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Literature Review for GEOG700

Connecting Disease with the Environment: What Can Multidisciplinary Science do
for Epidemiology?

Amanda Jamison

Abstract

With the resurgence of disease in many parts of the world, many aspects of treatment and prevention are of great interest to researchers. A common approach to deter disease is the prevention or control of vectors. Movement of viruses and microscopic pathogens into new habitat, through accidental introduction or range expansion is therefore of great interest. While research in the biological sciences and ecology have revealed important life history of hosts and medical applications, other aspects need to be explored to understand vector biology and transmission. As arthropod vectors are dependent on environmental factors, research into geographic information systems may be a useful tool, as the recent advances in technology can collect ecological data with greater precision and accuracy than ever before. Many studies have begun to examine the potential applications of geospatial technology, while integrating typical ecological components. Here we review the previous work in multidisciplinary research incorporating climate, geographic information systems and vector ecology. Scientists collaborate from various aspects of biology and climatology ranging from connecting local weather conditions and climate to large scale teleconnections and the creation of continent wide climate boundaries, climate envelopes or models. Suggestions for the future directions of combining these disciplines are discussed.

Introduction

The advent of rapidly changing technology in the last century has implications across many disciplines as computer hardware and programs are not only accessible to researchers outside computer science and engineering, but affordable. Scientists have incorporated advanced technology into their research across multiple disciplines within life and physical sciences

allowing for data collection with greater sophistication, sensitivity, and accuracy. The creation of geographic information science from the advent of technological research has brought forth specializations for the purpose of finding applications in multidisciplinary studies, using geographic information systems (GIS) (Clarke, McLafferty and Tempalski 1996, Goodchild 1992). This science has been incorporated into many different aspects for spatial analysis, collecting data at large scales previously not possible in other disciplines. This geospatial technology is a potentially powerful tool in biological and ecological studies (Roughgarden, Running and Matson 1991, Dominy and Duncan 2002, Aplin 2005). Recent investigations into remote sensing applications to detect changes in habitat or environmental conditions have developed methods for a wide range of biological and ecological questions (Broadbent et al. 2008, Chambers et al. 2007, Nair et al. 2008, Valavanis et al. 2008, Formica et al. 2004, Kalluri et al. 2007). Past expenditures have been relegated to large scale investigations but with the progress in technology, even smaller scales, 1 m² or less can be explored with incorporated remote sensing (Mumby and Edwards 2002, Tanaka and Sugimura 2001, Birk et al. 2003, Roughgarden et al. 1991). With the advent of information technology abundance, multidisciplinary research can be explored in further depth to answer many ecological questions. One problem is the effects of changes in global climate and the ecological consequences (Patz and Olson 2006, Roessig et al. 2004, Purse et al. 2005). Therefore, it is of interest for biologists and ecologists to collaborate with physical sciences to reveal the role of climate in ecosystems and on organismal biology. Particular interest in disease distribution and climate is prevalent since climate change may increase the range of many debilitating illnesses in humans and livestock (Githeko et al. 2000, Purse et al. 2005). Here we review the previous work in multidisciplinary research incorporating climate, geographic information systems and vector

biology and discuss some of the research incorporating GIS and climate in ecology and suggest future directions for climatology and ecological research.

Geospatial technology and techniques have greatly improved over the last decade resulting in the ability of satellites and aerial platforms to record and produce data at finer resolutions and scales than previously, compared to on the ground measurements. Satellite data can detect reflectance of electromagnetic radiation at resolutions at one meter or less from commercial sources (Mumby and Edwards 2002, Read et al. 2003, Birk et al. 2003) and be applied to various anthropomorphic applications (Zomeni, Tzanopoulos and Pantis 2008, Seelan et al. 2003, Narumalani, Mishra and Rothwell 2004, Zhu et al. 2005, Smith and Thomson 2003), reveal global and local changes from disturbance to disasters (Ramsey, Chappell and Baldwin 1997, Myint et al. 2008, Potter et al. 2003, Ledrew 1992, Nemani and Running 1995) and support evidence for global climate change (Stow et al. 2004, Rosenqvist et al. 2003, Hinzman et al. 2005, Silapaswan, Verbyla and McGuire 2001, Masek 2001, Simas, Nunes and Ferreira 2001). These have been used to predict environmental variables, or connect changes in the environment to biological patterns from food availability (Wilmers and Post 2006), habitat quality (Wiegand et al. 2008, Valavanis et al. 2008), movement (Chapman, Reynolds and Smith 2003) and abundance or outbreak of insects (Hurley et al. 2004, Reisig and Godfrey 2006). However, the connections between climate and vector biology are more tenuous. Much work on the connections between biology and geography focus on ecology, where typical ecological measurements are used and compared with disease prevalence. Various single environmental measurements in ecology have connected changes in animal life history or biodiversity, such as temperature and rainfall, (Barrientos et al. 2007, Li and Brown 1999, Lysyk and Danyk 2007), while others connect to extreme events occurred after El Niño (Perriman et al. 2000), including

disease outbreaks (Yang and Scherm 1997, Ward and Johnson 1996). Commonly in epidemiology studies researchers draw connections between aspects of climate: precipitation and temperature with abundance and/or disease outbreak. Population cycles of red grouse heavily connected to parasitic infection has population cycles could be controlled by treating infections (Hudson, Dobson and Newborn 1998) and had parasite dominated population cycles predicted by climate-parasite models, based on the amount of precipitation and temperature (Cattadori, Haydon and Hudson 2005) and similarly cholera has found to cycle with climatic factors including ENSO (Pascual et al. 2000). Connecting disease and the environment be it ecological or climatic aspects, has lead an effort into finding ways of incorporating new technology to find hot spots, or areas of potential outbreak, at risk regions (Clarke et al. 1991). While previously mentioned parasites lacks an animal vector many diseases need an accomplice to actively spread, often leading researchers to examine the life sciences of vector transmission.

While many diseases can be acquired from another host or via the environment, many are transmitted by biological vectors. It follows that vector ecology is explored as an indirect explanation of disease cycles, outbreaks, and prevalence. Many of these vectors are arthropods (Phylum *Arthropoda*) and include ticks, fleas, mosquitoes, black flies, and biting midges (see Table 1, Valkiūnas 2005, Fallis and Bennett 1961, Barbour and Fish 1993, Kiszewski and Cupp 1986, Durden and Page 1991, Mellor, Boorman and Baylis 2000). Many Dipteran insects (includes the families *Cuculidae*: mosquitoes, *Simuliidae*: black flies, and *Ceratopogonidae*: biting midges) require a minimum temperature and moisture content in order to successfully cycle through their various instar larva stages (Adler, Currie and Wood 2003, Darsie and Ward 2005, Focks et al. 1993, Mellor et al. 2000). Therefore detecting or modeling levels of precipitation and temperature may successfully predict insect outbreaks and current and/or

possible expansion of disease range(s) (Purse et al. 2005, Cook et al. 1998, Lindsay, Parson and Thomas 1998, Ward 1996). The ability to prevent or predict the next epidemic is particularly important in developing countries with populations that experience the highest rates of infection, and the lack of medicinal resources (Barat et al. 2004) and resistance of vectors to pesticides and disease to medication (Greenwood and Mutabingwa 2002, Lenormand et al. 1999, Montagna et al. 2003). Moreover, changes in ecosystems as consequence or in conjunction with climate changes, may explain the changes we see in disease across the world, and is important to consider in epidemiology and vector ecology (Barbour and Fish 1993, Harrus and Baneth 2005, Sallares 2006).

Family: *Culicidae* - Mosquitoes

Changes in moisture or precipitation are common ecological and meteorological factors considered when predicting mosquito abundance. Mosquito species are of great concern worldwide as they can spread many diseases ranging from unicellular protists, (i.e. malaria) to viruses (e.g. Dengue fever, Yellow fever, and West Nile Virus (encephalitis)) that affect human populations (Goddard 1998, Khaemba, Mutani and Bett 1994, Vanderberg and Gwadz 1980, Kulasekera et al. 2001, Romero-Vivas, Leake and Falconar 1998). Since their ability to reproduce is directly related to environmental factors including the presence of still water, this is often explored when considering disease detection methods. As abundance of mosquitoes depends on available water sources and precipitation researchers correlate this directly with infections (Focks et al. 1993, Koella, Agnew and Michalakis 1998, Mabaso et al. 2007, Singh and Sharma 2002, Kelly-Hope, Purdie and Kay 2004), and use these ecological parameters in models (Schaeffer, Mondet and Touzeau 2008a, Schaeffer, Mondet and Touzeau 2008b, Hopp

and Foley 2003, Zhou et al. 2004) despite contradicting evidence (Shanks et al. 2002). Often remote sensing is used to detect the presence of moisture or water in the environment using vegetation indices such as NDVI (Normalized Differential Vegetation Index) that correlate with vegetation in arid environments and these studies can incorporate climatic aspects as well confirming the intuitive concept of increased temperature and rain preceding mosquito and disease outbreaks (Rogers et al. 2002, Stockli and Vidale 2004, Duchemin et al. 2006, Kawamura et al. 2005, Gleiser, Gorla and Almeida 1997, Pope et al. 1994, Brown et al. 2008). Additionally, these indices connect disease and mosquito vectors creating predictive models that substantiate the environmental changes with disease (Hay, Snow and Rogers 1998, Rogers et al. 2002, Cuevas et al. 2007, Anyamba et al. 2002, Zhou et al. 2004) and with projected increases in temperature may relay important information about the spread of vectors and disease (Reiter 2001) and the creation of risk maps (Kitron 2000). However, vegetation indices may reflect soil moisture and plant productivity, but not necessarily still water or temperature required for mosquito reproduction. As vegetation indices reach an asymptote distribution, saturation occurs with dense foliage (Liu and Huete 1995, Huete et al. 2002) making the use of NDVI appropriate in arid and strongly seasonal ecosystems, but not necessarily humid ones or for landscape with dense forest. Climatic data from the field may be a better representation in conjunction with different remote sensing techniques such as the Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) or the water index (NDWI Normalized Differential Water Index) (Gao 1996, Liu and Huete 1995, Huete et al. 2002), as mosquitoes in North America have varied with temperature and precipitation (Reisen et al. 2008, Britch et al. 2008), experienced community changes (Britch et al. 2008), as well as extreme events in oscillations (Heft and Walton 2008) in addition to mosquito

populations in tropical areas (Chadee et al. 2007, Graves et al. 2008, Mabaso et al. 2007, Gagnon, Smoyer-Tomic and Bush 2002).

Family: *Ceratopogonidae* – Biting Midges

Similar to mosquitoes, only female biting midges (Diptera: *Ceratopogonidae*) seek a blood meal and transmit diseases, many which infect wild animals or livestock (Mellor et al. 2000, Marquardt and Kondratieff 2005) and may be correlated with climate. Biting midge populations may not be clearly indicated by remote sensing which is used to indirectly estimate climatic variables (Kalluri et al. 2007, Han et al. 2005, Crombie et al. 1999), as it difficult to study this group based on their immensely small size of a millimeter or more and that their breeding grounds range greatly including still water, moist soil, rotting vegetation, and others based on the species (Mellor et al. 2000, Blackwell, Young and Mordue 1994). Despite these challenges, remote sensing techniques and ecology have been used to connect habitat, dispersal, and potential effects of climate change on the vector species (Purse et al. 2005, Baylis et al. 1998). The biting midge as a vector often has been investigated to predict the spread of Bluetongue virus (BTV) using remote sensing and climate, where NDVI is used to represent soil moisture in Africa (Purse et al. 2004, Baylis et al. 1998). Ecological studies incorporate different meteorological and climate aspects and revealed the ability of biting midges to disperse and consequently spread disease with wind conditions, with vectors estimated to travel at 1km in altitude and transported across countries, such as outbreaks in Israel and Florida, previously not exposed to BTV through unusual wind events (in the Intertropical Convergence Zone or Persian air trough system) (Braverman and Chechik 1996, Sellers and Maarouf 1991, Blackwell 1997, Sellers and Maarouf 1989, Sellers 1980). Other aspects of limitations may include rainfall, or

summer temperature, but do not always find clear connections and suggest that long term patterns over large scale areas may be understood by investigating climate and its resulting local weather conditions (Braverman and Chechik 1996, Blackwell 1997, Braverman, Chechik and Mullens 2001, Ortega, Holbrook and Lloyd 1999, Rawlings et al. 1998, Ward 1996, Conte et al. 2003). While climate envelope models accurately cover areas of BTV outbreak, these build a premise for involving climate change and vector ecology and have depicted the movement of Blue tongue Virus into Europe and accurately predict range expansion with climate change (Purse et al. 2007, Purse et al. 2005, Purse et al. 2004, Calistri et al. 2003). While Baylis et al. (Baylis, Mellor and Meiswinkel 1999) suggests that ENSO may play a role in the spread of AHS, very little has been done to research how large scale climatic patterns (for example teleconnections like NAO, PNA, etc.) influence vector ecology of this group, which may be particularly important as biting midges are susceptible to wind and rain conditions (Blackwell 1997, Sellers 1980, Rawlings et al. 1998). Further work should explore the various major aspects of climate and meteorology as they may explain dispersal, outbreak patterns, as well as changes in their ecology.

Family *Simuliidae*: - Black Flies

The ecology of black flies is similar to its sister families in that they use running water for breeding grounds, but have not been investigated in the same extensiveness as a vector in multidisciplinary research. Members of this family can harbor parasites and, ranging from malarial type parasites (*Leucocytozoon*), Trypanosomes, and filarial nematodes in birds, to stomatitis virus serotypes and nematodes for mammals (Marquardt and Kondratieff 2005, Hunter, Rohner and Currie 1997, Kiszewski and Cupp 1986, Reeves et al. 2007), but are mainly

a nuisance to people by their blood seeking behavior, causing loss of tourism in black fly breeding areas (Marquardt and Kondratieff 2005, Metcalf 1932). This has instigated the use of pesticides which have eliminated some competent vectors, but may promote resistance, when other ecological controls could suffice (Cheke et al. 2008, Adler et al. 2003, Metcalf 1932, Rivers-Moore, Hughes and de Moor 2008, Lenormand et al. 1999, Montagna et al. 2003). While there is research into the capacity of black flies in North America to transmit vesicular stomatitis virus to domesticated animals, there is a lack of information on their vector ecology and how environmental factors will influence their transmission, despite outbreaks infections of nematode *Onchocerca volvulus* in humans, which have prompted control programs (Pinto et al. 2008, Mead, Mare and Cupp 1997, Schmidtman et al. 1999, Mead et al. 2004, Marquardt and Kondratieff 2005, Basanez et al. 1996, Shelley and Coscaron 2001, Hougard et al. 1997). Vesicular stomatitis virus outbreaks in the late 1990s in North America were preceded by precipitation and known competent vectors are present suggests that blackfly microclimate may be important for detection and modeling (McCluskey, Beaty and Salman 2003, Mead et al. 1997, Mead et al. 2004). Ecological researchers highlight the importance of stream conditions and flow rates, on larval populations for control methods and the importance of meteorological or microclimate conditions for adult activity levels, where vapor pressure, wind speed, and temperature are highly important (Rivers-Moore et al. 2008, Shipp, Grace and Schaalje 1987, Shipp, Grace and Janzen 1988, Grillet and Barrera 1997, Lounaci et al. 2000, Fredeen and Mason 1991). Some preliminary and antidotal work on black fly populations involving climate factors such as rainfall, flooding from El Niño events and seasonality with population numbers have been recorded (Everitt et al. 1994, Cilek and Schaediger 2004, Grillet et al. 2001, Grillet

and Barrera 1997) but there is a lack of multidisciplinary research including climatic aspects as this species does not have a known large health impact on human populations.

Ticks and others

Vectors are not limited to the previous dipteran flies as many well known diseases such as Lyme disease are carried in ticks (Order Ixodida), while tsetse flies (Diptera: *Muscidae*) transmit sleeping sickness and kissing bugs (Hemiptera: *Reduviidae*) Chagas disease (Trypanosome spp.) to humans in addition to other animals (Barrett et al. 2003, Marquardt and Kondratieff 2005, Killilea et al. 2008). These various organisms are dependent on various microhabitat conditions and ecological factors similar to other arthropods, but ticks being the only non-insects may need a different focus (Randolph 1998). The reforestation of parts of the United States and the population boom of deer has boosted the spread of Lyme disease across the country (via deer and other ticks) and has fuelled a great interest in spatial analysis and prevention methods (Barbour and Fish 1993, Killilea et al. 2008). Distribution of ticks are of great interest in North America and Europe due to the high rates of Lyme disease and encephalitis infection and are studied in several environmental aspects, ranging from landscape ecology, seasonality, and climate (Rodgers, Miller and Mather 2007, Lindgren, Talleklint and Polfeldt 2000, Eisen et al. 2003). Such studies that incorporate climatic aspects, such as precipitation and soil moisture may successfully integrate tick abundance with disease risk in North America (Rodgers et al. 2005, Barbour and Fish 1993) as nymph stages of this vector depend on soil moisture and humidity (Rodgers, Zolnik and Mather 2007). Correlates with drought or moisture index and temperature have been observed with tick numbers on the U.S. east coast in Black-legged ticks (Subak 2003) and with vegetation indices (Rodgers et al. 2005),

but not for all regions (Ostfeld et al. 2006). Using remote sensing and climate, predicting expansion of tick ranges, and consequently Lyme disease through climate change can be incorporated into risk maps important for public health planning and awareness (Ogden et al. 2008). Other vectors have been investigated similarly with aspects of ecology and climate for vector abundance in areas of high transmission including sand flies (Diptera: *Psychodidae*), tsetse (Diptera: *Muscidae*), and as their life cycles are similarly dependent on moisture and have been explored using remote sensing (Salomon et al. 2004, Hendrickx et al. 2001). However, as most arthropod vectors are insects treating ticks the same as these taxa may not be accurate and researchers should consider their differences in life history and ecology when creating risk maps and projections with climate changes (Randolph 1998).

Climate Change

IPCC and researchers have postulated the major changes in climate within the last century and future changes to have drastic actions, primarily in increasing temperature and intensity of weather events (Meehl et al. 2000). Predictions of human induced climate change of global warming and increases in frequency of extreme events do not bode well for wildlife and plants as numerous observations of species responses have shown phenological and ecological changes, even decline and extinction based on observations over the last 50 years (Mitchell et al. 2006, Parmesan 2006, Winkler, Dunn and McCulloch 2002). Future populations may suffer if unable to adapt to these climatic changes quickly and shrinking ranges and extinctions are expected (Thomas, Franco and Hill 2006). Forecasts of disease however, predict range expansion in terms of changes in latitude and altitude with the increase in temperature and changes in vector competency. As insects are ectotherms, the external temperature heavily

influences their biology and environment for disease development, leading to potential increase in vector competence (Reiter 2001, Reeves et al. 1994). The possibility for not only the spread of disease through range expansion, but the addition of new vectors may have drastic effects on ecosystems, human health, and the global community (Purse et al. 2005, Epstein et al. 1998, Reiter 2001). As climate changes are to be excessively more dramatic, concerns over weather events and disasters will be need to be explored in further detail for patterns as to the role they play in ecosystems globally.

Summary

Investigations into the ecology of vectors has focused mainly on microhabitat and eradication or control efforts as their impact on human health and economy across the world remains significant (Patz and Olson 2006, Gallup and Sachs 2001, Singh et al. 2004). Climatic aspects have been used to predict range changes, expansion, and disease outbreak patterns incorporating technology in GIS and remote sensing and correlating with field data. However, aspects of animal life history, and ecological interactions are not considered such as nutrient cycling and its effects of changes in insect microhabitat, in addition to compounded factors of climate changes (McKenzie and Townsend 2007). Limited amount of study has included complex and long term climate data and those that incorporate teleconnections may be antidotal (i.e. Cilek and Schaediger 2004, Sellers and Maarouf 1989). The complex relationships in ecology will need to consider not only vector biology and weather measurements, but take into account appropriate scales and covarying factors. Future projects need to incorporate multidisciplinary collaborations to ensure that appropriate measures and factors are considered with ecological interactions, as they vary across the globe.

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Appendix

Table 1. Common arthropod vectors and examples of diseases they transmit. Arthropod groups include insects which include many flies and arachnids, which include deer ticks that commonly carry Lyme disease. There is a range in capability of vectors from a few parasites to many viruses and parasites, as we see in mosquitoes. Information and table is based on Marquart (2005).

Class	Order(s)	Common names	Diseases
Arachnida	Ixodida Trombidiformes Sarcoptiformes	Mites, Ticks, & Chiggers	Lyme disease, trombidiosis, cattle tapeworms
Insecta	Hemiptera	Kissing bugs, bed bugs	Chagas disease
	Diptera	Black flies, Mosquitoes, Biting Midges, Tsetse fly	Malaria, River Blindness, vesicular stomatitis virus, Bluetongue Virus, Sleeping sickness
	Phthiraptera	Lice	Salmonella, Typhus, Trench Fever
	Siphonaptera	Fleas	Black Death/plague