



Yellow fever in South America – A plea for action and call for prevention also in travelers from SLAMVI, ESGITM, EVASG, ALEIMC, GEPI-SEIMC, SEMEVI, and CMTZMV-ACIN[☆]

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The origin of yellow fever (YF) is believed to be in Africa, with the disease arriving in the Caribbean and Brazil on slave ships during the 1500s. Then, it spread from the Caribbean to the United States of America (USA), reaching the cities of New Orleans and Philadelphia. It was identified on European soil, arriving via conquistador ships and causing major outbreaks in the French port city of Marseille. Since then, the YF virus has easily adapted to naïve vectors and reservoirs in the tropical Americas, where it is endemic [1–4], and intermittently epidemic (<https://www.cdc.gov/yellow-book/hcp/travel-associate-d-infections-diseases/yellow-fever.html>). YF, caused by the YF virus (YFV) (Flaviviridae family) (*Orthoflavivirus flavi*) (ICTV 2022/2024) (<http://bit.ly/4kTkS9z>) [5], a mosquito-borne viral disease and one of the most critical hemorrhagic fevers endemic to tropical and subtropical regions of Africa and South America, continues to pose significant challenges to public health, particularly in low and middle-income countries of the latter [1,6]. Globally, about 1.54 billion individuals live in regions conducive to YF transmission [7]. In recent years, South America has experienced a resurgence in YFV and geographical expansion of transmission in some countries, affecting both human and non-human primate (NHP) populations [8,9]. More than 300 cases of YF have been reported in six South American countries during the outbreaks initiated in 2024 and ongoing in 2025, representing up to July 6 2025 a fourfold increase compared to the cases reported in 2024 (61 in

2024 and 255 in half of 2025) (<https://www.who.int/emergencies/disease-outbreak-news/item/2025-DON570>), with more than 40% resulting in a fatal outcome (Table 1). Such a staggering case fatality rate, in a vaccine-preventable disease, not only highlights the urgency to improve coverage rates and traveler awareness but also underscores YF's standing as one of the deadliest vaccine-preventable viral infections.

The increasing ecological, epidemiological, and societal complexity of the disease demands renewed attention from local health authorities and international scientific societies in infectious diseases and travel medicine [10]. This editorial highlights the urgent need to enhance prevention strategies, including for international travel. Although no imported cases have been reported from South America to other regions during the 2024/25 outbreak, a preventive approach to risk assessment is necessary [11]. This is highly relevant, especially considering the high case fatality rate among unvaccinated individuals despite management in critical care units (Table 1) [12]. It is worth remembering that in previous outbreaks in the region, imported cases have been reported abroad (e.g., cases from Brazil reported in Europe in 2018), on many occasions, leading to fatal outcomes [13]. Even in South America, Argentina and Chile had also imported YF cases from Brazil.

Over the last decade, Brazil has borne the brunt of YF outbreaks, with significant urban expansion into sylvatic transmission zones [14]. Driven by epizootics among NHPs, this has resulted in the emergence of

[☆] SLAMVI, Latin American Society for Travel Medicine; ESGITM, European Society for Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases (ESCMID) Study Group for Infections in Travellers and Migrants; EVASG, European Society for Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases (ESCMID) and Vaccine Study Group; ALEIMC, Latin American Alliance of Infectious Diseases and Clinical Microbiology; GEPI-SEIMC, Group of Study of Imported Pathology of the Spanish Society for Infectious Diseases and Clinical Microbiology; SEMEVI, Spanish Society for Travel Medicine; CTMZMV-ACIN, Committee of Tropical Medicine, Zoonoses and Travel Medicine of the Colombian Association of Infectious Diseases.

Table 1
Epidemiological indicators of the yellow fever outbreak in the Americas, from 2024 up to July 11, 2025, according to PAHO (<https://shiny.paho-phe.org/yell-owfever/>).

Country	Cases	Deaths	Population ^a	Incidence ^b	CFR ^c	Mortality ^d
Americas Region	327	136	1,050,000,000	0.31	41.59	0.13
Brazil ^e	119	47	218,803,058	0.54	39.50	0.21
Colombia ^f	119	50	52,610,722	2.26	42.02	0.95
Peru ^g	64	26	35,015,825	1.83	40.63	0.74
Bolivia	11	5	12,746,148	0.86	45.45	0.39
Ecuador	10	8	18,563,370	0.54	80.00	0.43
Guyana	3	0	825,051	3.64	0.00	0.00

^a Population estimates of 2025 Macrotrends (<https://www.macrotrends.net/>).
^b Rate, cases per million pop.
^c Case fatality rate (%).
^d Rate, deaths per million pop.
^e Source: <https://www.gov.br/saude/pt-br/composicao/svsa/cnie/painel-febre-amarela>.
^f Source: <https://www.ins.gov.co/Noticias/Paginas/febre-amarilla-datos-ciencia-prevencion.aspx>.
^g Source: <https://www.dge.gob.pe/sala-febre-amarilla/tablero.html>.

YFV in regions that had been free of the virus for many decades. As these periodic epizootics represent the main reservoir of the sylvatic YFV circulation, they serve as essential sentinel events [9]. The 2016–2019 outbreak affected thousands of people, 2.8 times higher than the total number of cases reported over the previous 36 years, resulting in hundreds of deaths [15]. States such as Minas Gerais, São Paulo, and Bahia (NHPs) witnessed rapid viral spread (<https://www.saude.ba.gov.br/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/2018-Boletim-epidemiologico-da-Febre-Amarela-n-02.pdf>) [16], including in peri-urban and semi-urban areas previously considered no-risk [17,18].

More recently, epizootics and human cases have been reported in Bolivia, Peru [130], and Venezuela [19]. In Colombia [20], regions such as Amazonas, Putumayo [21], and Meta have confirmed cases and continued circulation among NHPs—notably howler monkeys (especially the genus *Alouatta*), which are highly susceptible to YFV and often die within days of infection. A continuously updated risk map of YF in Colombia, by municipalities, is available from its National Institute of Health (<https://app.powerbi.com/view?r=eyJrJmZBOWFODU0YmVjZC00NTU3LWE4MTYtZDhkZDRjMzI1MTk5IiwidCI6ImJmYjdlMTNhLTdmYjctNDAXNi04MzBjLWQzNzE2ZThkZDhiOCJ9>), also including YF vaccination centers in the country. Epizootics in Colombia (Tolima, Huila, Putumayo, Meta) and Brazil (São Paulo, Minas Gerais) during 2025 involved confirmed YF in NHPs, signaling intense sylvatic transmission and heightened risk of human outbreaks (www.paho.org/sites/default/files/2025-05/2025-mayo-31-phe-alerta-epidemiologica-febre-amarilla-final.pdf). The occurrence of dead or ill monkeys is a strong epidemiological indicator of viral circulation. They act as sentinels of the disease [22,23]. In contrast to the Americas, African primates are less susceptible to YFV disease, probably because they developed adaptive clinical resistance to the virus centuries ago [24–26]. YFV infections have occurred in unvaccinated travelers visiting regions without human cases (for decades), indicating that the risk (and need to vaccinate) persists despite “epidemiological silence”. In these regions, often without sufficient surveillance, travelers are “tragic” sentinels [27].

This sustained viral activity might reflect complex environmental, demographic, and climatic shifts [28]. Deforestation, migration, expansion of human settlements into forested areas, and climate change are associated with an increasing risk of human exposure to sylvatic vectors, primarily *Haemagogus* and *Sabethes* mosquitoes [29,30]. Although YF shows a seasonal pattern in South America, the exact months of highest risk of YF transmission can vary within and between countries. Agricultural activities influence this, intensifying during planting and harvesting times, especially in Brazil, and climate change during periods of high rainfall and warmer temperatures [31–33].

The risk of reurbanization is a growing concern. Although the last major urban YF outbreak in South America was in Brazil in 1928, *Aedes aegypti* remains widely present in Latin America and the Caribbean

(LAC). Paraguay experienced its most recent urban outbreak in 2008 in San Lorenzo, which led to mass vaccination and swift public health action [34]. If YFV were to bridge the sylvatic-urban cycle, the consequences could be catastrophic [35–38]. After a long silence, urban YF risk re-emerged in 1997–1998 when six cases were confirmed in Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Bolivia, with five fatalities. Two had not left the city, and one visited only non-sylvatic areas, raising concerns about possible urban transmission and disease reemergence in the region [39].

One of the foremost challenges is the lack of comprehensive and coordinated surveillance systems across borders. While countries such as Brazil have robust syndromic and epizootic monitoring systems, others lag due to underfunded health infrastructure or political instability [40, 41]. Hence, entomological and disease surveillance are crucial to understanding and controlling YF and other vector-borne diseases.

As previously mentioned, vaccine coverage remains suboptimal in several at-risk populations (<https://www.paho.org/sites/default/files/2025-05/2025-may-23-phe-risk-assessment-yellow-fever-enfinal.pdf>), like migrants populations, people with low socioeconomic status, or those living in remote areas or at the borders [42]. Despite the availability of an effective live-attenuated YF vaccine (17D strain), vaccine hesitancy, and misinformation hinder optimal use of this preventive resource [43]. In this changing epidemiological environment, vaccine supplies are insufficient, annual demand is not met, and further decreasing vaccine coverage between 2020 and 2023 poses additional hurdles to effective immunization programs (<https://www.paho.org/sites/default/files/2025-05/2025-may-23-phe-risk-assessment-yellow-fever-enfinal.pdf>).

In addition to misinformation, pandemic fatigue—a state of demotivation and exhaustion resulting from prolonged public health crises—has emerged as a significant barrier to vaccine acceptance and risk perception following the COVID-19 pandemic. Recent studies have shown that high levels of pandemic fatigue are linked to increased vaccine hesitancy, reduced adherence to preventive measures, and a diminished risk perception [44], particularly among urban populations and travelers who may not have previously considered themselves at risk [45–47]. This phenomenon is compounded by the overwhelming volume of information on social media, including unverified or misleading content, which can further erode trust in public health recommendations and fuel hesitancy [48]. Tailored communication strategies that address both misinformation and pandemic fatigue are urgently needed to restore confidence in vaccination and adapt public health messaging to the current social context [49].

Urban populations outside classical risk zones—previously not targeted for vaccination—are now being exposed without prior protection, as seen in outbreaks in southeastern Brazil and Paraguay [50–52]. Another important consideration is that in some countries, such as Brazil, fractional doses of the vaccine were used in a previous scenario to

rapidly contain transmission in densely populated areas. This raises questions whether people who received a single fractional dose should be revaccinated with a full dose [8,53]. For these individuals, a full-dose booster will likely be necessary within the next decade [54,131,132].

In light of these challenges, dose-sparing strategies, such as fractional-dose YF vaccination, have become increasingly relevant [55–60]. During periods of constrained vaccine supply, the World Health Organization (WHO) and the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) recommend using fractional doses (0.1 mL, or one-fifth of the standard dose) to extend vaccine coverage in outbreak settings. Recent studies have demonstrated that fractional-dose vaccination induces comparable immunogenicity and long-term protection to the standard dose in healthy adults, with protective antibody responses persisting for at least 10 years and no increase in serious adverse events (<https://www.paho.org/sites/default/files/2025-05/2025-may-23-phe-risk-assessment-yellow-fever-enfinal.pdf>). This approach has been successfully implemented in emergency campaigns and is considered a key tool to mitigate stock limitations and rapidly increase population immunity in at-risk areas [61].

The 17D YF vaccine is widely regarded as both safe and effective, with an established track record of immunogenicity and long-lasting protection [43]. The vaccine is a priority in the control of YF (Fig. 1). Serious adverse events are extremely rare, and the vast majority of recipients experience only mild, transient symptoms such as low-grade fever or injection site reactions [1]. As a live-attenuated vaccine, it has been used globally for decades in both routine immunization programmes and outbreak responses with a well-established safety profile [62].

However, rare cases have shown that the YF vaccine virus (YFV 17D strain) can be transmitted through non-vector routes (in addition to the YFV). These include breastfeeding, where the vaccine virus has been

found in breast milk and linked to adverse events in breastfeeding infants (usually <1 year), and mother-to-child congenital infection [63], as well as through blood transfusion and solid organ transplantation. Such cases underscore the importance of screening and considering recent vaccination history in donors, particularly in regions where YF vaccination is prevalent [64–66]. During Argentina's 2008–2009 YF vaccination campaign, 165 adverse events were reported (84.9/million doses), including 35 serious cases (18/million), 12 viscerotropic and 12 neurologic events, highlighting rare but significant vaccine-associated risks [67]. The risk of serious adverse events after YF vaccination is about three times higher for individuals aged 60 years and older compared to those under 60. For individuals older than 70 years, this risk increases to five times that of the population under 60 years of age [43,68].

During the first 10 days after symptom onset—the viremic phase—and sometimes longer in severe cases, the etiological diagnosis of yellow fever can be effectively achieved by detecting viral RNA in serum samples using molecular methods, such as conventional (end-point) or real-time reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (https://www.paho.org/sites/default/files/2020-07/Diagnostico-laboratorio-yellow-fever-septiembre%20-2018_0.pdf). In recent years, advances have led to the development of specific RT-PCR assays capable of distinguishing the yellow fever vaccine virus (YFV-17D) from wild-type strains. These assays provide a rapid and straightforward alternative to genomic sequencing, which remains the gold standard for strain differentiation [135,136]. However, diagnostic capacity is often delayed or limited, particularly in rural or frontier regions [69,70]. The lack of validated, commercially available diagnostic reagents complicates access to etiological diagnosis in low-complexity laboratories. In cases of acute febrile illness, YF can be clinically indistinguishable from other arboviruses, such as dengue, Zika, chikungunya, and Oropouche [71, 72], further complicating timely identification and containment [73, 74]. Additionally, other tropical diseases should be considered in the differential diagnosis, e.g., leptospirosis, malaria, South American viral hemorrhagic fevers [75–77]. In addition, flaviviruses are endemic in most LAC countries, cross-serological reactions are common, and the tests could be inefficient. Because there is no antiviral therapy available, only supportive care, decentralizing diagnosis should be a priority in LAC countries, as this would contribute to rapid clinical intervention to reduce the case fatality rate from YF.

Underdiagnosis can also be responsible for the high level of mortality observed during this and recent outbreaks. If the diagnostic process is primarily conducted in higher-resource settings, among highly symptomatic patients, and in those accessing hospitals, we may miss a significant number of patients with milder forms of the disease in the community [78].

International travelers—particularly those from non-endemic countries visiting forested or rural regions in South America—face a significant, yet often underestimated, risk of YF exposure. This issue is exacerbated by inadequate risk perception, the absence of pre-travel consultations, and a lack of mandatory vaccination policies at points of entry [11,79–90]. Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) travelers face higher risks and are less likely to accept vaccinations, making them a crucial target for targeted public health interventions [91].

Furthermore, domestic travelers from non-endemic areas face an increased risk of YF when visiting endemic regions without prior vaccination or proper preventive measures [92,93]. Alternatively, the methodology of “microplanning of high-quality vaccination activities” has been implemented in the vaccination programs of the region's countries [94]. YF should be suspected in travelers from endemic areas presenting with acute febrile illness, hepatic dysfunction, renal impairment, or hemorrhagic signs. Early recognition based on clinical and laboratory findings—especially elevated AST, leukopenia, and thrombocytopenia—is crucial, as prompt supportive care during severe phases significantly reduces mortality [95].

Cases of YF among unvaccinated travelers from Europe, North



Fig. 1. Core Priorities for Yellow Fever Prevention and Control.

Priority 1 highlights the need for epizootic surveillance in NHPs, early clinical recognition, improved diagnostics, and identification of sentinel events, such as monkey die-offs. Priority 2 focuses on vaccination as the cornerstone of YF prevention, covering both full- and fractional-dose strategies, addressing gaps in coverage and hesitancy, and reinforcing the need for valid documentation, especially among travelers. Priority 3 emphasizes integrated mosquito control (*Haemagogus*, *Sabethes*, *Aedes aegypti*) to reduce the risk of sylvatic and urban transmission. Priority 4 emphasizes the importance of aligning international vaccination policies and increasing awareness of the International Certificate of Vaccination, as countries like Ecuador now require proof of immunization, reflecting a growing global concern over the spread of YFV.

America, and Asia have been reported in recent years, some with fatal outcomes. The 2018 deaths of European tourists in Brazil underscored the critical need for traveler awareness and pre-departure vaccination [13,96–98]. In 2016, China reported its first imported cases of YF, linked to travelers returning from Angola, highlighting the role of global travel in the international spread of vector-borne diseases [99–104]. Unvaccinated travelers may facilitate the introduction of YFV into non-endemic regions where competent mosquito vectors, such as *Aedes aegypti*, are present or have historically circulated. This includes areas outside Africa and South America, notably parts of the southern USA and southern Europe, which have experienced *Aedes aegypti*-mediated transmission of other arboviruses such as dengue, chikungunya, and Zika.

A positive observation from Spain is that, according to the Deputy Directorate-General for Foreign Health of the Ministry of Health of Spain, there has been a 25% increase in YF vaccination appointments (compared to 2024) among individuals planning to visit countries where cases are currently being reported, with 36% in travelers to Colombia and 57% to Ecuador, but just 8% of increase in those traveling to Brazil and 4.6% in those traveling to Peru (https://www.sanidad.gob.es/area_s/sanidadExterior/home.htm).

The potential for YFV introduction and local transmission in these settings is a growing concern, especially in the context of global travel and climate change expanding vector habitats [105]. Additionally, studies suggest that European populations of *Aedes albopictus* may be competent for transmitting YFV [106,107]. While *Aedes albopictus* is a less efficient YF vector, studies have shown that it potentially poses a transmission risk [35,106,108,109]. With climate change and global warming, the global distribution of mosquito species is shifting [110], increasing the risk of expansion of invasive species, such as *Aedes aegypti*. Many potentially affected regions still lack adequate research and vector surveillance systems [111].

Currently, vaccination against YFV is mandatory primarily for travelers departing from endemic areas when entering certain countries that are free from YFV. However, this requirement does not uniformly apply to individuals transiting through risk zones or to travelers from non-endemic areas who may nonetheless visit high-transmission regions. This gap in preventive policy could permit silent importation and onward transmission of the virus in areas with suitable ecological conditions, reinforcing the need to reassess international travel regulations and strengthen pre-travel vaccination recommendations [112].

Even in non-endemic regions, awareness among healthcare professionals remains essential. Clinicians in these areas should proactively consider YF in the differential diagnosis of returning travelers with undifferentiated febrile illnesses. They should emphasize the importance of vaccination during pre-travel consultations (made at least 10 days before travel). Despite geographic distance, the global movement of families, eco-tourism, and international mobility continue to expose individuals to preventable risks [113,114].

In addition, eco-tourism and adventure travel trends are increasingly drawing visitors to endemic zones, including the Amazon Basin, the Andean foothills, and national parks. Many of these travelers do not seek or receive pre-travel medical advice or vaccine requirements, leaving them vulnerable to infection and potential secondary transmission upon return to their home countries [92,115–118].

The cornerstone of YF prevention is vaccination. A single dose of the 17D vaccine provides long-term protection for most individuals and is highly effective, conferring immunity (as demonstrated by seroconversion) in more than 98% of recipients [62]. In fact, YF breakthrough infections after YF vaccination in patients are rarely reported [119].

Travelers should be vaccinated at least 10 days before entering endemic regions. The duration of protection, however, is a matter of controversy, and some countries recommend a second dose, depending on the age of the first vaccination and the itinerary (e.g., Germany). Recent studies in Brazil support the need for a second dose in children [120]. Vaccine guidelines from other countries, such as the USA (<https://www.cdc.gov/yellow-fever>

[/vaccine/index.html](https://www.cdc.gov/yellow-fever/vaccine/index.html)), Canada (<https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/services/publications/healthy-living/canadian-immunization-guide-part-4-active-vaccines/page-25-yellow-fever-vaccine.html>), and Australia (<https://immunisationhandbook.health.gov.au/contents/vaccine-preventable-diseases/yellow-fever>), recommend a one-time booster dose after 10 years for travelers visiting regions with ongoing outbreaks.

In individuals living with HIV and in children under 2 years of age, booster doses may still be necessary due to lower levels of seroprotection observed 10 or more years after vaccination [54]. The WHO recommends vaccination for all individuals over nine months of age who live in or travel to endemic areas. However, the implementation of this recommendation varies widely between countries and regions [79,89,121,122]. In Brazil, if the first dose is given before the age of 5, a new dose (the 2nd) is recommended (it is recommended starting at 9 months and later at 4 years) (<https://www.gov.br/saude/pt-br/vacinacao/calendario-tecnico/calendario-tecnico-nacional-de-vacinacao-crianca>).

Achieving high and homogeneous vaccination coverage rates is a significant challenge to be faced. Additionally, production capacity and available vaccine stocks still pose a barrier to intensifying vaccination efforts in the short term, through routine immunization or preventive and reactive immunization campaigns, even for populations residing in high-risk areas globally [44].

In addition to vaccination, personal protective measures such as using insect repellent, wearing long-sleeved clothing, and avoiding mosquito exposure remain essential to prevent YF and other arboviral diseases [1,123,124].

International health authorities, national ministries of health, and travel medicine providers must collaborate on various activities (Table 2). Given the re-emergence of YF and its high case fatality rate, the undersigned societies urge governments, international agencies, and

Table 2
Collaborative activities between international health authorities, national ministries of health, and travel medicine providers around yellow fever.

Activity	Description
Expand Vaccination Campaigns	Implement catch-up campaigns targeting at-risk populations, especially in previously non-endemic urban and border areas.
Enhance Pre-travel Advice	Ensure that travel clinics and medical units provide timely, risk-based information and confirm vaccination at least 10 days before travel, as well as consider a booster shot for some travelers. The importance of investing in awareness programs aimed at the general traveling public should be emphasized, encouraging them to seek appropriate travel medicine advice well in advance of any high-risk trip, allowing sufficient time for effective preventive measures to be implemented.
Improve Access to YF Vaccine in Non-Endemic Settings	Ensure equitable access to yellow fever vaccination in non-endemic regions by increasing vaccine availability in travel clinics and lowering cost barriers.
Strengthen Surveillance	Develop integrated systems that connect human, animal, and entomological data using a One Health framework to enable early detection of outbreaks.
Increase Health Professional Education and Training	Train front-line clinicians to recognize symptoms of yellow fever and report suspected cases promptly to health authorities. Efforts to update health personnel through publications, virtual meetings, and conferences.
Promote Inter-Institutional Collaboration	Encourage active involvement of scientific societies in raising awareness, developing guidelines, and advocating for policies and investments to provide better tools for disease containment.
Address Vaccine Supply Issues	Secure adequate national and global vaccine stockpiles and improve distribution strategies amid production limitations.

the global health community to take concerted, multisectoral action. The recent events in multiple South American countries serve as a stark reminder that YF remains a significant public health threat in the 21st century. However, existing strategies such as the Eliminate YF Epidemics (EYE) initiative aim to end YF outbreaks by addressing three key global health priorities: the International Health Regulations (IHR), the Global Health Security Agenda (GHS), and Universal Health Coverage (UHC) (<https://www.who.int/initiatives/eye-strategy>).

Prevention through vaccination, education (Fig. 2), human, wildlife, and entomological surveillance, as well as sustained investment, must be the foundation of regional strategies (Table 2) (Fig. 1). For travelers, awareness and preemptive measures can mean the difference between life and death. The current YF outbreak in South America also presents a critical opportunity to advance research on the virological and clinical aspects of YFV infection. Notably, recent studies have suggested the presence of YFV RNA in non-blood specimens such as urine and semen, offering new avenues for diagnostic innovation and a deeper understanding of viral persistence. Detection in these fluids could expand

diagnostic windows beyond the brief period of viremia, aiding in the identification of cases where blood testing may be inconclusive. Moreover, the potential for alternative transmission routes—particularly sexual or via organ donation—warrants further investigation to inform public health strategies and update clinical guidelines for surveillance and patient management [125,126]. Future research and investment should also consider advancing targeted therapies and strengthening the limited but promising evidence supporting the repurposing of existing drugs, such as sofosbuvir, which has demonstrated antiviral activity against YF in recent experimental studies [127–129].

The ongoing YF outbreak in South America is strongly linked to non-human primates (NHPs), notably howler monkeys, which are not responsible for disease outbreaks; instead, they serve as critical sentinels due to their high susceptibility to YFV. Unfortunately, public fear and misinformation have led to their persecution, as seen during the monkeypox outbreak, underscoring the need for education. Epizootics in NHPs often precede human cases and must prompt immediate surveillance and intervention. According to the WHO, individuals who have



Fig. 2. Educational campaigns by the Latin American Society for Travel Medicine about Yellow Fever in travelers in the region used on social media.

Upper left: Starting May 1, 2025, all visitors to Colombia's National Natural Parks will be required to present a valid yellow fever vaccination certificate. The vaccine must have been administered at least 10 days before entry. This requirement is part of national health regulations issued by the Colombian Ministry of Health on April 16, 2025, through Resolution 0060081, and applies to both domestic and international travelers. **Upper right:** Beginning May 12, 2025, Ecuador will implement a mandatory requirement for the International Certificate of Vaccination against Yellow Fever. This will apply to travelers of any nationality arriving from or having spent more than 10 days in countries considered at risk, specifically Peru, Colombia, Bolivia, and Brazil. Travelers must present a certificate indicating that they received the vaccine at least 10 days before entering Ecuador. This measure aims to protect public health and prevent the importation of yellow fever. **Lower left:** As of April 24, 2025, all public transport companies in Colombia, including those providing overland and fluvial services, must ensure that passengers present a valid yellow fever vaccination certificate. The vaccine must have been administered at least 10 days before travel. This regulation applies to passenger transport by road (special, mixed, and cargo services) as well as river-based public transport, as mandated by the Colombian Ministry of Health in Resolution 0060081. **Lower right:** During the San Juan and San Pedro holiday festivities in Colombia, travelers are advised to take preventive measures against mosquito-borne diseases, including dengue, Oropouche virus, and yellow fever. These measures include receiving vaccination against dengue and yellow fever, using insect repellent, sleeping under mosquito nets, wearing protective clothing, and covering water storage containers to eliminate mosquito breeding sites. This public health campaign is promoted by the Latin American Society for Travel Medicine (SLAMVI) in collaboration with ACIN. X and Instagram of SLAMVI: @SLAMVI.

received a full dose of the YF vaccine do not require revaccination. However, those vaccinated with fractional doses during past campaigns should receive a full dose for sustained protection. Lastly, more countries, such as Ecuador, are implementing mandatory international vaccination certificates, highlighting a renewed global effort to prevent YF transmission. In this context, coordinated public health messaging, scientific engagement, and equitable vaccine policies remain imperative to protect both human and animal populations.

One Health strategies should enhance local surveillance, boost vaccination in high-risk groups, improve vector control, and assess transmission risks in animals and humans. Involved sectors include health, environment, wildlife, immunization, and immigration, with actions targeting reservoir contact, wild meat avoidance, deforestation, migrant health, georeferencing, and primary care [133,134].

SLAMVI, ESGITM, EVASG, ALEIMC, GEPI-SEIMC, SEMEVI, and CMTZMV-ACIN remain committed to supporting evidence-based approaches to YF prevention, control, and call for renewed international collaboration to mitigate the impact of this preventable yet persistent, highly lethal vaccine-preventable tropical disease.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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