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Title: Risk of tuberculosis in high-rise and high density dwellings: an exploratory spatial analysis

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Keywords: Tuberculosis (TB); sky view factor (SVF); spatial analysis; geographic information system (GIS); environmental health risk

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Abstract: Studies have shown that socioeconomic and environmental factors have direct/indirect influences on TB. This research focuses on TB prevalence of Hong Kong in relation to its compact urban development comprising of high-rise and high-density residential dwellings caused by rapid population growth and limited land resources. It has been postulated that occupants living on higher levels of a building would benefit from better ventilation and direct sunlight and thus less likely to contract infectious respiratory diseases. On the contrary, those on lower floors amid the dense clusters of high-rises are more susceptible to TB infection because of poorer air quality from street-level pollution and lesser exposure to direct sunlight. However, there have not been published studies to support these claims. As TB continues to threaten public health in Hong Kong, this study seeks to understand the effects of housing development on TB occurrences in an urban setting.

## Highlights

- We examined association between TB prevalence & floor levels using sky view factor
- TB is more prevalent on lower floors & relationship manifested in taller buildings
- Floor level & building height jointly affect sky view factors at diseased locations
- GIS framework is effective in associating disease prevalence in an urban setting

## 1 **Abstract**

2           Studies have shown that socioeconomic and environmental factors have  
3 direct/indirect influences on TB. This research focuses on TB prevalence of Hong  
4 Kong in relation to its compact urban development comprising of high-rise and  
5 high-density residential dwellings caused by rapid population growth and limited land  
6 resources. It has been postulated that occupants living on higher levels of a building  
7 would benefit from better ventilation and direct sunlight and thus less likely to  
8 contract infectious respiratory diseases. On the contrary, those on lower floors amid  
9 the dense clusters of high-rises are more susceptible to TB infection because of poorer  
10 air quality from street-level pollution and lesser exposure to direct sunlight. However,  
11 there have not been published studies to support these claims. As TB continues to  
12 threaten public health in Hong Kong, this study seeks to understand the effects of  
13 housing development on TB occurrences in an urban setting.

14

## 15 **Capsule**

16 This research focuses on TB prevalence of Hong Kong in relation to its compact  
17 urban development that has significant public health implications for Asian cities in  
18 pursuit of high-rise and high density urban living.

19

20 **Keywords**

21 Tuberculosis (TB); sky view factor (SVF); spatial analysis; geographic

22 information system (GIS); environmental health risk

23

24

25

26 **Introduction**

27

28 Tuberculosis (TB) is caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, a bacteria that often  
29 affects the lungs. Although TB is curable and preventable, it is highly contagious and  
30 spread from person to person through inhaling TB germs in the air. The World Health  
31 Organization (2005) considers Hong Kong as a region with good health infrastructures  
32 that bears an intermediate burden of TB. TB prevalence in Hong Kong has been  
33 declining in the past 50 years (Department of Health, 2008) but it still remains a key  
34 health concern due to steady immigration and the compact living conditions. The  
35 disease has been found to have association with smoking (Leung et al., 2004) and HIV  
36 infection (Corbett et al., 2003). Areas dominated by the socially deprived (Lönnroth et  
37 al., 2009; Pang et al., 2010) and those living in crowded (Baker et al., 2008; Beggs et  
38 al., 2003; Lienhardt, 2001) areas of poor ventilation (Canadian Tuberculosis  
39 Committee, 2007; Hang et al., 2012; Li et al., 2007) have been reported to have  
40 noticeably higher TB prevalence.

41

42           Hong Kong has a compact urban built form comprising of high-rise and high  
43 density dwellings. This high density high-rise built form gives rise to an efficient  
44 transport infrastructure with low carbon consumption to which some researchers have  
45 accredited as a model of sustainable urban development (Lau et al., 2012). However,  
46 the compact city configuration is also criticized for its poor air quality and unpleasant  
47 living conditions that pose environmental health risks to its residents. Studies have  
48 shown that high-rise blocks constructed close to each other result in severe sky  
49 obstructions and poor air ventilation especially for the lower floors (Li et al., 2012a). It  
50 is known that poor sunlight penetration, unsatisfactory air quality and impeded  
51 ventilation prevail in many urban communities of Hong Kong closely packed with  
52 mid-rise to high-rise buildings (Edussuriya et al., 2011). It is also known that ultraviolet  
53 radiation from the sun kills bacterium in dwellings but the shading effects from  
54 surrounding buildings in many communities of Hong Kong have prevented direct  
55 sunlight to reach even pockets of small open spaces at the street level. Furthermore, the  
56 daylight quality within housing units are determined by many factors, including  
57 window size, obstruction from other buildings, and distance between buildings (Lau,  
58 2011). Because of short separation distances between buildings, windows facing

59 neighbouring blocks are always fitted with window shades and kept closed most of the  
60 time thus defeating the purpose of bringing in light and ventilation.

61

62 High density and vertical urban development will become a way of life for the  
63 burgeoning Asian cities because of rapid urbanization and diminishing non-renewable  
64 land resources. In recent years, the quality of urban life or the well-being of people  
65 living in a specific place has gained increasing attention. Some researchers suggested  
66 that satisfaction with living may be viewed at different levels from the wider  
67 community to the neighbourhoods and down to individual housing units (Campbell et  
68 al., 1976). Others are more concerned about the physical and social dimensions of a  
69 city as reflected through social indicators in which various health measures have a  
70 prominent role along with other indicators like the level of household income, crime  
71 rates, pollution levels, and housing costs (John, 2004; McCrea et al., 2005). Indeed,  
72 the relationships between health levels and urban lifestyles and their effects on  
73 longevity have been studied (Handy et al., 2002; Lv et al., 2011). There was almost  
74 complete agreement on the inclusion of health measures and a high degree of  
75 agreement on the effects of the living environment in considering the quality of urban  
76 life among the literature.

77

78           This paper aims to examine the relationship between TB incidence and the  
79 neighbourhood environment, with specific reference to natural daylight capacity. The  
80 sky view factor (SVF) has been used to indicate the impact of urban geometry on  
81 daylight and heat island effects in cities (Chen et al., 2012). SVF is a measure of the  
82 openness of the sky relative to a specific location with values ranging from 0 (no sky  
83 visible) to 1 (no foliage/obstruction visible) (Figure 1). We made use of the geographic  
84 information systems (GIS) technology to characterize the SVF of diseased locations.  
85 The SVF in an urban environment with little vegetation, as in the case of Hong Kong, is  
86 influenced primarily by building heights and street canyon widths or spaces between  
87 buildings.

88

- Insert Figure 1 -

89

## 90 **Methods**

91

92           Our study is a retrospective spatial data analysis of diseased positions. The null  
93 hypothesis is that there is no relationship between TB incidents or SVF at the diseased  
94 locations and the vertical position of living quarters relative to the building height. We



95 postulate that TB cases are associated with locations with low SVF values (i.e., SVF <  
96 0.6) because a lower SVF indicates more blockage of the sky view. We further  
97 postulate that more TB cases are found at the lower levels of a multi-storey building for  
98 the following reasons. Firstly, TB is a disease of poverty (Lönnroth et al., 2009; Pang et  
99 al., 2010) in which the diseased individuals are expected to live on lower levels because  
100 housing costs tend to increase with higher floors (Wong et al., 2011). Secondly, studies  
101 have shown that lower levels being in the perpetual shadow of surrounding buildings  
102 suffer from poor daylight reception and ventilation (Edussuriya et al., 2011; Li et al.,  
103 2012a).

104

105 A total of 1668 cases with TB positive specimens were available from the  
106 2007-2009 out-patient data provided by the Tuberculosis and Chest Services of  
107 hospitals in the Kowloon West Cluster. The residential addresses of these cases were  
108 geocoded for spatial analysis (Figure 2). Figure 2 shows clearly a concentration of TB  
109 cases in the Kowloon Peninsula. A total of 1227 cases with complete address entries  
110 that fell within the normal service areas of the Kowloon West Cluster (or 74% of the  
111 total data count) was the focus of this study. The vertical storey of each diseased  
112 residence was also recorded. The 50m-radius SVF at each diseased location within the

113 Kowloon West Cluster was computed using an ArcView (ESRI, 2011) extension  
114 developed by Gal et al. (2008). In addition, the areal average of SVF was also computed  
115 to provide a continuous SVF surface (Figure 3). The SVF calculation was field verified  
116 for selected sites using the Sigma circular fisheye 4.5mm lens.

117 - Insert Figures 2 and 3 -

118

119 The quintile height of each building was computed and the vertical storey of each  
120 diseased address was positioned in reference to the QUINTILE group. The quintile  
121 group of Q1 indicates the lowest floors as opposed to Q5 representing the highest  
122 floors. The buildings were also classified into 5 BUILDING groups by maximum  
123 storey ( $\leq 8$ ; 9-16; 17-24; 25-32;  $\geq 33$ ). The class limits of the building groups are  
124 arbitrary as the definition of high-rise building varies in literature (McCarthy et al.,  
125 1985; Williams, 1991) and dependent on the context where it exists (Council on Tall  
126 Buildings and Urban Habitat, 2011). Two-way analysis of variance (2-way ANOVA)  
127 was conducted on SPSS using SVF as the dependent variable against QUINTILE and  
128 BUILDING as the independent variables.

129

130 **Results**



149 The normal probability plots for testing the normality of the sample groups  
150 (Figure 5) reveal that the sample distributions are not too far from the normal. The  
151 two way ANOVA to examine the impacts of natural daylight capacity (in terms of  
152 SVF\_50m) on diseased neighbourhoods shows the effects of QUINTILE groups to be  
153 statistically insignificant ( $p=0.398$ , Table 2). However, BUILDING groups and the  
154 interaction between BUILDING and QUINTILE groups both show statistically  
155 significant association with SVF\_50m ( $p=0.000$  and  $p=0.018$  respectively). This is to  
156 say that the interaction between the vertical position of a diseased residence and the  
157 height of the building is related to natural daylight capacity as reflected through SVF.  
158 The presence of such an interaction is shown by non-parallel lines in Figure 6. Indeed,  
159 Figure 6 shows that QUINTILE groups of diseased locations did not matter for  
160 shorter buildings but a decreasing trend with increasing built storeys was observed for  
161 taller structures (i.e., more diseased residence on lower floors for taller buildings).  
162 These results could be affected by a number of confounders not covered in this study  
163 (such as building orientation or presence of greenery).

164 - Insert Table 2 -

165 - Insert Figures 5 and 6 -

166

167 **Discussions**

168

169 We employed the GIS technology to geocode addresses of diseased individuals  
170 (confirmed Mycobacterium TB positive in their culture tests) and record the vertical  
171 position or floor level of their residential units. The point-based geographic and vertical  
172 accounts of diseased locations enable the computation of SVF and the association of  
173 floor levels with TB incidence. Among the diseased individuals, we found more TB  
174 occurrences living on lower floors as compared to those on higher levels.

175

176 Hong Kong is renowned worldwide for its large numbers of skyscrapers and high  
177 rises. Buildings of 40-70 storeys are becoming more common in Hong Kong. Our study  
178 has shown that the densely-packed high rises in Hong Kong give rise to varying degrees  
179 of SVF (in which a smaller SVF value indicates a lack of sky view and vice versa)  
180 which can be used as a surrogate measure for daylight capacity. In considering diseased  
181 cases by their QUINTILE locations, we offer empirical evidence of the positive  
182 association between SVF and QUINTILES of diseased locations by different  
183 BUILDING groups. It appears that TB cases tend to concentrate on lower floors and the  
184 relationship is more pronounced for taller buildings. Furthermore, our statistical

185 analysis reported that SVFs and the QUINTILE groups do not have significant  
186 association but SVFs and BUILDING groups have a positively relation. Both  
187 QUINTILE and BUILDING groups of diseased locations are found to have joint  
188 effects on SVFs.

189

190 Our findings have implications on living space and its health implications. Given  
191 that lower floors in the midst of high-rise buildings are sheltered from direct sunlight,  
192 more thoughts should be given to the layout, orientation, and separation distance  
193 between built structures. For example, an increase in the vertical height of a building  
194 should command a corresponding increase in the horizontal separation to allow for  
195 penetration of natural daylight and permit better air flow. We should also take heed of  
196 the harmful effects of ill-designed transport infrastructures (especially urban canyons  
197 of high building density) (Li et al., 2012b). With nations shifting their economic  
198 policies to exert more focus on environmental matters as driven by principles of  
199 sustainable development, our study offer empirical evidence on potential areas of  
200 disease risks in the context of rapidly emerging mega-city regions of Asia.

201

202           One limitation of our study concerns the computation of SVF at the street level.  
203   We attempted SVF computation for radii of 25m, 50m, 75m, and 100m and found that  
204   50m seemed to yield the best results. The SVF values derived in this study were at best  
205   indicative as diseased individuals were dispersed among different floor levels which  
206   were not accounted for in the computation. Furthermore, our limited data about  
207   address, gender and age of the diseased individuals offer no information about the  
208   behaviours of individuals (whether they are smokers or homebound), their residency  
209   status (whether they have lived in the area for 3 or more years), and their  
210   socio-economic standing (occupation, educational attainment, household income, etc.).  
211   These confounders could easily have influenced our findings and their absence  
212   prevented us from conducting more detailed analysis.

213

## 214   **Conclusions**

215

216           Our study highlights important relationships between TB incidence and vertical  
217   distance of dwellings for buildings of different heights. It also reveals that building  
218   height and density as revealed by SVF could potentially inform health risks in an urban  
219   setting. These two factors are central to the “healing” features in housing design that

220 strives to bring in sunshine and facilitate air-flow (Hobday, 2010). The land use policy  
221 in many Asian cities encourages compact development with diverse housing types  
222 where streets are kept as narrow as possible, particularly in residential areas and  
223 commercial centres. This form of development may reduce vehicle travel and provide  
224 other conveniences. However, serious health and environmental problems (including  
225 poor lighting and ventilation in individual apartments) arise when the cities grow in the  
226 vertical direction without parallel adjustments in the horizontal dimension (Lau, 2011).  
227 Because of pressures from population growth and the scarcity of land resources, our  
228 results have significant public health implications for Asian cities that are pursuing  
229 high-rise and high density urban living.

230

231



232

233 **Competing Interests**

234 None to declare.

235

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245 Diseases by the Food and Health Bureau, and the Hong Kong SAR Government.

246

247

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341

342

343

344 **Table Captions**

345 1 Summary statistics of TB cases by QUINTILE and BUILDING groups

346 2 Results of two-way ANOVA [Dependent Variable: SVF\_50m;

347 Design: Intercept + QUINTILE + BUILDING + QUINTILE \* BUILDING]

348

349

350

351 **Figure Captions**

352 1 Sample results of sky view factors (SVF).

353 SVF ranges between 0 and 1, with near zero values indicating very little visible sky

354 and values closer to 1 indicating no obstruction of the sky.

355 2 TB cases and the study area.

356 3 SVF among building footprints and 3D buildings

357 4 TB QUINTILE percentage versus BUILDING groups

358 5 Normal Q-Q plots of SVF for BUILDING and QUINTILE groups

359 6 A graph showing interaction between two factors in a two-way ANOVA

360



**Table**

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Table 1

QUINTILE BUILDING	QUINTILE					Subtotal
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	
≤8	25	19	17	5	9	75
9-16	139	56	49	39	35	318
17-24	94	51	31	38	33	247
25-32	47	40	43	27	26	183
≥33	90	94	81	80	59	404
Subtotal	395	260	221	189	162	1227

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	56.989 <sup>a</sup>	16	0
Likelihood Ratio	58.229	16	0
N of Valid Cases	1227		

<sup>a</sup> 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.90.

## Table

[Click here to download Table: Table 2.doc](#)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects  
Dependent Variable: SVF\_50m

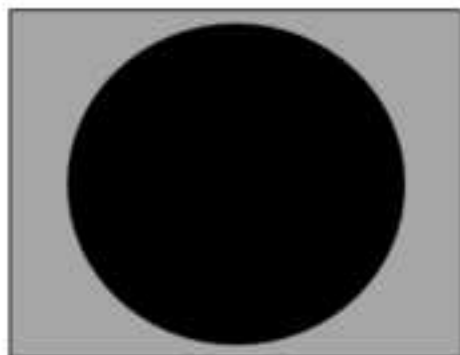
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta spread	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power <sup>b</sup>
Corrected Model	3.393 <sup>a</sup>	24	.141	4.108	.000	.076	98.584	1.000
Intercept	281.320	1	281.320	8.174E3	.000	.872	8173.944	1.000
Quintile	.140	4	.035	1.015	.398	.003	4.060	.323
Building	1.365	4	.341	9.914	.000	.032	39.655	1.000
Quintile * Building	1.038	16	.065	1.885	.018	.024	30.160	.960
Error	41.369	1202	.034					
Total	530.738	1227						
Corrected Total	44.762	1226						

<sup>a</sup> R Squared = .076 (Adjusted R Squared = .057)

<sup>b</sup> Computed using alpha = .05

Figure

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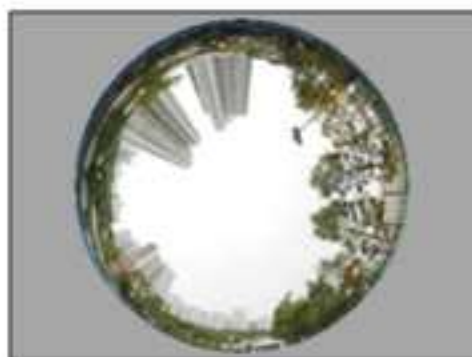
SVF = 0



SVF  $\approx$  0.2



SVF  $\approx$  0.4



SVF  $\approx$  0.6



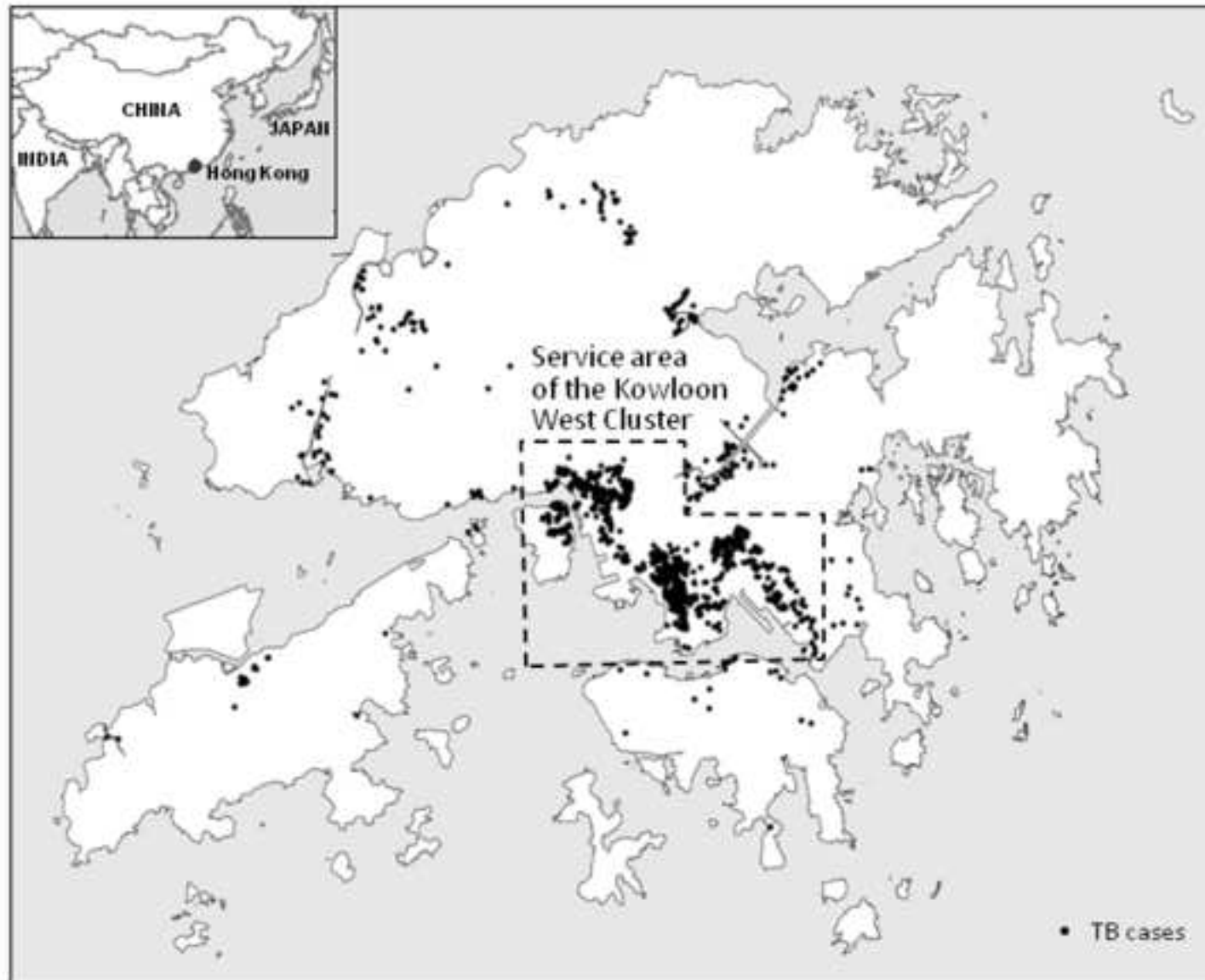
SVF  $\approx$  0.8



SVF  $\approx$  1.0

Figure

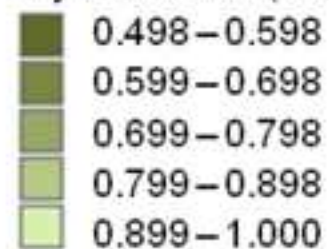
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(a) A 2-dimensional plot of SVFs among building footprints

Sky view factor (SVF)



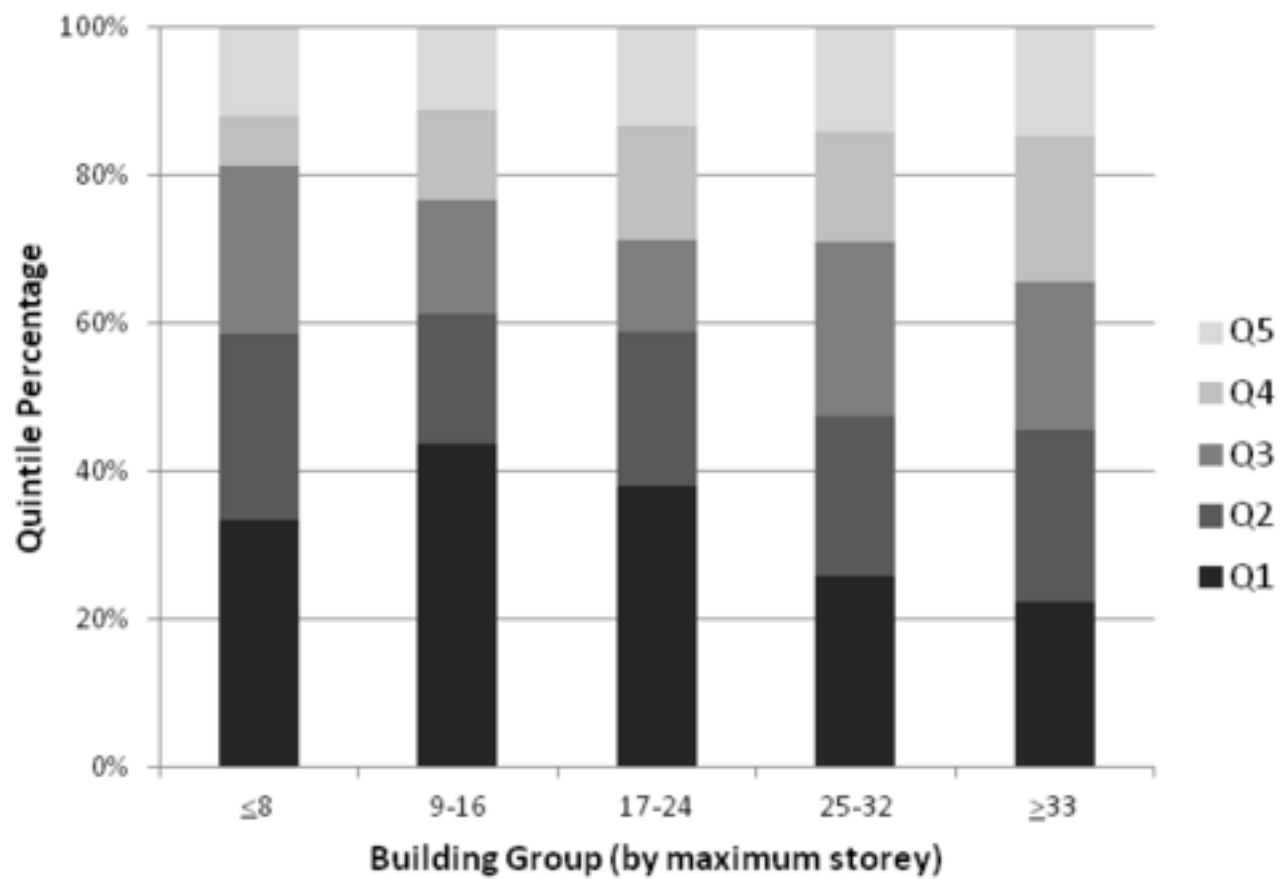
Darker shades show areas with more severe sky obstructions and lighter areas with more sky view.



(b) A 2-dimensional plot of SVFs among 3D buildings

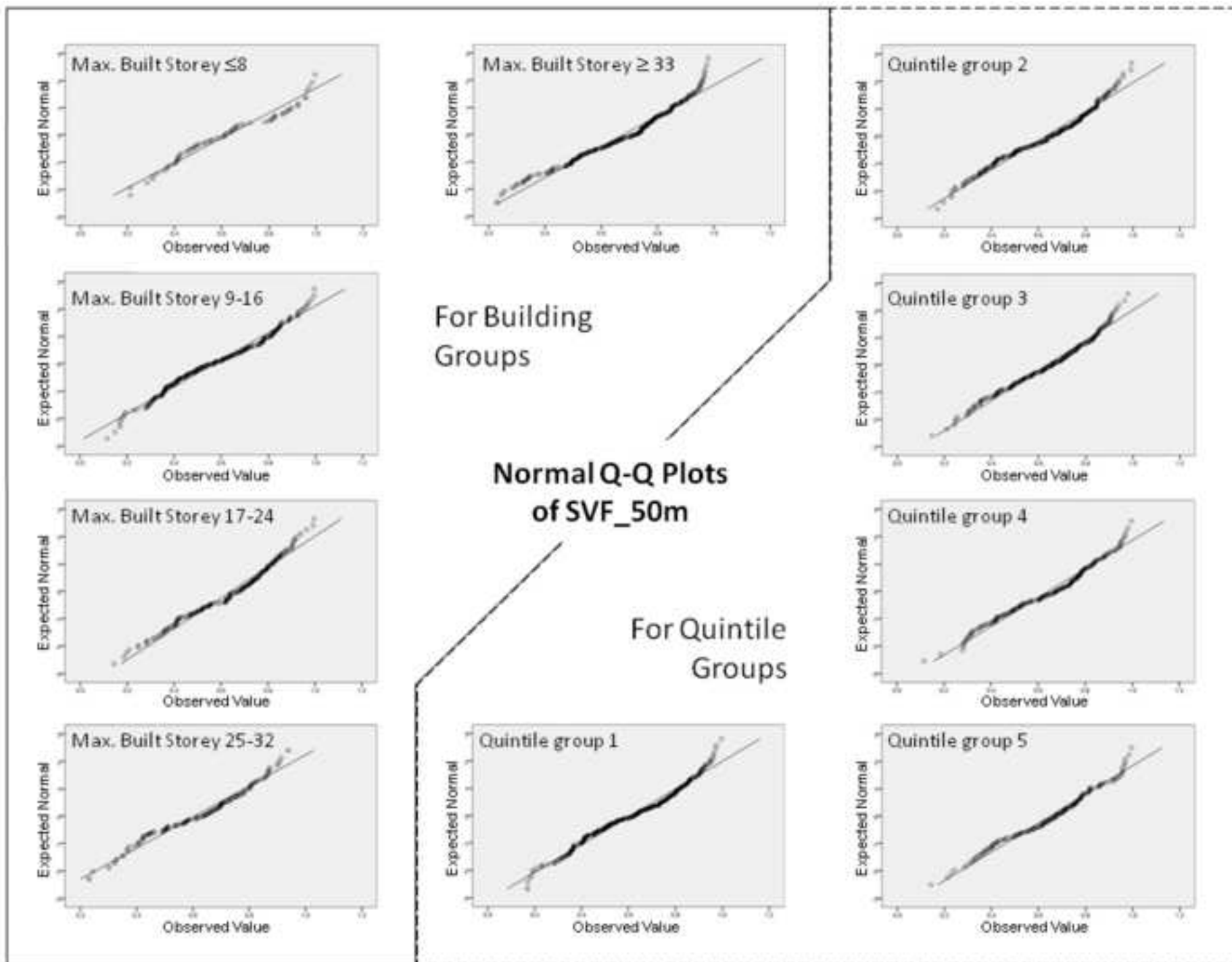
Figure

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Figure

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### Estimated Marginal Means of SVF\_50m

