

### **Fungal Zoonosis and One Health**



Umber Rauf<sup>1</sup>, Kashifa Fakhar<sup>2</sup>, Nauman Rafique<sup>3</sup>, Saba Mehnaz<sup>3</sup>, Asima Yasin<sup>\*4</sup>, Jawad Ahmad<sup>4</sup>, Tabassam Fatima<sup>5</sup> and Sardar Zarq Khan niazi<sup>6</sup>

### ABSTRACT

Opportunistic fungi pose health risks, particularly for immunocompromised individuals. Agricultural azoles, widely used fungicides, may contribute to antifungal resistance in human populations. Climate change expands the geographical scope of fungal diseases, impacting both humans and animals. Animal-associated fungal infections, including zoonotic agents and environmental pathogens, present diverse challenges. Emerging zoonotic fungal diseases, with varying clinical manifestations, constitute a significant public health concern. The diminishing efficacy of antifungal medications necessitates innovative solutions to combat fungal infections. The intersection of agroecosystems and human health underscores the need for a comprehensive One Health approach. Collaborative efforts among medical professionals, veterinarians, policymakers, and other stakeholders are vital to address fungal infections and antifungal resistance, ensuring a holistic defense against the evolving challenges posed by these pathogens. The proactive implementation of One Health strategies at local, regional, national, and global levels is indispensable for effective prevention and control of fungal diseases.

**Keywords:** Opportunistic fungi, agricultural azoles, climate change, zoonotic fungal diseases, antifungal resistance, One Health approach.

#### CITATION

Rauf U, Fakhar K, Rafique N, Mehnaz S, Yasin A, Fatima T and Niazi SZK, 2023. Fungal zoonosis and one health. In: Altaf S, Khan A and Abbas RZ (eds), Zoonosis, Unique Scientific Publishers, Faisalabad, Pakistan, Vol 4: 407-419. <u>https://doi.org/10.47278/book.zoon/2023.165</u>

CHAPTER HISTORY Received: 19-April-2023 Revised: 20-June-2023 Accepted: 23-Aug-2023

<sup>1</sup>Veterinary Research Institute, Lahore

<sup>2</sup>Diagnostic Laboratory, Department of Pathology, Faculty of Veterinary Science, University of Agriculture Faisalabad

<sup>3</sup> Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Veterinary Science, University of Agriculture Faisalabad

<sup>4</sup>College of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Sub-Campus UVAS, Jhang, Pakistan

<sup>5</sup>Department of Pathobiology, Riphah College of Veterinary Sciences, Lahore

<sup>6</sup>Department of Animal Production, Riphah College of Veterinary Sciences, Lahore

\*Corresponding author: asimayasin084@gmail.com



### 1. INTRODUCTION

The term "One Health" encompasses a strategic approach that embodies collaboration and synergistic efforts across the realms of animal health, environmental health, and human health, coupled with their associated domains of expertise. Idea of One Health was originally introduced in 2003 by conservationists, this concept sought to counteract the emergence of infectious diseases stemming from wildlife. Over time, the One Health concept has gained considerable traction, especially within the discourse on pandemic preparedness. Subsequently, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), and the World Health Organization (WHO) have jointly embraced the One Health approach, recognizing its potential to galvanize concerted action. This initiative has further expanded the horizons of One Health, encompassing enzootic infections and the formidable challenge of antimicrobial resistance (AMR), thereby embracing the intricate interconnectedness of health concerns that traverse diverse domains (Abbas et al. 2022).

Central to the One Health strategy is the profound recognition of the interdependence of human, animal, and environmental well-being. This holistic approach to health underscores the undeniable fact that the state of one facet profoundly reverberates across the others. Importantly, it acknowledges the potential for diseases to transcend species barriers, thereby traversing seamlessly between animal and human populations. This holistic engagement of experts hailing from multifarious disciplines assumes an instrumental role in adeptly addressing the complex health challenges that confront us and charting a course toward comprehensive solutions (Gebreyes 2014; Häsler et al. 2020).

Fungi, occupying a pivotal ecological niche, function as primary decomposers within specific ecosystems and also establish symbiotic relationships with numerous organisms. These remarkable organisms contribute enzymes and medicinal compounds and serve as invaluable subjects for scientific experimentation. A monumental milestone was achieved in 1991 through a seminal research paper projecting the existence of approximately 1.5 million fungal species on our planet. Remarkably, this estimation was based on a mere 70,000 fungal species that had been formally documented until that juncture. This projection ignited a fervent quest to unearth hitherto undiscovered fungal species. Indeed, fungi traverse diverse ecosystems, permeating the natural environment. They execute a myriad of functions, many of which are intrinsic to the seamless functioning of ecosystems. However, it is important to acknowledge that certain fungal species can pose potential threats to human and animal health, potentially culminating in various infections and diseases.

Amid the complexity of fungal diversity, accurate differentiation between pathogenic and nonpathogenic fungal species emerges as a pivotal tenet. This distinction assumes paramount importance, enabling precise diagnosis and effective management of fungal infections. More recent estimations, grounded in advanced high-throughput sequencing methodologies, propose that the actual number of fungal species might surge to a staggering 5.1 million (Blackwell 2011). Such revelations underscore the imperative of robust interdisciplinary collaborations within the framework of One Health, as this approach holds the key to deciphering the intricate symbiosis between fungi, animals, humans, and the environment to mitigate risks, harness benefits, and propel a holistic paradigm of health and well-being.

#### 2. FUNGI BASICS

Fungi stand as pivotal protagonists in the unfolding narrative of the emerging bioeconomy, effectively addressing the urgent global challenges at hand. They assume the role of indispensable agents, helping in resource productivity, generating renewable alternatives to fossil-derived products, transmuting waste streams into valuable constituents for sustenance and animal feed, combating lifestyle-related ailments, countering antibiotic resistance by reinforcing the gut biome, reinforcing crop resilience in the face of climatic variations, and serving as fertile hosts for the genesis of innovative biological drugs. The genesis



of these transformative applications of fungi is indelibly linked to the devoted efforts of mycologists spanning generations. The realm of mycology has engendered a profound comprehension of fungal biodiversity, evolution, genetics, physiology, ecology, pathogenesis, and nutritional dynamics – elemental knowledge base that forms the essential for the advancement of applied mycology. To unlock the power of fungi for the environment and people, we need a worldwide effort to boost the field of mycology. The present juncture offers a fitting occasion to spotlight the monumental significance of fungi and the seminal role that mycology assumes in propelling sustainable global progress. Through heightened cognizance, we can harness the latent potential harbored within fungi and champion the ascendance of mycology. This undertaking will magnetize fresh talents into the discipline, gathering mycologists across the globe to secure imperative funding for fundamental research, and fortify the complex of the global mycology network. The progress of the bioeconomy, as propelled by the unparalleled attributes of fungi, rests on the basis of these pivotal steps. The fungal realm stands as an embodiment of inspiration, poised to render even more prodigious contributions (Lange 2014).

#### **3. ZOONOTIC FUNGAL DISEASES: A NEXUS OF CONCERN**

Zoonotic fungal diseases have emerged as a profound and intricate challenge to public health, traversing the intricate boundary between animals and humans. One exemplary illustration of this interplay is the occurrence of ringworm, which is caused by dermatophytes. This zoonotic fungal infection accentuates the remarkable capacity of these diseases to effortlessly transcend species barriers. The remarkably diverse transmission modalities encompass direct contact with infected animals, their body excretions, or environments contaminated with fungal spores (Chowdhary et al. 2017).

Similarly, the pathology of Penicilliosis exemplifies the intriguing connection between the human population and specific domestic companions like dogs and cats. In human, particularly those who are not immunosuppressed, this disorder shows a complex of symptoms, including generalized lymphadenopathy, febrile episodes, unintended weight loss, anemia, and an unproductive cough. Nonetheless, in the context of individuals infected with HIV, Penicilliosis assumes a far more aggressive character, extending its grasp to encompass a myriad of organs and tissues such as the skin, reticuloendothelial system, lungs, and intestines.

In a clear difference, the occurrence of penicilliosis (Penicilliosis is a fungal infection caused by the fungus *Penicillium marneffei*) in domestic animals like dogs and cats is rare. Among canines and felines, clinical manifestations are evident in various forms, ranging from dermatitis to rhinitis and *Otitis externa*. Closer examination reveals a spectrum of symptoms, including nasal discharge, external nasal ulcerations, and intriguingly, epistaxis. A curious observation lies in the fact that seemingly healthy canines can serve as asymptomatic carriers. Interestingly, up to 40% of dogs exhibit positive indications of *Talaromyces marneffei* in nasal swabs. There are also instances where dogs show disseminated infections, characterized by lymphadenopathy and bronchopneumonia (Seyedmousavi et al. 2015).

The complex connection between fungal diseases that can spread between animals and humans makes us think deeply. We need to explore how these diseases spread and affect different species, it's clear that we must fully understand them. This calls for teamwork among experts in medicine, veterinary science, and ecology to work together to solve these health challenges.

In these collaborative efforts, the search of knowledge shows importance, unreveal the effective strategies for prevention, intervention, and mitigation. Such efforts rest on a foundation of an accurate research that open up the complex mechanisms of zoonotic fungal diseases and their interactions with hosts. As we separate the underlying principles governing the emergence, transmission, and virulence of these fungal infections, we unearth insights that can guide the development of targeted interventions and therapeutics.



Moreover, fostering a shared understanding among medical professionals, veterinarians, ecologists, and researchers is pivotal. This symbiotic relationship facilitates the exchange of insights and experiences, enriching our collective knowledge reservoir. It paves the way for the identification of risk factors, the development of early detection methods, and the implementation of robust surveillance systems.

So, zoonotic fungal diseases highlight the complex interaction between animals and humans, transcending species boundaries with ease. The complex manifestations of these diseases in various hosts including humans, dogs, and cats have highlighted the need for comprehensive research and collaborative efforts across disciplines. The pursuit of knowledge, coupled with interdisciplinary cooperation, lays the foundation for effective management strategies. As we unravel the mysteries of these diseases, we illuminate pathways toward safeguarding both human and animal health.

#### 4. FUNGAL PATHOGENS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC HEALTH

Fungi, often eclipsed by their more overt infectious counterparts, possess the latent potential to provoke a wide-range of diseases within human and animals. As our comprehension of these infections attains depth, the realization dawns that fungal pathogens, far from their seemingly superficial identity, wield the capacity to induce profound and intricate systemic illnesses. Moreover, the a lot of factors such as increased international travel, the increased use of immunosuppressive therapies, and the distresses in global climate has collectively created a breeding ground for the emergence and re-emergence of fungal diseases, magnifying their resonance within the domain of public health impact (Warnock 2006).

Fungal diseases affect human health in many ways, from simple skin infections to more severe and complex diseases that can harm the whole body. It is the vulnerable strata of our population, characterized by compromised immune systems as in case of HIV infection or passing through chemotherapy, who stands highly susceptibility to opportunistic fungis. A comprehensive grasp of the intricate epidemiology and weighty implications of these diseases assumes a pivotal role within the landscape of effective public health management (Brown et al., 2012; Benedict et al., 2016).

Foremost among these catalysts is the alarming increase in opportunistic infections, for example cryptococcosis and aspergillosis, which have high impact on immune-deficient hosts. This defenseless stratum includes people fighting with cancer, having organ transplants, people using immune-modulating drugs, and those having HIV/AIDS.

Among nosocomial infections, candidemia emerges as a major contributor to blood infections in the United States. The evolution of medical practice and advances in medicine are opening the gates to the invasion of new types of fungus, reinforced by challenging resistance to therapeutic intervention, within the field of medicine.

Concurrently, infections acquired within the community's shows a distinctive nomenclature such as coccidioidomycosis (also known as Valley Fever), blastomycosis, and histoplasmosis, trace their origins to fungi that have staked their ecological claim within specific geographic regions. These fungal organisms are characterized by their extraordinary sensitivity to fluctuations in temperature and humidity and have complex dynamics between climate and the course of disease spread. This delicate interaction lends an air of uncertainty when considering the potential effects of ongoing climate change on their distribution patterns and ecological behavior.

In summary, the debate about fungal diseases that intersects with public health resonates with an urgency that is both urgent and neglected. Fungal diseases may be overshadowed, but their influence is still undeniable. The convergence of their medical acumen, scientific research, and global awareness comes into focus as these diseases unravel the complex pathogenicity and pathways of disease control. Through these coordinated efforts, we strive to not only understand but also reduce the pressing threats posed by often-underestimated pathogens (Center for Disease Control and Prevention 2022). In





this way we can safeguard the well-being of human and animals, setting the stage for a more comprehensive and resilient paradigm of global health.

#### 5. ANTIFUNGAL RESISTANCE AND MECHANISM

An increase in the fungal infections could be due to the emergence of pathogenic variants that exhibit resistance to conventional antifungal therapies. This challenge is compounded by restricted access to novel pharmacological interventions. The resistance phenomenon can be classified into intrinsic (primary) forms, genetically determined and associated with fungal species independently of drug exposure, and acquired (secondary) forms, which arise due to specific factors, often linked to antifungal medications or their analogs (Ben-Ami and Kontoyiannis 2021). It's noteworthy that resistance-conferring transposons or plasmids in fungi do not readily traverse between isolates. Nonetheless, the extensive array of antifungal agents deployed for two decades or more heightens the vulnerability to resistance evolution. Over the past decade, systemic antifungal agents have witnessed substantial usage, particularly in High-Income Countries (HIC) (Pathadka et al. 2022). Prolonged therapeutic regimens can lead to compromising adherence and escalating the potential for medication-related toxicity and resistance. Moreover, fungi's rapid adaptability to shifti environmental dynamics fosters the emergence of strains resistant to antifungal interventions, engendering a predictable escalation in minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) values during treatment protocols.

Candida spp. stands as conspicuous examples of the most challenging pathogenic fungi on a global scale (Rabaan et al. 2023; Kaur and Nobile 2023). While the molecular substrates of Candida's resistance to antifungal treatment remain partly enigmatic, evidence interlinks mutations in ERG11 and TAC1B with fluconazole resistance, and mutations in the FKS gene with echinocandin resistance, characterized by upregulated multidrug efflux transporters and diminished glucan synthase sensitivity. Importantly, a significant proportion of *C. auris* isolates demonstrate fluconazole resistance, with approximately 30-50% showcasing resistance to amphotericin B, and a smaller fraction displaying resistance to echinocandins (Rybak et al. 2020; Izadi et al. 2022). Modern science has helped in understanding the high prevalence of Aspergillus strains resistant to azole antifungals, culminating in heightened morbidity, mortality, and resistance even against amphotericin B in specific Aspergillus lineages (Khojasteh et al. 2023). The ERG6 gene, governing the sterol-methyltransferase enzyme responsible for altering amphotericin B's molecular target, emerges as a point of implication. Although multiple studies have showcased in vitro resistance among Aspergillus spp. (Sen et al. 2022), a comprehensive comprehension of the correlation between amphotericin B's MIC values and clinical outcomes within distinct patient cohorts remains inchoate.

The intricate molecular underpinnings of resistance to triazoles predominantly encompass augmented expression of lanosterol  $14\alpha$ -demethylase, modifications in the binding locale, and intensified activity of transmembrane transport proteins facilitating drug efflux and curbing intracellular accumulation (Sen et al. 2022). This evolving landscape of antifungal resistance beckons for steadfast research, coordinated surveillance, and innovative therapeutic approaches. In the face of these mounting challenges, the preservation of effective antifungal armamentariums remains imperative for safeguarding human health. Fig. 1 shows antifungal drug resistance, its evolution, mechanism and impact.

Opportunistic pathogenic fungi are making their place in our surroundings, often disseminating an abundant spore payload into the atmosphere, subsequently exposing humans to these environmental fungal pathogens, manifesting as bioaerosols. Although these fungi commonly pose minimal peril to individuals in robust health, those grappling with compromised well-being or attenuated immunity are rendered susceptible to a spectrum of ailments. This spectrum encompasses superficial, allergic,



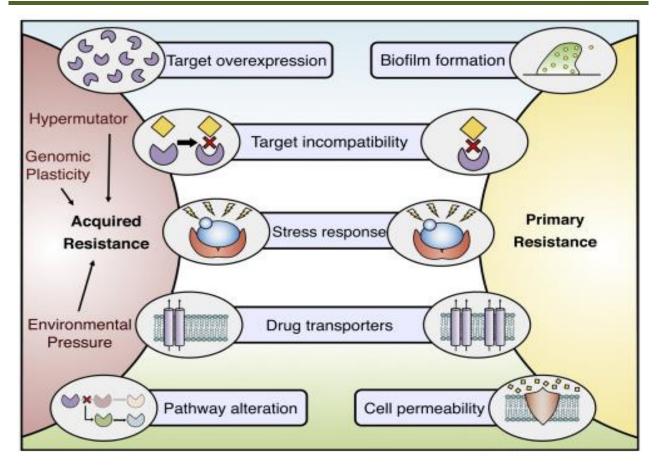


Fig. 1: Antifungal drug resistance: evolution, mechanism and impact

chronic, and in the gravest instances, potentially life-threatening invasive fungal diseases (IFDs). Notably, molecular epidemiological studies underscore the premise that the genesis of numerous fungal diseases is intricately interwoven with our environment (Fisher et al. 2022).

The links between environmental fungal populations and the subsequent human exposure to antifungal agents delineates a complexity where increasing environmental resistance may have effects on the clinical management of fungal infections. It highlights the constant need for innovation and adaptation to combat the ever-changing threats to crop health. Phytopathogenic fungi, which cause diseases in plants, can develop resistance to fungicides over time. This phenomenon is similar to the evolutionary arms race seen in other organisms, where the constant pressure to survive leads to the development of new strategies and defenses. The armamentarium of fungicides refers to the diverse range of fungicides available to farmers and growers to control fungal diseases. These fungicides work by targeting specific metabolic pathways or cellular processes in the fungi, inhibiting their growth and replication. However, over time, some fungi can develop mechanisms to overcome the effects of these fungicides, rendering them ineffective. This constant battle between fungicides and phytopathogenic fungi highlights the importance of integrated pest management strategies in agriculture. Instead of relying solely on fungicides, farmers need to adopt a holistic approach that includes crop rotation, genetic resistance, biological control agents, and cultural practices to reduce the reliance on fungicides and minimize the development of resistance. Furthermore, this evolutionary ballet serves as a reminder that the agricultural industry must continuously invest in research and development to stay ahead of the



evolving fungal pathogens. It is crucial to explore new modes of action for fungicides, develop innovative formulations, and enhance surveillance and monitoring systems to detect and respond to emerging resistance. By understanding and learning from the evolutionary ballet of phytopathogenic fungi, the agricultural industry can better protect its crops, ensure sustainable production, and mitigate the impact of fungicide resistance. It serves as a crucial lesson in the ongoing battle against plant diseases and the importance of staying one step ahead in the fight to protect our food supply. The constant evolution and adaptability of fungi in agriculture require agribusinesses to continually innovate and create modified versions of existing fungicides. They may also need to explore new chemical compositions to prevent the continuous development of resistance in fungi. This ongoing cycle of innovation is crucial to safeguarding crops from the relentless spread of resistance. (Steinberg et al. 2020).

A central point of concern revolves around the widespread application of broad-spectrum agricultural fungicides, particularly azoles, notable for their structural resonance with medical triazoles employed in the treatment of fungal infections. The global escalation in the utilization of agricultural azoles, coupled with their enduring presence in the environment, creates a milieu conducive to the potential incubation of resistance among opportunistic fungi. The emergence of azole-resistant fungal pathogens in human populations exhibits a strong correlation with the deployment of agricultural fungicides, casting the spotlight on potential eco-evolutionary linkages that seamlessly traverse the boundary between the environmental and clinical domains. This evokes valid concerns about the potential ramifications of agricultural practices in fostering the germination of antifungal resistance within the precincts of clinical settings (Fisher et al. 2022; Schoustra et al. 2018).

In the intricate orchestration of human health, the harmonious synchronization of efforts across diverse disciplines, spanning from the realm of medicine to the expanse of agriculture, assumes an imperative mantle in the endeavor to safeguard effective antifungal therapeutic options while concurrently preserving the delicate equilibrium of our ecosystems. The burgeoning realm of antifungal resistance serves as a poignant reminder of the intricate interplay between our actions and the broader milieu, underscoring the paramount importance of informed and collective stewardship of both our environment and our health.

#### 6. THE INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE CHANGE ON FUNGAL DISEASES

The growing recognition of the environment's role in the emergence and resurgence of infectious diseases has been steadily advancing (Wu et al. 2016; El-Sayed and Kamel 2020). According to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, climate change encompasses alterations in the global atmosphere attributed to human activities, either directly or indirectly. These modifications surpass the inherent variability in climate observed over comparable periods (Farber and Carlarne 2017). This phenomenon has the potential to induce environmental pressures that engender the emergence of novel diseases caused by fungi (Garcia-Solache and Casadevall 2010). Despite the predominant focus on viral and bacterial diseases as potential founts of plagues and pandemics, fungi present equally substantial, if not greater, threats. It is worth noting that there are presently no available vaccines for fungal pathogens, the repository of antifungal agents remains exceedingly constricted, and fungi exhibit the ability to flourish as saprotrophs, generating copious infectious spores without necessitating host-to-host contact to initiate infection (Casadevall 2019). This unique capacity of fungi holds the potential to lead to the complete eradication of host populations (Fisher et al. 2012).

For most fungal species, their capacity to infect and establish themselves within mammals is restricted by their inability to thrive at elevated temperatures. Nevertheless, as climate change



precipitates incremental temperature elevations, fungi can adapt and develop thermotolerance, leading to an augmentation in the number of organisms capable of inducing disease (De Crecy et al. 2009; Casadevall 2020). Moreover, climate change has the propensity to broaden the geographical scope of pathogenic species or their vectors, consequently fostering the emergence of diseases in previously unaffected regions (De Crecy et al. 2009). Furthermore, the environmental perturbations brought about by climate change, encompassing events such as floods, storms, and hurricanes, can serve to disseminate and aerosolize fungi or introduce them through traumatic wounds, thereby potentially giving rise to infections by previously uncommon or unidentified fungal species.

#### 7. ANIMAL-ASSOCIATED FUNGAL INFECTION AND THEIR ROLE IN ZOONOSIS

Various terms are used to describe infectious diseases associated with animals. Notably, expressions like "zoonosis" and "sapronosis" have been employed by diverse authors, occasionally causing overlap in their implications (Fisher 2018; Schaefer 2009). The World Health Organization (WHO) furnishes an official elucidation of zoonoses as infections that naturally transfer between vertebrate animals and humans. This characterization does not discriminate between the involvement of "true" pathogens or opportunistic agents (Schaefer 2009; De Hoog et al 2018; Hubálek and Rudolf 2010). Pathogens exhibit specialization in thriving within a mammalian host, effectively navigating their life cycle. In contrast, opportunistic agents inhabit specific environmental niches yet retain the capacity to endure within animal hosts. Instances where an opportunist, originating from inanimate sources like soil, decomposing plant matter, or excrement, triggers an infection and/or an epidemic, are termed sapronosis (De Hoog et al. 2018). None of these fungi solely depend on vertebrate hosts, yet their overall fitness is augmented when they incorporate a mammal into any phase of their life cycle. From time to time, sapronotic agents infect humans or other animals without displaying specific adaptations tailored to their host. Fungi that exhibit dual life cycles, encompassing phases both in the natural environment and within an animal host, are designated as environmental pathogens. These organisms lead a saprobic existence while also manifesting a distinct invasive phase uniquely suited to the warm-blooded vertebrate host once they establish themselves within (De Hoog et al. 2018; Gauthier 2015). Post-infection, environmental pathogens can be disseminated in the environment through defecation e.g., Histoplasma capsulatum or potentially released from the host's body upon death (e.g., Coccidia immitis) (Da Silva et al. 2021). Conversely, opportunistic fungi cannot transmit between hosts, and their survival is intricately linked with the lifespan of their host. In the event of the host's demise, these fungi also perish. Environmental pathogens, zoonotic agents, and agronomic agents exhibit marked differences in their life cycles, intended host populations, and clinical manifestations. It is imperative to establish a precise demarcation between these categories for a comprehensive understanding (De Hoog et al. 2018).

#### 8. EMERGING ZOONOTIC FUNGAL DISEASES

Reports indicate that a substantial 75% of emerging infectious disease pathogens are of zoonotic origin, primarily originating from wildlife. Undoubtedly, zoonotic infections have become a significant challenge for millions of individuals in recent times. This is attributed to the resurgence or appearance of new pathogens, frequently leading to outbreaks in developing nations where public health infrastructure is insufficient. (Adebowale et al. 2018). Some emerging zoonotic fungal diseases are mentioned in Table 1 (Carpouron et al. 2022).



Table 1. Fungal diseases with their chinical mannestation and impact	
Diseases	Clinical manifestation and Impact
Dermatophytoses	<ul> <li>Increase in zoonotic infections due to new species emerging from animals</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>Ongoing large-scale outbreak in India attributed to novel species</li> </ul>
Sporotrichosis	<ul> <li>Increasingly diagnosed in immunocompetent individuals</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>S. brasiliensis more virulent and less sensitive to antifungals</li> </ul>
Histoplasmosis	<ul> <li>Varies from asymptomatic to fatal in immune-compromised individuals</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>Wide host range and association with bats</li> </ul>
Cryptococcosis	• Cryptococcus (C.) neoformans and C. gattii cause different clinical manifestations
	• The scarcity of antifungal treatments and antifungal resistance pose challenges
Emergomycosis	<ul> <li>Potentially zoonotic, with rodents as potential vectors</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>Molecular methods provide accurate identification</li> </ul>
Talaromycosis	• The rapid development of clinical manifestations and high mortality in non-HIV cases
	o Little is known about natural environmental niches and transmission mechanisms

Table 1: Fungal diseases with their clinical manifestation and impact

#### 9. THE IMPERATIVE FOR COMBATING FUNGAL INFECTIONS

The diminishing availability of effective medications casts a profound shadow, not only on human health but also restricts the therapeutic arsenal accessible to patients. Established antifungal agents have been gradually integrated into agricultural practices over time (Azevedo et al. 2015). However, this integration introduces a complex conundrum: while these agents have proven valuable in controlling agricultural fungal pathogens, the propensity of numerous human pathogens to coexist within agroecosystems introduces the inherent risk of fostering drug resistance (Verweij et al. 2009; Zavrel and White 2015). The resultant emergence of resistance not only curtails treatment options significantly but also precipitates grave repercussions for patient outcomes. Thus, the imperatives of our time necessitate the innovative exploration and development of novel antifungal compounds, envisaging solutions that not only fortify human well-being but also safeguard agricultural productivity (Perlin et al. 2017).

The amplifying impacts of global warming usher in an environment uniquely conducive to the proliferation of fungal diseases. Fungi, previously constrained by physiological temperature boundaries, are poised to adapt to these shifting thermal landscapes, potentially acquiring the capability to induce infections (Garcia-Solache and Casadevall 2010). This apprehension gains further traction from the observations that certain fungal species exhibit a remarkable propensity to acclimate to altered thermal regimes through the mechanisms of natural selection (De Crecy et al. 2009).

As we navigate these intricate dynamics at the crossroads of human health, agriculture, and the environment, the imperative for rigorous research and multifaceted collaboration becomes all the more evident. The multifarious challenges posed by fungal diseases necessitate a holistic approach that bridges the realms of medical science, agriculture, and ecological understanding. Vigilance is of the essence, particularly in tracking and managing the emergence of antifungal resistance, both within clinical contexts and agrarian settings. Moreover, the pursuit of novel antifungal compounds demands interdisciplinary synergy, pooling the insights and expertise of chemists, biologists, pharmacologists, and agricultural specialists.

The diminishing efficacy of existing antifungal medications, coupled with the intersection of agroecosystems and human health, propels us into uncharted territory rife with challenges and opportunities. The growing specter of antifungal resistance, intertwined with the evolving landscape of global warming, necessitates proactive measures that span the boundaries of research, policy, and practice. By fostering a concerted effort to innovate, collaborate, and adapt, we can aspire to mitigate the impact of fungal diseases, ensuring the well-being of both humans and the ecosystems we inhabit.



The effective detection and containment of fungal epidemics hinge upon collaborative endeavors bridging diverse disciplines. The foundational concept of One Health, which inherently embraces synergistic collaboration and communication amongst seasoned professionals, veterinary experts, and custodians of food safety, has demonstrated commendable success. This model warrants universal embrace as a cornerstone approach to effectively combat communicable diseases. Within the realm of our scholarly inquiry, we have meticulously distilled intricate insights into the distribution and etiological underpinnings of fungal infections in the human populace, artfully captured within a tabular expose. In sum, the exigency of addressing fungal infections reverberates through interconnected realms—from human health, where treatment modalities dwindle, to agriculture, where the specter of drug resistance looms. The intertwining effects of global warming, harboring potential shifts in fungal behavior, accentuate the significance of proactive measures. Collaborative synergies, epitomized by the One Health ethos, hold the potential to proactively detect, counteract, and mitigate the ramifications of fungal epidemics. This nuanced understanding paves the path for strategic interventions, arming us with

#### **10. ONE HEALTH APPROACHES TO FUNGAL DISEASE PREVENTION AND CONTROL**

knowledge to tackle the dynamic and evolving challenges posed by fungal infections.

The global burden presented by fungal diseases constitutes a significant and intricate threat affecting the well-being of humans, animals, and the environment. This perilous scenario not only places human and livestock populations in jeopardy but also introduces vulnerabilities to the global food supply chain. Crucial therapeutic measures to combat fungal infections encompass antifungal drugs tailored for both human and animal use. Concurrently, fungicides play a pivotal role in safeguarding agricultural pursuits. Regrettably, the limited array of available antifungal agents has led to their concurrent application in both agricultural and medical spheres. This practice accelerates the emergence of resistance, thereby severely compromising our defenses against a spectrum of diseases.

Of heightened concern is the wide scale distribution of antifungal-resistant strains across the natural environment. These strains manifest resistance to the same categories of antifungal agents employed for treating infections in humans and animals, effectively obstructing effective therapeutic interventions in clinical settings. The intricate interplay between these domains underscores the imperative of adopting a comprehensive One Health approach to combat fungal diseases and effectively address the challenge of antifungal resistance. This approach ensures that the pursuit of treatment and protection for a specific group does not inadvertently compromise the well-being of other plant species, animals, or humans.

Within the purview of this comprehensive review, an exploration is undertaken into the origins of antifungal resistance. A thorough examination of the synergistic amalgamation of environmental and clinical resources is conducted, aimed at efficaciously managing disease. Furthermore, an in-depth investigation is conducted into the potential of leveraging drug synergy and repurposing strategies. This effort sheds illuminative insights into ongoing research endeavors focused on identifying fungal targets as a means to overcome resistance. Additionally, innovative technological methodologies are proposed for unearthing novel fungal targets, thereby contributing substantially to the collective endeavor aimed at addressing this urgent challenge.

To ensure effective prevention and control of fungal diseases, the implementation of One Health strategies at local, regional, national, and global tiers is indispensable. Collaborative endeavors among medical professionals, veterinarians, environmental scientists, policymakers, and other pertinent stakeholders are requisite to confront the intricate intricacies posed by fungal zoonotic diseases (Gebreyes 2014; Häsler et al. 2020).



### **11. CONCLUSION**

The One Health paradigm has risen as a pivotal strategy to confront the intricate complexities that fungal diseases pose, impacting the well-being of humans, animals, and the environment. This encompassing framework acknowledges the intricate interplay among these components and underscores the criticality of collaborative endeavors and synergies that span diverse sectors and disciplines. Zoonotic fungal infections, with the capability to traverse between animals and humans, represent a significant concern in the realm of public health. Shifting climatic patterns, heightened global mobility, and the escalation of antimicrobial resistance have collectively contributed to the emergence and resurgence of fungal ailments. This underscores the urgency of adopting comprehensive and forward-looking strategies.

A profound comprehension of the epidemiology, burden, and ramifications of these diseases remains pivotal for the implementation of effective prevention and control measures. In the battle against fungal infections, a comprehensive approach necessitates the amalgamation of environmental and clinical resources, innovative strides in antifungal methodologies, and the exploration of avenues for synergizing drug effects and repurposing. The successful execution of One Health methodologies, fostering collaboration across a diverse spectrum of expertise, holds the key to safeguarding global health and mitigating the risks that fungal diseases pose to human populations and wildlife alike.

By embracing a One Health perspective, we fortify our readiness to address intricate health quandaries and achieve comprehensive solutions that guarantee the protection of all life forms and the surrounding ecosystem. As we navigate the complexities of fungal diseases, it becomes evident that a proactive and unified stance is paramount to preserving the integrity of our global health landscape. Through synergistic collaborations, innovative strategies, and a steadfast commitment to holistic well-being, we pave the way forward in managing and curtailing the impact of fungal diseases on humanity, animals, and the environment.

#### REFERENCES

- Abbas SS et al., 2022. Meanings and mechanisms of One Health partnerships: insights from a critical review of literature on cross-government collaborations. Health Policy and Planning 37(3): 385–399
- Lange L, 2014. The importance of fungi and mycology for addressing major global challenges. IMA Fungus 5(2): 463–471.
- Gebreyes WA, 2014. Duplex barriers to zoonotic diseases. Science 345(6197): 1170-1172
- Häsler B et al., 2020. Reflecting on One Health in action during the COVID-19 response. Frontiers in Veterinary Science 7: 578649.
- Blackwell M, 2011. The fungi: 1, 2, 3 ... 5.1 million species? American Journal of Botany 98(3): 426–438.
- Chowdhary A et al., 2017. Candida auris: A rapidly emerging cause of hospital-acquired multidrug-resistant fungal infections globally. PLoS Pathogens 13(5): e1006290.
- Seyedmousavi S et al., 2015. Neglected fungal zoonoses: hidden threats to man and animals. Clinical Microbiology and Infection 21(5): 416-425
- Brown GD et al., 2012. Hidden killers: human fungal infections. Science Translational Medicine 4(165): 165rv13.
- Benedict K et al., 2016. Estimation of direct healthcare costs of fungal diseases in the United States. Clinical Infectious Diseases 63(11): 1445-1453.

Center for Disease Control and Prevention CS 313826-A January 02, 2020

Ben-Ami R and Kontoyiannis DP, 2011. Resistance to Antifungal Drugs. Infectious Disease Clinics of North America 35: 279-311.



Pathadka S et al., 2022. Global Consumption Trend of Antifungal Agents in Humans From 2008 to 2018: Data From 65 Middle- and High-Income Countries. Drugs 82: 1193–1205.

Rabaan AA et al., 2023. Psychogenetic, genetic and epigenetic mechanisms in Candida auris: Role in drug resistance. Journal of Infection and Public Health 16: 257–263.

Kaur J and Nobile CJ, 2023. Antifungal drug-resistance mechanisms in Candida biofilms. Current Opinion in Microbiology 71: 102237

Rybak JM et al., 2020. Mutations in TAC1B: A novel genetic determinant of clinical fluconazole resistance in Candida auris. mBio 11: e00365-20

Izadi A et al., 2022. Drug repurposing against Candida auris: A systematic review. Mycoses 65: 784–793

Khojasteh S et al., 2023. Five-year surveillance study of clinical and environmental Triazole-Resistant Aspergillusfumigatus isolates in Iran. Mycoses 66: 98–105

Sen P et al., 2022. Understanding the environmental drivers of clinical azole resistance in Aspergillus species. Drug Target Insights 16: 25–35

Fisher MC et al., 2022. Tackling the emerging threat of antifungal resistance to human health. Nature Reviews Microbiology 20: 557–571.

Steinberg G et al., 2020. A lipophilic cation protects crops against fungal pathogens by multiple modes of action. Nature Communications 11: 1608.

Schoustra SE et al., 2018. New Insights in the Development of Azole-resistance in Aspergillusfumigatus. RIVM: National Institute for Public Health and the Environment 2018.

Wu X et al., 2016. Impact of climate change on human infectious diseases: Empirical evidence and human adaptation. Environment International 86: 14–23.

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: 22336–52.

Farber DA and Carlarne CP, 2017. Climate change law. Ohio State Publisher, Law Work Paper.

Garcia-Solache MA and Casadevall A, 2010. Global warming will bring new fungal diseases for mammals. MBio 1(1): e00061–10

Casadevall A, 2019. Global catastrophic threats from the fungal kingdom: fungal catastrophic threats. Global Catastrophic Biological Risks 2019: 21–32.

Fisher MC et al., 2012. Emerging fungal threats to animal, plant, and ecosystem health. Nature 484(7393): 186–94.

De Crecy E et al., 2009. Directed evolution of a filamentous fungus for thermotolerance. BMC Biotechnology 9(1): 74-78.

Casadevall A, 2020. Climate change brings the specter of new infectious diseases. Journal of Clinical Investigation 130(2): 553–5.

Fisher MC, 2018. Epidemiological Definitions, Terminology, and Classifications with Reference to Fungal Infections of Animals. In: Seyedmojtaba Seyedmousavi G, editor. Emerging and Epizootic Fungal Infections in Animals: Springer International Publishing, Cham, Switzerland; pp: 17-27

Schaefer HE, 2019. Introduction into pathology of ocular zoonoses. International Journal of Medical Sciences 6: 120–122.

De Hoog GS et al., 2018. Distribution of Pathogens and Outbreak Fungi in the Fungal Kingdom. Seyedmojtaba Seyedmousavi G, editor. Emerging and Epizootic Fungal Infections in Animals. Springer International Publishing, Cham, Switzerland; pp: 3-16.

Hubálek Z and Rudolf I, 2010. Microbial Zoonoses and Sapronoses, Springer; Dordrecht, The Netherlands.

Gauthier GM, 2015. Dimorphism in fungal pathogens of mammals, plants, and insects. PLoS Pathogens 11: e1004608.

Da Silva JA et al., 2021. Molecular detection of *Histoplasmacapsulatum* in bats of the Amazon biome in Pará state, Brazil. Transboundary and Emerging Diseases 68: 758–766.

Adebowale I et al., 2018. Zoonotic fungal diseases and animal ownership in Nigeria. Alexandria Journal of Medicine 54(4): 397-402.

Carpouron JE et al., 2022. Emerging Animal-Associated Fungal Diseases. Journal of fungi (Basel, Switzerland) 8(6): 611.



- Azevedo MM et al., 2015. Genesis of azole antifungal resistance from agriculture to clinical settings. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 63: 7463–7468.
- Verweij PE et al., 2009. Azole resistance in Aspergillusfumigatus: a side-effect of environmental fungicide use? Lancet Infectious Diseases 9: 789–795
- Zavrel M and White TC, 2015. Medically important fungi respond to azole drugs: an update. Future Microbiology 10: 1355–137
- Perlin D et al., 2017. The global problem of antifungal resistance: prevalence, mechanisms, and management. Lancet Infectious Diseases 17: e383–e392
- Garcia-Solache MA and Casadevall A, 2010. Global warming will bring new fungal diseases for mammals. MBio 1: e00061-10