## we are IntechOpen, the world's leading publisher of Open Access books Built by scientists, for scientists



122,000

135M



Our authors are among the

TOP 1%





WEB OF SCIENCE

Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

### Interested in publishing with us? Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected. For more information visit www.intechopen.com



### Viral Evolutionary Ecology: Conceptual Basis of a New Scientific Approach for Understanding Viral Emergence

J. Usme-Ciro<sup>1,2\*</sup>, R. Hoyos-López<sup>1,2,3\*</sup> and J.C. Gallego-Gómez<sup>1,2†</sup> <sup>1</sup>Viral Vector Core and Gene Therapy (Neurosciences Group of Antioquia), Faculty of Medicine, University of Antioquia, Medellin, <sup>2</sup>Translational and Molecular Medicine Group, Faculty of Medicine, University of Antioquia, Medellin, <sup>3</sup>Molecular Systematics Group, National University of Colombia, Medellin, Colombia

#### 1. Introduction

Kilbourne first applied the term of Molecular Epidemiology in 1973 in a paper on influenza [1], since then the term has been extensively used for other diseases caused by viruses [2-4], bacteria [5-7], parasites [8-10] and even non-infectious diseases [11, 12]. Molecular epidemiology was subsequently accompanied by a more integrative definition of eco-epidemiology [13, 14] with little impact in scientific literature.

Although molecular epidemiology and eco-epidemiology are important in the understanding of disease and disease emergence [15, 16], we postulate here that the medical science community needs to consider a new conceptual approach to epidemiological studies of emerging infectious diseases (e.g. viral diseases). Emerging viral diseases are mainly caused by RNA viruses whose transmission cycles involve the ecological interaction with several actors and the evolutionary responses through time.

The new approach called Viral Evolutionary Ecology (VEE) [17, 18] combined with epidemiology will help us to better explain many emerging viral diseases by encompassing the complex interface between such factors as genetic structure, evolutionary biology and ecology of pathogens [19], and environmental aspects such as biodiversity, society, and human impact on natural ecosystems, all of them closely interplaying in ways often as yet unknown [20, 21]. This complimentary approach has been previously considered under the field of Evolutionary Epidemiology [22-24], however, the impact in the study of viral emergence needs to be highlighted.

Under the VEE framework where the real actors are the viruses instead of human beings, we can recognize our main role in disturbing the environment and offering conditions for new

<sup>\*</sup>These authors contributed equally

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>Corresponding Author

viruses to emerge. Viruses do not live for causing disease to humans, animals, plants or other organisms, they are simply naturally selected to increase their viral fitness, a process in which ecology and evolutionary biology play the main role, so viral emergence and disease are mere consequences of this dynamic.

In this sense, public health problems (e.g. several viral diseases) are the unexpected consequence of new ecological niches promoted by human actions on natural systems. In Luria's words "...each virus disease is potentially a different form of virus life..." [25]. Over the last 10 to 15 thousand years, humankind has been changing the planet, triggering the "Butterfly Effect" with dramatic alterations [26], producing new ecological landscapes called emerging or novel ecosystems [27], and the subsequent emergence of viral diseases.

Today, emerging viral diseases caused by respiratory, encephalitic and haemorrhagic viruses, and others like AIDS, have a severe impact on public health and economy not only in developing countries but also worldwide [28]. It is necessary to integrate current knowledge on VEE, with epidemiological and surveillance programmes to assess new public health policies.

#### 2. The study of risk factors and eco-epidemiology

Epidemiology is a field focused on estimation of distribution and frequency of risk factors, prediction of the public health impact, and finally, offering control and prevention strategies for reducing the effects of disease in human populations [29]. In a restricted sense, the emphasis of this scientific discipline is directed to the study of factors, in a closer contact among the infectious agent with humans, such as social, cultural, biological, environmental, etc.

The causes underlying the rise of disease are at macro (socio-cultural) and micro (cellular and molecular) levels, but they are indeed acting over the individuals, populations and communities [30, 31]. There are several lines of evidence on the relationship between natural ecosystems intervention and re/emergence of diseases produced by bacteria, parasites and viruses [32-37]. Specifically, for understanding viral emergence it is important to understand the sylvatic cycle of viruses, the transition to human populations, the relationship between vectors, pathogens and reservoirs in wildlife ecosystems, the change in the distribution of vectors and reservoirs after natural habitat fragmentation, and how these conditions are generating potential new roles and ecological niches for species.

Wild ecosystems historically disturbed by agricultural and industrial activities with changes in biotic and abiotic factors (water bodies distribution, soil profiles, plant coverage, breeding microclimate, vertebrate and invertebrate populations, etc.) [38], constitute new selective pressures for pathogens and therefore new opportunities for adaptation [39]. It allows vectors/reservoirs to exploit the new resources, favouring viral contact with potentially new host populations (humans). In fact, evidence of distribution and abundance of mosquitoes in intervened areas demonstrates the high frequency of endophilic species and parasites transmission [34, 40-42].

For instance, blood-sucking mosquitoes may constitute the connectors between real and potential transmission cycles as they allow arboviruses (<u>Ar</u>thropod-<u>bo</u>rne <u>Viruses</u>) to

circulate in different geographical regions [43], involving human and wild reservoir species (mainly Rodentia and Didelphimorphia) [44-46].

On the other hand, Eco-epidemiology has been defined in two ways: first, as a paradigm that can integrate multiple levels of causes to reconsider the risk factors for disease in a human population [14, 30]; second, as the study of ecological effects perceived as having adverse effects on populations, ecosystems and the services provided by nature [13, 47, 48]. Despite the breadth of the eco-epidemiological approach, interactions of the virus-vector-host triad, their complex cycles, incidence and prevalence of diseases in geographic areas, ecological dynamics and historical (evolutionary) factors must be considered using a more integrative approach that helps us to predict the pathogen distribution and potential emergence of disease.

When a virus is introduced into a new host population, or quickly expands its range with a corresponding increase in cases of the disease, it is considered an Emerging Virus [36, 49]. There are three ways for a virus to emerge: *De novo* evolution of a new virus; the introduction of an existing virus from another species; and spread of a virus from a smaller population in which the virus may have previously emerged or have been introduced [50]. In any case, emerging viruses are descents from those lineages that circulate naturally.

The study of emerging viruses is often invoked by Molecular Epidemiology, using phylogenetic methods to infer the origin, emergence, spread and disease dynamics [16, 39, 51]. Evolutionary and ecological dynamics of emerging viruses are so linked that viral diversity is correlated with the epidemic dynamics [52].

Although Epidemiology considers the risk factors and Eco-Epidemiology introduces ecological factors under causal thought, it is still necessary to include the evolutionary variable, which is the goal of the VEE approach.

#### 3. Viral evolutionary ecology

Viruses are not considered living beings but biological entities that evolve [53], and depending on the population size, their evolution can be determined in a higher or lower proportion by genetic drift or natural selection, respectively. Considering a natural transmission cycle of a virus between hosts, maybe involving an invertebrate vector, it is expected that adaptive evolution allows an efficient replication of the virus in such an environment [54]. If the ecosystem is stable and the transmission cycle has been established for a long time, it is expected that the rate of infection and mortality does not critically affect the host population [55]. The genetic background of current viruses evolved in such conditions possibly reflects the interaction of their ancestors with the whole environment, being better explained by an evolutionary ecology approach.

Ecology studies contemporary interactions, while Evolutionary Biology is concerned with historical issues. In this sense, Evolutionary Ecology is focused on the integration of these two disciplines to understand the most complicated issues, for example the causes of abundance and distribution of organisms, in relationship with abiotic and biotic dynamical variables [56-58].

VEE studies the impact of the evolutionary response of viruses to the hosts, and other interacting environmental factors, which are shaping their observed diversity and distribution patterns [18]. Although the role of evolutionary processes in driving viruses to new or more severe outcomes of diseases is known, the study of ecological and historical scenario, in which pathogen-host interaction evolves, is not always so well considered. VEE is becoming necessary for understanding and explaining the different patterns of disease in the human population, like acute-to-chronic [59], asymptomatic-to-lethal infections [55, 60] and the emergence of new viruses in humans [61, 62].

Under VEE, the virulence of pathogens is conceived as a process, in which a specific genotype or lineage is selected, which is translated into differential fitness and expansion of the disease [63]. The potential change in virulence resulting from selective pressures imposed by changes in host ecology has motivated the introduction of a new dimension within the objectives of epidemiology, incorporating ideas from the evolutionary ecology of parasites [64].

Viruses necessarily use the cellular machinery for their life cycles, however, the cell is only one component of the whole environment a virus has to face. Depending on the virus, a specific life history commonly involves replication in a specific cell type and tissue, the survivorship of viral particles in the external environment and specific transmission mode (e.g. aerosols, arthropod vectors, etc.) [65]. These features are some of the components of the Hutchinsonian niche of a virus allowing adaptation through time [66]. If every feature above is taken into account, virus-derived problems to humans could be easily understood, not like a virus-derived but a human-derived virus-driven problem (disease and/or disease emergence).

Several processes, such as transmission, host-shift, co-evolutionary arms race, resource tracking, competitive interactions and life histories, highlight the importance of ecology to explain past and current variation and distribution of viruses. Variables, such as host species, host density, competition with other viruses, genetic trade-offs on adaptation and physicochemical conditions, determine transmission and the final success of a virus in a specific host [67].

At present, the geno/phenotype of viruses is being challenged to overcome new changes, such as new host availability and loss of the original ecosystem. Thinking about the high diversity and adaptive potential of viruses, mainly because of their high mutation rates, large population sizes, short generation times and population dynamics [68-70], we expect from novel host and/or vector availability the adaptive evolution of new genetic variants in viral populations capable of exploiting the new environments and emerging in new transmission cycles involving new actors like humans, domestic and even wild animals.

Let us consider the AIDS epidemic whose responsible viruses are HIV-1 and -2. It was estimated that SIVs (Simian Immunodeficiency Viruses) had been circulating in African monkeys for at least 32,000 years [71] and HIV probably originated from them in the 1930s, with the most common recent ancestor (MRCA) estimated by mean of molecular clock analysis and coalescence theory, and the jump of species barrier probably due to the confluence of several factors [72].

122

Several hypotheses have been postulated to explain the emergence of HIV epidemic in humans. The first one related to hunters killing monkeys, natural reservoirs of SIV in a non-pathological relationship. The increase of dead monkeys in the forest and several events in Africa such as civil wars, human displacements, sexual violence, poverty and prostitution, could have produced an increase in size of SIV populations, contact between monkeys, their products and humans, altogether leading to the jump of SIV to human beings and originating the pandemic virus of the Twentieth Century [73].

On the other hand, not all SIV strains in Africa are closely related to posterior epidemic HIV strains. It was recently found that several GUD (Genital Ulcers Diseases, like syphilis, chancroid and lymphogranuloma venereum), prostitution and possibly lack of circumcision in African human populations, could have favoured the jump of species barrier or host-shift of SIV from monkeys to humans [74].

It could be more comprehensible using an illustration that represents the multidimensional space (hyper-volume) of environmental factors, that affect the performance of a species, as postulated by Evelyn Hutchinson [75]. In Figure 1, these n-dimensions are converted into only three coordinates for clarity. Performance of a viral species or genotype can be represented by a mountain (adaptive peaks in Simpsons' conception [76]), in which every peak corresponds to the maximum viral fitness of every viral species, or the maximum number of viruses produced by that specific genotype or species. Taking into account that fitness is a relative measure, viral fitness could change through evolutionary time as environmental conditions also change. Viral species in this model move over the surface of the adaptive landscape. If adequate environmental factors converge, the species could have real existence.

In our example, there are two mountains representing two viral species (Species A and Species B), existing in two different lapses of evolutionary time and infecting two different hosts (Sigma and Phi), respectively. Species A is the ancestor and could have originated Species B by successful adaptation after colonization of a new host. The probability of Species A exploiting the new host species (Phi) could be null (zero) or maximal (one). When environmental conditions dramatically change, as mentioned above with SIV, the probability of the Species A jumping to the host species Phi and the opportunity for adaptation to this new host are very high. The resulting virus (Species B) playing a new role in the ecosystem (new ecological niche) can be considered an emerging virus.

The trajectory of the virus jumping from one species to another could be represented using a curved arrow, in which fitness decrease is associated with poor adaptation to the new host at the initial contact [77]. After this process the adaptation allows a gradual fitness increase up to the highest peak, in which the phylogenetic nearness of the donor and the recipient host species is extremely important [78].

Figure 1 has the limitation of assuming that Species A disappears once the adaptation to the new host occurs. This is not always true as this ancestral virus could continue infecting the original host (Sigma) and co-exist with the descent virus (Species B) in evolutionary time. The same has occurred with emergent HIV and contemporary SIV strains, closely related to the ancestor of HIV.

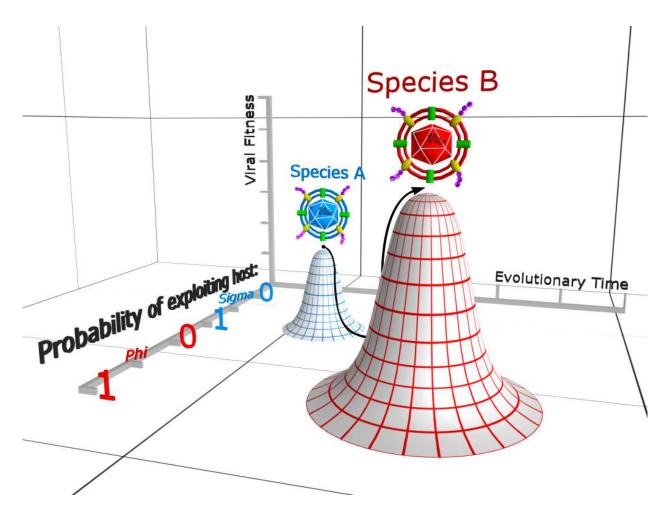


Fig. 1. Ecological niche, adaptive landscape and the jump of species barrier: adaptive landscape representing the fitness of two viral species (A and B) in their specific hosts (Sigma and Phi, respectively). Species A is the ancestor of B, generated after colonization of a new host species (Phi). The probability of Species A exploiting host Phi could be null (zero) or maximal (one) and depends on n-dimensions of the environment. Viral emergence occurs when species B originates from adaptation of the species B to the new host, with a new ecological niche.

## 4. The new multidisciplinary and integrated approach: Viral emergence using the VEE framework

Over the last 50 years of virological research, many fine details in the cellular and molecular biology of viral infection, immunology, viral morphogenesis and other topics have been elucidated. In spite of these tremendous advances, the interface between intra-host and inter-host dynamics has not been so well addressed. The causes and process of emergence of viral diseases have to be necessarily studied at the genetic and ecological levels in which several factors related with the ecology and evolutionary biology of pathogens, hosts and the pathogen-host relationship are undeniable.

In natural ecosystems, many viruses have natural transmission cycles, involving vectors and wild reservoirs, however, transformation of the landscape leads to changes in their

124

abundance and distribution [79, 80]. With these changes, some viral species could exploit the ecological resources, adapting to new hosts (e.g. humans), making possible the emergence of viruses [78, 81].

Viruses exist in a high variety of ecosystems, in which numerous elements are implied in their trafficking and disease dynamics [80]. An important group of viruses implied in emergent and re-emergent diseases belong to the families *Togaviridae* (genus *Alphavirus*), *Flaviviridae* (genus *Flavivirus*) and *Bunyaviridae* (genera *Orthobunyavirus* and *Phlebovirus*) [32, 35-37]. These viruses are transmitted by haematophagous arthropods, mainly mosquitoes (Diptera: *Culicidae*). The family *Culicidae* of insect vectors is often associated with sylvatic areas, historically modified by human activities like artificial landscapes (agriculture, livestock, mining, house building and urbanization) [32, 35-37].

Viral diseases are the evolutionary consequence of our historical landscape alteration. Considering the very ancient origin of SIV (several thousands of years), the recent emergence of HIV (1930s) and the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) as a new pathological entity, viral disease emergence can be considered as an evolutionary event, precipitated by changes in landscape ecology, due to human activity after the rise of agriculture (10 to 15 thousand years ago) [82]. If the ecological niche for species A (in Figure 1) is represented by the corresponding mountain, then new variables will be shaping the ecological niche for species B.

SIV has been infecting monkeys in Africa over thousands of years and HIV has recently arisen by SIV jumping and adapting from monkeys to humans. In this sense, the HIV epidemic could have been due to successful colonization and virus adaptation to the new host, and several other factors mediating transmission in the last host, all of them allowing the generation of a new ecological niche.

It is important to establish the phylogenetic relationship between virus isolates from different geographical regions (phylogeography), emphasizing the fact that ecological factors could explain the presence of a virus in the ecosystem and the necessary interactions for potential emergence (niche). Landscape ecology studies how landscape structure affects the abundance and distribution of organisms [83-85]. Combining landscape ecology with VEE will be a powerful tool for understanding the epidemiology of viral diseases that have devastating effects on the human population.

For epidemiology, it is important to identify any emergent pathogen for establishment of public health policies. It is worrisome that viral diversity in wild tropical areas is almost unknown. It is necessary to establish new and fast tools for taxonomic identification of both viruses and their arthropod vectors [86]. The study of ecologic variables mediating the transmission cycle (viral trafficking) will be useful in finding patterns and predictive factors for the emergence of new viruses.

VEE studies the responsible elements for maintaining viral circulation in wild ecosystems, as well as the patterns generated from ecosystem perturbation, which determine the convergence of conditions (ecological and evolutionary) in the new or emergent ecosystem favouring the co-existence of viruses, reservoirs and vectors [79, 87], and mediating viral disease emergence.

#### 5. Conclusion

Emerging viral diseases are seriously affecting human populations and our current epidemiological tools are insufficient to explain the emerging process. Viruses are not living organisms, but they have genomes and their evolution is governed by the same factors driving evolution in all other living beings. The emergence can be well understood as a biological process by applying concepts of evolutionary biology such as adaptation. If we also consider the environmental changes enabling new selective pressures (novel ecosystems), we can expect the appearance of new virus-host interactions (ecological niches). Therefore, epidemiological and evolutionary ecology studies must be integrated to obtain a better explanation of viral emergence and establishment of measures for the prediction and control of these devastating diseases.

#### 6. Acknowledgments

This work was funded by COLCIENCIAS (Colombia) grants: 11150418079, 111540820511, 111549326198 and 111545921525. Special acknowledgement to Dr. Christon J. Hurst at Xavier University, Cincinnati, Ohio (USA), for his continuous encouragement and support, including partial review of a preliminary version of this manuscript. JUC received a Doctoral Fellowship from COLCIENCIAS. The Neuroscience Group was granted by the Programa de Sostenibilidad 2009-2010 of the Universidad de Antioquia.

#### 7. References

- [1] Kilbourne ED. The molecular epidemiology of influenza. The Journal of infectious diseases. 1973 Apr;127(4):478-87.
- [2] Holmes EC, Zhang LQ, Robertson P, Cleland A, Harvey E, Simmonds P, et al. The molecular epidemiology of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 in Edinburgh. The Journal of infectious diseases. 1995 Jan;171(1):45-53.
- [3] Rota JS, Heath JL, Rota PA, King GE, Celma ML, Carabana J, et al. Molecular epidemiology of measles virus: identification of pathways of transmission and implications for measles elimination. The Journal of infectious diseases. 1996 Jan;173(1):32-7.
- [4] Saiz JC, Sobrino F, Dopazo J. Molecular epidemiology of foot-and-mouth disease virus type O. The Journal of general virology. 1993 Oct;74 (Pt 10):2281-5.
- [5] Handsfield HH, Totten PA, Fennel CL, Falkow S, Holmes KK. Molecular epidemiology of Haemophilus ducreyi infections. Annals of internal medicine. 1981 Sep;95(3):315-8.
- [6] Goarant C, Reynaud Y, Ansquer D, de Decker S, Saulnier D, le Roux F. Molecular epidemiology of Vibrio nigripulchritudo, a pathogen of cultured penaeid shrimp (Litopenaeus stylirostris) in New Caledonia. Systematic and applied microbiology. 2006 Nov;29(7):570-80.
- [7] Kazwala RR, Kusiluka LJ, Sinclair K, Sharp JM, Daborn CJ. The molecular epidemiology of Mycobacterium bovis infections in Tanzania. Veterinary microbiology. 2006 Feb 25;112(2-4):201-10.
- [8] Banuls AL, Hide M, Tibayrenc M. Molecular epidemiology and evolutionary genetics of Leischmania parasites. International journal for parasitology. 1999 Aug;29(8):1137-47.

#### 126

- [9] Ghosh S, Frisardi M, Ramirez-Avila L, Descoteaux S, Sturm-Ramirez K, Newton-Sanchez OA, et al. Molecular epidemiology of Entamoeba spp.: evidence of a bottleneck (Demographic sweep) and transcontinental spread of diploid parasites. Journal of clinical microbiology. 2000 Oct;38(10):3815-21.
- [10] Thompson RC, Colwell DD, Shury T, Appelbee AJ, Read C, Njiru Z, et al. The molecular epidemiology of Cryptosporidium and Giardia infections in coyotes from Alberta, Canada, and observations on some cohabiting parasites. Veterinary parasitology. 2009 Feb 5;159(2):167-70.
- [11] Hyman BT, Tanzi R. Molecular epidemiology of Alzheimer's disease. The New England journal of medicine. 1995 Nov 9;333(19):1283-4.
- [12] Lower GM, Jr., Nilsson T, Nelson CE, Wolf H, Gamsky TE, Bryan GT. Nacetyltransferase phenotype and risk in urinary bladder cancer: approaches in molecular epidemiology. Preliminary results in Sweden and Denmark. Environmental health perspectives. 1979 Apr;29:71-9.
- [13] Bro-Rasmussen F, Lokke H. Ecoepidemiology--a casuistic discipline describing ecological disturbances and damages in relation to their specific causes: exemplified by chlorinated phenols and chlorophenoxy acids. Regul Toxicol Pharmacol. 1984 Dec;4(4):391-9.
- [14] Susser M, Susser E. Choosing a future for epidemiology: II. From black box to Chinese boxes and eco-epidemiology. American journal of public health. 1996 May;86(5):674-7.
- [15] Kilpatrick AM, Daszak P, Goodman SJ, Rogg H, Kramer LD, Cedeno V, et al. Predicting pathogen introduction: West Nile virus spread to Galaipagos. Conserv Biol. 2006 Aug;20(4):1224-31.
- [16] Vasconcelos HB, Nunes MR, Casseb LM, Carvalho VL, Pinto da Silva EV, Silva M, et al. Molecular epidemiology of Oropouche virus, Brazil. Emerging infectious diseases. 2011 May;17(5):800-6.
- [17] Dennehy JJ. Bacteriophages as model organisms for virus emergence research. Trends in microbiology. 2009 Oct;17(10):450-7.
- [18] DeFillipis VR, Villareal LP. An Introduction to the Evolutionary Ecology of Viruses. In: Hurst C, ed. *Viral Ecology*. New York: Academic Press 2000.
- [19] Schrag SJ, Wiener P. Emerging infectious disease: what are the relative roles of ecology and evolution? Trends in ecology & evolution. 1995 Aug;10(8):319-24.
- [20] McMichael AJ. Environmental and social influences on emerging infectious diseases: past, present and future. Philosophical transactions of the Royal Society of London. 2004 Jul 29;359(1447):1049-58.
- [21] Ostfeld RS, Keesing F. Biodiversity and disease risk: the case of Lyme Disease. Conservation Biology. 2000;14(3):722-8.
- [22] Ewald PW. Cultural vectors, virulence and the emergence of evolutionary epidemiology. In: Harvey PH, Partridge L, eds. Oxford Surveys in Evolutionary Biology: Oxford University Press 1988.
- [23] Restif O. Evolutionary epidemiology 20 years on: challenges and prospects. Infect Genet Evol. 2009 Jan;9(1):108-23.
- [24] Mideo N, Alizon S, Day T. Linking within- and between-host dynamics in the evolutionary epidemiology of infectious diseases. Trends in ecology & evolution. 2008 Sep;23(9):511-7.

[25] Luria SE. General Virology. New York: Wiley 1953.

- [26] Reiners WA, Driese KL. Transport of energy, information, and material through the Biosphere. Ann Rev Environm Res. 2003;28:107-35.
- [27] Hobbs RJ, Higgs E, Harris JA. Novel ecosystems: implications for conservation and restoration. Trends in ecology & evolution. 2009 Nov;24(11):599-605.
- [28] Palumbi SR. Humans as the world's greatest evolutionary force. Science (New York, NY. 2001 Sep 7;293(5536):1786-90.
- [29] Carr S, Unwin N, Pless-Mulolli T. An Introduction to Public Health and Epidemiology. Open University Press. New York: McGraw-Hill 2007.
- [30] March D, Susser E. The eco- in eco-epidemiology. Int J Epidemiol. 2006 Dec;35(6):1379-83.
- [31] Susser E. Eco-epidemiology: thinking outside the black box. Epidemiology. 2004 Sep;15(5):519-20; author reply 27-8.
- [32] Carver S, Bestall A, Jardine A, Ostfeld RS. Influence of hosts on the ecology of arboviral transmission: potential mechanisms influencing dengue, murray valley encephalitis, and ross river virus in Australia. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis. 2009 Feb;9(1):51-64.
- [33] Cassis G. Biodiversity loss: a human health issue. Med J Aust. 1998 Dec 7-21;169(11-12):568-9.
- [34] Keesing F, Belden LK, Daszak P, Dobson A, Harvell CD, Holt RD, et al. Impacts of biodiversity on the emergence and transmission of infectious diseases. Nature. 2010 Dec 2;468(7324):647-52.
- [35] Morens DM, Folkers GK, Fauci AS. Emerging infections: a perpetual challenge. Lancet Infect Dis. 2008 Nov;8(11):710-9.
- [36] Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. Emerging infectious diseases. 1995 Jan-Mar;1(1):7-15.
- [37] Subbarao SK, Kumar KV, Nanda N, Nagpal BN, Dev V, Sharma VP. Cytotaxonomic evidence for the presence of Anopheles nivipes in India. J Am Mosq Control Assoc. 2000 Jun;16(2):71-4.
- [38] Robertson AI. The gaps between ecosystem ecology and industrial agriculture. Ecosystems. 2000;3:413-8.
- [39] Holmes EC. The Evolution and Emergence of RNA Viruses. New York: Oxford University Press 2009.
- [40] Connell JH. Diversity in tropical rain forests and coral reefs. Science (New York, NY. 1978 Mar 24;199(4335):1302-10.
- [41] Koren HS, Crawford-Brown D. A framework for the integration of ecosystem and human health in public policy: two case studies with infectious agents. Environ Res. 2004 May;95(1):92-105.
- [42] Montes J. [Culicidae fauna of Serra da Cantareira, Sao Paulo, Brazil]. Rev Saude Publica. 2005 Aug;39(4):578-84.
- [43] Forattini OP. Culicidologia médica: identificação, biologia, epidemiologia. São Paulo: Editora da Universidade de São Paulo 2002.
- [44] Balter M. Virus from 1959 sample marks early years of HIV. Science (New York, NY. 1998 Feb 6;279(5352):801.
- [45] de Thoisy B, Dussart P, Kazanji M. Wild terrestrial rainforest mammals as potential reservoirs for flaviviruses (yellow fever, dengue 2 and St Louis encephalitis viruses) in French Guiana. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg. 2004 Jul;98(7):409-12.

Viral Evolutionary Ecology: Conceptual Basis of a New Scientific Approach for Understanding Viral Emergence

- [46] de Thoisy B, Lacoste V, Germain A, Munoz-Jordan J, Colon C, Mauffrey JF, et al. Dengue infection in neotropical forest mammals. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis. 2009 Apr;9(2):157-70.
- [47] Cormier S, Norton SB, Suter GW. The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's Stressor Identification Guidance: A process for determining the probable causes of biological impairments. Human and Ecological Risk Assessment. 2003;9:1431-44.
- [48] Fox GA. Practical causal inference for ecoepidemiologists. J Toxicol Environ Health. 1991 Aug;33(4):359-73.
- [49] Morse SS. Emerging viruses: defining the rules for viral traffic. Perspect Biol Med. 1991 Spring;34(3):387-409.
- [50] Morse S. Emerging Viruses. New York: Oxford University Press 1993.
- [51] Sall AA, Zanotto PM, Vialat P, Sene OK, Bouloy M. Molecular epidemiology and emergence of Rift Valley fever. Memorias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz. 1998 Sep-Oct;93(5):609-14.
- [52] Pybus OG, Rambaut A. Evolutionary analysis of the dynamics of viral infectious disease. Nat Rev Genet. 2009 Aug;10(8):540-50.
- [53] van Regenmortel MH, Mahy BW. Emerging issues in virus taxonomy. Emerging infectious diseases. 2004 Jan;10(1):8-13.
- [54] Greene IP, Wang E, Deardorff ER, Milleron R, Domingo E, Weaver SC. Effect of alternating passage on adaptation of sindbis virus to vertebrate and invertebrate cells. J Virol. 2005 Nov;79(22):14253-60.
- [55] Pfennig KS. Evolution of pathogen virulence: the role of variation in host phenotype. Proc Biol Sci. 2001 Apr 7;268(1468):755-60.
- [56] Fox CW, Roof DA, Fairbairn D. Evolutionary Ecology: Concepts and Case Studies Oxford University Press 2001.
- [57] Krebs CJ. Ecology: The Experimental Analysis of Distribution and Abundance. 6 ed. San Francisco: Benjamin Cummings 2009.
- [58] Pianka ER. Evolutionary Ecology. California: Benjamin Cummins 1999.
- [59] Grenfell BT, Pybus OG, Gog JR, Wood JL, Daly JM, Mumford JA, et al. Unifying the epidemiological and evolutionary dynamics of pathogens. Science (New York, NY. 2004 Jan 16;303(5656):327-32.
- [60] Ebert D. Experimental evolution of parasites. Science (New York, NY. 1998 Nov 20;282(5393):1432-5.
- [61] Antia R, Regoes RR, Koella JC, Bergstrom CT. The role of evolution in the emergence of infectious diseases. Nature. 2003 Dec 11;426(6967):658-61.
- [62] Pepin KM, Lass S, Pulliam JR, Read AF, Lloyd-Smith JO. Identifying genetic markers of adaptation for surveillance of viral host jumps. Nature reviews. 2010 Nov;8(11):802-13.
- [63] Hurst CJ. Viral Ecology. London: Academic Press 2000.
- [64] Galvani AP. Epidemiology meets evolutionary ecology. Trends in Ecology and Evolution. 2003;18:132-9.
- [65] De Paepe M, Taddei F. Viruses' life history: towards a mechanistic basis of a trade-off between survival and reproduction among phages. PLoS Biol. 2006 Jul;4(7):e193.
- [66] Holt RD. Bringing the Hutchinsonian niche into the 21st century: ecological and evolutionary perspectives. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2009 Nov 17;106 Suppl 2:19659-65.
- [67] Holmes EC. The phylogeography of human viruses. Mol Ecol. 2004 Apr;13(4):745-56.

129

- [68] Moya A, Holmes EC, Gonzalez-Candelas F. The population genetics and evolutionary epidemiology of RNA viruses. Nature reviews. 2004 Apr;2(4):279-88.
- [69] Sanjuan R, Nebot MR, Chirico N, Mansky LM, Belshaw R. Viral mutation rates. J Virol. 2010 Oct;84(19):9733-48.
- [70] Domingo E. Virus Evolution. In: Knipe DM, Howley PM, eds. *Fields Virology*. Philadelphia: Wolkers Kluwer/Lippincott Williams and Wilkins 2007.
- [71] Worobey M, Telfer P, Souquiere S, Hunter M, Coleman CA, Metzger MJ, et al. Island biogeography reveals the deep history of SIV. Science (New York, NY. 2010 Sep 17;329(5998):1487.
- [72] Lemey P, Pybus OG, Wang B, Saksena NK, Salemi M, Vandamme AM. Tracing the origin and history of the HIV-2 epidemic. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2003 May 27;100(11):6588-92.
- [73] Ujvari SC. The History of the Dissemination of Microorganisms. Estudos Avançados. 2008;22(64):171-82.
- [74] de Sousa JD, Muller V, Lemey P, Vandamme AM. High GUD incidence in the early 20 century created a particularly permissive time window for the origin and initial spread of epidemic HIV strains. PloS one. 2010;5(4):e9936.
- [75] Hutchinson E. Concluding Remarks. Cold Spring Harbor Symposia on Quantitative Biology. 1957;22(2):415-27.
- [76] Simpsons GG. Tempo and mode in evolution. New York: Columbia University Press 1944.
- [77] Dennehy JJ, Friedenberg NA, Holt RD, Turner PE. Viral ecology and the maintenance of novel host use. Am Nat. 2006 Mar;167(3):429-39.
- [78] Hurst CJ. Defining the Ecology of Viruses. In: Hurst CJ, ed. *Studies in Viral Ecology*. Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 2011.
- [79] Yanoviak SP, Paredes JE, Lounibos LP, Weaver SC. Deforestation alters phytotelm habitat availability and mosquito production in the Peruvian Amazon. Ecol Appl. 2006 Oct;16(5):1854-64.
- [80] Weaver SC, Reisen WK. Present and future arboviral threats. Antiviral Res. 2010 Feb;85(2):328-45.
- [81] Cleaveland S, Haydon DT, Taylor L. Overviews of pathogen emergence: which pathogens emerge, when and why? Current topics in microbiology and immunology. 2007;315:85-111.
- [82] Barrett R, Kuzawa CW, McDade T, Armelagos GJ. Emerging and re-emerging infectious diseases: the third epidemiologic transition. Annual Review of Anthropology. 1998;27:247-71.
- [83] Turner MG. Landscape ecology: the effect of pattern on process. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics. 1989;20:171–97.
- [84] Wiens JA, Moss MR. Issues and Perspectives in Landscape Ecology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press 2005.
- [85] Ostfeld RS, Glass GE, Keesing F. Spatial epidemiology: an emerging (or re-emerging) discipline. Trends in ecology & evolution. 2005 Jun;20(6):328-36.
- [86] Childs JE. Pre-spillover prevention of emerging zoonotic diseases: what are the targets and what are the tools? Current topics in microbiology and immunology. 2007;315:389-443.
- [87] Vasilakis N, Cardosa J, Hanley KA, Holmes EC, Weaver SC. Fever from the forest: prospects for the continued emergence of sylvatic dengue virus and its impact on public health. Nature reviews. 2011 Jul;9(7):532-41.



**Epidemiology - Current Perspectives on Research and Practice** Edited by Prof. Nuno Lunet

ISBN 978-953-51-0382-0 Hard cover, 208 pages Publisher InTech Published online 13, March, 2012 Published in print edition March, 2012

This special issue resulted from the invitation made to selected authors to contribute with an overview of a specific subject of their choice, and is based on a collection of papers chosen to exemplify some of the interests, uses and views of the epidemiology across different areas of research and practice. Rather than the comprehensiveness and coherence of a conventional textbook, readers will find a set of independent chapters, each of them of a great interest in their own specialized areas within epidemiology. Taken together, they illustrate the contrast between the attempt to extend the limits of applicability of epidemiological research, and the "regular" scientific activity in this field or an applied epidemiology. Epidemiologists with different levels of expertise and interests will be able to find informative and inspiring readings among the chapters of this book.

#### How to reference

In order to correctly reference this scholarly work, feel free to copy and paste the following:

J. Usme-Ciro, R. Hoyos-López and J.C. Gallego-Gómez (2012). Viral Evolutionary Ecology: Conceptual Basis of a New Scientific Approach for Understanding Viral Emergence, Epidemiology - Current Perspectives on Research and Practice, Prof. Nuno Lunet (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-51-0382-0, InTech, Available from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/epidemiology-current-perspectives-on-research-and-practice/viral-evolutionary-ecology-conceptual-basis-of-a-new-scientific-approach-for-understanding-viral-eme



#### InTech Europe

University Campus STeP Ri Slavka Krautzeka 83/A 51000 Rijeka, Croatia Phone: +385 (51) 770 447 Fax: +385 (51) 686 166 www.intechopen.com

#### InTech China

Unit 405, Office Block, Hotel Equatorial Shanghai No.65, Yan An Road (West), Shanghai, 200040, China 中国上海市延安西路65号上海国际贵都大饭店办公楼405单元 Phone: +86-21-62489820 Fax: +86-21-62489821 © 2012 The Author(s). Licensee IntechOpen. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution 3.0</u> <u>License</u>, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

# IntechOpen

## IntechOpen