



Leptospirosis: A Global Health Challenge

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Abstract:

A zoonotic disease that poses a risk to public health worldwide is leptospirosis. The fact that people and animals coexist in close quarters makes the situation in developing nations extremely difficult. The genus *Leptospira* that cause this infectious disease is closely linked to interactions between humans, animals, and the environment. The aim of this paper is to present a thorough understanding of the intricate relationships that exist between the environment, the pathogen, and the host. This understanding is crucial for creating strategies that effectively prevent, diagnose, and control disease. In order to mitigate the disease's worldwide impact on animal and human health, more attention must be paid to it.

Keywords: Zoonotic, Human-animal-environment interaction, Worldwide, Hygiene, Immunisation

Introduction:

With a high prevalence of bacterial infection, leptospirosis is a serious zoonotic disease that affects the entire nation. In India, it is considered endemic in regions of Gujarat, Maharashtra, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, and the Union Territory of Andaman and Nicobar Islands. Recent epidemiological and clinical studies have increasingly focused on the disease due to its potential for outbreaks and its association with severe clinical outcomes, particularly pulmonary hemorrhage.

The causative bacteria are slow-growing, aerobic organisms with distinctive morphological traits. The severity of leptospirosis is influenced by the infecting serovar and the host species affected. Given its impact on domestic animals, wildlife, and humans, leptospirosis is recognized as a zoonotic disease. Animal infections commonly result from direct contact with *Leptospira*-contaminated urine or indirect exposure through contaminated water or soil.

The World Health Organization's (WHO) Leptospirosis Burden Epidemiology Reference Group estimates that approximately 1.03 million cases of leptospirosis occur globally each year, resulting in 58,900 fatalities. This pathogen poses a global health risk, with heightened prevalence in tropical and subtropical regions.

Etiology:

Leptospirosis infection is brought on by bacteria from the genus *Leptospira*, which is a member of the

family Leptospiraceae and phylum Spirochaetes. The main reservoir hosts for the virus are rodents, however other species can also be important in spreading the infection to people. Renal tubules from chronically infected, asymptomatic mammals—mostly rodents—continue to harbour pathogenic *Leptospira* species.

Through the urine of sick animals, the bacteria are released into the environment, where they can survive for a long time, especially in environments with warm temperatures, high humidity, and shade. A variety of animals can transmit the pathogen, including farm animals like cattle, pigs, and horses, as well as a wide range of wildlife such as raccoons and porcupines, and pet animals like dogs with environmental factors playing a crucial role in determining the geographic distribution of the disease, although human behavior also increases the chance of exposure. Animals typically contract the infection through environmental exposure, although venereal transmission has been observed in certain mammalian species.

The most common way that humans get the infection is through cuts on their skin or mucous membranes, where the bacteria is directly exposed. Alternatively, humans can get the infection by touching freshwater or moist soil that has been contaminated with animal urine, or by being around other animals that have the infection. Transmission from person to person is incredibly uncommon. Vulnerable groups are disproportionately affected by leptospirosis, particularly those working in agriculture and other rural occupations. Higher rates of leptospirosis are found in developing countries with tropical or subtropical climates.

Clinical Signs:

- Leptospirosis usually manifests as a rapid onset of symptoms after two to twenty-one days of incubation.
- The initial clinical presentation often resembles a flu-like illness, characterized by fever, headache, and myalgia. A wide spectrum of symptoms may manifest, including pyrexia, cephalgia, rigors, myalgia, vomiting, jaundice (icterus), conjunctival suffusion, diarrhea, and dermatological manifestations such as skin rash.
- Due to the nonspecific nature of these symptoms, it may be misdiagnosed as other febrile illnesses. Additionally, some individuals may remain asymptomatic despite being infected.
- Following exposure to contaminated sources, illness typically manifests within two to four weeks.
- The disease may progress through two clinical phases:
 1. The first phase characterized by an acute febrile illness with symptoms such as fever, chills, headache, myalgia, vomiting, or diarrhea, after which the patient may recover temporarily.
 2. When a second phase develops, it is typically more severe and may cause problems such as meningitis, hepatic failure, or renal failure.
- The disease course can vary from a few days to several weeks or longer. Without appropriate treatment, recovery may be prolonged over several months.

In canines, the clinical presentation of leptospirosis is variable and depends on factors such as the infecting

serovar, the immune status of the dog, and other contributing factors. Some infected dogs may remain asymptomatic, while others may exhibit mild, self-limiting illness. Serious leptospirosis instances can result in potentially fatal diseases. Dogs may exhibit a variety of nonspecific clinical symptoms, such as weight loss, myalgia, emesis, lethargy, diarrhea, jaundice, dehydration, polyuria, and polydipsia.

Severe complications may involve hepatic or renal failure. Some dogs may develop respiratory distress and pulmonary involvement. Hemorrhagic manifestations, such as epistaxis, petechiae on the mucous membranes, pallor, or blood-tinged vomitus, urine, feces, or saliva, can also occur. In severe cases, fluid accumulation may lead to peripheral edema or effusions in the thoracic or abdominal cavities.

Treatment:

When leptospirosis symptoms are moderate, doxycycline is the recommended medication, provided there are zero contraindications. Alternative antibiotics include azithromycin, ampicillin, and amoxicillin. Penicillin injection is the recommended course of treatment for severe leptospirosis infections, with ceftriaxone and cefotaxime serving as alternative options. Patients with severe forms of the infection may require hospitalization and supportive interventions, such as mechanical ventilation in cases of respiratory failure, dialysis for oliguric renal failure, and intravenous fluid resuscitation along with electrolyte supplementation.

Diagnosis:

Laboratory confirmation is essential to identify the serovar responsible for the specific infection. The microscopic agglutination test (MAT) is the gold standard for diagnosis, while solid-phase assays can be employed to detect Immunoglobulin M (IgM) antibodies. Additionally, dark field microscopy can be used for visualizing *Leptospira*, and Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) is useful for detecting pathogen DNA in serum samples.

Prevention & Control:

To efficiently curb the spread of the disease, a thorough and multi-dimensional approach must be implemented. Involve the local community in rodent control initiatives, utilizing methods such as trapping and rodenticides. Create customized occupational safety guidelines that focus on disinfection practices, mandatory use of protective clothing, and detailed handling procedures for individuals working in high-risk sectors such as agriculture, mining, veterinary services, and sewage treatment. Doxycycline prophylaxis can be recommended as a preventive measure for at-risk populations.

Enhance hygiene practices, prioritizing the regular maintenance of cattle barns and the elimination of stagnant water. Recommend that farmers and individuals exposed to flood-prone areas vaccinate their livestock and wear protective gear, such as waterproof dressings and rubber boots. Encourage immediate washing of hands and feet if contact with potentially hazardous substances is suspected.

Routine health screenings increase the likelihood of early detection and prompt treatment for both humans and animals in the endemic regions. Raising awareness about the risks and prevention of

leptospirosis can be achieved by crafting culturally relevant messages and disseminating them through diverse media channels. This comprehensive approach equips communities with the necessary information to proactively safeguard their health. Prioritize improved farm sanitation, regular health assessments for animals and humans, livestock vaccinations, maintenance of animal shelters, and launching awareness initiatives.

Conclusion:

Leptospirosis is difficult to prevent and control since it affects both domestic and wild animals widely. The disease can be minimized by spotting affected and carrier animals, vaccinating against the disease, installing appropriate drainage systems, and disinfecting the contaminated water supply. In the future, disease occurrences can possibly be reduced by implementing preventative measures, immunizing susceptible populations with either the existing or next-generation vaccines, and promptly notifying outbreaks.

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