

# Impact of climate change on amoeba and the bacteria they host

Ashley Heilmann Bsc<sup>1</sup>, Zulma Rueda MD, PhD, CRC<sup>1</sup>, David Alexander PhD<sup>1,2</sup>, Kevin B Laupland MD, MSc, FRCPC<sup>3,4</sup>, Yoav Keynan MD, PhD<sup>1,5,6</sup>

**KEYWORDS:** climate change; amoeba; legionella; free living amoeba

**MOTS-CLÉS :** changements climatiques, amibe, légionellose, les amibes libres

Global temperature has risen faster from 1970 to 2020 than in any other 50-year period over that past 2000 years of human history (1). Climate change impacts many aspects of the environment, human society, and human health, including the distribution and activity of infectious disease. Out of 375 diseases considered to have a measurable impact on humanity, 58% showed evidence of an increase in severity that can be linked back to climate change (2). Additionally, climate change could potentially increase the risk of disease emergence (3). As the global temperature continues to rise, we are likely to see further effects on infectious disease trends.

This topic was previously discussed in a 2019 note by Carignan and colleagues (4), focusing on mosquito-borne, tick-borne, and fungal disease. We are revisiting this critical topic in the wake of the warmest July on record and with a focus on lesser known and investigated pathogens, specifically free-living amoeba and water-borne pathogens. When infectious diseases are discussed in the context of climate change, vector-borne diseases have received more focus. We aim to examine some of the less explored pathogens, as

well as highlight the gaps in our current knowledge of these diseases and their relation to climate change.

## FREE-LIVING AMOEBAS

Free-living amoebae are widely distributed across the environment, found in water, air, and soil environments. *Naegleria fowleri*, *Acanthamoeba* spp, and *Balamuthia mandrillaris* are most commonly associated with human disease (5). However, cases are rare, difficult to diagnose, and have varied presentations including cutaneous, mucosal and sinus infections, keratitis, and disease of the central nervous system (5,6).

The free-living amoeba with the most evidence of the effects of climate change is *N. fowleri*. *N. fowleri* is known for causing primary amoebic meningoencephalitis (PAM), which is predominantly associated with recreational water exposure (6–8) and has a mortality of 96% in laboratory confirmed cases (7). *N. fowleri* is thermophilic (6,8,9) and one of its food sources is cyanobacteria, which flourishes in warmer waters (8). Climate change raising the water

<sup>1</sup>Department of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada; <sup>2</sup>Cadham Provincial Lab, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada; <sup>3</sup>Department of Intensive Care Services, Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital, Butterfield Street, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia; <sup>4</sup>School of Clinical Sciences, Faculty of Health, Queensland University of Technology (QUT), Brisbane, Australia; <sup>5</sup>Department of Internal Medicine, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada; <sup>6</sup>Department of Community Health Sciences, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada

**Correspondence:** Yoav Keynan, Room 507, BMSB, 745 Bannatyne Avenue, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba R3E 0J9 Canada. Telephone: 204-480-1317. E-mail: [yoav.keynan@umanitoba.ca](mailto:yoav.keynan@umanitoba.ca)

© Association of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Disease Canada (AMMI Canada), 2024. This article is free to read to all interested readers, immediately upon publication. For their own personal use, users may read, download, print, search, or link to the full text. Manuscripts published in the *Journal of the Association of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Disease Canada* are copyrighted to the Association of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Disease Canada (AMMI Canada). Requests for permission to reproduce this article should be made to the University of Toronto Press using the Permission Request Form: [https://jammi.utpjournals.press/journal-policies#\\_copyright](https://jammi.utpjournals.press/journal-policies#_copyright) or by email: [journal.permissions@utpress.utoronto.ca](mailto:journal.permissions@utpress.utoronto.ca).

temperature and the heat driving more people to recreational water use are likely to increase encounters with this pathogen (8,9).

Furthermore, warming temperatures may be expanding the geographical range of *Naegleria* species. In 2023, four *Naegleria* species were identified in recreational lakes in Alberta, the first reported evidence of this genus in Canada (10). While *N. fowleri* was not found, the identification of other species indicates the environment could support its growth. Human cases of PAM have been found as close to the Canadian border as Minnesota (11). Additionally, an analysis of PAM cases in the United State has indicated a northward expansion of the disease (12). These cases occurred in the weeks after an increase in air temperature (12), once again indicating a potential relation to climate change.

Disease caused by other species of free-living amoeba has not been associated directly with climate change. However, the absence of a link cannot be confirmed as there is little research into these amoebas. Another angle to approach the effect of climate change on free-living amoeba is through the bacterial pathogens they host. Free-living amoeba (particularly *Acanthamoeba* spp) are hosts for a variety of species of pathogenic bacteria, often being an essential part of their life cycle. There is evidence of these intracellular bacteria being impacted by climate change, which implies an effect on the amoeba as well.

## INTRACELLULAR BACTERIA OF AMOEBAS

### *Legionella* spp

*Legionella* is an intracellular pathogen that causes a severe pneumonia known as Legionnaires' disease. Canada does not have a surveillance system for *Legionella*, but incidence in the United States has risen 6.5-fold from 2000 to 2019 (13). *Legionella* has a wide range of amoeba hosts, and the infection of these hosts enhances the pathogenicity of the bacteria, as well as enabling *Legionella* to persist in the environment (14). *Legionella* that is unable to be grown on rich media can even be resuscitated by infection of amoeba (14), emphasizing the relation between *Legionella* and its hosts.

Two significant climate change indicators are rising temperatures and increasing amounts of heavy precipitation (15), both of which enhance the growth of *Legionella*. Increased *Legionella* cases in the United States have been correlated with warming temperatures and high levels of precipitation attributed to climate change (16). Cases in Switzerland were associated with warm temperatures, heavy rainfall, and high humidity (17). Additionally, *Legionella*

cases across Denmark, Germany, Italy, and the Netherlands have been associated with increased temperature, rainfall, and atmospheric pressure, with the highest risk seen when temperature and rainfall increased together (18).

Rising temperature may also indirectly increase *Legionella* cases. In response, the use of air conditioning systems is increasing over time (19), and these systems are associated with *Legionella*. In particular, one review examining *Legionella* outbreaks showed that cooling towers were associated with 50% of outbreak-related cases and 60% of outbreak-related deaths (20).

In addition, *Legionella* rates have been shown to rise after storms (21–23). In the United States, tropical cyclones, which often cause widespread destruction and extreme flooding events, resulted in an increase in *Legionella* case rates (21). Infection rates were shown to consistently increase in relation to the amount of rainfall, with cases peaking 2–3 weeks after the storm in question (21).

The observed trend is significant because floods and storms are the most common climate-related disasters, and they are occurring more frequently as global temperature rises (22). From 1980 to 1999, the United Nations reported 3656 climate-related disasters. From 2000 to 2019, this number had risen to 6681 climate related disasters (24).

Overall, *Legionella* infections have been increasing over time and several key factors to this prevalence can be associated with climate change. The current progression of climate change is likely to continue the trend of increasing *Legionella* cases.

### Non-tuberculosis mycobacteria

Many species of non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) can be found within amoeba hosts, especially the species belonging to the mycobacterium avium complex (MAC) (25). NTM become more virulent and resistant to antibiotics when cultured in amoeba (26), which is concerning for the treatment of this disease. The MAC species are responsible for the majority of human infections, and case rates have been increasing worldwide (26,27). A recent systematic review calculated the global growth rate of NTM disease as 4.0% per 100,000 persons per year (27).

NTM has been associated with natural disasters (28), such as hurricanes (29), which as discussed above, are increasing due to climate change. Climate variables such as temperature, rainfall, flooding, and drought have also been shown to affect environmental NTM populations, but this varies by region making the exact relation to changes in climate unclear (30), though it indicates that environmental NTM are climate sensitive. This is key because at least some NTM infections likely come from environmental exposure. The evidence for this is that NTM isolated from

the lungs of infected persons has been shown to be genetically match environmental NTM isolates (25). Finally, NTM infection occurs most frequently in the tropics, and this range is expanding due to the global rise in temperature (26).

### *Chlamydophila pneumoniae*

*Chlamydophila pneumoniae* is a frequent cause of pneumonia and an obligate intracellular pathogen of amoeba such as *Acanthamoeba* spp (31). While *C. pneumoniae* has not been specifically linked to climate change, there is some evidence for pneumonia cases being impacted by climate change. Emergency visits for childhood pneumonia have been observed to increase after significant temperature changes on 2 consecutive days, and this impact was observed to increase between the two time periods analyzed (32). Unstable temperatures and weather patterns are considered signs of climate change (32,33).

Other evidence includes higher pneumonia prevalence in the rainy season of tropical and subtropical areas (33) and after natural disasters such as typhoons and tsunamis (34). However, the effects of climate on pneumonia cases vary significantly between different geographical areas (33). More research is required to define the relation between climate change and pneumonia, particularly the similarities and differences between various pneumonia-causing agents, such as *C. pneumoniae*.

## CONCLUSION

Climate change is proceeding at a rapid pace. The effects on infectious disease rates are not limited to vector borne diseases and are likely to continue. Climate change could potentially increase the risk of disease emergence, as well as expanding the range of current climate sensitive diseases. Adding diseases harboured by free living amoeba to surveillance systems will be important as the rise in extreme weather events and rising temperatures are expected to continue. As climate change continues, we will have to be mindful of water-borne and amoeba carried pathogens, considered uncommon in our geographical region, as that may not stay true in the future.

**CONTRIBUTORS:** Conceptualization, A Heilmann, Z Rueda, D Alexander, KB Laupland, Y Keynan; Writing – Original Draft, A Heilmann, Z Rueda, D Alexander, KB Laupland, Y Keynan; Writing – Review & Editing A Heilmann, Z Rueda, D Alexander, KB Laupland, Y Keynan, A Heilmann, Z Rueda, D Alexander, KB Laupland, Y Keynan.

**ETHICS APPROVAL:** Ethics approval was not required for this article.

**INFORMED CONSENT:** N/A

**REGISTRY AND THE REGISTRATION NO. OF THE STUDY/TRIAL:** N/A

**DATA ACCESSIBILITY:** All data will not be made publicly available. Researchers who require access to the study data can contact the corresponding author for further information.

**FUNDING:** No funding was received for this article.

**DISCLOSURES:** N/A

**PEER REVIEW:** This manuscript has been peer reviewed.

**ANIMAL STUDIES:** N/A

## REFERENCES

1. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Synthesis report of the IPCC sixth assessment report (AR6). <https://www.ipcc.ch/> (Accessed July 26, 2023)
2. Mora C, McKenzie T, Gaw I, et al. Over half of known human pathogenic disease can be aggravated by climate change. *Nat Clim Chang*. 2022;12(9):869–75. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41558-022-01426-1>. PMID: 35968032
3. Baker RE, Mahmud AS, Miller IF, et al. Infectious disease in an era of global change. *Nat Rev Microbiol*. 2022;20(4):193–205. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41579-021-00639-z>. PMID: 34646006
4. Carignan A, Valiquette L, Laupland KB. Impact of climate change on emerging infectious diseases: Implications for Canada. *JAMMI*. 2019;4(2):55–9. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3138/jammi.2018-12-10>
5. Kofman A, Guarner J. Infections caused by free-living amoebae. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2022;60(1):e00228–21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00228-21>. PMID: 34133896
6. Visvesvara GS, Moura H, Schuster FL. Pathogenic and opportunistic free-living amoebae: *Acanthamoeba* spp., *Balamuthia mandrillaris*, *Naegleria fowleri*, and *Sappinia diploidea*. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol*. 2007;50(1):1–26. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-695X.2007.00232.x>. PMID: 17428307
7. Gharpure R, Bliton J, Goodman A, Ali IKM, Yoder J, Cope JR. Epidemiology and clinical characteristics of primary amebic meningoencephalitis caused by *Naegleria fowleri*: a global review. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2021;73(1):e19–27. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa520>. PMID: 32369575

8. Dos Santos DL, Chaúque BJM, Virginio VG, et al. Occurrence of *Naegleria fowleri* and their implication for health – a look under the One Health approaches. *Int J Hyg Environ Health*. 2022;246:114053. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijheh.2022.114053>. PMID: 36308781
9. Stahl LM, Olson JB. Environmental abiotic and biotic factors affecting the distribution and abundance of *Naegleria fowleri*. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*. 2020;97(1):fiaa238. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/femsec/fiaa238>. PMID: 33242082
10. Dey R, Dlusskaya E, Oloroso M, Ashbolt NJ. First evidence of free-living *Naegleria* species in recreational lakes of Alberta, Canada. *J Water Health*. 2023;21(3):439–42. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2166/wh.2023.325>. PMID: 37338322
11. Capewell LG, Harris AM, Yoder JS, et al. Diagnosis, clinical course, and treatment of primary amoebic meningoencephalitis in the United States, 1937–2013. *J Pediatric Infect Dis Soc*. 2015;4(4):e68–75. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jpids/piu103>. PMID: 26582886
12. Gharpure R, Gleason M, Salah Z, et al. Geographic range of recreational water-associated primary amoebic meningoencephalitis, United States, 1978–2018. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2021;27(1):271–4. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3201/eid2701.202119>. PMID: 33350926
13. Barskey A, Lee S, Hannapel E, et al. Legionnaires' disease surveillance summary report, United States 2018–2019. <https://www.cdc.gov/legionella/health-depts/surv-reporting/2018-19-surv-report-508.pdf> (Accessed July 18, 2023)
14. Richards AM, Dwingelo JE, Price CT, Kwaik YA. Cellular microbiology and molecular ecology of *Legionella*-amoeba interaction. *Virulence*. 2013;4(4):307–14. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4161/viru.24290>. PMID: 23535283
15. United States Environmental Protection Agency. Climate change indicators in the United States. <https://www.epa.gov/climate-indicators> (Accessed July 28, 2023)
16. Han XY. Effects of climate changes and road exposure on the rapidly rising legionellosis incidence rates in the United States. *PLoS One*. 2021;16(4):e0250364. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0250364>. PMID: 33886659
17. Fischer FB, Saucy A, Vienneau D, et al. Impacts of weather and air pollution on Legionnaires' disease in Switzerland: a national case-crossover study. *Environ Res*. 2023;233:116327. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2023.116327>. PMID: 37354934
18. Beauté J, Sandin S, Uldum SA, et al. Short-term effects of atmospheric pressure, temperature, and rainfall on notification rate of community-acquired Legionnaires' disease in four European countries. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2016;144(16):3483–93. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268816001874>. PMID: 27572105
19. Sherman P, Lin H, McElroy M. Projected global demand for air conditioning associated with extreme heat and implications for electricity grids in poorer countries. *Energy Build*. 2022;268:112198. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2022.112198>.
20. Hamilton KA, Prussin II AJ, Ahmed W, Hass CN. Outbreaks of Legionnaires' disease and Pontiac fever 2006–2017. *Curr Environ Health Rep*. 2018;5(2):263–71. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40572-018-0201-4>. PMID: 29744757
21. Lynch VD, Shaman J. Waterborne infectious diseases associated with exposure to tropical cyclonic storms, United States, 1996–2018. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2023;29(8):1548–58. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3201/eid2908.221906>. PMID: 37486189
22. Brigmon RL, Turick CE, Knox AS, Burckhalter CE. The impact of storms on *Legionella pneumophila* in cooling tower water, implications for human health. *Front Microbiol*. 2020;11:543589. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmicb.2020.543589/full>. PMID: 33362725
23. Walker JT. The influence of climate change on waterborne disease and *Legionella*: a review. *Perspect Public Health*. 2018;138(5):282–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1757913918791198>. PMID: 30156484
24. Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters, United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction. The human cost of disasters: an overview of the last 20 years (2000–2019). <https://www.undrr.org/publication/human-cost-disasters-overview-last-20-years-2000-2019> (Accessed July 28, 2023)
25. Honda JR, Viridi R, Chan ED. Global Environmental nontuberculous mycobacteria and their contemporaneous man-made and natural niches. *Front Microbiol*. 2018;9:2029. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018.02029>. PMID: 30214436
26. Ratnatunga CN, Lutzky VP, Kupz A, et al. The rise of non-tuberculosis mycobacterial lung disease. *Front Immunol*. 2020;11:303. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2020.00303>. PMID: 32194556
27. Dahl VN, Mølhav M, Fløe A, et al. Global trends of pulmonary infections with nontuberculous mycobacteria: a systematic review. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2022;125:120–31. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2022.10.013>. PMID: 36244600

28. Honda JR, Bernhard JN, Chan ED. Natural disasters and nontuberculous mycobacteria a recipe for increased disease? *Chest*. 2015;147(2):304–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1378/chest.14-0974>. PMID: 25644904
29. Kambali S, Quinonez E, Sharifi A, et al. Pulmonary nontuberculous mycobacterial disease in Florida and association with large-scale natural disasters. *BMC Public Health*. 2021;21(1):2058. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-12115-7>. PMID: 34758787
30. Thomson RM, Furuya-Kanamori L, Coffey C, Bell SC, Knibbs LD, Lau CL. Influence of climate variables on the rising incidence of nontuberculous mycobacterial (NTM) infections in Queensland Australia 2001-2016. *Sci Total Environ*. 2020;740:139796. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139796>. PMID: 32563864
31. Strassmann JE, Shu L. Ancient bacteria-amoeba relationships and pathogenic animal bacteria. *PLoS Biol*. 2017;15(5):e2002460. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2002460>. PMID: 28463965
32. Xu Z, Hu W, Tong S. Temperature variability and childhood pneumonia: an ecological study. *Environ Health*. 2014;13(1):51. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1476-069X-13-51>. PMID: 24916742
33. Miraseidi M, Motahari H, Khamesi MT, Sharifi A, Campos M, Schraufnagel DE. Climate change and respiratory infections. *Ann Am Thorac Soc*. 2016;13(8):1223–30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1513/AnnalsATS.201511-729PS>. PMID: 27300144
34. Lim TK, Siow WT. Pneumonia in the tropics. *Respirology*. 2018;23(1):28–35. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/resp.13137>. PMID: 28763150