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Clinical presentation, progression and management of 5 cases of Ross River virus infection in performance horses located in southeast Queensland: A longitudinal case series

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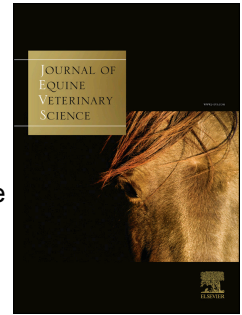
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Abstract

31 **Background:** Ross River virus (RRV), a mosquito-transmitted alphavirus prevalent in
32 Australia, is believed to cause poor performance, lethargy and muscle stiffness in Australian
33 horses. However, disease progression and management is poorly documented. A better
34 understanding of disease presentation, acute therapy and long-term management is
35 required.

36 **Objectives:** To describe clinical presentation, diagnosis, acute treatment and long term
37 management of RRV-infection in horses

38 **Study design:** Retrospective case series

39 **Methods:** Clinical and diagnostic data were obtained from both veterinary records and
40 owner interviews for 5 performance horses that presented with acute poor performance
41 coupled with serological evidence of RRV exposure. Clinical and owner reports were
42 evaluated from the time of presentation until the horses appeared asymptomatic and had
43 returned to normal performance.

44 **Results:** RRV was suspected to be the cause of generalized muscle stiffness and poor
45 performance in 5 performance horses located in southeast Queensland between 2011 and
46 2015. Clinical symptoms included pyrexia, tachypnoea, exercise intolerance, generalized
47 muscle stiffness, synovial effusion, and oedema of the lower limbs. Serological investigations
48 (ELISA and/or virus neutralization assay) detected antibody responses to RRV. Horses were
49 treated with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (n=5) and disease-modifying
50 osteoarthritis drugs (n=2). Most horses returned to previous athletic capabilities between 7
51 and 12 months after onset of symptoms.

52 **Main limitations:** Not all horses in the study had pre-clinical serology or submitted paired
53 blood samples for serology, meaning assumption of acute infection in those horses was
54 made based on clinical signs coupled with positive serology

55 **Conclusion:** RRV is a significant but poorly understood cause of poor performance in
56 Australian horses. This report is the only one to document longitudinal management of
57 performance horses affected by RRV infection. Much more research is needed to gain a
58 better understanding of this infection in horses.

59

60 **Abbreviations**

61 AID, Australian Infectious Diseases Research Center; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; BFV,
62 Barmah Forest virus; CHIKV, Chikungunya virus; CK, creatinine kinase; DMOAD, disease-
63 modifying osteoarthritis drug; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; JEV, Japanese
64 Encephalitis virus; KUNV, kunjin virus; MAYV, Mayaro virus; MVEV, Murray Valley
65 Encephalitis virus; NSAID, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs; ONNV, O'nyong-nyong
66 virus; RT-PCR, real-time polymerase chain reaction; RRF, Ross River fever; RRV, Ross River
67 virus; SINV, Sindbis virus; VADCP, Victorian Arbovirus Disease Program; VNT, virus-
68 neutralising antibody titre

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78 Introduction

79 Ross River virus (RRV) is an arthropod-borne Alphavirus in the family *Togaviridae* found in
80 Australia and Papua New Guinea, and is suspected to occur epidemically in the Solomon
81 Islands [1; 2]. The primary vertebrate reservoir host for RRV may vary regionally and
82 seasonally, but includes possums, macropods, such as kangaroos and wallabies, and humans
83 [3-5]. Although birds commonly feature as reservoir hosts for many other arboviruses, RRV
84 antibody prevalence in birds is generally low, and avian species are generally not considered
85 important in transmission of RRV [4]. The major arthropod vector for RRV is believed to be
86 *Aedes vigilax* in coastal regions of northern and eastern Australia, *Aedes camptorhynchus* in
87 southern and southwestern Australia, and *Culex annulirostris* in tropical and temperate
88 inland areas, although the virus has been isolated from over 30 different species of mosquito
89 Australia-wide [6]. Even though serological surveys have detected RRV-specific antibodies in
90 a range of wild and domestic species, such as marsupials, livestock and domestic pets, it is
91 unknown if animals other than marsupials play a role in amplification and transmission of
92 the virus, or if RRV is capable of causing symptomatic disease in animal species other than
93 horses and humans [2; 7; 8]. Speculation exists about whether horses function as a reservoir
94 host for RRV, and if they play a role in disease transmission to humans. It appears that in
95 most cases viraemia is transient in horses and humans, and they are generally unable to
96 amplify the virus sufficiently to extend transmission to mosquitoes. Nevertheless, some
97 evidence exists that in unique circumstances human viraemia may be high enough to
98 perpetuate the transmission cycle, and it is possible this could occur in horses also [3; 4; 9;
99 10]. A recent documented case of transfusion-transmission of RRV has also proven that, in
100 exceptional circumstances, human to human transmission of the virus is possible [11].
101
102 RRV is responsible for debilitating illness in both humans and horses characterised by severe
103 arthralgia, myalgia, fever and fatigue and known as 'epidemic polyarthritits' or Ross River

104 fever. Clinical disease in humans presents as severe joint pain and lethargy, in some cases
105 preceded by a transient fever (~30% of cases), and may be accompanied by a transient rash
106 [2; 12]. Arthritis and arthralgia typically affect the knees, ankles, wrists and small joints in the
107 fingers. Fatigue and arthralgia in humans has been reported to persist for as long as six to
108 twelve months [12-14]. Relapses of clinical signs following periods of illness or stress have
109 been suspected but not definitively documented.

110

111 Very few studies document the effects of RRV infection in horses [15; 16], despite it being
112 suspected of causing poor performance and musculoskeletal disease in the Australian
113 equine population for more than 25 years [17; 18]. Reports to date suggest horses
114 experience a transient fever and often present acutely with non-specific viral vasculitis of
115 hind or fore limbs resulting in 'filling' or oedema of the limb between the fetlock and carpus
116 or hock. Swelling of joints, ataxia, submandibular lymphadenopathy, oral petechiae and high
117 serum fibrinogen and globulin levels have also been reported [15; 16].

118

119 This case series documents clinical presentation and progression during 12 or more months
120 in 5 performance horses located in southeast Queensland and suspected of having RRV-
121 induced disease. Diagnosis was made based on clinical symptoms coupled with
122 seroconversion to the virus. Cases were presented between 2011 and 2015. Four of the five
123 horses were located within the Lockyer Valley region.

124

125 **Case reports**

126 **Table 1.**

127 *Insert Table 1*

128

129 **Case study 1**

130 A 6-year-old warmblood gelding dressage horse located in the Lockyer Valley, Southeast
131 Queensland, presented in February 2011 for acute onset inappetence, depression, marked
132 reluctance to move and stiffness in his gait at walk. Rectal temperature was 40.0°C. The
133 owner reported no limb swelling at this time. Hematology examination revealed mild
134 neutropenia (N-), anaemia (An) and lymphocytosis (Ly+). Serological test for RRV 6 weeks
135 later revealed elevated IgM (1:20480) and IgG (1:20480) in ELISA performed at IDEXX
136 Laboratories, Brisbane. The horse was treated acutely with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory
137 drugs (NSAIDs) (Phenylbutazone 3mg/kg initially, followed by 2mg/kg orally BID for 10 days).
138 Temperature and appetite returned to normal within 24 hours of commencing NSAIDs. The
139 horse was rested in paddock and the owner reported an obvious stiffness to gait and on
140 flexion of limbs for about 2 months after first presenting, with a gradual improvement over
141 the following month. Three months after presenting the horse was placed into light exercise,
142 but was reported to remain subtly stiff through his limbs, and was spelled in the paddock for
143 a further 3 months. At this time the horse returned to training with apparent resolution of
144 all clinical signs.

145

146 As the owner was satisfied of the diagnosis, a follow-up blood test to monitor changes in
147 RRV antibody levels was not made.

148

149 **Case study 2**

150 A 12-year-old Clydesdale gelding dressage horse located in the Lockyer Valley, Southeast
151 Queensland, presented in May 2012 with a history of transient low-grade pyrexia (39.4°C
152 recorded on one occasion), oedema of both hindlimbs from the fetlock to hock of less than
153 24hrs duration, and persistent synovial effusion of the hind fetlocks that lasted 4 months.
154 The horse was treated acutely with NSAIDs (Phenylbutazone 3mg/kg initially, followed by
155 2mg/kg orally BID for 5 days) and given two weeks' rest from exercise. On returning to

156 exercise the rider observed the horse to have a slight exercise intolerance characterized by
157 an inability to sustain activity, increased sweating and a delayed recovery in respiratory rate.
158 Blood was collected at this point and tested for routine hematology and biochemistry and
159 arbovirus isolation. Hematology and biochemistry results were unremarkable. An ELISA
160 screening for RRV, performed at the Australian Infectious Diseases Research Center (AID),
161 University of Queensland, was negative. A virus-neutralising antibody test, also performed at
162 the AID using the RRV prototype strain T48 [19-21] gave a titre of 1:320 for RRV and was
163 negative for Murray Valley Encephalitis virus (MVEV) and Kunjin virus (KUNV). Samples taken
164 from this horse 7 months prior to illness as part of a research survey had returned a negative
165 virus-neutralizing titre (VNT) to RRV [20]. The horse was rested for 6 months in the paddock
166 and treated with the disease-modifying osteoarthritis drug (DMOAD) pentosan polysulphate
167 3mg/kg IM monthly. Seven months after initial presentation the horse returned to training
168 with apparent resolution of exercise intolerance. Follow-up samples taken 3 years later and
169 submitted to the AID as part of continued arbovirus surveillance reported a VNT of >1:2880.

170

171 **Case study 3**

172 An 8-year-old warmblood stallion dressage horse located in East Brisbane, Southeast
173 Queensland, presented in February 2013 with a history of exercise intolerance and dyspnoea
174 during exercise. The horse developed anhydrosis and displayed a markedly increased
175 respiratory rate, around 100bpm, for up to 3 hours following exercise. The owner reported
176 swelling of the hind limbs from fetlock to hock of 7 days' duration that did not go down
177 following exercise or icing. The horse became progressively inappetant and continued to
178 show tachypnoea even once he was placed on stable rest. At no time did the owner detect
179 an elevation in rectal temperature. On clinical exam, the horse was depressed, moderately
180 dehydrated and had an elevated respiratory rate (45bpm). Clinical examination and thoracic
181 auscultation were unremarkable. The stallion was admitted for endoscopic examination,

182 blood and urine tests and placed on IV fluids. No abnormalities were detected on
183 endoscopic examination or urinalysis. Plasma biochemistry showed an increase above
184 normal reference range in creatinine kinase (CK) (621u/l; normal 113-375u/l) and aspartate
185 aminotransferase (AST) (463u/l; normal 194-440u/l), both indicators of muscular damage.
186 Hematology was unremarkable. An ELISA test performed at IDEXX Laboratories, Brisbane for
187 RRV revealed an elevated IgM (1:20480) and IgG (1:20480). A paired sample was not
188 submitted. The stallion was treated with NSAIDs (Phenylbutazone 3mg/kg initially, followed
189 by 2mg/kg orally BID for 21 days), an iron supplement and sodium acid citrate 7.93g SID to
190 aid in muscle damage repair. He was rested from exercise for three months and hand walked
191 twice daily during this time. He then commenced a month of short walks under saddle,
192 followed by a further two months of gradual increase in workload. The owner reported the
193 horse as still having exercise intolerance, anhydrosis and fatiguing quickly with exercise. The
194 horse had a further six months of rest from exercise and a change in diet to reduce the levels
195 of starch and sugar. The owner reported an improvement in both the anhydrosis and
196 demeanor. Tachypnoea resolved one month after commencing the iron supplement.

197

198 **Case study 4**

199 A 10-year-old warmblood mare dressage horse located in the Lockyer Valley, Southeast
200 Queensland, presented in February 2015 with 3-month history of neck stiffness to lateral
201 bending during exercise, a low-grade intermittent cough both in the paddock and on
202 commencement of exercise, and mild loss of performance characterized by lethargy and
203 delayed response to rider's aids during work. The owner had observed no joint swelling or
204 oedema of the limbs. No pyretic episodes had been detected during the preceding 3
205 months. The mare had been screened for RRV 24 months prior when an in-contact horse
206 had been conclusively diagnosed with RRV, and her VNT at that time was zero. The mare was
207 admitted for cervical radiographs and endoscopic examination of the upper airways. Blood

208 was collected for general hematology, biochemistry and VNT for RRV. Cervical radiographs
209 detected no evidence of bone disease, and mild hyperemia of the pharyngeal region was
210 observed on endoscopy. Routine hematology and biochemistry results were unremarkable.
211 RRV-specific neutralization titre performed at the AID was 1:160. A follow-up VNT to the
212 same laboratory 2 months later was 1:2880. The mare was treated with rest, a short course
213 of NSAIDs (phenylbutazone 2mg/kg orally BID for 5 days), and a combination of DMOADs
214 (Pentosan polysulphate 3mg/kg IM fortnightly and hyaluronic acid 60mg IV weekly for 5
215 weeks). Two months after presenting to the clinician the mare returned to training and the
216 owner reported an improvement in all clinical signs except for an intermittent cough at the
217 beginning of each training session. The cough appeared to resolve after 3 months back into
218 work (9 months after the suspected date of virus infection). The owner also felt the mare
219 seemed to have increased susceptibility to respiratory infections following attendance at
220 organised performance events, which resulted in a temporary relapse in stiffness and
221 lethargy. Periods of 'relapse' lasted around 2 weeks in each instance (4 episodes over a 6
222 months' period), accompanied by a mild increase in rectal temperature. The owner also
223 reported some low-grade intermittent irregularity in gait, when the horse was asked to trot
224 on a firm surface, that had not been present prior to contracting RRV infection. The reason
225 for the irregularity remained undiagnosed and appeared to improve with anti-concussive
226 corrective shoeing.

227

228 **Case study 5**

229 A 10-year-old warmblood gelding dressage horse located in the Lockyer Valley, Southeast
230 Queensland presented in March 2015 with acute onset of intermittent low-grade lameness
231 on commencement of exercise, neck stiffness to lateral bending during exercise, a loss of
232 performance characterized by reluctance to work, reduced responsiveness to riders' aids
233 and rapid fatigue, and an elevated respiratory rate at rest. The owner reported enlarged

234 fetlocks and generalized malaise in the paddock. A month after onset of clinical signs the
235 owner observed laminar rings on the proximal hoof capsule that had not been there
236 previously. No evidence of distal phalangeal rotation was observed radiographically. An
237 initial serum sample was taken 6 weeks after the onset of clinical signs. A paired sample was
238 taken four weeks later. Both samples were submitted for serology. The initial RRV-specific
239 neutralization titre was 1/1440, the follow-up VNT one month later was 1:2880. The horse
240 was treated with rest and NSAIDs (phenylbutazone 2mg/kg orally BID for 5 days). Ten
241 months after initial presentation the horse returned to training with mild residual stiffness.
242 The owner reported an improvement in stiffness 12 months after initial clinical signs.

243

244 **Discussion**

245 RRV is an arthritogenic mosquito-borne disease endemic to Australia that is known to cause
246 clinical disease in horses and humans, however, very little is known about the disease in
247 horses.

248 **Clinical signs**

249 The clinical symptoms observed in the documented horses were consistent with previously
250 reported cases [15; 16]. The consistent findings among all the cases were poor performance
251 and generalized muscle stiffness. However, poor performance reports can be very non-
252 specific ranging from exercise intolerance and reluctance to work, stiffness to lateral
253 bending exercises, to severe resistance and complete unwillingness to perform their regular
254 work. Many other symptoms, such as pyrexia and oedema of limbs were reported by the
255 owners to be transient, and may often be missed, precluding early detection of infection. It
256 is likely that many cases of RRV in horses are overlooked due to owners blaming the
257 symptoms on behavioral anomalies or training-related setbacks rather than suspecting viral
258 disease. Some researchers still debate whether the virus is responsible for clinical disease in
259 horses, due to limited published investigations, low reporting of clinical disease despite high

260 serological surveillance rates [9, 10, 14, 35], and poor understanding of the disease process
261 in horses, but front-line astute veterinarians often correlate acute muscle stiffness and
262 reluctance to perform in horses undertaking athletic pursuits with seroconversion to RRV.
263
264 Serological surveillance of horses often detects prevalence rates of RRV as high as 65% [16;
265 22]. Between 2010 and 2013 the Victorian Arbovirus Disease Program (VADCP), Agribio,
266 Bundoora, recorded an incidence rate of approximately 30% in commercial samples from
267 suspect horses submitted for arbovirus investigation, increasing to around 45% between
268 2013 and 2015. It is difficult to obtain similar data from Queensland and New South Wales,
269 as these states primarily test for Flavivirus and do not routinely check for RRV as is done in
270 Victoria. However, a limited survey of horses entering race meetings in Brisbane in late 2012
271 and early 2013 found that 20/70 (28%) and 22/47 (47%), respectively, were seropositive for
272 RRV in a highly specific virus neutralization assays (Bielefeldt-Ohmann, Prow, Wright & Hall,
273 unpublished data). Additional testing in the Summer of 2015-16 also revealed RRV-
274 neutralizing antibodies in ~50% of racehorses and horses admitted to the University of
275 Queensland Equine Hospital for non-arthritic morbidities (Bielefeldt-Ohmann & Wiseman,
276 unpublished data). Blood samples evaluated for routine hematology and biochemistry in
277 horses with seroconversion to RRV often show no abnormalities, making screening for
278 changes in inflammatory markers suggestive of a viral infection (neutrophilia/neutropenia,
279 lymphocytosis, monocytosis) unreliable as a precursor to deciding whether or not to
280 investigate for RRV. Infection must be suspected based primarily on clinical examination,
281 and a decision to perform serology must be made independent of other laboratory
282 investigation, as demonstrated in this case series.

283

284 **Management of RRV in horses and humans**

285 Currently, there are no specific treatments, such as antivirals, or commercially available
286 vaccines for alphavirus infection. There are also no reported clinical trials for therapeutic
287 management of horses or humans affected by RRV. Surveillance of human patients affected
288 by RRV found that one half of affected people surveyed reported pain relief to be the most
289 effective management of joint pain (36.4% reported NSAIDs provided the most relief, while
290 16.4% reported aspirin or paracetamol as providing the most effective relief) [14]. Rest was
291 cited by 24.1% of human patients as their main source of relief. One study also reported a
292 reduction in duration of clinical signs in human patients receiving corticosteroids [23], but to
293 date all recommendations for therapeutic management of RRF in humans are based on
294 subjective and anecdotal responses. Management of horses affected by RRV should include
295 NSAIDs in the acute stages to control pyrexia, arthralgia and myalgia, and an extended period
296 of rest from imposed exercise, such as ridden activities. The minimum anecdotal
297 recommendation for rest based on duration of clinical symptoms in humans is 4 to 6
298 months, and certainly in this investigation we observed most horses did not return to
299 normal performance until between 7 and 12 months after onset of clinical symptoms.

300 Chondroprotective agents, such as sodium hyaluronan or polysulphated glycosaminoglycans,
301 may be of assistance in reducing arthralgia and arthritis [24; 25]. Responses from human
302 surveys also indicate alternative therapies such as hydrotherapy and massage may provide
303 relief to clinical symptoms,[14] and the use of these therapies could be adopted in the
304 management of clinically affected horses. The potential for low-grade laminitis due to either
305 pyrexia or systemic cytokine release [26; 27] should not be ruled out, and horses affected by
306 RRV should be closely monitored during acute illness and convalescence for signs of pain
307 within the hoof capsule.

308

309 **Diagnostic testing for RRV**

310 Diagnosis of RRV is commonly made based on serological testing for IgM (acute phase) and
311 IgG antibodies. Paired serum samples taken 2 to 4 weeks apart assist in making a more
312 accurate diagnosis of recent infection. An IgM response is generally detectable 7 to 10 days
313 after infection and peaks within 2 to 3 weeks before declining as antibody class switching
314 occurs and IgG becomes the predominant antibody detected. Since IgG antibodies to RRV
315 are believed to be life-long, detection of IgG in horses or humans can only demonstrate prior
316 exposure to RRV. Certainly in this investigation, a very high antibody titre was detected in a
317 horse 3 years after his initial infection. The detection of IgM, either alone or in combination
318 with IgG enables an estimate of the time of infection. However, it should be noted that 1%
319 of horses may maintain a detectable IgM titre for at least 18 months [15]. Diagnosis of a
320 recent infection depends on showing an IgG seroconversion or a rising IgG titre. Where IgM
321 is detected in the absence of IgG it is important to demonstrate IgG seroconversion on a
322 convalescent sample. Cross reactivity with serological testing is documented and false
323 positives have been reported with EIA IgM tests. Virus isolation can be performed using
324 inoculation of tissue cultures or reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR).
325 RT-PCR for viral RNA (i.e., nucleic material) is a very specific and sensitive tool for diagnosing
326 current/recent infection, and has been validated for use on equine blood and synovial fluid
327 [28]. VNT are commonly used in research as they are more specific, but require PC2
328 laboratory certification for handling of live virus and are time consuming. Cross reactivity
329 with related alphaviruses and low neutralizing titres can affect this approach to diagnosis.

330

331 **Conclusion**

332 RRV is an arthritogenic mosquito-borne disease endemic to Australia that is known to cause
333 clinical disease in horses and humans, however, very little is known about the disease in
334 horses. Serological surveillance have detected infection rates as high as 65% in horses [16;
335 22]. Clinical symptoms in horses are non-specific, and include exercise intolerance, joint

336 swelling, vasculitis and oedema of the lower limbs, generalized musculoskeletal stiffness and
337 transient pyrexia. It is likely that many cases are overlooked due to owners blaming the
338 symptoms on behavioral anomalies or training-related setbacks rather than suspecting viral
339 disease. Diagnosis of RRV in horses is best achieved by submitting paired serum samples 2 to
340 4 weeks apart to a diagnostic laboratory and demonstration of either an isotype switch from
341 virus-specific IgM to IgG antibodies, or a rising IgG titre. IgM antibodies may persist for as
342 long as 18 months in the horse.[15] Recommendations on treatment for RRV are not based
343 on clinical trials, but rather extrapolated from retrospective human surveillance and
344 subjective feedback.

345

346 The long-term sequelae of RRV infection in horses are not known. Horses are economically
347 highly valuable animals, dependent on their athletic capabilities, and information regarding
348 the inflammation and possible degradation of articular cartilage and subchondral bone is
349 essential to provide information to trainers and riders about the crucial nature of
350 appropriate rest and management of horses affected by RRV. More research is needed into
351 clinical manifestations of RRV in horses, particularly the effects on joints, bone and hoof
352 lamellae, as well as the affect of exercise on inflamed joints. Response of horses to
353 treatment, such as NSAIDs or judicious use of corticosteroids, should also be assessed for
354 any benefit in reducing severity of clinical signs or duration of illness. Given the considerable
355 morbidity of this disease in both horses and humans, much more research needs to be
356 conducted to provide a more evidence-based approach to therapeutics and management.

357

358 This investigation is the only one to document clinical progression and management of RRV
359 in horses over a longitudinal period.

360

361 **Acknowledgements**

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 363 them access to their veterinary records. They would also like to acknowledge the Victorian
 364 Arbovirus Disease Program (VADCP), Agribio, Bundoora for sharing their data.

365

366 **Conflict of Interest**

367 The authors have no conflicts of interest.

368

369 Table 1. Summary of clinical findings and treatment in horses suspected to be infected with
 370 Ross River virus. N- = Neutrophilia; An = Anaemia; Ly+ = Lymphocytosis; CK = creatinine
 371 kinase; AST = Aspartate Aminotransferase

	Horse 1	Horse 2	Horse 3	Horse 4	Horse 5
Pyrexia	+	+	-	-	-
Tachypnoea	-	+	+	-	+
Synovial effusion	-	+	+	-	+
Limb oedema	-	+	+	-	-
Muscle pain/stiffness	+	+	+	+	+
Lameness	-	-	-	+	+
Poor performance/lethargy	+	+	+	+	+
Inappetance/colic	+	-	+	-	-
Hematology changes	N-, An, Ly+	-	-	-	-
Biochemistry changes	-	-	CK +, AST +	-	-
IgM titre					
Sample 1	1:20480	-	1:20480	-	-
Sample 2	-	-	-	-	-
IgG titre					
Sample 1	1:20480	-	1:20480	-	-
Sample 2	-	-	-	-	-
VNT					
Sample 1	-	0 titre 7 months prior to illness	-	0 titre 2 years prior to illness	1:1440
Sample 2	-	1:320	-	1:160	1:2880
Sample 3	-	>1:2880	-	1:2880	-
Treatment					
NSAID	+	+	+	+	+
DMOAD	-	+	-	+	-
Other	-	-	Iron & sodium citrate	-	-

Time to return to work	3 months	7 months	5 months	6 months	10 months
Time to return to normal performance	6 months	7 months	11 months	9 months	12 months

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380 **References**

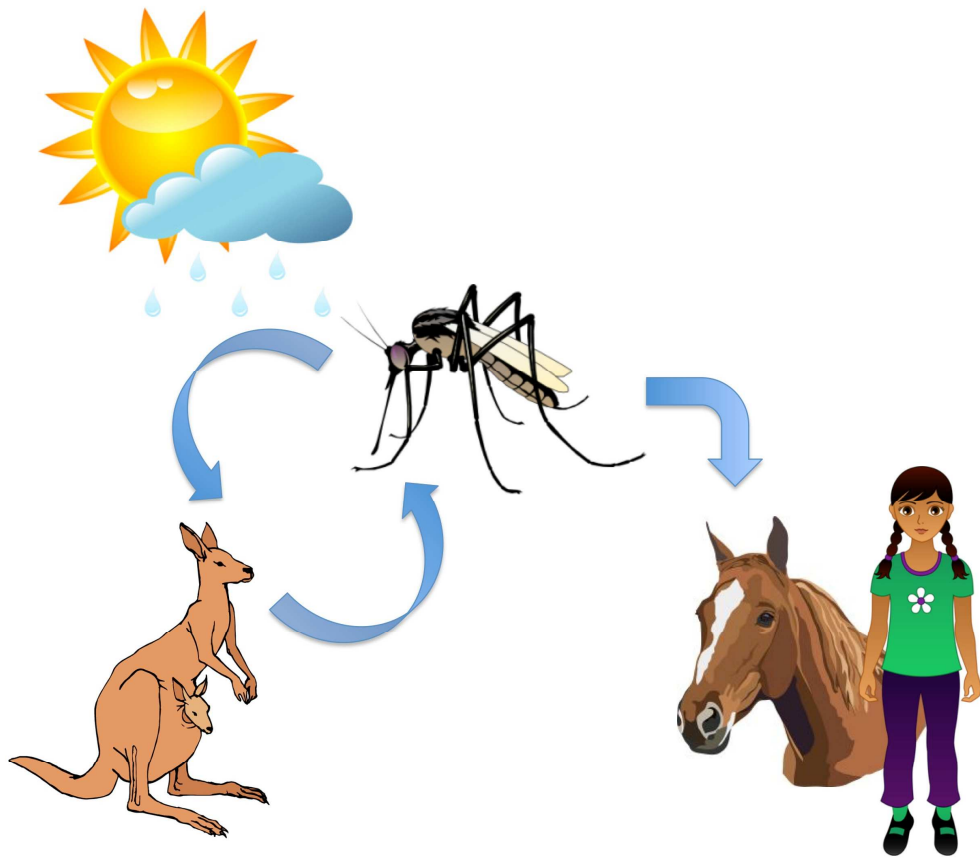
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Highlights:

- Ross River virus is an arthritogenic mosquito-borne Alphavirus endemic to Australia and Papua New Guinea
- The virus causes debilitating disease in horses and humans known as Ross River Fever, characterised by joint pain, fatigue and fever that can last up to a year
- Ross River fever in horses is poorly understood and often underdiagnosed
- Management of Ross River Fever in horses and humans is symptomatic and based more on anecdotal reports rather than evidence-based medicine