

# Informe de la Comisión Científica de la OMSA para las Enfermedades Animales

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11 al 15 de septiembre de 2023  
París



Organización Mundial  
de Sanidad Animal  
Fundada como OIE

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riesgo de transmisión. Para evitar repeticiones de texto, la Comisión modificó el apartado 2) del Artículo 12.3.8. para remitir a este apartado al Artículo 12.3.7.

Con respecto a la recomendación del Grupo *ad hoc* de un período de espera de 45 días en el Artículo 12.3.7., la Comisión observó que esto debía alinearse con los cambios propuestos por el Grupo *ad hoc* al Artículo 8.Z.7. sobre recomendaciones para las importaciones de animales susceptibles procedentes de países o zonas infectados por *T. evansi*, en respuesta a un comentario de un Miembro para acortar el período de cuarentena. Se informó a la Comisión que el fundamento de esto se basa en un documento revisado por expertos que había establecido que la seroconversión se produce entre 10 y 20 días después de la infección, y que se puede establecer un «estado no infectado» si se obtienen resultados negativos en un contexto de cuarentena, siempre que se hayan realizado dos pruebas en un intervalo de un mes<sup>1</sup>. Sin embargo, la Comisión también tomó nota de que un miembro del grupo *ad hoc* había planteado que esto no se aplicaba a los camellos y pidió a la Secretaría que solicitara la opinión de expertos en camellos.

En el proyecto de Artículo 12.3.8. sobre la importación temporal de caballos, la Comisión propuso exigir que los caballos vayan acompañados de un pasaporte conforme con el modelo presentado en el Capítulo 5.12., y que estén identificados individualmente como pertenecientes a una subpoblación de excelente estado sanitario, tal como se define en el Capítulo 4.17. La Comisión tomó nota de que el Capítulo 5.12. es una plantilla para caballos de competición, que incluye una serie de poblaciones, incluidas aquellas que no califican como población de excelente estado sanitario, y estas deben desplazarse de conformidad con la disposiciones del Artículo 12.3.7. La Comisión señaló que esto también coincidiría con el apartado 3.7. del informe del Grupo *ad hoc* que destacó que los caballos importados temporalmente están bajo la supervisión de la autoridad veterinaria, por lo que es importante que los caballos pertenezcan a la subpoblación de excelente estado sanitario. Por consiguiente, el hecho de disponer solamente de un modelo de pasaporte no sería suficiente.

En el proyecto de Artículo 12.3.9. «Recomendaciones para las importaciones de semen procedente de países, zonas o compartimentos libres de durina», la Comisión no estuvo de acuerdo con la recomendación del Grupo *ad hoc* de exigir que los machos donantes se mantuvieran durante un período de seis meses previo la recolección de semen en un establecimiento en el que la vigilancia demuestre que no se había producido ningún caso durante el período. La Comisión destacó que este artículo se refiere a países, zonas o compartimentos libres de durina y que esta recomendación para certificar la ausencia de enfermedad en el establecimiento sería excesiva. Para mantener la coherencia con artículos equivalentes de otros capítulos específicos de enfermedades, la Comisión propuso sustituir esta recomendación por la certificación de que los machos donantes se hayan mantenido en un país, zona o compartimento libre durante el período de seis meses.

En el proyecto de Artículo 12.3.10. sobre las importaciones de semen procedente de países, zonas o compartimentos que no están libres de durina, la Comisión propuso eliminar «compartimento» del título, ya que, por definición, un compartimento debe estar libre de infección. Como este artículo se refiere a la vigilancia a nivel de establecimiento, la Comisión recomendó que se proporcione más información en el proyecto de Artículo 12.3.14. «Vigilancia para demostrar la ausencia de la durina» sobre lo que debe implicar esta vigilancia. Por lo tanto, propuso un texto complementario al proyecto de Artículo 12.3.14.

La opinión de la Comisión se remitió a consideración de la Comisión del Código. El informe aprobado del Grupo *ad hoc* está disponible en el [sitio web de la OMSA](#).

### **5.1.2. Grupo *ad hoc* sobre bioseguridad**

La Comisión recibió información actualizada sobre los avances realizados por el Grupo *ad hoc* sobre bioseguridad para los animales terrestres, que se reunió por segunda vez en mayo de 2023. Se presentó a la Comisión el proyecto inicial del capítulo, que tomaba en consideración sus comentarios anteriores. La Comisión reconoció los esfuerzos del Grupo *ad hoc* y comentó positivamente que el capítulo está adoptando un enfoque basado en el riesgo.

La Comisión aportó comentarios sobre la definición propuesta del Glosario para «desperdicios» (swill) para que se incluya la intención de utilizarlos para alimentar a los animales, así como comentarios adicionales sobre el proyecto de capítulo.

La opinión de la Comisión se remitió a consideración de la Comisión del Código.

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<sup>1</sup> Desquesnes M, Sazmand A, Gonzatti M, et al. Diagnosis of animal trypanosomoses: proper use of current tools and future prospects. Parasit Vectors. 2022;15:235. doi:10.1186/s13071-022-05352-1









La quinta reunión del Comité asesor sobre la PPR se celebró en Roma los días 2 y 3 de noviembre de 2022, al margen del lanzamiento del Plan PPR-GEP II y III, y formuló varias recomendaciones sobre el Plan GEP y el enfoque del episistema, así como el liderazgo del Comité asesor y el mandato.

Tras el lanzamiento del Plan PPR-GEP II y III, la Secretaría conjunta FAO/OMSA para la PPR organizó reuniones de consulta sobre el Plan PPR y la hoja de ruta para los países de la Organización de Cooperación Económica Europea (25-27 de abril de 2023, Bakú, Azerbaiyán), Autoridad Intergubernamental sobre Desarrollo (IGAD)/África Oriental (3-5 de mayo de 2023, Kampala, Uganda) y Asia Meridional (7-13 de mayo de 2023, Paro, Bután). Antes de estas reuniones, el Grupo asesor regional de la PPR de cada región recibió una formación a través de seminarios web sobre sus funciones y responsabilidades con respecto a la nueva Herramienta de Seguimiento y Evaluación (PMAT, por sus siglas en inglés) de la PPR y sus directrices.

Además, la OMSA y la FAO organizaron conjuntamente las siguientes reuniones relacionadas con la PPR:

- La quinta reunión de la Red mundial de expertos y de investigación sobre la peste de pequeños rumiantes (GREN, por sus siglas en inglés) se celebró del 7 al 9 de diciembre de 2022 en Montpellier, Francia.
- Un taller para el enriquecimiento técnico y la alineación del documento de la fase II del plan nacional para el control y la erradicación de la PPR en Camerún se celebró del 19 al 23 de diciembre de 2022 en Edea, Camerún.
- Una reunión para finalizar el Proyecto de hermanamiento de la OMSA sobre la PPR entre el laboratorio nacional de Senegal (ISRA/LNERV) y el CIRAD se celebró el 8 de marzo de 2023.
- El quinto taller para productores de vacunas contra la PPR se celebró del 27 al 30 de abril de 2023 en Ahmedabad, India.
- Una reunión para debatir acerca de la estrategia contra la PPR en el norte de África se celebró el 21 de junio de 2023 en Ioánina, Grecia. Esta es la primera estrategia regional que se está revisando con el objetivo de ajustarla con el Plan PPR-GEP II y III.
- La reunión sobre la PPR y la dermatosis nodular contagiosa para Asia Oriental fue organizada por la OMSA del 24 al 26 de julio en Qingdao, China. En el orden del día de la reunión también se incluyó un punto sobre el Grupo Permanente de Expertos sobre la PPA.

Se informó a la Comisión que, tras la finalización de la PMAT revisada en diciembre de 2022, la herramienta está en proceso de edición para su publicación. También se ha iniciado la elaboración de una versión digitalizada de la herramienta y de los módulos electrónicos de la formación sobre la PMAT.

Por último, se informó a la Comisión que la Dirección General de Asociaciones Internacionales (DG INTPA) de la CE se ha comprometido a apoyar el Programa panafricano de erradicación de la PPR. En este sentido, la AU-IBAR, la OMSA y la FAO elaboraron conjuntamente un Documento de acción para la primera fase de financiación y lo presentaron a la CE para su aprobación.

La Comisión tomó nota de que, a pesar de las numerosas reuniones organizadas, los Miembros han logrado pocos avances hasta la fecha: algunos han pasado de la etapa 1 del enfoque gradual a la etapa 2, pero ninguno ha logrado erradicar la enfermedad. Para la próxima actualización, la Comisión solicitó a la Secretaría una presentación de indicadores medibles sobre los avances alcanzados. La Comisión observó que la necesidad de mejorar la gestión y el seguimiento de la implementación del programa para mejorar su eficacia se identificó durante el desarrollo del Plan PPR GEP II y III, que prevé el establecimiento de un marco de seguimiento y evaluación actualizado con indicadores revisados para mejorar la rendición de cuentas y la presentación de informes sobre el impacto del programa.

### 7.3. Influenza aviar. Estrategia mundial de control. Foro de sanidad animal. OFFLU

A la luz de la actual crisis mundial de influenza aviar, la OMSA organizó su primer [Foro de Sanidad Animal](#), íntegramente dedicado a la enfermedad durante la reciente 90.<sup>a</sup> Sesión General de la OMSA. El tema técnico [«Desafíos estratégicos para el control mundial de la influenza aviar de alta patogenicidad»](#), presentado en el evento, sentó las bases para el Foro, y los Miembros de la OMSA adoptaron la [Resolución N° 28](#) que servirá de base para configurar las futuras actividades de control de la influenza aviar. La Resolución subraya la importancia de que los Miembros respeten y apliquen las normas internacionales de la OMSA con vistas a combatir eficazmente la influenza aviar.

La Comisión recibió información actualizada sobre el marco de la OMSA dedicado a la influenza aviar que se estaba elaborando para implementar la Resolución. El marco define las actividades, las realizaciones y los resultados esperados durante los próximos dos años, con el fin de abordar los retos estratégicos en el control mundial de la IAAP debatidos en el marco de la 90.<sup>a</sup> Sesión General de la OMSA. Este marco se ha desarrollado en consulta con















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animales acuáticos más sostenibles de conformidad con la [Estrategia de la OMSA sobre la sanidad de los animales acuáticos](#). La Comisión proporcionó a la Secretaría un documento de Buchmann, K. (2022)<sup>2</sup> que podría ser una referencia útil.

#### **10.3. Actualización del Programa sobre la carga mundial de las enfermedades animales (GBADs) y del Centro Colaborador de la OMSA para economía de la sanidad animal**

La Comisión recibió información actualizada sobre el progreso del programa sobre la carga mundial de las enfermedades animales Global Burden of Animal Diseases (GBADs). El objetivo de GBADs es evaluar sistemáticamente la carga económica de las enfermedades animales, incluyendo la pérdida neta de producción, el gasto y los impactos comerciales para mejorar las decisiones de inversión en los sectores ganadero y acuático como resultado de la incorporación de análisis económicos estandarizados y la publicación de datos, análisis e informes. Las actividades realizadas desde febrero de 2023 incluyen i) la presentación de publicaciones sobre los métodos del GBADs a publicaciones revisadas por expertos; ii) la segunda evaluación del programa GBADs por parte de un grupo de referencia externo independiente; iii) los estudios de caso del programa GBADs en Etiopía (estudio de prueba de concepto), Indonesia (etapas iniciales), Senegal (lanzado en septiembre de 2023); iv) el establecimiento del Centro Colaborador para la economía de la sanidad animal en las Américas, y v) la ampliación de las actividades de la OMSA sobre la economía de la sanidad animal para incluir un proyecto sobre la economía de la resistencia a los antimicrobianos. La Comisión alentó al programa GBADs a garantizar que el enfoque tenga en consideración las diferencias en las realidades económicas y los sistemas ganaderos de los diferentes países.

#### **10.4. Comité editorial de la OMSA**

El Jefe del Departamento de Publicaciones explicó la necesidad de crear un nuevo comité editorial para la revista revisada por expertos de la OMSA, la *Revista Científica y Técnica*. Aunque el contenido es de gran calidad y existen sólidos procesos editoriales y de revisión, la publicación carece de una gobernanza que garantice su credibilidad científica.

El comité editorial supervisará y fomentará la calidad y el impacto de la *Revista Científica y Técnica* y también asesorará sobre la estrategia general de publicaciones de la OMSA cuando se le solicite. El papel del comité será principalmente consultivo, pero también participará ocasionalmente en la revisión del contenido y asistirá a dos reuniones al año.

Se pidió a la Comisión que nomine un candidato para el comité editorial que pueda comprometerse con el cargo. Dado que el mandato de la actual Comisión finalizará en mayo de 2024, el mandato del primer candidato propuesto se extenderá hasta septiembre de 2024.

La Comisión convino en que la creación de un nuevo comité editorial sería un paso adelante positivo para las publicaciones de la OMSA y acordó nominar a un miembro para formar parte del comité.

#### **10.5. Proyecto de herramientas de navegación en línea para consultar las normas de la OMSA**

El Departamento de Normas de la OMSA informó a la Comisión acerca de un proyecto para desarrollar una nueva herramienta de navegación en línea para consultar las normas de la OMSA. Este proyecto es una iniciativa para cambiar la forma en que se muestran las normas de la OMSA y en que se ponen a disposición de los Miembros y otros usuarios. El proyecto mejorará la visualización del *Código Acuático*, el *Código Terrestre*, el *Manual Acuático* y el *Manual Terrestre* en el sitio web de la OMSA. El proyecto también comprenderá una herramienta específica destinada a proporcionar funciones de búsqueda específicas para la visualización de las medidas sanitarias recomendadas para el comercio internacional de mercancías relacionadas con los animales terrestres. Asimismo, se espera que la nueva herramienta simplifique el proceso de actualización anual del contenido de las normas.

El proyecto se ajusta a los objetivos del 7.<sup>º</sup> Plan Estratégico y proporcionará ventajas considerables a la OMSA y a sus Miembros, incluida una mejor accesibilidad a las normas de la OMSA y eficiencia en la obtención de información, todo ello respaldando al mismo tiempo la aplicación de las normas de la OMSA. El proyecto también aportará ventajas a la propia Organización al mejorar la eficacia de los procesos internos y la interoperabilidad entre los diversos conjuntos de datos relacionados con las normas de la OMSA.

La Comisión expresó su interés y apoyo al proyecto y reconoció la importancia de facilitar el acceso de los Miembros para mejorar el conocimiento y la utilización de las normas de la OMSA.

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<sup>2</sup> Buchmann, K. (2022). Control of parasitic diseases in aquaculture. *Parasitology*. 149 (14), 1985 - 1997

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## **11. Programa y prioridades**

### **11.1. Actualización y prioridades del plan de trabajo**

La Comisión actualizó su programa de trabajo, identificó las prioridades y programó las fechas de reunión de los diversos grupos *ad hoc*; esta información se encuentra disponible para los Miembros en el sitio web de la OMSA. El programa de trabajo actualizado figura en el [Anexo 11](#).

## **12. Aprobación del informe**

La Comisión adoptó el informe, que se difundió por vía electrónica después de la reunión.

## **13. Fecha de la próxima reunión**

La siguiente reunión de la Comisión Científica está prevista entre el 12 y el 16 de febrero de 2024.

## **14. Evaluación de la reunión**

En el contexto del Marco de desempeño de las comisiones especializadas, se pasó revista a la presente reunión.

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.../Anexos

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## Anexo 1. Orden del día aprobado

### REUNIÓN DE LA COMISIÓN CIENTÍFICA DE LA OMSA PARA LAS ENFERMEDADES ANIMALES

París, 11 al 15 de septiembre de 2023

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1. **Bienvenida**
2. **Reunión con la Directora General**
3. **Aprobación del orden del día**
4. **Código Sanitario para los Animales Terrestres**
  - 4.1. Comentarios de los Miembros recibidos para consideración de la Comisión
    - 4.1.1. Capítulo 1.6. Procedimientos para el reconocimiento oficial del estatus zoosanitario, la validación de un programa oficial de control y la publicación de una autodeclaración de ausencia de enfermedad por la OMSA
    - 4.1.2. Capítulo 8.8. Infección por el virus de la fiebre aftosa
    - 4.1.3. Capítulo 12.1. Infección por el virus de la peste equina
  - 4.2. Otras consideraciones
    - 4.2.1. Capítulo 1.11. Solicitud para el reconocimiento oficial de la OMSA del estatus libre de fiebre aftosa
    - 4.2.2. Capítulo 14.8. Prurigo lumbar
5. **Grupos *ad hoc* y grupos de trabajo**
  - 5.1. Informes de reuniones para aprobación
    - 5.1.1. Grupo *ad hoc* sobre la surra y la durina
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  - 5.2. Grupos *ad hoc* previstos y confirmación del orden del día propuesto
    - 5.2.1. Grupo *ad hoc* encargado de evaluar el estatus zoosanitario con respecto a la peste equina: 28–29 de septiembre, 5 de octubre de 2023
    - 5.2.2. Grupo *ad hoc* encargado de evaluar el estatus de los Miembros respecto de la encefalopatía espongiforme bovina: 3–5 de octubre de 2023 (anulado)
    - 5.2.3. Grupo *ad hoc* sobre la evaluación de la validación de los programas de control de la rabia transmitida por los perros: 4 y 6 de octubre de 2023
    - 5.2.4. Grupo *ad hoc* encargado de evaluar el estatus de los Miembros respecto de la peste de pequeños rumiantes: 17–19 de octubre 2023
    - 5.2.5. Grupo *ad hoc* encargado de evaluar el estatus de los Miembros respecto de la fiebre aftosa: 23–26 de octubre de 2023
    - 5.2.6. Grupo *ad hoc* encargado de evaluar el estatus de los Miembros de la peste porcina clásica: 7–9 de noviembre de 2023 (anulado)
    - 5.2.7. Grupo *ad hoc* encargado de evaluar el estatus de los Miembros respecto de la perineumonía contagiosa bovina: 5–7 de diciembre de 2023 (por confirmar)
  - 5.3. Informes de reuniones para información
    - 5.3.1. Grupo de trabajo de la OMSA sobre la fauna silvestre
6. **Información específica sobre el estatus zoosanitario oficial**
  - 6.1. Reconfirmaciones anuales para el mantenimiento del estatus oficial
    - 6.1.1. Selección de expedientes para la revisión exhaustiva de las reconfirmaciones anuales de 2023

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- 6.2. Actualización específica sobre el estatus zoosanitario oficial
    - 6.2.1. Actualización sobre la situación de los países o zonas con estatus zoosanitario suspendido
    - 6.2.2. Actualización sobre la solicitud para el reconocimiento de estatus sanitario respecto de la fiebre aftosa de la República de Corea (ciclo de evaluación 2022-2023)
  - 6.3. Situación actual y prioridades de las misiones de expertos solicitadas por la Comisión
    - 6.3.1. Seguimiento de las misiones de campo
    - 6.3.2. Situación actual y prioridades
  - 6.4. Normas relacionadas con el reconocimiento del estatus oficial
    - 6.4.1. Actualización sobre los avances en de las actividades posteriores a la adopción de los Capítulos 11.4. y 1.8. sobre la EEB
    - 6.4.2. Formulario para la confirmación anual de la situación de riesgo respecto a la encefalopatía espongiforme bovina (EEB) de los Miembros
    - 6.4.3. Incumplimiento de las disposiciones del *Código Terrestre* por parte de los Miembros que tienen un estatus zoosanitario oficial de la OMSA que importan mercancías procedentes de países que no tienen un estatus oficial libre de enfermedad
    - 6.4.4. Desarrollo de la Plataforma Oficial de gestión del Estatus

## **7. Estrategias mundiales de erradicación y control**

- 7.1. Actualización sobre la situación mundial de la fiebre aftosa y las actividades de la Red de Laboratorios de Referencia
- 7.2. Peste de los pequeños rumiantes. Estrategia global de control y erradicación
- 7.3. Influenza aviar. Estrategia mundial de control. Foro de sanidad animal. OFFLU
- 7.4. Peste porcina africana. Iniciativa de control mundial
- 7.5. Tuberculosis bovina. Estrategia mundial para la tuberculosis zoonótica. Directrices sobre estrategias alternativas para el control de la infección por el complejo *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* en el ganado

## **8. Relación con otras comisiones y departamentos**

- 8.1. Comisión de Normas Sanitarias para los Animales Terrestres (Comisión del Código)
- 8.2. Comisión de Normas Biológicas

## **9. Control de enfermedades: temas específicos**

- 9.1. Enfermedades emergentes
  - 9.1.1. Reevaluación anual de enfermedad emergente: infección por SARS-CoV-2
- 9.2. Evaluación del agente patógeno según los criterios de inclusión en la lista que figuran en el Capítulo 1.2. del *Código Terrestre*
  - 9.2.1. Encefalitis equinas
  - 9.2.2. *Theileria orientalis* (Ikeda y Chitose)
- 9.3. Desarrollo de definiciones de caso
  - 9.3.1. Actualización sobre el trabajo relativo a las definiciones de caso
  - 9.3.2. Definiciones de caso

## **10. Para información de la Comisión**

- 10.1. Información sobre el Consorcio Internacional de Investigación en Salud Animal STAR-IDAZ
- 10.2. Actualización sobre las actividades de resistencia a los antiparasitarios de la OMSA
- 10.3. Actualización del Programa sobre la carga mundial de las enfermedades animales (GBADs) y del Centro Colaborador de la OMSA para economía de la sanidad animal
- 10.4. Comité editorial de la OMSA
- 10.5. Proyecto de herramientas de navegación en línea para consultar las normas de la OMSA

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**11. Programa y prioridades**

11.1. Actualización y prioridades del plan de trabajo

**12. Aprobación del informe**

**13. Fecha de la próxima reunión**

**14. Evaluación de la reunión**

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## Anexo 2. Lista de participantes

### REUNIÓN DE LA COMISIÓN CIENTÍFICA DE LA OMSA PARA LAS ENFERMEDADES ANIMALES

París, 11 de 15 septiembre de 2023

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#### MIEMBROS DE LA COMISIÓN

<b>Dr. Cristóbal Zepeda</b> (Presidente) Regional Manager - Director North America Region USDA-APHIS-International Services U.S. Embassy, Mexico City MÉXICO	<b>Dr. Trevor Drew</b> (Vicepresidente) CSIRO Australian Centre for Disease Preparedness AUSTRALIA	<b>Dr. Misheck Mulumba</b> (miembro) Senior Manager Research Agricultural Research Council SUDÁFRICA
<b>Dr. Kris De Clercq</b> (Vicepresidente) Department of Infectious Diseases in Animals Exotic and Vector-borne Diseases Unit Sciensano BÉLGICA	<b>Dra. Silvia Bellini (a distancia)</b> (miembro) Staff Director Istituto Zooprofilattico Sperimentale della Lombardia e dell'Emilia Romagna ITALIA	<b>Dr. Baptiste Dungu</b> (miembro) Veterinary Specialist Afrivet Business Management SUDÁFRICA

#### SEDE DE LA OMSA

<b>Dr. Gregorio Torres</b> Jefe del Departamento Científico	<b>Dra. Min Kyung Park</b> Jefa del Departamento de Estatus	<b>Dra. Anna-Maria Baka</b> Comisionada Departamento de Estatus
<b>Dra. Charmaine Chng</b> Jefa adjunta del Departamento Científico	<b>Dra. Monal Daptardar</b> Coordinadora científica Departamento Científico	<b>Dra. Natalie Moyen</b> Comisionada Departamento de Estatus

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**Anexo 3. 6.4.2. Formulario revisado para la reconfirmación anual del estatus de riesgo de encefalopatía espongiforme bovina (EEB) de los Miembros de la OMSA**

**REUNIÓN DE LA COMISIÓN CIENTÍFICA DE LA OMSA PARA LAS ENFERMEDADES ANIMALES**

**París, 11 de 15 septiembre de 2023**

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**Período específico (período de cobertura de 12 meses) \*:**

\* Asegúrese de que el "periodo específico" actual es directamente consecutivo con el periodo de notificación anterior (es decir, que no hay lagunas ni solapamientos entre este "periodo específico" y el de la reconfirmación anual del año pasado).

PREGUNTA		SÍ	NO
1.	¿La autoridad competente del país/zona ha revisado la evaluación del riesgo de EEB de acuerdo con el Artículo 11.4.3. mediante la incorporación de pruebas documentadas de los últimos 12 meses?	Proporcione las conclusiones de la revisión y cualquier medida/actualización posterior que se haya tomado.	Explique por qué y proporcione la fecha provisional de finalización de la revisión.
2.	a) ¿Se ha producido algún cambio en las prácticas de la industria ganadera en los últimos 12 meses, tal y como se describe en el apartado 1.b.i del Artículo 11.4.3., incluyendo cualquier cambio en las prácticas de auditoría o cualquier aumento detectado en los incumplimientos?  b) ¿Se ha producido algún cambio en las medidas de mitigación específicas de la EEB (distintos de los requisitos para las importaciones mencionados en la pregunta 4b) durante el período específico, tal y como se describe en el apartado 1.b.i del Artículo 11.4.3., incluyendo cualquier cambio en las prácticas de auditoría o cualquier aumento detectado en los incumplimientos?	Proporcione una descripción actualizada de las prácticas de la industria que impiden que se alimente a los bovinos con harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes, de conformidad con el apartado 1.b.i del Artículo 11.4.3.  Proporcione la justificación de los cambios en las prácticas de auditoría.  Proporcione una descripción actualizada de las medidas específicas de mitigación de riesgos que impiden que se alimente a los bovinos con harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes.  Proporcione la justificación de los motivos del cambio de medidas.	
3.	¿Se ha producido alguna modificación de la legislación relativa a la EEB (distintos de los requisitos para las importaciones mencionados en la pregunta 4b) en los últimos 12 meses?	Resuma la(s) modificación(es) realizada(s), haciendo hincapié en su posible impacto en las medidas de mitigación del riesgo de EEB, incluida la vigilancia. Explique cómo la legislación actualizada sigue siendo conforme con los Artículos 11.4.4 y 11.4.5.  Proporcione la justificación del cambio en la legislación.	
4.	a) ¿Se han importado los siguientes productos durante el período específico? De ser así, indique las cantidades importadas durante ese período por producto y origen en el Cuadro 1.	i. Ganado bovino ii. Harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes iii. Piensos (no destinados a animales de compañía) que contengan harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes iv. Fertilizantes que contengan harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes	

PREGUNTA		SÍ	NO
b) ¿Ha habido algún cambio en los requisitos para las importaciones de los siguientes productos durante el período específico?	v. Cualquier otra mercancía que sea, incluya o pueda estar contaminada por las mercancías enumeradas en el Artículo 11.4.15.	Resuma las modificaciones y la justificación de los cambios, haciendo hincapié en su posible impacto en las medidas de mitigación del riesgo de EEB. Describa cómo la legislación actualizada sigue siendo conforme con los Artículos 11.4.3. y 11.4.4.	
	i. Ganado bovino		
	ii. Harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes		
	iii. Piensos (no destinados a animales de compañía) que contengan harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes		
	iv. Fertilizantes que contengan harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes		
	v. Cualquier otra mercancía que sea, incluya o pueda estar contaminada por las mercancías enumeradas en el Artículo 11.4.15.		
5.	a) ¿El programa de vigilancia ha seguido notificando y examinando a todos los animales que presenten signos del espectro clínico de la EEB durante el período específico, como se describe en los apartados 1 y 2 del Artículo 11.4.20.?	Proporcione información complementaria en el Cuadro 2.	Describa por qué el sistema no ha seguido notificando y/o examinando a todos los bovinos que presenten signos del espectro clínico de la EEB durante el período específico. Proporcione además las medidas correctivas implementadas o por implementar y el calendario de implementación.
	b) ¿Se han seguido aplicando programas de concienciación y formación para los distintos grupos de partes interesadas durante el período específico, tal como se describe en el apartado 3a del Artículo 11.4.20.?	Proporcione un resumen de las actividades realizadas e incluya al público objetivo.	Describa el motivo y proporcione las medidas correctivas y el cronograma de implementación.
	c) ¿La EEB ha seguido siendo una enfermedad de declaración obligatoria en todo el territorio durante el período específico (apartado 3b del Artículo 11.4.20.)?		Describa el motivo y proporcione las medidas correctivas aplicadas/por aplicar y el cronograma de implementación.
	d) ¿Se han realizado todas las pruebas de detección de la EEB de conformidad con el <i>Manual Terrestre</i> ? (apartado 3c del Artículo 11.4.20)		Describa el motivo y proporcione las medidas correctivas aplicadas/por aplicar y el cronograma de implementación.
	e) ¿El sistema de vigilancia sigue estando respaldado por procedimientos de evaluación sólidos y documentados como se enumeran en el apartado 3d del Artículo 11.4.20.?	Proporcione un resumen de estos procedimientos y, si procede, los incumplimientos y las medidas correctivas posteriores.	Describa el motivo y proporcione las medidas correctivas aplicadas/por aplicar y el cronograma de implementación.
6.	a) ¿Se ha producido algún caso de EEB atípica durante el período específico?	Incluya el número de casos y describa cómo se identificaron. Proporcione pruebas documentadas de que el caso era atípico y garantía de que no fue reciclado (es decir, que se tomaron medidas para garantizar que todos los casos detectados se han destruido totalmente o eliminado de tal manera que se garantiza que no hayan entrado en la cadena de piensos o alimentación, como estipula el apartado 4 del Artículo 11.4.4.).	

PREGUNTA		SÍ	NO
	b) ¿Se ha producido algún caso de EEB clásica durante el período específico?	Adjunte el informe final de la investigación epidemiológica que se proporcionó a la OMSA después de la notificación. Describa las medidas que se hayan tomado para evitar una nueva aparición de la enfermedad. Describa las medidas adoptadas para garantizar que todos los casos detectados se han destruido totalmente o eliminado de tal manera que se garantiza que no hayan entrado en la cadena de piensos o alimentación, como estipula el apartado 4 del Artículo 11.4.4.	
7.	¿Se ha producido algún cambio en la situación epidemiológica o algún otro evento significativo durante el período específico?	Describa el(s) "evento(s) significativo(s)" y cualquier cambio significativo en la situación epidemiológica, así como las medidas tomadas en respuesta a dicho(s) evento(s)/cambio(s).	

**Cuadro 1:** Registrar las importaciones desde su última presentación (en un período de 12 meses). Período específico (marque una de las casillas siguientes):

- igual que el período en la parte superior del formulario
- diferente (si es así, sírvase especificar).

\* *Asegúrese de que el "periodo específico" actual es directamente consecutivo con el período de notificación anterior (es decir, que no hay lagunas ni solapamientos entre este "periodo específico" y el de la reconfirmación anual del año pasado).*

Describir en este cuadro las importaciones de bovinos, harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes y otras mercancías de todos los países.

País de origen	Mercancía y cantidad									
	Bovinos		Harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes		Piensos (no destinados a animales de compañía) que contengan harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes		Fertilizantes que contengan harinas proteicas derivadas de rumiantes		Cualquier otra mercancía que sea, incluya o pueda estar contaminada por las mercancías enumeradas en el Artículo 11.4.15.	
	Número de animales	Utilización	Cantidad	Tipo de mercancía (+)	Cantidad	Tipo de mercancía (+)	Cantidad	Tipo de mercancía (+)	Cantidad	Tipo de mercancía (+)

(+) Especifique el tipo de alimentos para animales y su uso, así como las especies animales de los ingredientes.

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**Cuadro 2:** Registrar en este cuadro las operaciones de vigilancia realizadas desde su última presentación (en un período de 12 meses).

Resumen de todos los bovinos con signos clínicos compatibles con la EEB que fueron notificados y evaluados por los Servicios Veterinarios.

Período específico (marque una de las casillas siguientes):

- igual que el período en la parte superior del formulario
- diferente; si es así, sírvase especificar.

Indique el tamaño de la población bovina adulta (24 meses o más)

Presentación clínica (véase el Artículo 11.4.20. apartado 2)	Número de declaraciones	Número de pruebas de EEB
Bovinos que presentan signos clínicos progresivos compatibles con la encefalopatía espongiforme bovina, y que son resistentes al tratamiento, y cuando el cuadro clínico no se puede atribuir a otras causas comunes de signos comportamentales o neurológicos		
Bovinos que presentan signos comportamentales o neurológicos durante la inspección <i>ante mortem</i> en los mataderos		
Bovinos que no pueden levantarse o caminar sin ayuda con antecedentes clínicos compatibles (es decir, el cuadro clínico no se puede atribuir a otras causas comunes de postración);		
Bovinos que se han hallado muertos (animales fallecidos), que tienen antecedentes clínicos compatibles (es decir, el cuadro clínico no se puede atribuir a otras causas comunes de muerte)		

#### Annex 4. 9.2.1. Listing Assessment for Equine Encephalitides

#### MEETING OF THE WOAH SCIENTIFIC COMMISSION FOR ANIMAL DISEASES

Paris, 11 to 15 September 2023

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#### SUMMARY OF THE EXPERT ASSESSMENT OF JAPANESE ENCEPHALITIS AGAINST THE LISTING CRITERIA OF TERRESTRIAL CODE CHAPTER 1.2.

Three experts participated in this consultation:

- **Peter Timoney** (IHSC Consultant, Gluck Equine Research Center, USA)
- **Ann Cullinane** (Irish Equine Center, Ireland)
- **Alf Fussel** (IHSC Consultant, retired from European Commission, Belgium)

Criterion	1	2	3
<b>Criterion 1:</b> International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 2:</b> At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 3:</b> Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist, and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4a:</b> Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4b:</b> The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.	YES	YES	NO
<b>Criterion 4c:</b> The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.	YES	NO	NO
<b>CONCLUSION:</b> Does infection with Japanese encephalitis virus match the listing criteria that are described in the Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2?	YES	YES	YES

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## Assessment for Japanese Encephalitis: Peter Timoney

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The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

First described in Japan in 1871, Japanese encephalitis (JE) occurs across a wide swath of countries in East, South and Southeastern Asia and the Western Pacific (World Health Organization, 2015; NHS-UK, 2019). A source of increased concern has been the expanding geographic distribution of the disease that has taken place over the past several decades. The causal virus has spread westward into Nepal and Pakistan, and eastward into Papua New Guinea and islands to the north of Australia (Mackenzie, 1998; Mackenzie et al., 2002).

JE is an arboviral disease of humans, equids and pigs and certain other domestic species. The natural life cycle of JE virus involves wading and water birds especially Ardeid species such as herons and egrets as reservoir hosts. Unlike pigs, humans and equids are dead-end or tangential hosts that fail to develop viremias of sufficient magnitude to infect mosquitoes competent to transmit the infection. Pigs on the other hand, develop significant viremias and act as important amplification hosts of the virus (Scherer et al., 1959).

In countries in which JE is endemic, outbreaks of encephalitis in equids due to this virus tend to coincide with seasonal occurrences of the disease in humans. Frequency of the disease in equids has been reduced very significantly in countries practicing annual vaccination.

There can be no doubt from the ever-widening global distribution of JE within the past 30-40 years, that international spread of the causal virus has taken place between countries in Asia and the Western Pacific on various occasions. The likelihood is that such incursions have arisen following wind-borne carriage of the disease agent via infected mosquitoes from an endemic country or countries (Ellis et al., 2000; Ritchie and Rochester, 2001). Changes in climate, destruction of natural habitats and other factors can bring about changes in vector distribution and relocation to new regions or countries (Connor and Bunn, 2017). There is no documented evidence in support of an alternative explanation associating these events with the movement of animals, animal products, or the transfer of fomites or people. The most recent instance exemplifying international spread of JE virus was a report of an increased incidence of reproductive problems on commercial breeding pig farms in the states of Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria, Australia in February 2022. Investigation of cases of stillbirths, weak piglets and neonatal deaths led to confirmation of a diagnosis of JE infection (Australian Government Department of National Pest & Disease Outbreaks, March 2022). South Australia was added to the number of known affected states in early March 2022. This was the latest but not the first incursion of JE virus either onto some of the islands of the Torres Strait in 1995 (Hanna et al., 1996) or Cape York Peninsula on the Australian mainland in 1998 (Hanna et al., 1999). Subsequent surveillance studies provided serologic evidence that JE virus had been circulating in the feral and domestic pig and cattle populations in Northern Australia.

By April 2022, JE virus had been detected in 73 pig farms across the four afore-mentioned states (WHO Outbreak News, 2022). In light of the known distribution of the disease in the affected states and the fact that it is very probable that the virus continues to circulate in the feral pig population in Northern Australia, the Veterinary Authorities are now considering JE as an endemic disease and at least for the time being, no longer a transboundary disease in the affected states.

In summary, in the author's opinion, international spread of JE virus has taken place on at least several occasions since the 1990s, either to islands in the Torres Strait in 1995 or to the Australian mainland as identified on the Cape York Peninsula in 1998 and most recently in early 2022. Such incursions likely arose following wind-borne carriage of the virus via infected mosquitoes from an endemic country, possibly Papua New Guinea. This provides the proof needed to meet Criterion 1 required for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Regarded as an emerging disease of international concern because of its expanding encroachment into previously non-endemic regions, JE is considered a very significant human and equine pathogen. Countries long affected by the disease

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have resorted to vaccination as an effective strategy for reducing the incidence of clinical disease and losses attributable to the virus. Official programs to control and prevent the spread of JE have been implemented by various countries including but not necessarily exclusive of: Japan (Nakamura, 1972); Singapore (Loke, 1981; Ismail, 1989); China (Huang, 1982); Malaysia and Hong Kong (Ellis et al., 2000). While the majority of programs have emphasized vaccination of at-risk susceptible human and equine populations, some have been expanded to include additional strategies aimed at vector control, limiting exposure of equids to infected mosquitoes, and very importantly, limiting amplification of JE virus in pigs. Because of JE's zoonotic significance, Public Health and Veterinary Authorities need to work in concert at all levels in striving to prevent this disease in human populations. Although the focus of these programs has been on prevention and control of JE, to the author's knowledge, none of the countries concerned have as yet been in a position to eliminate this virus and declare country freedom from the disease. The challenge is especially daunting for countries in which the sylvan cycle of the virus has become established or where there is a significant risk of periodic reintroduction of virus from neighboring countries where the disease is also endemic.

Prior to the latest discovery of JE in southeastern Australia in early March 2022, the Veterinary Authorities had formulated a plan many years earlier detailing measures that ought to be taken in the event of an incursion of JE into the country (Agriculture and Resources Management Council of Australia and New Zealand, 1998). In light of the current situation, the Australian government has declared the multistate outbreaks of JE a Communicable Disease Incident of National Significance (Australian Government Department of Health, May 2022). JE is a notifiable disease in both humans and animals in Australia. Of primary importance in controlling future spread of the disease is to develop and implement a national surveillance plan to determine the area(s) and extent to which JE virus is circulating in the country. Emphasis is being placed on piggeries and mosquitoes because of their significance in amplification and transmission of the virus. This will likely present a major logistical challenge considering the very extensive land area involved. While JE vaccine(s) is/are available for immunization of human at-risk groups, no vaccines for animals are currently registered for general use in Australia (WHO Outbreak News, April 2022). A vaccine for use in horses being exported to a JE endemic country will hopefully be approved for use domestically by horse owners to protect their animals. Furthermore, there is an urgent need to develop a vaccine for use in pigs because of their major role in amplification and spread of the virus. An Achilles heel in implementation of the surveillance program is the feral pig population in northern Australia. While this population can be logically difficult to trace and sample, it is important to monitor since it can play a contributory role in the spread of JE virus.

Additional to targeted surveillance, such a plan should also emphasize strategies for reducing vector populations, especially in proximity to piggeries; restricting the movement and congregation of pigs and the potential for transfer of virus by viremic animals; limiting exposure of horses to the virus by accommodating them in screened barns from dusk to dawn; and more widespread use of insect repellents on at-risk horses (Ellis et al., 2000).

The National Plan that the Australian government has launched in response to the current JE situation in four southeastern states Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, represents a highly comprehensive, well integrated approach to bringing this disease under control not only in the affected states, but also in the longer term on a national scale. It remains to be seen how effective these collective efforts will turn out and whether it will be possible to permanently eliminate the virus from the states in question. It would be very encouraging if it did. Success even at a state level would hopefully augur well for accomplishing disease freedom on a much wider scale, even perhaps at a national level. As it currently stands, given time, Australia has the potential to comply with the requirements to be considered free from JE, in accordance with the surveillance principles outlined in Chapter 1.4 of the *Terrestrial Code*. Only time will tell what the eventual outcome will turn out to be at the state and national level.

In summary, the author considers that Australia, among a number of other countries, measures up to the basis for Criterion 2 with respect to listing in the *Terrestrial Code*. Australia has the potential to comply with requirements to be considered free from JE, in accordance with the surveillance principles outlined in Chapter 1.4 of *Terrestrial Code*.

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

A variety of diseases, infectious and non-infectious, can be associated with the development of neurologic signs in horses and other equid species. Among viral diseases, there are an increasing number caused by different arboviruses, all of which can give rise to neurologic disease that is very similar in nature, range of clinical signs, and course of the disease to JE. A provisional clinical diagnosis must always be substantiated by laboratory confirmation of the responsible etiological agent (Ellis et al., 2000), in this case JE virus. This can only be arrived at following testing of appropriate clinical/post-mortem specimens by a laboratory having the capability, expertise and experience in conducting the tests needed to establish a diagnosis.

A range of virus detection and identification tests as well as antibody determination tests are available for the diagnosis of JE infection. JE virus can be isolated from serum, cerebrospinal fluid or the brain of a horse with neurologic disease or a case of subclinical infection. Isolation of virus can be attempted in a susceptible strain of mice inoculated intracerebrally, or in certain cell lines. Identification of viral isolates as JE virus is best accomplished using the plaque-reduction neutralization test or a molecular, nucleic acid based assay viz. polymerase chain reaction assay (Ellis et al., 2000). Most recently, JE virus infection has been confirmed by RNA-based metagenomic next-generation sequencing (Maamary et al., 2023), as yet not available in most testing labs. Virus-specific antigen has been demonstrated immunohistochemically in the brain of some cases of the disease. Several serological tests can be used in investigating suspect cases of JE virus infection, of which the JE specific enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and the plaque-reduction neutralization test offer the most definitive results. Other serological tests lack specificity due to serologic cross-reactions with related flaviviruses (Ellis et al., 2000).

In summary, a range of lab tests are available for the detection and identification of cases of JE infection. These enable confirmation of a diagnosis of the disease and its differentiation from cases of infection caused by other viral or microbial agents. As such, JE meets Criterion 3 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* with respect to the availability of lab tests capable of confirming a diagnosis of the disease.

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

The zoonotic significance of JE virus has been recognized for well over 100 years. Prior to the availability of a vaccine with which to protect against the disease, epidemics of encephalitis in the human population were frequently recorded in the various countries in South and Southeastern Asia in which the disease was endemic. JE has been estimated to be responsible for 100,000 cases annually worldwide (Maamary et al., 2023). Two types of transmission patterns have been described: 1) seasonal epidemic transmission in temperate regions; and 2) low endemic transmission in tropical regions throughout the year (Mehta et al., 2021). The clinical features associated with JE virus infection range from asymptomatic infection to a fulminant encephalitic syndrome with a case fatality rate of between 20-30%. Upwards of 50% of survivors are left with neurological sequelae. Most human infections with JE virus are asymptomatic. Symptomatic cases are uncommon, occurring in an estimated one in 250 cases of infection. They are more common in children. In fact, JE is regarded as a disease of children (Mehta et al., 2021). Even to this day, JE is a highly significant cause of serious illness and death in humans, despite the availability of vaccines known to be effective in protecting against this very important disease.

In summary, JE meets Criterion 4a for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* by virtue of its proven ability to cause human disease of very major clinical significance.

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Analogous to the situation in humans, JE has been proven to have a significant impact on the health of two species of domestic animals, horses including other equid species and pigs, specifically pregnant sows. The outcome of JE infection in horses parallels that in humans, (Burns et al., 1949; Nakamura, 1972). Horses and donkeys are susceptible to infection with the virus (Huang, 1982). Horses are most likely to develop inapparent infections than observable signs of disease (Burns et al., 1949). That notwithstanding, periodic epidemics of encephalitis in horses in summer have been documented, the majority during the 20th century. Case fatality rates in such events have varied from 5-15% to as high as 30-40% (Nakamura, 1972).

The frequency of epidemics in endemic countries has diminished in more recent times with greater widespread use of vaccine against the disease. Three clinical syndromes have been described in horses infected with JE virus, transient, lethargic, and hyperexcitable. Horses exhibiting the transient or lethargic forms of the disease usually recover in a matter of several days. Individuals afflicted with the hyperexcitable manifestation of JE may recover but more commonly succumb to the disease. Residual neurologic sequelae may supervene in horses that survive the encephalitic form of JE.

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Except for pregnant sows, JE virus infection in pigs is asymptomatic. Infection of pregnant sows can frequently result in abortion, or the birth of mummified weak piglets (Burns, 1950). Affected piglets can develop neurologic disease and frequently die. Losses at piggeries can be very high in the face of peak virus transmission, with up to 1/3 of infected sows losing their litters (Takashima et al., 1988).

In summary, historical and current experience has shown that JE virus can have a significant impact on the health of equids and pigs. The series of outbreaks of JE infection in breeding sows on multiple piggeries in four states in Australia exemplifies the direct economic and production losses that can occur, given the circumstances that the at-risk pig population was fully susceptible to the effects of the virus. In the author's opinion, these data support the listing of JE in the *Terrestrial Code*.

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

There is a dearth of published information on the impact of JE virus infection on the health of wildlife. Beyond infecting various species of wading and water birds in nature, and chickens, ducks and pigeons under experimental conditions, all of which can develop high viremias similar to pigs, infection is not associated with development of clinical signs of disease. It is presumed that JE infection in feral pregnant pigs will produce the same pathologic response as characterized in the domestic pig, namely reproductive losses from abortion, stillbirths, mummified fetuses and neonatal deaths. Under such circumstances, JE virus will have the potential to impact the health of feral pig populations. That being so, it will match with Criterion 4c for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code* [Chapter 1.2.](#)?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

Japanese encephalitis virus is exceptional among the group of equine encephalitic viruses in that its known global distribution has expanded significantly over the past 30-40 years. It has spread westward into Nepal and Pakistan and eastward into Papua New Guinea and islands to the north of Australia. Aside from humans and horses that are dead-end hosts of the virus, pigs are highly susceptible to infection, developing very high viremias and acting as efficient amplification hosts of the virus. Spread of JE virus in East, South and Southern Asia and the Western Pacific has likely been associated with wind-borne carriage of the disease agent via infected mosquitoes from an endemic country. This is the most logical explanation to account for the incursion of JE into offshore islands in the Torres Strait in 1995, Cape York Peninsula on the Australian mainland in 1998, and most recently, discovery of the virus in pigs associated with reproductive losses in three southeastern states, Queensland, New South Wales and Victoria in March 2022. A fourth state, South Australia, was added a month later. The Australian Veterinary Authorities are now considering JE as an endemic disease in the four affected states. The most recent series of events is confirmation of the incursion of JE into Australia most probably by infected vectors (mosquitoes) perhaps from Papua New Guinea. This matches Criterion 1 with respect to proven international spread of a disease agent. Australia has a highly comprehensive and well integrated official plan in place to combat and prevent further spread of JE virus. An integral component of this plan is in-depth targeted surveillance of the mosquito and pig populations initially in the four affected states and on a wider scale later, to determine the extent of distribution of the virus in the respective populations. The surveillance plan is structured so that it is in accordance with the surveillance principles outlined in Chapter 1.4 of the *Terrestrial Code*. Whereas the plan is conditional at this point in time, it is in keeping with the terms of Criterion 2 with reference to listing in the *Terrestrial Code*. A range of laboratory tests are available that enable the diagnosis of JE virus infection. Some are directed at detection and identification of the causal agent, whereas others, for example certain serologic tests, can be used to investigate suspect cases of this infection. It needs to be borne in mind that some serologic assays lack specificity due to cross reactions with related flaviviruses. The availability, sensitivity and specificity of laboratory tests for confirmation of a diagnosis of JE matches Criterion 3 in the *Terrestrial Code*. The zoonotic importance of JE for human populations in countries in which this disease is endemic is widely accepted. Epidemics of disease continue in susceptible populations notwithstanding the availability of safe, effective vaccines against the disease. JE is more common in children in which it can be a serious if not infrequently fatal illness. The disease continues to be of major clinical significance and matches with Criterion 4a for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*. Analogous to the JE in humans, JE has been proven to have an important impact on the health of horses and other equid species, and pigs. JE virus has the potential to cause encephalitis in horses, with fatality rates in some outbreaks as high

as 30-40%. Residual neurologic sequelae may supervene in horses that survive the encephalitic form of JE. With the exception of pregnant sows, JE infection is asymptomatic in pigs. Infection in pregnant sows can frequently result in abortion, stillbirths, and mummified piglets. Losses in affected piggeries can be very significant. The impact of JE virus on the health of horses and pigs matches Criterion 4b for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*. There is very little published information on the impact of JE virus infection on the health of wildlife with one exception, namely that of the pregnant feral pig population. It is reasonable to assume that this population will suffer the same reproductive losses as encountered in the domestic pig. Under such circumstances, JE virus will have the potential to impact the reproductive health of feral pig populations and match with Criterion 4c for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*. JE virus matches important Criteria 1 and 2 (conditional) and also Criteria 3, 4a, 4b and 4c. The conditional match under Criterion 2 is based upon the following: 1) Australia has a National Surveillance Plan in place to control and prevent the further spread of JE virus; and 2) the country has the potential to comply with the requirements to be considered free from the disease or infection in accordance with the surveillance principles outlined in Chapter 1.4 of the *Terrestrial Code*.

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#### Assessment for Japanese Encephalitis: Ann Cullinane

The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Japanese Encephalitis (JE) is primarily prevalent in Asia but recent cases in Pakistan, Papua New Guinea and Australia suggest that its geographic range is expanding (Pierson and Diamond, 2020). In 2022, Japanese Encephalitis virus (JEV) was detected in Australia on a hitherto unprecedented scale, with local transmission by indigenous mosquitoes, disease outbreaks in piggeries and fatalities in humans <https://www.who.int/emergencies/diseases-outbreak-news/item/2022-DON365> and <https://www.health.gov.au/health-alerts/japanese-encephalitis-virus-jev/japanese-encephalitis-virus-jev>. The virus was identified as of the G4 genotype, the least common genotype worldwide. Until 2017 G4 was found only in Indonesia and Papua New Guinea. The method of international spread was not proven but introduction by migratory birds or mosquitoes was suggested (Pham et al., 2022).

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

There have been no documented cases of JE in Europe <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/japanese-encephalitis/facts> or the Americas <https://www.cdc.gov/japanesencephalitis/maps/index.html> (Mulvey and Duong, 2021).

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

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**Scientific rationale:**

Currently available methods for JEV diagnosis including serology, nucleic acid amplification testing, virus isolation, sequencing and metagenomics (Pham et al., 2022). A highly sensitive JEV specific RT-qPCR assay has been developed (Bharucha et al., 2018). Serology tests cross reactivity with other flaviviruses but the plaque reduction neutralisation test is considered specific. Reliable means of diagnosis are described in the Terrestrial Manual [https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/eng/Health\\_standards/tahm/3.01.10\\_JEV.pdf](https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/eng/Health_standards/tahm/3.01.10_JEV.pdf). There is no precise case definition in the WOAH Terrestrial Code.

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Natural transmission to humans is through the bite of infected Culex species mosquitoes (Solomon, 2006). JE is considered the most important viral encephalitis of humans particularly in children up to 14 years of age in South Eastern Asia and the Western Pacific (Erlanger et al., 2009), <https://www.cdc.gov/japaneseencephalitis/transmission/index.html>. The disease is most prevalent where there are rice fields (breeding sites for mosquitoes), and pigs (natural virus reservoirs) (Erlanger et al., 2009, van den Hurk et al., 2009). There are over 67 thousand new cases each year with 20-30% fatalities (Erlanger et al., 2009, Pierson and Diamond, 2020). Over 30% of survivors suffer neurological deficits (Erlanger et al., 2009, Solomon et al., 2000).

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

In horses symptoms include fever, profuse sweating, muscle tremors, hyperexcitability, loss of vision and coma (Kumar et al., 2018). Mortality rates can reach 30%. Vaccination against JEV is mandatory for designated horse populations in Hong Kong (China), Malaysia, Japan, and Singapore. In pigs the virus primarily affects reproductive performance. Sows may abort or give birth to mummified and stillborn or weak piglets, some with neurological signs (Mansfield et al., 2017).

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

There is no evidence that the disease represents a threat to the viability of a wildlife population although wild mammals, reptiles and amphibians may be sub-clinically infected and feral pigs serve as a reservoir (Impoinvil et al., 2013, Mackenzie et al., 2022).

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2*?

Yes  No

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### **Summary Conclusion:**

JE satisfies the WOAH criteria for listing but unlike pigs which are reservoir hosts, horses do not amplify the virus efficiently and are considered 'dead-end' hosts. Thus, the international movement or trade of horses should not be restricted due to JE.

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### **Assessment for Japanese Encephalitis: Alf Fussel**

The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

### **Scientific rationale:**

Both humans and horses are thought to be dead-end hosts.

### **References:**

1. DURAND B., LECOLLINET S., BECK C., MARTINEZ-LOPEZ B., BALENGHIEN T. & CHEVALIER V. 2013. Identification of hotspots in the European union for the introduction of four zoonotic arboviruses by live animal trade. *PLoS ONE*, 8, 16.
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AND

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2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

WOAH WAHIS 2015-2022: disease only present in South and South-east Asia.

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

[https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/fr/Health\\_standards/tahm/3.06.05\\_EEE\\_WEE\\_VEE.pdf](https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/fr/Health_standards/tahm/3.06.05_EEE_WEE_VEE.pdf)  
<https://sitesv2.anses.fr/en/minisite/equine-diseases/sop>

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

<https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/japanese-encephalitis>  
<https://www.cdc.gov/japanesencephalitis/index.html>  
<https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/japanese-encephalitis/facts>

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

**References:**

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OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

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**Scientific rationale:**

Reports about JE do not indicate any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code* [Chapter 1.2.](#)?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

Infection with the Japanese Encephalitis Virus meets the listing requirements set out in Chapter 1.2. of the *Terrestrial Code*.

This conclusion concourse with the outcome of the respective EFSA report (doi: 10.2903/j.efsa.2017.4948) and the conclusion of the European Union as set out in Annex II to Regulation (EU) 2016/429. (OJ L 84, 31.3.2016, p. 1.).

However, any possible measures to prevent the spread of the virus through international trade in certain captive birds and porcine animals should be set out in Section 8 "Multiple Species".

The requirements in Chapter 8.10. in respect of trade in equines should be removed, since equine animals are considered to be dead-end hosts due to the low level and short duration of viremia following the accidental infection from vector insects.

Since individual equine animals may be affected by the infection and because of the zoonotic nature of the infection, it is advised to maintain surveillance, not least to allow the vaccination of equines resident in, or intended to be moved to, endemic areas.

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## Annex 5. 9.2.1 Listing Assessment for Equine Encephalitides

### MEETING OF THE WOAH SCIENTIFIC COMMISSION FOR ANIMAL DISEASES

Paris, 11 to 15 September 2023

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#### SUMMARY OF THE EXPERT ASSESSMENT OF EASTERN EQUINE ENCEPHALOMYELITIS AGAINST THE LISTING CRITERIA OF TERRESTRIAL CODE CHAPTER 1.2.

Three experts participated in this consultation:

- **Peter Timoney** (IHSC Consultant, Gluck Equine Research Center, USA)
- **Ann Cullinane** (Irish Equine Center, Ireland)
- **Alf Fussel** (IHSC Consultant, retired from European Commission, Belgium)

Criterion	1	2	3
<b>Criterion 1:</b> International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 2:</b> At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 3:</b> Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist, and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4a:</b> Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4b:</b> The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.	YES	YES	NO
<b>Criterion 4c:</b> The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.	YES	NO	NO
<b>CONCLUSION:</b> Does infection with Japanese encephalitis virus match the listing criteria that are described in the Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2?	YES	YES	YES

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### **Assessment for Eastern Equine Encephalomyelitis: Peter Timoney**

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The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

**Yes**  **No**

**Scientific rationale:**

Eastern equine encephalitis (EEE), which was first clinically characterized and etiologically determined to be caused by a virus in the early 1930s, has a geographic range extending from Argentina in South America through countries in Central America, the Caribbean, Mexico, the USA and Canada (Hanson, 1973; CDC retrieved 30 April 2017). Historically, no proven instances have been reported of the international spread of the disease outside of the Western Hemisphere. It has been postulated that because of its complex biological cycle, it is unlikely that EEE could become established in other parts of the world (Hanson, 1973). Aside from the effectiveness of commodity-based preventive measures implemented under the mandate of Veterinary Authorities, a critical factor in greatly reducing the risk of transboundary spread of EEE, is that infected equids are considered “dead-end hosts” of the virus. They do not develop viremias of sufficient magnitude or duration to transmit the virus to mosquito species capable of spreading the disease (Spickler, 2017). An alternative and less significant pathway to the movement of live equids, with potential to spread EEE between countries in the Western Hemisphere, is via migratory birds infected with the virus (Calisher, et al. 1971; Hanson, 1973). The extent to which this occurs in nature is difficult to determine and likely outside the realm of what could be considered logically feasible by the appropriate Veterinary Authorities.

A final point that warrants consideration with respect to spread of EEE concerns the role that wind-blown carriage of infected vectors, viz. mosquitoes might play in dissemination of the virus over variable distances (Calisher et al., 1971). This could be over land or water within states, from state to state, and even from country to adjacent country in the Western Hemisphere, depending on prevailing weather conditions. While this undoubtedly can occur, it is outside the realm of possibility regarding the transport of virus over very large expanses of water that separate the Americas from the nearest European or Asian countries.

In summary, since there has been no historical precedent confirming global spread of EEE, it is the opinion of the author that there is minimal risk of the likelihood of it occurring in the foreseeable future. Based on available scientific knowledge and history of EEE, international spread of the causal virus via live animals, their products, vectors or fomites has not been proven and accordingly, EEE does not therefore meet Criterion 1 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

**Yes**  **No**

**Scientific rationale:**

The author is unaware of any country that has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from EEE, the disease or the infection, in a population of susceptible equids, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4, in the *Terrestrial Code*. While cases of EEE in equids and certain species of birds are reportable to the Veterinary Authorities in some countries, for example North America (USA and Canada), there are no known official programs in place in other countries to control or prevent spread of the causal virus (Spickler, 2017). Although not mandated, veterinarians, equine owners, breeders and other stakeholders in the USA and Canada are strongly encouraged to report details of any case of EEE to the Equine Disease Communication Center at the national headquarters of the American Association of Equine Practitioners (AAEP), Lexington, Kentucky, USA ([www.AAEP.org](http://www.AAEP.org)). EEE is one of a short list of “core diseases” that the AAEP considers are a priority for veterinarians, horse owners and equine stakeholders to vaccinate their horses or other equids with on a regular basis in accordance with vaccine manufacturer’s guidelines (AAEP, 2022). Voluntary-based supportive control measures against EEE include mosquito abatement, housing of horses in screened barns from dusk to dawn, and use of mosquito repellents.

On the matter of demonstrated freedom or impending freedom of a country from EEE, the author is unaware of any country zone or compartment in the Western Hemisphere with a history of disease endemicity where the Veterinary Authorities can claim to have achieved disease/infection freedom from EEE virus. Furthermore, the author has been unable to identify any country zone or compartment that purports to have a control program in place and is at a point of impending freedom from the disease/infection in accordance with established surveillance principles outlined in Chapter 1.4 of the *Terrestrial Code*.

In summary, based on available scientific knowledge and history of EEE, the latter does not meet Criteria 2 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* with regard to demonstrated freedom of at least one country from the disease or infection or providing evidence of impending freedom from the disease/infection.

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AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Neurologic syndromes in equids can be symptomatic of a variety of diseases, some infectious, and others non-infectious. The clinical picture caused by a range of arboviruses is symptomatically similar and cannot be defined as caused by any one particular virus on clinical grounds alone. Determination of which specific etiological agent is responsible can only be arrived at following testing of appropriate clinical/postmortem specimens by a laboratory that has the capability, expertise and experience in conducting the tests needed to provide a diagnosis.

A range of agent detection and identification tests as well as antibody determination tests are available for the diagnosis of EEE infection (WOAH, 2022). These provide the ability to differentially distinguish cases of EEE from other neurological diseases both arboviral and non-arboviral. EEE can be isolated from the brains of horses that exhibited antemortem clinical signs of neurological disease, in certain cell culture systems, newborn mice, or less successfully, in chick embryos. Rapid detection and identification of the virus is most frequently accomplished using molecular, nucleic acid based assays (polymerase chain reaction) and less often by immunological techniques (Monroy et al., 1996; Patterson et al., 1996). A range of serological tests (complement fixation, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays [ELISA], hemagglutination-inhibition and plaque reduction neutralization) can be used in investigating suspect clinical cases of EEE infection. The IgM capture ELISA test is widely used for this purpose and the most popular differential diagnostic assay to confirm a case of EEE virus infection (Sahu et al., 1994).

In summary, EEE meets Criterion 3 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* insofar as reliable means of detection and identification are available that allow diagnosis of the disease and its differentiation from other diseases or infections.

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Ever since its discovery in the late 1930s, natural transmission of EEE to humans has been proven year-in year-out in those countries in the Western Hemisphere in which the disease is endemic (Calisher, 1994; Morens et al., 2019). Whereas EEE tends to occur as isolated cases in humans, clusters of cases have infrequently been recorded in areas in which there are high levels of virus in circulation in the mosquito population. Infection with EEE virus can be potentially life-threatening. Two forms of the disease have been described: systemic and encephalitic. Whereas the systemic form is generally the less severe of the two, giving rise to influenza-type symptoms in affected individuals, the encephalic form is very frequently fatal. The mortality rate in human cases of EEE can be as high as 75% or even greater (Calisher, 1994). Those that survive suffer from significant neurologic sequelae that are usually long-term.

In summary, EEE meets Criterion 4a for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* in terms of a proven cause of human disease of major clinical significance.

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Analogous to the consequences of infection in humans, EEE virus has a proven history of significantly impacting the health of horses and other equids in countries or zones in which the virus is endemic (Hanson, 1973). Clinical disease has also been reported infrequently in other domestic species inclusive of swine, cattle, sheep, camelids and dogs (Spickler, 2017). Historically and to the present day, EEE takes the greatest toll on susceptible horse populations. Even in countries such as the USA and Canada, in which vaccines are available to protect against this disease, illness and death in horses continues to be reported every year. The incidence of the disease can vary from year to year depending on the seasonally

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prevailing climatic conditions. The vast majority of cases are fatal and are in unvaccinated individuals or those with incomplete vaccination histories. Apart from the economic losses involved, this is especially regrettable since EEE vaccines are included among the “core vaccines” that the AAEP very strongly recommends that horses need to be vaccinated with on a regular basis (AAEP, 2022).

In summary, EEE fully satisfies Criterion 4b concerning impact on the health of domestic species as defined for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Aside from its importance as a human pathogen and a cause of illness and death in a number of domestic animal species, EEE can also impact a not insignificant number of species of wildlife (Spickler, 2017). Clinical disease associated with infection with the virus has been recorded in deer, a harbor seal, certain non-human primates, Chukar partridges, pheasants, turkeys, ratites (emus and ostriches), pigeons, egrets, ibises, whooping cranes and African penguins. Direct economic loss has on occasion been documented in some species such as pheasants, partridges and ratites based on the mortality rates in affected flocks of birds. The author does not consider that the frequency and extent of the outbreaks of EEE that have been recorded in certain wildlife species have been sufficiently impactful to have posed a threat to the viability of the population(s) concerned.

In summary, EEE can be considered to meet Criterion 4c of impacting susceptible wildlife populations as defined for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code* [Chapter 1.2.](#)?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

In summary, since there has been no historical precedent confirming global spread of EEE, it is the opinion of the author that there is minimal risk of the likelihood of it occurring in the foreseeable future. Based on available scientific knowledge and history of EEE, international spread of the causal virus via live animals, their products, vectors or fomites has not been proven and accordingly, EEE does not therefore meet Criterion 1 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

Based on available scientific knowledge and history of EEE, the latter does not meet Criteria 2 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* with regard to demonstrated freedom of at least one country from the disease or infection or providing evidence of impending freedom from the disease/infection.

EEE meets Criterion 3 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* insofar as reliable means of detection and identification are available that allow diagnosis of the disease and its differentiation from other diseases or infections.

EEE meets Criterion 4a for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* in terms of a proven cause of human disease of major clinical significance.

EEE fully satisfies Criterion 4b concerning impact on the health of domestic species as defined for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

EEE can be considered to meet Criterion 4c of impacting susceptible wildlife populations as defined for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

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### Assessment for Eastern Equine Encephalomyelitis: Ann Cullinane

The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

#### Scientific rationale:

Eastern equine encephalomyelitis virus (EEEV) has been identified in at least 35 species of mosquitoes and over 200 species of birds, various domestic animals, wild mammals, reptiles, and amphibians. Eastern equine encephalomyelitis (EEE) is endemic in parts of North and South America and the Caribbean. With climate change it is considered an emerging disease. In the USA there was increased incidence in 2019 and over the past decade the virus has spread to areas where its circulation was previously unknown or rare (Lindsey et al., 2020), <https://www.cdc.gov/easternequineencephalitis/index.html>.

Re international spread there is some circumstantial evidence to support that outbreaks in Canada were the result of spread from the USA but the method of spread (infected birds or mosquitoes) was not proven (Chénier et al., 2010). Similarly genetic studies suggest that the temporary introduction of North American strains of EEEV were responsible for outbreaks in Jamaica and the Dominican Republic (Weaver et al., 2012). It is believed that as a vector borne disease, EEE is likely to expand in range due to global warming and emerge more broadly in human and animal populations but there is a knowledge gap relating to the dynamics of EEEV spread (Corrin et al., 2021).

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AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

To-date EEEV transmission is limited to North and South America and the Caribbean. Other areas such as Europe are historically free.

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations. Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist as documented in the WOAH Manual. Virus detection methods include virus isolation on a variety of vertebrate cells and RT-PCR. Serological confirmation is based on the detection of IgM during the acute phase, or the seroconversion between acute and convalescent phases (Weaver et al., 2012). However, vaccination history must be taken into account when interpreting results of any serological tests.

There is no precise case definition in the WOAH *Terrestrial Code* (Chapter 12.4). The WOAH Manual states that the definitive method for diagnosis of EEE is virus isolation followed by typing. EEEV can usually be isolated from the brains of horses, unless more than five days have elapsed between the appearance of clinical signs and the death of the horse. Specific and highly sensitive RT-PCR assays have been developed. The plaque reduction neutralisation test is also very specific and can be used to differentiate between EEE, WEE and VEE virus infections.

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

EEEV is classified as a Category B agent by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta (<https://emergency.cdc.gov/agent/agentlist-category.asp>). EEE has a fatality rate 33% to 50% in humans and recovered individuals frequently suffer neurological deficits often necessitating institutionalised care (Weaver et al., 2012, Corrin et al., 2021). Natural transmission to humans occurs by mosquito bite and human risk has been shown to correlate with equine infection rates as equine cases often precede human cases (Tang et al., 2021).

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

EEE is an important cause of disease in equids with fatality rates of up to 75% (Mackay, 2009). High mortality rates also occur in swine (Elvinger et al., 1994). Many domesticated birds develop clinical disease including pheasants, partridges, emus, chickens and quail (Corrin et al., 2021). Viscerotropic disease after EEEV infection is associated with decreased egg production (Williams et al., 2000). Fatalities are common in turkeys (Ficken et al., 1993), pheasants (Weinack et al., 1978), ostriches (Brown et al., 1993) and emus (Tully et al., 1992). Camelids and swine are also susceptible (Corrin et al., 2021).

OR

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4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

High attack and mortality rates occur in cranes (Dein et al., 1986). Clinical signs have been described in white tailed deer and in camelids (Corrin et al., 2021). During the 2019 Eastern equine encephalitis virus (EEEV) outbreak in the USA two 2-month old Mexican wolf pups experienced neurologic signs and sudden death in a zoo in Michigan (Thompson et al., 2021).

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code* [Chapter 1.2](#)?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

EEE is an important neurotropic disease that satisfies the criteria for listing and notification, but care needs to be exercised that international movement of “dead-end hosts” such as horses that do not normally develop viremia sufficient to enable transmission by mosquitoes, is not unnecessarily restricted.

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#### **Assessment for Eastern Equine Encephalomyelitis: Alf Fussel**

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The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Transport of the EEEV by migratory birds from North to South America.

**References:**

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LORD R.D. & CALISHER C.H. Further evidence of southward transport of arboviruses by migratory birds. *Amer. J. Epidemiol.*, 1970, 92: 73–78. (Arbovirology Unit, NCDC, Atlanta, Ga. 30333).

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

WOAH WAHIS 2015-2022: disease not present in Eastern Hemisphere

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

WOAH Terrestrial Manual 2021

[https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/fr/Health\\_standards/tahm/3.06.05\\_EEE\\_WEE\\_VEE.pdf](https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/fr/Health_standards/tahm/3.06.05_EEE_WEE_VEE.pdf)  
<https://sitesv2.anses.fr/en/minisite/equine-diseases/sop>

AND

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4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

<https://www.cdc.gov/easternequineencephalitis/index.html>

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

A/APHIS reports 111 equine cases in 2022 (equine population about 7 mi) references:  
[https://www.aphis.usda.gov/animal\\_health/downloads/animal\\_diseases/2022-eee-report-monthly.pdf](https://www.aphis.usda.gov/animal_health/downloads/animal_diseases/2022-eee-report-monthly.pdf)  
<https://horsesonly.com/horseindustry/#:~:text=3.,million%20horses%20in%20the%20U.S.&text=This%20is%20because%20there%20are,organization%20counts%20the%20numbers%20differently.>

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Reports about EEE in Pheasants and Emus do not indicate any threat to the viability of a susceptible wildlife population.

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2.*?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

Infection with the Eastern Equine Encephalomyelitis Virus meets the listing requirements set out in Chapter 1.2. of the *Terrestrial Code*.

This conclusion concourse with the outcome of the respective EFSA report (doi: 10.2903/j.efsa.2017.4946) and the conclusion of the European Union as set out in Annex II to Regulation (EU) 2016/429 (OJ L 84, 31.3.2016, p. 1.)

Any possible measures to prevent the spread of the virus through international trade in certain captive birds, reptiles or rodents should be set out in Section 8 "Multiple Species".

The requirements in Chapter 12.4. should be removed, since equine animals are considered to be dead-end hosts due to the low level and short duration of viremia following the accidental infection from vector insects.

Because of the zoonotic nature of the infection and since individual equine animals may be affected by the infection, it is advised to maintain surveillance, not least to allow the vaccination of equines resident in, or intended to be moved to, endemic areas.

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## Annex 6. 9.2.1. Listing Assessment for Equine Encephalitides

### MEETING OF THE WOAH SCIENTIFIC COMMISSION FOR ANIMAL DISEASES

Paris, 11 to 15 September 2023

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#### SUMMARY OF THE EXPERT ASSESSMENT OF WESTERN EQUINE ENCEPHALITIS AGAINST THE LISTING CRITERIA OF *TERRESTRIAL CODE CHAPTER 1.2.*

Three experts participated in this consultation:

- **Peter Timoney** (IHSC Consultant, Gluck Equine Research Center, USA)
- **Ann Cullinane** (Irish Equine Center, Ireland)
- **Alf Fussel** (IHSC Consultant, retired from European Commission, Belgium)

Criterion	1	2	3
<b>Criterion 1:</b> International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.	NO	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 2:</b> At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.	NO	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 3:</b> Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist, and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4a:</b> Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4b:</b> The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.	YES	YES	NO
<b>Criterion 4c:</b> The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.	NO	YES	NO
<b>CONCLUSION:</b> Does infection with Western equine encephalitis virus match the listing criteria that are described in the Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2?	NO	YES	YES

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### **Assessment for Western Equine Encephalomyelitis: Peter Timoney**

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The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

**Yes**  **No**

**Scientific rationale:**

In the early 1930s, Western equine encephalitis (WEE) was identified as one of the two arboviral diseases responsible for extensive outbreaks of equine encephalitis in the USA at the time, the other being EEE (Meyer et al., 1931; Meyer, 1933; TenBroeck and Merrill, 1933). WEE virus is the most important member of a complex of closely related disease agents that can be found from Argentina to North America in the Western Hemisphere. In North America, WEE has occurred primarily in U.S. states and Canadian provinces west of the Mississippi River. Similar to EEE, there have been no proven instances where cases/outbreaks of WEE have taken place outside the USA and Canada nor elsewhere in the Western Hemisphere as documented in the scientific literature (Byrne and Robbins, 1961; Hanson, 1973; Calisher, 1994). Akin to its ancestral relative EEE, horses and other equids infected with WEE virus do not develop viremias of sufficient magnitude and duration to transmit the agent to mosquito species potentially capable of spreading the disease. As such, they are deemed to be “dead-end hosts” in terms of virus transmission. They are not considered to play an active role in the maintenance of WEE in nature nor in global spread of the virus. Although incidents of WEE were relatively common in the USA and Canada for many years, the frequency of such events has declined significantly in more recent decades (Spickler, 2017). While an explanation for this change in virus behavior has not yet been determined, it does not appear to have resulted from a reduction in viral virulence.

Analogous to EEE, there is a plausible alternative pathway with the potential to spread WEE between countries in the Americas, that involves migratory birds infected with the virus (Calisher et al., 1971; Hanson, 1973). How significant this pathway may be in the case of WEE is a matter for speculation. Aside from the current commodity-based measures mandated by Veterinary Authorities to prevent the global spread of WEE, it is highly improbable that measures can be formulated that could curtail/eliminate the risk of virus spread through migratory birds.

In summary, there has not been any historical precedent that attests to the international spread of WEE from the Western Hemisphere. Accordingly, the disease cannot be considered to meet Criterion 1 regarding its international spread as required for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

**Yes**  **No**

**Scientific rationale:**

Very few countries in the Western Hemisphere have an official program in place to control or prevent the spread of WEE virus. The USA and Canada are two countries in which cases of the disease in equids are reportable to the Veterinary Authorities. Veterinarians, equine owners, breeders and other stakeholders are strongly encouraged to report details of any case of WEE to the Equine Disease Communication Center at the national headquarters of the American Association of Equine Practitioners (AAEP), Lexington, Kentucky, USA ([www.aaep.org](http://www.aaep.org)). WEE is one of the short list of “core diseases” that the AAEP considers are a priority for veterinarians, horse owners and equine stakeholders to vaccinate their horses or other equids with on a regular basis in accordance with vaccine manufacturer’s guidelines (AAEP, 2022). Voluntary based supportive control measures against WEE include mosquito abatement, housing of horses in screened barns from dusk to dawn, and use of mosquito repellents. On the matter of demonstrated freedom or impending freedom of a country from WEE, the author is unaware of any country, zone or compartment in the Western Hemisphere having a history of disease endemicity, where the Veterinary Authorities can claim country freedom from the disease or the infection.

As already noted, certain countries have reported a progressive decline in the number of reported clinical cases of WEE in equids and humans in recent decades (Spickler, 2017). This is supported by data from human studies that have shown the seropositivity rate in healthy humans has also decreased from 34% in 1960 to less than 3% in the 1990s. Because of the range of variables that can influence the circulation of WEE virus in nature, it is questionable if this trend will continue in the future. Were it to do so however, it might convince a country to declare that its WEE status had reached the point of impending freedom from the disease.

In summary, based on available scientific knowledge and history of WEE, the disease does not currently meet Criterion 2 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* in terms of demonstration of freedom of at least one country from the disease or infection, or of providing evidence of impending freedom from WEE or infection with the virus.

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AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

WEE is analogous to EEE in that there is no means of differentiating each disease from one other on clinical grounds alone. This also applies to a range of other neurological diseases with special reference to those caused by different arboviruses. Confirmation of the etiology of a case of neurological disease can only be determined by resorting to laboratory testing of appropriate clinical/postmortem specimens by a laboratory with the capability, expertise and experience in carrying out the tests needed to confirm a diagnosis of a disease.

Diagnosis of a case of WEE or virus infection is based on agent detection and identification or antibody determination depending on whether the test subject is dead or alive (WOAH, 2022). Currently available tests for this purpose are both highly sensitive and specific and those in greatest demand, timely in providing a test result. Unlike cases of EEE, WEE virus is rarely isolated from the brain or other tissues of infected horses (Spickler, 2017). WEE virus can be isolated in certain cell culture systems, newborn mice, and less successfully, in chick embryos. Rapid detection and identification of the virus is most frequently accomplished using molecular or nucleic acid based assays (polymerase chain reaction) and less often by immunological techniques (Lambert et al., 2003). Antibody determination is indicated when dealing with suspect cases of WEE infection with or without clinical signs. A range of serological tests (complement fixation, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays [ELISA], hemagglutination-inhibition, and plaque reduction neutralization) are available diagnostic tests for confirming WEE infection. The IgM capture ELISA is widely used for this purpose and enables differentiation of cases of WEE from EEE infection.

In summary, a wide range of laboratory tests are available for the detection and identification of cases of WEE infection based either on agent detection or antibody determination. These enable confirmation of a diagnosis of the disease and its differentiation from cases of neurologic disease caused by other viral or microbial agents. As such, WEE meets Criterion 3 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* with respect to the availability of laboratory tests capable of confirming a diagnosis of the disease.

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

WEE, like its arboviral counterpart EEE, was recognized as a human pathogen in the early 1930s when the disease was associated with epidemics in birds and horses (Meyer et al., 1931; Calisher, 1994). Unlike EEE, cases or outbreaks of WEE in humans or equids do not occur with regularity every year, even in regions or countries in which the disease is endemic. Reports of WEE in humans have been limited and sporadic. The virus has been associated with isolated cases, and very infrequently large numbers of cases in at-risk susceptible human populations in areas where there are high levels of WEE virus in circulation in the mosquito population. In contrast to EEE, the clinical response to WEE virus infection is generally less severe in most age groups. An exception is infants and young children who are more likely to develop neurologic disease. The latter is uncommon in healthy humans who very often experience a subclinical infection or a flu-like illness. Mortality in human cases of WEE is low, approximately 3-4%, and most frequently associated with disease in the elderly. Children that survive the disease are likely to experience serious sequelae that may be lifelong.

In summary, WEE meets Criterion 4a for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* in being a proven cause of human disease that can be of major clinical significance.

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

#### **Scientific rationale:**

Since the late 1920s, WEE was a life-threatening disease responsible for widespread losses in susceptible populations of horses and other equid species in San Joaquin Valley in Southern California (Meyer et al., 1931). In the years that followed its discovery and before the development and availability of vaccines to protect against the disease, WEE exacted a significant toll on the horse populations along the coastal states in the USA and the prairie provinces of Saskatchewan, Alberta and Manitoba in Canada (Hanson, 1973). Epizootics of WEE have been recorded in Mexico, Central and South America, especially Argentina. Aside from equids, WEE causes disease in certain domesticated species of birds including emus, turkeys, pheasants and Chukar partridges (Spickler, 2017). Historically WEE has had the most significant impact on susceptible horse populations causing mortality rates of 15-20%. (Minnesota Department of Health, 2018). Incidents of the disease can vary significantly over time with zero confirmed cases reported in some years. Most of the deaths attributable to WEE are in unvaccinated individuals or those with incomplete vaccination histories. WEE vaccines are included in the group of “core vaccines” that the AAEP very strongly recommends that horses need to be vaccinated with on a regular basis (AAEP, 2022).

In summary, WEE satisfies Criterion 4b regarding its impact on the health of domestic species, in particular equids for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

#### **Scientific rationale:**

WEE is principally a pathogen of humans and equids with very little impact on the health of wildlife. The virus can cause disease of variable clinical severity in emus and turkeys, that in the former species can result in hemorrhagic enteritis, neurologic disease and death. Drop in egg production is the sole outcome of infection in turkeys (Spickler, 2017). Based on the very limited host range of wildlife species affected by WEE virus, there is little indication that the disease agent has a significant impact on the health of wildlife, nor that it poses a threat to the viability of any wildlife population.

In the opinion of the author and with reference to Criterion 4c, there are insufficient grounds for supporting the listing of WEE in the *Terrestrial Code*.

#### **Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code* [Chapter 1.2](#)?

Yes  No

#### **Summary Conclusion:**

In summary, there has not been any historical precedent that attests to the international spread of WEE from the Western Hemisphere. Accordingly, the disease cannot be considered to meet Criterion 1 regarding its international spread as required for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

Based on available scientific knowledge and history of WEE, the disease does not currently meet Criterion 2 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* in terms of demonstration of freedom of at least one country from the disease or infection, or of providing evidence of impending freedom from WEE or infection with the virus.

A wide range of laboratory tests are available for the detection and identification of cases of WEE infection based either on agent detection or antibody determination. These enable confirmation of a diagnosis of the disease and its differentiation from cases of neurologic disease caused by other viral or microbial agents. As such, WEE meets Criterion 3 for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* with respect to the availability of laboratory tests capable of confirming a diagnosis of the disease.

WEE meets Criterion 4a for listing in the *Terrestrial Code* in being a proven cause of human disease that can be of major clinical significance.

WEE satisfies Criterion 4b regarding its impact on the health of domestic species, in particular equids for listing in the *Terrestrial Code*.

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In the opinion of the author and with reference to Criterion 4c, there are insufficient grounds for supporting the listing of WEE in the *Terrestrial Code*.

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**Assessment for Western Equine Encephalomyelitis: Ann Cullinane**

The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Western Equine Encephalitis (WEE) was historically detected primarily in the western USA with extension to Canada, Mexico and South America (Aréchiga-Ceballos and Aguilar-Setién, 2015; Kumar et al., 2018; Morris, 1989; Reisen & Monath, 1989; Walton, 1981). WEE virus is maintained between passerine birds and its primary mosquito vector *Culex tarsalis*. The mode of introduction of virus into new areas is unproven but international spread may potentially occur by infected vectors or reservoir species. Horses are considered dead end hosts and do not play a role in virus circulation.

Note that in recent years there has been a dramatic decline in WEE virus enzootic circulation and spillover into humans and horses. Since 2005 there have been no cases reported in the USA although positive mosquito pools have been identified (Robb et al., 2019). A fatal human case was reported in Uruguay in 2011 (Delfraro et al., 2011). This was an

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isolated case but the report stated that the etiology of many viral encephalitides in Uruguay remains unknown. This is also true of many other countries in the region.

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

To-date WEEV transmission is limited to the Americas. Other areas such as Europe are historically free (Durand et al., 2013).

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Reliable means of detection and diagnosis of WEE exist as documented in the WOAH Manual. Virus isolation and RT-PCR are recommended for confirmation of clinical cases. Virus isolates can be identified by specific RT-PCR or neutralisation tests.

There is no precise case definition in the WOAH *Terrestrial Code* (Chapter 12.4).

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

WEEV is classified as a Category B agent by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta (<https://emergency.cdc.gov/agent/agentlist-category.asp>). Humans are infected by mosquito vectors and the majority of cases are asymptomatic or similar to influenza. The very young and the aged are most susceptible to encephalitis and approximately 5-15% of encephalitis cases are fatal. Approximately 50% of surviving infants suffer permanent brain damage (Weaver et al., 1997). Fatalities have been recorded in laboratory workers.

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Horses are more susceptible to WEE than people with a mortality rate of 20-50% in clinical cases. Clinical signs include fever, inappetence and lethargy, followed by excitability and then drowsiness, paresis, seizures and coma (CFSPPH, 2015). WEE has also been reported to cause fatal disease in ratites (Tengelsen et al., 2001).

The largest epidemic was recorded in 1938 in USA and Canada when an estimated 264,000 equids were infected with a morbidity of 21.4% (Cameron, 1942).

OR

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4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Spillover into wild mammals has been recorded and a secondary transmission cycle involves Aedes malanimon and the Black-tailed Jackrabbit (Hardy et al., 1977). Several amphibian and reptile species are suspected overwintering hosts (Thomas and Eklund, 1962) and it is likely that additional hosts remain unidentified.

There is a lack of evidence that WEE represents a threat to a wildlife population.

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code* [Chapter 1.2.](#)?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

WEE satisfies the criteria for WOAH listing but the evidence from surveillance in North America suggests that the virus may have ceased circulating enzootically. The reason for this decline is unknown. WEE remains a notifiable disease in many parts of the world as it has the potential to re-emerge either naturally or as a result of bioterrorism. Thus on balance, WEE should be included in the WOAH list as a significant zoonotic neurotropic pathogen with the historical potential to cause disease outbreaks in horses and possibly birds. However, at present such listing should have minimal impact on animal trade policy.

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#### **Assessment for Western Equine Encephalomyelitis: Alf Fussel**

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The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

- 1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

**References:**

1. DURAND B., LECOLLINET S., BECK C., MARTINEZ-LOPEZ B., BALENGHIEN T. & CHEVALIER V. 2013. Identification of hotspots in the European union for the introduction of four zoonotic arboviroses by live animal trade. *PLoS ONE*, 8, 16.
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AND

- 2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

The WEE virus is found in the western United States, western Canada, and as far south as Argentina.

WOAH WAHIS 2015-2022: disease not present in Eastern Hemisphere

AND

- 3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

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**Scientific rationale:**

There are reliable means of detection and diagnosis:

[https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/fr/Health\\_standards/tahm/3.06.05\\_EEE\\_WEE\\_VEE.pdf](https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/fr/Health_standards/tahm/3.06.05_EEE_WEE_VEE.pdf)  
<https://sitesv2.anses.fr/en/minisite/equine-diseases/sop>

However, the case definition used in USA does not allow a clear differential diagnosis from EEE, unless laboratory investigations identify the WEEV.

[https://www.aphis.usda.gov/vs/nahss/equine/ee/case\\_definition\\_western\\_equine\\_encephalitis\\_01\\_18\\_11.pdf](https://www.aphis.usda.gov/vs/nahss/equine/ee/case_definition_western_equine_encephalitis_01_18_11.pdf)

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

In the United States, the virus is transmitted by *Culex tarsalis* in an enzootic cycle with passerine birds. There have been 639 human cases of WEEV in the United States since 1964, but none since 1994. ([www.cdc.gov](http://www.cdc.gov))

"CDC has received reports of 37 western equine encephalitis (WEE) cases among humans and 132 cases among horses in the Plains and Rocky Mountain states thus far this year [i.e. in 1987]. This outbreak is the largest in the United States since 1977, when 41 cases among humans were reported. Active, hospital-based surveillance in Colorado has identified 29 cases, including one fatality. Passive surveillance has revealed three cases in Nebraska, two in Texas, two in North Dakota, and one in Montana. Colorado, Iowa, Nebraska, and North Dakota also reported sporadically occurring cases of St. Louis encephalitis (SLE), concurrently with the WEE epidemic. The diffuse character of the outbreak has made it difficult to assign a denominator to the human population at risk. However, the crude attack rate in Colorado, where there is evidence of statewide virus transmission, is 1.0/100,000."

<https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/00000983.htm>

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

There is an equine population of about 7 million animals in the US.

<https://horsesonly.com/horse-industry/#:~:text=3..million%20horses%20in%20the%20U.S.&text=This%20is%20because%20there%20are,organization%20counts%20the%20numbers%20differently>

USDA/APHIS reports 111 equine arboviral encephalomyelitis cases in 2022, predominantly EEE.

[https://www.aphis.usda.gov/animal\\_health/downloads/animal\\_diseases/2022-eee-report-monthly.pdf](https://www.aphis.usda.gov/animal_health/downloads/animal_diseases/2022-eee-report-monthly.pdf)

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

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**Scientific rationale:**

Reports about WEE do not indicate any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

WEE virus is maintained in an enzootic cycle involving passerine birds and *Culex tarsalis*, a mosquito particularly adapted to irrigated agricultural areas. The feeding pattern for *Culex tarsalis* changes from birds in spring and early summer to increasingly include mammals in late summer when mosquito populations peak, depending on climatic factors and irrigation practices.

Other secondary mosquito vectors include *Aedes melanimon* and *Ae. dorsalis*, which can facilitate a secondary cycle of infection among lagomorphs and, with *Culex tarsalis*, transmit virus to horses and humans.

Serosurveys have confirmed WEEV infection in various rodents, rabbits, bats, squirrels, ungulates, tortoises, and snakes, suggesting that non-avian species may be important reservoir hosts.

Emus are susceptible to WEEV infection, but with considerably lower mortality rates than those associated with EEEV infection.

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2.*?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

Infection with the Western Equine Encephalomyelitis Virus meets the listing requirements set out in Chapter 1.2. of the *Terrestrial Code*.

This conclusion would concur with the outcome of the respective EFSA report and the conclusion of the European Union as set out in Annex II to Regulation (EU) 2016/429. (doi: 10.2903/j.efsa.2017.4946)

However, any possible measures to prevent the spread of the virus through international trade in certain captive birds, reptiles or rodents should be set out in Section 8 "Multiple Species".

The requirements in Chapter 12.4. should be removed, since equine animals are considered to be dead-end hosts due to the generally low level and short duration of viremia following the accidental infection from vector insects.

Since individual equine animals may be affected by the infection and because of the zoonotic nature of the infection, it is advised to maintain surveillance, not least to allow the vaccination of equines resident in, or intended to be moved to, endemic areas.

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#### Annex 7. 9.2.1. Listing Assessment for Equine Encephalitides

#### MEETING OF THE WOAH SCIENTIFIC COMMISSION FOR ANIMAL DISEASES

Paris, 11 to 15 September 2023

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#### SUMMARY OF THE EXPERT ASSESSMENT OF VENEZUELAN EQUINE ENCEPHALOMYELITIS AGAINST THE LISTING CRITERIA OF TERRESTRIAL CODE CHAPTER 1.2.

Four experts participated in this consultation:

- **Peter Timoney** (IHSC Consultant, Gluck Equine Research Center, USA)
- **Ann Cullinane** (Irish Equine Center, Ireland)
- **Alf Fussel** (IHSC Consultant, retired from European Commission, Belgium)
- **Roberto Navarro Lopez** (US-Mexico Commission for the Prevention of FMD and other exotic animal diseases (SENASICA), Mexico)

Criterion	1	2	3	4
<b>Criterion 1:</b> International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.	YES	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 2:</b> At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.	YES	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 3:</b> Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist, and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.	YES	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4a:</b> Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.	YES	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4b:</b> The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.	YES	YES	YES	YES
<b>Criterion 4c:</b> The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.	NO	YES	NO	NO
<b>CONCLUSION:</b> Does infection with Venezuelan equine encephalitis virus match the listing criteria that are described in the Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2?	YES	YES	YES	YES

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### **Assessment for Venezuelan Equine Encephalomyelitis: Peter Timoney**

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The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

#### **Scientific rationale:**

Venezuelan equine encephalitis (VEE) first discovered in 1938, has a wide geographic distribution range throughout the Western Hemisphere with the exception of the USA and Canada (Kubes and Rios, 1939). Outbreaks of disease in humans and equids due to this virus have been reported in at least 12 countries extending from Argentina to numerous other countries in South and Central America, Trinidad, Mexico and the USA (Osorio and Yuill, 2017; Weaver et al, 2004).

Epidemics or epizootics of VEE occur periodically, not annually nor on a regular basis but rather following the emergence of one of the two subtypes 1AB or 1C that evolve from genetic modification of circulating enzootic subtype 1D strains, (Powers et al., 1997; Brault et al., 2002). To date, there has been one incursion of VEE into the USA. Late in 1969, epizootics of VEE spread northwards from El Salvador and Guatemala into most of Central America and Mexico (Forrester et al., 2017). The disease extended into 17 Mexican states before it crossed the border into southern Texas in 1971 (Zarate, 1978; Morilla-Gonzales, 1976). The virus spread along the Rio Grande and up the Gulf Coast between June and August of that year, infecting close to 2000 horses including 1426 associated deaths. Some 110 human cases were confirmed during the epidemic (Aguilar et al., 2011). Since its discovery in 1938, VEE has not been confirmed outside the Western Hemisphere.

VEE comprises a complex of viruses that include six antigenic subtypes, with antigenic variants in each subtype (Spickler, 2017). Each of these subtypes exhibits unique characteristics with respect to ecology, epidemiology and virulence for humans and equids (Aguilar et al., 2011). Two, 1AB and 1C, are designated epidemic or epizootic subtypes, historically identified with causing large scale outbreaks of disease in susceptible populations of horses and humans that may last for several years. Both subtypes are highly pathogenic and can spread quickly through equine populations. The remaining subtypes 1D to 1F and II to VI, are categorized as enzootic or endemic (Spickler, 2017). They generally circulate among rodents in forests and swampy habitats and are typically avirulent for equids but can cause disease and even death in humans similar to that seen in cases of infection with either of the epidemic/epizootic subtypes. In sharp contrast to both EEE and WEE viruses, equids infected with the 1AB or 1C subtypes of VEE virus develop high levels of viremia that can last up to seven days (Rico-Hesse, 2000; Walton et al., 1973). Equids are considered the key reservoir species and amplification hosts for both epidemic subtypes of the virus. Viremic horses can also shed VEE virus in body fluids and could be a potential source of infection for humans through direct contact or inhalation of aerosolized material (Johnson and Martin, 1974). Counter to typical behavior of endemic/enzootic subtypes of the virus, subtype 1E strains responsible for extensive outbreaks of disease in equids in Mexico in 1993 and 1996, were equine neurovirulent although not shown to develop high titered viremias (Gonzalez-Salazar et al., 2003). Under this circumstance, it is questionable whether equids infected with this particular variant of subtype 1E can act as efficient amplification hosts for virus transmission to appropriate mosquito vectors (Sahu et al., 2003).

To date, there has been only one historical precedent since original discovery of the virus of VEE occurring outside of the countries in South and Central America and Mexico in which the disease is endemic. This took place in the USA in 1971. In the opinion of the author, this unique event constituted a proven instance of the international or transboundary spread of VEE into a country that up to that point, enjoyed historical freedom from the disease. The mode of introduction of the virus is highly likely to have been via wind-borne carriage of infected vectors (mosquitoes) from the Gulf Coast of Mexico where VEE had been progressing northwards towards the border with the USA at an estimated rate of 4-5 miles/day (Zarate, 1978; Morilla-Gonzales, 1976). It is also possible that there might have been illegal movement of infected equids across the border into the USA that could also have been contributory sources of the virus. The incursion of VEE into the USA for the first and only time in 1971, is proof of the international spread of this disease. As such, it meets Criterion 1 for listing in the Terrestrial Code.

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

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**Scientific rationale:**

The Veterinary Authorities in the USA and Canada have always designated VEE a highly important transboundary disease insofar as its major significance as a human and equine pathogen. Were it to be introduced into either country, the economic consequences would be disastrous for the respective equine industries in terms of losses of animals that succumb from the disease and disruption of international trade. It is mandated in both countries that any suspect case of VEE must be reported immediately to federal and state authorities and an investigation undertaken to confirm/refute a diagnosis of the disease. The Veterinary Authorities, members of the veterinary profession, and equine industry stakeholders in the USA were alerted to the very real risk of the introduction of VEE into the country in the months leading up to the event in 1971. At the time, the disease was continuing to spread northwards from El Salvador and Guatemala through Mexico, and sooner rather than later, measures needed to be taken to prevent and control spread of the virus were it to be introduced into the country.

Those fears were realized when the first case of VEE was confirmed in a horse in Texas in late June 1971. A three-pronged approach was taken to minimize the extent of the epidemic or epizootic. This included: 1) enforced restriction of movement of equids out of the affected state; 2) mandated vaccination of at-risk equids with the modified live TC-83 vaccine against VEE; and 3) implementation of aerial and ground vector control measures to reduce mosquito populations in the region. In total, over 8 million doses of vaccine were administered to equids during the epizootic. Vaccination was used to establish a "cordon sanitaire" around the area affected with the disease. These collective efforts were successful in confining the epizootic and in restoring the USA's disease free status for VEE.

In the opinion of the author, the USA successfully eliminated VEE following its incursion into southern Texas in 1971 and has since demonstrated continued freedom from the disease, thereby meeting the second criterion for listing in the Terrestrial Code.

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

VEE virus can cause a spectrum of clinical signs ranging from a mild flu-like illness to severe and not infrequently neurologic disease. It can be symptomatic of a variety of diseases, some infectious, others non-infectious. Differentiation of neurologic disease caused by VEE virus as opposed to other arboviral infections is not possible on clinical grounds alone. Confirmation of a provisional clinical diagnosis of VEE must be based on laboratory detection and identification of the virus or by demonstration of antibody conversion in serum or cerebrospinal fluid. Testing of appropriate clinical or post-mortem specimens from a suspect case of VEE virus infection requires a laboratory with the capability, expertise and experience in conducting the tests needed to furnish a diagnosis.

Epidemic strains of VEE can be isolated from blood in the early febrile phase of the disease but seldom once the affected individual has developed neurologic disease, at which point viremia has ceased (Spickler, 2017). Frequently, VEE viruses cannot be isolated from the brains of infected equids but may be found in other tissues such as the pancreas. Systems for the isolation of VEE virus include: 1-3 day old mice, hamsters or Guinea pigs; certain cell culture systems, or chick embryos. Rapid detection and identification of the virus is most frequently accomplished by using molecular nucleic acid based assays (polymerase chain reaction assays), and less often, by immunological techniques (Pisano et al., 2012). A range of serological tests (complement fixation, enzyme-linked immunosorbent [ELISA] assays, hemagglutination-inhibition and plaque reduction neutralization) can be used in investigating suspect clinical cases of VEE virus infection. The IgM capture ELISA is widely used for this purpose and the most popular differential diagnostic test to confirm a case of this infection. Vaccination histories must be taken into consideration when interpreting any of the VEE serological test results.

In summary, a range of laboratory tests are available for the detection and identification of cases of VEE virus infection. These enable diagnosis of the disease and its differentiation from cases of neurologic disease caused by other disease agents. Therefore in the author's opinion, VEE meets Criterion 3 listed for inclusion in the Terrestrial Code.

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

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**Scientific rationale:**

Ever since its discovery in 1938, VEE virus has been recognized as a highly important pathogen of humans and equids. Extensive occurrences of this disease caused by the epidemic subtypes 1AB or 1C have on occasion been associated with tens and even hundreds of thousands of cases of human infection (Osorio and Yuill, 2017; Weaver et al., 2004). In addition epizootic strains belonging to subtype 1 variants D-F and subtype II-VI, while typically non-pathogenic for equids, can cause clinical disease and even death in humans that is indistinguishable from that caused by the epidemic strains (Calisher, 1994). VEE virus infection in healthy humans usually results in a mild systemic flu-like illness that resolves in one to two weeks (Public Health Agency of Canada, 2011). Neurologic disease of variable severity can develop in a small percentage of individuals, especially in young children and in elderly adults (Spickler, 2017). Fatality rates in humans are less than 1% of symptomatic cases. VEE virus can affect the fetus in pregnant women and give rise to teratological abnormalities, abortion, pre-term deliveries or stillbirths. Vertical transmission of the virus from mother to fetus has been documented.

In summary, natural transmission of VEE virus to humans has been proven many times and the resultant human infection can be serious and even fatal. Accordingly, VEE virus meets Criterion 4a for listing in the Terrestrial Code with respect to its ability to cause human disease with severe consequences.

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

VEE virus is a highly significant pathogen of equids as well as humans (Walton, 2008). For over 100 years, the virus has been identified with periodic occurrences of disease in susceptible populations of horses and other equid species in South and Central America and also, Mexico. These have been associated with infection with one or other of the two epizootic subtypes of the virus 1AB and 1C. Some of these epizootics have been very extensive, involving up to hundreds of thousands of equids as well as humans (Weaver et al., 2004). The duration of these events can be variable; some have been known to last several years. The morbidity rate in at-risk equid populations can range from 10-40% in some locations to 50-100% in others. Case fatality rates in horses have been estimated at 30-90% (Spickler, 2017). Whereas most enzootic subtypes of VEE virus do not cause clinical disease or death nor are amplified in equids, certain strains of subtype IE virus emerged in Mexico in 1993 and 1996 that caused outbreaks of neurologic disease in affected individuals. The mortality rate associated with these occurrences was 30-50%.

In summary, there is undeniable proof that over many years, VEE has had a highly significant impact on the health of equid populations in regions/countries affected by epizootics of the disease. The impact includes production losses and mortality losses from the disease. Accordingly, VEE fully qualifies for listing in the Terrestrial Code.

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Besides humans and equids, the host spectrum of VEE virus is very limited (Spickler, 2017). The epizootic subtypes 1AB and 1C can infect and cause disease in rodents, especially hamsters and Guinea pigs. Subclinical infection has been demonstrated in rabbits and some bird species. Enzootic subtypes of the virus can infect wild rodents, opossums and bats but are not known to cause clinical disease in any of the aforementioned. Based on these limited data, VEE virus cannot be considered to have a significant impact on the health of wildlife nor does the virus appear to pose a threat to the viability of any wildlife population. In summary, there are insufficient grounds to support the listing of VEE in the Terrestrial Code with respect to Criterion 4c.

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### Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2.*?

Yes  No

### Summary Conclusion:

To date, the author is only aware of one historical event of VEE reported outside the countries of South and Central America and Mexico in which the disease is endemic. It took place in the USA in 1971. In the author's opinion, this event constituted a proven instance of the transboundary spread of VEE into a country that had been previously free of the disease. The source of the virus for this epidemic was almost certain to have been wind-borne carriage of infected mosquitoes northwards from Mexico into southern Texas. This very significant event confirmed the international spread of VEE and matched Criterion 1 described in the Terrestrial Code. The collective measures that were implemented by the US Veterinary Authorities at the time comprised: mandatory vaccination with TC-83 VEE vaccine within and ahead of the affected zone along the Rio Grande River and up the Gulf Coast; enforced restriction of movement of equids out of the state; and aerial and ground vector control measures. Collectively, these measures were successful in confining the epizootic and in restoring the disease free status of the USA for VEE that has remained ever since. This event and its outcome, namely elimination of VEE from the USA, matches Criterion 2 for listing in the Terrestrial Code. A range of laboratory tests are available for the detection and identification of cases of VEE virus infection. They enable diagnosis of the disease and its differentiation from cases of neurologic disease caused by other disease agents (Criterion 3). VEE virus has been proven on numerous occasions to be a highly significant human pathogen and a source of very high morbidity though limited mortality caused by infection with strains of subtypes 1AB or 1C. Enzootic subtypes of the virus can also cause sporadic cases of fatal infection in humans. Additionally, VEE virus can give rise to abortion, stillbirths and teratological abnormalities in the fetus of women exposed to the virus during pregnancy. VEE virus certainly matches Criterion 4a in terms of its significance as a human pathogen. For over 100 years, VEE has given rise to periodic epizootics of major magnitude in susceptible equid populations, the vast majority of which were caused by subtypes 1AB or 1C of the virus. While enzootic subtypes of VEE do not normally cause disease nor death in horses, there is confirmed evidence of the existence of neurovirulent strains of subtype 1E that have the ability to cause neurologic disease in infected horses and an associated 30-50% mortality rate. Based on its importance as an equine pathogen, VEE certainly matches Criterion 4b with respect to it being listed in the Terrestrial Code. The range of wildlife species susceptible to developing clinical disease upon infection with VEE virus, epizootic subtypes, is very limited. Accordingly, there are insufficient grounds to support the listing of VEE virus in terms of it impacting the health and viability of wildlife as per Criterion 4c. With the exception of Criterion 4c, VEE virus matches Criteria 1 and 2, also Criteria 3, 4a and 4b. There are insufficient grounds for supporting matching with respect to Criterion 4c.

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#### Assessment for Venezuelan Equine Encephalomyelitis: Roberto Navarro Lopez

The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

#### Scientific rationale:

Venezuelan equine encephalomyelitis viruses (VEEV) are taxonomically classified within the genus Alphavirus of the family Togaviridae. The EEEV virus complex includes six antigenic subtypes (I-VI) divided by antigenic variants. They are divided into enzootic (endemic) and epizootic (epidemic). The purpose of this evaluation is to present inclusion criteria, so only the epizootic variants corresponding to viral genotypes I-AB and I-C, which are the only ones that have a biological behavior associated to equine-arthropod-equine epizootic activity, are considered in the Terrestrial Animal Health Code. It has been demonstrated that these viral genotypes are not found in natural reservoirs, and that their presence is due to punctual mutations that occur in the IE enzootic variants in some South American countries and south of Panama. These mutant viruses (genotypes IAB and C), when reaching an amplifying host, such as equines, causes epizootics and epidemics by allowing multiple arthropod vectors to become infected, therefore affecting other equines and people.

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On the other hand, the genotypes called enzootic, have a rodent-arthropod-rodent transmission cycle and their presence does not represent a possibility of generating epizootic disease, since they can sicken an equine or a person, but are considered terminal hosts, as is the case with other arboviruses such as VON, EEE and EEO.

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Venezuelan equine encephalomyelitis virus (VEEV) caused by genotype IAB has caused periodic epidemics among humans and horses in Latin America from 1920s to early 1970s. The IAB and C genotypes have arisen from specific mutations of the IE genotype, present in Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Trinidad and Panama. The first and only major epizootic outbreak from this South American region documented by the IAB genotype spread from these countries to Central America, Mexico and the USA in the late 1960s and early 1970s. The first major outbreak since 1973 occurred in Venezuela and Colombia during 1995 and affected some 75 000 to 100 000 people, this epidemic-epizootic caused by the IC genotype arose in Guajira, which is a region shared by Venezuela and Colombia.

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AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

A presumptive diagnosis of VEEV can be made when susceptible horses show the characteristic somnolence and other signs of neurological disease in areas where hematophagous insects are active. Confirmatory diagnosis of VEEV is based on virus isolation and identification or demonstration of seroconversion, but VEEV viruses are rarely isolated. Viruses can be isolated from field samples by inoculating embryonated chicken eggs or cell cultures. The virus can be identified by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), complement fixation (CF), immunofluorescence or plaque reduction neutralization tests (PRN).

Specific identification of epizootic variants of VEEV can be performed by indirect fluorescent antibody testing, or a differential PRN test using subtype- or variant-specific monoclonal antibodies, or by nucleic acid sequencing. Virological diagnosis: Viral isolation or RT-PCR in tissues, blood or cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). Serological diagnosis: Determination of IgM or IgG during the acute phase (1 to 7 days after the onset of symptoms) and in the convalescent phase (14 days after the onset of signs), using ELISA, hemagglutination inhibition technique, neutralization or similar.

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AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

The epizootic subtypes IAB and IC can cause significant disease in both humans and equines. VEE can occur in all age groups and there is usually no sex bias during outbreaks. However, infected children are more likely than adults to develop long-lasting neurological sequelae and fatal encephalitis. Pregnant women infected with VEEV are at risk of congenital disabilities, miscarriages, premature births and stillbirths.

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OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

In equines, generalized signs usually appear about 2–5 days after infection with epizootic VEEV, including fever, tachycardia, depression, and anorexia. Some or most animals go on to develop encephalitis 5–10 days after infection, with signs of circling, ataxia, and hyperexcitability. Death usually occurs about one week after experimental infection. Encephalitis and death are correlative with the magnitude of equine viremia, but even equine-avirulent enzootic strains produce lethal encephalitis when inoculated intracerebrally. This suggests that virulence is related to the ability of VEEV to replicate extracerebrally and spread to the brain rather than to innate neurovirulence.

The first well-documented outbreak of VEE involving equids occurred in the central river valleys of Colombia in 1935 and spread to Venezuela the following year. By 1943, the outbreak had spread to Trinidad. Additional epizootics were reported on the coast of Peru from 1942 to 1946.

One of the largest outbreaks of VEE began in La Guajira, Colombia, in 1962. It initially involved approximately 3000 human cases, of which 20 were fatal. This outbreak then spread to Venezuela, where it caused 23,283 human cases, including 960 neurological cases and 156 deaths, reported during a 26-month period. Data on the number of equine cases in this outbreak are scarce. During 1967 and 1968, epizootics were observed in Colombia, but exact numbers of human and equine cases were not documented. In early 1969, a large outbreak was reported in Ecuador involving approximately 31,000 human cases with 310 deaths and approximately 20,000 equine deaths. In late 1969, epizootics were reported in El Salvador and Guatemala; these outbreaks eventually spread to throughout Central America and Mexico [ 15 ,16 ]. During this outbreak, approximately 50 000 horses died, in addition to approximately 52 000 human cases, of which 93 were fatal in Mexico only. In the summer of 1969, equine deaths were initially reported in the state of Chiapas, Mexico near the border with Guatemala. By 1970, approximately 10,000 equine deaths were reported in the Pacific region of Chiapas and Oaxaca. This outbreak spread to northern Mexico, affecting 17 states, the Gulf Coast and eventually south to Texas. The last Mexican equine case was recorded in September 1972 in Islas Marias, Nayarit. In Texas, between June and August 1971, almost 2000 infected horses were reported, with 1426 deaths. During the same period of time, 110 human cases were confirmed.

In 1992, an initial outbreak was reported in Venezuela. In 1995, both Venezuela and Colombia reported outbreaks involving approximately 100,000 human cases, 3000 of which experienced neurological complications, with 300 associated deaths. There were also at least 4000 equine deaths associated with this outbreak.

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Aguilar PV, Estrada-Franco JG, Navarro-Lopez R, Ferro C, Haddow AD, Weaver SC. Endemic Venezuelan equine encephalitis in the Americas: hidden under the dengue umbrella. Future Virol. 2011;6(6):721-740. doi: 10.2217/FVL.11.5. PMID: 21765860; PMCID: PMC3134406. n equines, generalized signs usually appear about 2–5 days after infection with epizootic VEEV, including fever, tachycardia, depression, and anorexia. Some or most animals go on to develop encephalitis 5–10 days after infection, with signs of circling, ataxia, and hyperexcitability. Death usually occurs about one week after experimental infection. Encephalitis and death are correlative with the magnitude of equine viremia, but even equine-avirulent enzootic strains produce lethal encephalitis when inoculated intracerebrally. This suggests that virulence is related to the ability of VEEV to replicate extracerebrally and spread to the brain rather than to innate neurovirulence.

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One of the largest outbreaks of VEE began in La Guajira, Colombia, in 1962. It initially involved approximately 3000 human cases, of which 20 were fatal. This outbreak then spread to Venezuela, where it caused 23,283 human cases, including 960 neurological cases and 156 deaths, reported during a 26-month period. Data on the number of equine cases in this outbreak are scarce. During 1967 and 1968, epizootics were observed in Colombia, but exact numbers of human and equine cases were not documented. In early 1969, a large outbreak was reported in Ecuador involving approximately 31,000 human cases with 310 deaths and approximately 20,000 equine deaths. In late 1969, epizootics were reported in El Salvador and Guatemala; these outbreaks eventually spread to throughout Central America and Mexico [ 15 ,16 ]. During this outbreak, approximately 50 000 horses died, in addition to approximately 52 000 human cases, of which 93 were fatal in Mexico only. In the summer of 1969, equine deaths were initially reported in the state of Chiapas, Mexico near the border with Guatemala. By 1970, approximately 10,000 equine deaths were reported in the Pacific region of Chiapas and Oaxaca. This outbreak spread to northern Mexico, affecting 17 states, the Gulf Coast and eventually south to Texas. The last Mexican equine case was recorded in September 1972 in Islas Marias, Nayarit. In Texas, between June and August 1971, almost 2000 infected horses were reported, with 1426 deaths. During the same period of time, 110 human cases were confirmed.

In 1992, an initial outbreak was reported in Venezuela. In 1995, both Venezuela and Colombia reported outbreaks involving approximately 100,000 human cases, 3000 of which experienced neurological complications, with 300 associated deaths. There were also at least 4000 equine deaths associated with this outbreak.

## **References:**

AGUILAR P.V., ESTRADA-FRANCO J.G., NAVARRO-LOPEZ R., FERRO C., HADDOW A.D. & Weaver S.C. Endemic Venezuelan equine encephalitis in the Americas: hidden under the dengue umbrella. *Future Virol.* 2011;6(6):721-740. doi: 10.2217/FVL.11.5. PMID: 21765860; PMCID: PMC3134406.

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

## **Scientific rationale:**

There is no evidence of serious effects of these viruses on wildlife.

## **Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 12.*?

Yes  No

## **Summary Conclusion:**

The Terrestrial Animal Code of the WOAH in its chapter 12.11. about Venezuelan equine encephalomyelitis, establishes the zoosanitary measures that countries must apply for the international trade of equines. So the countries that declare activity of any VEEV, are required among other measures, to quarantine the equines at the border, without discriminating if the VEEV are epizootic or enzootic. Even though this situation is well established epidemiologically in the Manual of Terrestrial Animals of the WOAH, but it is not taken up by the Code.

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According to WOAH's guidelines for listing criteria for terrestrial animal diseases, it is recognized that some pathogens have different subspecies, lineages, or strains that may have different hosts, as well as different impacts on domestic or wild animals or humans. Therefore, it is possible that the criteria for listing a disease may specify only those subspecies that meet the criteria for listing.

Such is the case of epidemic VEE, in which only genotypes of subtypes I-AB and I-C have a biological behavior associated with epidemic activity in equids and humans; and that meet the criteria of having the potential for transboundary dissemination by vectors; according to their distribution, there are countries free of this epidemic subtype I-AB and I-C; There is a specific diagnostic test; Natural transmission to humans has been proven and the disease in humans can have severe consequences such as death.

Therefore, the epidemic VEE caused by strains I-AB and I-C are the ones that should be listed, differentiating the strains of the enzootic cycle that do not represent any risk of epizootic diseases that endanger people or other countries.

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#### **Assessment for Venezuelan Equine Encephalomyelitis: Ann Cullinane**

The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Epizootic Venezuelan Equine Encephalitis (VEE) was initially limited to northern and western South America but spread to other regions and to Central America, Mexico, and the southern USA. The mechanism of international spread is poorly understood. Phylogenetic studies suggest that VEEV is maintained primarily in situ, with only occasional spread to neighbouring countries for example from Mexico into Southern USA, probably reflecting the limited mobility of rodent hosts and mosquito vectors. However, this mobility may increase due to habitat disturbance resulting from continued deforestation in areas such as the Amazon basin. Virus evolution also plays a role in spread as some strains of Venezuelan Equine Encephalitis (VEEV) have acquired infectivity for mosquito species with increased dispersal and a preference for large mammals. Furthermore, climate change has resulted in the spread of mosquito species to new areas. The recent appearance for the first time of Culex (Melanoconion) species in southern Florida increases the potential for other VEEV subtypes to spread northwards and establish enzootic transmission cycles (Forrester et al., 2017, Guzmán-Terán et al., 2020).

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

VEE is confined to South, Central and North America. Historically other regions are free.

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Reliable means of detection are described in the WOAH Manual, Chapter 3.6.5  
[https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/eng/Health\\_standards/tahm/3.06.05\\_EEE\\_WEE\\_VEE.pdf](https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/eng/Health_standards/tahm/3.06.05_EEE_WEE_VEE.pdf).

Specific identification of epizootic VEE virus variants can be made by the indirect fluorescent antibody test, or a differential plaque reduction neutralisation (PRN) test using subtype- or variant-specific monoclonal antibody, or by nucleic acid sequencing.

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There is no precise case definition in the WOAH Terrestrial Code.

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

VEEV is categorised as Category B agent by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta (<https://emergency.cdc.gov/agent/agentlist-category.asp>). Equines are the key reservoir species for the epizootic strains of VEEV that cause fatal clinical disease in horses and humans. Transmission is by haematophagous insects but aerosol transmission has been reported in laboratory workers. Epidemics involving thousands of people have been reported with 4-14% mortality associated with neurological disease. Children are most susceptible to encephalitic disease in contrast to adults who tend to experience a mild febrile disease or influenza like symptoms (Kumar et al., 2018). Children are also more likely to suffer permanent neurological damage such as mental incapacity, epilepsy, learning difficulties, hydrocephalus, personality changes, and paralysis than adult survivors. A 1995 outbreak of VEE in Colombia and Venezuela affected an estimated 75,000 humans; 3000 people developed neurologic complications, and 300 fatalities occurred (Rivas et al., 1997).

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Epizootic subtypes of VEEV are highly pathogenic to Equidae and a fatality rate of 19-83% has been recorded during epidemics (Weaver et al., 2004). The disease in horses is characterized by fever, loss of appetite, somnolence and disorders of the central nervous system, such as muscle deterioration, blindness, and seizures. In acute cases death may occur without neurological signs. One outbreak in Colombia was associated with 100,000 equid deaths.

Fatalities have also been recorded in other domestic animals for example sheep, goats, rabbits and dogs (Kumar et al., 2018).

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

VEEV reservoirs include rodents, birds and possibly bats (Guzmán-Terán et al., 2020). Virus has been isolated from wild mammals such as foxes and opossums during epizootics. However, the impact on the health of wildlife requires further investigation.

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code Chapter 1.2.*?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

VEE satisfies the criteria for WOAH listing. Equines are the key reservoir species for the epizootic strains of VEEV that cause fatal clinical disease in horses and humans.

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1. FORRESTER N.L., WERTHEIM J.O., DUGAN V.G., AUGUSTE A.J., LIN D., ADAMS A.P., CHEN R., GORCHAKOV R., LEAL G., ESTRADA-FRANCO J.G., PANDYA J., HALPIN R.A., HARI K., JAIN R., STOCKWELL T.B., DAS S.R., WENTWORTH D.E., SMITH M.D., KOSAKOVSKY POND S.L. & WEAVER S.C. 2017. Evolution and spread of Venezuelan equine encephalitis complex alphavirus in the Americas. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.*, 11, e0005693.
2. GUZMAN-TERAN C., CALDERON-RANGEL A., RODRIGUEZ-MORALES A. & MATTAR S. 2020. Venezuelan equine encephalitis virus: the problem is not over for tropical America. *Ann. Clin. Microbiol. Antimicrob.*, 19, 19.
3. KUMAR B., MANUJA A., GULATI B.R., VIRMANI N. & TRIPATHI B.N. 2018. Zoonotic Viral Diseases of Equines and Their Impact on Human and Animal Health. *Open Virol. J.*, 12, 80-98.
4. RIVAS F., DIAZ L.A., CARDENAS V.M., DAZA E., BRUZON L., ALCALA A., DE LA HOZ O., CACERES F.M., ARISTIZABAL G., MARTINEZ J.W., REVELO D., DE LA HOZ F., BOSHELL J., CAMACHO T., CALDERON L., OLANO V.A., VILLAREAL L.I., ROSELLI D., ALVAREZ G., LUDWIG G. & TSAI T. 1997. Epidemic Venezuelan equine encephalitis in La Guajira, Colombia, 1995. *J. Infect. Dis.*, 175, 828-32.
5. WEAVER S.C., FERRO C., BARRERA R., BOSHELL J. & NAVARRO J.C. 2004. Venezuelan equine encephalitis. *Annu. Rev. Entomol.*, 49, 141-74.

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**Assessment for Venezuelan Equine Encephalomyelitis: Alf Fussel**

The criteria for the inclusion of a disease, infection or infestation in the WOAH list are as follows:

1) International spread of the pathogenic agent (via live animals or their products, vectors or fomites) has been proven.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

Infection with the VEEV can cause very high morbidity in humans and equines with a case-fatality rate of 50–70% in horses and less than 1% in humans. Domestic rabbits, goats, dogs and sheep are also potentially susceptible animals. While the main route of transmission is by infected mosquitoes, VEEV is highly infectious as an aerosol. Mechanical transmission of epizootic VEEV has been demonstrated for blackflies (*Simulium spp.*) (Homan et al., 1985). Horse to human and human to human transmission has not been recorded. No contact transmission experiments have been found and transplacental infection has not been reported.

**References:**

1. DURAND B., LECOLLINET S., BECK C., MARTINEZ-LOPEZ B., BALENGHIEN T. & CHEVALIER V. 2013. Identification of hotspots in the European union for the introduction of four zoonotic arboviroses by live animal trade. *PLoS ONE*, 8, 16.
2. ESTRADA-FRANCO J.G., NAVARRO-LOPEZ R., FREIER J.E., CORDOVA D., CLEMENTS T., MONCAYO A., KANG W., GOMEZ-HERNANDEZ C., RODRIGUEZ-DOMINGUEZ G., LUDWIG G.V. & WEAVER S.C. 2004. Venezuelan equine encephalitis virus, southern Mexico. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* 2004 Dec; 10(12):2113-21. doi: 10.3201/eid1012.040393. PMID: 15663847; PMCID: PMC3323369. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3323369/pdf/04-0393.pdf>
3. ADAMS A.P., NAVARRO-LOPEZ R., RAMIREZ-AGUILAR F.J., LOPEZ-GONZALEZ I., LEAL G., FLORES-MAYORGA J.M. et al. 2012. Venezuelan Equine Encephalitis Virus Activity in the Gulf Coast Region of Mexico, 2003–2010. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.* 6(11): e1875. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001875>

AND

2) At least one country has demonstrated freedom or impending freedom from the disease, infection or infestation in populations of susceptible animals, based on the provisions of Chapter 1.4.

Yes  No

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**Scientific rationale:**

VEE is a zoonotic disease first discovered in horses in 1930s in South America and is considered to be native to the Americas, including North and South Americas.

WOAH WAHIS 2015-2022: disease not present in Eastern Hemisphere

AND

3) Reliable means of detection and diagnosis exist and a precise case definition is available to clearly identify cases and allow them to be distinguished from other diseases, infections or infestations.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

There are at least 14 subtypes and varieties within the VEE complex but only subtype I, varieties AB and C have been associated with major equine epizootics and epidemics (Aguilar et al., 2011). The IA and IB strains are considered genetically indistinguishable and are thus classified as IAB. Epizootic strains from subtypes IAB and IC are highly pathogenic for horses, with reported case-fatality rates of between 20% and 80%.

**References:**

1. Enzootic strains are not known to cause illness in equids, other domesticated livestock, dogs or cats, with the exception of one Mexican I-E variant, which is pathogenic for equids (BRAULT A.C., POWERS A.M., ORTIZ D., ESTRADA-FRANCO J.G., NAVARRO-LOPEZ R., WEAVER S.C.. Venezuelan equine encephalitis emergence: enhanced vector infection from a single amino acid substitution in the envelope glycoprotein. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2004 Aug 3;101(31):11344-9. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0402905101. Epub 2004 Jul 26. PMID: 15277679; PMCID: PMC509205.)
2. [https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/fr/Health\\_standards/tahm/3.06.05\\_EEE\\_WEE\\_VEE.pdf](https://www.woah.org/fileadmin/Home/fr/Health_standards/tahm/3.06.05_EEE_WEE_VEE.pdf)  
<https://sitesv2.anses.fr/en/minisite/equine-diseases/sop>

AND

4a) Natural transmission to humans has been proven, and human infection is associated with severe consequences.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:****References:**

1. AGUILAR P., ESTRADA-FRANCO J. & NAVARRO-LOPEZ R., FERRO C., HADDOW A. & WEAVER S. (2011). Endemic Venezuelan equine encephalitis in the Americas: Hidden under the dengue umbrella. *Future virology*. 6. 721-740. 10.2217/fvl.11.50.
2. LORD, R.D. 1974. History and geographic distribution of Venezuelan equine encephalitis. *PAHO Bulletin*, Vol. VIII, No. 2.

OR

4b) The disease has been shown to have a significant impact on the health of domestic animals at the level of a country or a zone taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct production losses and mortality.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

"In early 1969, a large outbreak was reported in Ecuador involving approximately 31,000 human cases with 310 fatalities and approximately 20,000 equine deaths. Late in 1969, epizootics were reported in El Salvador and Guatemala; these outbreaks eventually spread to most of Central America and Mexico [15,16]. During this outbreak, an estimated 50,000 horses died, in addition to an estimated 52,000 human cases, of which 93 were fatal in Mexico alone [13,17,18]. Initially, equine deaths in Mexico were reported in Chiapas state near the Guatemalan border in the summer of 1969, but by 1970, approximately 10,000 equine deaths had occurred in the Pacific states of Chiapas and Oaxaca. This outbreak then spread

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northward into 17 Mexican states, following the path of the susceptible equids, to the Gulf coast and eventually into southern Texas [18,19]. The outbreak was finally contained when more than 8 million doses of TC-83 vaccine were administered to equids and vector control was implemented [19]. The last Mexican equine cases were recorded in September 1972 on the Islas Marias, Nayarit [19]. In Texas, between June and August of 1971, almost 2000 infected horses were reported, including 1426 associated deaths. During the same time period, 110 human cases were confirmed."

**Reference:**

AGUILAR P.V., ESTRADA-FRANCO J.G., NAVARRO-LOPEZ R., FERRO C., HADDOW A.D. & WEAVER S.C. 2011. Endemic Venezuelan equine encephalitis in the Americas: hidden under the dengue umbrella. *Future Virology*, 6, 721–740.

OR

4c) The disease has been shown to, or scientific evidence indicates that it would, have a significant impact on the health of wildlife taking into account the occurrence and severity of the clinical signs, including direct economic losses and mortality, and any threat to the viability of a wildlife population.

Yes  No

**Scientific rationale:**

There are no reports indicating any significant impact on the viability of a wildlife population.

**Reference:**

Recent surveys demonstrated that cattle, swine, chickens and dogs have been shown to seroconvert after epizootics; and mortality has been observed in domesticated rabbits, dogs, goats and sheep (WEAVER et al., 2004; MESA et al., 2005; ZACKS and PAESSLER, 2010; FAD-PReP/USDA, 2013; CFSPH, 2015; WOAH, 2013b).

**Conclusion regarding [pathogenic agent name]:**

Does [pathogenic agent name] match the listing criteria that are described in the *Terrestrial Animal Health Code* [Chapter 1.2.](#)?

Yes  No

**Summary Conclusion:**

This conclusion concourse with the outcome of the respective EFSA report (doi: 10.2903/j.efsa.2017.4950) and the conclusion of the European Union as set out in Annex II to Regulation (EU) 2016/429 (OJ L 84, 31.3.2016, p. 1.). Any possible measures to prevent the spread of the virus through international trade primarily in equine animals should be set out in Chapter 12.4. of the Terrestrial Code and should provide for the possibility to be adapted to the circulating serotypes identified through surveillance. Since individual equine animals may be affected by the infection and because of the zoonotic nature of the infection, it is advised to maintain surveillance, not least to allow the vaccination of equines resident in, or intended to be moved to, endemic areas.

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## Annex 8. 9.2.2 Listing Assessment for *Theileria orientalis* (Ikeda and Chitose)

### MEETING OF THE WOAH SCIENTIFIC COMMISSION FOR ANIMAL DISEASES

Paris, 11 to 15 September 2023

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#### Expert opinion on the listing of *T. orientalis*:

- Dr Frans Van Gool (Member of the AHG on theileriosis)
- Dr Andrew MacFadden (Veterinary epidemiologist/ principal advisor, New Zealand)
- Dr Philip Toye (Member of the AHG on theileriosis) – agreed with all the comments provided by the other two experts,

Experts provided their opinion on the following points raised by the Member:

**Several papers report a worldwide distribution ([Khukhhu et al. 2010](#), [Bogema et al. 2015](#)). This would mean that the pathogen does not meet criterion in Article 1.2.2.2.**

(Dr Frans Van Gool) *Theileria orientalis* genotype chitose and *Theileria orientalis* genotype Ikeda do not have a worldwide distribution, as indicated in the papers mentioned here above, they have both a geographic distribution limited to Asia-Pacific and Southern Asia. Also, many other papers are indicating the same geographic distribution.

(Dr Andrew MacFadden) Yes agree. The recent outbreak of disease spread in America, after the importation of the HL tick, shows that significant naïve populations exist and how effectively it can spread. It is now in about 10 -12 states and spreading very efficiently. In addition, significant parts of the Pacific are free of *theileria orientalis* (anecdotal evidence from a small survey in Fiji). Myself and my team are conducting surveys in other Pacific nations; however, we have no indication that there has been clinical Theileria and cattle populations in these countries are assumed at this stage to be free and naïve. Surveys and testing is underway in a number of nations and we will have more data over the next 12 months.

**The much greater pathogenicity of *T. annulata* and *T. parva* may be due to these species having different disease mechanisms to *T. orientalis*. For example, *T. annulata* and *T. parva* are considered ‘transforming’ as they have the ability to transform leukocytes of host animals to allow infected cells (and thus infecting parasites) to proliferate indefinitely. *T. orientalis* does not have this ability and is termed ‘non-transforming’. Transforming Theileria have undergone drastic genetic evolution, with greater genetic variation that is often linked to increased virulence and evasion of host immune defences ([Sivakumar et al. 2014](#)).**

(Dr Frans Van Gool) I agree with this. But even if *T. orientalis* genotype Chitose and *T. orientalis* genotype Ikeda are not considered “transforming” they are pathogenic (but have lower pathogenicity than *T. annulata* and *T. parva*) and can also cause disease outbreaks in cattle, as described in the paper of C. Jenkins ([Jenkins et al. 2015](#))

(Dr Andrew MacFadden) The impacts from ikeda and chitose as a result of their pathogenicity are alluded to in the previous assessment and below.

**Kim et al (2017) states ‘There is limited information on disease outbreaks related to the genotypes of *T. orientalis* and the clinical relevance of the various MPSP types has not been clearly elucidated’ ([Kim et al. 2017](#)).**

(Dr Frans Van Gool) In the paper of C. Jenkins (Jenkins et al., 2015) it is clearly indicated that *T. orientalis* genotype Ikeda caused clinical outbreaks of Theileriosis in Australia, as a sole infection, but more commonly as a mixture of genotypes, with as prevalent genotype, Chitose. “[...]Recent outbreaks of clinical theileriosis in Australasia have been linked to infection with the Ikeda genotype. In one study, this genotype was found to be present in clinical cases as a sole or mixed infection (Eamens et al., 2013), but most commonly co-occurred with the Chitose genotype. In contrast to the Ikeda genotype, the Chitose genotype was rarely found to be associated with disease when present as a sole infection (Eamens et al., 2013); however other studies have suggested that the Chitose genotype may directly cause clinical disease (McFadden et al., 2011).”

(Dr Andrew MacFadden) Yes agree. There are number of papers that myself and others have published on the clinical effects of Theileria in NZ. It is very clear that there was significant impact from ikeda. Thus, from this and other reports (e.g. Japan and Australia) it is inappropriate to suggest that there is limited information on disease outbreaks.

In Australia, *T. orientalis* genotype Chitose has two variant subpopulations, with one being strongly associated with clinical disease and almost always occurring as a coinfection with the Ikeda genotype, and the other appearing to have questionable pathogenicity (Jenkins et al. 2015). Despite expert assessment identifying anaemia as a significant impact of *T. orientalis* Ikeda and Chitose, the report fails to quantify the direct production losses that result from the anaemia. Thus with current scientific literature showing limited understanding of the different genotypes of *T. orientalis*, and their ability to cause disease, inclusion into the WOAH disease list is overly premature at this point in time.

(Dr Frans Van Gool) There are papers (Aparna et al., 2011; McFadden et al., 2011; Eamens et al., 2013) indicating that disease outbreaks and economic losses related to farm animals with *T. orientalis* genotype Ikeda was found to be present in clinical cases as a sole or mixed infection (Eamens et al., 2013), but most commonly co-occurred with the Chitose genotype. In contrast to the Ikeda genotype, the Chitose genotype was rarely found to be associated with disease when present as a sole infection (Eamens et al., 2013); however other studies have suggested that the Chitose genotype may directly cause clinical disease (McFadden et al., 2011). So, in my opinion, inclusion of *T. orientalis* genotype Ikeda and *T. orientalis* genotype Chitose into the WOAH disease list are justified.

(Dr Andrew MacFadden) Yes agree. The coinfection of chitose and ikeda represents different periods of introduction e.g. chitose introduced some time ago enabling general and widespread exposure (vs the recent introduction of ikeda). Given that Ikeda introduction is a recent phenomenon in both NZ and Australia, coinfection is often detected during clinical events. However, anaemia/clinical impacts were directly associated with the detection of ikeda. The study in 2011 (McFadden et al., 2011) showed that chitose can have a clinical effect in its own right. Our observations from the clinical impacts in naïve herds was that the impacts from ikeda were more dramatic and severe.

Mortality as a direct effect from anaemia (associated with ikeda) was observed in NZ outbreaks. Death is clearly a production effect. Outside of the impacts from mortality, varying levels of anaemia occur; however, in surveys we have published this can reach very high levels and the majority of animals within an affected herd. Some attempts have been made to quantify the effects of anaemia; however, as you know this is incredibly difficult to do, although some have attempted to do this on a small scale (McDougall, S. et al., 2014; Perera et al., 2014).

## References :

1. APARNA M. et al. (2011). 'Molecular characterization of *Theileria orientalis* causing fatal infection in crossbred adult bovines of South India', *Parasitology International*, 60(4), pp. 524–529. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.parint.2011.08.002>.
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5. McFADDEN A.M.J. et al. (2011). 'An outbreak of haemolytic anaemia associated with infection of *Theileria orientalis* in naive cattle', *New Zealand Veterinary Journal*, 59(2), pp. 79–85. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/00480169.2011.552857>.
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**Anexo 9. 9.3.2.1 Informe sobre la elaboración de la definición de caso para la infestación por el gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo (*Cochliomyia hominivorax*) y del Viejo Mundo (*Chrysomya bezziana*), 11 de abril al 22 de agosto de 2023**

**REUNIÓN DE LA COMISIÓN CIENTÍFICA DE LA OMSA PARA LAS ENFERMEDADES ANIMALES**

**París, 11 al 15 de septiembre de 2023**

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Este informe tiene por objetivo proporcionar el fundamento y la justificación científica de los elementos de la definición de caso para la infestación por a) el gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo (*Cochliomyia hominivorax*) y b) del Viejo Mundo (*Chrysomya bezziana*) que fue elaborada por videoconferencia con el experto principal e intercambios de correo electrónico con los otros expertos entre el 11 de abril y el 22 de agosto de 2023.

El propósito de la definición de caso es apoyar la notificación a la Organización Mundial de Sanidad Animal (OMSA, fundada como OIE) tal y como se describe en el [Capítulo 1.1](#) del *Código sanitario para los animales terrestres de la OIE* (*Código Terrestre*).

Los datos de los expertos y del personal de la OIE que contribuyeron al proceso de redacción figuran en el [Apéndice 1](#).

## **1. Proceso**

En *El Oficial 2021-1* se brinda un resumen de esta iniciativa: «Desarrollo de definiciones de caso para las enfermedades de los animales terrestres inscritas en la Lista de la OIE»<sup>3</sup>.

Este informe, incluido el proyecto de definición de caso, se presentará para su consideración en sus próximas reuniones primero a la Comisión de Normas Biológicas y luego a la Comisión Científica para las Enfermedades de los Animales. Una vez aprobada por la Comisión Científica, y siempre que no entre en conflicto con el *Código Terrestre* de la OMSA, la definición de caso finalizada se publicará en el sitio web de la OMSA y, siguiendo el proceso de elaboración de normas, se incluirá finalmente en el *Código Terrestre*.

## **2. Contexto**

Las infestaciones por el gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo (*Cochliomyia hominivorax*) y del Viejo Mundo (*Chrysomya bezziana*) figuran en el [Capítulo 1.3](#), «Enfermedades, infecciones e infestaciones de la lista de la OIE» del *Código Terrestre* en el Artículo 1.3.1. en la categoría de «varias especies».

Si bien en el *Código Terrestre* existe un capítulo específico para esta enfermedad ([Capítulo 8.13](#), «Miasis por *Cochliomyia hominivorax* y miasis por *Chrysomya bezziana*», cuya actualización más reciente fue adoptada en 1998), no incluye una definición de caso para la infestación, aunque las disposiciones para las importaciones procedentes de países infestados se refieren a «mamíferos domésticos y silvestres». El *Manual Terrestre* contiene el [Capítulo 3.1.14](#), «Miasis por *Cochliomyia hominivorax* y miasis por *Chrysomya bezziana*» (versión adoptada en mayo de 2019).

El 4 de mayo de 2023 se consultó a WAHIS para obtener información resumida<sup>4</sup> sobre las miasis «por *Cochliomyia hominivorax* y por *Chrysomya bezziana*» a partir de los datos contenidos en los informes oficiales (informes semestrales, notificaciones inmediatas e informes de seguimiento). La Figura 1 y la Figura 2 resumen el número total de brotes nuevos notificados a la OMSA entre enero de 2005 y diciembre de 2022 para la miasis por *Cochliomyia hominivorax* y la miasis por *Chrysomya bezziana*, respectivamente.

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<sup>3</sup> [https://bulletin.woah.org/?officiel=10-3-2-2021-1\\_case-definitions&lang=es](https://bulletin.woah.org/?officiel=10-3-2-2021-1_case-definitions&lang=es)

<sup>4</sup> <https://wahis.oie.int/#/dashboards/qd-dashboard>

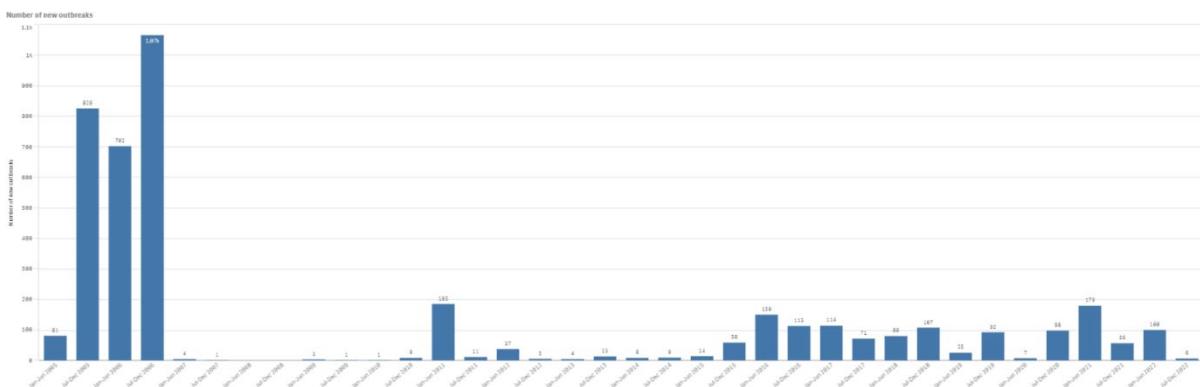


Figura 1 Brotes nuevos de «miasis por gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo (*Cochliomyia hominivorax*)» notificados a OMSA-WAHIS por los Miembros entre enero de 2005 y diciembre de 2022.

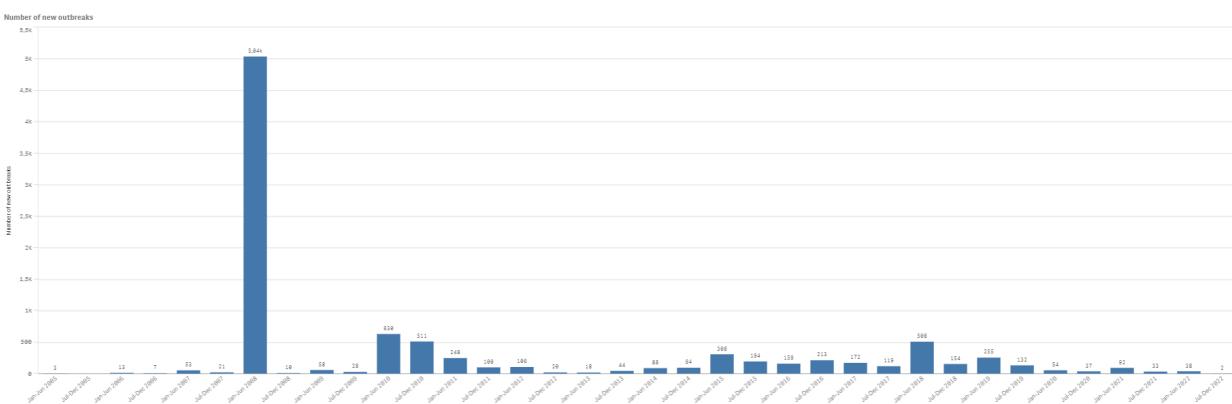


Figura 2 Brotes nuevos de «miasis por gusano barrenador del Viejo Mundo (*Chrysomya bezziana*)» notificados a OMSA-WAHIS por los Miembros entre enero de 2005 y diciembre de 2022.

### 3. Discusión

Dada la similitud entre la biología del gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo y el gusano barrenador del Viejo Mundo, en consulta con el experto principal, se acordó comenzar el desarrollo de la definición de caso para ambos gusanos barrenadores en paralelo por el mismo grupo de expertos.

#### 3.1. Nombre de la enfermedad

Los expertos acordaron utilizar el nombre de «gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo» para la infestación causada por *Cochliomyia hominivorax* y «gusano barrenador del Viejo Mundo» para la infestación causada por *Chrysomya bezziana*. Un experto propuso considerar el uso de «miasis», que describiría con mayor precisión el síndrome clínico causado por el gusano barrenador, es decir, miasis causada por [parásito].

#### 3.2. Agente patógeno

Los expertos estuvieron de acuerdo en que el agente patógeno del «gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo» es *Cochliomyia hominivorax* y el agente patógeno del «gusano barrenador del Viejo Mundo» es *Chrysomya bezziana*, que son especies de dos géneros de la subfamilia *Chrysomyinae* de la familia *Calliphoridae*.

#### 3.3. Hospedador

Los seres humanos y una amplia gama de animales domésticos y silvestres de sangre caliente son susceptibles a la infestación por *Cochliomyia hominivorax* y *Chrysomya bezziana*. Ambos son parásitos estrictos durante sus estados larvarios en estos hospedadores [1–6], se alimentan de tejidos vivos y causan miasis [7].

Se han encontrado casos de gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo entre varias especies silvestres, incluidos búfalos asiáticos, *Bubalus bubalis* [7]; cerdos asilvestrados, *Sus scrofa* [8]; castores, *Castor canadensis* [9]; camellos, *Camelus dromedarius* [3]; nutrias gigantes, *Pteronura brasiliensis* [10]; venados de cola blanca, *Odocoileus virginianus texanus* [11,12]; puercoespines amazónicos, *Coendou prehensilis prehensilis* [13]; conejos de rabo blanco de Texas, *Sylvilagus floridanus chapmani* [14]; monos aulladores, *Alouatta palliata* [15].

Se han encontrado casos de gusano barrenador del Viejo Mundo en los siguientes animales silvestres: antílopes acuáticos, *Kobus ellipsiprymnus*; impalas, *Aepyceros melampus*; rinocerontes, *Rhinocerus spp.* Linneo; elefantes, *Loxodonta spp.*; alce (*Taurotragus oryx*) [16] y numerosas especies zoológicas [17]. También se encuentra en ganado como búfalos, vacas, caballos, ovejas, cerdos y cabras, así como en gatos, perros, ciervos y humanos.

En cuanto a los mamíferos silvestres y la miasis por gusanos barrenadores, la interpretación de la literatura y la experiencia personal del experto principal indican que el riesgo de que un animal silvestre infestado transmita o transporte gusanos barrenadores hacia una nueva zona es bajo, ya que cuando los animales silvestres están heridos, tienden a establecerse en un área segura y tranquila para curarse y evitar a los depredadores. Sin embargo, los animales silvestres sirven como reservorio para los gusanos barrenadores, porque el ciclo de vida de los gusanos barrenadores continúa en la naturaleza gracias a las heridas que no se tratan.

El transporte de animales infestados por parte de humanos constituye una vía importante para la propagación del gusano barrenador [18–22].

Con respecto a la participación de las aves, la única referencia bibliográfica sobre miasis por gusano barrenador en aves es Lindquist, 1937 [12], que aportó información sobre infestación en pavos domésticos. El riesgo demostrado de que las aves silvestres sean infestadas y que transporten gusanos barrenadores es muy bajo. Según la experiencia personal de un experto, en los países en los que el gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo es endémico, la aparición en aves ocurre pero es poco frecuente, en comparación con la aparición en bovinos, caballos y cerdos. No se notifica, porque se considera que tiene un menor impacto y existe un tratamiento eficaz. Generalmente afecta a pollos, pavos, patos y gansos de gran tamaño. De manera general, el parásito se encuentra en la región anatómica de los músculos del pecho del ave, lo que dificulta su capacidad de volar y, por lo tanto, reduce el riesgo de propagación de la parasitosis [23]. Por consiguiente, los expertos consideraron que el papel de las aves en la epidemiología del gusano barrenador es limitado y aconsejaron limitar la definición de caso a los mamíferos domésticos y silvestres.

### 3.4. Criterios diagnósticos y epidemiológicos

Los expertos identificaron **UNA opción** para confirmar un caso de infestación por el gusano barrenador del Nuevo o del Viejo Mundo a efectos de notificación a la OMSA. Los expertos no utilizaron otras opciones comúnmente incorporadas en otras definiciones de casos de la OMSA (detección de ácido nucleico, antígeno o anticuerpos) para definir la infestación, ya que los gusanos barrenadores son parásitos que requieren observación morfológica directa e identificación del parásito. Actualmente no existen pruebas serológicas aplicables [24] para el diagnóstico del gusano barrenador.

#### 3.4.1. Opción 1

La observación y la identificación de *Cochliomyia hominivorax* y *Chrysomya bezziana* de conformidad con las normas descritas en el Capítulo 3.1.14. del *Manual Terrestre* de la OMSA son suficientes para confirmar un caso de infestación por el gusano barrenador (del Nuevo Mundo o del Viejo Mundo).

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.../Apéndice

**9.3.2.1 Informe sobre la elaboración de la definición de caso para la infestación por el gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo (*Cochliomyia hominivorax*) y del Viejo Mundo (*Chrysomya bezziana*)**

**11 de abril al 22 de agosto de 2023**

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**Anexo 10. 11.3.2.3 Informe sobre la elaboración de la definición de caso para la infección por el virus de la fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea–Congo (VFHCC)**

**REUNIÓN DE LA COMISIÓN CIENTÍFICA DE LA OMSA PARA LAS ENFERMEDADES ANIMALES**

**París, 11 al 15 de septiembre de 2023**

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Este informe tiene por objetivo proporcionar el fundamento y la justificación científica de los elementos de la definición de caso para la infección por el virus de la fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo (fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo) que fue elaborada por videoconferencia e intercambios de correo electrónico entre el 21 de abril y el 30 de enero de 2023.

El propósito de la definición de caso es apoyar la notificación a la Organización Mundial de Sanidad Animal (OMSA, fundada como OIE) tal y como se describe en el [Capítulo 1.1](#) del *Código sanitario para los animales terrestres de la OIE* (*Código Terrestre*)

Los datos de los expertos y del personal de la OIE que contribuyeron al proceso de redacción figuran en el [Apéndice 1](#).

## 1. Proceso

En *El Oficial 2021-1* se brinda un resumen de esta iniciativa: «Desarrollo de definiciones de caso para las enfermedades de los animales terrestres inscritas en la Lista de la OIE» [1].

Este informe, incluido el proyecto de definición de caso, se presentará para su consideración en sus próximas reuniones primero a la Comisión de Normas Biológicas y luego a la Comisión Científica para las Enfermedades de los Animales. Una vez aprobada por la Comisión Científica, y siempre que no entre en conflicto con el *Código Terrestre* de la OMSA, la definición de caso finalizada se publicará en el sitio web de la OMSA y, siguiendo el proceso de elaboración de normas, se incluirá finalmente en el *Código Terrestre*.

## 2. Contexto

La «fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo» figura en el Capítulo 1.3. «Enfermedades, infecciones e infestaciones de la lista de la OIE» del *Código Terrestre* en el Artículo 1.3.1. en la categoría de «varias especies». En el *Código Terrestre* no existe un capítulo específico para esta enfermedad, pero el *Manual Terrestre* contiene el Capítulo 3.1.5. «Fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo» (versión adoptada en mayo de 2014) [2].

El 21 de julio de 2022 se consultó a WAHIS para obtener información resumida<sup>5</sup> sobre la «fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo» (FHCC) a partir de los datos contenidos en los informes oficiales (informes semestrales, notificaciones inmediatas e informes de seguimiento).

La Figura 1 resume el número total de países que notificaron la presencia o sospecha de FHCC en animales domésticos y silvestres a la OMSA entre 2006 y 2021.

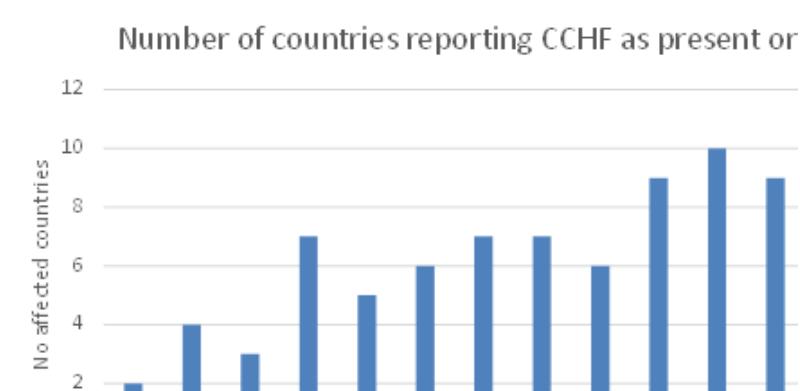


Figura 2. Número total de países que notificaron la presencia de «fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo» a WAHIS, según las declaraciones de los Miembros entre 2006 y 2021.

<sup>5</sup> <https://wahis.oie.int/#/dashboards/qd-dashboard>

### **3. Discusión**

La transmisión del VFHCC a los humanos ocurre principalmente a través de la picadura de una garrapata infectada o por contacto con la sangre o fluidos corporales de una persona o animal infectado.

#### **3.1. Nombre de la enfermedad**

A medida que se elaboran o actualizan capítulos específicos de enfermedades en el *Código Terrestre*, se ha convenido referirse a la enfermedad o infección como «infección por [agente patógeno]» y reflejar esto en la entrada correspondiente del Capítulo 1.3. o en el capítulo específico de la enfermedad que pueda desarrollarse en el futuro. Por consiguiente, los expertos recomiendan que la entrada correspondiente a la fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo en el Capítulo 1.3. se actualice según la versión redactada con un guion de la «infección por el virus de la fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo (fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo)» con el fin de mantener la coherencia con el *Manual Terrestre*, el Manual Internacional Comité de Taxonomía de Virus (ICTV) y la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS).

#### **3.2. Agente patógeno**

Los expertos coincidieron en que el agente patógeno de esta enfermedad es el virus de la fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo (VFHCC), que pertenece al género *Orthenairovirus* de la familia *Nairoviridae* del orden *Bunyavirales* [3].

#### **3.3. Hospedador**

Las garrapatas del género *Hyalomma spp.* se han identificado como el vector natural y reservorio de la infección por FHCC, y la distribución de casos humanos de FHCC se asemeja mucho a la del vector [4]. La epidemiología de la FHCC es compleja; el papel de las garrapatas en la transmisión de la enfermedad y el de los animales silvestres en el mantenimiento de la enfermedad a través de la infestación por garrapatas son importantes. Una amplia gama de especies domésticas y silvestres son susceptibles a la infección por el VFHCC [5–8], aunque la viremia tiende a ser transitoria y la infección suele ser asintomática. Muchas especies (particularmente los vertebrados más grandes) pueden servir como hospedadores amplificadores del VFHCC, y las especies de animales domésticos suelen estar implicadas cuando se detectan casos en humanos [4,9,10]. Los niveles elevados de seroprevalencia que se encuentran con frecuencia en bovinos, ovinos, caprinos y camellos indican que el nivel de exposición de la población es elevado [6]. Teniendo en consideración que los rumiantes silvestres también pueden actuar como hospedadores amplificadores, los expertos consideraron que, a efectos de notificación de la infección por el VCHFV a la OMSA, los animales hospedadores deberían consistir en animales domésticos y silvestres del suborden *Ruminantia* y dromedarios (*Camelus dromedarius*) [4,6,11].

#### **3.4. Criterios diagnósticos y epidemiológicos**

Los expertos identificaron **cuatro opciones** (cualquiera de ellas es suficiente) para confirmar un caso de infección por el virus de la fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo a efectos de notificación a la OMSA.

##### **3.4.1. Opción 1**

Los expertos acordaron que el aislamiento del VFHCC en muestras de las especies hospedadoras enumeradas anteriormente sería suficiente para confirmar un caso de infección por el VFHCC. Decidieron omitir «excluyendo las cepas vacunales», ya que actualmente no hay ninguna vacuna aprobada disponible [16].

##### **3.4.2. Opción 2**

Los expertos estuvieron de acuerdo en que la detección del ácido nucleico específico del VFHCC es un criterio pertinente para confirmar un caso, siempre que se acompañe de un vínculo epidemiológico con un caso sospechoso o confirmado de FHCC, o si se sospecha que el animal ha sido picado por una garrapata positiva a una prueba de antígeno o una prueba de ácido nucleico específica para el VFHCC.

Los expertos decidieron omitir «antígeno específico del VFHCC» en la opción para la definición de caso en esta oportunidad; esta técnica no es uno de los métodos recomendados para la identificación del agente en la Tabla 1. del *Manual Terrestre*.

Los expertos decidieron omitir «el [animal] hospedador manifiesta signos clínicos o lesiones patológicas compatibles con la infección con el patógeno», ya que la infección suele ser asintomática en el ganado o en ocasiones puede causar una fiebre leve [6]

### **3.4.3. Opción 3**

Los expertos acordaron que la seroconversión sería suficiente para confirmar un caso de infección por el VFHCC y señalaron que actualmente se han publicado algunos sistemas internos. Si bien la mayoría de los kits comerciales de detección basados en ELISA de IgM o IgG o en inmunofluorescencia están diseñados para diagnóstico en el ser humano, es posible adaptarlos a la detección serológica en los animales.

### **3.4.4. Opción 4**

Los expertos estuvieron de acuerdo en que la presencia de anticuerpos en un animal hospedador vinculado epidemiológicamente a un caso humano o animal sospechoso o confirmado de infección por FHCC o la sospecha de que el animal ha sido picado por una garrapata positiva en una prueba de antígeno o de ácido nucleico específica para el VFHCC constituiría un caso confirmado de FHCC.

Los expertos decidieron omitir «que no sean consecuencia de la vacunación», ya que actualmente no hay ninguna vacuna aprobada disponible [16].

Los expertos también optaron por omitir «el [animal] hospedador manifiesta signos clínicos o lesiones patológicas compatibles con la infección con el patógeno», ya que la infección suele ser asintomática en los animales o en ocasiones puede causar una fiebre leve [6].

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.../Apéndice

**Informe sobre la elaboración de la definición de caso para la infección por el virus de la fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo (fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo)**

**21 de abril – 30 de enero de 2023**

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**Anexo 11. Programa de trabajo**

**REUNIÓN DE LA COMISIÓN CIENTÍFICA DE LA OMSA PARA LAS ENFERMEDADES ANIMALES**

**París, 11 al 15 de septiembre de 2023**

		Septiembre de 2023	Próximas etapas	Calendario
<b>Actualización de las normas de la OMSA</b>				
	Glosario	No inscrito en el orden del día		
1	Capítulo 1.2. Criterios de inclusión de enfermedades, infecciones e infestaciones en la lista de la OMSA	<p>No inscrito en el orden del día. En la reunión de febrero de 2023, se habían propuesto revisiones del documento de orientación destinadas a mejorar la interpretación de los criterios de inclusión por parte de los expertos, la orientación revisada se aplicó a la evaluación de la inclusión de encefalitis equinas.</p> <p>Aunque por el momento no se recomiendan revisiones específicas del Capítulo 1.2., la Comisión Científica indicó su disponibilidad para participar en las discusiones cuando se empiece la revisión del capítulo.</p>	Continuar revisando la interpretación que hacen los expertos de los criterios de inclusión en la lista y garantizar la coherencia en la aplicación.	N/A
1	Capítulo 1.3. Enfermedades, infecciones e infestaciones de la lista de la OMSA	No inscrito en el orden del día.	N/A	N/A
	Capítulo 1.6. Procedimientos para el reconocimiento oficial	Proyecto de Artículo 1.6.4. revisado propuesto por la Comisión del Código sobre la conservación de agentes patógenos sin afectar el estatus zoosanitario.	La opinión de la Comisión se remitió a la Comisión del Código.	
1	Capítulo 4.X. Nuevo capítulo sobre bioseguridad	Hizo comentarios sobre la estructura de los capítulos y las definiciones del glosario propuestas por el grupo <i>ad hoc</i> sobre bioseguridad.	<p>Remitir la opinión de la Comisión a la Comisión del Código.</p> <p>(N.B.: La Comisión del Código abordó la opinión de la Comisión Científica en su reunión de septiembre de 2023)</p>	La Comisión Científica considerará los comentarios relevantes en febrero de 2024.
1	Capítulo 8.8. Infección por el virus de la fiebre aftosa	Consideró algunos comentarios sobre el proyecto de capítulo revisado enviados por la Comisión del Código, comunicados por los Miembros durante y	<p>Remitir la opinión de la Comisión a la Comisión del Código.</p> <p>(N.B.: La Comisión del Código abordó la opinión de la Comisión</p>	

		Septiembre de 2023	Próximas etapas	Calendario
		después de la Sesión General de 2023.	Científica en su reunión de septiembre de 2023)	
1	Capítulo 8.X. Infección por <i>Trypanosoma evansi</i> (surra)	Hizo algunos comentarios sobre las enmiendas propuestas por el Grupo <i>ad hoc</i> sobre la surra y la durina. La opinión de la Comisión se remitió a la Comisión del Código. Solicitó a la Secretaría que consultara a expertos sobre la dinámica de la infección en camellos.	El proyecto de capítulo será distribuido por la Comisión del Código después de su reunión de septiembre de 2023.	La Comisión Científica considerará los comentarios relevantes en febrero de 2024.
1	Capítulo 12.1. Infección por el virus de la peste equina	Revisó e hizo comentarios sobre las enmiendas propuestas por la Comisión del Código.	Remitir la opinión de la Comisión a la Comisión del Código. (N.B.: La Comisión del Código abordó la opinión de la Comisión Científica en su reunión de septiembre de 2023)	
1	Capítulo 12.3. Durina	Examinó el proyecto de Capítulo 12.3. revisado preparado por el Grupo <i>ad hoc</i> sobre la surra y la durina.	Remitir la opinión y el proyecto de capítulo revisado a la Comisión del Código. El proyecto del capítulo será revisado por la Comisión del Código en su reunión de febrero de 2024.	La Comisión Científica considerará los comentarios relevantes en septiembre de 2024.
	Capítulo 1.11. Cuestionario sobre la fiebre aftosa	En respuesta a un comentario considerado en su reunión de febrero de 2023, que proponía la revisión y adopción paralela del Capítulo 1.11. con la adopción del Capítulo 8.8. revisado, la Comisión Científica revisó el Capítulo 1.11. y las enmiendas propuestas.	Remitir el proyecto de artículo revisado a la Comisión del Código. (N.B.: La Comisión del Código abordó la opinión de la Comisión Científica en su reunión de septiembre de 2023)	
<b>Reconocimiento oficial del estatus sanitario</b>				
1	Evaluación de los expedientes de los Miembros	No se aplica. La Comisión Científica recibió información actualizada sobre la situación de las solicitudes presentadas por los Miembros para su evaluación y posible reconocimiento en la Sesión General en mayo de 2024.		
2	Misiones de expertos en los Miembros	La Comisión Científica consideró los informes de dos misiones que se llevaron a cabo después de su reunión de febrero de 2023 e hizo el seguimiento de una misión anterior tras algunos	Seguimiento de las acciones aplicadas por los respectivos Miembros en respuesta a las recomendaciones de las misiones durante la revisión de las reconfirmaciones	

		Septiembre de 2023	Próximas etapas	Calendario
		cambios epidemiológicos en el país y la región.	anuales de 2023 en febrero de 2024.  Revisar en febrero de 2024 la lista de prioridades de misiones a realizar teniendo en consideración las recomendaciones de los grupos <i>ad hoc</i> sobre las solicitudes.	
2	Seguimiento de los Miembros con un estatus sanitario oficial o suspendido	La Comisión revisó la solicitud de Malasia para restituir su estatus respecto de la peste equina y recomendó la restitución del estatus de país libre de peste equina.		
	Incumplimiento por parte de los Miembros que tienen un estatus zoosanitario oficial de la OMSA de las disposiciones del Código Terrestre para las importaciones de productos procedentes de países que no tienen un estatus oficial libre de enfermedad	La Comisión discutió diferentes escenarios y opciones, y posibles próximas etapas.	La Secretaría presentará un documento de debate para que la Comisión Científica y la Comisión del Código discutan más a fondo este tema en febrero de 2024.	
1	Examen de las reconfirmaciones anuales	La Comisión identificó 49 reconfirmaciones anuales para examinar exhaustivamente en febrero de 2024.		
1	Armonización de los requisitos del Código Terrestre - Capítulos para el reconocimiento oficial del estatus zoosanitario	No inscrito en el orden del día	Continuar el seguimiento del progreso de los capítulos restantes (peste equina, PCB y fiebre aftosa) antes de proponerlos para adopción.	
2	Formulario para la reconfirmación anual respecto de la EEB	La Comisión revisó y aprobó el proyecto de formulario basado en las normas de la EEB adoptadas en mayo de 2023.	El formulario se adjuntará al informe de septiembre de 2023 de la Comisión y se publicará en el sitio web. No se requieren más acciones por parte de Comisión.	
<b>Cuestiones de control de las enfermedades</b>				
2	Asesoría sobre estrategias e iniciativas globales (fiebre aftosa, PPR, rabia, PPA, influenza aviar, tuberculosis zoonótica)	Se proporcionaron actualizaciones sobre las estrategias/iniciativas mundiales para la (fiebre aftosa, la PPR, la PPA, la influenza aviar y la tuberculosis zoonótica).		

		Septiembre de 2023	Próximas etapas	Calendario
1	Consideración de los informes de los grupos ad hoc que no tratan el estatus zoosanitario o la elaboración de normas y que son de competencia de la Comisión Científica	No inscrito en el orden del día		
2	Evaluación de los progresos recientes en términos de control y erradicación de enfermedades infecciosas	Abordado en las respectivas actualizaciones sobre estrategias e iniciativas globales (PPR, PPA, influenza aviar y la tuberculosis zoonótica)		
1	Evaluación de enfermedades emergentes	La Comisión abordó el tema y recomendó el mantenimiento continuo del SARS-CoV-2 como enfermedad emergente.		
1	Evaluación de agentes patógenos con respecto a los criterios del Capítulo 1.2.	<p><b><i>Theileria orientalis</i>:</b> La Comisión tomó en consideración la opinión de expertos, solicitada en respuesta a los comentarios de los Miembros que cuestionaban el mantenimiento de la inclusión de <i>T.orientalis</i> Ikeda y Chitose.</p> <p><b>Encefalitis japonesa, encefalopatía equina del Este o del Oeste, encefalomielitis equina venezolana:</b> La Comisión tomó en consideración la opinión de expertos sobre la inclusión de las encefalitis equinas.</p>	<p>La opinión se remitió a la Comisión del Código.</p>	
1	Desarrollo de definiciones de caso	<p>La Comisión Científica elogió el trabajo asociado con los procedimientos internos para el desarrollo de definiciones de caso y los progresos realizados.</p> <p><b>Metapneumovirus aviar (rinotraqueítis del pavo):</b> La Comisión discutió los comentarios de la Comisión del Código y solicitó a la Secretaría que buscara aclaraciones del experto principal y de la Comisión de Normas Biológicas.</p> <p><b>Fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo:</b> discusión de la definición de caso con la Comisión de</p>	<p>La Secretaría realizará un seguimiento con el experto principal y la Comisión de Normas Biológicas para aclarar la información en el <i>Manual Terrestre</i>.</p> <p>La Secretaría publicará la definición de caso de fiebre hemorrágica de Crimea-Congo en el sitio web de la OMSA.</p>	<p>La Comisión Científica considerará la opinión de los expertos en febrero de 2024.</p>

		Septiembre de 2023	Próximas etapas	Calendario
		<p>Normas Biológicas y revisión con experto. La Comisión aprobó la definición de caso. También emitió una opinión sobre la cobertura del capítulo específico de enfermedad para la FHCC en el <i>Código Terrestre</i>.</p> <p><b>Gusano barrenador del Nuevo Mundo (<i>Cochliomyia hominivorax</i>) y del Viejo Mundo (<i>Chrysomya bezziana</i>):</b> discusión de la definición de caso con la Comisión de Normas Biológicas, la Comisión hizo ajustes.</p> <p><b>Enfermedad de Nairobi:</b> La Comisión tomó nota de la escasa literatura relacionada con los brotes de la enfermedad y solicitó a la Secretaría que obtuviera más información de otros expertos en la materia.</p>	<p>Remitir opinión y definición de caso revisada a la Comisión del Código.</p> <p>La Secretaría consultará a expertos en la materia sobre la aparición y el impacto de la enfermedad de Nairobi.</p>	<p>La Comisión Científica considerará la opinión de los expertos en febrero de 2024.</p>
3	Insectos	Ninguno en esta reunión		
<b>Relación con otras comisiones especializadas</b>				
1	Comisión de Normas Sanitarias para los Animales Terrestres	Ninguna en esta reunión		
1	Comisión de Normas Biológicas	Aunque no hubo reunión de enlace, la Secretaría coordinó la discusión de la definición de caso para la infección por el gusano barrenador del Viejo Mundo y del Nuevo Mundo y la FHCC.		
<b>Grupos de trabajo</b>				
2	Grupo de trabajo sobre la resistencia a los agentes antimicrobianos	No inscrito en el orden del día.		
2	Grupo de trabajo sobre la fauna silvestre	Tomó nota de la discusión del Grupo de trabajo tal como se refleja en los informes de diciembre de 2022 y junio de 2023, y solicitó información adicional sobre la discusión del Grupo de trabajo sobre la fauna silvestre y la recomendación para la	La Secretaría del Grupo de trabajo sobre la fauna silvestre proporcionará más detalles sobre las recomendaciones específicas del Grupo de trabajo sobre la fauna silvestre.	La Comisión Científica considerará las recomendaciones del Grupo de trabajo sobre la fauna silvestre en febrero de 2024.

		Septiembre de 2023	Próximas etapas	Calendario
		definición de «enfermedad emergente».		
<b>Otras actividades con posible repercusión en el programa de trabajo de la Comisión Científica</b>				
1	Evaluación de las candidaturas para la designación como Centro Colaborador de la OMSA	Ninguna en esta reunión		
3	Actualización sobre las principales conclusiones y recomendaciones de las reuniones pertinentes para el trabajo de la Comisión	Ninguna en esta reunión		
3	Actualizaciones presentadas para información de la Comisión	La Comisión recibió información actualizada sobre: el Consorcio Internacional de Investigación STAR-IDAZ; el Programa sobre la carga mundial de las enfermedades animales (GBAD) y el Centro Colaborador de la OMSA para economía de la sanidad animal; el comité editorial de la OMSA y proyecto de herramientas de navegación en línea para consultar las normas de la OMSA.		
	Otros asuntos	Ninguno en esta reunión		

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