





Regional Workshop on Rift Valley Fever Surveillance in Northern African Countries – PROVNA2

12 - 14 November 2024 Tunis, Tunisia

Surveillance of RVF

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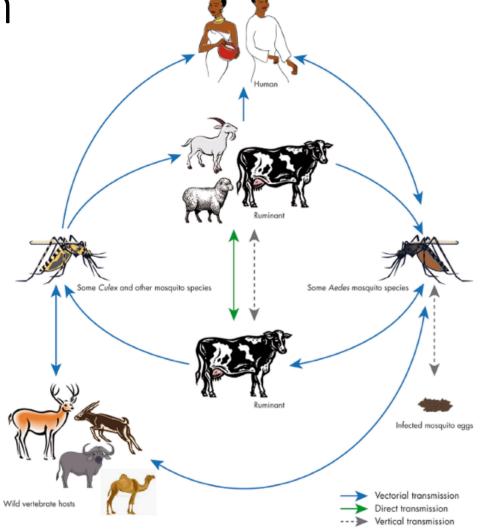








Transmission



SCIENTIFIC OPINION



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Rift Valley Fever – epidemiological update and risk of introduction into Europe









Hosts

Mortality >70%	High Mortality 10- 70%	Serious but rarely lethal disease	Develop antibodies	Insensitive	
Lambs	Ovine	Man	Dromedary	Birds	
Goat kids	Calves	Bovines	Horse	Reptiles	
Mice	Some rodents	Goats	Cat	Amphibians	
Rats		African Buffalo	Dog		
Kittens		Asian Buffalo	Pig		
Puppies		Monkey	Rabbit		
			African monkey		
			Guinea pig		



Habitats









(3)

Habitats



Tihama – Irrigation systems

Aswan Dam (Egypt)

















Rift Valley Fever in Namibia, 2010















(3)

Libya 2021









Inter-epizootic period

- Transovarial transmission
- The existence of reservoirs (wild ruminants, rodents)
- Low level circulation in domestic animals



Reservoirs Rift Valley Fever Virus among Wild Ruminants, Etosha National Park, Namibia, 2011 Andrea Company Reservoirs Rift Valley Fever Virus among Wild Ruminants, Etosha National Park, Namibia, 2011

Emerging Infectious Diseases • www.cdc.gov/eid • Vol. 22, No. 1, January 2016

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Table 1. Results of serologic and virologic testing of wild ruminants for Rift Valley fever virus, Etosha National Park, Namibia, 2011*

			Total antibodies	No. positive/no. tested (%
Animal and time of sampling	rRT-PCR	ΙgΜ	other than IgM	positive)
Springbok (<i>Antidorcas marsupialis</i>), n = 230			•	
May-Jul	_	_	_	119/200 (59.5)
•	_	_	+	37/200 (18.5)
	_	+	_	26/200 (13.0)
	+	_	-	11/200 (5.5)
	+	+	_	4/200 (2.0)
	+	_	+	3/200 (1.5)
Dec	_	_	_	20/45 (44.4)†
	_	_	+	25/45 (55.6)†
Wildebeest (Connochaetes taurinus), n = 53			•	
May–Jul	_	_	_	38/50 (76.0)
	_	_	+	12/50 (24.0)
Dec	_	_	_	6/7 (85.7)†
	_	_	+	1/7 (14.3)†
Black-faced impala (<i>Aepyceros melampus petersi</i>), n = 8			•	
Dec	_	_	_	3/8 (37.5)
	_	_	+	5/8 (62.5)

^{†15} springbok and 4 wildebeest were recaptured during the second phase of sampling (December 2011).







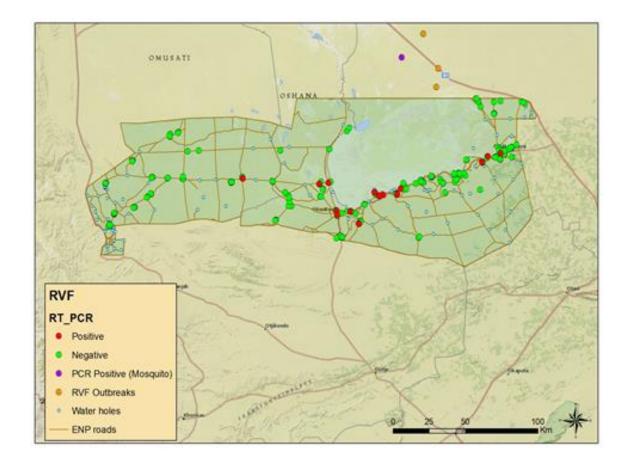


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Reservoirs















Geographic distribution

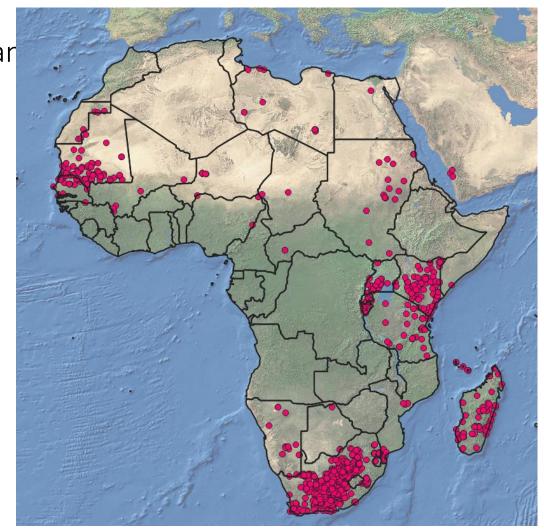
- Historically confined to the countries of sub-Saharan Africa
- Incursions in Egypt
- Yemen and Saudi Arabia (2000)
- West Africa situation
- Libya (2021)







RVF cases (animals / humar 2004-2022



Source: EMPRES-i











Objectives of surveillance activities

- Diseases that are present in the country/territory
 - For describing the spatial and temporal distribution of infection
 - For identifying the main transmission routes and risk factors
 - For estimating the incidence of infection and detecting the circulation of pathogens
- Diseases that are absent in the country/territory
 - For demonstrating freedom from disease status
 - For early detecting the incursion of new, (re)-emerging or exotic pathogens







Diseases that are present

- For estimating the incidence of infection / detecting the circulation of pathogens / estimating or assessing the spatio-temporal patterns of the infection
 - Repeated testing / sentinel animals
 - Seasonality must be taken into account and spatial distribution of sentinel animals is crucial
 - Targeted surveillance
 - In areas and period at major risk of transmission on the basis of the knowledge of vectors distribution and biology
 - Target surveillance on selected hosts
 - A throughout knowledge of the epidemiology of infection is needed
 - Modelling approaches









Use of sentinel hosts

Cons

- Difficulties in selecting the right sites in lack of entomological information
- Need for a individual animal identification system
- Relevant load of field activities

Pros

- It can give precise information about place and time of pathogen circulation
- Sentinels may be tested for various pathogens / infections

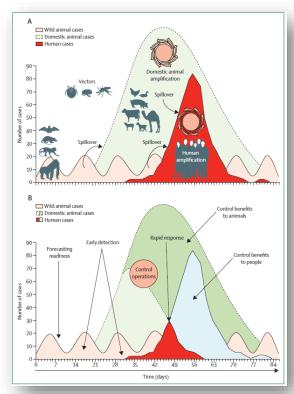


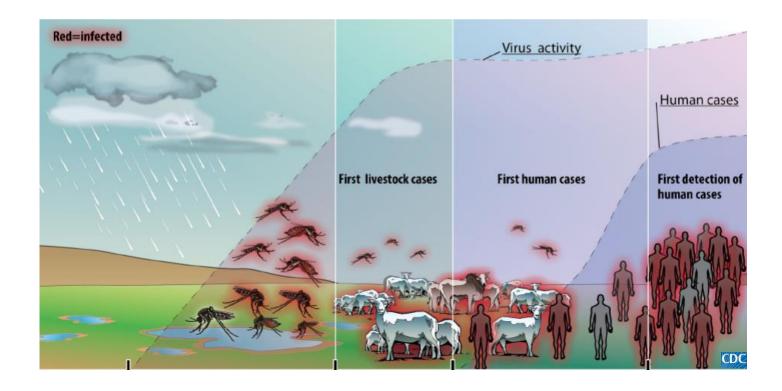






Targeting on species early infected in the transmission cycle





Karesh et al., 2012









Targeting on host species early infected

Cons

- Comprehensive knowledge of the epidemiology of the disease is needed
- In case of targeting on non domestic species: difficulties for performing sampling on wild animals
- In case of targeting on vectors: difficulties in the estimation of the Se of the system, feasibility of sampling

Pros

- Useful for zoonoses to detect the infection before human cases will occur
- Reduction of costs due to the targeting approach

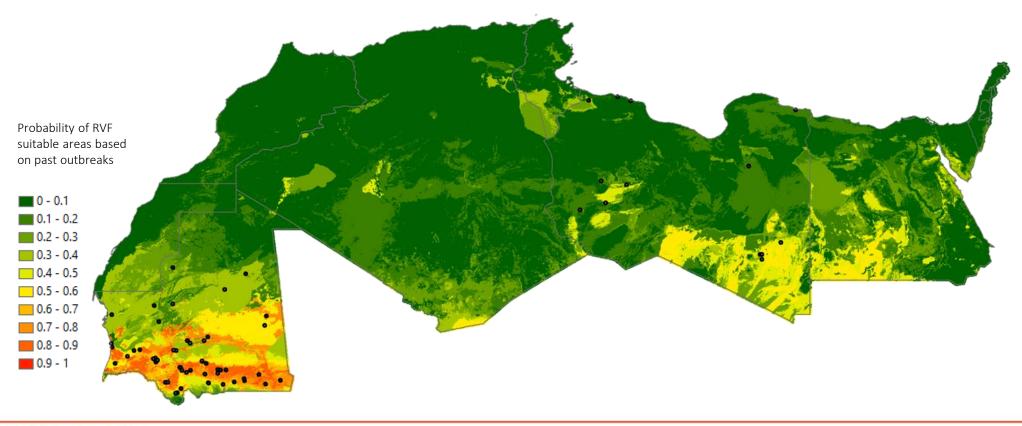




Modelling

APPLICATION of ECOREGIONS in North Africa

RVF outbreaks 2018-2022 - with ecoregions map











Modelling

Cons

- High level of uncertainty due to precision and quality of occurrence / absence data
- Variability of climatic factors

Pros

 Useful to target surveillance efforts on areas and periods more at risk









Surveillance of RVF in countries where outbreaks were observed - conclusions

- Focus on geographical areas:
 - Of most probable exposure
 - With habitat conditions favourable for mosquito proliferation
 - Where sampling is logistically more feasible
- Period of time of highest mosquito activity
- Integration with surveillance activities already in place







Where the disease is absent

- Performances of the surveillance system (Sensitivity and Specificity) MUST be assessed
- Estimation of expected delay in infection detection
- Random approaches are not useful
- Passive surveillance is always needed for clinically detectable diseases
- Risk-based approaches are the best options



Pathways for RVF spread

- Live animals
 - Relevant in Africa and Middle East
- Wind dispersal mosquitoes
 - Winds may disseminate mosquitoes across long distances, especially over sea
- Mosquitoes carried by airplanes / sea cargo
 - Invasive Mosquitoes in Europe: Aedes aegypti, Aedes albopictus, Aedes japonicus, Aedes koreicus are some examples

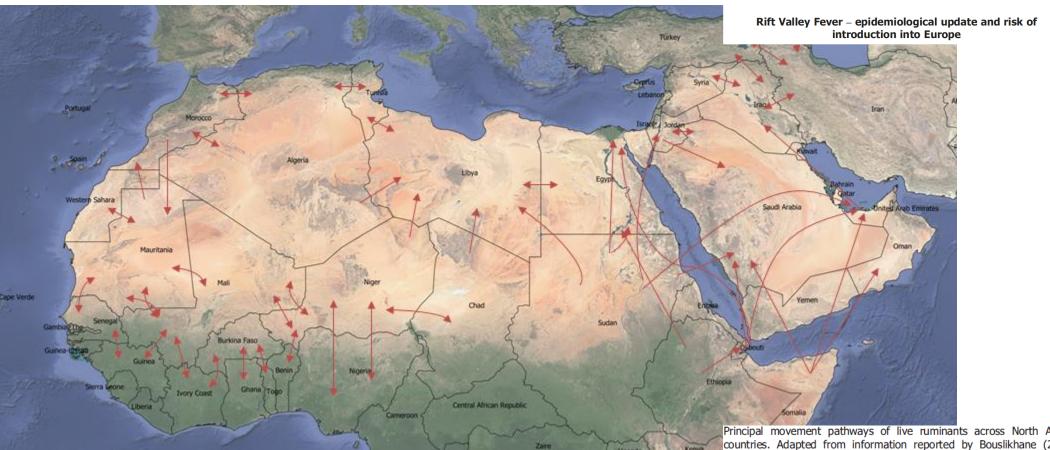


Animal pathways

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Principal movement pathways of live ruminants across North African and Middle East countries. Adapted from information reported by Bouslikhane (2015), (Di Nardo et al.,

2011), Bouguedour and Ripani (2016), Jenet et al. (2016)









Syndromic surveillance

- Surveillance that uses health-related information (clinical signs or other data) that might precede (or may substitute for) formal diagnosis.
- This information may be used to indicate a sufficient probability of a change in the health of the population either to deserve further investigation or to enable a timely assessment of the impact of health threats which may require action.
- This type of surveillance is not usually focused on a particular hazard, so can be used to detect a variety of diseases or pathogens-including new (emerging) diseases.
- This type of surveillance is particularly applicable for early-warning surveillance





Syndromic surveillance

Cons

- A very large and exhaustive dataset is needed, covering a sufficient time period (historical data)
- Difficulties in setting the "alarm" level ("false alarm" or "not detected events")
- Confounding factors may hamper the performances of the system

Pros

- Reduced costs
- Applicable to a large set of illnesses/syndromes
- It can be useful also for sub-clinical diseases







Surveillance of RVF in countries where outbreaks were **not** observed - conclusions

- Focus on geographical areas:
 - Of most probable RVF introduction (closeness with infected areas / animal collection sites from infected countries)
 - With habitat conditions favourable for mosquito proliferation
 - Where sampling is logistically more feasible
- Period of time of highest mosquito activity
- To decide the lowest level of prevalence to be detected (design prevalence)



