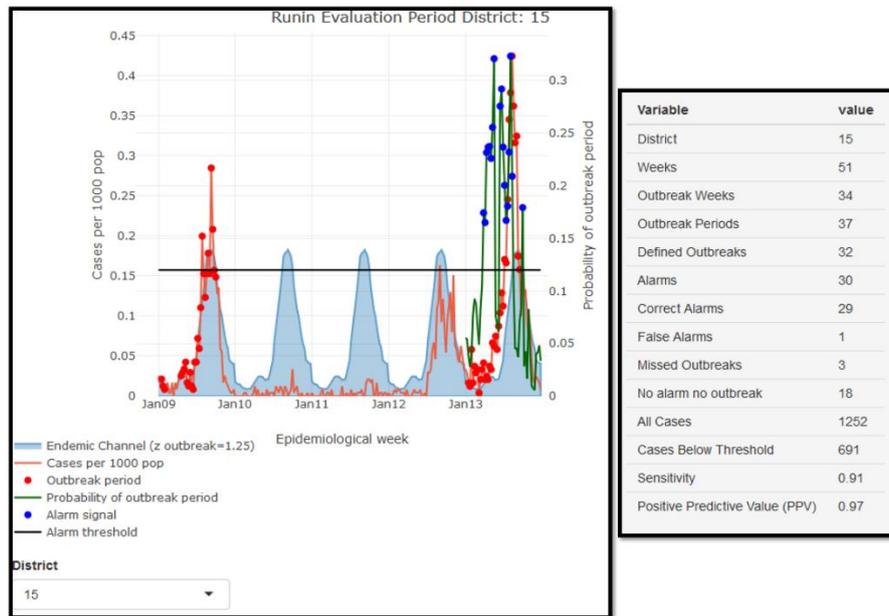
185 During the retrospective phase of EWARS, the weekly average number of cases of each of the three
186 arbovirus diseases was calculated for four or five years and compared with the expected “normal” or
187 seasonal range of cases illustrated in the endemic channel (9,10) which is the area between +/- z* SD
188 of the moving average, the z-value being the multiplier of the standard deviation of the moving
189 average of weekly case numbers; see Fig. 1). The Endemic Channel (moving average + (Z*SD)) was
190 generated (“moving average” for each week of observation means that the average of number of
191 cases in the 3 weeks before and after plus the week of observation were included; 10,20,21). Weekly
192 cases exceeding this Endemic Channel for two or more weeks (“outbreak window”, see below) are
193 indicating an outbreak.

194 During this retrospective phase, the algorithm and all parametric coefficients needed for calculating
195 the alarm threshold (“outbreak probability”) are computed: these coefficients depend primarily on
196 the sensitivity (i.e. the proportion of correctly predicted outbreaks out of all outbreaks) and positive
197 predictive value, PPV (i.e. the proportion of correct alarms out of all alarms) as direct measures for
198 deciding on the best calibrated settings, i.e. those with highest sensitivity and PPV. (For more details
199 on the calibration of EWARS see the user guide by WHO-TDR) (20,21). The calibration in a national
200 control program is done by an epidemiologist usually at the MoH. Less skilled district staff uses the
201 prospective phase of EWARS, observing by means of the EWARS software the weekly number of
202 cases against the upper line of the endemic channel and the pattern of alarm indicators against the
203 pre-defined alarm threshold (see Fig. 1). An alarm is triggered when the alarm indicator (‘outbreak
204 probability’) crosses the proposed ‘alarm threshold’ (9, 13) once prospective weekly information on
205 the relevant alarm indicator(s) are fed into the system. Accordingly, instant numerical and graphical

206 demonstration and interpretation of a possible outbreak and its corresponding response plan is
 207 illustrated to the user at a given prediction week (time between the prediction and an outbreak to
 208 occur).

209 **Figure 1a.** Snapshot of the retrospective dashboard, including graphical and numerical visualization
 210 of the calibration process and parameters

211



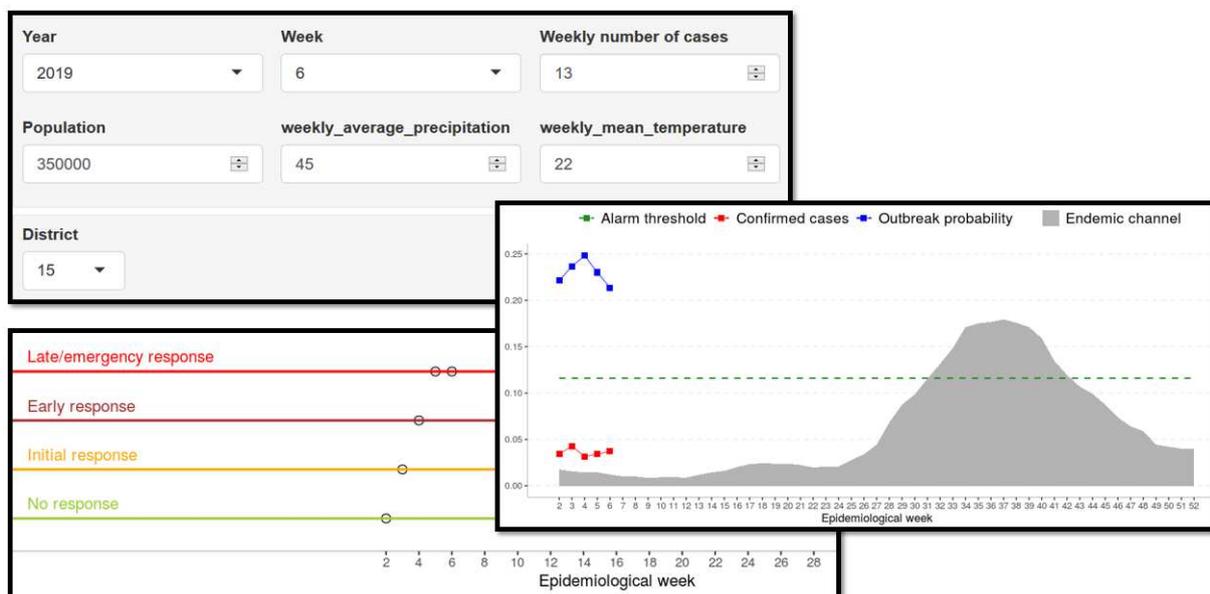
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214

215 **Figure 1b.** A snapshot of the prospective dashboard, including an interface for prospective (weekly)
 216 data input prediction (alarm signal against rate of outbreaks) and structured response plan using a
 217 generic staged-response format (adoptable based on the national vector response protocol).

218



219

220 Based on recommendation from previous reports (13), ‘hospitalized’ cases showed to be the best
221 outbreak indicator for the prediction of a forthcoming dengue outbreak using EWARS. However,
222 when the proportion of “mild” cases is high and patients are rarely hospitalized (such as in
223 chikungunya and Zika), ‘probable’ or ‘confirmed’ cases were used as outbreak indicators. In this
224 study, z-values (i.e. the multiplier of SD to get the upper limit of the endemic channel) and alarm
225 thresholds were determined for chikungunya and dengue via both manual and atomized procedures
226 (which can assess the calibration settings via a 1000 iteration process per district (21)).
227 Technically, both manual and automated processing follow the same analytical process: define “
228 window sizes” of alarm and outbreak indicators (i.e. how many weeks with an alarm indicator being
229 above the alarm threshold to declare it an “alarm signal” and for how many weeks of case numbers
230 being above the upper limit of the endemic channel to declare it an “outbreak”), define above which
231 level (alarm threshold) the alarm indicator turns into an alarm signal (i.e. gives an alarm) and define
232 the prediction distances (i.e. the time period between alarm and start of the outbreak in weeks).
233 These variables are tested and only values that give the highest sensitivity and PPV are retained in
234 the EWARS model. While a single alarm assessment is more straightforward, the model does take
235 into account and adjusts for the different prediction distances associated with each alarm indicator
236 when running multiple regressions. In this sense, the automated model is more efficient in running
237 multiple trials and thresholds for producing the highest sensitivity and PPV for outbreak prediction.

238

239 *Data analysis:*

240 Descriptive statistics, of both graphics and numeric formats were sought in this paper. In the case of
241 Mexico, while the prediction algorithm was run independently for each of the 9 districts, output
242 values obtained from the prediction process from each district were averaged and presented in the
243 result table (see below). In Colombia, disease incidences were determined for Cúcuta (n cases /
244 100,000 population).

245

246

247 **Ethical aspects:**

248 This study analyzed only secondary data obtained from Colombian and Mexican institutions with the
249 authorization of the Surveillance System (2017). Ethical endorsement was obtained from the Ethics
250 Committee of the University of Freiburg (N°-145/18) which was approved by local health authorities.

251 **Results**

252 **Epidemiological features of outbreaks**

253 Before presenting the EWARS analysis of the outbreak prediction of our three target diseases, we
254 show as contextual information for the need of early outbreak warning, the outbreak pattern of the
255 three diseases in Colombia and Mexico during the period of analysis (Figure 2 and 3).

256 ***Dengue***

257 For Colombia, 15.811 cases of dengue were included in the analysis, 2013 was an epidemic year with
258 820 cases per 100,000 population in Cúcuta city, followed by the 2014 outbreak with 785 cases per
259 100,000 inhabitants. Another increase in dengue was observed before the onset of the 2015 Zika
260 outbreak, it is likely that in the weeks leading up to the confirmation of the first Zika case in the city,
261 many suspected dengue cases would have actually been Zika. In Mexico, 2012 and 2013 were
262 epidemic years for dengue with 1.060/100.000 inhabitants and 1.300/100.000 inhabitants confirmed
263 cases respectively. After those epidemic years Mexico has seen a continuous reduction of dengue
264 cases until 2018 with 12.706 confirmed cases.

265 ***Chikungunya***

266 During the chikungunya outbreak in 2014-2015, cases were recorded from week 35 of 2014. An
267 epidemiological peak was observed for week 48 and a downward curve with stabilization of
268 transmission from week 10 of 2015. For the present study, 863 chikungunya cases with individual
269 record and data required by EWARS were included. From the data considered for this study, the
270 incidence rates of 115 cases/100,000 population in 2014 and 20 cases/100,000 population in 2015
271 were estimated. 128 cases were recorded in 2016. In Mexico, although the first cases appeared

272 during 2014 (222 in the whole country) the chikungunya outbreak occurred during 2015 with 12,588
273 confirmed cases. After 2015 there has been a steady reduction with 759 confirmed cases in 2016 to
274 only 39 confirmed cases in 2018. The peak of the 2015 chikungunya outbreak occurred around week
275 29. Unfortunately, in Mexico the weekly numbers of chikungunya cases were not available so that
276 the analysis with the EWARS tool could not be conducted (Fig. 2, 3).

277 ***Zika***

278 The Zika outbreak in Cúcuta started in week 51 of 2015 and lasted until week 10 in 2016 (12 weeks).
279 The peak of cases occurred in week one of 2016 (753 cases), and a total of 4605 cases were reported
280 during the years 2015 and 2016. The highest incidence rate was 691.14 cases per 100,000
281 population. In Mexico the Zika outbreak, after some sporadic cases in 2015, occurred during 2016
282 with 7560 confirmed cases in the whole country. 2017 also presented a Zika outbreak which was
283 considerably smaller (3,260 confirmed cases). During 2018 the negative trend continued and there
284 were only 860 confirmed cases (14) (Fig. 2, 3).

285 In the 2013 dengue outbreak, the highest incidence rates in Cúcuta were 819.94 cases per 100,000
286 population but when chikungunya entered, dengue rates decreased to 215.19 cases per 100,000
287 population. Similarly, chikungunya rates were lowest, when the Zika outbreak occurred with 691.14
288 cases per 100,000 population. This phenomenon is worth to be investigated further.

289 ***Findings from the EWARS application***

290 The datasets of all three arbovirus disease outbreaks were processed using the EWARS tool. The
291 summary of the model calibrations, parameters including the sensitivity, PPV and lag weeks (i.e.
292 period from alarm to start of outbreak) for each disease per country are presented in tables 1-3. The
293 number of 'outbreaks' and of 'alarms' –which are the basis for calculating the sensitivity and PPV
294 values- are displayed in the tables as well as the alarm thresholds to show their variation for the
295 three diseases.

296 ***Dengue***

297 A value of $z=1.0$ was found to be the most suitable (i.e. producing the highest sensitivities and PPV
298 values) multiplier of the SD to define the upper limit of the endemic channel with “hospitalized
299 dengue cases” as outbreak indicator. The sensitivity to correctly predict a dengue outbreak varied
300 between 74-92% whereas the PPV ranged between 50-68%, including both single and multiple alarm
301 prediction analysis. The table shows that multiple alarm predictors enhanced the prediction model.
302 The lag time in Colombia ranged from 3 to 5 weeks ahead of an outbreak. Table 1 provides detailed
303 results. The calculations for dengue in Mexico (taken from a previous analysis) were done in exactly
304 the same way as the calculations in Colombia. Unfortunately, we did not get a new data set from
305 Mexico to be able to repeat the dengue analysis.

306 ***Chikungunya***

307 Due to insufficient numbers of hospitalized cases found in the Colombian surveillance dataset (as
308 most cases were mild), ‘probable cases’ were used as the outbreak indicator instead, which revealed
309 a sensitivity range of 77-93% and a PPV range of 48-92%. The lag time between positive alarm and
310 start of the outbreak was 10 to 13 weeks, much longer than that observed with dengue (Table 2).

311 ***Zika***

312 Estimates of both sensitivity and PPV for different alarm indicators ranged in Colombia from 50% to
313 100% (mean temperature and multiple indicators with the highest sensitivities) and from 11%-54%
314 respectively (rainfall with the highest PPV). In Mexico, the range was from 78% - 97% (rainfall with
315 the highest sensitivity) and 77%-100% (mean temperature with the highest PPV) respectively (Table
316 3). In general, the alarm coefficients were stronger in Mexico compared to those in Colombia. The
317 historically higher number of outbreaks and alarm thresholds in Mexico compared to Colombia were
318 reflected in improved sensitivity and PPV values for predicting Zika outbreaks. The difference may
319 also be caused by differences in data quality which was higher in Mexico. The lag times were longer
320 in Colombia –ranging from 6 to 10 weeks – compared to Mexico – ranging from 4 to 5 weeks.

321 **Table 1.** Sensitivity and PPV for dengue outbreak prediction in Colombia and Mexico using hospitalized
 322 cases as outbreak indicator

Country	Alarm Indicators	Sensitivity (%)	PPV (%)	No. of outbreaks	No. of Alarms	Alarm threshold	Lag week
Colombia	Mean temp	86	61	76	106	0.69	3
	Rainfall	74	51	76	110	0.70	3
	Humidity	80	60	76	102	0.65	3
	Probable cases	91	50	77	141	0.75	5
	Multiple indicators*	92	68	50	68	0.70	3
Mexico**	Mean temp	81	72	-	-	-	-
	Rainfall	87	65	-	-	-	-
	Humidity	94	50	-	-	-	-
	Probable cases	100	83	-	-	-	-
	Multiple indicators*	84	77	-	-	-	-

323 *Multiple indicators; temperature, precipitation & humidity, PPV; Positive Predictive Value

324 ** Values from Mexico taken from a previous period (see Hussain Alkhateeb et al. 2018)

325

326 **Table 2.** Sensitivity and PPV for chikungunya outbreak prediction in Colombia using probable cases as
 327 outbreak indicator.

Alarm Indicator	Sensitivity (%)	PPV (%)	No. of outbreaks	No. of Alarms	Alarm threshold	Lag week
Mean temp	77	71	13	14	0.80	10
Rainfall	93	48	14	27	0.45	12
Humidity	92	85	15	13	0.75	12

Multiple indicators*	92	92	12	12	0.74	13
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328 *Multiple indicators; temperature, precipitation & humidity, PPV; Positive Predictive Value

329

330 **Table 3.** Sensitivity and PPV for Zika outbreak prediction in Colombia and Mexico. using *defined and*
 331 *probable cases* as outbreak indicators

Country	Alarm Indicator	Sensitivity (%)	PPV (%)	No. of outbreaks	No. of Alarms	Alarm threshold	Lag week
Colombia	Mean temp	100	11	2	19	0.05	10
	Rainfall	50	54	2	7	0.05	6
	Humidity	50	11	2	9	0.06	10
	Multiple indicators*	100	14	2	14	0.05	10
	Mean temp	92	100	36	33	0.50	4
	Rainfall	97	94	28	28	0.40	4
	Humidity (daylight)	88	86	53	52	0.50	5
	Humidity (night)	97	98	29	29	0.50	5
	Positive ovitrap	92	97	25	25	0.40	5
	Average Egg counts	78	77	22	22	0.40	4
Mexico							

332 *Multiple indicators; temperature, precipitation & humidity, PPV; Positive Predictive Value

333

334

335 **Discussion**

336 *Outbreak pattern*

337 The observation of the outbreak pattern of dengue, chikungunya and Zika in Colombia and Mexico
338 suggests that they are not independent from each other, although they present differences in
339 transmission peaks (see Fig. 2,3). It is assumed that during the first weeks of the chikungunya
340 outbreak in Colombia, the unusual increase of dengue cases (172 cases in week 44 of 2014) was
341 possibly due to chikungunya infections that remained unconfirmed by the laboratory. The later
342 chikungunya cases were correctly diagnosed and the epidemic curve rapidly increased.

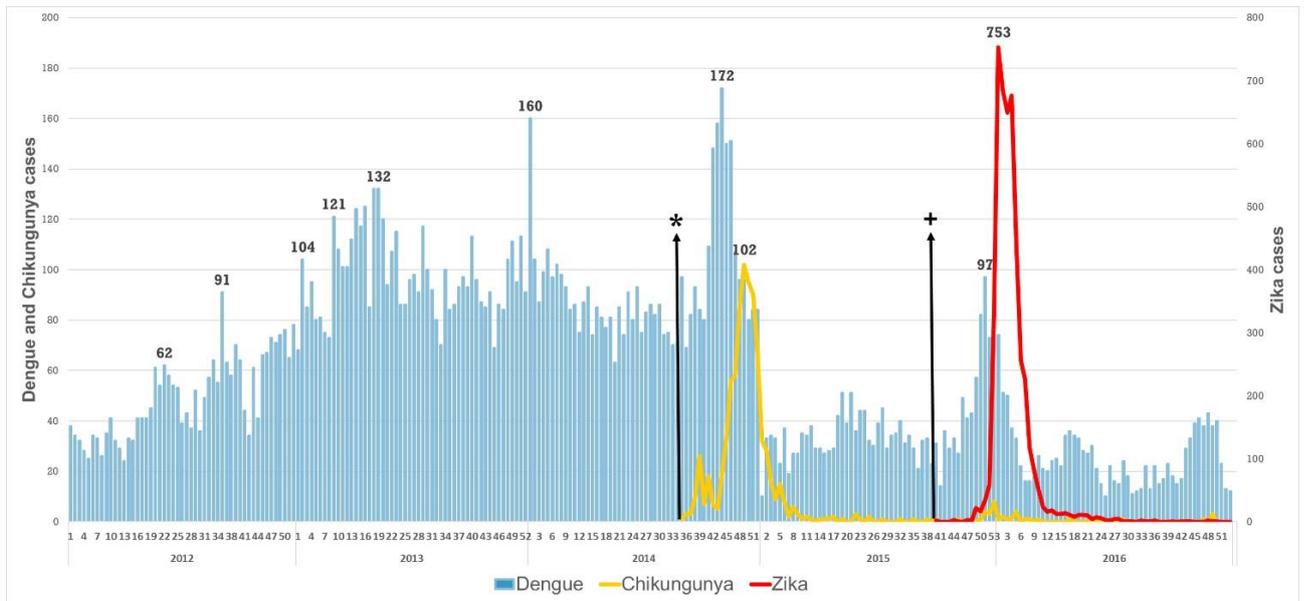
343 The same happened when the Zika outbreak occurred. Two weeks before the peak of Zika cases,
344 there was an increase in “dengue cases”. Many of these were probably Zika infections. Only after the
345 laboratory confirmation of the Zika virus in the national laboratory, the correct diagnoses were
346 notified and the number of reported Zika cases increased. A similar but less pronounced
347 phenomenon was observed in Mexico in 2014/15: At the beginning of the chikungunya outbreak,
348 there was an increased dengue activity probably because the medical doctors did not consider
349 chikungunya to be a diagnostic option. The same happened with the Zika outbreak in 2016 when first
350 dengue case numbers increased and subsequently Zika was detected. The delay in the confirmation
351 of cases can lead to the silent spread of the new disease, which makes control difficult. This situation
352 highlights the need for an improved surveillance system with a focus on early outbreak warning.

353 The observation that *Aedes* borne arbovirus outbreaks seem to mutually suppress each other
354 warrants further confirmation.

355

356

357 **Figure 2.** Time series of analysed cases of dengue, chikungunya and Zika in the urban area of Cúcuta,
 358 Colombia during the period 2012-2016°.

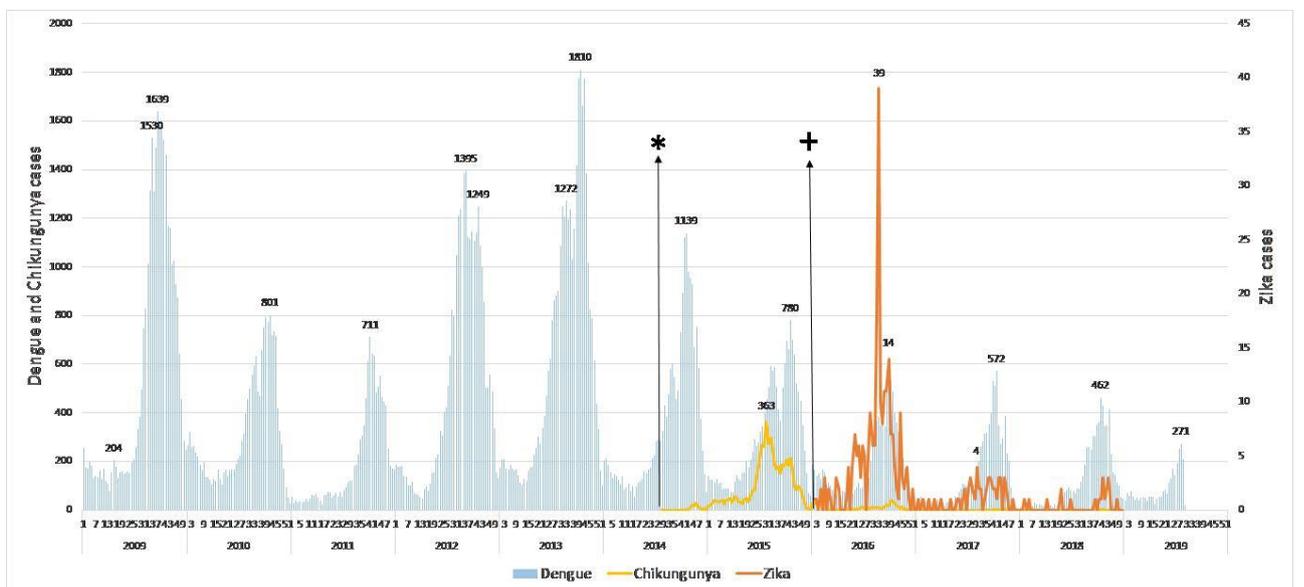


359

360 Dengue is in blue; chikungunya is in yellow and Zika is in red. The cases of Zika are quantified on the
 361 right. (*) Week of the first case of chikungunya; (+) Week of the first case of Zika).

362

363 **Figure 3.** Time series of cases reported weekly in Mexico, of cases of dengue, chikungunya and Zika
 364 during the period 2009-2019.



365

366 Dengue is in blue; chikungunya in yellow and Zika in red. The cases of Zika are quantified on the right.
367 (*) Week of the first case of chikungunya; (+) Week of the first case of Zika

368

369 *Early Warning and Response System (EWARS)*

370 With the purpose of contributing to mitigate the effects of arbovirus outbreaks the EWARS applied in
371 our study appeared to be an adequate tool to predict in Colombia dengue outbreaks 3 to 5 weeks,
372 chikungunya outbreaks 10 to 13 weeks and Zika outbreaks 6 to 10 weeks ahead of the outbreak. In
373 Mexico the lag time was for Zika with 4 to 5 weeks relatively short (not tested for dengue and
374 chikungunya). The variation of lag times for the three diseases may be due to different extrinsic
375 incubation periods (i.e. the time the virus replication and passage from the mosquito gut to the
376 salivary gland requires) but also to the different delays when health services diagnose the diseases
377 (9). A lag time of 6 to 10 weeks will allow the public health services to respond with enhanced vector
378 control measures, shorter time periods for preparing response activities will require the definition of
379 high transmission “hot spots” where interventions can be targeted. The better the control
380 programmes are prepared to identify such high transmission areas and step up the response quickly,
381 the better the chance to mitigate or even avert an outbreak. This has been shown for Mexico
382 (Tejeda, personal communication, to be published shortly) and has triggered the incorporation of risk
383 maps into the EWARS tool (to be made available shortly).

384 In the case of dengue, the sensitivity of alarm indicators to correctly predict an outbreak varied in
385 both countries between 74 to 92%, being the combination of meteorological indicators the alarm
386 signal with the highest sensitivity. The importance of meteorological alarm indicators underlines the
387 characteristic climate sensitivity of vector borne diseases. This pattern is similar to that of other
388 countries that are using EWARS for dengue outbreak prediction (83-99% sensitivity in Brazil, 50-99%
389 in Malaysia and 79-100% in Mexico) (13). Likewise, the PPV of up to 68% in Colombia and up to 83%
390 in Mexico was similar to those reported in the other countries (40-88% in Brazil, 71-80% in Malaysia

391 and 50-83% in Mexico) (13). Therefore, the EWARS would predict about 9 out of 10 dengue
392 outbreaks in Colombia and Mexico and 7 to 8 out of 10 alarms will be correct alarms. A high
393 proportion of true positive alarms give control officers the confidence that when responding to an
394 early alarm their available resources of insecticides, staff time and others are well spent. However,
395 even in the case of false alarms resources on vector control are not spent in vain as they contribute
396 in any case to keeping vector densities down.

397 In the case of chikungunya, the sensitivity to correctly predict an outbreak varied among alarm
398 indicators from 77% to 93%, being rainfall and the combination of meteorological indicators the
399 alarm signals with the highest sensitivity. Likewise, the PPV of up to 85% was similar to those
400 reported with dengue in other countries (13). Therefore, the EWARS would predict outbreaks 10 to
401 13 weeks in advance, providing adequate time to activate response actions (see above).

402 In the case of Zika, the sensitivity (50-100%) and PPV (11-100%) was similar to the prediction of
403 dengue and chikungunya when using alarm indicators with the highest values for sensitivity and PPV.

404 It is the first time that EWARS has been evaluated with chikungunya and Zika datasets, and the
405 results were optimal to recommend the implementation. Although only data for three years were
406 analyzed, these results show that EWARS is applicable to *Aedes* borne arbovirus diseases. As the
407 user-friendliness of the application has already been established (13), the next step is to bring it to
408 practical use in endemic countries and monitor its ability to predict outbreaks and trigger effective
409 response.

410 *Limitations of the study*

411 This study was based on the cases registered by the public health surveillance system in Colombia,
412 which classifies the cases as probable, confirmed and hospitalized (1,18). All confirmed cases should
413 present a positive laboratory test, but in the current Colombian database the confirmed cases were
414 sometimes based on clinical criteria. For chikungunya in Colombia, 106,592 cases were reported by
415 SIVIGILA in 2014, 98% of which were confirmed cases according to clinical criteria (18). This reduces

416 the reliability of the case definition. For dengue, the use of hospitalized cases as outbreak indicator
417 was feasible, but in chikungunya and Zika this was hardly the case due to the low proportion of
418 “hospitalized cases”. This limitation was overcome by taking into account probable and confirmed
419 cases as outbreak indicators as suggested by other authors (13,19,20). Furthermore, there is a
420 possibility of overestimation caused by the out-of-sample prediction, which may explain the case of
421 100% sensitivity observed. This can be reduced by employing a longer-data history of disease and
422 alarm information.

423 In Cúcuta, more than 23,000 cases of chikungunya occurred, but the majority were diagnosed
424 collectively (“collective reporting” i.e. all patients with fever and other symptoms in the waiting area
425 of a health service are diagnosed as having chikungunya), and only a small proportion of cases had
426 complete information from individualized examination (18) which is the routine approach in Mexico.
427 Collective reporting demonstrates the impact of the chikungunya outbreak on the overstretched
428 health system in Colombia. However, the data analyzed in this study was collected throughout the
429 epidemic underlining the ability of the surveillance system to function under difficult circumstances
430 (22).

431 The time period for retrospectively testing the validity of the EWARS tool was relatively short (3 years
432 in the case of Zika); longer retrospective observation periods would have reflected better the usual
433 pattern of the disease which is not possible in case of a newly emerging disease.

434

435 **List of abbreviations**

436 CHIKV: Chikungunya virus

437 EWARS: Early Warning and Response System.

438 INS: National Institute of Health (for Instituto Nacional de Salud)

439 MoH: Ministry of Health

440 SD: Standard deviation

441 SINAVE: National Epidemiological Surveillance System (for “Sistema Nacional de Vigilancia
442 Epidemiológica”)

443 SIVIGILA: National Public Health Surveillance System (for “Sistema Nacional de Vigilancia en Salud
444 Pública”)

445 PPV: positive predictive value.

446 TDR-WHO: The Special Program for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases.

447 WHO: World Health Organization.

448 ZIKV: Zika virus

449

450 **Declarations**

451 **Ethics approval and consent to participate:** The study has been reviewed and approved by the Ethics
452 Committee of the Albert-Ludwigs-University Freiburg, according to Ethics committee minute N°-
453 145/18, signed on 24 April 2018. The manuscript contains secondary data analysis, with collective
454 non-personal information, and permissions obtained from health institutions are available.

455 **Availability of data and materials:** The epidemiological data that support the findings of this study
456 are available from the Arbovirosis Surveillance Systems in Colombia and Mexico, but restrictions
457 apply to the availability of these data, which were used under license for the current study, and so
458 are not publicly available. Data analysed during the current study are available from the
459 corresponding author (RC) on reasonable request and with permission of CENAPRECE, Mexico and
460 IDS-Norte de Santander, Colombia.

461 **Consent for publication:** Not applicable

462 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests. The authors alone
463 are responsible for the views expressed in this publication and it does not necessarily represent the
464 decisions, policy, or views of their respective organizations

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474 **Authors' contributions:**

475 RC. Design of the study, data collection and analysis, drafting manuscript

476 LH-A. Design of study, data analysis, drafting and correcting manuscript

477 DBV. Data collection and analysis, contribution to the text

478 GST. Data collection and analysis, contribution to the text

479 AK. Study design, data analysis, drafting and correcting the manuscript

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Figures

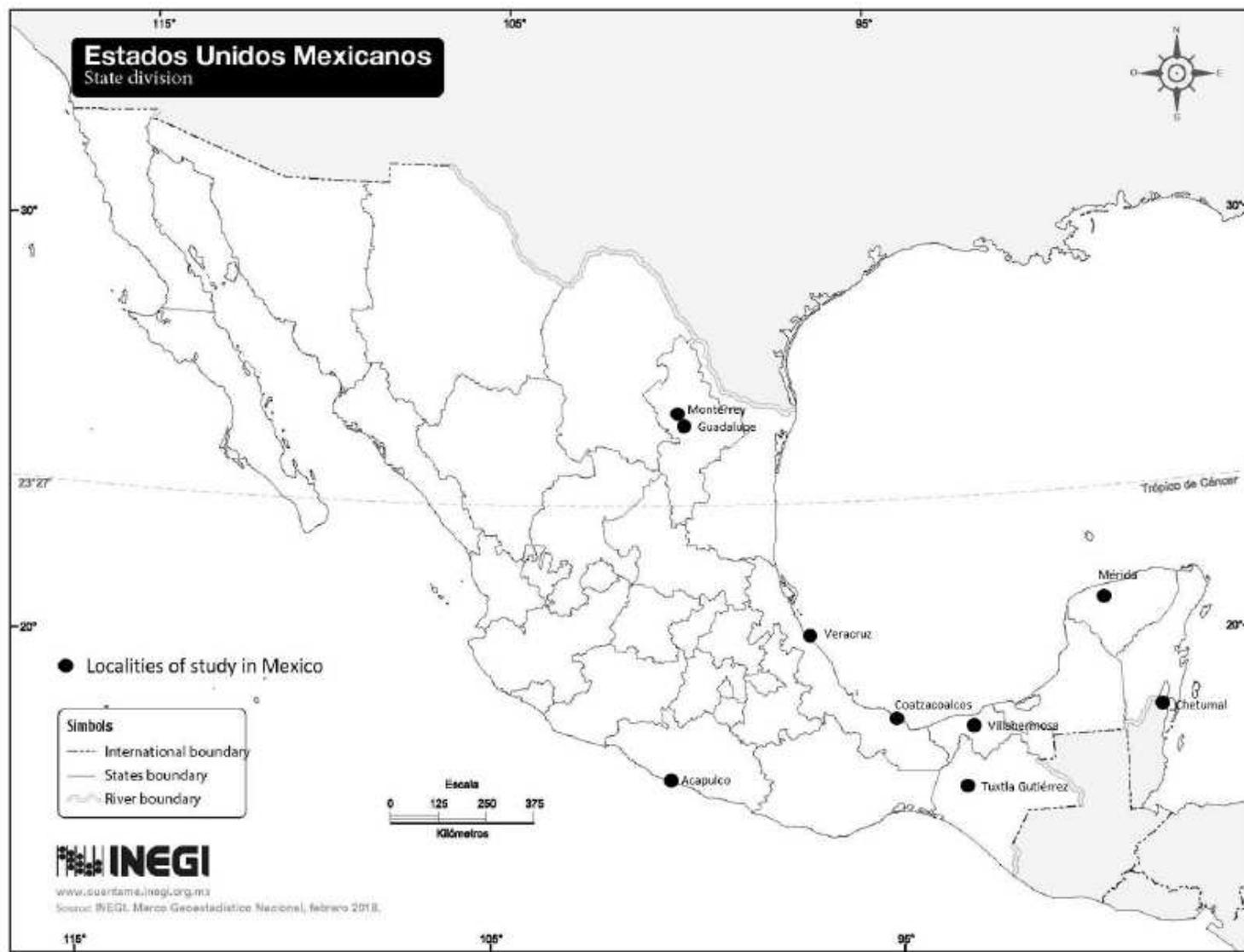


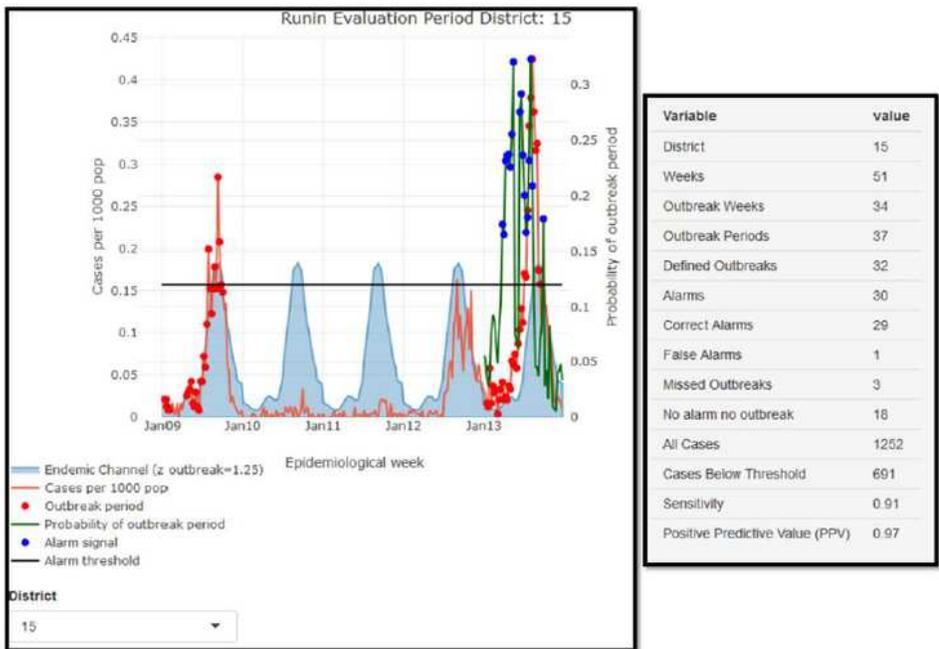
Figure 1

Localities of study in Mexico Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

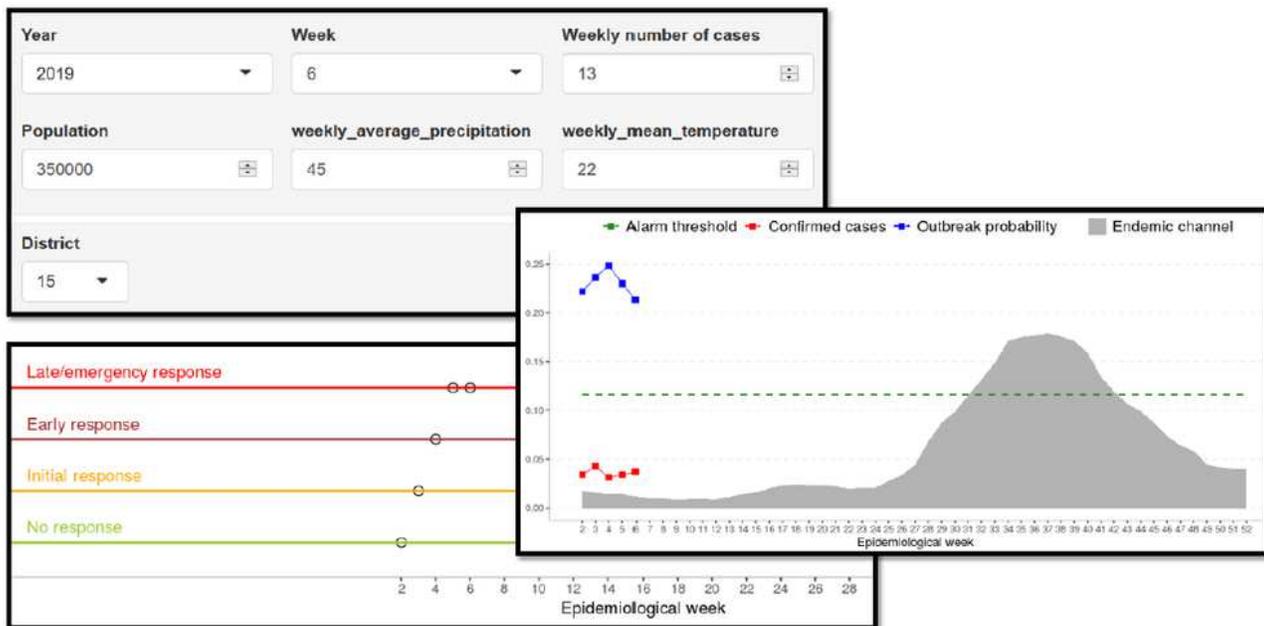


Figure 2

Locality of study in Colombia Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



(a)



(b)

Figure 3

a. Snapshot of the retrospective dashboard, including graphical and numerical visualization of the calibration process and parameters b. A snapshot of the prospective dashboard, including an interface for prospective (weekly) data input prediction (alarm signal against rate of outbreaks) and structured response plan using a generic staged-response format (adoptable based on the national vector response protocol).

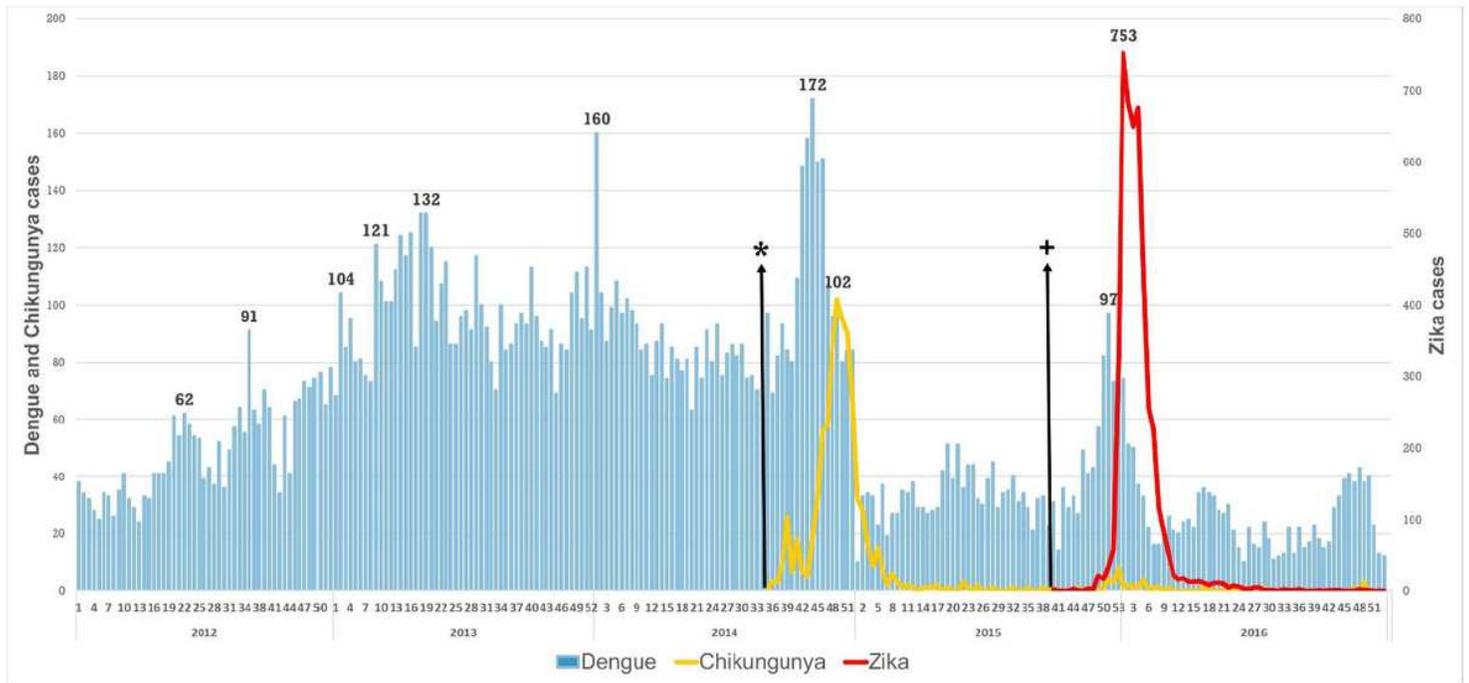


Figure 4

Time series of analysed cases of dengue, chikungunya and Zika in the urban area of Cúcuta, Colombia during the period 2012-2016°.

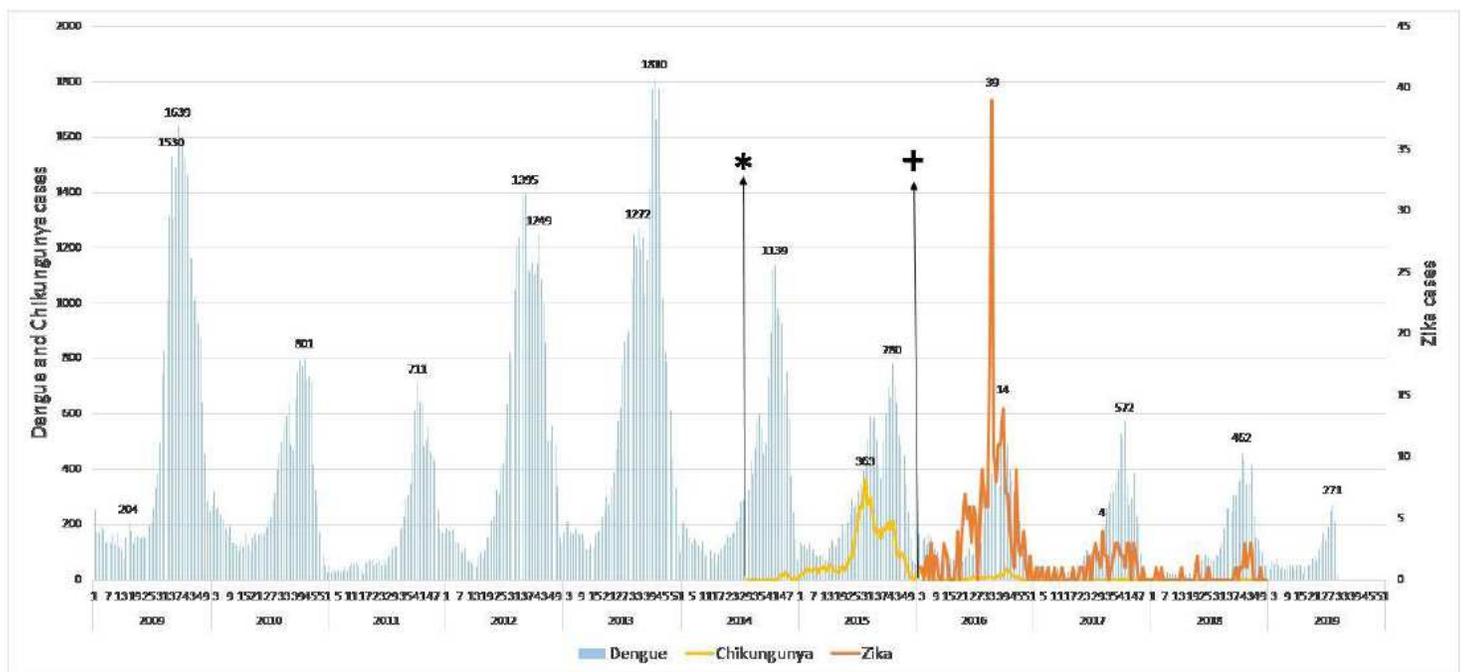


Figure 5

Time series of cases reported weekly in Mexico, of cases of dengue, chikungunya and Zika during the period 2009-2019.