

Navigating the complexities of “One Health”

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Introduction

Widespread circulation of avian influenza in cattle, with some currently limited spillover infections into humans,¹ and the recent declaration of an mpox global emergency,² once again highlight the dramatic risk that zoonoses pose for human health. Additionally, the potential for human-to-animal transmission has been underscored by recent findings of abundant circulation of SARS-CoV-2 in wildlife.³ Taken together, these case studies reveal the importance of a broad view of pathogen dynamics that includes sylvatic, urban, and human transmission cycles. While the concept of a “One Health” approach⁴ can be difficult to conceptualize and daunting to contemplate, we argue here that certain unifying pillars can simplify this task, as in the integrative framework we present in Fig. 1 to detect epizootic or endemic pathogen spillovers (see Figure 1) with Covid-19-like pandemic potential.

Framework basics and concept of ‘indicator’ wildlife species

At the crux of One Health programs is the monitoring of three classes of populations: humans, domesticated animals, and wildlife. The difficulty of monitoring each of these is highly variable and high quality data is paramount. Certain forms of pathogen surveillance among humans have dramatically improved since their initial deployment, especially wastewater,⁵ and infection surveys⁶ during and after the COVID-19 pandemic. Further, important recent calls have been made for a Global Immunological Observatory^{7,8} that would identify changes in immunological signatures at the population level and more rapidly reveal cryptic pathogens spreading among humans.

43 A key benefit of movement monitoring is that sampling can be automated, continuous, and
44 fed immediately into AI systems using state-of-the-art machine learning algorithms for real-time
45 analysis. Then One Health program managers and scientists need only be alerted when changes
46 in movement and behavior are detected. In turn, active monitoring can be deployed (*e.g.*, with
47 serology and sequencing), and further investigations used to reveal the causative agent, and the
48 degree to which such a pathogen has the potential to ignite either a localized epidemic or a new
49 global pandemic. Finally, risk assessment of the potential for local versus a global outbreak could
50 be used to inform the policies needed for the rapid deployment of mitigation strategies in at-risk
51 domesticated animal populations and human communities.

52 While deploying monitoring systems in humans and domesticated animals is relatively straight-
53 forward, identifying an indicator species in wildlife is more difficult. A pathogen with pandemic
54 potential, however, may already be established (or emergent) in either the sylvatic, urban, or
55 human transmission cycles. In these cases, some of its details would already be known, and diffi-
56 culties associated with deploying surveillance should be partially alleviated. For example, current
57 global circulation of H5N1 avian influenza was first in birds and is now circulating abundantly in
58 domesticated cattle, with a few spillover infections in humans to date.¹ Further, SARS-CoV-2 is
59 now circulating widely in humans and animals;³ and in the latter, pathogens variants with the
60 potential to give rise to future pandemics may well emerge.

61 In systems where novel pathogens have the potential to emerge, it is possible that close relatives
62 of these pathogens have been identified and are currently circulating in humans, domestic animals,
63 or wildlife. These pathogens may then be monitored in a One Health program to see rates of new
64 variant emergence and evaluate these new (now circulating) variants in highly regulated (biosafety
65 level 3) labs that study their transmission and pathogenicity in appropriate animal model systems.
66 For example, multiple coronaviruses and influenza viruses are known to circulate in humans¹¹ and
67 animals.¹² Finally, it is possible that a pathogen with pandemic potential has no known relatives
68 in current circulation. To anticipate these, large-scale indicator species monitoring is required,
69 particularly across the sylvatic transmission cycle, to detect their emergence before they spill over.
70 If changes in organism temperature, behavior, or movement are detected, further investigation and
71 genome identification should occur.

72 Risk assessments

73 For general One Health approaches to succeed, there must be continual pandemic, epizootic, and
74 epidemic risk assessment using the latest quantitative methods, with an additional assessment of
75 spillover to evaluate the risk of zoonoses (Fig. 1). In our framework, we propose that each of these

76 specific assessments follows from data collected from either the indicator species (pandemic poten-
77 tial), domesticated animals (epizootic potential) and human populations (epidemic potential). For
78 epizootic and epidemic potential, data should be routinely monitored, and appropriate mitigation
79 measures consequently taken. Most importantly, if the risk of a potential zoonotic pandemic is
80 evaluated to be high, monitoring and sampling of the indicator species should be increased. If
81 these measurements remain abnormal, domesticated animals and humans need to be monitored
82 closely, including via sequencing and serology. With those data, risk assessments for epizootic
83 and epidemic potentials should be performed using the best available quantitative methods, and
84 appropriate therapeutics and vaccines developed and deployed according to cost-benefit analyses.

85 In our framework, we view animal vaccination primarily as a treatment strategy when epizootic
86 risks are high. However, such strategies could themselves affect risk assessments, creating an
87 important feedback loop between intervention and epidemiology. The magnitude of these effects
88 could be quantitatively captured with our proposed conceptual monitoring framework. While
89 animal vaccination is currently underutilized, there have been recent calls to develop and deploy
90 mass animal vaccination globally.¹³ With mass vaccination, our proposed monitoring approach
91 would also enable detailed cohort studies for the effects of such vaccines in wild and domesticated
92 animal populations. For example, epidemiological characteristics, such as vaccine efficiency for
93 both transmission-blocking and severity-reduction capacities, could be determined. Further, the
94 effects of animal vaccination on pathogen evolution could be monitored, and the vaccinal reductions
95 in cross-species transmission (and risk of spillover) determined. Finally, these cohort studies would
96 also clarify basic immunology (*e.g.*, strength and duration of immune response) and host-pathogen
97 interactions in these organisms (in humans, see Saad-Roy¹⁴ for a perspective on potential cohort
98 studies for immuno-epidemiology and evolution).

99 **Future outlooks**

100 For a One Health program to be successful, many regional, national, and global challenges must
101 be overcome. Locally, laboratory capacity must be sufficient to process a constant flow of samples.
102 In tandem, local computational availability is required to perform the necessary data analyses for
103 monitoring. While both already exist in some regions, the COVID-19 pandemic revealed that there
104 remains high inequity across the world. Further, since a One Health monitoring framework would
105 ideally span large physical areas, regional coordination of efforts is required. Finally, regional
106 policies should be synergized, and data shared immediately. These challenges are only magnified
107 at the global level, but resolving them is key for rapid identification and proper mitigation.

108 Importantly, climate change is poised to dramatically alter the landscape of infectious disease

109 transmission and spillover within the next decades. For example, recent phylogeographic modelling
110 suggests that such changes in climate will significantly accelerate animal-to-human zoonoses.¹⁵
111 Since the details of where and when these events will occur remains unknown, it is imperative to
112 deploy One Health monitoring mechanisms widely and rapidly. As the regions of contact between
113 wildlife and domestic animals, or between wildlife and humans, grow, surveillance mechanisms
114 should be enhanced to increase data collection at these critical junctions. In turn, these data
115 could also provide valuable insights on the effects of climate change on pathogen spillover and
116 evolution.

117 While the specifics of our framework hinge on a variety of factors, ranging from pathogen-
118 specific details to regional and national policies, the key elements of our framework make complex-
119 ities that are often associated with One Health more coherent and comprehensible. While many
120 One Health programs currently exist, none seamlessly integrate across domestic animals, wildlife,
121 and humans. Our proposed framework accomplishes this, as well as identifies the kinds of data
122 that require collection at each scale. If our framework was deployed in conjunction with a poten-
123 tial Global Immunological Observatory and ongoing wastewater surveillance, our societies would
124 have a very robust multi-pronged approach to pathogen detection. This could both anticipate and
125 prevent the next pandemic.

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