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# 1 One Health surveillance – More than a buzz word?

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15

16 Abstract

17 One Health surveillance describes the systematic collection, validation, analysis, interpretation of data  
18 and dissemination of information collected on humans, animals and the environment to inform  
19 decisions for more effective, evidence- and system-based health interventions. During the second  
20 International Conference on Animal Health Surveillance (ICAHS) in Havana, Cuba, a panel discussion  
21 was organised to discuss the relevance of One Health in the context of surveillance. A number of  
22 success stories were presented which generally focused on the obvious interfaces between human  
23 and veterinary medicine such as zoonoses and food safety. Activities aimed at strengthening inter-  
24 sectoral networking through technical collaboration, conferences, workshops and consultations have  
25 resulted in recommendations to advance the One Health concept. There are also several One Health  
26 educational programmes offered as Masters programmes. Continuing challenges to One Health  
27 surveillance were identified at both technical as well as organisational level. It was acknowledged that  
28 the public health sector and the environmental sector could be engaged more in One Health activities.  
29 Legal issues, hurdles to data sharing, unclear responsibilities and structural barriers between  
30 ministries prevent integrated action. Policy makers in the health sector often perceive One Health as  
31 a veterinary-driven initiative that is not particularly relevant to their priority problems. Whilst some  
32 funding schemes allow for the employment of scientists and technicians for research projects, the  
33 development of a sustainable One Health workforce has yet to be broadly demonstrated. Funding  
34 opportunities do not explicitly promote the development of One Health surveillance systems. In  
35 addition, organisational, legal and administrative barriers may prevent operational implementation.  
36 Strategies and communication across sectors need to be aligned. Whilst at the technical or local level  
37 the formal separation can be bridged, separate funding sources and budgets can jeopardise the overall  
38 strategy, especially if funding cuts are later required. To overcome such challenges, a strong business  
39 case for One Health surveillance is needed. This should include the costs and benefits of One Health  
40 activities or projects including consequences of different strategies as well as risks. Integrated training  
41 should also be further promoted. Future ICAHS conferences should continue to provide a platform for

42 discussing surveillance in the One Health context and to provide a forum for surveillance professionals  
43 from all relevant sectors to interact.

#### 44 1. Introduction

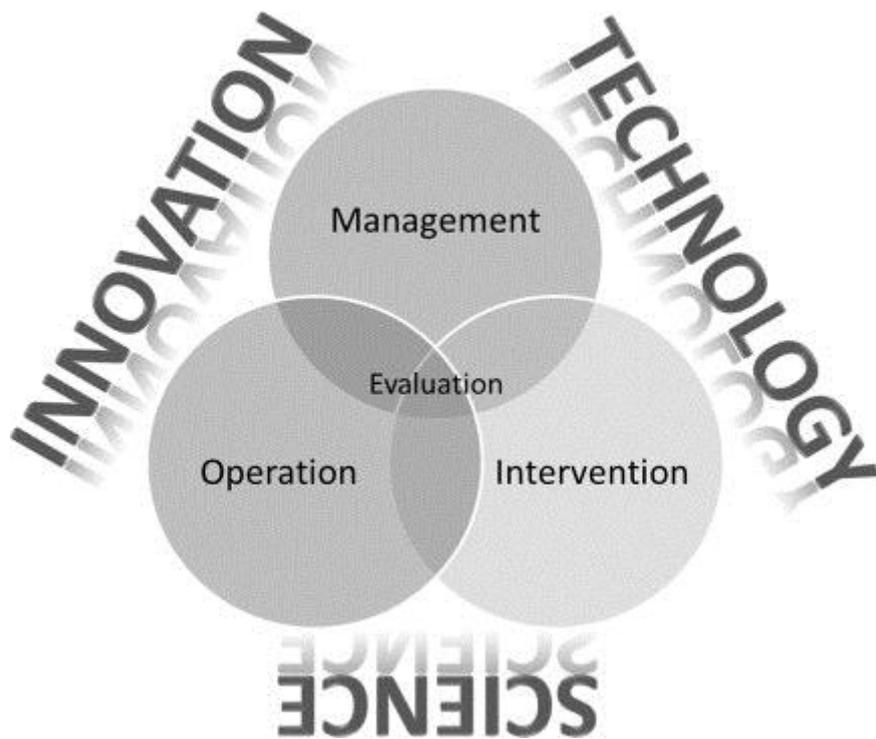
45 “One Health” is a term that is used increasingly in a range of different contexts. There are several  
46 conferences held at regular intervals with a One Health focus (e.g. One Health Summit; International  
47 One Health Congress; International One Health Conference; International Conference on One  
48 Medicine One Science). A panel discussion was held during the second International Conference on  
49 Animal Health Surveillance (ICAHS) in Havana, Cuba to discuss the relevance of One Health in the  
50 context of surveillance. Here we aim to summarise that discussion. The authors were all members or  
51 facilitators of the panel.

52 Whilst we acknowledge the usefulness of an accepted definition of One Health surveillance, the time  
53 available at ICAHS did not allow for the in-depth discussion such a topic requires and therefore this  
54 was deliberately excluded by the panel. Building on general definition of surveillance, we propose to  
55 use the term as follows:

56 *One Health surveillance describes the systematic collection, validation, analysis, interpretation*  
57 *of data and dissemination of information collected on humans, animals and the environment*  
58 *to inform decisions for more effective, evidence- and system-based health interventions.*

59 The panel discussion was recorded and notes were also taken. The following summary is not only  
60 based on notes but also includes additional examples, references and points contributed by the  
61 authors after the conference. This discussion can be structured around the different activities relevant  
62 to surveillance (Fig. 1). These include the operational aspects such as field implementation, sampling  
63 and laboratory activities. We also consider the management component which is relevant at different  
64 levels (local, regional, national), including strategic, legal and communication aspects. Finally, there is  
65 an important interface with interventions because surveillance rarely achieves a benefit on its own

66 but should be considered jointly with interventions (Häsler et al., 2011; Howe et al., 2013). This latter  
67 point was also highlighted in the panel discussion. Innovation in technological and scientific  
68 approaches is relevant in relation to any of the fields shaping future surveillance.



69

70 Fig. 1. Aspects considered in the discussion of the current status and challenges for One Health surveillance.  
71 Surveillance is understood to inform interventions; the latter are therefore also included.

## 72 2. One Health surveillance: where are we?

73 During the ICAHS panel discussion, a number of examples of collaborative surveillance activities were  
74 mentioned that are conducted under the One Health umbrella (Goutard et al., 2015; Ward and  
75 Hernandez-Jover, 2015). The current success stories generally focus on the obvious interfaces  
76 between human and veterinary medicine such as zoonoses and food safety. One specific published  
77 example is the joint implementation of surveillance for brucellosis in Mongolia in which sero-  
78 surveillance in people and monitoring of achieved vaccination coverage in livestock is conducted  
79 jointly with technical staff of both sectors, and in Kyrgyzstan joint brucellosis surveillance in people  
80 and livestock provided the basis for the development of an inter-sectoral cost-effective control

81 strategy (Zinsstag et al., 2009). Thus there is an opportunity for surveillance systems for brucellosis in  
82 cattle only – such as one presented by Bronner et al. (2015) at ICAHS – to be linked to human health  
83 surveillance to increase benefit.

84 Successful One Health collaboration in surveillance was also reported in conjunction with infectious  
85 disease outbreaks. During one of the largest multi-country, food-borne outbreaks in Europe, many  
86 aspects of collaborative surveillance were discussed and recommendations made for improvements  
87 (Beutin and Martin, 2012). Also, examples of successful surveillance collaboration were reported  
88 during ICAHS for influenza (Bruhn et al., 2014) and for rabies (Mtema et al., 2014; Ward and  
89 Hernandez-Jover, 2015; Townsend et al., 2014). Such collaboration is, however, not necessarily  
90 common in animal influenza surveillance. A recent survey on national and regional animal influenza  
91 surveillance systems implemented worldwide revealed that, in the instance of influenza-positive  
92 poultry or pigs being identified, the public health sector would be alerted only in some occasions (Von  
93 Dobschuetz et al., 2014). Opportunities for closer collaboration in influenza surveillance were  
94 confirmed at ICAHS (Durr et al., 2015; Paul et al., 2015).

95 Triggered by incidents such as the threat of a global influenza pandemic, a number of high-level, multi-  
96 lateral activities were initiated by the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), the World Health  
97 Organisation (WHO) and the World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE). These activities aimed to  
98 strengthen inter-sectoral networking through technical activities, conferences, workshops and  
99 consultations and have resulted in recommendations to advance the One Health concept.<sup>1,2,3,4,5</sup> A  
100 further specific example of the international collaboration supported by OIE and FAO in practice and  
101 policy making of One Health, is the OIE and FAO network of expertise on animal influenza (OFFLU).  
102 This global network covers the exchange of scientific data and biological materials, provides technical  
103 advice and veterinary expertise, discusses research needs, and assures collaboration. OFFLU formally  
104 contributes to the WHO Consultation on the Composition of Influenza Virus Vaccines. Furthermore  
105 OFFLU established an expert group for swine influenza which has membership from both the

106 veterinary and the public health sectors. The major task of this group is to compile SIV surveillance  
107 and virus data worldwide and monitor SIV evolution.

108 Collaborative action is often easier to achieve at the local level. Nevertheless, often medical and  
109 veterinary data recording remain largely separate and therefore a lot of potentially useful information  
110 and knowledge sources are left untapped. An important step towards integrated surveillance has been  
111 achieved by aggregating databases at the human-animal interface; for example the GLEWS database<sup>6</sup>  
112 includes animal or zoonotic disease events for which information has been jointly gathered by FAO,  
113 OIE and WHO and confirmed by the national authorities. OFFLU is connected with national monitoring  
114 networks, in particular with the Influenza Virus Monitoring Network (IVM) recently established in  
115 Indonesia<sup>7</sup> (Wibawa et al., 2014), composed of more than 10 laboratory members, which collectively  
116 monitor the emergence of possible variant influenza viruses in poultry. Such country networks can be  
117 instrumental in ensuring continuous influenza vaccine efficacy in poultry and arguably a model for  
118 other countries. The public health sector benefits from the outcomes of such monitoring networks.  
119 Another example of collaborative action at the local level is the establishment of the “4-way linking”  
120 platforms<sup>8</sup> in three countries (Egypt, Vietnam and Indonesia) for joint public health-animal health risk  
121 assessment based on data from epidemiology units as well as laboratories. At ICAHS, Ward and  
122 Hernandez-Jover (2015) present a generic risk assessment tool for rabies which relies of inputs from  
123 both animal and human health; its use requires a collaborative approach.

124 In Canada, information on risk factors and prevalence and resistance data for pathogens causing  
125 enteric diseases are collected along the food chain including animal and human sampling. The utility  
126 of the integration of information can be demonstrated, particularly in terms of early detection of  
127 emerging threats (Deckert et al., 2010; Parmley et al., 2014). Similarly, in Europe the agency  
128 responsible for animal health and food safety (EFSA) and the agency responsible for public health  
129 (ECDC) are jointly producing the annual zoonoses report.<sup>9</sup> These agencies also increasingly collaborate  
130 around outbreaks, for example the emergence of Schmallenberg virus.<sup>10</sup> Vectorborne disease

131 surveillance is an area in which a One Health approach is often possible. At ICAHS, Ezanno et al. (2015)  
132 described a generic weather-driven model to predict the risk of mosquito-borne disease transmission.  
133 To operationalise such a tool, input is required from both animal and human health sectors, with  
134 environmental factors being obvious drivers of the system ultimately developed.

135 In terms of education and training, there have been a number of One Health courses and University  
136 programmes launched. Examples include the Masters in One Health programme delivered jointly by  
137 the Royal Veterinary College and London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine,<sup>11</sup> the Master of  
138 Science One Health programme offered by the University of Edinburgh,<sup>12</sup> the University of Florida's  
139 Masters in Health Sciences with One Health concentration and PhD in Public Health with One Health  
140 concentration<sup>13</sup> and the new University of California Global Health Institute (UCGHI) Masters in Global  
141 Health degree programme with a One Health track, to commence in 2016.<sup>14</sup> Under the Regional Field  
142 Epidemiology Training Program for Veterinary (FETPV) adapted and supported by FAO and partners in  
143 the Asia region, 'One Health' training courses have been organised. In China, the Chinese Field  
144 Epidemiology Training Program (CFETP) and the FETPV have held joint training sessions and in Thailand  
145 key linkages have been established between the Thai FETPV and the FETP. Going one step further, the  
146 Mongolian FETP programme since 2014 includes participants from the medical and veterinary sectors  
147 in a fully joint training course.

148 These programmes do not specifically focus on surveillance, but do count on the links with surveillance  
149 units. All such programmes appear to have been developed only recently, mostly within the past 5  
150 years. The employment opportunities of graduates, as promoted by the programmes, tend to be  
151 either in operational aspects such as outbreak investigations ("graduates will have the knowledge and  
152 skills to be able to respond rapidly and effectively to outbreaks of disease as well as controlling  
153 endemic disease at the interface between humans, animals and the environment<sup>11</sup>") or in the area of  
154 public policy ("the programme will enable students to ... bring much-needed attention to the policy  
155 and operational issues that ultimately will be key determinants for success<sup>12</sup>").

156 In addition to technical training, there are also programmes focusing on general leadership and  
157 networking. For example, the University of Minnesota runs a programme on engaging with  
158 international organisations and academic institutions from across the globe with a specific focus on  
159 One Health.<sup>15</sup> In the Caribbean, the European Union funded project “One Health, One Caribbean, One  
160 Love” will include a 2-year One Health Leadership Series for young to mid-career professionals from  
161 the agriculture, health and environment sectors. Organised by PAHO/WHO and the University of the  
162 West Indies, the programme will include technical and leadership training, mentoring and One Health  
163 project formulation and management. Examples of regional networks include the South East Asia One  
164 Health University Network (SEAOHUN) and One Health Central and Eastern Africa (OHCEA) Network.  
165 These networks are funded through the USAID emerging pandemic threats programme (EPT) and  
166 focus on general capacity building, including surveillance. The scope, however, is specifically on  
167 infectious zoonotic diseases; in addition, these networks are limited to academic institutions and do  
168 not involve regulatory institutions that are under the authority of veterinary services or under the  
169 ministry of health.

170 The Global Health Security agenda<sup>16</sup> has recently been launched by the USA and has already been  
171 endorsed by over 40 countries. It acknowledges the need to integrate human and animal health  
172 interventions to better prevent, detect and control human diseases. This programme aims at  
173 strengthening country compliance with the International Health Regulations<sup>17</sup> and can potentially  
174 generate collaborations, surveillance, interventions, research, and improved policies through a One  
175 Health approach (Jones et al., 2008).

### 176 3. What are the main gaps and challenges

177 Many continuing challenges were discussed at the ICAHS conference. These included both technical  
178 as well as organisational issues. It was acknowledged that the public health sector could be engaged  
179 more in One Health activities. Legal issues, hurdles to data sharing, unclear responsibilities, structural  
180 barriers between Ministries of Health, Agriculture and the Environment/Natural Resources and a lack

181 of communication were all raised as obstacles to progress. In terms of data sharing, FAO, OIE and WHO  
182 have been working collaboratively in effectively implementing a framework to promote cooperation  
183 between human and animal surveillance systems for analysing available evidence and evaluating  
184 responses and the timely sharing of comparable epidemiological and pathogen data across the  
185 relevant sectors.<sup>18</sup>

186 When planning to engage the public sector, one of the most important issues to consider is the legal  
187 basis. Over several years, the OIE developed an approach aimed at strengthening Veterinary Services  
188 (VS) in all its components for improving animal and public health, through its PVS Pathway.<sup>19</sup> An  
189 important conclusion of these evaluations has been the great need for appropriate legal basis of VS  
190 worldwide. When operating surveillance systems within the One Health perspective, all countries  
191 need to acknowledge and implement mechanisms to assure a legal basis for these joint surveillance  
192 activities. In countries where the “4-way linking” assessment missions have been operational, real-  
193 time sharing of information at the field level was often functionally possible and accepted, if not  
194 desired, between human and animal health local officers; however the barrier to sharing was at the  
195 policy level where the necessary support was not in place to allow full sharing of all information. At  
196 ICAHS, an encouraging example was also presented on cross-sectorial collaboration in Mongolia  
197 (Wieland et al., 2015).

198 In the Caribbean, PAHO/WHO and FAO developed a One Health policy for the region.<sup>20</sup> Whilst it was  
199 relatively easy to obtain support in the agricultural livestock sector, this was more challenging in the  
200 health sector, where the priorities are quite different (focus on non-communicable diseases,  
201 childhood obesity and mental health). The policy makers in the health sector often perceive One  
202 Health as a veterinary-driven initiative that is not particularly relevant to their priority problems. In  
203 addition, we have yet to fully capture the ecosystem health sector in the One Health approach.  
204 However, the significant effect of climate change on public health, animal and ecosystem health in the

205 Caribbean constitutes a powerful argument for One Health surveillance with information sharing  
206 across the three sectors.

207 Some notable funding programmes have been initiated which either directly address research on One  
208 Health surveillance, or which incorporate One Health principles into surveillance programmes. Some  
209 recent examples include the call for research on Zoonoses and Emerging Livestock Systems (UK), the  
210 Canadian call on Ecosystem approaches to the better management of zoonotic emerging infectious  
211 diseases in the Southeast Asia region and the Gates Foundation's Grand Challenge in One Health.  
212 These funding opportunities have been targeted at research in developing countries and often focused  
213 on specific zoonotic diseases, such as brucellosis, trypanosomiasis and tuberculosis. Whilst funding  
214 may be used to employ researchers and technicians, the development of a sustainable One Health  
215 workforce has yet to be broadly demonstrated. In general, current funding opportunities do not  
216 explicitly promote the development of One Health surveillance systems. One of the barriers to funding  
217 One Health surveillance – whether in developed or developing countries – is a widely held belief that  
218 such activities are in the national interest (protection and promotion of national trade in livestock and  
219 livestock products, and improvement of the health of the local human population) and therefore  
220 should be funded by national governments. There is a need to differ between research funding and  
221 funding to develop the necessary societal infrastructure which is lacking in the developed world  
222 perhaps even more than in the developing world. Although One Health surveillance systems are  
223 promoted by international organisations, funding mechanisms are largely absent and surveillance  
224 remains insufficient in many fields and in many regions. Regional approaches to disease surveillance  
225 exist – for example in the case of foot-and-mouth disease in Southern Africa and Southeast Asia or  
226 classical swine fever in Latin America and the Caribbean – but similar examples of regional One Health  
227 surveillance systems are rare. As described by Goutard et al. (2015) at ICAHS, a combination of  
228 participatory methods and modern technologies could help to overcome the constraints inherent to  
229 the low-income countries.

230 In addition to funding, organisational and structural barriers may prevent the operational  
231 implementation of One Health surveillance. The importance of different priorities between Ministries  
232 of Health and Agriculture becomes apparent when it comes to joint control strategies. For example,  
233 legal and administrative hurdles hinder approval of a joint brucellosis control strategy in Mongolia. In  
234 such situations it is therefore critical that the separate strategies are aligned and that communication  
235 across sectors ensures consistency from implementation to monitoring of the strategy. Whilst at the  
236 technical level and even at the local level, this formal separation can be overcome through  
237 strengthened collaboration of technical personnel, separate funding lines can jeopardise the overall  
238 strategy, especially if budget cuts are required.

239

240 In the Caribbean, when trying to promote joint planning and budgeting between Ministries of Health  
241 and Agriculture for inter-sectoral activities at the interface, some professionals have replied that this  
242 is impossible. However, in Trinidad and Tobago, this problem was circumvented by forming a cabinet-  
243 appointed multi-sectoral task force on zoonotic diseases, in which joint planning and budgeting are  
244 done. Another example of organisational integration is in Switzerland where the newly formed Federal  
245 Food Safety and Veterinary Office facilitates formal collaboration between the sectors. Although  
246 budgetary separation from the Federal Office of Public Health remains, the two agencies at least  
247 report to the same minister.

248

249 Partnership between the public and private sector is a key element for disease prevention, detection  
250 and control. The animal industry may conduct their own surveillance for diseases that may be zoonotic  
251 and have their own vaccination programmes against specific diseases. The barriers of information  
252 sharing between the private and the public sectors is quite specific to the animal sector, due to  
253 commerce of animals and their products; however these barriers may have negative health

254 consequences as public health interventions may be delayed. It is well documented with H5N1 HPAI  
255 and H7N9 LPAI influenza viruses that human activities and behaviours (i.e., trading and marketing) are  
256 significant factors in disease spread and persistence in domestic poultry. The animal health sector and  
257 the public health sector therefore ought to take into account human behaviours and actions in their  
258 risk-based surveillance and risk assessment activities. Both sectors can take the opportunity to learn  
259 from each other and plan joint activities. For example, the USDA as part of their influenza  
260 surveillance<sup>21,22</sup> has developed mechanisms for anonymous sharing of SIV isolates by the US swine  
261 industry with public veterinary laboratories; this mechanism ensures sharing of useful information for  
262 both the animal and public health sector whilst protecting swine trade interests. A study presented at  
263 ICAHS (Paul et al., 2015) suggests how social anthropology methods can be used to better understand  
264 reasons for suboptimal avian influenza surveillance.

265 In some countries, substantial surveillance efforts are conducted by the private sector. For example,  
266 in Switzerland, the poultry industry conducts surveillance for zoonotic hazards such as *Campylobacter*  
267 contamination. However, these data are not shared with other decision makers, notably the  
268 veterinary services. This is seen as a missed opportunity as already collected data would be of added  
269 value to official programmes. Some countries such as Sweden have overcome this barrier such that  
270 industry-driven surveillance is funded by government and therefore becomes a collaborative activity  
271 with data sharing.

#### 272 4. What is needed to progress One Health surveillance

273 An important conclusion discussed by the panel was the “beer-and-pizza concept” (as mentioned by  
274 Professor Craig Stephen, Univ. of Calgary, during the ICAHS conference). This was described as using  
275 incentives for professionals from different backgrounds to meet in a relaxed and friendly environment.  
276 This should help build relationships in a neutral issue-free environment that may be essential in a  
277 future crisis situation. It was also indicated that the next generation of surveillance professionals may  
278 be more open to communicate informally and to trust their peers. There is also an important role for

279 conferences such as ICAHS to promote dialogue and opportunities for exchange. It was, however, also  
280 indicated that the variety of competing One Health conferences was unhelpful to shape and focus the  
281 One Health community.

282

283 To put more convincing arguments in front of hesitant policy makers, investors, managers and  
284 colleagues, a strong business case for One Health surveillance was requested, a need that has been  
285 acknowledged for some time (Hueston et al., 2013; Grace, 2014). This should include the costs and  
286 benefits of One Health activities or projects including potential consequences of different strategies  
287 as well as risks (Anonymous, 2012). One Health surveillance should lead to faster disease detection,  
288 more efficient disease control and tangible financial savings when formally compared against  
289 separated surveillance streams. Specifically for surveillance, a project was presented at ICAHS which  
290 considers the economic aspects of cross-sectoral surveillance (Babo Martins et al., 2014). A recent  
291 review on One Health metrics also identified many examples that demonstrated the added value of  
292 One Health, but also confirmed the lack of systematic recording and metrics of benefits (Häsler et al.,  
293 2014). To move towards development of useful metrics, small specific projects should be more  
294 successful in demonstrating tangible benefits than big vague concepts. It is expected that many more  
295 examples will be presented at the next ICAHS. Thus, we should be able to quantify if and when One  
296 Health surveillance can add value.

297 ICAHS participants were in agreement that organisational solutions favouring One Health surveillance  
298 will take time, although some positive examples are already available. Typically, organisational  
299 structures will adapt more quickly after a crisis situation. For example, the struggle with bovine  
300 spongiform encephalopathy led to the creation of the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA). Also  
301 several European countries consequentially re-organised their authorities related to food (e.g. Austria,  
302 Germany, Switzerland, UK), thus integrating veterinary and public health aspects in a stable-to-table  
303 approach. Joint budgets certainly enhance joined-up high-level decision making. However, the focus

304 on food alone is not enough. Wider collaboration is required across offices and ministries as well as at  
305 international level. The FAO, WHO and OIE have signed a tripartite agreement to cooperate on issues  
306 at the human animal interface.<sup>23</sup>

307 The One Health approach and policy for surveillance has progressed in both the developing and the  
308 developed world. The developing world faces major increases of human and animal populations and  
309 densities with a trend for closer interactions between these human and animal populations, including  
310 wildlife. The developing world also faces severe gaps in surveillance in general, and in epidemiological  
311 knowledge and robust laboratory competency in particular. Although the developing world has  
312 progressed in One Health, One Health surveillance still needs to be translated at local and community  
313 level where policies are operationalised (Anonymous, 2013).

314 Health training has suffered the effect of “silos” in the same way that efforts to address human health,  
315 animal health and environmental health have become artificially segregated within the government  
316 or academic sector. More than 100 years ago, medical training was broad; with the advent of  
317 specialisation in the latter part of the 20th Century, particularly the medical and veterinary sciences  
318 became separated. An ideal, albeit long-term, approach to promoting One Health is to train medical,  
319 veterinary and environmental scientists in partly overlapping curricula whilst recognising that each  
320 will pursue different career pathways. Although a handful of One Health-focused postgraduate  
321 programmes have been established, their sustainability and career chances for their graduates are yet  
322 to be demonstrated. Training at an undergraduate level, in which the inter-relatedness of medical,  
323 veterinary and environmental sciences is promoted, arguably would have a much larger and long-term  
324 impact and create the conditions in which One Health surveillance would become an obvious solution  
325 to addressing a wide range of problems we currently face. An ideal case study would be antimicrobial  
326 resistance surveillance, where part of the responsibility lies in the agricultural veterinary and medical  
327 realm, but also has environmental implications via waste management routes.

328 The view was expressed at ICAHS that it was important to acknowledge that not everybody had to  
329 work with all sectors in order to assure that the key objectives relevant to One Health were pursued.  
330 Such inter-sectoral collaboration is likely to be essential in some areas whilst it is irrelevant for others.  
331 The priority should be that the relevant work is done effectively and efficiently.

332 Finally, it was suggested that future ICAHS conferences should continue to provide a platform for  
333 discussing surveillance in the One Health context. The invitation of keynote speakers with medical and  
334 environmental backgrounds should be assured for the continuing challenge of the mainly veterinary  
335 audience. Hopefully, discussions around terminology will also progress over the coming years in order  
336 to avoid the ongoing confusion and uncertainty on practical consequences of the One Health  
337 approach.

#### 338 Conflict of interest statement

339 The authors declare no conflicts of interest. The views expressed in this information product are those  
340 of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views or policies of FAO.

#### 341 Notes:

342 <sup>1</sup><http://www.oie.int/fileadmin/Home/eng/MediaCentre/docs/pdf/WildlifeRecommendationsEN.pdf>

343 <sup>2</sup><http://www.oie.int/en/for-the-media/onehealth/oie-involvement/verona/>

344 <sup>3</sup><http://www.oie.int/en/for-the-media/onehealth/oie-involvement/>

345 <sup>4</sup><http://www.oie.int/fileadmin/Home/eng/Media>

346 <sup>5</sup>[http://www.oie.int/fileadmin/Home/eng/Media\\_Centre/docs/pdf/12\\_09\\_project\\_report\\_JCLRA\\_F](http://www.oie.int/fileadmin/Home/eng/Media_Centre/docs/pdf/12_09_project_report_JCLRA_F)  
347 [NLclean.pdf](#)

348 <sup>6</sup><http://www.glews.net/>

349 <sup>7</sup>[http://www.fao.org/AG/AGAInfo/programmes/en/empres/news\\_270514.html](http://www.fao.org/AG/AGAInfo/programmes/en/empres/news_270514.html)

350 <sup>8</sup> “4-way linking” refers to linkages between animal health epidemiology information, animal health  
351 laboratory information, human health epidemiology information and human health laboratory  
352 information. Information from the four sources should be linked in terms of time and space to allow  
353 for standardised risk assessment

354 [http://www.who.int/influenza/human\\_animal\\_interface/EN\\_GIP\\_FourWay\\_HAI\\_2013.pdf](http://www.who.int/influenza/human_animal_interface/EN_GIP_FourWay_HAI_2013.pdf)

355 <sup>9</sup> <http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/zoosesdocs/zoosesconsumrep.htm>

356 <sup>10</sup> <http://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/healthtopics/schmallenberg-virus/pages/index.aspx>

357 <sup>11</sup> <http://www.rvc.ac.uk/Postgraduate/Courses/One-Health/Index.cfm>

358 <sup>12</sup> <http://www.ed.ac.uk/vet/one-health>

359 <sup>13</sup> <http://egh.php.ufl.edu/academic-programmes/>

360 <sup>14</sup> <http://i-onehealth.org/courses/>

361 <sup>15</sup> <http://www.cahfs.umn.edu/programmes/eio-2014/home.html>

362 <sup>16</sup> <http://www.globalhealth.gov/global-health-topics/global-health-security/ghsagenda.html>

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