Emerging Infectious Diseases in Perspective to Climatic Conditions

AUTHORS DETAIL

Muhammad Bilal, Muhammad Kashif Saleemi, Aisha Khatoon, Muhammad Imran Arshad, Muhammad Imran and Shafia Tehseen Gul^{*}

¹Department of Pathology, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad-Pakistan ²Institute of Microbiology, Faculty of Veterinary Science, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad-Pakistan *Corresponding author: drshafia66@yahoo.com: dr.shafia.gul@uaf.edu.pk

Received: Sept 28, 2022 Accepted: Dec 30, 2022

INTRODUCTION

As per the statement of The World Health Organization (WHO), mankind facing greatest threats in twenty-first century are "climate change and global warming." Posing serious threats to human life and other creatures on the planet earth (WHO 2017). Despite the fact that global warming is one of the many features involved with climate change, the terms "climate change" and "global warming" are frequently used interchangeably. When someone uses the term "global warming," that typically describes the observed increase in normal global temperature over past few years, both in terms of incidence and intensity (Myhre et al. 2019). It is mainly due to the green house effects due to the increased fossil fuel consumption alongwith deforestation mean cutting of trees and forests for the human uses. This rise in temperature is higher near the poles and less close to the equator. According to computer simulation models, it might range between 1.6 to 6°C increase per year and is expected to accelerate in the coming years (Ghazali et al. 2018).

Infectious disease epidemiology changes are connected to global warming and mainly linked with changing habitats, population susceptibility, and greater exposure to etiological agent. These different factors contribute to the higher prevalence of diseases, including both emerging and remerging infections mostly and more quickly the transboundary diseases (TBDs) and emerging infectious diseases (EIDs) (Khansins et al. 2005; Baker et al. 2022). The geographic distribution of vectors and intermediate hosts, such as rodents, migratory birds, and invertebrate hosts (insects), has also been affected due to global warming (El-Sayed and Kamel 2020). Recently, the WHO has estimated that zoonotic bacterium pathogen i.e., Chlamydia, which can be spread by the close connection with parrots, affects more than 90 million people in a single year (WHO 2017). The sickness is connected to bird migration and mobility, which has strong association with the ecological and climatic changes (Nava et al. 2017). Contrarily, "climate change" denotes to long-term, computable variations in the climate that have been observed. Extreme weather events, such as droughts, heat waves, wildfires, tropical cyclones, gradual melting of glaciers, loss of river deltas and towns near the coastal areas, extreme rainfall and flooding, and dust storms are all indicative of the climatic change, in addition to other important changes including the unnecessary cutting of trees and use of massive bushmeat are also responsible for the emerging of infectious diseases (Weilnhammer et al. 2019). The harm to the human health due to the climate change and global warming is underrated yet. According to estimates, changes in environmental factors are responsible for 36% of all infant and young child mortality around the globe and 34% of total childhood illnesses. Climate change and different environmental factors have a significant impact on outbreaks of majority of newly emerging diseases such as dengue fever, cholera, deadly malaria, diarrhea, and many other diseases (Mutlu and Nacaroglu 2019). Climate change can also affect human socio-demographics and cause a mass emigration of people and domestic animals from dry, hot regions to the places with better living conditions (El-Sayed and Kamel 2020). Along with this, there are global alterations to the traditional geographic circulation of wildlife, insects, and rodents (Buhler et al. 2022). Climate change, ecosystem disruption, exposure to vector insects, and the spread of infectious diseases have a known epidemiological linkage (Goshua et al. 2021). Better understanding of these connections makes it possible to forecast, how upcoming climate changes would affect the ecology of infectious agents, the transmission of infections, vectors (intermediate hosts),

30

The melting of an ice layer that has been present for thousands of years is one of the most serious underrated effects of global warming in addition to causing several cities and river deltas to vanish from earth. The melting of the ice sheet will unfortunately also reveal other hidden biological components that have been buried under snow in addition to the mammoth carcasses that have been buried for thousands of years. As the year 2012, had witnessed the discovery of an ancient pathogen Virola virus in preserved mummy in Siberia which was 300 years old (Biagini et al. 2015). NASA investigators were also able to resuscitate bacteria that had been frozen in Alaska, thousands of years ago. Other researchers were able to separate the microorganisms from

reservoir animals, and final hosts etc. (Sellers et al. 2019).

Citation: Bilal M, Saleemi MK, Khatoon A, Arshad MI, Imran M and Gul ST, 2023. Emerging Infectious Diseases in Perspective to Climatic Conditions. In: Khan A, Abbas RZ, Aguilar-Marcelino L, Saeed NM and Younus M (eds), One Health Triad, Unique Scientific Publishers, Faisalabad, Pakistan, Vol. I, pp: 201-208. <u>https://doi.org/10.47278/book.oht/2023.30</u>

some ancient part of the world like Antarctica and still the story is continued (El-Sayed and Kamel 2020). Additionally, it was possible to identify live bacteria from a 25,000-yearold ice sample and Dominican amber (Josefsen et al. 2018). Over 75 years ago, the spores were buried beneath frozen soil, but now they are emerging as the ice melts. Among bacterial pathogens a classical example includes *Bacillus anthracis*, which is a spore-forming bacterium and lead to deadly diseases in warm blooded animals including humans known as "Anthrax". The spores have a high level of environmental resistance and can remain active in a dormant state for 100 years. Floods and insects are two ways that may cause the spread of spores (e.g., tabanid flies). Using the same logic, it is also possible that smallpox virus may be kept in human leftovers buried in frozen soil (Ogden and Lindsay 2016).

On the health and wellbeing of people and animals, the climatic change has both direct and indirect effects. The increased frequency and length of heat waves have physical and psychological repercussions that might cause stress, pulmonary and circulatory impairment, heat strokes, and squamous-cell carcinomas over the long run. The drastic effects of different calamities like floods have also been observed on the wildlife population. The quantity, survival, and dispersion of diseases and their vectors are all directly impacted by global warming. Famines and the detrimental consequences of large-scale human/animal population migration waves are among the indirect repercussions (Joshi et al. 2020). According to an optimistic scenario, the ensuing ecological shift is expected to result in at least 250,000 more deaths per year between 2030 to 2050. Of these, 48,000 are anticipated to pass away through diarrhea, 60,000 from malaria, and the remaining 28,000 from starvation and heat exhaustion. Unfortunately, despite being the less responsible for CO₂ emissions and the greenhouse effect, poor developing nations are the most susceptible to these climatic effcets (El-Sayed and Kamel 2020).

Keeping in view the zoonosis of animal origin, more than 60% of infectious diseases appeared during 1940 to 2004 affecting humans are of serious concern in terms of public health. It has been documented that six (06) out of every ten (10) human infections are of animal origin and among these many of the diseases are emerging or remerging in the near past and their prevalence is increasing with every passing day. The world economy and public health are both greatly impacted by these outbreaks. Overall, 71.8% among these zoonotic diseases were caused by wildlife, and 22.8% were arthropod-borne illnesses (Zhang et al. 2019). It was surprising that Nepal developed endemic cases of numerous serious diseases which need some vectors for the transmission of diseases like Malaria, filariasis and Japanese encephalitis (Medone et al. 2015).

Emerging Infectious Diseases (EIDs)

Infectious diseases those become more prevalent or dangerous over the time are referred to as emerging infectious diseases (EIDs). The specific features of the EIDs includes (1) newly discovered, previously undiagnosed diseases and (2) long-standing diseases that have evolved or mutated from recognized agents to acquire novel traits (i.e., adaptation to new hosts or target population, new geo-graphic distribution, new clinical picture, new epidemiological profile, new spread pattern, or resistance to used therapeutics). The examples of EIDs in modern days are CCHF, Tuberculosis, brucellosis, and more resistant *E. coli* infection. In addition to this some drug resistant strains of the *E. coli* are also considered to be emerged (Mor et al. 2018).

Ebola virus (Africa), Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (Middle East), Zika virus, chikungunya virus, yellow fever virus, and dengue virus (North and South America) were the main infectious agents that emerged and re-emerged in the past ten years (Antonenko et al. 2013). At least 50 new and reoccurred diseases were listed by the CDC. The diseases are broadly classified into human, animals and both human-animal's communicable diseases termed as zoonotic diseases, the human disease which are emerged and remerged in the present and near past, tuberculosis, hemimorphic colitis, COVID-19, SARS, Malaria, and dengue fever. In case of animals the list of different disease includes Pasteurella multocida, Lumpy skin disease (LSD), trypanosomiasis, fascioliasis and zoonotic disease including MRSA, brucellosis, anthrax, avian influenza, rabies, babesiosis, giardiasis and leishmaniasis (Zhang et al. 2017). Social impact of climate change on livelihood, human society and infectious diseases is sown in Fig. 1.

However, it was shown that not all vectors are affected equally by climate fluctuations. For example, the geographic spread of mosquitoes is influenced by factors such as relative humidity, wind speed and direction, and rain that falls in the opposite direction from ticks. This is due to the mosquito life cycle, which depends on stagnant water for egg laying and larval stage development. In Asia and Africa, reports on the rise in malaria prevalence due to climatic changes have already been released (Andreassen et al. 2012). The aquatic ecology also exhibits the infiltration of novel parasites and their appearance in uninhabited places. At least 182 nonnative parasite species have been found invading Canada's Laurentian Great Lakes area, meaning a new invader species appears once in every 4 months (Bojko et al. 2021). Coral reefs began to die as a result of severe diseases brought on by the rise in seawater temperature. For several fish species, coral reefs were the source of both a haven and food. The amount of diffused oxygen in the water likewise decreases as water temperature rises. All these elements cause a lot of disruption in the aquatic ecology which in returns possess a great threat not only to the human health but also to the economies along with many trade restrictions (Belter et al. 2020; Brugueras et al. 2020).

Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTDs)

In contrast to EIDs, another nomenclature of the diseases "Neglected Tropical Diseases" is also in use. Most of the diseases on the published database are known as neglected tropical diseases (NTDs). A category of bacterial, viral,

Emerging Infectious Diseases



Fig. 1: Social impact of climate change affecting livelihood, human society and infectious diseases (Khan et al. 2019)

parasitic, and fungal infections known as NTDs are typically endemic to developing nations. Until such diseases started to spread and pose a significant threat to the civilized economies, the pharmaceutics industries did not spend enough money to find a cure for them because they were restricted to the developing nations, only (Huürlimann et al. 2011).

More precisely, the neglected tropical diseases are such diseases which historically possess no attention or given very less attention as compared to the other diseases. The influx of asylum-seeking refugees and illegal immigrants from nations suffering from war and famine in recent years has raised the prevalence of numerous NTDs or speed up their emergence in western nations (Liu et al. 2019). The human scabies infection caused by *Sarcoptes scabiei* mites is among the greatest instances. Despite having a global spread, the parasitic disease had a very low frequency in Europe. In the past ten years, outbreaks of scabies have been seen in Europe, including UK nursing home for elderly population (Ariza et al. 2013; Cassell et al. 2018).

NTDs are extremely susceptible to climate factors, which regulate their pattern of expansion. For instance, floods, heavy rain, rising temperatures, and increased humidity all contribute to survival of parasites at different infected stages (larva/metacercaria), which ultimately raises the occurrence of disease. There are five trematode species in the genus Schistosoma that need snails as intermediate hosts, including those that cause schistosomiasis, swimmer's itch and bilharzia. The parasite enters the body of host through skin (Wu et al. 2014; CDC 2017). Such disease with higher prevalence has also been reported from the different regions of the world including Europe (Morgan et al. 2021). One of the common worm parasites from the sheep and goats is Fasciola hepatica which is ignored but causes the illness in ovine and bovines because these are mainly grazing species and spend hours in grazing fields. It has also been categorized as zoonotic disease. The climate change and global warming may favor the growth of such domestic pathogenic parasites (Agache et al. 2022).

Along with the parasitic diseases already mentioned, this list of NTDs also includes many viral diseases including the following: (1) Rabies, a lethal and unnoted NTDs, is one of the most difficult diseases to control due to the freedom of the movement of wild animals (El-Sayed and Kamel 2020) (2) Dengue Fever, another most important and crucial disease, which causes 96 million new infections each year worldwide and is transmitted by mosquitoes. Only 500,000 of them get severe symptoms, resulting in 1250 causalities across the globe (Dhar-Chowdhury et al. 2017). (3) Marburg fever and highly associated Ebola hemorrhagic fever, both zoonotic viral infections are deadly and have connections with the environmental variations, particularly the seasonal patterns of rainfall and aridity. Consequently, it is expected that climate changes have impacts on the illness and global distribution of the viral diseases (Dhimal et al. 2015). In addition to parasitic and viral diseases, the leprosy may be among the most dangerous newly emerging bacterial NTDs. The pathogen responsible is Mycobacterium lepra. Even though leprosy has already been eradicated from Europe for centuries, some European countries have recently seen a partial resurgence of NTDs. In Spain, 168 leprosy cases were reported between 2003-2013. 40 of them were Spanish patients, with the remaining being undocumented immigrants (Sabourin et al. 2018).

Factors Contributing towards Outbreaks in Perspective to Climate Change

There are many factors responsible for the outbreaks of zoonotic infectious diseases. Source of disease transmission is one of the major contributing factors, so it has been discussed in detail here.

Food and Water Borne Diseases

Food- and water-borne illnesses pose a severe threat to global public health. Food and waterborne outbreaks are directly

linked to climatic changes and ecosystem disruptions. These are more prevalent in the summer and become more prevalent as the temperature and humidity rises (Kumar et al. 2022). The frequency and intensity of floods and high rains has been increased due to ocean warming and hurricanes. Due to this the water-borne illnesses such as cryptosporidiosis, giardiasis, outbreaks with pathogenic *E coli*, *Shigella*, cholera, *Salmonella*, and viral hepatitis has also been increased (Pal et al. 2018). This is might be due the reason that floods and a rise in water level has affected the sewage drainage systems due to overloading and overflowing which ultimately becomes a source of contamination of drinking water and spreading of such infections among the human and animal population consuming that contaminated water (Portier et al. 2017).

Hence, the prevalence of the enteric/diarrheal illness has been increased manifolds around the globe and will continue to increase in coming years. In addition to these, global warming can also generate fatal epidemics, such as those brought on by the fatal thermophilic free-living amoeba Naegleria fowleri, which causes meningoencephalitis (Daisy 2019). The literature suggested that most water-borne outbreaks in the USA began during periods of heavy rainfall (Pal et al. 2018). Cholera, an illness brought on by Vibrio cholerae, is the most well-known water-borne illness. The disease is spread by consuming contaminated water. Cholera is a temperature-dependent illness that gets worse as the temperature of the water rises. Vibrio spp. infections are a classical illustration of how ecology and global warming affect the emergence of diseases. The number of plankton in the sea is impacted by the rise in water temperature. Vibrio population growth is caused by the symbiotic connection between plankton and vibrio. Swimmers with broken skin and shellfish eaters are more susceptible to contracting the virus. Both zooplankton and Vibrio cholera will also grow tremendously as water temperatures rises (Anas et al. 2021) As a result of global warming, the prevalence of Vibrioassociated infections has obviously increased over the past several decades and had been reached to many nations in Northern Europe (WHO 2021). During the hot summers, such illnesses spread through swimming pools and coastal communities (Leng et al. 2019). Leptospirosis and other water-borne illnesses like gastroenteritis are frequently linked to severe rain and flooding (Alcayna et al. 2022).

Selective fungal adaptation to higher ambient temperatures that mimic those of mammals will occur because of the temperature increase. Due to mammals' body temperatures, pathogenic fungi that are currently not pathogenic to them will therefore be able to infect them in the future (Shokri et al. 2020). Non-infectious diseases can spread due to climatic conditions as well, such as the diseases related to bovines and poultry. For such kind of pathogens, the climate change and global warming are very favorable. The reason might be that due to climate changes including heavy rainfall and high humidity increases the growth of such pathogenic fungi and increase the mycotoxins associated problems in the animals and humans. In addition, there is an increase in food poisonings during the hot summer because of a number of correlated causes, including increased bacterial survivability, an increase in dining out frequency and a higher number of insects and rodents during the hot season (Paterson et al. 2018; El-Sayed and Kamel 2020).

Climatic Changes Effects on Diseases Prevalence

As already described above that Climatic conditions have drastic effects on disease prevalence. Following are described in detail:

1. Insects and Insects Borne Diseases

The spatiotemporal extension of the vector host dimensions, and the onset of the diseases are both influenced by global warming in a complicated but balanced manner (Kholoud et al. 2018). Pathogens that are transmitted by vectors are typically localized to regions where those vectors are found. However, it makes logical sense that the spread of these vector-borne illnesses and the introduction of transmitting vectors to new geographic areas is a main problem. This can be further explained through the spread of diseases to those regions of the world where these parasites were not present earlier (Kading et al. 2018). Due to the spread of their vectors, various diseases, including dengue fever, West Nile fever, chikungunya fever, malaria, leishmaniasis, Lyme disease, and tick-borne encephalitis, have been able to appear in Europe in recent years (Gossner et al. 2018). It is important to not underestimate the potential of new infectious diseases to emerge as a result of the geographic invading of the pathogen harboring vectors. For example, one vector such as the mosquito Aedes albopictus, is capable of transmitting at least 22 different arbovirus species, as well as a number of parasitic illnesses (Kading et al. 2018). Several typical instances of newly discovered and remerged diseases that have affected the people and animals or both have been discussed in Table 1.

In North America and Scandinavia, VBDs first appeared because of migration of vectors like ticks. Babesiosis, anaplasmosis, and Powassan encephalitis are among the illnesses transmitted by ticks, while dengue fever and malaria are transmitted by mosquitoes. Other insects, like sandfly spread diseases including leishmaniasis, Boutonneuse fever, and Lyme disease. Similar to this, health records indicate that the southern spread of the eucalyptus in Australia has increased the prevalence of diseases which are co-related to the parasites, bacteria and viruses and considered to be the possible economic losses threats and trade restrictions on animals/animals products in the region (Caminade et al. 2019).

2. Tick Borne Diseases (TBDs)

In Europe and Asia, there are ample evidence linking to the spread of different emerging TBDs (Rubel et al. 2018; Wikel 2018; Michelitsch et al. 2019). Long - term research over

Emerging Infectious Diseases

origin (Ixna	ii ci al. 2017)		
	Bacterial	Viral	Parasitic
Human	• Bovine Tb	• (COVID-19)	Schistosomiasis
	• Hemorrhagic colitis (HC)	• (MERS)	 Toxoplasmosis
	• Eserchia Coli (STEC)	• SARS	• Malaria
		Ebolavirus infection	Dengue Fever
Animal	Swine edema	• Swine acute diarrhea syndrome coronavirus (SADS-CoV)	 Fasciolosis
	• <i>E. coli</i>)	Lumpy Skin Disease	Trypanosomiasis
	• B. henselae		
	Pasteurellosis		
Zoonoses	• MERSA	West Nile fever	 Leishmaniasis
	Brucellosis	Rabies	 Ascariasis
	Leptospirosis	Avian influenza	 Babesiosis
	Anthrax	• CCHF	 Toxoplasmosis
	Tuberculosis	Dengue Fever	 Amebiasis
		HIV Infection	 Giardiasis
		Chikungunya yirus	 Malaria

 Table 1: Summary of some important (Emerging and Remerging) Human, animal, and zoonotic diseases of bacterial, viral and parasitic origin (Khan et al. 2019)

thirty years of tick development monitoring in Sweden also supported these findings (Rubel et al. 2018). Due to global warming, some tick species in Canada and Europe have moved their habitat to higher altitudes and toward the north, extending their active season and improving their chances of survival in the environment. As a result, tick-borne illnesses like anaplasmosis, Babesiosis, Powassan virus, Rickettsia helvetica, Neoehrlichia mikurensis, and Borrelia miyamotoi disorders have been proliferated (Kayacan and Akgul 2022). Despite the fact that ticks can spread a wider variety of pathogens than any other arthropod vector, luckily, tickborne diseases typically develop considerably slower than mosquito-borne infections, those have more severe effects on the host and quicker in action TBDs (Wikel 2018). In USA, it has been roughly estimated that about 95% of the emerging diseases have transmitted through the tick bites and these diseases were included in the category of TBDs (Esser et al. 2019). The main tick that is most importantly involved in the spreading of the disease in the Europe, Eurasia, UK and in Germany is Ixodid racinous. Dermacentor reticulatus, the tick species that transmits the tick-borne encephalitis virus, the Omsk haemorrhagic fever virus, Rickettsia slovaca, Rickettsia raoultii, Anaplasma marginale, Babesia canis, Babesia caballi, and Theileria equi, were also observed to be expanding across Europe and Eurasia (Michelitsch et al. 2019). Similar kind of reports of different parasites emerging from the different area of these regions have also been reported (Jsaenson et al. 2018).

Babesiosis instances in humans have lately been recorded in Canada, Europe, and Japan (Vannier and Krause 2020). Due to global warming, the warmer winters of the past ten years have encouraged tick proliferation (Sergeev et al. 2022). About 11 bacterial tick-borne human diseases, including Rickettsial and Borrelia species, have been identified in Europe in recent years (Pennisi 2021). The infections are propagated epidemiologically by the ticks those are carried by migratory birds. According to literature, at least one tick was present on 16 of the 43 species of migratory birds. Along with *Babesia microti*, *B. capreoli*, and *B. venatorum* to varying degrees, the ticks tested positive for *C. burnetii*, *Rickettsia spp.*, and *R. helvetica* (Lu et al. 2016). In addition to birds, ticks have recently been found to play an epidemiological role in the spread of the zoonotic bacteria *Coxiella burnetii* (Koehler et al. 2019). Additionally, ticks have the ability to spread a wide range of dangerous zoonotic infections (Tokarz et al. 2018; Anas et al. 2021).

Crimean Congo hemorrhagic fever (CCHF) is a second zoonotic tick-borne viral illness that has emerged in Europe and the causative agent of this disease has been transferred from tick and causes many complications in the host body and sometime leads to the death of the host. Due to high mortality in humans, the CCHFV poses a serious threat to public health in Europe. The virus is transmitted to ruminants by the Hyalomma tick, and it is currently endemic in Asia, Eastern and Southern Europe, the Middle East, Africa, and the Balkan Peninsula. This tick population have the potential to infiltrate and emerge in new areas due to warmer climatic conditions. Emergence of Piroplasmid (such as Babesia and Theileria) have also been linked with the tick prevalence in the region. The most significant protozoal disease transmitted by ticks to the cattle is babesiosis and other large ruminants as well as in small ruminants characterized by the onset of high fever and destruction of the red blood cells. As a result of this condition there is hemoglobinuria, which is also the pathognomonic symptom of this particular disease. Babesiosis is a widespread animal health problem that has caused significant financial losses in the veterinary industry. Having zoonotic potential, now it poses risk to the human health also. Human babesiosis is also transferred from the infected animals and its transmission is directly related with the geographic expansion of tick's host induced by the climate changes (Baylis 2017). Babesia have more than 100 identified species and among these B. microti, B. duncani and B. divergens have zoonotic potential (Vannier and Krause 2020). Along with Babesia, other significant infections include Anaplasma and Ehrlichia (Reaser et al. 2021) those have zoonotic implications. Humans, cattle, horses and dogs all are susceptible to the deadly illness caused by *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* that is transmitted through ticks. Different tick species those are indigenous to Europe (*Ixodes ricinus*), North America (*Ixodes scapularis, Ixodes pacificus* and *Ixodes spinipalpis*), and Asia (*Ixodes persulcatus*) are the possible vectors for the spread of the disease (Vannier and Krause 2020).

Ehrlichia, a similarly related pathogen carried by ticks, can also infect people and animals. *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* and *Ehrlichia ewingii* (Monocytes Ehrlichiosis) can cause the disorders in humans, whereas *Ehrlichia ruminantium* can cause the disease in cattle (Wang et al. 2020). Other Ehrlichia species, such as *Ehrlichia canis*, *Ehrlichia muris*, and *Ehrlichia mineirensis*, can also cause some other types of ehrlichiosis (Ganta 2022).

Due to the spread of ticks, Lyme disease and tick-borne encephalitis (TBE) appeared in Europe. Even in Scandinavia, cases of both diseases have been documented. The prevalence of the disease is rising at alarming level as a result of global warming and the northward spread of the tick vector (Healy et al. 2020). Scandinavian winters have gotten warmer since the middle of the 1980s. Tick borne encephalitis (TBE) has become more prevalent, uniformly, and consistently. Many factors, including climatic change, are thought to be the true cause of this increase (Gilbert 2016; Efstratiou et al. 2021). Lyme borreliosis, incidence in Europe grew over the past ten years, not just in endemic regions but also in new geographic areas, particularly in the Netherlands and Belgium. According to estimates, at least 85,000 persons in Europe contract Lyme borreliosis each year (Hofhuis 2015). In Europe, Borrelia burgdorferi and Borrelia mayonii are the major pathogens that causes the disease. However, other Borrelia species have been identified as powerful zoonotic spirochetes transmitted by the Ixodes ricinus complex in North America and Europe (Nah 2020).

Rabbit fever (tularemia) is another emerging zoonotic disease which is particularly transmitted by the ticks and flies and has been recognized under the umbrella of TBDs (Kukla et al. 2022). Additional ectoparasites like fleas, triatomine bugs, and blood sucking flies including deerfly (Chrysops spp.), horsefly (Tabanus spp.), and sandfly (Phlebotomus and Lutzomyia spp.) were also implicated in the introduction of emerging diseases like tularemia, plague, Leishmaniasis, and trypanosomiasis (El-Sayed and Kamel 2020). Sandfly of the Phlebotomus genus can spread both forms of leishmaniasis. The infections first appeared in European nations, where they afflicted both humans and canines (Bennai et al. 2018). The discovery of sandflies was linked to the growth of leishmaniasis, mostly in dogs and the global warming was documented as a possible factor for their spread around the globe (Kukla et al. 2022).

T. brucei gambiense and *T. brucei rhodesiense*, the protozoa that cause African trypanosomiasis (sleeping sickness), are spread by tsetse flies. It is predicted that 30,000 people would contract the parasite during this century as a result of the

vector growth linked to global warming, while 70 million people will be at danger (Moreno et al. 2019). A second type of trypanosomiasis known as Chagas disease, which is induced by *Trypanosoma cruzi* and spread by the bite of the kissing bug, *Triatoma infestans*, or by ingesting water or food contaminated with the feces of the infected bugs, began to appear in Latin America. It was reported that the sickness has spread throughout Central and North America. At the time, the number of Americans who have the illness is estimated to be 300,000 (Montgomery 2016) The plague-causing agent *Yersinia pestis* is transmitted by the flea *Xenopsylla cheopis*. The flea vector and *Yersinia pestis* both benefit from warmer and humid weather (Levy et al. 2021).

3. Rodents and Rodents Borne Diseases

In the epidemiology of disease onset and reemergence, rodents are crucial. They have the capacity to disseminate a variety of zoonotic disease agents, either directly or indirectly (as with plague). Around the globe, the growth and infection graph of rodents is increasing day by day and they are also held responsible for the emergence and re-emergence of many zoonotic diseases (Göotz et al. 2018; Khanal et al. 2022).

Conclusion

As a result of climatic change, the global atmosphere is currently undergoing accelerated destruction, which must be stopped or at least slowed down. In addition to the introduction of infectious diseases, the disruption of healthy ecosystems has long-term, direct and indirect negative repercussions that endanger the lives of people, animals, and plants. In coming years, human and animals are at risk not only in terms of food security but emergence and reemergence of deadly pathogens outbreaks. Efforts should be made to preserve the natural balance between ecosystems. Humans should play a sensible role to preserve the flora and fauna of the system and avoid making the drastic environmental changes just for their own comfort. Positive contributions should be made to keep the climate safe, and this can only be achieved if all the nations join hands without any discrimination. All the professionals (Doctors, veterinarians, Scientists, and environmental engineers) should join hands and work for the global health.

REFERENCES

- Agache I et al., 2022. Climate change and global health: a call to more research and more action. Allergy 77: 1389-1407.
- Alcayna T et al., 2022. Climate-sensitive disease outbreaks in the aftermath of extreme climatic events: A scoping review. One Earth 5: 336-350.
- Anas A et al., 2021. Dynamics of Vibrio cholerae in a typical tropical lake and estuarine system: potential of remote sensing for risk mapping. Remote Sensing 13: 1034.

- Andreassen A et al., 2012. Prevalence of tick-borne encephalitis virus in tick nymphs in relation to climatic factors on the southern coast of Norway. Parasite Vectors 5: 177
- Antonenko YN et al., 2013. Penetrating cations enhance uncoupling activity of an- ionic protonophores in mitochondria. PLoS One 8: e61902.
- Ariza L et al., 2013. Investigation of a scabies outbreak in a kindergarten in Constance, Germany. European Journal of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases 32: 373–380
- Baker RE et al., 2022. Infectious disease in an era of global change. Nature Reviews Microbiology 20: 193-205.
- Baylis M, 2017. Potential impact of climate change on emerging vector- borne and other infections in the UK. Environmental Health 16: 112
- Belter M et al., 2020. Coral reef condition: A status report for the Flower Garden Banks.
- Bennai K et al., 2018. Molecular detection of Leishmania infantum DNA and host blood meal identification in Phlebotomus in a hypoendemic focus of human leishmaniasis in northern Algeria. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 12: e0006513.
- Biagini P et al., 2012. Variola virus in a 300-year-old Siberian mummy. New England Journal of Medicine 367: 2057-2059.
- Bojko J et al., 2021. Panopeispora mellora n. gen. n. sp.(microsporidia) infecting Say's crab (Dyspanopeus sayi) from the Atlantic shoreline of Canada. Journal of Invertebrate Pathology 184: 107652.
- Brugueras S et al., 2020. Environmental drivers, climate change and emergent diseases transmitted by mosquitoes and their vectors in southern Europe: A systematic review. Environmental Research 191: 110038.
- Buhler KJ et al., 2022. Combining deep sequencing and conventional molecular approaches reveals broad diversity and distribution of fleas and Bartonella in rodents and shrews from Arctic and Subarctic ecosystems. Parasites and Vectors 15: 1-14.
- Caminade C et al., 2019. Impact of recent and future climate change on vector-borne diseases. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 1436: 157-173.
- Cassell JA et al., 2018. Scabies outbreaks in ten care homes for elderly people: a prospective study of clinical features, epidemiology, and treatment outcomes. The Lancet Infectious Diseases 18:894–902
- CDC 2017. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention The burden of schistosomiasis (schisto, bilharzia, snail fever)
- Daisy SS, 2019. Hydro-climatic impact on cholera incidence in Dhaka under global warming.
- Dhar-Chowdhury P et al., 2017. Dengue seropreva- lence, seroconversion and risk factors in Dhaka, Bangladesh. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 11: e0005475
- Dhimal M et al., 2015. Risk factors for the presence of chikungunya and dengue vectors (Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus), their altitudinal distribution and climatic determinants of their abundance in central Nepal. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 9: 201-230
- Efstratiou A et al., 2021. Tick-Borne Pathogens and Diseases in Greece. Microorganisms 9(8): 1732.
- El-Sayed A and Kamel M, 2020. Climatic changes and their role in emergence and re-emergence of diseases. Environmental Science and Pollution Research 27: 22336-22352.
- Esser HJ et al., 2019. Risk factors associated with sustained circulation of six zoonotic arboviruses: a systematic review for

selection of surveillance sites in non-endemic areas. Parasites and Vectors 121: 1-17.

- Ganta RR, 2022. Anaplasmataceae: Ehrlichia and Neorickettsia. Veterinary Microbiology 56: 386-391.
- Ghazali D et al., 2018. Climate change impacts on disaster and emergency medicine focusing on mitigation disruptive effects: an international perspective. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health 14: 623-633.
- Gilbert L, 2016. Louping ill virus in the UK: a review of the hosts, transmission and ecological consequences of control. Experimental and Applied Acarology 68: 363–374.
- Goshua A et al., 2021. Addressing climate change and its effects on human health: A call to action for medical schools. Academic Medicine 96: 324-328.
- Gossner CM et al., 2018. Increased risk for autochthonous vectorborne infections transmitted by Aedes albopictus in continental Europe. Eurosurveillance 23: 1800268.
- Göotz J et al., 2018. Rodent models for Alzheimer disease. Nature Reviews Neuroscience 19: 583-598.
- Healy C et al., 2020. Using agent-based models to inform the dynamics of winter tick parasitism of moose. Ecological Complexity 41: 100813.
- Hofhuis A, 2015. Continuing increase of tick bites and Lyme disease between 1994 and 2009. Ticks and Tick-Borne Diseases 6: 69– 74
- Huürlimann E et al., 2011. Toward an open-access global database for mapping, control, and surveillance of neglected tropical diseases. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 5(12): e1404.
- Jsaenson TG et al., 2018. The importance of wildlife in the ecology and epidemiology of the TBE virus in Sweden: incidence of human TBE correlates with abundance of deer and hares. Parasites and Vectors 11: 1-18.
- Josefsen TD et al., 2018. Bacterial infections and diseases. In: Tryla M, editor. Reindeer and Caribou: Health and disease: CRC Press; pp: 237-272.
- Joshi M et al., 2020. Alcoholic Liver Disease Patients Listed for Liver Transplantation: An Overview from 2002-2017. Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology Research 9: 3309-3312.
- Kading RC et al., 2018. Advanced surveillance and preparedness to meet a new era of invasive vectors and emerging vector-borne diseases. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 12: e0006761.
- Kayacan ZC and Akgul O, 2022. Climate change and its extensions in infectious diseases: South-Eastern Europe under focus. South Eastern European Journal of Public Health.
- Khan MD et al., 2019. Aggravation of Human Diseases and Climate Change Nexus. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health 16(15) 2799.
- Khanal S et al., 2022. Potential impact of climate change on the distribution and conservation status of Pterocarpus marsupium, a Near Threatened South Asian medicinal tree species. Ecological Informatics 70: 101722.
- Khansins A et al., 2005. Global warming and infectious disease. Archives of Medical Research 36: 689-696.
- Kholoud K et al., 2018. Management of leishmaniases in the era of climate change in Morocco. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health 15: 1542.
- Koehler LM et al., 2019. Comprehensive literature review of the sources of infection and transmission routes of Coxiella burnetii, with particular regard to the criteria of "evidence-based medicine". Comparative Immunology, Microbiology and Infectious Diseases 64: 67–72.

- Kukla R et al., 2022. Francisella tularensis caused cervical lymphadenopathy in little children after a tick bite: Two case reports and a short literature review. Ticks and Tick-borne Diseases 13: 101893.
- Kumar P et al., 2022. Prevalence and predictors of water-borne diseases among elderly people in India: evidence from Longitudinal Ageing Study in India, 2017–18. BMC Public Health 22: 1-11.
- Leng F et al., 2019. Epidemiology, pathogenetic mechanism, clinical characteristics, and treatment of Vibrio vulnificus infection: a case report and literature review. European Journal of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases 38: 1999-2004.
- Levy DJ et al., 2021. Role of the inhibitor of serine peptidase 2 (ISP2) of Trypanosoma brucei rhodesiense in parasite virulence and modulation of the inflammatory responses of the host. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 15(6): e0009526.
- Liu C et al., 2019. Perinatal health of refugee and asylum-seeking women in Sweden 2014–17: a register-based cohort study. European Journal of Public Health s29: 1048-1055.
- Lu P et al., 2016. RNA interference and the vaccine effect of a subolesin homolog from the tick Rhipicephalus haemaphysaloides. Experimental and Applied Acarology 68: 113–126.
- Medone P et al., 2015. The impact of climate change on the geographical distribution of two vectors of Chagas disease: implications for the force of infection. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 370: 203-2032.
- Michelitsch A et al., 2019. Exploring the reservoir hosts of tickborne encephalitis virus. Viruses 11: 669.
- Montgomery S, 2016. What do we know about Chagas disease in the United States?. The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene s95(6): 1225.
- Mor S et al., 2018. Climatic influence on anthrax suitability in warming northern latitudes. Scientific Reports 8: 1-9.
- Moreno CJG et al., 2019. Trypanosoma brucei interaction with host: Mechanism of VSG release as target for drug discovery for african trypanosomiasis. International Journal of Molecular Sciences 20: 1484.
- Morgan ER et al., 2021. Angiostrongylosis in animals and humans in Europe. Pathogens 10: 1236.
- Mutlu F and Nacaroglu O, 2019. Examination of Perceptions of Gifted Students about Climate Change and Global Warming. Journal of Baltic Science Education 18: 780-792.
- Myhre G et al., 2019. Frequency of extreme precipitation increases extensively with event rareness under global warming. Scientific Reports 9: 1-10.
- Nah K, 2020. The potential impact of climate change on the transmission risk of tick-borne encephalitis in Hungary. BMC Infectious Diseases 20: 1-10.
- Nava A et al., 2017. The impact of global environmental changes on infectious disease emergence with a focus on risks for Brazil. ILAR Journal 58: 393–400
- Ogden NH and Lindsay LR, 2016. Effects of climate and climate change on vectors and vector-borne diseases: ticks are different. Trends in Parasitology 32: 646–656

- Pal M et al., 2018. Public health hazards due to unsafe drinking water. Air and Water Borne Diseases 7: 20-34.
- Paterson DL et al., 2018. Health risks of flood disasters. Clinical Infectious Diseases 67: 1450-1454.
- Pennisi E, 2021. Researchers probe climate as a cause of banner nut years. Science (New York, NY) 374: 1034-1035.
- Portier C et al., 2017. A human health perspec- tive on climate change: a report outlining the research needs on the human health effects of climate change. Environmental Health Perspectives/National Institute of Environmental Health.
- Reaser JK et al., 2021. Ecological countermeasures for preventing zoonotic disease outbreaks: when ecological restoration is a human health imperative. Restoration Ecology 29: e13357.
- Rubel F et al., 2018. Geographical distribution, climate adaptation and vector competence of the Eurasian hard tick Haemaphysalis concinna. Ticks and Tick-borne Diseases 9: 1080-1089.
- Sabourin E et al., 2018. Impact of human activities on fasciolosis transmission. Trends in Parasitology 34: 891-903.
- Sellers S et al., 2019. Climate change, human health, and social stability: addressing interlinkages. Environmental Health Perspectives 127: 045002.
- Sergeev A et al., 2022. The role of climate change in the spread of vectors and vector-borne disease in Windsor-Essex County. Environmental Health Review 65: 95-101.
- Shokri A et al., 2020. Impacts of flood on health of Iranian population: Infectious diseases with an emphasis on parasitic infections. Parasite Epidemiology and Control 9: e00144.
- Tokarz R et al., 2018. Identification of novel viruses in Amblyomma americanum, Dermacentor variabilis, and Ixodes scapularis ticks. mSphere 3: e00614–e00617.
- Vannier E and Krause PJ, 2020. Babesiosis. In: Hunter's tropical medicine and emerging infectious diseases: Ryan ET, Hill DR, Solomon T, Naomi E, Trimothy P, editors. Elsevier; pp: 799– 802.
- Wang Y et al., 2020. Multiple Ehrlichia chaffeensis genes critical for its persistent infection in a vertebrate host are identified by random mutagenesis coupled with in vivo infection assessment. Infection and Immunity 88: e00316-20.
- Weilnhammer V et al., 2019. Extreme Weather Events in Europe and Their Possible Health Consequences; a Systematic Review. Environmental Epidemiology 3: 432-433.
- WHO, 2017. WHO report 2017: Global environmental change.
- Wikel SK, 2018. Ticks and tick-borne infections: complex ecology, agents, and host interactions. Veterinary Sciences 5: 60-87.
- World Health Organization, 2021. Advances in science and risk assessment tools for Vibrio parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus associated with seafood: Meeting report (Vol. 35). Food and Agriculture Organization.
- Wu XX et al., 2014. Impact of global change on transmission of human infectious diseases. Science China Earth Sciences 57: 189–203.
- Zhang S et al., 2019. Zoonotic source attribution of Salmonella enterica serotype Typhimurium using genomic surveillance data, United States. Emerging Infectious Diseases 25: 82-102.
- Zhang Y et al., 2017. Co-benefits of global, domestic, and sectoral greenhouse gas mitigation for US air quality and human health in 2050. Environmental Research Letters 12: 114033