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6 **LITERATURE REVIEW**

7 8 **Avian Influenza in Colombia: A One Health Perspective on** 9 **Surveillance, Intervention, and Policy Integration**

10
11 *Influenza Aviar en Colombia: una perspectiva de salud única sobre vigilancia, intervención e*
12 *integración de políticas.*

13
14 *Gripe aviária em Colombia: uma perspectiva de saúde única em vigilância, intervenção e*
15 *integração de políticas.*

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 **Background:** Avian influenza remains a significant global health issue, threatening animal and
28 human populations. The natural reservoirs of influenza A viruses (IAV) are wild birds, and their
29 transmission dynamics can influence disease outbreaks in domestic poultry and humans.
30 Colombia, due to its geographic location and diverse ecosystems, faces unique challenges in
31 surveillance and control of avian influenza. **Objective:** This work aims to provide a comprehensive
32 overview of avian influenza in Colombia from a One Health perspective, highlighting surveillance,
33 intervention strategies, and policy integration to mitigate disease spread. **Methods:** A literature
34 review was conducted to consolidate data on avian influenza cases in Colombia, including reports
35 on outbreaks in poultry and wild birds. Risk factors, transmission routes, and prevention strategies
36 were analyzed, emphasizing the role of migratory birds and ecological influences. **Results:**
37 Colombia has experienced highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) outbreaks, primarily
38 affecting backyard poultry and wild birds. The review identifies key risk areas influenced by
39 migratory bird pathways, poultry farming practices, and biosecurity measures. Effective
40 surveillance systems and rapid response protocols are essential to prevent further spread.
41 **Conclusions:** Adopting a One Health approach that integrates veterinary, public health, and
42 environmental efforts is critical to mitigating avian influenza in Colombia. Strengthening
43 surveillance, improving vaccination strategies, and enhancing biosecurity measures can reduce
44 transmission risks. International cooperation is also necessary to monitor migratory bird
45 movements and implement preventive measures against potential outbreaks.

46 **Keywords:** *avian influenza; Colombia; global health; multisectoral collaboration; One Health,*
47 *public health policies.*

48

49 **Resumen**

50 **Antecedentes:** La influenza aviar sigue siendo un problema de salud pública a nivel global,
51 representando un riesgo para poblaciones animales y humanas. Las aves silvestres son reservorios
52 naturales de los virus influenza A (IAV), y su dinámica de transmisión puede influir en la

53 presentación de brotes en aves domésticas y humanos. Colombia, por su ubicación geográfica y
54 diversidad de ecosistemas, enfrenta desafíos únicos en la vigilancia y control de la influenza aviar.
55 **Objetivo:** Este trabajo tiene como objetivo proporcionar una visión integral de la influenza aviar
56 en Colombia desde la perspectiva de Una Salud, resaltando estrategias de vigilancia, intervención
57 e integración de políticas para mitigar la propagación de la enfermedad. **Métodos:** Se realizó una
58 revisión de literatura para consolidar datos sobre casos de influenza aviar en Colombia, incluyendo
59 reportes de brotes en aves de corral y silvestres. Se analizaron factores de riesgo, transmisión y
60 estrategias de prevención, con énfasis en el papel de las aves migratorias y la influencia ecológica.
61 **Resultados:** Colombia ha experimentado brotes de influenza aviar altamente patógena (IAAP),
62 afectando principalmente aves de traspatio y silvestres. La revisión identifica áreas de alto riesgo
63 influenciadas por rutas migratorias, prácticas de producción avícola y medidas de bioseguridad.
64 La implementación de sistemas de vigilancia efectivos y protocolos de respuesta rápida es clave
65 para prevenir la propagación del virus. **Conclusiones:** La adopción de un enfoque de Una Salud
66 que integre esfuerzos veterinarios, de salud pública y ambientales es fundamental para mitigar la
67 influenza aviar en Colombia. El fortalecimiento de la vigilancia, la mejora en estrategias de
68 vacunación y la implementación de medidas de bioseguridad pueden reducir el riesgo de
69 transmisión. Además, la cooperación internacional es esencial para monitorear el movimiento de
70 aves migratorias y establecer medidas preventivas contra posibles brotes.

71 **Palabras clave:** *colaboración multisectorial; Colombia; influenza aviar; políticas de salud*
72 *pública; salud global; Una Salud.*

73

74 **Resumo**

75 **Antecedentes:** A gripe aviária continua sendo um problema de saúde pública global,
76 representando riscos para populações animais e humanas. As aves selvagens são reservatórios
77 naturais dos vírus da influenza A (IAV), e sua dinâmica de transmissão pode influenciar surtos em
78 aves domésticas e humanos. A Colômbia, devido à sua localização geográfica e diversidade
79 ecológica, enfrenta desafios específicos na vigilância e controle da gripe aviária. **Objetivo:** Este
80 estudo visa fornecer uma visão abrangente da gripe aviária na Colômbia a partir de uma
81 perspectiva de Saúde Única, destacando a vigilância, estratégias de intervenção e integração de
82 políticas para mitigar a propagação da doença. **Métodos:** Foi realizada uma revisão da literatura
83 para consolidar dados sobre casos de gripe aviária na Colômbia, incluindo registros de surtos em

84 aves domésticas e selvagens. Foram analisados fatores de risco, rotas de transmissão e estratégias
85 de prevenção, com ênfase no papel das aves migratórias e na influência ecológica. **Resultados:**
86 A Colômbia registrou surtos de gripe aviária altamente patogênica (HPAI), afetando
87 principalmente aves de quintal e selvagens. A revisão identifica áreas de alto risco influenciadas
88 por rotas migratórias, práticas de avicultura e medidas de biossegurança. Sistemas eficazes de
89 vigilância e protocolos de resposta rápida são essenciais para evitar a propagação do vírus.
90 **Conclusões:** A adoção de uma abordagem de Saúde Única que integre esforços veterinários, de
91 saúde pública e ambientais é crucial para mitigar a gripe aviária na Colômbia. O fortalecimento da
92 vigilância, a melhoria das estratégias de vacinação e a implementação de medidas de
93 biossegurança podem reduzir os riscos de transmissão. Além disso, a cooperação internacional é
94 essencial para monitorar o movimento das aves migratórias e implementar medidas preventivas
95 contra surtos potenciais.

96
97 **Palavras-chave:** *colaboração multissetorial; Colômbia; gripe aviária; saúde global; One Health;*
98 *políticas de saúde pública.*

100 **Introduction**

101 Influenza is a significant global health concern due to its potential impact on animal and human
102 populations. This emerging infectious disease, primarily caused by type A influenza viruses (IAV),
103 has been the subject of extensive study worldwide as increased incidence has been observed over
104 the past decades [1]. IAVs have caused one of the more prevalent acute respiratory diseases, with
105 millions of severe illnesses and human deaths throughout history [2]. Besides the regular seasonal
106 outbreaks caused by human IAV, infections may be caused by IAV from animals, notably birds
107 and swine [3]. Therefore, added to the seasonal burden of IAV in humans, there is a constant risk
108 of developing novel IAV strains with pandemic potential [4]. In Colombia, the presence and
109 dynamics of animal influenza pose significant challenges to public health and agricultural sectors.
110 Understanding the current landscape of avian influenza in Colombia is essential for devising
111 effective prevention and control strategies. This introduction sets the stage for a comprehensive
112 examination of bird influenza in Colombia, emphasizing the need for research and
113 multidisciplinary collaboration to address this complex issue. The aim of this work is to
114 consolidate existing research on avian influenza, offering a comprehensive understanding of its

115 prevalence, impact, and management strategies. This paper emphasizes the importance of a One
116 Health approach, advocating for enhanced multisectoral collaboration between veterinary,
117 medical, ecological, and public health sectors. It seeks to highlight factors and vulnerable regions
118 susceptible to outbreaks, promote early detection systems, vaccination programs, and to integrate
119 several considerations for public and animal health decision makers to protect both animal and
120 human populations in Colombia.

121

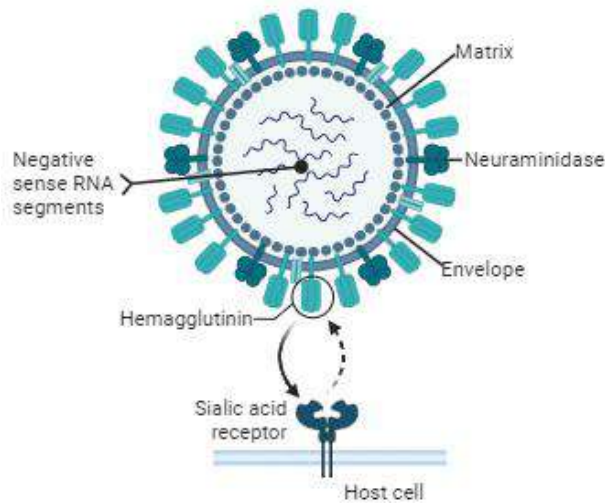
122 **Eco-epidemiology of Avian influenza virus**

123 The eco-epidemiology of the avian influenza virus encompasses the intricate interplay between
124 ecological factors and the epidemiology of the virus within avian populations and their
125 environments. Avian influenza, caused by various subtypes of IAV, poses significant threats to
126 animal and human health worldwide. Understanding the eco-epidemiology of IAV is essential for
127 elucidating the transmission dynamics, spatial distribution, and risk factors associated with avian
128 IAV outbreaks.

129

130 Influenza viruses are negative-sense single-stranded RNA viruses in the family Orthomyxoviridae.
131 There are four types (A, B, C, and D), of which only types A and B are the most relevant for animal
132 and human health [5]. Their genome comprises 8 segments (Figure 1) with a total length of ~13.6
133 kb [6]. Type A Influenza viruses are categorized into subtypes based on their surface proteins,
134 hemagglutinin (HA) and neuraminidase (NA). To date, 19 types of HA and 11 types of NA have
135 been recognized [7,8]. Over 130 influenza A subtype combinations have been identified in nature,
136 primarily from wild birds, considered the natural reservoir of influenza A viruses (IAVs) with the
137 greatest diversity of subtypes [9]. Only type A influenza viruses (IAV) are known to cause natural
138 infections in avian species. The HA protein is essential in cell entry and interactions with the host
139 immune system, while the NA protein catalyzes viral release from infected cells [10].

140



141
 142 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram representing the structure and composition of type A Influenza
 143 Virus. Two surface proteins, hemagglutinin (HA) and neuraminidase (NA). The matrix protein and
 144 the viral envelope are derived from the host plasma membrane. The ribonucleoprotein complex is
 145 where each viral RNA segment is covered with nucleoproteins and a polymerase and serves as a
 146 fundamental unit for the transcription and replication of the viral genome. Created in
 147 Biorender.com

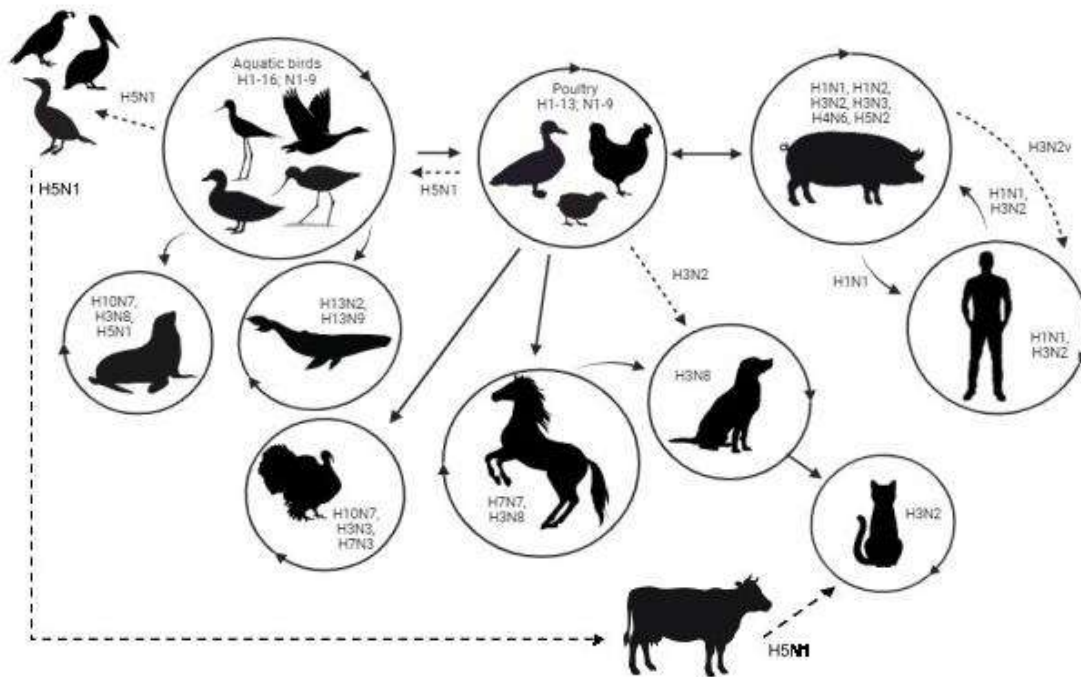
148
 149 Influenza A viruses are highly adaptable, evading host immune responses and infecting new host
 150 species [11]. This is mainly because the RNA-dependent RNA polymerase, an enzyme that
 151 catalyzes the replication of the viral RNA, is error-prone. Therefore, there is no error correction
 152 during virus replication. In addition, the segmented genome structure of the virus allows genetic
 153 re-assortment, which is the exchange of entire segments between viruses co-infecting a cell, a
 154 primary process for virus evolution [12].

155
 156 Host tissue tropism is a crucial element for the transmission of IAV. For example, in avian hosts,
 157 most IAV primarily infects intestinal tissue and, to a lesser degree, respiratory organs, which are
 158 thus shed via feces and respiratory secretions. Thus, the pathogenicity of avian influenza also
 159 varies. IAVs generally cause mild disease in wild birds [6]. However, some strains (e.g., H5N1)
 160 can cause systemic and highly pathogenic disease in avian and mammal hosts [13–15]. Influenza
 161 A viruses that infect poultry can be categorized into two groups according to their capacity to
 162 induce illness in chickens [16]. There is a current designation for IAVs as high or low-

163 pathogenicity strains based on the severity of illness in poultry. The hallmark of highly pathogenic
164 IAV is the presence of specific mutations in the hemagglutinin (HA) gene, particularly in the
165 cleavage site, allowing the virus to be processed by a wider range of enzymes, facilitating systemic
166 infection in birds when compared to similar low pathogenicity forms [17–19]. The group of viruses
167 causing low pathogenic avian influenza (LPAI), can cause an asymptomatic or mild disease, and
168 in contrast, viruses causing highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) cause a severe disease with
169 rapid mortality [16].

170

171 The ecology of IAV depends on the complex virus transmission patterns, which are driven by
172 interactions between the host community, the environment, and co-evolution between the host and
173 pathogen [20]. Globalization, climate change, land use, and other factors from anthropogenic
174 environmental changes have altered the ecology and evolution of IAV; therefore, understanding
175 these complex relationships would enable the identification of ways to mitigate the emergence of
176 the following pandemic strains [21–23]. To date, there is a vast knowledge of ecological and
177 molecular determinants responsible for the IAV interspecies transmission. Most documented
178 transmission events are focused explicitly on avian-derived influenza subtypes, which involve
179 zoonotic and epizootic transmission to other hosts (Figure 2).



180

181 **Figure 2.** Representative diagram of interspecies transmission events of Influenza A viruses and
182 the subtypes involved in these events. Solid arrows represent direct transmission events with
183 sustained transmission. Dashed arrows represent sporadic infections with no sustained
184 transmission. Created using Inkscape.

185

186 **Avian Influenza Current Landscape**

187 Avian influenza represents a significant infectious disease threat to wild bird populations and
188 domestic poultry worldwide. Aquatic birds of the orders Anseriformes (ducks and geese) and
189 Charadriiformes (shorebirds and gulls) are the primary reservoir of IAV. These group of species
190 have been found infected with most known IAV subtypes [24]. Co-infections in the same avian
191 host of two viral subtypes enable the reassortment of viral genetic segments and have helped spawn
192 the diversity of IAV strains globally [20]. In addition, the high diversity and spread of some of
193 these viruses are linked to the migratory nature of the wild bird species [25–28]. Viruses are shed
194 in bird feces and later acquired by other birds with the same habitat along migratory flyways
195 [27,29–31]. Thus, the migration of wild birds between locations poses a persistent risk of
196 transmission of avian influenza [27,32].

197

198 In passerine birds, the low prevalence of infection has suggested that they act as spillover hosts,
199 however, some peri-domestic species (such as house sparrows) may be involved in virus spread
200 between poultry farms [4]. Pigeons have been naturally infected and susceptible to highly
201 pathogenic avian influenza. However, their role in virus transmission remains unknown [33].
202 Several factors affect IAV transmission in avian populations. Among them, virus shedding,
203 stability in the environment, and the degree of interaction with other species are the most described
204 [34]. Prolonged virus shedding from bird species facilitates the efficient transmission of IAV in
205 aquatic ecosystems [31]. The environmental persistence and infectivity of IAV depend on several
206 ecological factors, including atmospheric and environmental conditions [35–38]. Also, virus
207 shedding is related to the age and development of the avian immune system [39,40].

208

209 In poultry, the introduction and spread of avian IAV can have devastating effects, leading to high
210 mortality rates and significant economic losses [41,42]. The rapid transmission of avian IAV
211 within densely populated poultry farms can result in widespread outbreaks, requiring stringent

212 biosecurity measures and rapid response protocols to prevent further dissemination [43]. The
213 emergence and spread of avian influenza, particularly in poultry, has become a growing global
214 concern, with both HPAI and LPAI strains posing significant threats to animal health, public
215 health, and international trade [44]. While waterfowl and other wild birds seem to be responsible,
216 either directly or indirectly, for most IAV transmissions to domestic poultry, other possibilities
217 should not be dismissed [45]. For example, IAV can be transmitted from infected pigs to poultry
218 [46]. Also, the virus spread by personnel and fomites or shared contaminated water or food may
219 become relevant in transmitting IAV in poultry [47].

220

221 Since the 90s, outbreaks of LPAI in poultry have been commonly reported in several world
222 locations [47]. However, sporadic outbreaks of HPAI have been of significant concern due to their
223 pandemic potential and considerable threat to public health [48]. HPAI has also catastrophically
224 impacted backyard poultry [20,49–51]. Transmission of HPAI viruses from domestic poultry to
225 wild bird populations has also been reported [42]. Since 2014, a highly pathogenic avian influenza
226 virus of H5 subtype, particularly clade 2.3.4.4, has caused global outbreaks in domestic poultry,
227 occasional transmission to humans, and a growing number of deaths among various wild bird
228 species [25].

229

230 Furthermore, diagnostic techniques and laboratory testing play a critical role in the prevention,
231 control, and surveillance of avian influenza. Rapid and accurate detection of the virus through
232 molecular methods, such as RT-PCR testing, allows for timely intervention to contain outbreaks
233 and prevent further spread [52,53]. In countries like Colombia, where the poultry industry is vital
234 for the economy, the ability to quickly detect and respond to avian influenza is crucial. Thus,
235 limited access to advanced diagnostic infrastructure, poses challenges, making it harder to contain
236 outbreaks and prevent spillover into human populations, potentially leading to economic and
237 public health impacts [54–56]. Strengthening laboratory capacities and international collaborations
238 is essential for countries like Colombia to effectively manage the threat of avian influenza.

239

240 **Human-animal health and avian influenza**

241 The interface between human and animal health plays a crucial role in the epidemiology and
242 control of infectious diseases, including avian influenza. Animal influenza, particularly avian and

243 swine influenza, can have important consequences for human health because of the possibility of
244 transmission between animals and humans [57]. In rare instances, avian IAV can cross the species
245 barrier to infect humans, leading to severe respiratory illness and, in some cases, death [58].
246 Several avian IAV strains have been fatal in a small proportion of infected individuals, most of
247 whom had close contact with domestic poultry [31,59]. Notable examples include the H5N1 and
248 H7N9 avian IAV, which have caused sporadic outbreaks in humans with high mortality rates in
249 certain instances [60]. The outbreak of H7N9 in China, which caused high morbidity and case
250 fatality in humans, has been one of the more severe zoonotic infections from avian IAV [61,62].
251 Poultry markets have been demonstrated to harbor a variety of IAVs [63–65]. Since 2019,
252 individuals in 17 countries within five continents have been reported as infected with avian IAV
253 from five emerging subtypes (H5N8, H10N3, H3N8, H10N5, and H5N2) and four re-emerging
254 subtypes (H5N1, H5N6, H7N9, and H9N2) [60].

255
256 In recent years, the role of backyard poultry in the transmission dynamics of IAV has garnered
257 increasing attention. Backyard poultry, often kept by households for subsistence or small-scale
258 production purposes, can serve as reservoirs for various influenza strains, including those with
259 zoonotic potential [66]. While commercial poultry operations have historically been the focus of
260 surveillance and control efforts, backyard poultry populations have emerged as significant
261 contributors to influenza transmission due to their proximity to humans and other animals and
262 limited biosecurity measures [67–69]. The interaction between backyard poultry and humans
263 presents a unique challenge in influenza management. In this scenario, individuals who maintain
264 backyard flocks are often in close contact with their birds, increasing the risk of zoonotic
265 transmission of IAV [70]. Furthermore, mixing diverse bird species within backyard settings can
266 facilitate the exchange of influenza viruses, leading to novel reassortant strains with unpredictable
267 pathogenicity and transmissibility [71]. In Colombia, the recent outbreak of avian influenza
268 significantly impacted backyard poultry (Fig 3.). The virus, introduced through migratory wild
269 birds, spread quickly among domestic flocks, leading to high mortality rates in affected areas [72].
270 Backyard birds, often raised in less controlled environments, are particularly vulnerable to
271 infection due to close contact with wild birds and lack of biosecurity measures. Despite their
272 importance in influenza ecology, backyard poultry populations are often overlooked in
273 surveillance and control strategies [73]. Limited resources, infrastructure, and awareness among

274 backyard poultry keepers compound the challenges of monitoring and managing influenza
275 outbreaks in these settings [67,70]. Nevertheless, proactive measures such as educational
276 campaigns, improved biosecurity practices, and enhanced surveillance efforts can help mitigate
277 the risk of IAV transmission in backyard poultry populations and reduce the potential for zoonotic
278 spillover events [74,75].

279

280 Throughout human history, four influenza pandemics—occurring in 1918, 1957, 1968, and 2009—
281 have resulted in millions of deaths worldwide [2,76]. The most recent pandemic, which occurred
282 a decade ago, was caused by a novel reassortant strain of IAV H1N1 subtype. This strain, which
283 originated in Mexico, contained genetic material from swine, avian, and human influenza viruses
284 [77]. While efforts to prevent and control influenza have largely focused on the 2009 H1N1
285 pandemic strain, there are deep concerns over the pandemic potential of avian IAV, particularly
286 the HPAI H5N1 subtype, which has become panzootic in poultry globally [78]. While H1N1, a
287 human-adapted virus, demonstrated its pandemic potential during the 2009 outbreak, spreading
288 rapidly through human-to-human transmission and affecting millions globally [79], among the
289 avian strains, the H5N2, primarily a bird-adapted virus, is causing widespread outbreaks in poultry
290 with devastating effects on agriculture [80]. Although H5N2 has limited human infections, its
291 potential to reassort or mutate poses a future threat of cross-species transmission [81]. Also, the
292 H5N1 IAV subtype has garnered significant attention due to its imminent pandemic risk and its
293 high fatality rate in humans [82,83]. Recent outbreaks of H5N1 IAV in animals such as alpacas,
294 cats, cattle, and humans across North America [84–87] clearly illustrate the interconnectedness of
295 human and animal health in the context of zoonotic diseases. These cases highlight the critical
296 need for robust surveillance, early detection, and control measures to prevent the emergence of
297 novel influenza strains with pandemic potential [48,57].

298

299 **Agriculture, globalization, land use, climate change and influenza**

300 The interplay between agriculture, globalization, land use, climate change, and influenza
301 represents a complex web of factors influencing IAV transmission and emergence dynamics.
302 Changes in agriculture practices due to globalization and shifts in land use have transformed
303 landscapes and ecosystems, thus changing the dynamics among humans, animals, and the

304 environment [88,89]. These alterations can significantly impact the ecology and epidemiology of
305 IAVs, influencing how they spread, survive, and evolve [90,91].

306
307 Avian IAV H5N1 (clade 2.3.4.4b) has recently emerged as a highly pathogenic strain with
308 significant implications for livestock, including outbreaks affecting cows and other domestic
309 species in the United States [92]. While avian influenza primarily impacts birds, the spread of the
310 virus to cattle poses a unique threat to the agricultural sector. Outbreaks among livestock can lead
311 to severe economic losses, as affected herds may require quarantine and testing to prevent further
312 spread [93]. As mentioned before, some avian species (passerine birds) may play a role as possible
313 vectors for dissemination of IAV, such as LPAI H7N9 strain [94], a virus that has caused infections
314 in humans and poultry in Asia [95,96]. Thus, The interconnection between humans, wildlife, and
315 domestic livestock, particularly through shared environments and water sources, heightens the risk
316 of transmission [97], and effective control measures will be essential to mitigate the impact of
317 these outbreaks on the animal industry and maintain agricultural stability [75].

318
319 Globalization has enabled swift transportation of goods, individuals, and animals across borders,
320 fostering greater interconnectedness among regions and continents [98]. Intensive livestock
321 production systems, characterized by large-scale farming operations and high animal densities,
322 such as pork production, have become common in many parts of the world to meet the demands
323 of a growing global population [99]. However, these systems can create ideal conditions for the
324 emergence and spread of IAV, promoting transmission between animals and facilitating spillover
325 events to humans [100,101].

326
327 Changes in land use, driven by urbanization, deforestation, and agricultural expansion, can alter
328 the habitats of wildlife and domestic animals, bringing them closer to humans [102]. This
329 encroachment into natural ecosystems can disrupt ecological balances and increase the risk of
330 cross-species transmission of zoonotic viruses [103]. Additionally, climate change can potentially
331 influence the distribution and behavior of influenza hosts, such as migratory birds, further
332 complicating efforts to predict and control influenza outbreaks [104].

333

334 Ecosystems, such as wetlands, provide critical ecological services and habitat for wild birds;
335 however, over the past centuries, these natural ecosystems have been subjected to anthropogenic
336 changes for development, agriculture, and domestic water use [4,105]. Land use transformation
337 and the increased demand for freshwater by humankind, in association with global climate change,
338 are expected to alter the availability of natural wetlands drastically [4]. But, some species, like
339 waterfowl, have well adapted to human-altered landscapes and prospered over the past decades
340 [106,107]. The impact of these changes in avian influenza ecology is unexplored. Changes in land
341 use that result in higher concentrations of waterfowl, stress, or close proximity to domestic birds
342 are likely to result in the heightened transmission of influenza within flocks and transmission
343 across different species [108,109]. Using IAV surveillance data from 2006–2020 in Denmark,
344 researchers identified strong associations between IAV and landscape factors, particularly coastal
345 areas and wetlands, which significantly influenced IAV presence due to the attraction of waterfowl
346 and migrating birds [110]. A recent research on the migration of northern pintail and Eurasian
347 wigeon in the East Asian-Australasian Flyway demonstrated the role of these species in the avian
348 IAV transmission, with both species showing a preference for rice paddies, increasing outbreak
349 risks in these rapidly changing landscapes [111]. Another study highlighted the significant role of
350 wild waterfowl, particularly Anatidae species, in the transmission of avian IAV to domestic
351 livestock, specifically poultry, through shared habitats. GPS telemetry data revealed that wild
352 ducks frequently utilized dairy and beef cattle feed lots, retention ponds, and occasionally poultry
353 facilities for roosting and foraging, increasing the risk of IAV transmission [112].

354

355 In addition, universities and other institutions play a crucial role in the research, management, and
356 prevention of avian influenza outbreaks. Through interdisciplinary research, they contribute to
357 understanding virus transmission dynamics, developing vaccines, and improving diagnostic
358 techniques [113]. Universities also collaborate with public health agencies to create evidence-
359 based strategies for disease control and prevention [114,115], training future scientists and
360 policymakers in the process [116]. Furthermore, their role in public awareness campaigns has been
361 key in preventing the spread of misinformation during outbreaks [117,118].

362

363 Thus, the complex interactions between agriculture, globalization, land use, ecology of avian
364 influenza reservoirs/hosts and climate change underscore the need for a One Health approach to

365 influenza surveillance and control [119,120]. By acknowledging the interdependence of human,
366 animal, and environmental health, policymakers and researchers can create comprehensive
367 approaches to reduce the impact of this disease on public health and agriculture [121]. These
368 approaches may include improved biosecurity practices, early warning systems for emerging
369 diseases, sustainable land management practices, and efforts to mitigate climate change.
370 Ultimately, addressing these multifaceted challenges are essential for preventing and controlling
371 influenza outbreaks and safeguarding the health and well-being of populations worldwide [122].

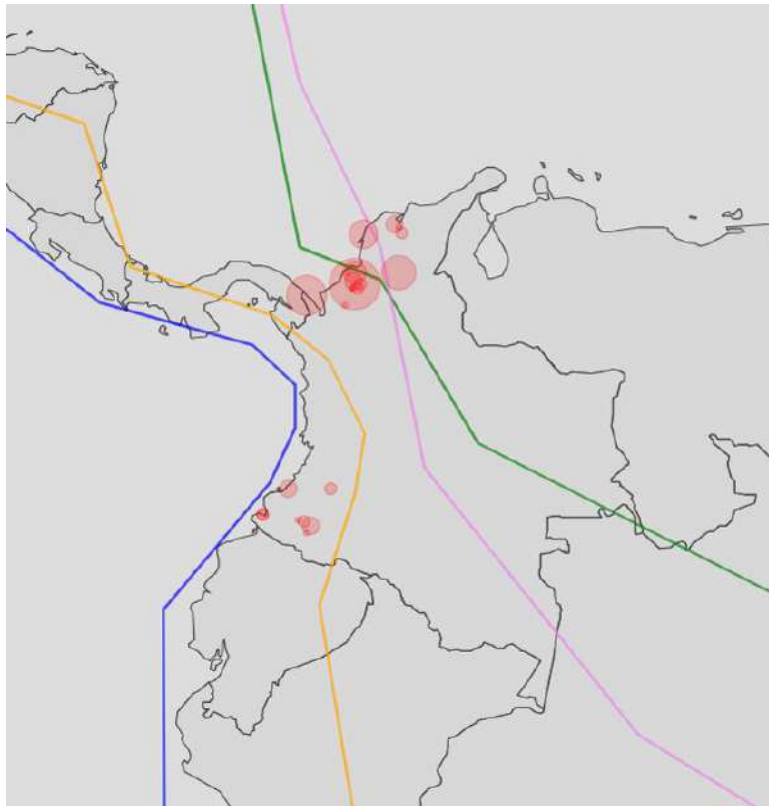
372

373 **Current Landscape of Avian Influenza Virus in Colombia**

374 Colombia is situated in a region known for its rich avian biodiversity and agricultural importance
375 at the crossroads of South and Central America. Colombia faces unique challenges in mitigating
376 the spread of avian influenza and preventing outbreaks among poultry populations. Despite efforts
377 to monitor and control the spread of the disease, avian influenza remains a persistent threat in
378 Colombia. In this country, the presence of avian IAV has been documented in both wild bird
379 populations and domestic poultry [123–125]. Colombia's varied ecosystems offer habitats for
380 numerous bird species, including migratory birds [126] that could act as carriers for transmitting
381 IAV.

382 Migratory bird routes in the Americas, known as flyways, are critical pathways that many avian
383 species follow during their seasonal migrations between breeding and wintering grounds [127].
384 These routes stretch from North America to South America, passing through key areas such as
385 Colombia. Colombia plays a crucial role in these migrations due to its location in the heart of the
386 continent and its diverse ecosystems, which provide essential stopover sites for birds to rest and
387 refuel (Fig. 3). However, as seen in other locations, the movement of large numbers of birds
388 through the region also increases the risk of disease transmission, particularly avian influenza
389 [128]. The migratory birds can spread avian influenza viruses along their flyways, as seen recently,
390 beginning 2024, when an important outbreak of avian influenza affecting wild bird species and
391 poultry occurred in several latin american countries, including Colombia [72] (Fig. 3).

392



393

394

395 **Figure 3.** Map showing the location of the avian influenza outbreaks confirmed in Colombia
396 during 2022-2024. The figure also illustrates the migratory flyways followed every year by austral
397 and boreal migratory birds species. Red circles indicate the number of outbreaks reported in
398 backyard poultry and wild birds. Pacific flyway (blue), Central flyway (yellow),
399 Austral flyway (violet), Mississippi and Atlantic flyways (green). Created using Openstreet maps
400 (Leaflet package) and R software v.4.4.1.

401

402

403 Additionally, Colombia's poultry industry, although smaller in scale than some other countries,
404 plays a crucial role in domestic food production and rural livelihoods [129,130]. Colombia is the
405 fourth largest broiler and egg producer in Latin America [131]. Also, backyard poultry represent
406 an important source of food security for rural communities in latin American countries such as
407 Colombia [132–134]. In 2013, H5N2 viruses were isolated from resident species of whistling
408 ducks (*Dendrocygna* genus) in the Llanos region of Colombia. These viruses were similar to wild
409 bird viruses from North America, and exhibited low pathogenicity in chickens and mammals.

410 However, these findings within a small area of Colombia underscored the need of an improved
411 monitoring of animal influenza across regions in the country, including the potential transmission
412 of low-pathogenic H5N2 viruses from wild birds to domestic poultry and the emergence of
413 reassortant viruses in domestic swine [123]. Live animal markets play a crucial role in providing
414 food and supporting trade in many countries, but they also have the potential to act as hubs for the
415 emergence and transmission of avian influenza viruses [135,136]. In 2015, Avian H11 influenza
416 virus were isolated from domestic poultry in a live animal market located in the northern region of
417 the Colombia. In this study, the genetic similarity of the Colombian H11 viruses to North and
418 South American shorebirds strains suggested that the occurrence may have been the result of a
419 spillover event from wild birds to domestic poultry [124]. In addition, between 2022 and February
420 2024, Colombia experienced a rise in avian influenza outbreaks, reporting a total of 66 cases. Of
421 these, 60 occurred in backyard poultry, while 6 were detected in wild bird populations, along with
422 740 reported alerts or notifications [72,137]. Stringent biosecurity measures within the poultry
423 industry managed to keep the virus out of commercial production. This situation showed the highly
424 potential economic and social impact of the spread of the HPAI virus in this country, triggering
425 and forcing private and public sectors to work on regulatory frameworks and guidelines for
426 implementing a national vaccination program against avian influenza in poultry [138].

427
428 Several factors contribute to the risk of avian IAV outbreaks in Colombia. The country's
429 geographical location makes it susceptible to introducing avian IAV through migratory bird routes
430 and trade activities. Domestic poultry production ranges from high biosecurity commercial farms
431 to backyard poly-culture farming, where domestic poultry often come into contact with wild birds
432 [139]. Furthermore, the movement and mixing of domestic poultry to live poultry markets, where
433 multiple species are usually housed together regardless of origin, enhance the spread and mixing
434 of IAVs [124,136,140]. Socio-economic factors such as limited biosecurity measures in informal
435 poultry production systems increase the likelihood of virus transmission within domestic poultry
436 populations [70].

437
438 To address the threat of avian IAV, Colombia should enforce and implement robust surveillance
439 and control measures aimed at early detection and containment of outbreaks. These efforts may
440 include regular monitoring of poultry farms, wild birds, and backyard animals for rapid response

441 protocols when suspected cases in high-risk areas are detected. Furthermore, it is crucial to
442 collaborate with international organizations and neighboring countries to exchange information
443 and coordinate responses to avian IAV threats. Despite these efforts, challenges remain for
444 effectively managing avian IAV in Colombia. Limited resources and infrastructure pose barriers
445 to comprehensive surveillance and control measures for infectious diseases [141–144].
446 Furthermore, the emergence of HPAI strains with zoonotic potential underscores the need for
447 ongoing vigilance and preparedness in the face of evolving influenza threats. Moving forward, a
448 multidisciplinary approach that integrates veterinary, public health and environmental expertise is
449 essential for addressing the complex challenges posed by avian IAV in Colombia. By enhancing
450 surveillance systems, improving biosecurity practices, and promoting collaboration across sectors,
451 Colombia can better protect both animal and human populations from the impacts of avian
452 influenza.

453

454 **One Health Approach to Avian Influenza Management**

455 Avian influenza presents a complex challenge at the intersection of human, animal, and
456 environmental health. The One Health (OH) approach recognizes the interconnectedness of these
457 domains and emphasizes collaborative efforts to address health threats that transcend species
458 boundaries [145]. In the context of avian IAV management, the OH approach is paramount, as the
459 virus can potentially infect various avian and mammalian species, including humans. This
460 approach integrates expertise from diverse disciplines, including veterinary medicine, public
461 health, ecology, epidemiology, and social sciences [146]. Influenza outbreaks in Asia prompted
462 the adoption of the OH approach [147–149]. Evaluation and ongoing surveillance of poultry
463 systems and investigations at the animal-human interface identified human exposure routes and
464 viral persistence factors [150]. Epidemiological studies and molecular analysis revealed the role
465 of live poultry markets and interventions in interrupting transmission [151]. Enhanced biosecurity
466 and vaccination prevented further human H5N1 cases and reduced poultry outbreaks [152]. Similar
467 strategies aided in understanding and preventing other disease outbreaks [122]. Therefore, the OH
468 approach was practical to identify pathways for zoonotic transmission in different epidemiological
469 scenarios, understand the genetic evolution of the virus, and highlight the need for early detection
470 improvement of proper biosecurity practices and awareness among the poultry raisers, traders, and
471 consumers [149,153]. By fostering interdisciplinary collaboration, the OH approach allows for a

472 more thorough comprehension of the factors that impact avian IAV transmission, spread, and
473 impact. One key aspect of this approach is surveillance. Surveillance systems that monitor avian
474 IAV in animal and human populations are essential for early detection of outbreaks and timely
475 response efforts [154]. Veterinary surveillance in poultry farms' backyards and wild bird
476 populations can provide valuable data on virus circulation [114]. In contrast, human surveillance
477 helps identify cases of zoonotic transmission and monitor for potential pandemic strains [155]. In
478 addition to surveillance, prevention and control measures are critical. Even though vaccination has
479 not yet been officially implemented in avian and swine species in Colombia, strict biosecurity
480 measures on poultry farms and improved prevention in backyard systems will reduce the risk of
481 virus introduction, transmission, and spread [156]. Also, in this scenario, promoting vaccination
482 in human and animal populations is key [157]. Educating stakeholders about safe handling
483 practices and the risks associated with avian IAV is highly recommended [158].

484
485 Furthermore, the OH approach recognizes the role of environmental factors in avian IAV
486 transmission. Environmental surveillance, which involves monitoring water sources and
487 ecosystems for the presence of avian IAV viruses, can also provide valuable insights into the
488 ecological drivers of virus circulation and inform targeted intervention strategies [159,160].
489 Climate change patterns seem to relate to the global spread of HPAI, causing mass mortalities in
490 previously unaffected bird species posing threats to agriculture and human health due to mutations
491 and sustained presence in poultry systems [161]. The introduction of HPAI H5 clade (2.3.4.4b)
492 viruses into the Americas in 2021–2022 marked unprecedented expansion in the geography and
493 impact of HPAI [162]. Anthropogenic climate change may intensify HPAI dynamics in wild birds
494 through temperature shifts, extreme weather events, and alterations in bird behavior and disease
495 risks [163,164]. Advancing HPAI research in this climate change era demands interdisciplinary
496 and international collaboration [165]. Studying host ecology, virus dynamics, and anthropogenic-
497 climate interactions at various scales poses integration challenges [164]. International
498 collaboration is also vital to the OH approach to infectious disease management [166]. Given the
499 global nature of avian IAV, coordinated efforts between countries are essential for sharing
500 information, resources, and best practices [167]. Collaborative research initiatives, capacity-
501 building programs, and cross-border surveillance networks will strengthen global preparedness
502 and response to infectious disease threats [168].

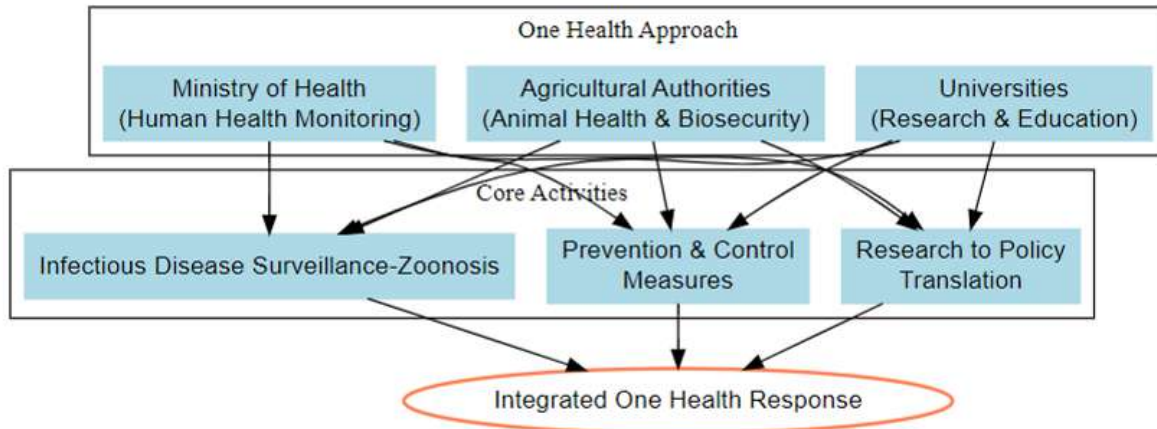
503

504 In Colombia, several studies have shown the circulation of animal influenza viruses in several
505 populations [72,123,124,144,169,170], but few of them have focused on exploring the interspecies
506 transmission patterns. However, the fact that swine and poultry populations, horses, as well as wild
507 birds species have been reported infected by IAV in this country, as well as experiences observed
508 in other countries regarding interspecies transmission patterns, and the effect of globalization,
509 climate, and other, emphasizes the need of collaborative efforts between disciplines to address
510 IAV from a wider approach.

511

512 The OH approach should also involve the creation of a collaborative framework that emphasizes
513 the roles and synergies between national entities like agricultural authorities and the Ministry of
514 Health, alongside universities [171]. International organizations (World Health Organization,
515 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, United Nations Environment
516 Programme and World Organisation for Animal Health) have provided a framework for
517 integrating human, animal, and environmental health sectors to collaboratively address health
518 challenges such as zoonotic diseases, antimicrobial resistance, and ecosystem health [172]. Within
519 this framework, each entity contributes to infectious disease surveillance, prevention, and response
520 at different levels (Fig. 4). The Ministry of Health would lead in monitoring human health impacts,
521 while agricultural authorities would oversee animal health and biosecurity measures. Universities,
522 as research hubs, would be central to generating scientific knowledge, developing diagnostic tools,
523 and training future experts in zoonotic diseases. This integration would foster a more coordinated
524 effort to combat zoonoses like avian influenza, with universities playing a key role in translating
525 research into policy and actionable strategies.

526



527

528 **Figure 4.** One Health Framework showing relationships and contributions at different levels of
 529 entities and key stakeholders to infectious disease surveillance, prevention, and response.

530

531 **Bridging Gaps**

532 Effective IAV surveillance and rapid response are critical for Animal influenza control efforts
 533 [173]. In Colombia, enhancing surveillance systems and response strategies is essential for early
 534 detection and containment of bird influenza outbreaks. By leveraging innovative surveillance
 535 tools, strengthening laboratory capacity, and improving coordination among stakeholders, the
 536 country can enhance the ability to detect, monitor, and respond to avian influenza threats [148].
 537 While Colombia has made strides in monitoring and controlling avian influenza outbreaks,
 538 significant gaps remain in its surveillance and response mechanisms. These gaps challenge early
 539 detection, effective containment, and preventing bird influenza from spreading within the country
 540 [114]. Despite the implementation of surveillance programs, coverage in certain regions of
 541 Colombia may be limited or sporadic. Remote and rural areas, where small-scale and backyard
 542 poultry farming is prevalent, often lack sufficient surveillance infrastructure and resources [174].
 543 As a result, avian influenza outbreaks in these areas may go undetected or underreported, delaying
 544 response efforts and allowing the virus to spread unchecked. The ability to rapidly and accurately
 545 diagnose avian influenza infections is crucial for effective surveillance and response [175].
 546 However, Colombia may face challenges in terms of diagnostic capacity, including access to
 547 reliable diagnostic tests, trained personnel, and laboratory facilities equipped to handle avian
 548 influenza testing. Delays or inaccuracies in diagnosis can hamper timely intervention measures
 549 and exacerbate the risk of transmission of avian flu.

550

551 Effective surveillance and response to avian influenza require strong coordination and
552 communication among various stakeholders, including government agencies, veterinary and
553 public health authorities, poultry producers, and international partners [176]. In Colombia, gaps in
554 coordination and communication may hinder the timely sharing of information, coordination of
555 response activities, and dissemination of guidance and recommendations to relevant stakeholders.
556 Also, while biosecurity measures are critical for preventing avian influenza introduction and
557 spread, their implementation and enforcement may be inconsistent across production systems and
558 backyard settings as seen in some studies [67,68,177]. This scenario may be occurring also in
559 Colombia. Limited awareness, resources, and technical support for animal producers may
560 contribute to gaps in biosecurity practices, increasing the risk of avian influenza transmission
561 within and between animal populations [178].

562

563 Furthermore, wild birds serve as natural reservoirs and potential vectors for avian influenza
564 transmission, highlighting the importance of surveillance in these populations [179]. However,
565 surveilling wild bird populations can be challenging due to logistical constraints, including
566 accessing remote habitats and capturing and testing birds. As a result, surveillance efforts may
567 overlook potential sources of avian influenza introduction and spread. Molecular epidemiology,
568 based on genomic surveillance, plays an increasingly important role in monitoring IAV, especially
569 in those that cause sporadic zoonotic disease and which may represent a potential risk of future
570 influenza pandemics [3]. Technological advances have allowed for the fast sequencing of whole
571 viral genomes, and genomic sequences of IAV can be examined to monitor the spread and
572 development of outbreaks [3]. Also, molecular epidemiology tools have been applied to determine
573 the origin of pandemic viruses and understand what made them successful pathogens. An excellent
574 example is the recent phylogenetic genome analysis of the 1918 pandemic IAV [180]. Other
575 examples include applying these molecular methods to investigate the recent outbreaks of avian
576 H5N1 and H9N2 influenza viruses [181–183]. Although many questions remain, advances in
577 genomic surveillance over the past two decades have demonstrated its utility in defining viral
578 agents' genetic constitution and molecular structure [184]. Therefore, understanding and
579 addressing these shortcomings is essential for enhancing Colombia's capacity to manage avian
580 influenza and mitigate its impact on public health and agricultural sectors.

581

582 **Identifying Hotspots and Vulnerable Regions in Colombia**

583 Avian influenza outbreaks in Colombia exhibit a varied geographical distribution influenced by
584 ecological, environmental, and socioeconomic factors. Identifying these hotspots and vulnerable
585 regions is crucial for prioritizing surveillance and efforts to control the spread of the virus and
586 reduce its impact on poultry and public health. Information about the epidemiology of avian IAV
587 in Colombia is minimal, mainly due to the lack of robust animal influenza surveillance programs.
588 The latest HPAI H5N1 avian IAV outbreaks were documented in at least 17 countries across Latin
589 America including Colombia [185]. Bird migrations have been historically correlated with
590 outbreaks of HPAI, showing a notable concentration in some specific wild bird migratory
591 pathways [27,186]. In Colombia, HPAI H5N1 outbreaks primarily affected backyard poultry, with
592 a smaller number affecting wild bird populations. Cases were reported in regions including
593 Córdoba, Chocó, Cartagena, Sucre, Magdalena, Nariño, and Cauca, indicating a widespread virus
594 distribution across the country [138,187]. Efforts to contain the spread of these HPAI outbreaks in
595 the country were significant. Fortunately, no human cases of infection with avian influenza were
596 reported in connection with the registered outbreaks. However, since 2013 researchers made
597 recommendations on strengthening animal influenza surveillance in this country based on
598 identification of important IAV with potential impact to animal and public health [123,124,144].
599 Thus, continued surveillance and collaboration between public health authorities, veterinary
600 agencies, academy and local communities are essential to prevent further transmission and mitigate
601 the risk of zoonotic transmission to humans.

602

603 Nearly 300 species of wild birds, representing vast populations, migrate between the Neotropics
604 and North America [188]. These Nearctic-Neotropical migrants rely on several stopover sites
605 along their migratory path for essential resources like fuel, safe roosting spots, and emergency
606 shelters [189]. Central America's geography and northern Colombia are concentrated areas,
607 funneling millions of birds through critical stopover sites [190]. Additionally, these regions present
608 challenges with barriers like the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, necessitating stopover
609 locations for birds to refuel safely [191]. Colombia's unique position in South America, with
610 coastal marine territories, is crucial for several bird groups, with three significant flyways
611 identified for Neotropical migrants [192]. Colombia's significance in the context of avian influenza

612 lies in its privileged position along major migratory routes for several migratory bird groups. These
613 migratory pathways could potentially facilitate the spread of avian influenza viruses between
614 locations, making countries, like Colombia, a critical focal point for surveillance and monitoring
615 efforts to detect and prevent the transmission of bird influenza among animal populations [112].
616

617 To date, the few reports of avian influenza cases in Colombia may reveal that higher bird influenza
618 outbreaks occur more consistently in certain regions than others. These hotspots may coincide with
619 areas characterized by stopover areas for migratory birds, intensive poultry production, dense
620 poultry populations, and/or high poultry trade and movement levels. Departments such as
621 Cundinamarca, Santander, and Valle del Cauca may be more severely affected by avian influenza
622 outbreaks due to their significant poultry farming activities and proximity to major urban centers.
623 In addition to human activities and poultry production practices, ecological risk factors may
624 significantly shape Colombia's geographical distribution of avian influenza cases. Environmental
625 factors such as proximity to wetlands and water bodies, which serve as natural habitats for wild
626 bird populations and potential reservoirs for avian influenza viruses, contribute to the transmission
627 dynamics of the virus [193]. Regions with high concentrations of migratory bird habitats and bird
628 migration routes may experience increased transmission of avian flu risk due to the interaction
629 between wild and domestic bird populations [42]. Identifying potential hotspots and vulnerable
630 regions for avian influenza outbreaks involves a comprehensive assessment of epidemiological
631 and ecological factors [194]. Geographic Information Systems mapping and spatial analysis
632 techniques can help visualize and analyze avian influenza surveillance data concerning
633 environmental variables, enabling the identification of high-risk areas and disease transmission
634 patterns [195].
635

636 Prioritizing surveillance and control measures in avian influenza hotspots and vulnerable regions
637 is essential for effectively managing avian flu in Colombia. Targeted surveillance efforts,
638 including increased sampling and testing of poultry and wild bird populations in high-risk areas,
639 can enhance early detection and response capabilities, enabling prompt intervention to prevent
640 further virus spread [196]. Furthermore, implementing biosecurity measures, vaccination
641 campaigns, and public awareness initiatives tailored to specific geographical regions can help
642 mitigate the risk of avian influenza outbreaks and protect both animal and human health [74]. By

643 leveraging epidemiological data and ecological risk factors to identify and prioritize avian
644 influenza hotspots and vulnerable regions, countries like Colombia can strengthen its surveillance
645 and control strategies, ultimately reducing the burden of bird influenza on the poultry industry and
646 safeguarding public health [43,175]. Implementing new technologies, along with continued
647 monitoring and adaptive management approaches are essential for effectively addressing the
648 dynamic nature of avian influenza transmission [175] and ensuring the resilience of Colombia's
649 poultry sector in the face of emerging infectious disease threats.

650

651 **Strategies for Intervention and Prevention**

652 In Colombia's fight against avian influenza, a multifaceted approach incorporating intervention
653 and prevention measures is essential to mitigate the disease risk on poultry populations and public
654 health. Implementing vaccination campaigns, biosecurity protocols, and public awareness
655 campaigns can significantly reduce the spread of avian influenza and limit its impact on
656 agricultural productivity and human health [74].

657

658 Vaccination of poultry populations against IAV is a crucial preventive measure to minimize
659 disease transmission risk and reduce outbreaks' severity [197]. In Colombia, targeted vaccination
660 campaigns can be implemented in high-risk areas, such as regions with a history of avian influenza
661 outbreaks or where large poultry populations are concentrated. Vaccinating susceptible birds, such
662 as chickens and turkeys, against prevalent avian influenza strains can significantly reduce the
663 likelihood of virus transmission within poultry flocks [197]. Furthermore, vaccination can also
664 help protect human health by decreasing the risk of zoonotic transmission of avian influenza
665 viruses from infected poultry to humans [198].

666

667 Improving biosecurity measures on poultry farms and in backyard poultry settings is vital for
668 preventing the introduction and spread of avian influenza viruses [156,199]. Biosecurity protocols
669 should include restricting access to production facilities, implementing strict hygiene practices,
670 and maintaining clean and sanitized equipment. Additionally, separating poultry from wild birds
671 and other animals, such as swine, controlling the movement of people and vehicles, and ensuring
672 proper disposal of poultry waste are essential components of effective biosecurity measures [70].

673 Training and educating farmers and workers on the importance of biosecurity and providing them

674 with the necessary resources and support to implement these measures are critical for their success
675 [200].

676
677 Public awareness campaigns aimed at poultry producers (especially backyard), workers, and
678 consumers can help increase knowledge and understanding of avian influenza and promote the
679 adoption of preventive measures [158]. These campaigns can utilize various communication
680 channels, including television, radio, social media, and community outreach programs, to
681 disseminate information about the risks associated with avian influenza, the importance of
682 vaccination and biosecurity, and the signs and symptoms of avian flu infection in animals and
683 humans. Public awareness campaigns can empower individuals and communities to proactively
684 prevent avian influenza outbreaks and protect their health and livelihoods by raising awareness
685 and promoting behavioral changes [201].

686

687 **Integrating Avian Influenza Considerations into Public Health Policies**

688 Integrating avian influenza considerations into public health policies is essential for effectively
689 managing the risks associated with avian influenza outbreaks and safeguarding animal and human
690 health [202,203]. As avian flu poses a significant threat to poultry populations and can potentially
691 cause zoonotic infections in humans, addressing this public health challenge requires a coordinated
692 and proactive approach at the policy level [48]. By incorporating avian influenza considerations
693 into public health policies, Colombia can enhance its capacity to prevent, detect, and respond to
694 avian influenza outbreaks, mitigate the impact of the disease on agricultural productivity and
695 public health, and strengthen its overall preparedness and resilience to emerging infectious
696 diseases.

697

698 While integrating avian influenza considerations into public health policies offers numerous
699 benefits, there are challenges and opportunities associated with policy implementation in
700 Colombia. One of the main challenges facing policy implementation is the limited resources and
701 infrastructure available for disease surveillance, prevention, and control efforts in Colombia. As
702 seen in other similar countries, insufficient funding, inadequate laboratory capacity, and a shortage
703 of trained personnel may hinder the effective implementation of avian influenza policies and
704 programs [204]. To overcome these challenges, Colombia must prioritize investments in infectious

705 disease surveillance systems, laboratory infrastructure, and workforce development to strengthen
706 its capacity to detect and respond to avian influenza outbreaks and other emerging threats. Also,
707 effective policy implementation requires coordination and collaboration among multiple
708 stakeholders, including government agencies, veterinary and public health authorities, poultry
709 producers, and international partners [205]. However, achieving consensus and cooperation among
710 diverse stakeholders may be challenging due to competing priorities, conflicting interests, and
711 limited communication channels [206]. Colombia can establish multi-sectoral task forces,
712 interagency working groups, and public-private partnerships to facilitate information sharing,
713 resource mobilization, and joint decision-making to enhance coordination and collaboration.

714

715 In addition, developing and enforcing regulatory frameworks for avian influenza control and
716 prevention can be complex and challenging [205,207]. In Colombia, ensuring compliance with
717 biosecurity measures, vaccination requirements, and reporting protocols may require strengthened
718 regulatory enforcement mechanisms, enhanced monitoring and surveillance systems, and
719 increased penalties for non-compliance, as seen in other countries [208]. Moreover, engaging with
720 local communities and stakeholders to raise awareness about the importance of avian influenza
721 regulations and incentivize compliance can help promote voluntary adherence to regulatory
722 requirements [67]. Furthermore, effective communication and public engagement are essential for
723 building trust, fostering cooperation, and encouraging behavior change among stakeholders and
724 the general public [209]. However, communicating complex scientific information about avian
725 influenza risks and preventive measures in a clear, accessible, and culturally sensitive manner can
726 be challenging [207]. Colombia, as reported in other countries, can leverage traditional and digital
727 media channels, community outreach programs, and public awareness campaigns to disseminate
728 avian influenza-related information, address misconceptions, and engage stakeholders in dialogue
729 and decision-making processes [210].

730

731 **Strategies for the establishment of Influenza early monitoring and prevention programs in**
732 **Colombia.**

733 Like other tropical and middle income countries, Colombia faces several challenges to improve
734 the early monitoring and prevention of avian influenza outbreaks. Vaccination campaigns,
735 enforced biosecurity protocols, and public awareness campaigns are valuable tools for mitigating
736 the burden of avian influenza worldwide [66,68,201,211]. By integrating these intervention and
737 prevention measures into a coordinated and adaptive strategy, countries such Colombia, could
738 strengthen its capacity to prevent, detect, and respond to avian influenza outbreaks, ultimately
739 safeguarding poultry populations and public health. However, these measures require the
740 allocation of considerable amount of resources and also the political/governmental willingness of
741 the decision makers in the country [148]. In addition, the implementation of such measures and
742 their effectiveness depends on a sustained investment, and ongoing monitoring and evaluation of
743 these programs. Nevertheless, based on some experiences reported in other locations, here are
744 some recommendations that can be applied in the context of Colombia:
745

746 **Developing of Early Detection Systems**

- 747 • **Community-Based Monitoring:** Training local farmers and community members to
748 identify symptoms of avian flu in birds [212]. Provide basic training in bird health and data
749 collection using mobile apps or local reporting centers to ensure real-time monitoring.
- 750 • **Rapid Diagnostic Kits:** Introducing affordable and easy-to-use diagnostic kits for early
751 detection of avian flu in remote areas [213]. These kits can be distributed to community
752 health centers, poultry farmers, and wildlife observers (i.e. natural parks or protected
753 natural areas) for quick and reliable results.
- 754 • **Mobile Surveillance Teams:** Establishing mobile veterinary teams that can visit backyard
755 poultry farms in rural areas to collect samples and assess the health of bird populations
756 [214]. These teams could be organized by government agencies or through partnerships
757 with universities and NGOs.
- 758 • **Partnership with Universities and Research Centers:** Leverage the expertise of
759 academic institutions to design real-time data analytics systems that track bird movement
760 patterns, environmental factors, and symptoms of avian flu [215,216]. They can also
761 contribute to conducting field tests for avian flu detection.

762 **Vaccination Programs**

- 763 • **Targeted Vaccination Campaigns:** Prioritizing high-risk areas based on previous
764 outbreaks, bird migration routes, and areas with dense backyard poultry populations [217].
765 Working with local governments to map out these regions and schedule regular vaccination
766 campaigns.
- 767 • **Subsidized or Free Vaccines:** Provision of government-funded vaccines to small-scale
768 farmers and backyard poultry keepers [67]. To ensure the participation of low-income
769 communities, offer vaccines either for free or at a subsidized rate.
- 770 • **Mobile Vaccination Clinics:** In rural areas, mobile veterinary units could travel to high-
771 risk regions, conducting vaccination drives [218]. This approach could ensure access to
772 hard-to-reach populations and offer educational outreach on maintaining healthy flocks.

773 **Biosecurity and Public Awareness**

- 774 • **Educational Workshops:** Public institutions should offer training workshops for
775 stakeholders [116] and poultry farmers, particularly those in backyard settings [199,219],
776 on the importance of biosecurity measures, such as controlling bird movement, sanitation
777 practices, and isolating sick birds.
- 778 • **Awareness Campaigns:** Use radio, television, and social media to educate farmers and
779 stakeholders about the signs of avian flu, how to report outbreaks, and where to access
780 vaccines or testing services. This could help in building trust and increasing program
781 adoption in rural communities [148,155,176,201].

782
783 **Conclusions**

784 As in other locations, the examination of avian influenza in Colombia highlights the urgent need
785 for a robust, collaborative approach to managing the virus, integrating human, animal, and
786 environmental health through a One Health framework. Avian influenza poses significant threats
787 to public health and agricultural sectors, with its zoonotic potential and impact on the poultry
788 industry, which is vital for food security and rural livelihoods. Factors such as migratory bird
789 patterns, climate change, and inconsistent biosecurity measures across commercial and backyard
790 poultry farms exacerbate the risks of transmission. Given Colombia's location along major
791 migratory routes, international cooperation is crucial to monitor avian migration and prevent cross-
792 border transmission. To mitigate outbreak risks, key strategies include strengthening surveillance,

793 enhancing biosecurity practices, and targeting interventions in identified hotspots and vulnerable
794 regions. Public health policies should prioritize avian influenza considerations, implementing
795 proactive vaccination programs, early detection systems, and community engagement to protect
796 both animal and human populations. By advancing multisectoral collaboration and aligning with
797 global efforts, Colombia can improve its capacity to prevent and control avian influenza, reducing
798 its socio-economic and health impacts.

799

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