

Climate change and infectious diseases in Australia's Torres Strait Islands

Nina L. Hall,¹ Samuel Barnes,¹ Condy Canuto,¹ Francis Nona,¹ Andrew M. Redmond^{2,3}

Our islands have been continuously inhabited by Indigenous people for tens of thousands of years, but the climate crisis is endangering all of this. Rising seas caused by man-made climate change are threatening homes, swamping burial grounds and washing away sacred cultural sites... We, as a people, are connected to these islands through our cultural practices and traditions. If our connection to these lands disappears, our Indigenous culture disappears.¹

This speech was made by Mr Kabay Tamu as one of eight of Torres Strait Islanders who sought action against the Australian Government through the United Nations' Human Rights Committee in 2019.¹ The complainants asserted that Australia's responses to reducing climate change-causing emissions or to developing adaptation measures had been inadequate, and thus infringed upon their human rights obligations to Torres Strait Islander peoples.²

Scientific assessments provide further evidence of this inadequacy. The Torres Strait Islands are located above the northernmost tip of Queensland, Australia, and are already experiencing impacts attributed to human-induced climate change. Cyclones are projected to become more intense.³ Drought conditions in this region have affected the security of water supply, requiring the installation of mobile desalination plants.⁴ Changes to temperature and rainfall have affected the range and extent of mosquito species that are vectors for dengue, and the islands are currently the only Australian location with the invasive virus-vector mosquito, *Aedes albopictus*.⁵

Abstract

Objective: This research seeks to identify climate-sensitive infectious diseases of concern with a present and future likelihood of increased occurrence in the geographically vulnerable Torres Strait Islands, Australia. The objective is to contribute evidence to the need for adequate climate change responses.

Methods: Case data of infectious diseases with proven, potential and speculative climate sensitivity were compiled.

Results: Five climate-sensitive diseases in the Torres Strait and Cape York region were identified as of concern: tuberculosis, dengue, Ross River virus, melioidosis and nontuberculous mycobacterial infection. The region constitutes 0.52% of Queensland's population but has a disproportionately high proportion of the state's cases: 20.4% of melioidosis, 2.4% of tuberculosis and 2.1% of dengue.

Conclusions: The Indigenous Torres Strait Islander peoples intend to remain living on their traditional country long-term, yet climate change brings risks of both direct and indirect human health impacts.

Implications for public health: Climate-sensitive infections pose a disproportionate burden and ongoing risk to Torres Strait Islander peoples. Addressing the causes of climate change is the responsibility of various agencies in parallel with direct action to minimise or prevent infections. All efforts should privilege Torres Strait Islander peoples' voices to self-determine response actions.

Key words: climate change, infectious diseases, Torres Strait Islands, Indigenous health, Australia

Such climatic changes bring risks to human health, including direct impacts from injury and death during extreme weather events, and indirect impacts mediated through environmental and social changes such as increased risks of infectious diseases and changes to nutrition, and water and food access, hygiene and security.⁶ These health impacts may be greater for Torres Strait Islander peoples due to their remote location with limited healthcare services, lower economic resources, and a higher burden of pre-existing health conditions.⁷ However, living on 'country' (traditional estate) is of

great importance to Torres Strait Islanders to maintain cultural responsibilities, identity and kinship connections – and this can also bring health benefits.⁷⁻⁹

A call for increased attention to climate change and health impacts on the Torres Strait Islander peoples was made in 2019 by 22 medical professionals working in the Queensland Government's Torres and Cape Health and Hospital Service region:

[In the Torres Strait,] climate change is a health emergency. We [medical officers] are concerned about the immediate effects of heat stress and extreme weather events as

1. School of Public Health, The University of Queensland

2. Faculty of Medicine, The University of Queensland

3. Infectious Diseases Unit, Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital, Queensland

Correspondence to: Dr Nina Lansbury Hall, School of Public Health, The University of Queensland, 220 Herston Rd, Herston, Queensland 4006; e-mail: n.hall2@uq.edu.au

Submitted: July 2020; Revision requested: October 2020; Accepted: December 2020

The authors have stated they have no conflict of interest.

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

Aust NZ J Public Health. 2021; 45:122-8; doi: 10.1111/1753-6405.13073

*well as the long-term effects ... Vulnerable populations are disproportionately affected by climate change and unabated climate change will only steepen this social health gradient ... Proper investment ... is required to ensure our population is as healthy as possible for climate change ...*¹⁰

This research responds to part of this call by identifying the present and future likelihood of increased occurrence of climate-sensitive infectious diseases. It provides more detail to previous climate-focused health research that noted changes in “temperature, humidity and rainfall can influence the transmission dynamics of infectious diseases”^{6(p561)} and that climate change will compound determinants of infectious diseases, notably “globalisation, population growth and social and demographic inequalities”.^{11(p1)} In responding to this call, this research addresses climate disruption through a localised perspective of the geographically vulnerable Torres Strait Islands. The research approach overtly recognises the importance of Torres Strait Islanders’ voices to self-determine responses and contributes evidence to the need for climate change to be

adequately addressed to prevent human and ecological damage.

Background

This research was conducted by five health researchers, two of whom are Torres Strait Islanders. These two co-authors brought both their professional and cultural knowledge to the proposed need for the research, contribution of the research and specific topic focus. This approach acknowledges that research regarding Indigenous peoples and their country should proceed only with their consent, input and involvement – to reconsider collaboration, power and access that has long been Western-dominated.¹² More specifically, Torres Strait Islander researchers have called for traditional and cultural knowledge to be accessed by fellow Islanders to respond to complex environmental problems, including climate change research and associated resilience strategies.¹³

The Torres Strait Islands is an archipelago of approximately 200 islands covering 48,000

square kilometres located between the northernmost tip of Cape York in Queensland, Australia, and the south-western coast of Papua New Guinea.^{3,14} Seventeen of the Torres Strait Islands are permanently inhabited and serviced with electricity, water and sewerage.¹⁴ The largest population and commercial centre are located on Thursday Island. Figure 1 displays the islands within the wider region of the Torres and Cape Hospital and Health Service and names all inhabited islands.¹⁵

Torres Strait Islanders are ethnically, linguistically and culturally distinct from mainland Aboriginal Australians and were legally recognised as a separate people under the *Queensland Torres Strait Islanders Act 1939*.¹⁶ The Torres Strait Islander population is a ‘sub-minority’ of Australia’s total Indigenous population:¹⁷ the total population in June 2016 of 70,880 Torres Strait Islander peoples was 8.8% of the 798,400 total Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, which in turn forms 3.3% of the total Australian population.¹⁸

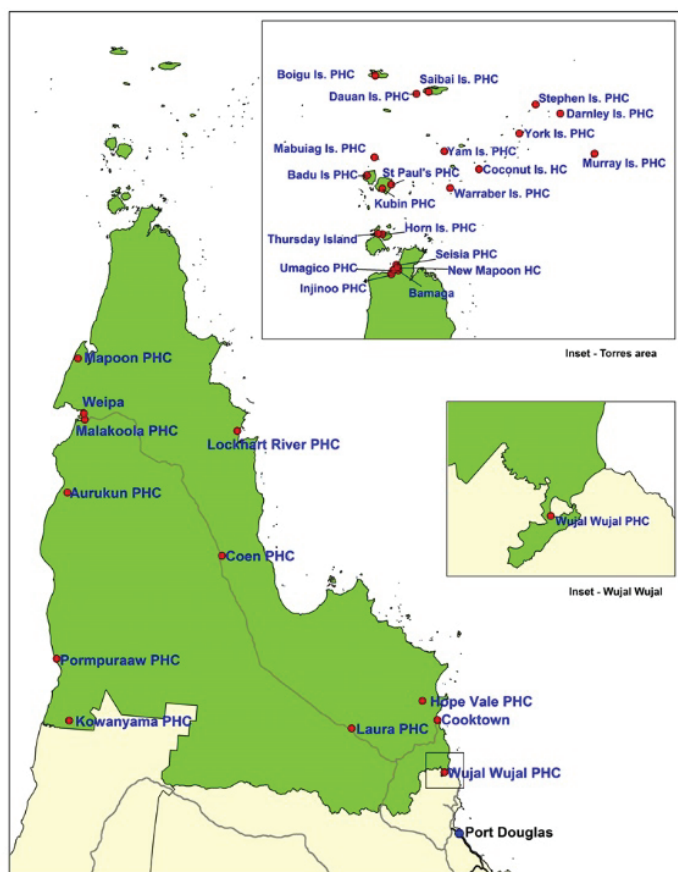
For the 4,994 (7%) of Torres Strait Islanders living in the Torres Strait,¹⁸ the desire to live on traditional country remains strong; additionally, the diaspora maintains close family and country contact.¹⁹ The *Torres Strait Treaty 1978* (ratified in 1985) maintains the region administratively as part of the Commonwealth of Australia while recognising and enabling traditional hunting and fishing rights.³

Torres Strait Islanders describe their notion of health and wellbeing as being supported through a close relationship between living on country and being immersed in community, and individual health.⁷ Yet climate change has been documented as having current and future impacts on these aspects in the Torres Strait Islands and its peoples from increases in temperature and prolonged warm periods, the intensity of rainfall events, the length of the dry season and evaporation, tropical storm activity and sea-level rise.³

Methods

This research employed a desktop-based study to identify climate-sensitive diseases of concern in the Torres Strait; these are defined as infections that may be affected by changing climatic conditions including local weather, air temperature, precipitation and

Figure 1: Map of Torres Strait and Cape Hospital and Health Service, with the Torres Strait Islands featured in the upper inset.¹⁵



humidity, water availability and food sources. Such conditions can change the distribution and breeding conditions of vector-borne diseases, the population density or location of the animal species reservoir, and the disease transmission pathways.^{11,20}

The compilation of relevant infectious diseases with proven, potential and speculative climate sensitivity occurred under the guidance of one of the co-authors who is a senior practising infectious diseases physician. An initial and non-exhaustive list of infectious diseases was compiled from the World Health Organization's list of Neglected Tropical Diseases,²¹ the diseases described in the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's Fifth Assessment Report,²² and the Queensland State Department of Health's list of notifiable conditions.²³

Following this compilation, a narrative review was conducted to provide a comprehensive background for topical understanding and identify inconsistencies or gaps with the current body of literature.^{24,25} A database search of journal databases was conducted using key terms with Boolean operators of "climate change" AND "infectious disease" AND "Australia" within three databases (PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science). Articles were excluded if they were published before 2009 to ensure recent publications within the decade and the search was limited to articles of research published in English with full-text available. The search yielded 139 articles, of which 35 articles met the inclusion criteria. Grey literature augmented the limited peer-reviewed literature.²⁶

To identify climate-sensitive infectious diseases present or emerging in the Torres Strait and surrounding areas in Cape York, the articles were further searched individually, with only two^{27,28} describing the Northern Australian region (that includes the Torres Strait) and nine noting diseases with climate sensitivity in tropical environments.^{27,29-36} The Queensland Government's public notifiable conditions database was consulted for case data of reported diseases for the Torres [Strait] and Cape [York] Hospital and Health Service (HHS) region over the past six years.²³ It is noted that the Torres and Cape HHS region includes communities and towns on mainland Australia and a total population of 27,000, of which 64% identify as 'Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander', and is therefore not specific to Torres Strait Islander peoples.³⁷

The list of infectious diseases was further refined to select diseases of concern if

they met four criteria: a vaccine not being available, causing significant morbidity (defined as a major condition with a risk of disability or death), being difficult to control (defined as challenging to prevent the spread of infections even with standard and transmission-based precautions), and regularly occurring in the Torres and Cape HHS region. The diseases were assessed against these criteria consulting the Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases³⁸ and from the case data of the Queensland Government's notifiable conditions database.²³

Results

The compilation of 33 climate-sensitive infectious diseases is displayed in Table 1 and clustered by transmission through air-, food-, soil-, water- and vector-borne sources. The word 'occurrence' is applied as a term to describe the range of implications from these changes on transmission, distribution or prevalence of the identified infectious disease. The climatic changes described included temperature, humidity, rainfall, extreme weather events, ultraviolet radiation, sun exposure, and density of the reservoir population found to be likely to alter the occurrence. The majority of infectious diseases (29 of 33) were anticipated to increase in occurrence from climate-related aspects, although the level of change was unable to be quantified from the literature available.

The infectious diseases listed in Table 1 were cross-referenced with those listed in Queensland Health's notifiable conditions database for the Torres and Cape region²³ and with literature identifying the likelihood of such diseases in the Torres Strait, northern or tropical Australia. This process identified 24 climate-sensitive infectious diseases (from the original total of 33 diseases) and these are displayed in Table 2. Four diseases are air-borne (measles, meningococcal disease, tuberculosis and varicella), five are food-borne (campylobacteriosis, giardiasis, salmonellosis, shigellosis and typhoid), two are soil-borne (melioidosis and nontuberculous mycobacteria), eight are vector-borne (Barmah Forest virus, chikungunya, dengue, Hendra virus, Japanese encephalitis, Kunjin virus, malaria and Ross River virus), and five are water-borne (cholera, cryptosporidiosis, hepatitis A, legionellosis and leptospirosis). All but one disease

(giardiasis) were listed as notifiable diseases in Queensland, and there were cases recorded of 16 of these 24 diseases in the Torres and Cape HHS between 2014 and 2019.

The 24 infectious diseases identified in Table 2 were further reviewed to identify climate-sensitive diseases in the Torres Strait of particular concern against the criteria of not being vaccine-preventable in Australia, causing significant morbidity, difficult to control, and regularly occurring in the Torres and Cape HHS region.^{23,38} This process resulted in five climate-sensitive diseases of concern: one air-borne infection (tuberculosis), two mosquito-borne infections (dengue; Ross River virus) and two soil-borne infections (melioidosis; nontuberculous mycobacteria).

These diseases are presented in Table 3, where the Torres and Cape HHS case data for 2014–2019 are compared with the statewide data for the same period in Queensland. Given that the population of 27,000 living in the Torres and Cape HHS³⁷ is 0.53% of the total Queensland population of approximately five million, the anticipated number of cases are presented in this table against the actual cases. Table 3 identifies that the Torres and Cape HHS region has a disproportionately high number of disease cases: in the six-year period reported here (2014–2019), this region had 20.4% of the Queensland's melioidosis cases, 2.4% of tuberculosis cases, and 2.1% of dengue cases.

Discussion

This section profiles the five identified infectious diseases of concern under a changing climate in the Torres Strait. These diseases are presented within the context that Torres Strait Islander peoples intend to remain living on country and this population experiences a higher burden of co-morbidities than the general Australian population.⁶² These two aspects, therefore, increase the potential morbidity from climate-sensitive infections.

Tuberculosis can increase occurrence through increases humidity, rainfall and temperature – factors that are exacerbated by climate change.^{39,63} Although Australia has one of the lowest rates of tuberculosis incidence globally,⁶⁴ there is a discrepancy. In 2015, the Australian-born non-Indigenous population notification rate was 0.8 per 100,000, but for Indigenous Australians, the rate was 4.8 per 100,000.^{64,65} There were 27 cases

Table 1: Infectious diseases with reported relationship with climate change.

Transmission	Disease	Climate sensitivity		
		Factor projected to increase occurrence	Factor of change with inconclusive impact on occurrence	Factor projected to decrease occurrence
Air-borne	Measles	Temperature ⁶ Relative Humidity ⁶ Rainfall ⁶		
	Meningococcal disease	UV Radiation ⁶		Temperature ⁶ Rainfall ⁶
	Tuberculosis	Temperature ³⁹ Humidity ³⁹ Rainfall ³⁹		
	Varicella	Sun exposure ⁶	Temperature ⁶	
Food-borne	Campylobacteriosis	Temperature ^{40,41} Relative Humidity ⁴⁰ Rainfall ^{40,41}	Temperature ⁴²	
	Giardiasis	Temperature ²⁹ Rainfall ²⁹		
	Salmonellosis	Increased temperature ^{11,20,29,40,43-45} Relative Humidity ⁴⁰ Rainfall ⁴⁰		
	Shigellosis	Temperature ⁴¹ Rainfall ⁴¹		
Food-borne (also water-borne)	Typhoid		Undetermined factor ⁴⁶	
Soil-borne	Melioidosis	Temperature ⁴⁷ Rainfall ^{27,29,40,45}		
	Nontuberculous mycobacteria	Extreme weather events ⁴¹		
Vector-borne	Barmah Forest virus	Temperature ⁴⁸		
	Chikungunya		Undetermined factor ²⁹	
	Dengue	Temperature ^{32,49,50} Rainfall ^{49,50} Relative Humidity ^{49,50}		
	Hantavirus	Temperature ⁵¹ Rainfall ⁵¹		
	Hendravirus	Temperature ⁵² Reservoir population density ⁵³ Reduced Rainfall ⁵³		
	Japanese encephalitis	Temperature ⁶ Rainfall ⁶		
	Kunjin virus	Rainfall ^{28,40} Temperature ²⁸		
	Lyme disease	Temperature ²⁰		
	Malaria	Temperature ^{20,40,54} Rainfall ⁵⁴		
	Murray Valley encephalitis	Rainfall ⁴⁰		Temperature ⁴⁰
	Nipah virus	Reservoir population density ²⁰		
	Rift Valley fever	Reservoir population density ²⁰		
	Ross River virus	Temperature ³³		
	Schistosomiasis		Undetermined factor ²⁰	
	Tick-borne encephalitis	Reservoir population density ²⁰		
	West Nile fever	Reservoir population density ²⁰		
	Zika virus		Undetermined factor ^{29,55}	
Water-borne	Cholera	Temperature ⁴³ Extreme weather events ⁵⁶		
	Cryptosporidiosis	Rainfall ^{29,31} Temperature in metropolitan areas ⁵⁷	Rainfall ⁵⁷	Temperature ^{29,57}
	Legionellosis (L. longbeachae, L. pneumophila, other Legionella sp.)	Temperature ⁴¹ Rainfall ⁴¹		
	Leptospirosis	Rainfall ⁴⁵		
Water-borne (also food-borne)	Hepatitis A virus	Temperature ⁴¹ Rainfall ⁴¹		

of tuberculosis recorded in the Torres and Cape between 2014 and 2019,²³ although these rates may include Papua New Guinea nationals seeking treatment on the Torres Strait Islands.⁶⁵

Mosquitoes are disease vectors that thrive in tropical regions such as the Torres Straits. Climate-related increases in the frequency and severity of extreme weather events are anticipated to affect mosquito populations.⁵⁶ This includes changes in the distribution of the *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* mosquitoes,³⁰ both of which transmit dengue and Ross River viruses (RRV)⁶⁶ – the two vector-borne diseases of concern under climate change in the Torres Strait. Dengue has been identified as a climate-sensitive disease, noting that increases in temperature, rainfall, humidity and solar radiation positively affect mosquito growth and therefore the occurrence of cases.^{43,49,50} There have been 40 cases of dengue in the Torres and Cape HHS in the past six years.²³ Climatic changes that increase temperatures are anticipated in Northern Australia; while this may raise temperatures above the ‘thermal limits’ of other mosquito species, there is a risk that warmer-adapted mosquitoes, namely *Aedes aegypti*, will survive and therefore sustain RRV transmission.³³ There have been 136 cases of RRV diagnosed in the Torres and Cape HHS in the past six years.²³

Projections of changing weather patterns and extreme weather events in the Torres Straits indicate increased risks of cyclones, intense rainfall and flooding.³ This is pertinent to the occurrence of two infections contained in moist soil conditions that have been identified as of concern in the Torres Strait: melioidosis and nontuberculous mycobacteria. Projected increases in rainfall under a changing climate in Northern Australia, including the Torres Strait, are likely to increase the occurrence of melioidosis.²⁷ Melioidosis is caused by *Burkholderia pseudomallei*, an endemic environmental bacterium in water and soil.⁴⁰ It is considered a concerning bacterial pathogen in Australia’s Northern Territory as it is the most common cause of fatal community-acquired bacteraemic pneumonia.⁶⁷ It can also have severe morbidity outcomes for people with existing illnesses, such as diabetes.⁶⁷ In the Torres and Cape HHS in Queensland, there have been 56 cases in the past six years.²³ Nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) are naturally occurring bacteria found in water and soil as well as animals, birds and plants.⁴¹

Table 2: Climate-sensitive infectious diseases and recent cases in the Torres and Cape Hospital and Health Service region (case data from Queensland Health notifiable conditions database²³).

Disease cluster	Infectious disease name (additional reference)	Disease in Torres and Cape HHS?	Number of reported cases						
			2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Total (6 years)
Air-borne	Measles	No cases	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Meningococcal disease	Yes	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
	Tuberculosis	Yes	9	6	2	4	4	2	27
	Varicella	Yes	40	26	31	37	41	48	223
Food-borne	Campylobacteriosis	Yes	16	15	13	24	19	35	123
	Giardiasis ²⁹	No Data	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Salmonellosis	Yes	38	64	49	26	30	28	235
	Shigellosis	Yes	21	25	8	8	18	26	106
Food-borne (and water-borne)	Typhoid	Yes	0	3	4	0	0	0	7
Soil-borne	Melioidosis ^{58,59}	Yes	6	11	7	12	10	10	56
	Nontuberculous mycobacteria	Yes	10	10	18	10	7	8	63
Vector-borne	Barmah Forest virus ¹⁴	Yes	6	5	18	4	7	4	44
	Chikungunya ⁶⁰	No cases	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Dengue ^{59,61}	Yes	2	2	28	5	2	1	40
	Hendra virus	No cases	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Japanese encephalitis ^{14,40}	No cases	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Kunjin virus ²⁸	No cases	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Malaria	Yes	0	1	0	0	1	0	2
	Ross River virus	Yes	27	30	16	18	18	27	136
Water-borne	Cholera	No Cases	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Cryptosporidiosis	Yes	2	1	25	3	12	7	50
	Legionellosis	No cases	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Leptospirosis	Yes	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
Water-borne (and food-borne)	Hepatitis A	Yes	1	0	1	0	0	0	2

Note:

Case data are retrieved from the Queensland Department of Health Notifiable Diseases Report for the Torres and Cape Hospital and Health Service region; therefore this includes diagnoses from both Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples, and both Torres Strait Islands and mainland populations.²³

When inhaled, NTM can cause the slow development of a progressive and destructive lung disease and exposure related to skin trauma can cause localised disease.⁴¹ NTM has been identified as a climate-sensitive disease due to its emergence after extreme events that increase exposure to high concentrations of aerosolised bacteria from the movement of water and soil.^{41,68} This may also affect the safety of drinking water supplies.⁶⁹ There have been 63 cases of NTM infection diagnosed in the Torres and Cape HHS in the past six years.²³

Conclusions

This research identified 33 climate-sensitive infectious diseases of which 16 have recorded cases in the Torres Strait Islands and/or the wider Torres and Cape region. Of this subset, the five infectious diseases of tuberculosis, dengue, Ross River virus, melioidosis and nontuberculous mycobacterial infection were identified as diseases of concern under a changing climate in the Torres Strait. Case data of these five diseases have been recorded at a greater proportion than

anticipated for the population size. This includes the region having more than 20% of Queensland's melioidosis cases but only 0.52% of the state's population.

These findings augment existing assessments and statements regarding the impact of climate change on the Torres Strait Islands and its Indigenous peoples. Torres Strait Islander peoples intend to remain living on their traditional country long-term, yet climate change brings risks of both direct and indirect human health impacts. The impacts of climate-sensitive infectious diseases exist in the context of a high burden of existing acute and chronic diseases. Therefore, these results

provide further evidence for the need to address climate change through mitigation and adaptation actions. The perceived insufficiency of government actions to date is reflected in the current United Nations' claim lodged by a group of Torres Strait Islanders on the grounds that climate change has already resulted in impacts to their country and are thus a human rights violation.

Implications for public health

The call to action in 2019 by medical officers in the Torres Strait to recognise a 'climate emergency' in the region is supported

Table 3: Climate-sensitive infectious diseases of concern in the Torres Strait compared with Queensland state-wide data.²³

Infectious disease	Qld total cases (2014-19)	Anticipated cases by proportion in T&CHHS (0.53% of the Qld population)	Actual cases in T&CHHS cases (2014-19)	Actual proportion of cases in Qld (%)
Dengue	1,935	10	40	2.1
Melioidosis	274	1	56	20.4
Nontuberculous mycobacteria (other and unspecified)	7,983	42	63	0.8
Ross River virus	15,357	81	136	0.9
Tuberculosis	1,111	6	27	2.4

by the evidence provided in this research – that climate-sensitive infections pose a disproportionate burden and ongoing risk to Torres Strait Islander peoples. There is, therefore, a need for coordinated action among relevant agencies to minimise or prevent specific infections in the Torres Strait Islands while ensuring that Torres Strait Islander peoples co-design and approve the actions. Such actions would occur in parallel with systemically addressing and reducing the causes of climate change nationally and globally.

References

- Tamu K. *Torres Strait Islander Takes a Stand Against Climate Injustice on World Stage at the First Global Summit on Human Rights and Climate Change 2019 September 19* [Internet]. Calabasas (CA): Client Earth; 2019 [cited 2020 Jun 22]. Available from: <https://www.clientearth.org/torres-strait-islander-takes-a-stand-against-climate-injustice-on-world-stage/>
- Murphy K. Torres Strait Islanders Take Climate Change Complaint to the United Nations. *The Guardian* [Internet]. 2019 [cited 2020 Jun 11]; May 19:04:00pm. Available from: <https://www.theguardian.com/australia-news/2019/may/13/torres-strait-islanders-take-climate-change-complaint-to-the-united-nations>
- Torres Strait Regional Authority. *Torres Strait Climate Change and Health – First Pass Risk Assessment Thursday Island* (report). Brisbane (AUST): BMT Global for the TSRA Torres Strait Regional Authority; 2018.
- Dennien M. *The Queensland Communities at Risk of Running Dry in 2020*. Brisbane Times [Internet]. 2020 [cited 2020 Jan 31]; Jan 30:06:57pm. Available from: <https://www.brisbanetimes.com.au/national/queensland/the-queensland-communities-at-risk-of-running-dry-in-2020-20200127-p53uzg.html>
- Hall NL, Crosby L. Climate change impacts on health in remote Indigenous communities in Australia. *Int J Environ Health Res*. 2020;1-16. doi: 10.1080/09603123.2020.1777948
- Guo B, Naish S, Hu W, Tong S. The potential impact of climate change and ultraviolet radiation on vaccine-preventable infectious diseases and immunization service delivery system. *Expert Rev Vaccines*. 2015;14(4):561-77.
- Cheer K, Watkin Lui F, Shibasaki S, Harvey A, Grainger D, Tsey K. The case for a Torres Strait Islander-driven, long-term research agenda for environment, health and wellbeing. *Aust NZ J Public Health*. 2020;44(3):177-9.
- Creamer S, Hall NL. Receiving essential health services on country: Indigenous Australians, native title and the United Nations Declaration. *Public Health*. 2019;176:15-20.
- Rigby C, Rosen A, Berry H, Hart C. If the land's sick, we're sick: The impact of prolonged drought on the social and emotional well-being of Aboriginal communities in rural New South Wales. *Aust J Rural Health*. 2011;19(5):249-54.
- Weaver I, Coates M, Allin J, Brown M. *Northern Medical Officers Opportunities*. Cairns (AUST): State Government of Queensland The Torres and Cape Hospital and Health Service; 2019.
- Lal A, Hales S, Kirk M, Baker MG, French NP. Spatial and temporal variation in the association between temperature and salmonellosis in NZ. *Aust NZ J Public Health*. 2016;40(2):165-9.
- Jones A, Jenkins K. Rethinking collaboration: Working the indigene-colonizer hyphen. In: Denzin N, Lincoln Y, Smith L, editors. *Handbook of Critical and Indigenous Methodologies*. Thousand Oaks (CA): SAGE; 2014. p. 471-86.
- Shibasaki S, Watkin Lui F, Ah Mat L. Meriba buay – ngalpan wakaythoemamay (We Come Together to Share our Thinking): Evaluating a Community of Practice for Torres Strait Islander Health and Wellbeing. *Proceedings of the Lowitja Institute Knowledge Translation Forum*; 2019 April 2; Cairns, Queensland. Carlton (AUST): Lowitja Institute; 2019 [cited 2020 Mar 15]. Available from: <https://www.lowitja.org.au/page/research/research-categories/health-policy-and-systems/monitoring-and-evaluation/projects/meriba-buay>
- Laurance SG, Steiger DM, Ritchie S. *Detecting Emerging Infectious Diseases in the Torres Strait: A Review of Vector, Host and Disease Studies*. Cairns (AUST): Reef and Rainforest Research Centre; 2014.
- Queensland Health. *Torres and Cape Hospital and Health Service Map* [Internet]. Brisbane (AUST): State Government of Queensland; 2020 [cite 2020 Jun 5]. Available from: <https://www.health.qld.gov.au/maps/mapto/torres-and-cape>
- Shnukal A. Torres Strait Islanders. In: Brandle M, editor. *Multicultural Queensland 2001: 100 Years, 100 Communities, A Century of Contributions*. Brisbane (AUST): Multicultural Affairs Queensland Department of Premier and Cabinet; 2001.
- Nakata MN. Identity Politics: Who Can Count as Indigenous? In: Harris M, Nakata MN, Carlson B, editors. *The Politics of Identity: Emerging Indigeneity*. Sydney (AUST): UTS ePress; 2013. p. 125-46.
- Australia Bureau of Statistics. *3238.0.55.001 - Estimates of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians, June 2016*. Canberra (AUST): ABS; 2018.
- Watkin Lui F. My island home: Re-presenting identities for Torres Strait Islanders living outside the Torres Strait. *J Australian Stud*. 2012;36(2):141-53.
- McMichael AJ, Lindgren E. Climate change: Present and future risks to health, and necessary responses. *J Intern Med*. 2011;270(5):401-13.
- World Health Organization. *Neglected Tropical Diseases* [Internet]. Geneva (CHE): WHO; 2017 [cited 2017 Dec 13]. Available from: http://www.who.int/neglected_diseases/diseases/en/
- Smith K, Woodward A, Campbell-Lendrum D, Chadee D, Honda Y, Liu Q, et al. *Human Health: Impacts, Adaptations, and Co-benefits*. Cambridge (UK): Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change; 2014.
- Queensland Health. *Notifiable Conditions Annual Reporting* [Internet]. Brisbane (AUST): State Government of Queensland; 2020 [cited 2020 Feb 15]. Available from: <https://www.health.qld.gov.au/clinical-practice/guidelines-procedures/diseases-infection/surveillance/reports/notifiable/annual>
- Cronin P, Ryan F, Coughlan M. Undertaking a literature review: A step-by-step approach. *Br J Nurs*. 2008;17(1):38-43.
- Collins JA, Fauser BCJM. Balancing the strengths of systematic and narrative reviews. *Hum Reprod Update*. 2005;11(2):103-4.
- Pappas C, Williams I. Grey literature: Its emerging importance. *J Hosp Librariansh*. 2011;11(3):228-34.
- Inglis TJJ, Sousa AQ. The public health implications of melioidosis. *Braz J Infect Dis*. 2009;13(1):59-66.
- Prow NA. The changing epidemiology of Kunjin virus in Australia. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2013;10(12):6255-72.
- Canyon DV, Speare R, Burkle FM. Forecasted impact of climate change on infectious disease and health security in Hawaii by 2050. *Disaster Med Public Health Prep*. 2016;10(6):797-804.
- Kraemer MUG, Reiner RC Jr, Brady OJ, Messina JP, Gilbert M, Pigott DM, et al. Past and future spread of the arbovirus vectors *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus*. *Nat Microbiol*. 2019;4(5):854-63.
- Lal A, Fearnley E, Wilford E. Local weather, flooding history and childhood diarrhoea caused by the parasite *Cryptosporidium* spp: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sci Total Environ*. 2019;674:300-6.
- Messina JP, Brady OJ, Golding N, Kraemer MUG, Wint GRW, Ray SE, et al. The current and future global distribution and population at risk of dengue. *Nat Microbiol*. 2019;4(9):1508-15.
- Shocket MS, Ryan SJ, Mordecai EA. Temperature explains broad patterns of Ross River virus transmission. *eLife*. 2018;7:e37762.
- Watts N, Amann M, Arnell N, Ayeb-Karlsson S, Belesova K, Berry H, et al. The 2018 report of the Lancet Countdown on health and climate change: Shaping the health of nations for centuries to come. *Lancet*. 2018;392(10163):2479-514.
- Williams CR, Mincham G, Faddy H, Viennet E, Ritchie SA, Harley D. Projections of increased and decreased dengue incidence under climate change. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2016;144(14):3091-100.
- Xiang J, Hansen A, Liu Q, Tong MX, Liu X, Sun Y, et al. Impact of meteorological factors on hemorrhagic fever with renal syndrome in 19 cities in China, 2005-2014. *Sci Total Environ*. 2018;636:1249-56.
- Queensland Health. *Torres and Cape Hospital and Health Service* [Internet]. Cairns (AUST): The State Government of Queensland; 2020 [cited 2020 Jun 3]. Available from: <https://www.health.qld.gov.au/services/torres-cape>
- Mandell G, Bennett J, Dolin R. *Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases*. 7th ed. Philadelphia (PA): Churchill Livingstone Elsevier; 2010.
- Kuddus A, McBryde E, Adegboye O. Delay effect and burden of weather-related tuberculosis cases in Rajshahi province, Bangladesh, 2007-2012. *Sci Rep*. 2019;9:12720.
- Harley D, Bi P, Hall G, Swaminathan A, Tong S, Williams C. Climate change and infectious diseases in Australia: Future prospects, adaptation options, and research priorities. *Asia Pac J Public Health*. 2011;23(2 Suppl):545-66.
- Walker J. *The Influence of Climate Change on Waterborne Disease and Legionella: A Review*. London (UK): SAGE Publications; 2018. p. 282-6.
- Milazzo A, Giles LC, Zhang Y, Koehler AP, Hiller JE, Bi P. The effects of ambient temperature and heatwaves on daily *Campylobacter* cases in Adelaide, Australia, 1990-2012. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2017;145(12):2603-10.
- Fearnley E, Weinstein P, Dodson J. *Climate Change, Societal Transitions and Changing Infectious Disease Burdens*. Dordrecht (NL): Springer; 2010. p. 189-99.
- Milazzo A, Giles LC, Zhang Y, Koehler AP, Hiller JE, Bi P. The effect of temperature on different *Salmonella* serotypes during warm seasons in a Mediterranean climate city, Adelaide, Australia. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2016;144(6):1231-40.
- Navi M, Pisaniello D, Hansen A, Nitschke M. Potential health outcome and vulnerability indicators of climate change for Australia: Evidence for policy development. *Aust J Public Adm*. 2017;76(2):160-75.
- Yi L, Xu X, Ge W, Xue H, Li J, Li D, et al. The impact of climate variability on infectious disease transmission in China: Current knowledge and further directions. *Environ Res*. 2019;173:255-61.
- Kaestli M, Grist E, Ward L, Hill A, Mayo M, Currie B. The association of melioidosis with climatic factors in Darwin, Australia: A 23-year time-series analysis. *J Infect*. 2016;72(6):687-97.
- Kjellstrom T, Weaver HJ. Climate change and health: Impacts, vulnerability, adaptation and mitigation. *N S W Public Health Bull*. 2009;20(1-2):5-9.
- Liu K, Hou X, Wang Y, Sun J, Xiao J, Li R, et al. The driver of dengue fever incidence in two high-risk areas of China: A comparative study. *Sci Rep*. 2019;9(1):19510.
- Xiang J, Hansen A, Liu Q, Liu X, Tong MX, Sun Y, et al. Association between dengue fever incidence and meteorological factors in Guangzhou, China, 2005-2014. *Environ Res*. 2017;153:17-26.
- Tian H, Yu P, Cazelles B, Xu L, Tan H, Yang J, et al. Interannual cycles of Hantaan virus outbreaks at the human-animal interface in Central China are controlled by temperature and rainfall. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2017;114(30):8041-6.
- Martin G, Yanez-Arenas C, Chen C, Plowright RK, Webb RJ, Skerratt LF. Climate change could increase the geographic extent of hendra virus spillover risk. *EcoHealth*. 2018;15(3):509-25.
- Paez DJ, Giles J, McCallum H, Field H, Jordan D, Peel AJ, et al. Conditions affecting the timing and magnitude of Hendra virus shedding across pteropodid bat populations in Australia. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2017;145(15):3143-53.

54. Xiang J, Hansen A, Liu Q, Tong MX, Liu X, Sun Y, et al. Association between malaria incidence and meteorological factors: A multi-location study in China, 2005-2012. *Epidemiol Infect.* 2018;146(1):89-99.
55. Jamrozik E, Selgelid MJ. Ethics, health policy, and Zika: From emergency to global epidemic? *J Med Ethics.* 2018;44(5):343-8.
56. McMichael AJ. Extreme weather events and infectious disease outbreaks. *Virulence.* 2015;6(6):543-7.
57. Kent L, McPherson M, Higgins N. A positive association between cryptosporidiosis notifications and ambient temperature, Victoria, Australia, 2001-2009. *J Water Health.* 2015;13(4):1039-47.
58. Baker A, Mayo M, Owens L, Burgess G, Norton R, McBride WJH, et al. Biogeography of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* in the Torres Strait Islands of Northern Australia. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2013;51(8):2520.
59. Stewart JD, Smith S, Binotto E, McBride WJ, Currie BJ, Hanson J, et al. The epidemiology and clinical features of melioidosis in Far North Queensland: Implications for patient management. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2017;11(3):e0005411.
60. Wimalasiri-Yapa BMCR, Stassen L, Hu W, Yakob L, McGraw EA, Pyke AT, et al. Chikungunya virus transmission at low temperature by mosquitoes. *Pathogens.* 2019;8(3).
61. Naish S, Dale P, Mackenzie J, McBride J, Mengersen K, Tong S. Climate change and dengue: A critical and systematic review of quantitative modelling approaches. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2014;14(1):167.
62. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. *Cardiovascular Disease, Diabetes and Chronic Kidney Disease — Australian Facts: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People.* Canberra (AUST): AIHW; 2015.
63. Reisinger A, Kitching R, Chiew F, Hughes L, Newton P, Schuster S, et al. Australasia. In: Field C, Barros V, Dokken D, Mach K, Mastrandrea M, Bilir T, et al., editors. *AR5 Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part B: Regional Aspects.* Cambridge (UK): University Cambridge Press; 2014. p. 1371-438.
64. National Tuberculosis Advisory Committee for the Communicable Diseases Network Australia. The Strategic Plan for Control of Tuberculosis in Australia, 2016–2020: Towards Disease Elimination. *Commun Dis Intell.* 2019;43. doi: 10.33321/cdi.2019.43.10
65. Devlin S, MacLaren D, Massey P, Widders R, Judd J. The missing voices of Indigenous Australians in the social, cultural and historical experiences of tuberculosis: A systematic and integrative review. *BMJ Glob Health.* 2019;4(6):e001794.
66. Flies F, Lau C, Carver S, Weinstein P. Another emerging mosquito-borne disease? Endemic Ross River virus transmission in the absence of marsupial reservoirs. *BioScience.* 2018;68(4):288–93.
67. Currie B. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and *Burkholderia mallei*: Melioidosis and Glanders. In: Mandell G, Bennett J, Dolin R, editors. *Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases.* Philadelphia (PA): Churchill Livingstone Elsevier; 2010. p. 2869-85.
68. Honda J, Bernhard J, Chan E. Natural disasters and nontuberculous mycobacteria: A recipe for increased disease? *Chest.* 2015;147(2):304–8.
69. Brown-Elliott B, Wallace R. Infections due to nontuberculous mycobacteria other than *Mycobacterium avium-intracellulare*. In: Mandell G, Bennett J, Dolin R, editors. *Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases.* Philadelphia (PA): Churchill Livingstone Elsevier; 2010. p. 3191-8.