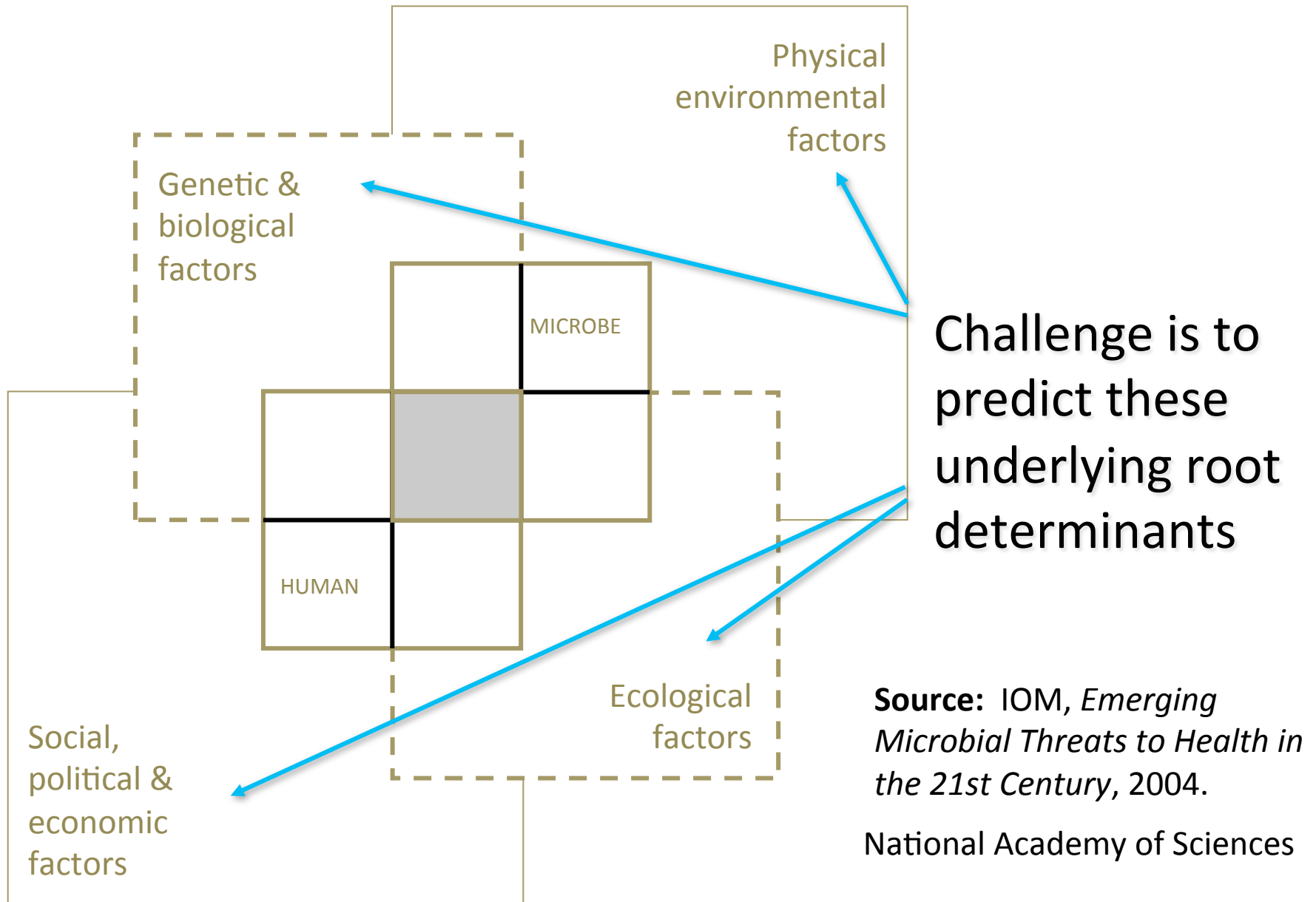


Land use change, Biodiversity and Infectious Diseases

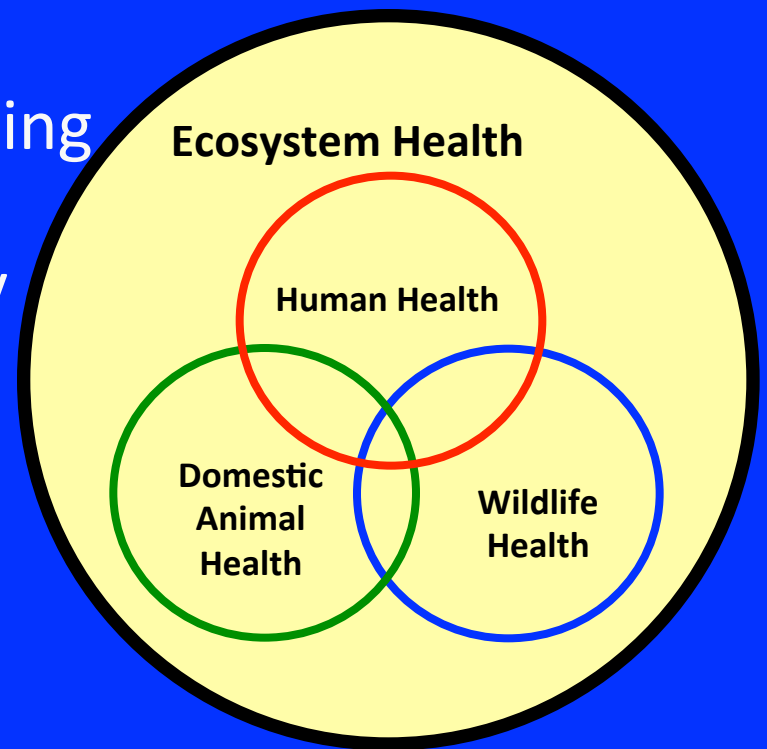
Jonathan Patz, Professor & Director
Global Health Institute
University of Wisconsin–Madison

Convergence Model – Emergent Diseases



Ecosystem Health Approach

- Expanded research in wildlife disease epidemiology, disease ecology and ecosystem health
 - Need increased understanding of the drivers of emerging diseases to more effectively prevent and control wildlife and zoonotic diseases
 - Prevention is key!



Predictive models for emerging diseases?

Mechanisms of Disease Emergence

- **Altered habitat**, which can lead to changes in the number of vector breeding sites or in disease reservoir host distribution.
- **Biodiversity change**, including loss of predator species and changes in host population density.
- **Niche invasion** or host-shifting by pathogens.
- **Human-induced genetic changes** in disease vectors or pathogens, such as mosquito resistance to pesticides or the emergence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria
- **Environmental contamination** by infectious disease agents, such as fecal contamination of source waters.

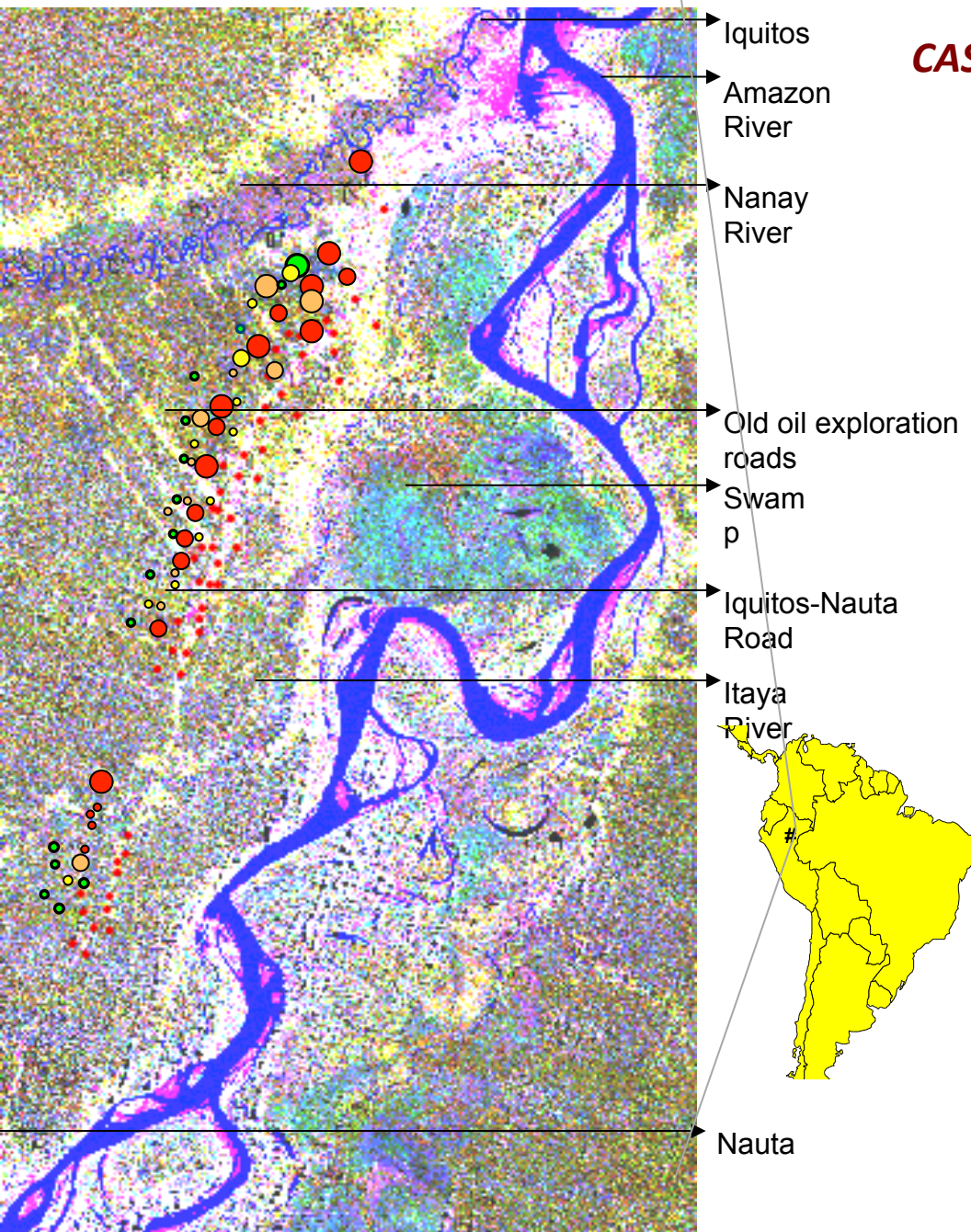
CASE STUDY: Deforestation and Malaria

Peruvian Amazon study site

Landsat image shows road from Iquitos to Nauta. 56 sampling sites indicated per key below:

Scale: 1:800,000

- 5.0 – 22.9 mean *A. darlingi*/6-hrs/person
- high deforestation (54%), low forest (3%)
- 0.5 – 4.9 mean *A. darlingi*/6-hrs/person
- medium deforestation (25%), medium forest (20%)
- 0 – 0.4 mean *A. darlingi*/6-hrs/person
- low deforestation (5%), medium forest (35%)
- low deforestation (6%), high forest (76%)







Anopheles mosquitoes

~ 422 species of *Anopheles*, 60 to 70 of which can act as malaria vectors

Therefore, many *Anopheles* species are harmless to humans, incapable of allowing *Plasmodium* to develop into sporozoites that reside in the salivary glands.

Some species will harbor *P. vivax* sporozoites, but not *P. falciparum* sporozoites.

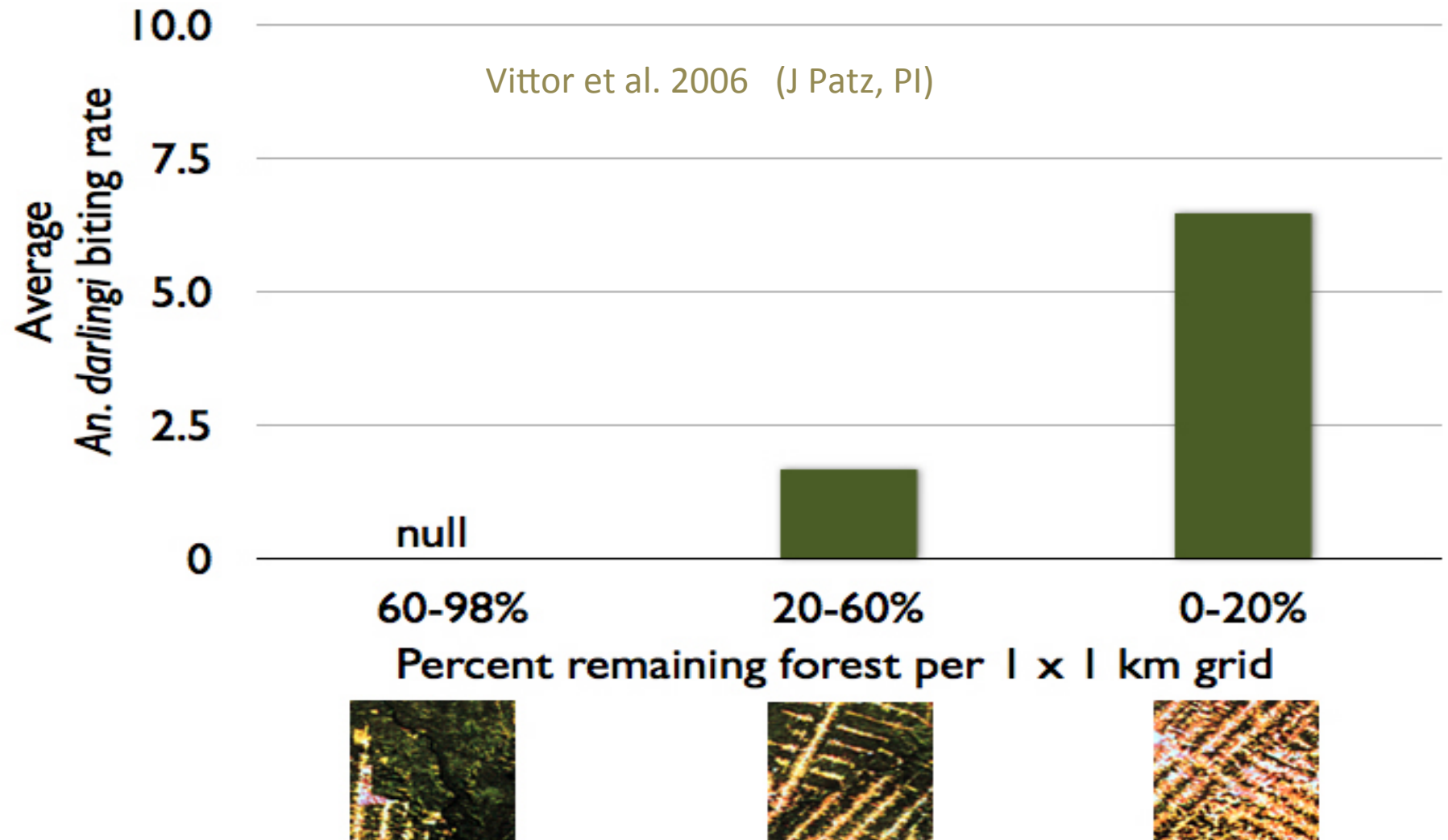
Species	Vegetation type								Total no. collected (mean biting rate)
	 Village (n=255)		 Deforested** (n=191)		 Shrub / secondary growth (n=191)		 Forest (n=250)		
	Total†	Mean	Total	Mean	Total	Mean	Total	Mean	
<u>Subgenus Nyssorhynchus</u>									
<i>A. triannulatus</i>	86	0.3	450	2.4	5137	26.9	1941	7.8	7614 (8.6)
<i>A. darlingi</i>	2050	8.0	459	2.4	45	0.2	92	0.4	2646 (3.0)
<i>A. benarrochi</i>	328	1.3	496	2.6	180	0.9	288	1.2	1292 (1.5)
<i>A. oswaldoi</i>	41	0.2	327	1.7	598	3.1	300	1.2	1266 (1.4)
<i>A. rangeli</i>	74	0.3	289	1.5	98	0.5	5	0.0	466 (0.5)
<i>A. nuneztovari</i>	33	0.1	81	0.4	17	0.1	13	0.1	144 (0.2)
<i>A. (N) spp*</i>	157	0.6	170	0.9	188	1.0	159	0.6	674 (0.8)
<u>Subgenus Anopheles</u>									
<i>A. mediopunctatus</i>	61	0.2	170	0.9	436	2.3	164	0.7	831 (0.9)
<i>A. mattogrossensis</i>	54	0.2	136	0.7	18	0.1	4	0.0	212 (0.2)
<i>A. punctimacula</i>	11	0.0	0	0.0	18	0.1	44	0.2	73 (0.1)
<i>A. peryassui</i>	15	0.1	3	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	18 (0.0)
<i>A. neomaculipalpus</i>	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.0	1	0.0	3 (0.0)
<i>A. (A) spp*</i>	12	0.0	25	0.1	22	0.1	14	0.1	73 (0.1)
<u>Subgenus Lophopodomyia</u>									
<i>A. squamifemur</i>	9	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0	3	0.0	13 (0.0)
Total <i>Anopheles</i>	2931	3.3	2606	2.9	6760	7.6	3028	3.4	15325 (17.3)
Culicines	69960	274	67917	357	72985	382	73045	292	283907

†Total number collected (887 6-hr nights); mean human-biting rate per 6-hrs per person

* (N) = s.g. *Nyssorhynchus*, (A) = s.g. *Anopheles*, (L) = s.g. *Lophopodomyia*; ** areas that have low human population density in addition to being deforested

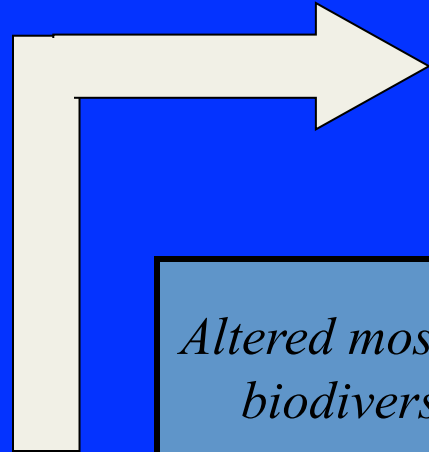
- high deforestation (54%), low forest (3%) ● medium deforestation (25%), medium forest (20%)
 ● low deforestation (5%), medium forest (35%) ● low deforestation (6%), high forest (76%)

Deforestation & malaria risk, Amazon



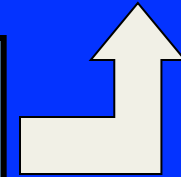
Deforestation's effect on Malaria risk?

Fish ponds and
road culverts

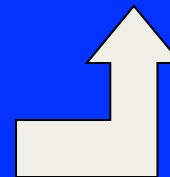


Higher
abundance of *A.
darlingi*

Higher malaria
risk

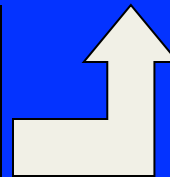


*Altered mosquito
biodiversity*



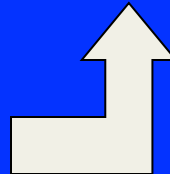
More open partially
sunlit pools

Deforestation,
 Δ habitat & bio-
diversity

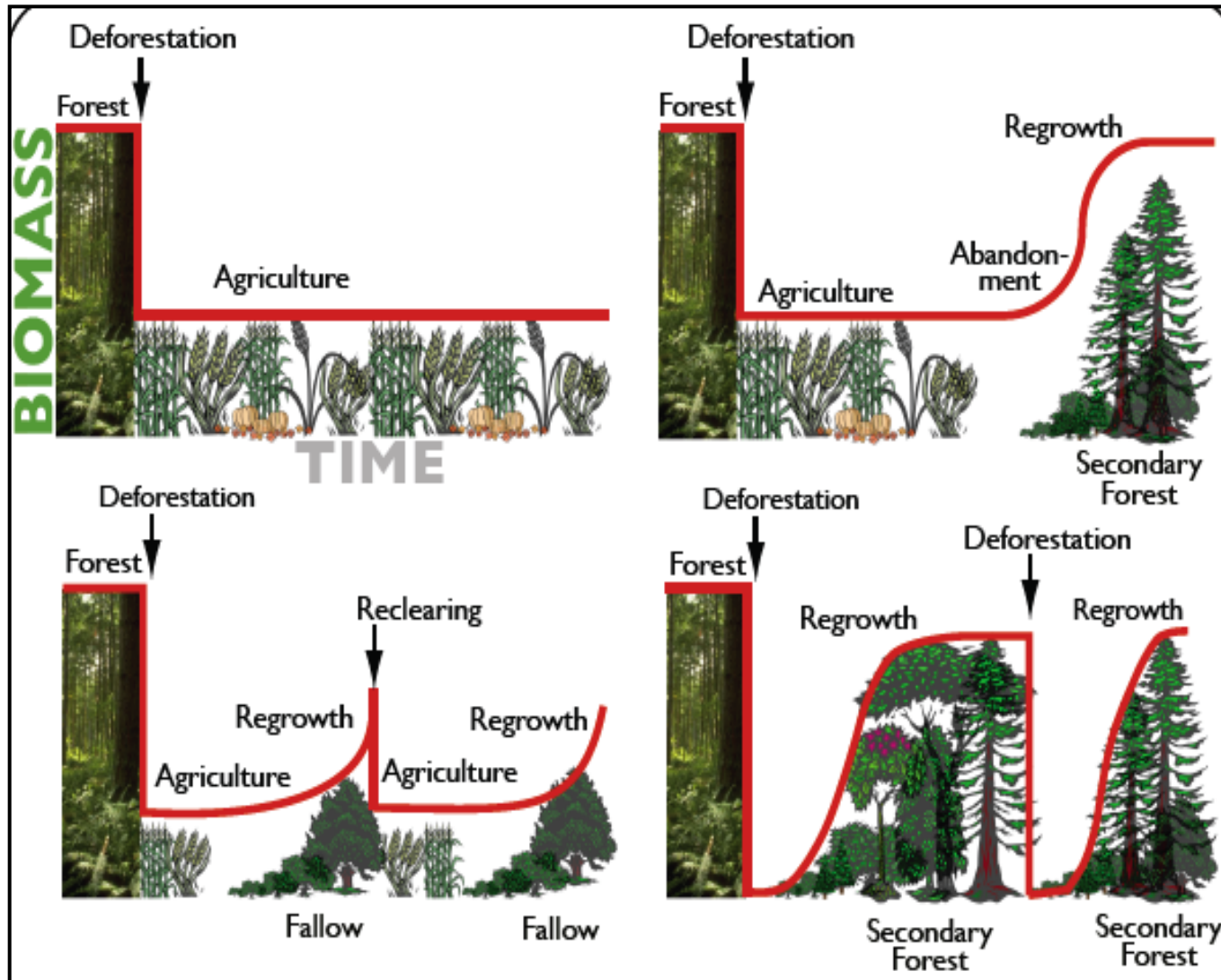


Altered breeding sites
and human population growth

Development,
agriculture,
settlements



Spatial & temporal patterns in land use affect risks



✓ Land-use transition models track land as it cycles between crops, fallow, and regrowth

✓ “States and Rates”

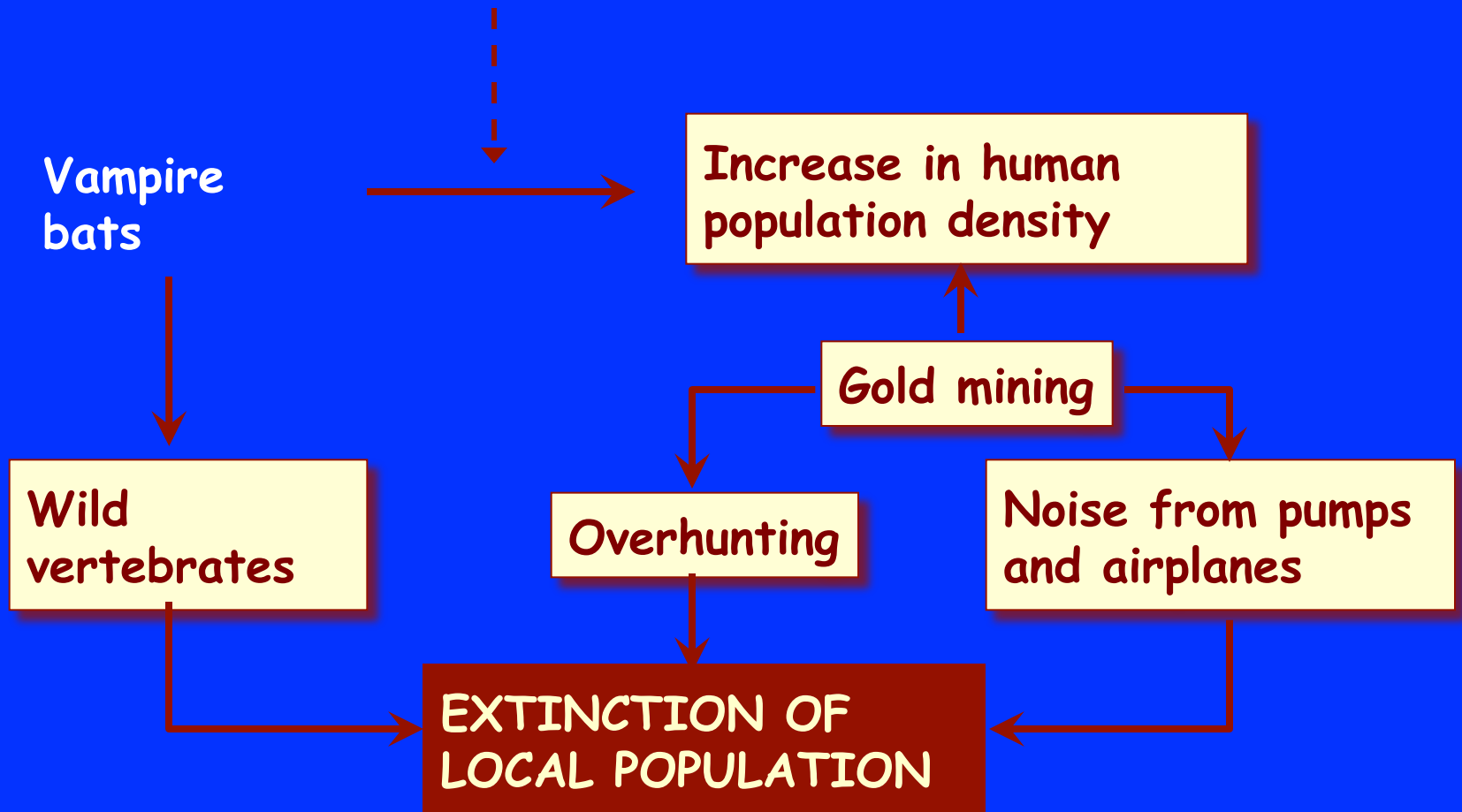
Land use Δ and other diseases

- Rabies from human incursion into rainforests?
- Yellow Fever, Latin America?
 - Sylvatic cycle: canopy mosquitoes & monkeys
 - Rapid re-emergence *Aedes* in cities poses risk for large epidemics as trees felled and migrant workers exposed
- Leptospirosis and irrigated rice fields?

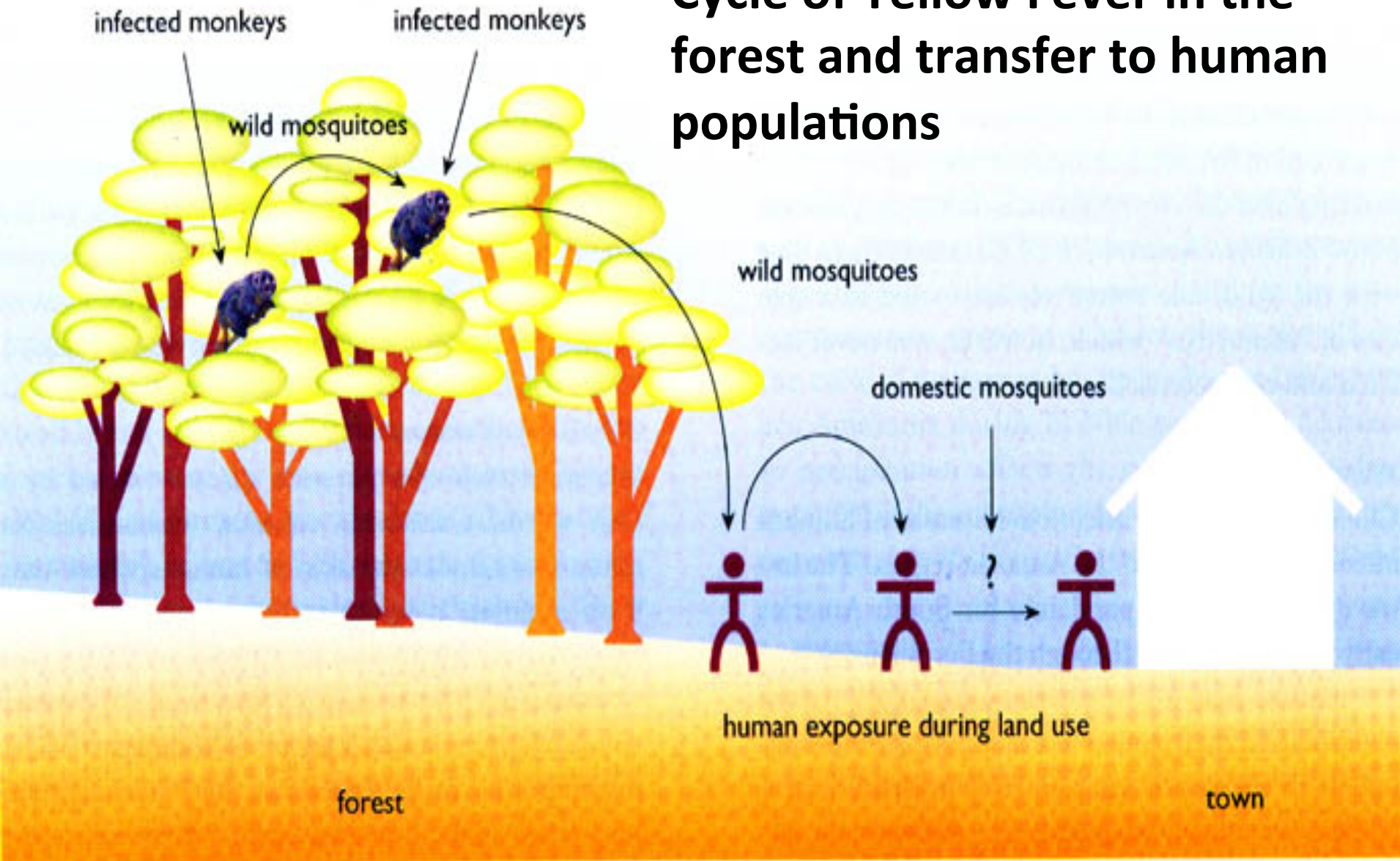
RABIES, Northern Amazon

Courtesy of: U. Confalonieri

(Transmission of rabies virus)



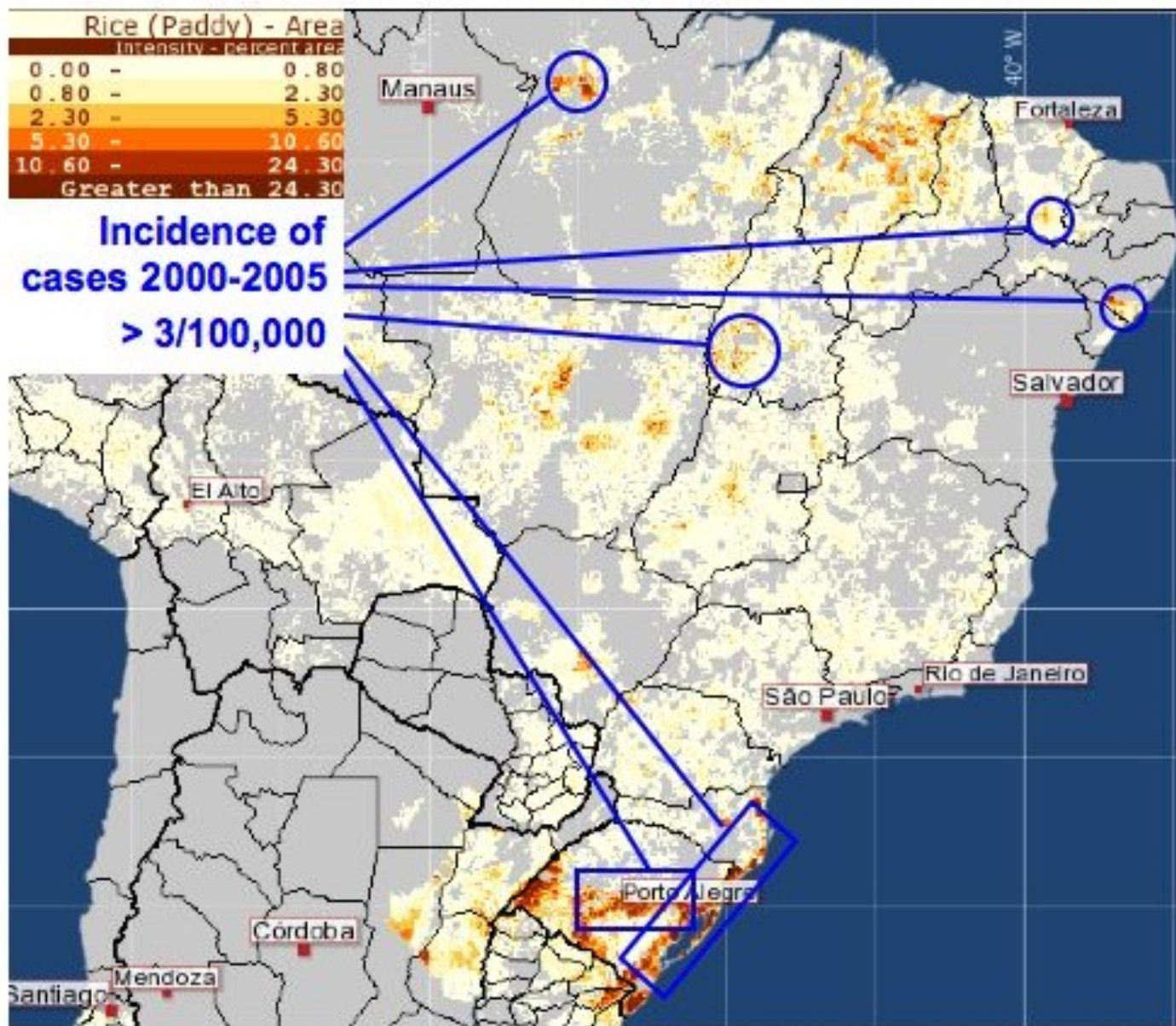
Cycle of Yellow Fever in the forest and transfer to human populations



Source: Confalonieri, 2001

Figure 6 Cycle of Yellow Fever in the Amazon Forest

Rice Cultivation and Leptospirosis in Brazil



Data source: Ministry of Health Brazil and Monfreda et al 2008

Conclusion

1. Intact ecosystems can “regulate” infectious diseases
2. Biodiversity change can directly or indirectly affect the risk of certain infectious diseases
3. Disease prevention must extend beyond human health systems to include ecological factors and monitoring their status