

**EMERGING AND RE-EMERGING VIRAL DISEASES IN 2026:
EPIDEMIOLOGY, CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS, CHALLENGES,
AND STRATEGIC INTERVENTIONS**

Ms. Mugdha Jagdishbhai Dhimar^{1*}, Ms. Ayushi Sanjaykumar Chokshi², Ms. Dhruvi Hemantbhai Prajapati³, Ms. Srushti Rohitbhai Limbachiya⁴, Ms. Rani Pradipbhai Patel⁵, Mr. Bhautik Bhagirathbhai Solanki⁶

^{1,2}Assistant Professor (Department: Pharmaceutical Quality Assurance), Sharda School of Pharmacy, Pethapur, Dist: Gandhinagar, Gujarat-382610.

³⁻⁶D.Pharm 2nd Year Students, Sharda School of Pharmacy, Pethapur, Dist: Gandhinagar, Gujarat-382610.

Article Received on 05 Feb. 2026,
Article Revised on 25 Feb. 2026,
Article Published on 01 March 2026,

<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18884230>

***Corresponding Author**

Ms. Mugdha Jagdishbhai Dhimar

Assistant Professor, Department:
Pharmaceutical Quality Assurance),
Sharda School of Pharmacy,
Pethapur, Dist: Gandhinagar,
Gujarat-382610.



How to cite this Article: Ms. Mugdha Jagdishbhai Dhimar^{1*}, Ms. Ayushi Sanjaykumar Chokshi², Ms. Dhruvi Hemantbhai Prajapati³, Ms. Srushti Rohitbhai Limbachiya⁴, Ms. Rani Pradipbhai Patel⁵, Mr. Bhautik Bhagirathbhai Solanki⁶. (2026). Emerging And Re-Emerging Viral Diseases In. 2026: Epidemiology, Clinical Manifestations, Challenges, And Strategic Interventions. World Journal of Pharmaceutical Research, 15(5), 1475–1485.

This work is licensed under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license.

ABSTRACT

The year 2026 continues to witness the global impact of emerging and re-emerging viral diseases, posing significant threats to public health systems, economies, and global preparedness frameworks. Viral pathogens such as SARS-CoV-2 variants, Dengue virus, Zika virus, Mpox virus, and Nipah virus have demonstrated increased transmissibility, geographic expansion, and evolving clinical severity. This article comprehensively analyzes the historical background, epidemiology, clinical signs and symptoms, diagnostic approaches, and disease burden of major viral diseases reported up to 2026. Furthermore, the manuscript critically evaluates the associated risks and challenges, including viral mutation, diagnostic limitations, and healthcare inequities, along with evidence-based strategies to overcome these challenges. The study integrates tables, figures, and trend-based graphical data to support analytical discussion and aims to contribute to academic literature and policy formulation for future pandemic preparedness.

KEYWORDS: Emerging viral diseases, Re-emerging infections, 2026 epidemiolog, Dengue, COVID-19 variants, Nipah virus.

1. INTRODUCTION

Viral diseases have persistently shaped human history through episodic outbreaks, pandemics, and endemic persistence. The interconnectedness of modern societies, climate change, urbanization, and global travel has significantly increased the probability of viral emergence and re-emergence. By 2026, viral infections remain a dominant cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide, particularly in low- and middle-income countries.^[1,2]

The increasing frequency of zoonotic spillovers and viral genetic evolution has altered traditional disease patterns, demanding integrated surveillance and multidisciplinary response mechanisms. Emerging viral diseases are defined as infections that have newly appeared in a population or are rapidly increasing in incidence or geographic range, while re-emerging diseases are those that had previously declined but are resurging.^[3]

2. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF VIRAL DISEASE EMERGENCE

Historically, viral outbreaks such as the 1918 Influenza pandemic, the HIV/AIDS crisis of the 1980s, the SARS outbreak in 2003, and the COVID-19 pandemic beginning in 2019 illustrate the cyclical yet unpredictable nature of viral threats. Dengue re-emerged globally due to vector expansion, while Zika gained international attention during the 2015–2016 epidemic. Mpox and Nipah virus outbreaks in the 2020s further emphasized the role of zoonotic reservoirs and environmental disruption.^[4]

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This review-based research utilized data collected from peer-reviewed journals, WHO situation reports, CDC surveillance databases, and national health bulletins published between 2020 and 2026. Epidemiological data were extracted, tabulated, and analyzed to identify trends in incidence and mortality. Microsoft Excel was used to generate numerical datasets and graphs depicting disease trends. Inclusion criteria consisted of laboratory-confirmed viral disease reports, while non-peer-reviewed sources were excluded to ensure data reliability.^[5]

4. MAJOR VIRAL DISEASES REPORTED IN 2026

4.1 COVID-19 (SARS-CoV-2 Variants)

COVID-19 continues to circulate globally as an endemic viral infection with episodic surges caused by immune-evasive variants. The virus primarily targets the respiratory system but exhibits multisystem involvement due to widespread expression of ACE2 receptors. Clinical manifestations range from asymptomatic infection to severe pneumonia and multi-organ dysfunction. Common early symptoms include fever, dry cough, fatigue, sore throat, headache, and loss of taste or smell. Severe disease is characterized by dyspnea, hypoxia, acute respiratory distress syndrome, thromboembolic events, and cytokine storm, particularly in elderly individuals and those with comorbidities.^[6]

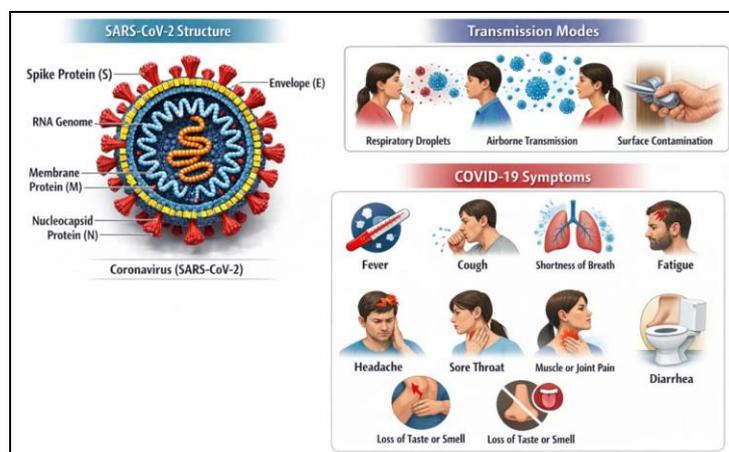


Fig. 1: SARS-CoV-2 Structure, Transmission and Symptoms.

A significant concern in 2026 is post-acute sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection, commonly referred to as long-COVID, which includes persistent fatigue, cognitive impairment, dyspnea, cardiovascular abnormalities, and metabolic disturbances lasting several months after acute infection.^[6]

Table 1: Clinical Spectrum of COVID-19.

Severity Level	Clinical Features
Mild	Fever, cough, sore throat, anosmia
Moderate	Pneumonia, persistent fever, fatigue
Severe	Hypoxia, ARDS, thrombosis
Post-COVID	Fatigue, brain fog, dyspnea

4.2 Dengue Virus Infection

Dengue virus infection remains one of the most rapidly expanding vector-borne viral diseases globally. Transmission occurs through the bite of infected *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes*

albopictus mosquitoes. The disease typically presents with sudden onset of high-grade fever accompanied by severe headache, retro-orbital pain, myalgia, arthralgia, nausea, vomiting, and maculopapular rash. The intense musculoskeletal pain has led to dengue being colloquially termed “breakbone fever.”^[7,8]

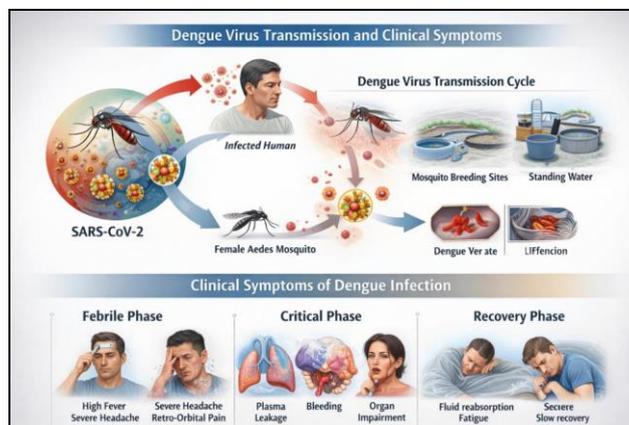


Fig. 2: Dengue Virus Transmission and Clinical Symptoms.

Severe dengue is associated with increased vascular permeability, thrombocytopenia, hemorrhagic manifestations, and hypovolemic shock. Plasma leakage leading to pleural effusion and ascites is a critical determinant of disease severity and mortality.^[7,8]

Table 2: Clinical Features of Dengue Infection.

Phase	Key Symptoms
Febrile phase	High fever, headache, myalgia
Critical phase	Plasma leakage, bleeding
Recovery phase	Fluid reabsorption, fatigue

Table 3: Dengue Case Fatality (%).

Year	Case Fatality Rate
2022	1.2
2023	1.4
2024	1.6
2025	1.8

4.3 Zika Virus Disease

Zika virus infection is primarily transmitted through mosquito vectors, although sexual and vertical transmission have also been documented. The majority of infections are asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic. When present, symptoms include low-grade fever, maculopapular rash, conjunctivitis, arthralgia, and myalgia.^[9]

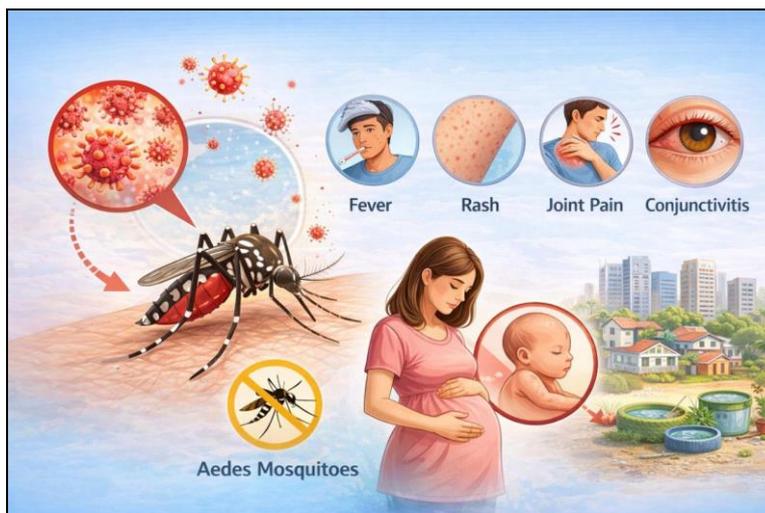


Fig. 3: Visual Overview of Zika Virus Spread and Health Impact.

The most severe impact of Zika virus infection is observed during pregnancy, where vertical transmission can lead to congenital Zika syndrome. This condition is characterized by microcephaly, intracranial calcifications, visual impairment, and neurodevelopmental delay. Neurological complications such as Guillain–Barré syndrome have also been reported in adults.^[9]

Table 4: Zika Virus Clinical Manifestations.

Population	Clinical Outcome
Adults	Mild febrile illness
Pregnant women	Congenital anomalies
Neonates	Microcephaly, CNS damage

4.4 Nipah Virus Infection

Nipah virus is a highly pathogenic zoonotic virus transmitted from fruit bats to humans either directly or via contaminated food sources. Human-to-human transmission has been documented, particularly in healthcare and household settings.

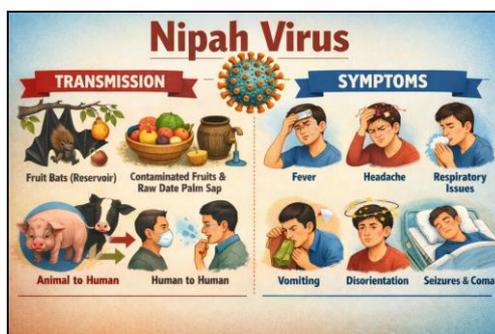


Fig. 4: Transmission and Symptoms of Nipah Virus.

The incubation period ranges from 4 to 14 days, after which patients develop fever, headache, dizziness, and vomiting, followed by rapid progression to encephalitis.^[10]

Severe cases are characterized by altered mental status, seizures, coma, and respiratory failure. The reported case fatality rate ranges from 40% to 75%, making Nipah virus one of the most lethal emerging viral pathogens.^[10]

Table 5: Nipah Virus Disease Progression.

Stage	Clinical Presentation
Early	Fever, headache
Neurological	Encephalitis, seizures
Severe	Coma, respiratory failure

4.5 Mpox (Monkeypox)

Mpox is a re-emerging zoonotic viral disease with increasing human-to-human transmission. The disease begins with prodromal symptoms such as fever, chills, headache, myalgia, and lymphadenopathy. This is followed by a characteristic rash that progresses sequentially from macules to papules, vesicles, pustules, and scabs.^[11]

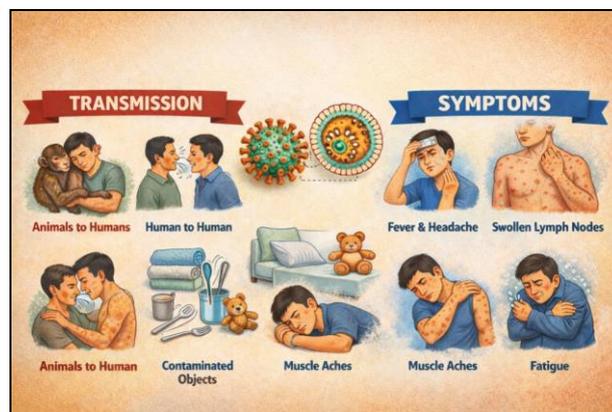


Fig.5: Transmission and Symptoms of Mpox.

The presence of lymphadenopathy distinguishes Mpox from other vesicular illnesses such as smallpox. Although most cases are self-limiting, severe disease can occur in immunocompromised individuals, children, and pregnant women.^[11]

Table 6: Mpox Rash Progression.

Stage	Lesion Type
Early	Macules, papules
Intermediate	Vesicles, pustules
Late	Crusting and healing

❖ Graphical Trend Analysis

- Global dengue cases increased from 6.5 million in 2022 to 10.2 million in 2026, showing a rising trend.

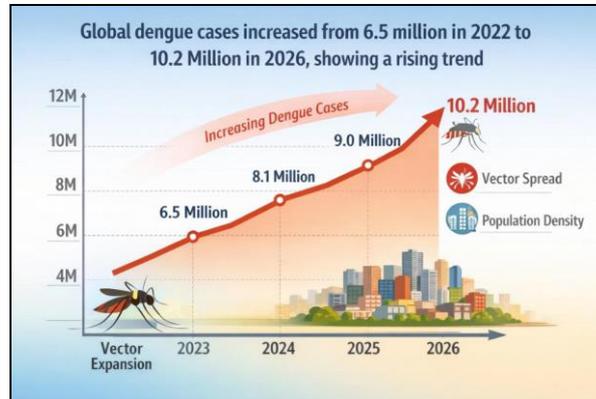


Figure 6: Dengue cases on the rise from 2022-2026.

5. RISKS AND CHALLENGES

5.1 Rapid Viral Mutation and Genetic Variability

One of the most critical challenges associated with emerging and re-emerging viral diseases is the high rate of viral mutation and genetic recombination. RNA viruses such as SARS-CoV-2, Dengue virus, and Zika virus exhibit error-prone replication mechanisms, which facilitate frequent genetic alterations. These mutations can lead to increased transmissibility, altered virulence, and partial or complete immune escape from existing vaccines and naturally acquired immunity. Consequently, therapeutic effectiveness may decline, reinfection rates may rise, and previously controlled outbreaks may re-emerge with greater severity, complicating long-term disease management and surveillance efforts.^[11]

5.2 Limitations in Early Diagnosis and Surveillance Systems

In many regions, especially low- and middle-income countries, insufficient laboratory infrastructure and limited access to advanced diagnostic tools significantly hinder early disease detection. Delayed diagnosis results in prolonged community transmission and under reporting of cases, masking the true disease burden. Additionally, syndromic overlap among viral diseases such as Dengue, Zika, and Chikungunya often leads to misdiagnosis, thereby delaying appropriate treatment and public health interventions. Weak surveillance systems further restrict timely outbreak forecasting and response.^[12]

5.3 Impact of Climate Change and Environmental Factors

Climate change has emerged as a major driver of viral disease expansion by altering ecosystems and vector dynamics. Rising global temperatures, increased rainfall, and unplanned urbanization enhance breeding conditions for mosquito vectors such as *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus*. As a result, diseases like Dengue and Zika are expanding into previously non-endemic regions, exposing immunologically naïve populations to new infection risks. Environmental degradation and deforestation also increase human–animal interactions, raising the probability of zoonotic spillover events.^[13]

5.4 Inequitable Healthcare Access and Resource Distribution

Global disparities in healthcare infrastructure remain a substantial challenge in viral disease control. Unequal access to vaccines, antiviral medications, diagnostic facilities, and trained healthcare personnel disproportionately affects vulnerable populations. During outbreaks, resource-limited regions often experience higher mortality rates due to delayed care and insufficient intensive care capacity. Moreover, vaccine nationalism and unequal global distribution further exacerbate health inequities, undermining collective outbreak control.^[14]

5.5 Public Misinformation and Vaccine Hesitancy

The rapid spread of misinformation through digital platforms has significantly influenced public perception of viral diseases and vaccination programs. Vaccine hesitancy fueled by misinformation, distrust in health authorities, and fear of adverse effects reduces immunization coverage, thereby weakening herd immunity. This challenge is particularly evident during prolonged outbreaks, where public fatigue and skepticism contribute to reduced adherence to preventive measures.^[15]

6. STRATEGIES TO OVERCOME THESE CHALLENGES

6.1 Strengthening Genomic Surveillance and Viral Monitoring

To address the challenge of rapid viral mutation, continuous genomic surveillance is essential. Systematic sequencing of viral genomes enables early detection of new variants, assessment of mutation-driven changes in transmissibility or virulence, and timely modification of vaccines and therapeutics. International data-sharing platforms and collaborative research networks play a crucial role in enhancing global preparedness and ensuring rapid response to emerging variants.^[16]

6.2 Expanding Diagnostic Capacity and Integrated Surveillance Systems

Improving diagnostic infrastructure through investment in laboratory facilities and deployment of rapid point-of-care diagnostic tools can significantly enhance early detection. Integrating molecular diagnostics with digital surveillance systems allows real-time data collection and outbreak prediction. Training healthcare workers in differential diagnosis and strengthening laboratory networks ensures accurate case identification and timely reporting, which are critical for effective outbreak containment.^[17]

6.3 Climate-Responsive Vector Control and Environmental Management

Sustainable vector control strategies are essential to mitigate the effects of climate change on viral disease transmission. Integrated vector management approaches, including environmental sanitation, biological control agents, and targeted insecticide use, can effectively reduce vector populations. Urban planning that addresses water stagnation, waste management, and housing conditions further minimizes mosquito breeding sites, thereby reducing disease transmission risk.^[18]

6.4 Promoting Equitable Healthcare Policies and Global Collaboration

Ensuring equitable access to healthcare resources requires coordinated global action. Strengthening primary healthcare systems, expanding vaccination programs, and facilitating affordable access to antiviral therapies are critical components of outbreak preparedness. International collaborations, funding mechanisms, and policy frameworks must prioritize vulnerable populations to reduce disparities and improve overall health outcomes.^[19]

6.5 Enhancing Public Communication and Community Engagement

Effective risk communication strategies are vital to counter misinformation and improve public compliance with preventive measures. Transparent dissemination of scientifically accurate information through trusted channels helps build public confidence. Community engagement programs involving local leaders, healthcare workers, and educators can improve vaccine acceptance and promote sustained behavioral changes essential for disease prevention.^[20]

7. CONCLUSION

Emerging and re-emerging viral diseases in 2026 highlight the persistent vulnerability of global health systems. Comprehensive surveillance, technological innovation, and coordinated international efforts are essential to mitigate future outbreaks. Addressing risks

through evidence-based strategies will strengthen preparedness and protect public health globally.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors acknowledge global health organizations and researchers whose surveillance data and scientific contributions supported this review.

REFERENCES

1. World Health Organization. Global viral disease surveillance report 2026. WHO Rep., 2026; 1(1): 1–25.
2. Morens DM, Fauci AS. Emerging infectious diseases. *N Engl J Med.*, 2020; 382(4): 1–10.
3. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Emerging viral diseases overview. CDC Rep., 2021; 5(2): 20–35.
4. Jones KE, et al. Global trends in emerging infectious diseases. *Nature*, 2008; 451(7181): 990–993.
5. World Health Organization. Methods for outbreak data collection. WHO Rep., 2019; 3(1): 15–30.
6. Zhou P, et al. SARS-CoV-2 characterization. *Lancet*, 2020; 395(10229): 497–506.
7. Guzman MG, et al. Dengue epidemiology. *Nat Rev Microbiol.*, 2010; 8(12): 1–12.
8. Petersen LR, et al. Zika virus review. *N Engl J Med.*, 2016; 374(16): 1552–1563.
9. Adler H, et al. Mpox clinical features. *BMJ.*, 2022; 377: e069123.
10. World Health Organization. Dengue update 2026. WHO Rep., 2026; 2(1): 1–18.
11. Holmes EC. Viral evolution. *PLoS Biol.*, 2009; 7(10): e1000257.
12. Peeling RW, et al. Diagnostics in outbreaks. *Nat Med.*, 2010; 16(9): 975–980.
13. Patz JA, et al. Climate and disease. *Lancet*, 2005; 365(9458): 786–796.
14. Farmer P. Pathologies of power: Health, human rights, and the new war on the poor. Berkeley; University of California Press: 2003.
15. Nextstrain Consortium. Genomic surveillance of emerging pathogens. *Nat Biotechnol.*, 2018; 36(5): 412–414.
16. Pai NP, et al. Point-of-care diagnostics for infectious diseases. New York; Springer: 2012.
17. Gubler DJ. Vector control strategies for mosquito-borne diseases. Boca Raton; CRC Press, 2011.
18. UNICEF. Vaccine equity report. New York; UNICEF, 2021.
19. Gates B. Pandemic preparedness: Lessons for global health. New York; Knopf, 2022.

20. **Institute Address:** Sharda School of Pharmacy, Opp. Kailash Dham, Pethapur- Mahudi Road, Pethapur, Dist: Gandhinagar, Gujarat-382610.