

Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome (SFTS) in Thailand: using a one health approach to respond to novel zoonosis and its implications in clinical practice

Chalo Sansilapin^{1†}, Ratanaporn Tangwangvivat^{1†}, Curtis S. Hoffmann^{2†}, Chanatip Chailek¹, Paisin Lekcharoen³, Nattakarn Thippamom², Sininat Petcharat², Piyanan Taweethavonsawat⁴, Supaporn Wacharapluesadee^{2,5[*](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7636-1900)}®, Rome Buathong¹, Takeshi Kurosu⁶, Tomoki Yoshikawa⁶, Masayuki Shimojima⁶, Sopon lamsirithaworn¹ and Opass Putcharoen^{2,7}

Abstract

Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome (SFTS), a tick-borne disease caused by *Dabie bandavirus* (SFTSV) is an emerging infectious disease of substantial concern in East Asia. In 2019, Ongkittikul S et al. reported the first case of SFTS in Thailand. Our report describes a One Health investigation of SFTS zoonosis examining the index case and suspected animal reservoirs using real-time RT-PCR and immunoassays. We add to the report on the first confirmed case of SFTSV infection in a human in Thailand by conducting a limited but informative One Health surveillance study. Dogs and cats tested positive for SFTSV antibody using IgG ELISA. We conclude that domestic dogs and cats might serve as potential reservoirs for SFTSV spread due to their closer proximity to the index case than other non-domestic animals. Notably, we did not detect SFTSV in synanthropic cats or dogs—nor did we detect SFTSV in *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* ticks—using RT-PCR. We propose that One Health investigations coupling genomic and serologic assays in response to new SFTS cases could play a pivotal role in preventing and managing SFTS among humans and animals in East Asia. As such, we are establishing a collaborative response to SFTS in Thailand through human outbreak investigations that align with principles of One Health, through environmental surveys and animal RT-PCR and immunoassays. Our investigation highlights the importance of coupling RT-PCR with seroprevalence assays as principal elements of One Health surveillance for SFTS in order to shed light on potential animal reservoirs and track emerging zoonosis.

Keywords Thailand, SFTSV, SFTS, Emerging zoonosis, One health, Seroprevalence, ELISA

† Chalo Sansilapin, Ratanaporn Tangwangvivat and Curtis S. Hoffmann are co-first Authors.

*Correspondence: Supaporn Wacharapluesadee supaporn.wac@chula.ac.th; spwa@hotmail.com

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article

© The Author(s) 2024. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit [http://](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/) [creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/.](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

Epidemiological background

Dabie bandavirus, also known as severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus (SFTSV), SFTS bunyavirus [\[1](#page-10-0), [2](#page-10-1)], SFTS phlebovirus [\[3](#page-10-2)] and *Huaiyangshan banyangvirus* [\[4](#page-10-3), [5\]](#page-10-4), is a viral threat escalating in East Asia. SFTSV is an enveloped, single-stranded RNA virus with a negative sense genome. First identified in China [[1\]](#page-10-0), severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome (SFTS) caused by SFTSV has a mortality rate ranging from 3 to 47% [\[6](#page-10-5)]. Since 2009, SFTSV has reportedly spread to Korea $[7-9]$ $[7-9]$, Japan $[10]$ $[10]$ $[10]$, Vietnam $[11]$ $[11]$, Taiwan [[12\]](#page-10-10), Pakistan [[13\]](#page-10-11), Myanmar [[14\]](#page-10-12), and recently Thailand [[15–](#page-10-13)[17](#page-10-14)] (Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0). Most epidemiological data about SFTS have been generated in China, Korea and Japan, where outbreaks are most prominent. For instance, between 2010 and 2019 in China, there were 13,824 reported cases of SFTS with 8,899 lab-confirmed cases and 4,925 probable cases [[18\]](#page-10-15). Epidemiological data on SFTS in other countries are limited, particularly regarding the prevalence and geographic distribution of SFTSV. Gaps also remain in deciphering SFTSV host range and transmission dynamics. In this paper, we report on the index case of SFTS in Thailand and provide early detection strategies through a One Health approach. In addition, we make the case for One Health surveillance as a useful epidemiological strategy [\[19](#page-10-16)[–21\]](#page-10-17) not only in responding to a potential SFTS outbreak but also in elucidating the true epidemiology of SFTSV, meaning its interactions with both humans and the environment [\[22](#page-10-18), [23\]](#page-10-19).

SFTS is a vector-borne disease, and vector-borne viruses such as SFTSV have a particular mobility and zoonotic advantage. Vectors provide viruses with an array of potential targets, allowing them more opportunities to multiply, mutate, and eventually spill over into new hosts [[24\]](#page-10-20). Ectoparasitic ticks drive SFTSV, most prominently the Asian longhorned tick *Haemaphysalis longicornis* which live in East Asia, Australia, and eastern Russia, and are notably regarded as an invasive species emerging in North America [\[25](#page-10-21)]. There are several other tick species which have been found to harbor SFTSV; namely, *Ha. flava*, *Amblyomma testudinarium*, *Ixodes nipponensis*, *Rhipicephalus (Boophilus) microplus* [[8\]](#page-10-22), *Dermacentor nuttalli*, *and Hyalomma asiaticum* [[26\]](#page-10-23). The most common tick species in Thailand are *Ha. longicornis*, *Amblyomma spp.*, *Dermacentor spp.*, *R. (Boophilus) microplus* (common on cattle) [\[26](#page-10-23)], and *R. sanguineus* (common on dogs and sometimes found on cats) [\[27](#page-10-24), [28](#page-10-25)], all of which are known as hard ticks of the family Ixodidae. Along with *R. sanguineus*, *Ha. longicornis* is also a common tick found on dogs and cats in Southeast Asia [\[29](#page-10-26)], though its prevalence in dogs and cats in Thailand is not well documented. In addition, *Ornithodorus hermsi* is a common soft tick species found in Thailand [[30\]](#page-10-27); however, SFTSV has yet to be discovered in soft ticks of the family Argasidae.

Discovering the pool of potential reservoirs and/or intermediate hosts of SFTSV is an ongoing effort. Across East Asia, evidence of SFTSV has been reported in a wide variety of mammals, from even-toed ungulates of the order Artiodactyla (goats, sheep, cattle, deer, pigs, boar), to Carnivora (dogs, cats) and Rodentia (rodents), to the order Eulipotyphla (shrews, hedgehogs). SFTSV has even been reported in birds of the order Galliformes (chickens) and Anseriformes (geese) [[24](#page-10-20), [26\]](#page-10-23), and it has been proposed and debated that a mechanism of SFTSV spread is via the migratory patterns of birds $[8, 31, 32]$ $[8, 31, 32]$ $[8, 31, 32]$ $[8, 31, 32]$ $[8, 31, 32]$ $[8, 31, 32]$. Tick-borne SFTSV is currently understood to have sustained in nature through two means of transmission: transovarial or transstadial, which is viral transmission from tick to tick—either via adult to larva or nymph or through two ticks sharing a blood meal on the same animal; or tick-to-mammal during a blood meal [\[26\]](#page-10-23). However, reports in recent years reveal that transmission dynamics of SFTSV are much more complicated than tick-borne transmission alone.

Understanding the transmission dynamics of SFTSV between various vectors and hosts is relevant in particular to One Health. SFTSV can be transmitted from livestock, wildlife and companion animals to humans through the transstadial route from tick bites, but there are cases of direct zoonosis from animals to humans, such as through an animal bite or direct contact with animal secretions [\[33,](#page-10-30) [34](#page-10-31)]. Additionally, human-to-human transmission of SFTSV has been reported, such as cases where SFTSV is spread to family members or healthcare workers through droplets or direct contact with infected blood [\[35](#page-10-32), [36\]](#page-10-33), though these events are rarer and more sporadic than zoonosis. Human-to-animal transmission of SFTSV is currently unknown; thus, humans are considered accidental, plausibly dead-end hosts [[37\]](#page-10-34).

Clinical background

SFTS is diagnosed in humans by high fever and thrombocytopenia, as indicated by its name, but also manifests clinical symptoms such as gastrointestinal disorders, anorexia, leukocytopenia, neurologic problems and signs of hemorrhaging [\[26\]](#page-10-23). Dogs and cats have been shown to manifest SFTS upon infection with SFTSV, sharing a similar pathology to humans. Dogs infected with SFTSV have experienced fever, anorexia, vomiting, thrombocytopenia, leukocytopenia, and death at a considerable mortality rate [\[38](#page-10-35)[–40\]](#page-11-0). Dogs also develop anti-SFTSV neutralizing antibodies within 9 to 12 days post-infection [[41\]](#page-11-1). Cats who contracted SFTSV infection from ticks experienced anorexia, thrombocytopenia, leukopenia, hyperbilirubinemia, jaundice and even lethal hemorrhagic fever [\[42](#page-11-2)[–44](#page-11-3)]. Research on SFTS convalescence

Fig. 1 Known SFTSV prevalence in East Asia, particularly in Thailand.* = RT-PCR data from Rattanakomol et al., 2022 – Chachoengsao (16 years old male, May 10, 2020), Bangkok (60 years old male, November 14, 2019; 52 years old female, October 19, 2020) [[16\]](#page-10-36). † = Data from Ishijima et al. (2023) [[17\]](#page-10-14)

in dogs and cats is limited [[45,](#page-11-4) [46\]](#page-11-5) and remains to be explored.

Responses to SFTS are primarily focused on human morbidity and do not mount a One Health approach. To date, there are no specific medicines to prevent or treat SFTS, but medical countermeasures have included symptomatic treatment and administering antiviral compounds such as ribavirin and favipiravir [\[47](#page-11-6), [48](#page-11-7)], and steroid therapy [\[49](#page-11-8)]. SFTSV has an incubation period of about 3 to 15 days [[50\]](#page-11-9). SFTS by tick bite is described clinically as having four stages: SFTSV incubation stage, fever stage, multiple-organ dysfunction (MOD) stage, and convalescent stage [[47](#page-11-6)]. The incubation stage lasts 5–14 days after the tick bite depending on viral titer, while the fever stage lasts 5–11 days, and the range of MOD stage and convalescent stage vary widely per person, though elderly patients are associated with more severe illness and higher likelihood of death [\[51](#page-11-10)].

Detecting acute SFTS in humans is usually performed using IgM and IgG immunoassays [[52\]](#page-11-11). In a long-term follow-up study on convalescence in humans, it was found that IgM antibodies seroconverted about 3 days after infection and would maintain in serum for about 6 months, while IgG antibodies seroconverted after about 17 days and would maintain at peak levels for up to 2 years [\[53](#page-11-12)]. Underlying conditions are associated with higher SFTS mortality rates, such as comorbidities of viral hepatitis, diabetes, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and hyperglycemia [\[54](#page-11-13)]. Notably, in the case of both humans and animals, the "severe" part of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome can be misleading in SFTSV infections that do manifest severe illness, as it can lead to overlooking asymptomatic spread. Reinfection of SFTSV in humans is likely to occur in cases where the first infection led to subclinical outcomes [\[55](#page-11-14)], while fatal SFTS is in part caused by a failure of the host to mount an effective IgG response [[26\]](#page-10-23).

Index case in Thailand

On October 12, 2019, the Division of Epidemiology, Department of Disease Control (DDC), Ministry of Public Health, Thailand was notified by King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital (KCMH) that there was a severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome (SFTS) case at Nakhon Pathom province. The index case was a 70-year-old Thai female admitted to a private hospital in Bangkok. Using a One Health approach, the Joint Investigation Team conducted an investigation aimed to confirm the diagnosis, describe an epidemiological characteristic of the index case, and identify potential reservoirs of SFTSV. The timeline of events is shown in Fig. [2.](#page-4-0)

Investigation processes: The investigation comprised four parts: (i) descriptive study, (ii) laboratory study, (iii) environmental survey, and (iv) animal survey.

(i) Descriptive study: A descriptive cross-sectional study was conducted. We reviewed a medical record of the index case, interviewed the index case's relatives and conducted contact tracing. Active case finding was carried out in her household and among residents who lived nearby the index case's house. A suspected case was defined as a person who had a body temperature≥38˚C or a history of high-grade fever and at least one of the following symptoms: (1) vomiting/diarrhea, (2) confusion/ seizure/coma/stiff neck (3) hematemesis/hematochezia/ ecchymosis; and had at least one of the exposure histories: (1) returned from an endemic area including Mainland China, Japan, South Korea (2) tick bite (3) contact with blood or secretion of a confirmed case during September 1 - October 14, 2019. A suspected case was tested positive using at least one of the following diagnostic tests: (1) RT-PCR for SFTSV; (2) ELISA for SFTSV IgG; (3) Indirect fluorescence assay (IFA) IgG and IgM.

For the definition of contacts, a household contact was a person who lived in the same house or visited the index case's house from September 17–30, 2019. A health care worker (HCW) contact was defined as a health care personnel who had direct contact with blood or secretion from a confirmed case and close contact within onemeter distance of a confirmed case while the case had a cough, was vomiting or bleeding, or had diarrhea. For precaution regarding contact and droplet transmission, a high-risk contact was defined as a contact who did not wear appropriate personal protective equipment (PPE).

(ii) Laboratory study: For the index case, blood samples were collected at day 10 and three months after the onset date, and were tested for SFTSV by real-time RT-PCR and fourfold rising of IgG ELISA assay. Blood samples were collected from all household contacts on October 13, 2019, and tested for SFTSV by real-time RT-PCR and IgG ELISA assay at the KCMH laboratory. The human-positive sample was confirmed via IFA at the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (NIID), Japan.

(ii.a) RNA extraction and real-time RT-PCR detection: The serum or plasma sample was inactivated with lysis buffer before the nucleic acid extraction. RNA was extracted from 1 mL of plasma using the NucliSENS® Magnetic Extraction kit and the NucliSENS[®] miniMAG (bioMérieux, Marcy-l'Étoile, France) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The elution volume for RNA extraction was 50 μ L. The real-time RT-PCR method was performed according to a previous report [\[56](#page-11-15)]. In brief, primers (5′-GGG TCC CTG AAG GAG TTG TAA A-3′ and 5′-TGC CTT CAC CAA GAC TAT CAA TGT-3′) and a TaqMan hydrolysis probe (FAM-TTC TGT CTT GCT GGC TCC GCG C-BHQ-1) were designed to target the conserved sequences in the S segment. The AgPath-ID one-step RT-PCR kit (Thermofisher, MA, USA) was performed according to the manufacturer's Rotor-Gene

Q instrument (QIAGEN, Hiden, Germany) protocol. Each 25 -µL reaction contained 5 µL of RNA, 12.5 µL of 2X RT-PCR Buffer, 1 μ L of RT-PCR enzyme mix, and 3 μ L of 10 μ M primer/probe mix. The cycling conditions were as follows: 50 °C for 30 min, 95 °C for 10 min, then 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, 60 °C for 45 s. The threshold was set at 0.02. The amplification curve of any samples showing a typical S-shaped with a cycle threshold (Ct)<40 was considered to be detected. If positive via real-time RT-PCR, the sample subsequently undergoes PCR and sequencing for confirmation and viral characterization.

(ii.b) IgG Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA): The IgG ELISA was performed at the Thai Red Cross Emerging Infectious Diseases Clinical Center, KCMH. It has been designed to screen human or animal sera using cell lysates as antigens which was provided from NIID, Japan. A Nunc-Immuno Plate (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., MA, USA) was coated with 100 µL per well of a predetermined optimal quantity of Huh7 cell lysates prepared from inactivated SFTSV-infected or uninfected cells (in most cases, 1:800 dilution in PBS), and incubated at 4 degrees Celsius overnight. Then, each well of the plate was inoculated with 200 µL of PBS containing 5% skim milk and 0.05% Tween 20 (PBST-M), followed by incubation for 1 hour for blocking. The plates were washed three times with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20 (PBST) and then inoculated with the test samples (100 μ l/well), which were heat-inactivated at 56°C for 30 minutes and diluted fourfold from 1:100 to 1:6,400 with PBST-M. After a 1-hr incubation period, the plates were washed three times with PBST, and then the plates were inoculated with goat anti-human IgG antibody labeled with HRPO (PerkinElmer, MA. USA) diluted 1:1000 with PBST-M, which was added to each well and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. In testing the animal sera, 1:1000 dilution of the Recombinant Protein A/G peroxidase conjugated (Pierce™, Thermofisher, MA, USA) was used as a secondary antibody. After a additional 1 hour incubation period, the plates were washed, and $100 \mu L$ of ABTS [2,2'-azinobis (3-ethylbenzthiazoline sulfonic acid)] substrate solution (Roche Diagnostics, Maaheim, Germany) were added and incubated for 30 min at room temperature. The optical density at 405 nm (OD405) was measured against a reference of 490 nm using a microplate reader (Model Varioskan™ LUX multimode Microplate Reader; Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., MA, USA). The adjusted OD405 value was calculated by subtracting the OD405 value of the negative antigen-coated wells from that of the corresponding wells. The cut-off value was determined as the average value of the control sera (healthy donor sera) plus three times the standard deviation (SD; mean+3xSD). The sample was considered positive if it yielded an adjusted OD405 value above the cut-off value.

(iii) Environmental survey: An environmental survey was carried out in the index case's house and neighborhood area in a community to assess sanitation and identify possible reservoirs of SFTSV. We also investigated areas which could serve as shelters and sources of food for animals. These areas included construction sites, temples, markets, municipal solid waste-collecting sites, orchards, and paddy fields.

(iv) Animal survey: A direct observation of animals was conducted to identify potential reservoir populations roaming around the study area. The potential animal reservoir was defined as a synanthropic animal (including cats, dogs, rodents, and birds) living in proximity to the index case's house from September 1 - October 14, 2019. A suspected animal reservoir was classified as an asymptomatic reservoir that was apparently healthy; otherwise, a symptomatic reservoir was classified by a fever and at least one of the following symptoms: (1) weight loss, (2) jaundice, (3) depression, or (4) anorexia. A probable and confirmed animal reservoir was a suspected animal with positive IgG ELISA and RT-PCR for SFTSV, respectively. We asked the owners to collect the health history of any domestic animals and did an empirical physical examination. We reviewed an animal case record to see if any relevant animal cases were brought to an animal clinic/ hospital.

Rodent traps were placed at the buildings surrounding the index case's house, one at each building. Other traps were placed under the food and produce stalls in a nearby market. Bird coop with bait was set to capture free-ranging birds outside the index case' house and the market. Blood samples were collected from cats and dogs in the index case's house as well as rats and birds. Ticks found from animals were sent to the laboratory of the Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Veterinary Science, Chulalongkorn University for species identification. All animal samples were tested for SFTSV by real-time RT-PCR at the KCMH laboratory.

IRB/IACUC approval was not required because this was an outbreak investigation performed by the Joint Investigation Team (JIT), Division of Epidemiology, Department of Disease Control, Ministry of Public Health, Thailand.

One health approach investigation

a) **Description of the index case**, **2019**: The index case was a 70-year-old Thai female owning a grocery store in Sam Phran District, Nakhon Pathom Province. Her underlying medical condition was dyslipidemia. She had fed cats and dogs in her house for five years and preferred to get rid of their ticks (*Rhipicephalus sanguineus)* with her bare hands—she regularly had wounds under her fingernails from this activity. We

Table 1 SFTSV RNA, IgM, and IgG antibody detection results of the human samples

Patient ID	Host type	Specimen type	Collection date	Laboratory results				
				RT-PCR (Ct)	Serology	lgG ELISA**	lgG-IFA	IgM-IFA
$P - 01/1*$	patient	Plasma	$9 - Oct - 2019$	Positive (29.47)	Positive	400	320	< 10
$P - 01/2*$	patient	Serum	8-Jan-2020	Negative	Positive	≥ 6400	Not done	Not done
$C-01$	contact	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Negative	< 100	< 10	< 10
$C-02$	contact	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	≥ 100	< 10	< 10
$C-03$	contact	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Negative	< 100	< 10	< 10
$C-04$	contact	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Negative	< 100	< 10	< 10
$C-05$	contact	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Negative	< 100	< 10	< 10
$C-06$	contact	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Negative	< 100	< 10	< 10
$C-07$	contact	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	>100	< 10	< 10
$C-08$	contact	Serum	23-Oct-2019	Negative	Negative	< 100	< 10	< 10

*The same patient but collected samples at different time points

**The mean of 10 healthy human control sera=0.00, SD=0.013; cutoff for human sample=0.039 (Supplemental Table 1)

Table 2 SFTSV RNA, IgM, and IgG antibody detection results of the animal samples

Animal ID	Host	Specimen type	Collection date	Laboratory results		
				RT-PCR	laG ELISA	IgG ELISA Titer
$D-01$	Dog	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	≥ 6400
$D-02$	Dog	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	≥ 6400
$D-03$	Dog	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	≥ 6400
$D-04$	Dog	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	≥ 6400
$C-01$	Cat	Serum	13-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	≥ 6400
$C-02$	Cat	Serum	22-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	≥ 6400
$C-03$	Cat	Serum	22-Oct-2019	Negative	Positive	≥ 6400
$R-01$	Rat	Serum	23-Oct-2019	Negative	Negative	< 100
$Contro*D1-10$	Dog	Serum	April 2022	Negative	Negative	< 100
Control*C1-10	Cat	Serum	April 2022	Negative	Negative	< 100

Cutoff calculation=mean of control sera +3 \times SD

*The mean of 20 control sera=0.00, SD=0.013; cutoff for animal sample=0.034 (Supplemental Table 1)

identified 10–20 ticks per suspected animal reservoir. The index case did not travel to other provinces one month prior to the onset of her symptoms, and she had never traveled abroad.

- b) **Real-time RT-PCR detection of SFTSV in humans and animals**: The result of the SFTSV RNA fragments of S gene was detected in the plasma sample of the patient $(Ct=29.47)$ by real-time RT-PCR for the partial small (S) segment. However, a conventional PCR test at the nucleoprotein gene was negative (data not shown). Then, 19 samples from the at-risk groups who had been in contact with the patients were collected: 8 household contacts, 4 dogs, 3 cats and 1 rat. The results of real-time RT-PCR for these samples were all negative (Tables [1](#page-6-0) and [2\)](#page-6-1).
- c) **SFTSV IgG antibody detection in humans and animals**: A blood specimen was collected from the patient, and eight serum samples were collected from household contacts: persons who lived in the same house or visited the index case's house, and a healthcare worker who had had direct contact with the blood or secretions of the patient. Viral antibody detection by IgG ELISA was conducted

to diagnose SFTS. Serum samples obtained from 10 healthy donors were used to establish the cutoff value of the IgG ELISA, and the cut-off OD was 0.009 (Table [1](#page-6-0)). The patient samples collected during the symptomatic phase (P-01/1, October 9, 2019) and 3 months after symptom onset (P-01/2, January 8, 2020) were IgG-ELISA positive at 400 and ≥6400, respectively. The first plasma sample of the patient was confirmed positive by IgG-IFA at titer 320 but not by IgM-IFA. Notably, the IgM-IFA is less sensitive than IgG-IFA [[10\]](#page-10-8), which is likely the reason for the negative result. Our study did not involve IgM capturing, which significantly reduces the sensitivity of the assays. Even though the IgM-IFA of the patient's first serum was negative, a fourfold increase of IgG titer by ELISA in two consecutive patient sera was mandatory to conclude true SFTSV infection. Two serum samples from contacts (C-02 and C-07) were weakly positive for IgG-ELISA antibodies to SFTSV at 1:100 dilution with OD 0.028 and 0.067, respectively, but negative by IgG-IFA and IgM-IFA, as shown in Table [1](#page-6-0) and Supplemental Fig. 1. IgG ELISA generally has low specificity [[17](#page-10-14)],

so we performed an additional experiment, IgG IFA. Sera showing positive in both ELISA and IFA would be true antibody-positive against the SFTSV.

- d) **Environmental investigation**: The index case's home was a single-story house (Fig. [3](#page-7-0)). In front of the house was the local road next to the irrigation canal, while behind the house was a banana plantation. The house was located near the famous floating market in the metropolitan area with convenient public transportation. During weekends and holidays, many Thai and foreigner tourists visited there to purchase Thai food and souvenirs. Some tourists also visit a local Buddhist temple to participate in religious rituals. Despite a regular waste collection by the local government, the markets and large number of people generated a high amount of solid waste. The temple nearby served as a good roosting site for feral pigeons and other generalist birds. Agricultural areas such as banana plantations and rice fields, along with construction sites and garbage collecting points, provided shelter and food sources for free-roaming dogs and cats, plus rodents. Additionally, shaded areas under the buildings could potentially serve as resting and questing grounds for ticks, mites, and fleas.
- e) **Animal investigation**: There were three dogs, twelve cats, and one squirrel (*Callosciurus finlaysoni*) kept at the index case's house. All animals in the house were not sick. Almost all the pets were indigenously born except some cats with unknown history were adopted from other people. The squirrel was confined in a small cage. Both the dogs and cats

were kept within the home area. However, at least three stray cats were found on the roof of her house. All dogs and cats in the house were reportedly vaccinated against feline parvovirus and rabies but there was no vaccination record. The dogs suffered from skin diseases and many ticks (10–20 each) were found on their bodies. In early September 2019, seven cats became lethargic and anorexic and gradually died of feline distemper within one week. Unfortunately, they were not tested for SFTSV infection during the outbreak investigation.

The blood specimens were collected from suspected animals living at the index case's house, including 4 dogs and 3 cats, totaling 7 serum samples. All seven serum samples from suspected dogs and cats showed positive IgG antibodies against SFTSV with a high titer of \geq 6400, as shown in Table [2.](#page-6-1) Twenty healthy animal samples from the non-effect area (from Bangkok, >50 km far from Nakhon Pathom) were used to establish the cut-off value of the IgG ELISA; all showed an OD≤0.00. Supplemental Table 1 shows raw data of IgG ELISA OD. Unfortunately, the animal samples were not confirmed by IFA due to the strict regulations on shipping animal samples to Japan.

A survey of animals raised in the neighboring area found dogs, cats, rabbits, pet birds, chickens, and geese. Livestock including goats, sheep, cattle, or horses were not found in the area. One sick dog was found in a house next to the index case's house, but the owner denied our request to collect a specimen. Only one Pacific rat (*Rattus exulans*) was captured as the relative abundance of rats was very low (2.1 rats per 100 trap-nights). There was

Fig. 3 Map of the index case's house and nearby environment

Greater Bandicoot Rat (*Bandicota indica*) farming near the index case's house, but the farmer denied specimen collection. Rat farmers usually collect the animals from multiple middlemen in rural areas from different provinces, keep the rats for propagation and fattening, and slaughter and sell them as food delicacies when an order is placed. The most abundant birds from point counts were feral pigeons (*Columba livia domestica*) which live in flocks, roost on temples, and feed on swill around the area. The RT-PCR for SFTSV negative results for cat and dog samples in the index case's house, as well as the rat sample, are shown in Table [2.](#page-6-1) Birds (*n*=10) in a neighborhood area all tested negative for SFTSV (data not shown). Ticks (*n*=10) on the dogs were identified as *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* and their RT-PCR for SFTSV results were also negative (data not shown).

One health approach for SFTS response

Our study demonstrates the use of the One Health approach to support outbreak investigations of SFTS as an emerging disease in Thailand. Overall, the prevalence of SFTSV in animals in Southeast Asia is unclear, particularly in Thailand. Upon a suspected SFTS outbreak, we conducted concurrent human-animal-environmental health studies aimed at revealing current prevalence of SFTS and routes of SFTSV transmission between species. As such, we propose integrating SFTS surveillance in Thailand along the human-animal-environmental interface in domestic and farming livestock and poultry, notably by including samples of wildlife which could serve as reservoirs of SFTSV as it spreads to humans both via tick bite and direct contact with animals or their secretions and droplets.

The first confirmed case of SFTSV infection in Thailand was reported in 2019 from two studies: one case in Nakhon Pathom (same case as our study) by RT-PCR without sequencing [[15](#page-10-13)], and 3 cases in or near Bangkok by PCR and sequencing [\[16](#page-10-36), [57\]](#page-11-16). In this outbreak investigation, SFTS case was confirmed (1) RT-PCR positive, (2) IgG-ELISA and IgG-IFA positive at 10 days after symptom onset, (3) the fourfold IgG antibody raising at 3 months after symptom onset, and (4) high titer IgG antibody positives from seven animals (4 dogs and 3 cats) living at the index case's house. It should be noted that the conventional PCR was negative such that sequencing could not be performed, which might be due to low viral copies (ct 29.47), while the IgM-IFA was negative from the same sample collected 10 days after onset. Therefore, the first SFTSV case in Thailand has been confirmed based on a combination of real-time PCR and IgG seroconversion results. We demonstrate that a combination of diagnostic tools is needed for SFTS confirmation. We note that index case and her family did not travel abroad for three months prior to the infection, highlighting that SFTSV has been prevalent in Thailand for longer than we presently know. Notably, IgG ELISA tests conducted among domestic animals in the village, both cats and dogs, yielded positive results with a high titer, confirming the local infection of SFTSV. Meanwhile, RT-PCR tests across all animal samples including ticks collected from these antibody-positive animals were negative. This finding may indicate that the animals were infected by SFTSV for a long period of time [[41,](#page-11-1) [51\]](#page-11-10) before patient onset and probably the source of infection. Continued One Health surveillance is essential to rule out if SFTS is endemic in this area or if this outbreak was a one-time event. Two household contacts had weak IgG-positive antibodies against SFTSV via IgG-ELISA, but they were found negative by IgG-IFA; in addition, they did not have any symptoms related to SFTS during the past 12 months. The weak positive IgG result may be caused by cross-reaction with other endemic diseases or the antibody wane from a long post-infection period. This emphasizes the need for a confirmation test for weak SFTS-positive results.

Ixodid ticks likely drive SFTSV transmission in domestic animals and wildlife alike, but we propose that conducting surveillance for synanthropic animals is much easier and more pertinent to public health. The first broad surveillance of SFTSV in East Asia for domesticated artiodactyls and other wild mammals was conducted in Taiwan about twenty months (from March 2021 to December 2022), the highest RNA prevalence of SFTSV being in sheep, cattle, and goats, while wildlife had a positive rate of 11.9% [[58](#page-11-17)]. This surveillance program only elucidated one side of the epidemiology of SFTS, though, as the authors did not include human serologic samples in their study. Furthermore, a meta-analysis on the infection rate and susceptibility of animals to SFTSV in 2018 analyzed seroprevalence and found high prevalence among goats, sheep, cattle, and dogs (>29%), with low prevalence among chickens, rodents and pigs (<10%). The meta-analysis conducted by Chen et al., 2019, provides valuable insights into the epidemiology of SFTSV in animals, but also highlights a need for combining animal data with human data $[24]$. Indeed, a gap remains in understanding the true endemic range of SFTSV in both humans and animals, as well as in understanding links of *Ha. longicornis*, *R. sanguineus*, and other ticks as SFTSV vectors across the human-animal interface.

The clear limitation of this study is the scarce number of samples to yield robust conclusions about how SFTSV had spread. Because this was the first One Health investigation for SFTS in Thailand, the Surveillance and Rapid Response Team (SRRT) from the Department of Disease Control (DDC), Ministry of Public Health collected samples only deemed relevant to the immediate need. This limits our understanding of true SFTSV prevalence in the area and necessitates further investigation. Despite

our limited sample size, SFTSV in domestic animals in Thailand is corroborated by a recent publication from Ishijima et al., 2023, who showed through RT-PCR and immunoassays that approximately 17% of dogs in multiple districts across central Thailand were infected with SFTSV, suggesting the widespread of SFTSV in the country [\[17\]](#page-10-14).

Overall, our understanding of the maintenance and circulation of SFTSV in animals in Thailand remains to be explored, as further studies on other free-ranging animals such as rodents and exotic farmed animals like bandicoots have not yet been conducted. In addition, Thailand has competent tick vectors capable of transmitting SFTSV, and while the *R. sanguineus* dog ticks in this investigation tested negative for SFTSV by RT-PCR, it is plausible that we are presently blind to local transmission of SFTSV occurring through tick blood meals, as well as through transovarial and transstadial routes. In order to manage and mitigate the emerging threat of SFTSV among both human and animal populations, the DDC, alongside multisectoral partners from the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, and Universities, has implemented a collaborative One Health network. The aim is to establish a robust surveillance system for monitoring SFTS occurrences in both humans and animals. We are making concerted efforts to enhance the capacity of public health laboratories specifically dedicated to SFTSV diagnosis.

Actions taken post-study

We notified Thailand's national focal point for the International Health Regulations, provided health education to a family member regarding tick bite prevention, and removed ticks from the index case's house using a 6%w/v Flumethrin solution. We conducted follow-up with case contacts alongside local public health officers and infection control nurses from private hospitals. Additionally, we facilitated risk communication for the general population in the region.

Abbreviations

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1186/s42522-024-00112-w) [org/10.1186/s42522-024-00112-w.](https://doi.org/10.1186/s42522-024-00112-w)

Supplementary Material 1

Supplementary Material 2

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the Surveillance and Rapid Response Team of the Department of Disease Control, Ministry of Public Health for their outbreak investigation; the Thai Red Cross Emerging Infectious Disease Health Science Center, KCMH for performing RT-PCR of the index case; and the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (NIID), Japan for their IgG ELISA tests. Research reported in this publication was in-part supported by the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases of the National Institute of Health under Award Number U01AI151797 and the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Cooperative Agreement No. U01GH002402). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institute of Health.

Author contributions

CS conducted the filed investigation and wrote the manuscript. RT conducted the filed investigation and wrote the manuscript. CSH wrote the manuscript. PL collected specimens and contributed to the manuscript. CC conducted the filed investigation and collected specimens. NT conducted laboratory tests. SP conducted laboratory tests. PT conducted laboratory tests. SW analyzed laboratory data, oversaw the study, and reviewed the final manuscript. RB oversaw the study and reviewed the final manuscript. TK conducted laboratory tests. TY conducted laboratory tests. MS oversaw the study and reviewed the final manuscript. SI oversaw the study and reviewed the final manuscript. OP oversaw the study and reviewed the final manuscript.

Funding

This research was in part supported by the National Research Council of Thailand (N35A640452, N35A660821); National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases of the National Institutes of Health (NIAID-CREID U01AI151797 EID-SEARCH) and US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Cooperative Agreement No. U01GH002402).

Data availability

Supplementary Table 1: IgG ELISA Results. Supplementary Fig. 1: IgG-IFA and IgM-IFA Results. Other data used during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

IRB/IACUC approval was not required because this was an outbreak investigation performed by the Joint Investigation Team (JIT) at the Division of Epidemiology, Department of Disease Control, Ministry of Public Health, Thailand.

Consent for publication

The need for informed consent was waived due to the samples being collected for an outbreak investigation.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author details

¹ Department of Disease Control, Ministry of Public Health, Mueang, Nonthaburi, Thailand

²Thai Red Cross Emerging Infectious Diseases Clinical Center, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, Rama IV Road, Bangkok

10330, Thailand

³ Department of Veterinary Public Health, Faculty of Veterinary Science, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand

4 Parasitology Unit, Department of Pathology, Faculty of Veterinary

Science, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand

5 Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand ⁶Department of Virology I, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo, Japan

⁷ Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand

Received: 1 February 2024 / Accepted: 13 August 2024 Published online: 01 October 2024

References

- Yu XJ, Liang MF, Zhang SY, et al. Fever with thrombocytopenia associated with a novel bunyavirus in China. N Engl J Med. 2011;364(16):1523–32. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1010095>.
- 2. Li J, Li S, Yang L, Cao P, Lu J. Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus: a highly lethal bunyavirus. Crit Rev Microbiol. 2021;47(1):112–25. [https://doi.org/10.1080/1040841X.2020.1847037.](https://doi.org/10.1080/1040841X.2020.1847037)
- 3. Li Z, Bao C, Hu J, et al. Ecology of the Tick-Borne Phlebovirus causing severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome in an endemic area of China. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2016;10(4):e0004574. [https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0004574) [pntd.0004574.](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0004574)
- 4. Zhang YZ, Zhou DJ, Qin XC, et al. The Ecology, genetic diversity, and phylogeny of Huaiyangshan Virus in China. J Virol. 2012;86(5):2864–8. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.06192-11) [org/10.1128/jvi.06192-11](https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.06192-11).
- 5. Kohl C, Brinkmann A, Radonić A, et al. Zwiesel bat banyangvirus, a potentially zoonotic Huaiyangshan banyangvirus (formerly known as SFTS)–like banyangvirus in Northern bats from Germany. Sci Rep. 2020;10(1):1370. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-58466-w) [doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-58466-w.](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-58466-w)
- 6. Li JC, Zhao J, Li H, Fang LQ, Liu W. Epidemiology, clinical characteristics, and treatment of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome. Infect Med. 2022;1(1):40–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.imj.2021.10.001>.
- 7. Kim KH, Yi J, Kim G, et al. Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome, South Korea, 2012. Emerg Infect Dis. 2013;19(11):1892–4. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1911.130792) [org/10.3201/eid1911.130792](https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1911.130792).
- 8. Liu Q, He B, Huang SY, Wei F, Zhu XQ. Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome, an emerging tick-borne zoonosis. Lancet Infect Dis. 2014;14(8):763–72. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(14\)70718-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(14)70718-2).
- 9. Yun SM, Lee YJ, Choi W, et al. Molecular detection of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome and tick-borne encephalitis viruses in ixodid ticks collected from vegetation. Repub Korea 2014 Ticks Tick-borne Dis. 2016;7(5):970–8.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ttbdis.2016.05.003>.
- 10. Takahashi T, Maeda K, Suzuki T, et al. The first identification and retrospective study of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome in Japan. J Infect Dis. 2014;209(6):816–27. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jit603>.
- 11. Tran XC, Yun Y, Van An L, et al. Endemic severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome, Vietnam. Emerg Infect Dis. 2019;25(5):1029–31. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2505.181463) [org/10.3201/eid2505.181463](https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2505.181463).
- 12. Lin TL, Ou SC, Maeda K, et al. The first discovery of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus in Taiwan. Emerg Microbes Infect. 2020;9(1):148– 51.<https://doi.org/10.1080/22221751.2019.1710436>.
- 13. Zohaib A, Zhang J, Saqib M, et al. Serologic evidence of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Virus and related viruses in Pakistan. Emerg Infect Dis. 2020;26(7):1513–6.<https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2607.190611>.
- 14. Win AM, Nguyen YTH, Kim Y, et al. Genotypic heterogeneity of Orientia tsutsugamushi in Scrub Typhus patients and Thrombocytopenia Syndrome co-infection, Myanmar. Emerg Infect Dis. 2020;26(8):1878–81. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2608.200135) [org/10.3201/eid2608.200135](https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2608.200135).
- 15. Ongkittikul S, Watanawong R, Rompho P. Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus: the first case report in Thailand. Bangkok Med J. 2020;16:204. [https://doi.org/10.31524/bkkmedj.2020.22.001.](https://doi.org/10.31524/bkkmedj.2020.22.001)
- 16. Rattanakomol P, Khongwichit S, Linsuwanon P, Lee KH, Vongpunsawad S, Poovorawan Y. Severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Virus infection, Thailand, 2019–2020. Emerg Infect Dis. 2022;28(12):2572–4. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2812.221183) [org/10.3201/eid2812.221183](https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2812.221183).
- 17. Ishijima K, Phichitraslip T, Naimon N, et al. High seroprevalence of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Virus infection among the Dog Population in Thailand. Viruses. 2023;15(12):2403. [https://doi.org/10.3390/](https://doi.org/10.3390/v15122403) [v15122403.](https://doi.org/10.3390/v15122403)
- 18. Huang X, Li J, Li A, Wang S, Li D. Epidemiological characteristics of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome from 2010 to 2019 in Mainland

China. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2021;18(6):3092. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18063092) [org/10.3390/ijerph18063092.](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18063092)

- 19. Mackenzie JS, Jeggo M. The One Health Approach—Why is it so important? Trop Med Infect Dis. 2019;4(2):88. [https://doi.org/10.3390/](https://doi.org/10.3390/tropicalmed4020088) [tropicalmed4020088.](https://doi.org/10.3390/tropicalmed4020088)
- 20. Osterhaus A, Mackenzie J. Pandemic preparedness planning in peacetime: what is missing? One Health Outlook. 2020;2(1):19. [https://doi.org/10.1186/](https://doi.org/10.1186/s42522-020-00027-2) [s42522-020-00027-2](https://doi.org/10.1186/s42522-020-00027-2).
- 21. Mackenzie JS, McKinnon M, Jeggo M. One health: from Concept to Practice. In: Yamada A, Kahn LH, Kaplan B, Monath TP, Woodall J, Conti L, editors. Confronting emerging zoonoses: the One Health paradigm. Springer Japan; 2014. pp. 163–89. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-4-431-55120-1_8.](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-4-431-55120-1_8)
- 22. Osterhaus ADME, Vanlangendonck C, Barbeschi M, et al. Make science evolve into a one health approach to improve health and security: a white paper. One Health Outlook. 2020;2(1):6. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s42522-019-0009-7>.
- 23. Sun MH, Ji YF, Li GH, et al. Highly adaptive Phenuiviridae with biomedical importance in multiple fields. J Med Virol. 2022;94(6):2388–401. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.27618) [org/10.1002/jmv.27618](https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.27618).
- 24. Chen C, Li P, Li KF, et al. Animals as amplification hosts in the spread of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Infect Dis. 2019;79:77–84. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2018.11.017) iiid.2018.11.017
- 25. Raghavan RK, Barker SC, Cobos ME, et al. Potential spatial distribution of the newly introduced Long-Horned Tick, Haemaphysalis longicornis in North America. Sci Rep. 2019;9(1):498. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-37205-2.](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-37205-2)
- 26. Casel MA, Park SJ, Choi YK. Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus: emerging novel phlebovirus and their control strategy. Exp Mol Med. 2021;53(5):713–22.<https://doi.org/10.1038/s12276-021-00610-1>.
- 27. Do T, Phoosangwalthong P, Kamyingkird K, Kengradomkij C, Chimnoi W, Inpankaew T. Molecular Detection of Tick-Borne pathogens in Stray Dogs and Rhipicephalus sanguineus Sensu Lato ticks from Bangkok, Thailand. Pathogens. 2021;10(5):561.<https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens10050561>.
- 28. Luong NH, Kamyingkird K, Thammasonthijarern N, et al. Companion Vector-Borne pathogens and Associated Risk factors in apparently healthy Pet animals (dogs and cats) in Khukhot City Municipality, Pathum Thani Province, Thailand. Pathogens. 2023;12(3):391. [https://doi.org/10.3390/](https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens12030391) [pathogens12030391](https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens12030391).
- 29. Nguyen VL, Colella V, Greco G, et al. Molecular detection of pathogens in ticks and fleas collected from companion dogs and cats in East and Southeast Asia. Parasites Vectors. 2020;13(1):420. [https://doi.org/10.1186/](https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-020-04288-8) [s13071-020-04288-8](https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-020-04288-8).
- 30. Raksakoon C, Potiwat R. Current Arboviral threats and their potential vectors in Thailand. Pathogens. 2021;10(1):80. [https://doi.org/10.3390/](https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens10010080) [pathogens10010080](https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens10010080).
- 31. Choi CY, Kang CW, Kim EM, et al. Ticks collected from migratory birds, including a new record of Haemaphysalis formosensis, on Jeju Island, Korea. Exp Appl Acarol. 2014;62(4):557–66. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10493-013-9748-9>.
- 32. Choi CY, Kang CW, Yun YM, Nam HY. Can we blame migratory birds for transmission of the emerging severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Virus in East Asia? Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2015;93(6):1391–2. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.15-0524a) [org/10.4269/ajtmh.15-0524a.](https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.15-0524a)
- 33. Tsuru M, Suzuki T, Murakami T, et al. Pathological characteristics of a patient with severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome (SFTS) infected with SFTS Virus through a Sick Cat's bite. Viruses. 2021;13(2):204. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.3390/v13020204) [org/10.3390/v13020204.](https://doi.org/10.3390/v13020204)
- 34. Kida K, Matsuoka Y, Shimoda T, et al. A case of cat-to-human transmission of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Virus. Jpn J Infect Dis. 2019;72(5):356–8. [https://doi.org/10.7883/yoken.JJID.2018.526.](https://doi.org/10.7883/yoken.JJID.2018.526)
- 35. Kim WY, Choi W, Park SW, et al. Nosocomial transmission of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome in Korea. Clin Infect Dis. 2015;60(11):1681–3. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/civ128>.
- 36. Jiang XL, Zhang S, Jiang M, et al. A cluster of person-to-person transmission cases caused by SFTS virus in Penglai, China. Clin Microbiol Infect. 2015;21(3):274–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2014.10.006>.
- 37. Crump A, Tanimoto T. Severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome: Japan under threat from life-threatening Emerging Tick-borne disease. JMA J. 2020;3(4):295–302.<https://doi.org/10.31662/jmaj.2019-0073>.
- 38. Nam SJ, Oh YI, Kim HJ, Cheon DS, Noh SJ, Hong YJ. Unusual case of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome showing clinical manifestations in a companion dog. Vet Med Sci. 2020;6(3):353–8. [https://doi.org/10.1002/](https://doi.org/10.1002/vms3.261) [vms3.261.](https://doi.org/10.1002/vms3.261)
- 39. Han SW, Kang JG, Byeon AR, Cho YK, Choi KS, Chae JS. Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome in canines from the Republic of Korea. Ticks Tick Borne Dis. 2020;11(4):101454. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ttbdis.2020.101454) [ttbdis.2020.101454](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ttbdis.2020.101454).
- 40. Ishijima K, Tatemoto K, Park E, et al. Lethal Disease in Dogs naturally infected with severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Virus. Viruses. 2022;14(9). <https://doi.org/10.3390/v14091963>.
- 41. Park SC, Park JY, Choi JY, et al. Experimental infection of dogs with severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus: pathogenicity and potential for intraspecies transmission. Transbound Emerg Dis. 2022;69(5):3090–6. [https://doi.org/10.1111/tbed.14372.](https://doi.org/10.1111/tbed.14372)
- 42. Han SW, An JH, Rim JM, et al. Confirmed cases of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome in companion cats with a history of tick exposure in the Republic of Korea. J Vet Sci. 2022;23(6):e83. [https://doi.org/10.4142/jvs.22104.](https://doi.org/10.4142/jvs.22104)
- 43. Park Esil, Shimojima M, Nagata N, et al. Severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Phlebovirus causes lethal viral hemorrhagic fever in cats. Sci Rep. 2019;9(1):11990. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-48317-8.](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-48317-8)
- 44. Matsuu A, Hatai H, Hifumi T, et al. Clinical and pathological findings in fatal cases of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome with High Viremia in cats. Top Companion Anim Med. 2023;52:100756. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tcam.2022.100756) [tcam.2022.100756](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tcam.2022.100756).
- 45. Matsuu A, Momoi Y, Nishiguchi A, et al. Natural severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus infection in domestic cats in Japan. Vet Microbiol. 2019;236:108346.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2019.06.019>.
- 46. Matsuu A, Hamakubo E, Yabuki M. Seroprevalence of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus in animals in Kagoshima Prefecture, Japan, and development of Gaussia luciferase immunoprecipitation system to detect specific IgG antibodies. Ticks Tick-borne Dis. 2021;12(5):101771. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ttbdis.2021.101771>.
- 47. Zhang Y, Huang Y, Xu Y. Antiviral treatment options for severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome infections. Infect Dis Ther. 2022;11(5):1805–19. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40121-022-00693-x>.
- 48. Song R, Chen Z, Li W. Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome (SFTS) treated with a novel antiviral medication, favipiravir (T-705). Infection. 2020;48(2):295–8. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-019-01364-9.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-019-01364-9)
- 49. Nakamura S, Azuma M, Maruhashi T, et al. Steroid pulse therapy in patients with encephalopathy associated with severe fever with thrombocytopenia

syndrome. J Infect Chemother. 2018;24(5):389–92. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiac.2017.11.004) ijac.2017.11.004

- 50. Chen Q, Yang D, Zhang Y, Zhu M, Chen N, Yushan Z. Transmission and mortality risk assessment of severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome in China: results from 11-years' study. Infect Dis Poverty. 2022;11(1):93. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1186/s40249-022-01017-4) [doi.org/10.1186/s40249-022-01017-4.](https://doi.org/10.1186/s40249-022-01017-4)
- 51. Dualis H, Zefong AC, Joo LK, et al. Factors and outcomes in severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome (SFTS): a systematic review. Annals Med Surg. 2021;67:102501. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amsu.2021.102501>.
- 52. Chung H, Kim E, Kwon B, et al. Kinetics of Glycoprotein-Specific Antibody Response in patients with severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome. Viruses. 2022;14(2):256. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v14020256>.
- 53. Hu L, Kong Q, Liu Y, et al. Time course of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Virus and antibodies in patients by Long-Term Follow-Up study, China. Front Microbiol. 2021;12. [https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2021.744037.](https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2021.744037)
- 54. Zhang SF, Yang ZD, Huang ML, et al. Preexisting chronic conditions for fatal outcome among SFTS patients: an observational Cohort Study. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2019;13(5):e0007434. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0007434>.
- 55. Ye XL, Dai K, Lu QB, et al. Infection with severe fever with Thrombocytopenia virus in healthy population: a cohort study in a high endemic region, China. Infect Dis Poverty. 2021;10(06):74–82. [https://doi.org/10.1186/](https://doi.org/10.1186/s40249-021-00918-0) [s40249-021-00918-0](https://doi.org/10.1186/s40249-021-00918-0).
- 56. Sun Y, Liang M, Qu J, et al. Early diagnosis of novel SFTS bunyavirus infection by quantitative real-time RT-PCR assay. J Clin Virol. 2012;53(1):48–53. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcv.2011.09.031) doi.org/10.1016/j.jcv.2011.09.031.
- 57. Rattanakomol P, Khongwichit S, Chuchaona W, Vongpunsawad S, Poovorawan Y. Severe fever with thrombocytopenia syndrome virus genotype B in Thailand. Arch Virol. 2023;168(11):271. [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00705-023-05897-1) [s00705-023-05897-1](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00705-023-05897-1).
- 58. Kuan CY, Lin TL, Ou SC, et al. The First Nationwide Surveillance of severe fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome in ruminants and Wildlife in Taiwan. Viruses. 2023;15(2):441. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v15020441>.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.