# 2019 Selected Reportable Communicable Disease Summary

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Introduction

About surveillance data

Oregon law specifies diseases of public health importance that diagnostic laboratories and health care professionals must report to local public health authorities. This report reflects reporting laws in effect for 2019.* In general, local public health officials investigate reports of a communicable disease to characterize the illness and collect demographic information about the case, to identify possible sources of the infection, and to take steps to prevent further transmission. Basic information about each case is entered into a central database. In some cases (e.g., *Salmonella* infection), laboratories are required to forward bacterial isolates to the Oregon State Public Health Laboratory for subtyping. Together, these epidemiologic and laboratory data constitute our communicable disease surveillance system. This report summarizes data from 2019 and trends from recent years.

However, reportable disease data have many limitations. First, for most diseases, reported cases represent but a fraction of the true number. The most important reason for this is that many patients — especially those with mild disease — do not present themselves for medical care. Even if they do, the health care professional might not order a test to identify the causative microorganism. The reader may be scandalized to learn that not every reportable disease gets reported as the law requires. Cases are “lost” to surveillance along each step of the path from patient to physician to laboratory to public health department. In the case of salmonellosis, for example, reported cases are estimated to account for approximately 3% of the true number.

* There was public health before COVID-19. Who knew?
Second, cases that do get reported are a skewed sample of the total. More severe illnesses (e.g., meningococcal disease) are more likely to be reported than milder illnesses. Infection with hepatitis A virus is more likely to cause symptoms (and those symptoms are more likely to be severe) in adults than in children. Testing is not random. Clinicians are more likely to test stool from children with bloody diarrhea for *E. coli* O157 than to test stool from adults with bloody diarrhea. Health care professionals may be more inclined to report contagious diseases such as measles — where the public health importance of doing so is obvious — than to report non-contagious diseases such as Lyme disease. Outbreaks of disease or media coverage about a particular disease can greatly increase testing and reporting rates. Despite these limitations, reportable disease data remain valuable in a variety of ways. They help identify demographic groups at higher risk of illness. They allow analysis of disease trends and identify outbreaks of disease.

Cases are assigned to the county of residence at the time of the report — not to the county in which the case received medical care, or the county where the exposure to infection occurred. Incidence is annualized by the date of record, which is the same as the onset date unless otherwise noted. For chronic hepatitis and Lyme disease, report date to the local health authority is used for counting purposes. Case counts include both confirmed and presumptive cases. For additional information on case definitions, see the Oregon Investigative Guidelines available online.

Population estimates for crude rate calculations by county, sex and age group were obtained from the Population Research Center at Portland State University. Population estimates by race and ethnicity were obtained from the American Community Survey's one-year estimates. Estimates of the population in the United States were obtained from the Census Bureau's Annual Population Estimates. Using rates instead of case counts allows for comparisons between populations of different sizes — e.g., United States versus Oregon. Rates are usually reported as cases per 100,000 persons per year. However, if the population in which the rate is calculated is very small (e.g., in Oregon “frontier” counties), a case or two might mean the difference between a rate of zero and a very high rate. To compensate for this, some of our maps and rates by age show an average rate over multiple years of data. Even with multi-year aggregation, for some conditions the case counts remain small.
With all this in mind, we present the 2019 Oregon reportable communicable disease summary. We present 20 years of case counts whenever possible. For most diseases, you will find case counts by year, aggregate case counts by month to demonstrate any seasonal trends, incidence by age and sex, incidence in Oregon compared to national incidence over the past 20 years, incidence by race and ethnicity, and incidence by county. When appropriate, additional data on subtypes or risk factors for infection are included. At the end of this report is a tally of disease outbreaks investigated during 2019, a summary of enhanced data on gastroenteritis outbreaks, a summary table of statewide case counts over the past 20 years, counts of lower-incidence conditions, and disease totals by county.

We hope that you will find these data useful. If you have additional questions, please call our epidemiology staff at 971-673-1111 or email ohd.acdp@state.or.us.

Paul R. Cieslak, MD
Medical Director, Communicable Diseases and Immunizations
Campylobacteriosis is caused by the gram-negative bacterium *Campylobacter*. It is characterized by acute onset of diarrhea, vomiting, abdominal pain, fever and malaise. Symptoms generally occur within two to five days of infection.

Campylobacteriosis is the most common bacterial enteric infection reported in Oregon. It is of worldwide epidemiologic importance due to the fecal-oral route of infection and the wide variety of wild and domestic animals that can serve as reservoir hosts. Many cases are thought to result from eating raw or undercooked meat (in particular, poultry) or through cross-contamination of uncooked or ready-to-eat foods such as salad or prepared fruit. People can also get infected through contact with dog or cat feces.

In 2019, 1,024 cases were reported in Oregon residents. Children <5 years of age have the highest incidence of illness (35.5 per 100,000), compared with other age groups. Infections occur year-round in Oregon, with peak incidence in the summer months.

Most illnesses are sporadic, but outbreaks have been associated with undercooked meat (often chicken), unpasteurized milk, or direct contact with animals or untreated water.

Twelve outbreaks of campylobacteriosis involving Oregon residents were investigated from 2010–2019: seven foodborne, one from animal contact, one person-to-person and three where mode of transmission was not determined; no outbreaks were reported in Oregon in 2019. Proper food handling and water treatment, along with careful attention to safe food handling and handwashing, are the keys to prevention.
Incidence of campylobacteriosis by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of campylobacteriosis by month: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of campylobacteriosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

FoodNet began including cases identified via culture-independent diagnostic testing in 2015.

Incidence of campylobacteriosis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

Campylobacteriosis became nationally notifiable in 2015.
Incidence of campylobacteriosis by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.

Incidence of campylobacteriosis by reported ethnicity: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Incidence of campylobacteriosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
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**Prevention**

- Use one cutting board for raw meat and a separate cutting board for fresh fruit, vegetables and other foods.
- Thoroughly clean all cutting boards, countertops and utensils with soap and hot water after preparing foods of animal origin.
- Wash hands with soap and hot water before preparing food, after handling foods of animal origin and after contact with pet feces.
- Thoroughly cook all products of animal origin, especially poultry products.
- Do not drink unpasteurized (raw) milk or untreated surface water.
- Make sure persons with diarrhea thoroughly wash their hands with soap and warm water after using the bathroom.
Carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE)

The Enterobacteriaceae include a large family of gram-negative bacilli found in the human gastrointestinal tract. Commonly encountered species include Escherichia coli, Klebsiella spp. and Enterobacter spp. Carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE) are not susceptible to carbapenem antibiotics. They are broadly categorized based on the mechanism of their resistance as carbapenemase producers (CP-CRE) and non-carbapenemase producers.

Carbapenems are broad-spectrum antibiotics typically used to treat severe healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) caused by highly drug-resistant bacteria. Currently available carbapenems include imipenem, meropenem, ertapenem and doripenem. Although related to the β-lactam antibiotics, carbapenems retain antibacterial activity in the presence of most β-lactamas, including extended-spectrum β-lactases (ESBLs) and extended-spectrum cephalosporinases (e.g., AmpC-type β-lactamas). Loss of susceptibility to carbapenems is a serious problem because few safe treatment alternatives remain against such resistant bacteria.

Infections caused by CRE occur most commonly among people with chronic medical conditions through use of invasive medical devices such as central venous and urinary catheters, frequent or prolonged stays in health care settings or extended courses of antibiotics. CP-CRE are most concerning and have spread rapidly across the nation and around the globe, perhaps because carbapenemases can be encoded on plasmids that are easily transferred within and among bacterial species.
In December 2011, CRE bacterial isolates became reportable in Oregon. The CRE case definition has gone through major changes over the years, which is reflected in the big changes in case numbers from year to year. In 2013, the definition was non-susceptible (intermediate or resistant) to all carbapenems tested and resistant to any third generation cephalosporins tested. The definition was then revised in 2014 to non-susceptible to any carbapenem, excluding ertapenem, and resistant to all third generation cephalosporins tested. A CDC study found this definition to be too insensitive in picking up carbapenemase producers. The current definition, which changed July 1, 2015, is *Enterobacteriaceae* with resistance to any carbapenem antibiotic. This definition is simpler and aligns with CDC’s definition.

The Oregon State Public Health Laboratory offers specialized testing to determine whether reported CRE are carbapenemase producers, and the Oregon Public Health Division’s HAI program performs detailed investigations of any reported cases.

One hundred sixty-four cases of CRE infection or colonization were reported among Oregon residents in 2019. One hundred twenty-three (75%) cases were ≥60 years old, median age was 74, and 109 (66%) cases were female. Urine was the most common source (80%) and *Enterobacter cloacae* accounted for 51% of all isolates.

By the end of 2019, Oregon had 28 CP-CRE in Oregon residents; 14 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* carbapenemase (KPC), 10 New Delhi metallo-ß-lactamase (NDM), 3 oxacillinase-48 (OXA-48), and one with both NDM and OXA-48. Eighteen (64%) of the CP-CRE were from patients with histories of healthcare exposure in other states or outside of the United States.

Unlike much of the rest of the country, we have no indication CP-CRE are spreading in Oregon. We have instituted enhanced surveillance and prevention efforts and established the Drug-Resistant Organism Prevention and Coordinated Regional Epidemiology (DROP-CRE) Network, a statewide network to rapidly detect, respond to and prevent CRE. For more information, including our CRE toolkit, please see [Carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae](#).
Incidence of carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* infection by year: Oregon, 2011–2019

Infection by CRE became officially reportable in December 2011.

Incidence of carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* infection by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

[Graph showing incidence by year and by age and sex]
Carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* cases by species: Oregon, 2019

Hover over a section of the pie chart to view historical data.

* Klebsiella data include cases of Klebsiella aerogenes, the species previously known as Enterobacter aerogenes.
Incidence of carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* (CRE) by county of residence: Oregon, 2012–2019

*Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.*
Prevention

Think "NICE" if you encounter CRE:

- **Notify** the county health department, pertinent clinical groups and your antibiotic stewardship program that CRE has been spotted.

- **Intervene** in all cases with core infection control activities: hand hygiene, contact precautions, private rooms and optimized environmental cleaning. Reduce unnecessary antibiotics and use of invasive devices. Additionally, for CP-CRE, screen patient contacts as well as cohort staff and patients.

- **Communicate** CRE infection or colonization status to the receiving facility upon patient transfer.

- **Educate** patients, staff and visitors about CRE.
Coccidioidomycosis

Valley fever, also called coccidioidomycosis, is an infection caused by a fungus, *Coccidioides*, found in soil. There are two main types of the fungus that cause valley fever: *Coccidioides immitis* and *Coccidioides posadasii*. Approximately 60% of *Coccidioides* infections are asymptomatic.

Symptomatic cases typically present with a mild respiratory syndrome characterized by non-productive cough, shortness of breath, fatigue, night sweats, myalgias and, occasionally, a rash (erythema nodosum or erythema multiforme) between one and three weeks after the individual breathes in the spores. The typical pulmonary infection is self-limiting and clinically indistinguishable from other community-acquired pneumonias.

Immunocompromised patients — e.g., persons with solid organ transplants, human immunodeficiency infection (HIV), lymphoma, or those receiving immunosuppressive therapy such as high-dose steroids or anti-TNF medications — have a higher morbidity and mortality rate than the general population. Some populations — including pregnant women, people living with diabetes, racial groups (specifically individuals who identify as Black or Filipino) and immunocompromised persons — are at elevated risk for severe illness.

*Coccidioides* lives in soil in areas of low rainfall, high summer temperatures and moderate winter temperatures. Unusually wet years lead to large blooms in the soil, while subsequent dry spells kick up the spores and render them airborne. *Coccidioides* is common in the Southwestern United States, including Arizona and Central California, part of Mexico and Central and South America. *Coccidioides immitis* has been found in soils of south-central Washington just across the Columbia River from Oregon. At this time, it is unknown if coccidioidomycosis is established in Oregon soil.
Establishing a diagnosis of coccidioidomycosis may be challenging in humans and animals, and multiple tests including cytology, histopathology, culture and serology may be necessary. A chest X-ray can aid in the diagnosis; pulmonary lesions and hilar lymphadenopathy may be identified in humans and animals with respiratory disease. Isolates from potentially locally acquired cases (human or animal) of coccidioidomycosis should be sent to the Oregon State Public Health Laboratory.

Coccidioidomycosis became a reportable condition in Oregon in 2015.

In 2019, there were 30 cases of coccidioidomycosis. Fifty-three percent (16) were in males and the median age was 67 years.

Most infections resolve without treatment, but patients should be monitored to document resolution. Patients with disseminated disease should be treated with antifungal therapy.

Coccidioidomycosis is not usually considered communicable from person to person; however, at least two cases of zoonotic transmission have been documented. In a recent report, a veterinary assistant developed a localized infection with osteomyelitis as the result of a bite from a cat with disseminated coccidioidomycosis. Another zoonotic case apparently acquired coccidioidomycosis by inhaling endospores during the necropsy of a horse with disseminated infection.
Incidence of coccidioidomycosis by year: Oregon, 2015–2019

Coccidioidomycosis became reportable in 2015.
Incidence of coccidioidomycosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2015–2019

Incidence of coccidioidomycosis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2001–2019

Coccidioidomycosis became reportable in Oregon in 2015. National case counts were not reported in 2010.
Incidence of coccidioidomycosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2015–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might...
Prevention

- Regrettably, there are no practical methods for preventing exposure to *Coccidioides* in areas where it is common.

- People at higher risk (immunocompromised, pregnant) should avoid breathing in large amounts of dust if they are in these areas. They should also avoid activities that involve close contact with dirt or dust, such as gardening, yard work and digging.

- Patients with coccidioidomycosis can be helped with early diagnosis and treatment with antifungal drugs.
Cryptococcosis

_Cryptococcus neoformans_ has long been identified in humans with immunosuppressive conditions, especially AIDS. Before 1999, _Cryptococcus gattii_ (_C. gattii_) infection seemed to be mainly limited to the tropics. During 1999, _C. gattii_ began appearing in animals and humans on Vancouver Island in British Columbia, Canada.

Beginning in 2004, it started appearing among mainland British Columbia residents who had no exposure to Vancouver Island. In December 2004, a case of human _C. gattii_ infection was reported in Oregon, associated with an outbreak on Vancouver Island and in mainland British Columbia. Infection by _Cryptococcus_ became officially reportable in Oregon Aug. 19, 2011.

Forty-eight cases occurred among Oregon residents in 2019. The most common infection was _C. neoformans_ (17), followed by _C. albidus_ (13), _C. gattii_ (3), _C. laurentii_ (2), _C. uniguttulatus_ (2) and _C. mucor_ (1). Ten cases were diagnosed by either cryptococcal antigen test or by PCR without a culture. This methodology does not differentiate between _C. gattii_ and _C. neoformans_ and, unfortunately, does not enhance our understanding of the epidemiology of the disease. Studies from British Columbia and elsewhere showed a median incubation period of six to seven months, with a range between two and 13 months. In addition to testing human specimens, we also test animals and environments where animals are infected with _C. gattii_ to localize the environmental reservoirs (they travel less than humans). The bottom line is _C. gattii_ appears to be established in Oregon soil and serves as a source of infection. There is no potential for zoonotic transmission.

Healthy persons appear to be at low risk. Most infections are among immunocompromised or chronically ill persons. Over the last few years, detection of cryptococcal infection has changed from culturing the organism to using the cryptococcal antigen, making it impossible to further our knowledge of the epidemiology of _Cryptococcus gattii_. Treatment with extended use of antifungal agents (six months or longer) is recommended. For current treatment information, see guidelines published by the Infectious Disease Society of America.
Cryptococcosis became reportable in 2011.

Incidence of cryptococcosis by year: Oregon, 2011–2019

Incidence of cryptococcosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2019
Cryptococcosis cases by species: Oregon, 2019

Hover over a section of the pie chart to view historical data.

Species - Cryptococcosis
- *albidus* 22.4%
- *gattii* 6.1%
- *laurentii* 4.1%
- *mucor* 2.0%
- *neoformans* 32.7%
- *uniguttulatus* 2.0%
- *Unknown* 30.6%
Incidence of cryptococcosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2012–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Regrettably, practical methods for preventing cryptococcosis have not been identified.
- Patients with cryptococcosis can be helped with early diagnosis and treatment with antifungal drugs.
Cryptosporidiosis

Cryptosporidiosis in humans results from infection with protozoan parasites of the genus *Cryptosporidium* — most commonly *C. hominis* or *C. parvum*. Symptomatic infections are characterized by watery diarrhea and abdominal cramps.

Symptoms typically resolve in one to four weeks in immunocompetent persons, but infections in immunocompromised persons can be difficult or impossible to cure. Studies suggest the prevalence of cryptosporidiosis among young children, particularly those in large child care facilities, is surprisingly high. There are no symptoms for many of these infections.

In Oregon, the rate of infection with *Cryptosporidium* remains elevated from rates observed in 2000. The 2019 rate was 6.0 per 100,000 persons, down from 7.1 in 2018. Nationally, infections began to rise in the early millennium but leveled out. Oregon incidence of *Cryptosporidium* remains higher than the national rate (3.7 per 100,000 persons). Cases occur year-round. Though there is a rise in January, the incidence is still highest in summer months, coincident with increases in exposure to recreational water.

Rapid cartridge (ImmuNoSTAT) tests and culture independent diagnostic testing for *Cryptosporidium* might be playing a role in the apparent increase in incidence. Many facilities are now using PCR panels, which detect *Cryptosporidium* among other pathogens. These tests are superior to the rapid cartridge tests. In 2019, 253 cases were reported. All cases are routinely investigated to identify the source of infection. Two outbreaks occurred, one among county fair attendees and another among a camping group on an Oregon river.

Treatment with an antiprotozoal agent has been shown effective in persons with a normal immune response; however, there are no proven effective treatments in immunocompromised hosts.
Incidence of cryptosporidiosis by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of cryptosporidiosis by month: Oregon, 2019

- **Median 2014–2018**
- **Cases**
Incidence of cryptosporidiosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

Incidence of cryptosporidiosis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
Incidence of cryptosporidiosis by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.

Incidence of cryptosporidiosis infection by reported ethnicity: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Incidence of cryptosporidiosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
### Disease overview

#### Incidence by year and month

#### Incidence by age and sex and in OR vs. U.S.

#### Incidence by race and ethnicity

#### Incidence by county

### Disease prevention

- Wash hands carefully and frequently with soap and warm water, especially after going to the bathroom, changing diapers or touching livestock. Supervise hand washing of toddlers and small children after they use the toilet.
- Do not work or attend daycare, serve or prepare food or work in health care while ill with diarrhea.
- Refrain from recreational water activities (pools, hot tubs, splash pads) for two weeks after symptoms from a bout of cryptosporidiosis subside.
- Do not drink untreated surface water.

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Dengue fever

Dengue is a mosquito-borne viral infection. It is caused by a *Flavivirus* (the same genus as West Nile, Zika and yellow fever viruses). There are four serotypes, identified as DENV 1–4. The disease is limited primarily to the tropics and subtropics, although imported cases occasionally occur.

Symptom severity ranges from subclinical, asymptomatic infections to high fever, headache, muscle aches and rash. A subset of patients may develop hemorrhagic fever, with bleeding and shock. Treatment for dengue is supportive. There is, alas, no vaccine yet that protects against dengue fever.

There is no evidence of transmission here in Oregon. The typical vectors, *Aedes albopictus*, *Aedes japonicus* and *Aedes aegypti*, are not native to Oregon, although there have been reports of all three species in California.

There were twelve cases in Oregon residents in 2019. All had a history of recent international travel to areas where dengue is endemic, including to India, Thailand and Mexico. Most (75%) were male. Cases were aged 3–50 years.
Incidence of dengue infection by year: Oregon, 2000–2019
Prevention

Primary prevention measures are geared toward avoiding mosquito bites when visiting areas where dengue is circulating:

- Use mosquito repellent.
- Wear long sleeves, long pants, shoes and socks when out and about.
- Avoid outdoor activities at dawn, dusk and early evening, when more mosquitoes are out.
- Check screens on doors and windows where you are staying to make sure they are intact.
- Sleep under a treated mosquito net when nighttime exposure to mosquitoes could occur.
- Additionally, persons acutely ill with dengue should avoid exposure to domestic mosquitoes. (We don’t want to find out the hard way that local species can harbor and transmit the virus, after all.)
**Escherichia coli O157 and other Shiga toxin-producing Escherichia coli (STEC) infections**

*Escherichia coli* O157 (O157) is one of the most dreaded causes of infectious gastroenteritis. Bloody diarrhea is a hallmark of this pathogen, but the real danger is post-diarrheal hemolytic uremic syndrome (HUS). Oregon has been the setting for many O157 outbreaks, and the investigations of those outbreaks, combined with the analysis of other surveillance data, has contributed greatly to our understanding of this pathogen. Spread by the fecal-oral route, O157 has several animal reservoirs, the most important of which are ruminants: cattle, goats, sheep, deer, elk, etc. Transmission often occurs from consumption of contaminated food or water, as well as direct person-to-person spread and environmental exposures. Mid-to-late summer is the peak season for O157 infections.

With increasing deployment of diagnostic kits that identify Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli* (rather than O157 per se) comes an appreciation of the significant role that other STEC play as human pathogens. In the United States (and in Oregon), O26, O45, O103, O111, O121 and O145 are the most common “other” serogroups of the enterohemorrhagic *E. coli*, making up approximately half of the reported cases. O157 infections are much more likely to result in HUS than is infection by STEC.
Over the past 10 years, the number of O157 cases reported statewide has ranged between 68 and 111 annually. After climbing to a peak of 2.9 cases per 100,000 persons in 2012, rates were declining. In 2019, the rate of 1.6 per 100,000 persons was down from the 2018 rate of 1.8 per 100,000.

As for the non-O157 serogroups, those case counts have increased steadily from single digits in 2007 and 2008 to 140 confirmed cases in 2018. Of the 215 confirmed STECs serotyped in 2019, 66 were O157; 149 were non-O157, including O26 (54), O103 (18), O111 (17), O121 (12), and 30 other serogroups.

Four STEC outbreaks were investigated in 2019; two were foodborne, one animal contact and one with an indeterminate mode of transmission.

More labs are testing for the presence of Shiga toxin rather than just O157. Unfortunately, at the same time, many labs are dropping culture-based methods, leaving clinicians (and epidemiologists) in the dark as to the specifics of the etiologic agent, and putting more of the diagnostic burden on the public health reference lab.

Much of the heavy lifting for prevention must be done upstream, with plans to minimize contamination of crops and processing equipment. Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point (HACCP) practices focus on documenting and controlling risks during food processing and commercial food preparation, as well as efforts to control water and other potential environmental sources of infection.
Incidence of STEC infection by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of STEC infection by month: Oregon, 2019

- Median 2014–2018
- Cases
Incidence of STEC infection by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

Incidence of STEC infection: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
Incidence of STEC infection by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.

Incidence of STEC infection by reported ethnicity: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Incidence of STEC infection, O157 vs. non-O157 type: Oregon, 2010–2019
Incidence of STEC infection by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.

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Prevention

- Wash hands with soap carefully and frequently, especially after going to the bathroom, changing diapers or touching livestock. Supervise hand washing of toddlers and small children after they use the toilet.
- Do not work or attend daycare, serve or prepare food or work in health care while ill with diarrhea.
- Practice safe food handling. Rinse raw produce thoroughly under running tap water; separate uncooked meats from vegetables, cooked foods, and ready-to-eat foods; and cook meat to the proper temperatures.
- Do not drink raw milk and do not eat foods that have unpasteurized milk in them.
Extrapulmonary nontuberculous mycobacterial disease (NTM)

Oregon surveillance for extrapulmonary nontuberculous mycobacterial disease (NTM) started in January 2014. Case reporting identifies outbreaks and potential sources of transmission. Other objectives of reporting are to prevent further transmission, identify epidemiologic trends and educate the exposed persons about signs and symptoms of the disease.

NTM are environmental organisms, usually associated with water and soil; there are more than 100 different species identified. Disease-causing Mycobacterium species frequently identified in the United States include: *M. avium* complex (MAC), *M. marinum*, *M. abscessus*, *M. chelonae*, *M. fortuitum*, *M. kansasii* and *M. xenopi* (in certain regions).

Extrapulmonary NTM disease presents as cutaneous, bone, joint, lymph node or central nervous system disease. These soft tissue infections cause purplish nodules that drain and may ulcerate or scar.

Cutaneous infections typically result from either:

- Direct inoculation during trauma
- Surgical or medical procedures
- Exposures to whirlpool baths, or
- Settings such as nail salons or tattoo procedures.
Lymphadenitis occurs most in otherwise healthy children, usually <5 years old. Lymph node disease results in large, reddened and tender nodes, which can drain or ulcerate.

Generally, disseminated extrapulmonary disease occurs in immunocompromised patients (e.g., HIV, cancer, transplant and others). Symptoms include cough, fatigue, weight loss, fever and night sweats.

Treatment is based on the species identified and the site of infection. For the immunocompetent, infections are usually curable with a two to three drug regimen for two to six months, depending on site of infection. Susceptibility testing of the organism determines the appropriate antibiotic treatment. For those with disseminated disease, cure is difficult to achieve without restoration of the immune system.

Fifty-three cases of extrapulmonary NTM with disease onset in 2019 were reported among Oregonians. The median case age was 50 (range <1–90) years; 27 (51%) were female; 20 (38%) were hospitalized at the time of specimen collection. Tissue and wound cultures accounted for 36 (68%) of the specimen sources. *M. avium* complex was the species most frequently isolated at 21 (40%) of cases. Among the 10 (19%) cases in the 0–4 age group, *M. avium* complex and *M. Chelonae* were isolated from lymph nodes or tissue samples.
Incidence of extrapulmonary nontuberculous mycobacterial disease (NTM) by year: Oregon, 2014–2019

Extrapulmonary NTM became reportable in 2014.

Incidence of extrapulmonary nontuberculous mycobacterial disease (NTM) by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

Cases per 100,000
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**Prevention**

- For surgical procedures, follow infection prevention best practices, which include following sterilization guidelines and not using tap water or ice in the operating room.
- Avoid dusts from potting soil.
- Adequately clean baths in nail salons.
- Tattoo ink should be diluted with sterile water.
Giardiasis

*Giardia intestinalis*, the flagellated protozoan originally named *G. lamblia*, is the most commonly identified parasitic pathogen in the United States. Children in daycare and their close contacts are at greatest risk, as are backpackers and campers (from drinking unfiltered, untreated water), persons drinking from shallow wells, travelers to disease-endemic areas and men who have sex with men.

*Giardia* cysts can be excreted in the stool intermittently for weeks or months, resulting in a protracted period of communicability. Transmission occurs when as few as 10 cysts are ingested through person-to-person or animal-to-person contact, or by ingesting fecally contaminated water or food. Because most human cases follow person-to-person transmission, identification and treatment of giardiasis as well as management of individuals’ contacts should prevent further spread of infection.

Most *Giardia* infections occur without symptoms. When symptomatic, patients report chronic diarrhea, steatorrhea, abdominal cramps, bloating, frequent loose and pale, greasy stools, fatigue and weight loss.

In 2019, the reported incidence of giardiasis in Oregon remained elevated compared to the rest of the United States, with 6.9 cases per 100,000 persons. During 2019, 99% of cases were reported as “sporadic”; 1% were transmitted among household members, and there was one outbreak associated with a county fair. Males aged 30–39 years had the highest incidence in 2019, with 10.7 cases per 100,000 population, followed by males 50–59 with a rate of 10.6. Rates of infection tend to be higher in the summer months with transmission related to outdoor activities in or near untreated water. However, similar to what was observed in 2018, more than 25 cases were reported in January and December 2019.

Giardiasis is treatable, though treatment fails 10% of the time. Treatment failure, however, is not thought to indicate resistance. A repeat course of the same or another medication may work.
Incidence of giardiasis by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of giardiasis by month: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of giardiasis by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

Incidence of giardiasis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

Giardiasis became nationally notifiable in 2002.
Incidence of giardiasis by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.

Incidence of giardiasis by reported ethnicity: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Incidence of giardiasis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Wash hands with soap carefully and frequently, especially after going to the bathroom, changing diapers or after touching livestock. Supervise hand washing of toddlers and small children after they use the toilet.
- Do not work or attend daycare, serve or prepare food or work in health care while ill with diarrhea.

- Refrain from recreational water activities (pools, hot tubs, splash pads) for two weeks after symptoms from a bout of giardiasis subside.
- Do not drink untreated surface water.
**Haemophilus influenzae infection**

Until the advent of an effective vaccine against *Haemophilus influenzae* serotype b (Hib) organisms, *H. influenzae* was the leading cause of bacterial meningitis in children <5 years of age in Oregon and elsewhere. It plummeted in the rankings, and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* is now in the lead. In 2019, there were no cases of Hib reported. Appropriate use of conjugate vaccine will help ensure Hib infection remains minimal well into the future. All sterile-site *H. influenzae* isolates must be sent to the Oregon State Public Health Laboratory for additional typing.

Ninety-nine cases of invasive *H. influenzae* disease (IHID, all serotypes) occurred in 2019. With the decline in invasive Hib disease in children, there has been increased recognition of nonserotype b and nontypeable cases in persons >5 years of age, especially among those ≥65 years of age. In 2019, 71% of cases were nontypeable, 6% were identified as serotype e, 9% were identified as serotype f, 7% were serotype a, and the remaining 7% of cases were not serotyped. The burden of IHID in 2019 was highest among those ≥65 years of age (7.6/100,000 persons), followed by those 0–4 years of age (3.6/100,000 persons) and then those 35–64 years of age (1.6/100,000 persons). *Haemophilus influenzae* is treated with antibiotics. In 2019, the top clinical syndrome of invasive IHID reported in Oregon was pneumonia (43%). Ninety-four percent of cases were hospitalized. There were 15 deaths related to IHID infection.
Incidence of *H. influenzae* infection by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of *H. influenzae* infection by month: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of *H. influenzae* infection by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

![Graph showing incidence of H. influenzae infection by age and sex in Oregon, 2019.](image)

Incidence of *H. influenzae* infection: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

Only Hib is consistently reported by states.

![Graph showing incidence of H. influenzae infection in Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019.](image)
Disease overview

Incidence by year and month

Incidence by age and sex and in OR vs. U.S.

H. influenzae cases by serotype

Incidence by county

Disease prevention

H. influenzae infection by year and serotype: Oregon, 2010–2019

Select a serotype(s) to view:
Multiple values
Incidence of *H. influenzae* infection by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Vaccinate all children against Hib at 2 months, 4 months, 6 months, and 12–15 months of age.
- Cover your cough and wash your hands.
- Close contacts of Hib cases can be treated prophylactically to prevent infection.
Acute hepatitis A

Hepatitis A is a liver disease caused by the hepatitis A virus, which infects humans through fecal-oral transmission. Hepatitis A can occur in situations ranging from isolated cases of disease to statewide outbreaks. However, since the licensure of the hepatitis A vaccine in 1995–1996, rates of infection have declined nationally as well as in Oregon, which had been one of the higher-incidence states. Most cases in Oregon are “sporadic” and occur mainly in persons who travel outside the United States. Oregon has seen small clusters of hepatitis A infections among injection drug users and jail inmates. In 2019, Oregon saw a cluster of five hepatitis A cases in a high-risk population reporting injection drug use and unstable housing in Central Oregon. Multiple local vaccination clinics were set up in order to provide vaccination to this high-risk population. Hepatitis A vaccine was offered to local shelters, soup kitchens, and inmates in a local county jail.

In 2019, Oregon logged 28 cases of acute hepatitis A. Ten of the 28 cases were acquired by venturing outside of Oregon or from household members with foreign travel, often to countries with high rates of hepatitis A, such as Mexico, Guatemala, Kenya, United Arab Emirates, Panama, Costa Rica, and Niger. Eight cases reported injection drug use; four cases reported unstable housing. No cases were reported among men who have sex with men. Ten cases had no identifiable risk factor for hepatitis A. Forty-three percent of cases were <40 years of age.
Incidence of hepatitis A by year: Oregon, 2000–2019
Incidence of hepatitis A by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019

Incidence of hepatitis A: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
Incidence of hepatitis A by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Vaccinate children >1 year of age against hepatitis A.
- Wash hands with soap and warm water carefully and frequently, especially after going to the bathroom, after changing diapers, and before preparing food or beverages.
- Supervise hand washing of toddlers and small children after they use the toilet.
- Do not work or attend daycare, serve or prepare food, or work in health care while ill with diarrhea.
- Provide post-exposure prophylaxis to close contacts of acute hepatitis A cases.
## Disease overview

### Incidence by year and by age and sex

### Risk factors; Incidence in OR vs. U.S.

### Incidence by county

### Disease prevention

## Acute hepatitis B

Hepatitis B is a vaccine-preventable viral disease of the liver that occurs when the virus of an infected person passes (through blood, semen or saliva) into the bloodstream of a non-immune person. Percutaneous or permucosal exposures take place:

- When hypodermic needles are shared
- When blood splashes into an eye
- During sex
- By biting
- From lapses in hygiene involving glucometer and other finger stick devices to test blood sugar levels
- From breaches in infection control in health care settings, and
- When a baby is born whose mother is a hepatitis B carrier.

Acute hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection (diagnosed by the presence in serum of immunoglobulin M antibody to the hepatitis B core antigen [IgM anti-HBc] or hepatitis surface antigen [HBsAg]) usually, but not always, causes jaundice. Some infections are mild, even asymptomatic, and may go undetected. Hepatitis B has been preventable by vaccination since 1982 and, to promote universal vaccination and hence protection, was added to the recommended childhood immunization schedule in 1992 with the series starting at birth.
Oregon acute hepatitis B rates stabilized in 2018 after a decade of decline — a decline that started after the hepatitis B vaccine was licensed in 1982.

Local health departments investigated and reported 25 acute cases in 2019. Seventy-two percent of the cases were male. Sixty-eight percent were interviewed. The most commonly reported risk factors include having multiple sexual partners, males reporting sexual contact with other males, and use of drugs (injection and non-injection). No risk factor was identified for 6% of cases.

There were no outbreaks of acute hepatitis B in Oregon in 2019.

HBV is not spread through food or water, sharing eating utensils, breastfeeding, hugging, kissing, hand holding, coughing or sneezing.

No cure is available for hepatitis B, so prevention is crucial. The best way to be protected from hepatitis B is to be vaccinated. Vaccines can provide protection in 90%–95% of healthy persons. The vaccine can be given safely to infants, children and adults in three doses over a period of six months.

Nationwide, the successful integration of hepatitis B vaccine into the immunization schedule has contributed to a 96% decline in the incidence of acute hepatitis B in children and adolescents. Approximately 95% of new infections occur among adults and unvaccinated adults with behavioral risk factors or who are household contacts or sex partners of HBV-infected people. For this reason, the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices recommends health care providers implement standing orders to identify adults at risk and to administer hepatitis B vaccine as part of routine practice.
Incidence of acute hepatitis B by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of acute hepatitis B: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

Hover over a bar to view historical data.

Reported risk factors for acute hepatitis B among interviewed cases: Oregon, 2019

* Transfusion, infusions, dialysis, surgery
** Street drugs, needlestick, tattoo, piercings, other blood exposure
Incidence of acute hepatitis B by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Get vaccinated.
- Persons who are sexually active can:
  › Limit the number of partners.
  › Use condoms properly from start to finish when having sex.
- Persons who inject drugs can:
  › Avoid sharing needles or works with others.
  › Use only clean needles and works.
  › Purchase new, sterile needles from pharmacies.
- Use universal precautions and best practices to prevent needlestick injuries.
- Vaccinate all newborns against hepatitis B.
- Screen all pregnant women for hepatitis B. Infants born to hepatitis B-positive mothers should receive hepatitis immunoglobulin along with vaccine at birth.
- Chronic carriers should not share personal care items such as razors or toothbrushes.
Chronic hepatitis B

Persons with chronic hepatitis B are known as “chronic carriers” — a state of infection defined by the persistence of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) in the blood for more than six months. The likelihood of becoming a chronic carrier varies by age at infection. Fewer than 6% of acutely infected adults in the United States become carriers, compared to 25% (with HBeAg-negative moms) to 90% (with HBeAg-positive moms) of children infected in early childhood or during birth. Perinatal infection can be prevented by prompt administration of hepatitis B immune globulin (HBIG) and initiation of the three-dose hepatitis B vaccination series. This perinatal intervention is widely practiced in the United States — all states have federal funding for perinatal hepatitis B prevention programs. This is not true in other parts of the world, particularly Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, where the prevalence of chronic hepatitis B is higher to begin with. Chronic carriers are at greater risk of developing life-threatening diseases (e.g., chronic active hepatitis, cirrhosis or liver cancer) decades later. Carriers will continue to transmit hepatitis B until vaccine-induced immunity is nearly universal.

Recommendations and strategies to prevent new cases include the following: routinely vaccinating all infants at birth, screening all pregnant women for hepatitis B, administering HBIG in addition to hepatitis B vaccine to infants born to HBsAg-positive mothers, and ensuring all infants complete the hepatitis B vaccine series. Combined, the three-dose hepatitis B vaccine series and HBIG are nearly 95% effective in preventing hepatitis B disease in children born to HBV-infected mothers. In 2019, there were no cases of perinatal hepatitis B identified in Oregon.

In 2019, there were 374 newly reported carriers in Oregon, a decrease from the 398 reported in 2018. Forty-eight percent of these were women who tend to be diagnosed earlier than men, perhaps due to prenatal screening. Among women of child-bearing age, 34% were pregnant. A large majority, 82% of cases who reported their country of birth, were born outside of the United States. Chronic carriers are not reportable in many states, so a table comparing Oregon to the rest of the United States is not provided.
Newly reported chronic hepatitis B by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of chronic hepatitis B by age and sex: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of chronic hepatitis B by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.

Incidence of chronic hepatitis B by reported ethnicity: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.

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Prevention

- Get vaccinated.
- Persons who are sexually active can:
  › Limit the number of partners.
  › Use condoms properly from start to finish when having sex.
- Persons who inject drugs can:
  › Avoid sharing needles or works with others.
  › Use only clean needles and works.
  › Purchase new, sterile needles from pharmacies.
- Use universal precautions and best practices to prevent needlestick injuries.
- Vaccinate all newborns against hepatitis B.
- Screen all pregnant women for hepatitis B. Infants born to hepatitis B-positive mothers should receive hepatitis immunoglobulin along with vaccine at birth.
- Chronic carriers should not share personal care items such as razors or toothbrushes.
- Investigate cases, including the identification of unvaccinated contacts to encourage vaccination.
Hepatitis C

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a bloodborne infection that may cause both acute and chronic hepatitis C. The most common signs and symptoms of acute hepatitis C include jaundice, fatigue, dark urine, abdominal pain, loss of appetite and nausea. Acute hepatitis C cases are underreported because 80% are asymptomatic, and laboratories cannot distinguish between acute and chronic HCV infection. Most people do not experience acute hepatitis C infection symptoms and many people with chronic hepatitis C have few symptoms for the first 10 to 15 years after infection. Chronic hepatitis C can lead to liver damage and sometimes death due to cirrhosis and liver cancer. In the United States, an estimated 2.7–3.9 million people are infected with HCV. Chronic liver disease develops in up to 70% of chronically infected persons. Heavy alcohol use can also speed the progression of hepatitis C disease. Approximately 20% to 30% of people with untreated chronic hepatitis C will develop cirrhosis over 20–30 years. Among people with cirrhosis caused by chronic hepatitis C infection, 1% to 4% develop end-stage liver disease or liver cancer each year. Chronic hepatitis C infection is a leading indication for liver transplant in the United States and Oregon. New, highly effective hepatitis C treatments can cure more than 95% of people living with hepatitis C and successful hepatitis C treatment can slow or stop liver disease progression.

Analysis of U.S. mortality data shows a steady decrease in deaths from HCV during the last five years, reaching 15,713 deaths in 2018. Factors associated with HCV-related deaths included chronic liver disease, HBV co-infection, alcohol-related conditions, minority status and HIV co-infection. Mirroring national trends, deaths from HCV in Oregon have slowly decreased since reaching a peak in 2014, averaging around 500 deaths annually in Oregon from 2015–2018. In 2018, Oregon’s hepatitis C mortality rate of 8.0 deaths per 100,000 population was more than twice the U.S. hepatitis C death rate of 3.7 deaths per 100,000 population. The most recent available national hepatitis C data are from 2018.
Some of the state’s highest chronic hepatitis C rates are in rural areas. In Oregon, hepatitis C disproportionately affects African Americans and American Indians compared to Whites. There is no vaccine for hepatitis C and no post-exposure prophylaxis. Hepatitis C is spread from one person to another primarily by percutaneous exposure to human blood; most infections are due to illegal injection drug use. Uncommonly, the virus can also be transmitted through sexual contact and from infected mothers to their infants at the time of birth. The risk for perinatal HCV transmission is approximately 4%. If the mother is co-infected with HIV, the risk for perinatal infection increases to approximately 19%. Since the adoption of routine blood donor screening in 1992, HCV is transmitted less than one time for every 2 million units of blood transfused. Cases can occur in health care settings, most commonly related to improper reuse of syringes or multidose vials.

### Acute hepatitis C

On average during 2010–2019, there were 24 acute hepatitis C cases reported annually in Oregon. In 2019, 28 cases were reported. Nineteen (68%) of the cases were <40 years of age, and 12 (43%) were female. Among interviewed cases (n=19), injection drug use remains the predominant risk factor reported by cases (58%). There were no health care-associated acute hepatitis C cases in 2019. Currently there is no vaccine for hepatitis C.
Incidence of acute hepatitis C by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of acute hepatitis C by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019
Incidence of acute hepatitis C: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

Reported risk factors for acute hepatitis C among interviewed cases: Oregon, 2019

* Transfusion, infusions, dialysis, surgery
** Street drugs, needlestick, tattoo, piercings, other blood exposure
Incidence of acute hepatitis C by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Persons who inject drugs can:
  - Avoid sharing needles or works with others.
  - Use only clean needles and works.
  - Purchase new, sterile needles from pharmacies.

- Health care workers should use universal precautions and best practices to prevent needlestick injuries.
Hepatitis C

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**Chronic hepatitis C**

Chronic hepatitis C became reportable in Oregon as of July 1, 2005. In 2019, 5,127 chronic hepatitis C cases were reported. These numbers are likely an underestimate of the true incidence because most infections are asymptomatic and, therefore, not diagnosed or reported to public health. Infection in males (144/100,000) is more common than in females (102/100,000). The highest prevalence of HCV infection is among persons born between 1945 and 1965. The CDC estimates this age group comprises 75% of chronic hepatitis C cases in the United States; among 2019 Oregon cases, 43% belong to this age group. However, the rates of chronic infection in people under the age of 30 (53/100,000) are rising, primarily due to injection drug use.
Newly reported chronic hepatitis C by year: Oregon, 2005–2019

Chronic hepatitis C became reportable in July 2005.

Incidence of chronic hepatitis C by age and sex: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of chronic hepatitis C by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.
Incidence of chronic hepatitis C by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019
### Disease overview (continued)

#### Incidence by year and by age and sex

#### Incidence by race and ethnicity

#### Incidence by county

#### Disease prevention

- **Health care workers:** Use universal precautions and best practices to prevent needlestick injuries.

- **Persons who inject drugs can:**
  - Avoid sharing needles or works with others.
  - Use only clean needles and works.
  - Purchase new, sterile needles from pharmacies.

- Newer direct-acting antiviral agents are highly effective and can be prescribed by primary care providers to Medicaid patients without requirements for sobriety.
Legionellosis is usually an acute respiratory tract infection that begins two to 14 days after exposure to *Legionella* spp. Signs of the disease can include a high fever, chills and cough, in addition to headache and muscle aches. Symptoms are similar to those seen in other forms of pneumonia, so the diagnosis is rarely obvious and can be difficult to make. Available confirmatory diagnostic tests include urine antigen detection, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), direct fluorescent antibody staining and culture.

“Pontiac fever,” a milder illness associated with *Legionella* bacteria, is characterized by fever and muscle aches without pneumonia. It typically occurs a few hours to two days after exposure.

*Legionella* bacteria are found naturally in the environment, usually in water, and grow best in warm conditions such as hot tubs, cooling towers, hot water tanks, large plumbing systems or the air-conditioning systems of large buildings. They are transmitted by inhalation of aerosolized water or soil infected with the bacteria. Person-to-person transmission does not occur.
Legionellosis became officially reportable in Oregon in 2001 and nationally in 2009. Rates of reported illness have increased each year nationally. In Oregon, rates of reported illness were increasing until a decline from 2015 to 2018. In 2019, Oregon saw a dramatic increase in reported cases. The cause of the rise is unknown; however, increases in older persons and those with underlying disease, aging plumbing infrastructure, and increased testing, detection and reporting may have played a role.

In 2019, 73 cases of legionellosis occurred among Oregonians; 97% were hospitalized, and eight died. Sixty-two percent of cases were male and seventy percent of cases were ≥55 years of age. While outbreaks occurred in several cities in the United States, no outbreaks were reported in Oregon. Due to an increasing number of cases in recent years, the CDC has developed a water management toolkit for building owners and managers. Facilities receiving Medicare/Medicaid funds must now have a water management plan. Effective water and infrastructure management and better testing protocols can prevent *Legionella* outbreaks.
Incidence of legionellosis by year: Oregon, 2001–2019

Incidence of legionellosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019

Incidence of legionellosis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
Incidence of legionellosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
### Disease overview

### Incidence by year

### Incidence by age and sex and in OR vs. U.S.

### Incidence by county

### Disease prevention

- Not smoking can lower your chances of developing Legionnaires' disease if you are exposed to *Legionella* bacteria.
- Persons at increased risk of infection may choose to avoid high-risk exposures, such as being in or near a hot tub.
- Prevent water conditions that allow *Legionella* to grow by doing the following:
  - Maintain and clean cooling towers and evaporative condensers twice yearly, and periodically use chlorine.
  - Maintain domestic water heaters at 60°C (140°F) and water temperature at 50°C (122°F) or higher at the faucet.
  - Don't allow water to stagnate. Large water-storage tanks exposed to sunlight can produce warm conditions favorable to growth of *Legionella*. Flushing infrequently used water lines will help alleviate stagnation.
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**Listeriosis**

Listeriosis is a bacterial infection that may present as an influenza-like illness with high fever, headache and muscle aches; as a gastrointestinal illness; or as an invasive disease with sepsis or meningitis. In pregnant women, listeriosis may cause miscarriages or stillbirths. The case fatality rate of invasive listeriosis is as high as 30% in infants infected prenatally and in non-pregnant adults.

Most cases of listeriosis are “sporadic” rather than part of outbreaks. However, several large outbreaks have been associated with consumption of contaminated foods. It is important to track the incidence of this disease to identify such outbreaks, and to identify high-risk groups. The rate is higher among pregnant women, newborns, the elderly and immunocompromised persons. Cooking food properly is the most important means of prevention. When listeriosis is diagnosed, treatment with antibiotics should be instituted promptly.

In 2019, 12 cases were reported. All cases were hospitalized and there were two deaths (17%). Higher incidence of listeriosis was observed in both older age groups (particularly those above 70 years of age) and in the very young (0–4 years of age). Over the past ten years, Grant, Tillamook, and Lincoln counties also reported higher incidences of listeriosis in comparison to other Oregon counties.

Two of Oregon’s 12 cases in 2019 were associated with a multi-state outbreak which affected 13 states in the U.S., and resulted in 24 reported cases, 22 hospitalizations and two deaths. A 2019 Canadian investigation of an outbreak of genetically similar listeriosis implicated ready-to-eat chicken as the source of illness, though the source of the U.S. cases was not identified.
Incidence of listeriosis by year: Oregon, 2000–2019
Incidence of listeriosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019

Incidence of listeriosis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
Incidence of listeriosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Practice safe food handling. Rinse raw produce thoroughly under running tap water; separate uncooked meats and poultry from vegetables, cooked foods and ready-to-eat foods; cook meat and poultry to the proper temperatures.
- Do not drink raw milk and do not eat foods that have unpasteurized milk in them.
- Higher-risk persons (pregnant women, immunocompromised and elderly):
  - Avoid eating hot dogs, luncheon meats, cold cuts and other deli meats unless they are heated.
  - Do not eat soft cheese such as feta, queso fresco, Brie or Camembert unless it is labeled as made with pasteurized milk.
  - Do not eat refrigerated smoked seafood unless it is contained in a cooked dish such as a casserole.
Lyme disease

Lyme disease is a tick-borne zoonotic disease caused by the spirochete *Borrelia burgdorferi*. The first manifestation in approximately 60% of patients appears as a red spot or bump that expands slowly with clearing in the middle, forming a ring or “target,” or a bull’s eye sometimes with multiple similar lesions. This distinctive skin lesion is called “erythema migrans.” In most cases, the tick must be attached for 36–48 hours or more before the Lyme disease bacterium can be transmitted. Most humans are infected through the bites of immature ticks called nymphs. Nymphs are tiny (less than 2 mm) and difficult to see, which is why they may be attached for many hours without being detected. Nymphs feed during the spring and summer months. The incubation period for Lyme disease ranges from three to 30 days after tick exposure; however, the early stages of the illness may be asymptomatic, and the patient may later develop systemic symptoms and joint, neurologic or cardiac problems in varying combinations during a period of months to years. Infections are treated with antibiotics.

Currently, increasing recognition of the disease is redefining areas where ticks may carry *B. burgdorferi*; Lyme disease cases have been reported in 49 states, and in Ontario and British Columbia, Canada. Related borrelioses have been found in Europe, the former Soviet Union, China and Japan. In 1997–1998, the CDC and the Oregon Public Health Division collected and identified ticks and tested them for *Borrelia burgdorferi* in Deschutes, Josephine and Jackson counties. No ticks from Deschutes County were identified as carrying *Borrelia* in this study. The organism was isolated in 3.5% of *Ixodes pacificus* ticks tested.

During 2019, 65 cases of Lyme disease were reported in Oregon. The median age was 37 years of age. Forty-one (63%) cases were female. The highest numbers of reported cases by residence were in Multnomah County (11) and Jackson County (10). Since 2015, we have identified an upward trend in the number of cases reported with Lyme disease. This could be related to greater local interaction with ticks in the environment as well as acquiring the infections from out-of-state areas where Lyme disease is more prevalent.
Incidence of Lyme disease by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of Lyme disease by month: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of Lyme disease by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019

Incidence of Lyme disease: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
Incidence of Lyme disease by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Avoid exposure to ticks. Wear long sleeves, long pants and socks when outdoors.

- Check yourself, your children and your pets for ticks. Be especially vigilant after spending time in wooded or grassy areas. Remove a tick as soon as possible with tweezers. Gently grasp the tick near its head or mouth. Don't squeeze or crush the tick, but pull carefully and steadily.

- Use insect repellents when you go outdoors. Repellents containing DEET, picaridin, IR3535, and some oil of lemon eucalyptus and para-menthane, 2-undecanone products provide longer-lasting protection. To optimize safety and effectiveness, use repellents according to the label instructions.

- For more information about these products, please visit this EPA site.

- Do your best to tick-proof your yard. Clear brush and leaves where ticks live. Keep woodpiles in sunny areas.
Malaria

Worldwide, malaria is one of the most devastating of the communicable diseases, causing perhaps 1–2 million deaths annually, in addition to an enormous burden of disability and medical costs. It is caused by parasites of the genus *Plasmodium* transmitted among humans by *Anopheles* mosquitoes. While transmission has not been documented in Oregon for decades, malaria is reported every year in our state; all cases have resulted from exposures outside the United States. *Anopheles* mosquitoes capable of transmitting malaria live in Oregon, so local transmission remains a theoretical possibility — albeit one we don’t lose much sleep over.

There were six cases of malaria among Oregonians in 2019. One (17%) was *Plasmodium falciparum* — the worst kind to have and the most common worldwide. Oregon surveillance data contribute to the national database, which informs recommendations for prevention and treatment. Of the six Oregon cases in 2019, 6 (100%) reported pre-onset travel in Africa or were immigrants from Africa.

Competent advice about behavioral and chemical interventions can reduce risk to travelers, but refugees and other immigrants may carry long-harbored infections.

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Incidence of malaria by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of malaria by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019
Malaria cases by continent of acquisition: Oregon, 2019

Click on items in the legend or pieces of the chart to view the data.

Incidence of malaria: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

Cases per 100,000

Year


Oregon Incidence Rate  U.S. Incidence Rate

Africa  Asia  Central/South America
Prevention

- Understanding the current situation with malaria in one’s travel destinations is essential. Consult with a travel medicine expert or, if nothing else, read the country-by-country assessment online from the CDC.

- Because Anopheles mosquitoes feed at night, minimize your risk of getting bitten by sleeping under an insecticide-impregnated mosquito net or in an air-conditioned room (or both!).

- If out and about at night, wear long-sleeved shirts and pants and use topical mosquito repellents.

- Chemoprophylaxis (antimalarial medicine) provides the backstop you need when bite prevention is imperfect - as it always is.

- Many effective medicines are available in the United States, and even more elsewhere. Weighing their relative merits and side effect can be complex; consult a travel expert for individualized advice. Don’t wait until the last minute; most drugs should be started before and continued after the likely exposure period.
Measles is an acute, highly communicable viral illness known for its red, blotchy rash. The rash starts on the face and then spreads widely over the body. It is preceded by a febrile prodrome that includes cough, coryza and conjunctivitis; photophobia and Koplik spots in the mouth also sometimes appear.

Detection of measles ribonucleic acid (RNA) by polymerase chain reaction and measles-specific immunoglobulin M (IgM) antibody are the most common methods for confirming measles infection (in a patient who has not recently been immunized). Treatment is supportive.

A focus on increasing vaccination among preschool children by following the 1989 recommendation for two doses of measles, mumps and rubella (MMR) vaccine resulted in a dramatic reduction in measles in the United States. In Oregon, two doses of measles-containing vaccine have been required for entry into kindergarten since 1998. In 2019 about 96% of K–12 kids had received two doses.
Since 2004, 56 cases have been reported in Oregon; 31 of these were imported and another 25 were linked to imported cases. Most imported cases originated in Asia or Europe and struck both Oregon citizens traveling abroad and persons visiting Oregon from other countries. The median age of cases has been 12.5 years (range, 6 months–49 years) since 2004. Forty-four cases were unvaccinated; seven were vaccinated; the vaccination status of three could not be documented; one was too young for vaccination and one had medical contraindication to the vaccine.

In 2019, Oregon had four outbreaks of measles, and one case of measles that was not part of an outbreak, totaling 28 cases. This is the most cases the state has seen since 1991. All cases were unvaccinated.

Though measles is highly infectious, the risk of exposure to measles in Oregon remains low. Sustaining high levels of vaccination is important to limit the spread of measles from imported cases and to prevent it from becoming re-established as an endemic disease in the United States.
Incidence of measles by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Measles by country or location of importation: 2010–2019

Click on items in the legend or pieces of the chart to view the data.

* Many cases that are acquired in Oregon or elsewhere in the United States are linked to imported measles cases from another country.
Incidence of measles: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
Prevention

- Vaccinate:
  - One dose for preschool-age children >12 months of age and for persons born during or after 1957; a second dose for school-age children and for adults at high risk of measles exposure (e.g., health care personnel, international travelers and students at post-high school educational institutions).
  - Post-exposure vaccination can prevent or lessen illness if given within 72 hours of exposure.
Meningococcal disease

Reported cases of invasive meningococcal infections, including sepsis and meningitis, have declined from the hyperendemic levels seen in 1993–1997 attributable to a clonal strain of serogroup B Neisseria meningitidis. Respiratory secretions and droplets continue to be shared among Oregonians and predispose us to secondary cases.

In 2019, there were 11 reported cases and no deaths from meningococcal disease in Oregon. One hundred percent of cases required hospitalization. From the early 1990s through 2011, serogroup B predominated in Oregon but, for the past several years, other serogroups have been more prominent. In 2016, 43% of cases were serogroup B; serogroup C accounted for 48% of cases; 2017, 40% of cases were serogroup B; serogroup C accounted for 52% of cases; 2018, 7% of cases were serogroup B; serogroup C accounted for 71% of cases; 2019, 9% of cases were serogroup B; serogroup C accounted for 64% of cases. There were no outbreaks of invasive meningococcal disease in Oregon in 2019.

Meningococcal disease is treated with intravenous antibiotics.
American Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP) recommends routine vaccination with quadrivalent (contains antigens from serogroups A, C, Y and W-135) meningococcal conjugate vaccine for all persons 11–21 years of age.

Meningococcal vaccine is also recommended for persons 2 months to 55 years of age who are at increased risk for the disease due to complement deficiency, travel to or residence in a country where meningococcal disease is hyperendemic or epidemic, or inclusion in a defined risk group during a community or institutional outbreak.

In October 2014, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) licensed the first serogroup B meningococcal vaccine (MenB-FHbp, Trumenba®). FDA approved this vaccine for use in people 10–25 years of age as a three-dose series. On Jan. 23, 2015, FDA licensed a second serogroup B meningococcal vaccine (MenB-4C, Bexsero®). FDA approved this vaccine for use in people 10–25 years of age as a two-dose series.

MenB vaccination is now recommended for those ≥10 years of age with complement deficiencies, anatomic or functional asplenia, microbiologists who have contact with N. meningitidis, and others at increased risk during a serogroup B outbreak. MenB vaccine may also be administered to adolescents and young adults 16–23 years of age to provide short-term protection against most strains of serogroup B meningococcal disease.
Incidence of meningococcal disease by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of meningococcal disease by month: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of meningococcal disease by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019

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Incidence of meningococcal disease: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

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<th>U.S. Incidence Rate</th>
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<tr>
<td>2019</td>
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</table>
Meningococcal disease by year and serogroup: Oregon, 2010–2019

Select a serogroup(s) to view:
All
Incidence of meningococcal disease by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Vaccinate to prevent illness from serogroups A, C, Y, W-135 per ACIP guidelines.
- Vaccinate to prevent illness from serogroup B per ACIP guidelines.
- Identify and recommend prophylaxis of close contacts of confirmed and presumptive cases.
- Avoid exposing children to tobacco smoke. These behaviors have been associated with an increased risk of invasive meningococcal disease in children.
Mumps

Mumps is an acute viral illness characterized by fever and swelling of the salivary glands, typically the parotids. Transmission is generally through respiratory droplets or through direct contact with nasal secretions.

Laboratory diagnosis of mumps in highly vaccinated populations is challenging. Studies have shown negative serologic tests in a person with true mumps as well as a negative RT-PCR if the buccal swab is collected more than three days after parotitis onset. To increase the likelihood of detecting mumps, collecting both serum and buccal swab is recommended from all patients with suspected mumps.

Once an almost universal childhood infection, mumps incidence decreased in the United States with routine childhood vaccination. Reporting of this vaccine-preventable viral infection was discontinued in Oregon in 1981 but prompted by outbreaks, re-established July 1, 2006.

Thirty-one cases were reported in Oregon during 2019. Among 11 cases <19 years of age, 2 were up to date on vaccination. Because as many as 20% of mumps virus infections are asymptomatic, and nearly 50% are associated with nonspecific or primarily respiratory symptoms (with or without parotitis), mumps infections are significantly underreported.

Outbreaks can still occur in highly vaccinated communities, particularly in close-contact settings. Two doses of the vaccine are 88% effective at protecting against mumps; one dose is 78% effective. The driving forces for the outbreaks might be a combination of the imperfect vaccine effectiveness, waning immunity, and the intensity of exposure. Still, high vaccination coverage helps limit the size, duration and spread of mumps cases. Also, because of vaccination, complications of mumps have been substantially reduced. Mumps remains endemic, and vaccination is the best prevention tool.
Incidence of mumps by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Mumps was re-established as a reportable disease in Oregon in 2006.
Incidence of mumps by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019

Mumps was re-established as a reportable disease in Oregon in 2006.

Incidence of mumps: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
Prevention

- One dose of vaccine (as MMR) for all children at 12–15 months of age.
- A second dose (as MMR) for school-age children and for adults at high risk of mumps exposure (e.g., health care personnel, international travelers and students at post-high school educational institutions).
- One dose of vaccine (as MMR) for all persons born during or after 1957 who are not at high risk of mumps exposure.
Pertussis is a highly contagious, acute respiratory infection caused by the bacterium *Bordetella pertussis*. It is transmitted from person to person through contact with respiratory secretions (i.e., droplet transmission). The disease is most severe in infants and young children, many of whom suffer the intense fits of coughing that may end with an inspiratory “whoop.” Although the disease is generally less severe in older persons, any infected person can transmit the disease to other susceptible persons, including unimmunized or incompletely immunized infants.

Despite high childhood immunization coverage, pertussis remains endemic in the United States, with epidemics every few years. In 2012, Oregon experienced a pertussis epidemic with the most cases (910) seen in a single year since 1953. Because pertussis often goes undiagnosed in adolescents and adults, it is likely the actual number of cases greatly exceeds the number reported. During 2013–2019, 2,851 cases have been reported here—an average of 407 per year.

In 2019, there were 426 reported cases of pertussis in Oregon. We are noticing an increase in the relative burden among school-aged children and adolescents, who accounted for 252 (59%) of the year’s cases. Twenty outbreaks were reported, almost all occurring in schools.
The incidence has been increasing in recent years among adolescents and adults. Since 2003, 57% of pertussis cases reported in Oregon have been in persons ≥10 years of age. The year 2015 was also noteworthy for a historically high proportion of reported pertussis cases among older teenagers. Immunity wanes with time, so adolescents and adults need a Tdap booster dose, both to protect themselves and to avoid spreading it to vulnerable infants. All persons ≥10 years of age who have not already received Tdap are advised to get a single dose.

Infants with pertussis are also the most likely to suffer complications and death. Since 2003, 260 (33%) of the 793 infants diagnosed with pertussis in Oregon have been hospitalized and five have died.

Previously published Oregon data have demonstrated that even during an epidemic year, the risk of pertussis is higher among the unvaccinated. Pregnant women should receive Tdap, preferably at 27–36 weeks gestation, so they can develop antibodies to pertussis and pass them to their babies before birth. Vaccination of health care workers is strongly encouraged. Children need a series of five DTaP vaccinations before kindergarten, starting at two months of age.

Since 2010, with funding from the CDC, Oregon launched the Metropolitan Area Pertussis Surveillance (MAPS) project, with enhanced surveillance for pertussis in Clackamas, Multnomah and Washington counties. Each reported case is investigated extensively and standardized data are collected. These data help guide regional and national public health policy.
Disease overview

Incidence of pertussis by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of pertussis by month: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of pertussis by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

Incidence of pertussis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019
2019 Selected Reportable Communicable Disease Summary

Data current as of November, 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disease overview</th>
<th>Disease overview (continued)</th>
<th>Incidence by year and month</th>
<th>Incidence by age and sex and in OR vs. U.S.</th>
<th>Incidence by race and ethnicity</th>
<th>Incidence by county</th>
<th>Disease prevention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Incidence of pertussis by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.

Incidence of pertussis by reported ethnicity: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Incidence of pertussis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Immunization is the best way to prevent pertussis.
- Cover your cough and wash your hands.
- Keep babies away from anyone who is coughing.
Q fever is a bacterial infection caused by *Coxiella burnetii*. It can result in acute or chronic illness in humans. It is usually acquired through inhalation of barnyard dust or aerosols contaminated with bacteria from the placentas, body fluids or excreta from infected animals. The bacteria can become airborne and travel for miles. The primary reservoirs are cattle, sheep and goats. Infection may also result from consumption of unpasteurized milk. Veterinarians and sheep, goat and dairy farmers are most at risk.

A host of symptoms can accompany acute Q fever; they include high fever, severe headache, malaise, myalgia, chills, sweats, nausea, vomiting, dry cough, diarrhea, abdominal pain and chest pain. Most people recover from acute Q fever, but some (<5%) develop chronic illness, which often manifests as endocarditis. People with valvular heart disease, pregnant women and people with compromised immune systems are at risk for chronic Q fever after an acute infection. Chronic infection can be treated with long courses of antibiotics.

Q fever reports are rare in Oregon. The number of cases in 2019 was down to five, following two years with higher than average case counts (8) in 2017 and 2018. Nationally, 216 cases were reported in 2019, marking two consecutive years with record high case counts documented in the United States.
**Incidence of Q fever by year: Oregon, 2000–2019**

**Incidence of Q fever: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019**

Q fever became nationally notifiable in 2000.
Prevention

• Barns and laboratories housing potentially infected animals should have restricted access, and holding facilities for sheep should be located away from populated areas.

• Appropriately dispose of placenta, birth products, fetal membranes, and aborted fetuses at facilities housing sheep and goats.

• Use only pasteurized milk and milk products.

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Rabies

Rabies is an acute infection of the central nervous system caused by a neurotropic rhabdovirus of the genus *Lyssavirus*. All mammals, including humans, are susceptible to rabies. In humans, rabies causes a rapidly progressive and fatal encephalomyelitis. The incubation period in humans is usually 2–12 weeks, but there have been documented incubation periods as long as seven years. Bites from infected animals constitute the primary route of transmission. Transplanted organs, including corneas from patients with undiagnosed rabies, have also caused infection in recipients.

The Pacific Northwest is considered to be free of terrestrial rabies. In Oregon, the main reservoir of rabies is bats. Mammals like foxes and cats may encounter rabid bats, acquire the infection and can transmit it to humans. Since 2000, 8% of the bats tested in Oregon have been positive for rabies. This, of course, is not a random sample of Oregon’s bats; rather it represents bats that were neurologically impaired enough to have bitten humans or their pets, and then to have been captured. Any contact between a bat and a human should be evaluated carefully and immediately. All potential human exposures should result in a call to a local public health department office. Testing of an exposing mammal involves killing the animal, removing the head, and sending it to a laboratory for special staining and microscopic examination of brain tissue. The Oregon State Public Health Laboratory will test mammals involved in bona fide human exposures at no cost to the patient; and (for a fee) the Oregon State University’s Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory will test mammals involved in other exposures.
In 2019, nine bats tested positive for rabies. Oregon has identified two rabies-positive cats; one in 2015 and one in 2017. Bat rabies variant continues to be responsible for all rabies-positive wildlife cases in Oregon. This implies that there may have been a greater interaction between rabid bats and other wildlife in the state. Despite the low rate, it is important to remember we can only protect pets’ health and, in turn, human health through vaccination.

Rabies in humans is 100% preventable through prompt appropriate medical care, beginning with thorough cleaning of the wound. Persons not previously immunized for rabies who are exposed to a rabid animal should be given human rabies immune globulin (HRIG), with as much as possible infiltrated into and around the bite wound(s), and the rest administered intramuscularly. They should also receive four doses of rabies vaccine, one each on days 0, 3, 7 and 14.

Before 2008, a five-dose vaccine regimen was recommended. However, review of serologic and case data indicated four doses of vaccination in combination with HRIG elicited a protective immune response and a fifth dose of vaccine provided no additional benefit.

Though bats are the reservoir for rabies in Oregon, canine rabies still accounts for most human rabies cases worldwide. Travelers to rabies-enzootic countries should be warned to seek immediate medical care if they are bitten by any mammal.

Additional information and an algorithm for assessment of rabies risk are available on the Communicable Disease website.
Incidence of animal rabies by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

![Incidence of animal rabies by year: Oregon, 2000–2019](image)

Incidence of animal rabies: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

![Incidence of animal rabies: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019](image)
Animals testing positive for rabies by species and year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Animal rabies testing in Oregon, 2000–2019 (number of positive/total tested)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bat</th>
<th>Cat</th>
<th>Dog</th>
<th>Fox</th>
<th>Other*</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>226 / 2,824</td>
<td>2 / 1,665</td>
<td>0 / 712</td>
<td>27 / 164</td>
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<tr>
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</table>

* Other includes 1 positive goat in 2010, 1 positive coyote in 2011 and 2013, and 1 each positive coyote and skunk in 2017.

Note: Due to positive goats and foxes from 2010–2014 there was enhanced surveillance among fox populations from 2010 to 2012 and among other animal populations in 2011.
Incidence of animal rabies by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Keep rabies vaccinations up to date for all pet cats, ferrets and dogs.
- Maintain control of pets by keeping cats and ferrets indoors and keeping dogs under direct supervision.
- Spay or neuter pets to help reduce the number of unwanted pets that may not be properly cared for or vaccinated regularly.
- Call animal control to remove stray animals from your neighborhood because these animals may be unvaccinated or ill.
- Do not handle wildlife, especially bats and foxes.

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Salmonellosis is a bacterial illness characterized by acute abdominal pain, diarrhea and often fever that usually begins one to five days after exposure. Excretion of Salmonella may persist for several days or even months beyond the acute phase of illness. Antibiotics are not needed by most patients (the exceptions being those at high risk of invasive infection), and they may increase the duration of excretion.

A wide range of domestic and wild animals can serve as reservoirs of Salmonella, including poultry, swine, cattle, rodents, iguanas, tortoises, turtles, snakes, young poultry (e.g., baby chicks), dogs and cats. Most human infections are thought to come from consumption of fecally contaminated food or water, but other environmental exposures may be hard to document and, therefore, underappreciated. Raw or undercooked produce and products of animal origin — such as eggs, milk, meat and poultry — have been implicated as common sources of animal and human salmonellosis. Person-to-person transmission of salmonellosis is well documented, although it occurs less commonly than with other infections, such as Escherichia coli O157. The incidence of reported infection is highest among children <5 years of age. In 2019, Oregon’s incidence among children <5 years of age was 18 per 100,000.
In 2019, there were 460 nontyphoidal salmonellosis cases in Oregon; 406 had lab-confirmed isolates, from which 64 different *Salmonella* serotypes were identified. Of approximately 2,500 known serotypes, only about 200 are detected in the United States in any given year. In Oregon, *S. Enteritidis* and *S. Typhimurium* have historically been the most common serotypes, comprising 21% and 14% of all lab-confirmed nontyphoidal *Salmonella* isolates in 2019, respectively. Sixty-nine percent of cases were sporadic, 14% were associated with an outbreak, and 3% had documented transmission within a household.

Fourteen outbreaks of salmonellosis were investigated in 2019, which accounted for 71 Oregon cases. Six outbreaks were classified as foodborne and eight as associated with animal contact. The largest of these outbreaks, with 23 cases, involved two clusters of people that ate at two separate restaurants that shared a common supplier; no specific food source was implicated. Six multistate outbreaks with a total of 17 confirmed Oregon cases involving multiple serotypes (Braenderup, Enteritidis, Infantis, Manhattan, Newport and Oranienburg) were associated with contact with nationally distributed live poultry.
Incidence of salmonellosis by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of salmonellosis by month: Oregon, 2019
Incidence of salmonellosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

![Graph showing incidence of salmonellosis by age and sex in Oregon, 2019. The graph compares cases per 100,000 for different age groups and gender.]

Incidence of salmonellosis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

![Graph showing incidence of salmonellosis in Oregon and nationwide, 2000–2019. The graph compares cases per 100,000 for different years.]
Incidence of salmonellosis by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.

Incidence of salmonellosis by reported ethnicity: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Incidence of salmonellosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Selected* salmonellosis cases by serotype, Oregon, 2019

Hover over a bar in the chart to view historical data for that serotype.

*Slected because at least one case was reported in 2019 and it is a more common serotype.
Prevention

- Cook poultry, ground beef and eggs thoroughly.
- Do not eat or drink food containing raw eggs or raw (unpasteurized) milk.
- If you are served undercooked meat, poultry or eggs in a restaurant, send it back to the kitchen for further cooking.
- Wash hands, kitchen work surfaces and utensils with soap and warm water immediately after they have been in contact with raw meat or poultry.
- Be particularly careful with foods prepared for infants, the elderly and the immunocompromised.
- Wash hands with soap and warm water after handling reptiles, birds or baby chicks, and after contact with pet feces.
- Avoid direct or even indirect contact between reptiles (turtles, iguanas, other lizards, snakes) and infants or immunocompromised persons.
- Don't work with raw poultry or meat and an infant (e.g., feeding or changing diaper) at the same time.

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Shigellosis

Shigellosis is an acute bacterial infection characterized by (sometimes bloody) diarrhea, vomiting, abdominal cramps and, often, fever. In Oregon, shigellosis is typically caused by *S. sonnei* or *S. flexneri*. The other species — *S. boydii* and *S. dysenteriae* — are more common in developing countries. Humans are the only known reservoir. Shigellosis is transmitted from person to person, and just a few organisms can cause illness. The rate has historically been highest among children 1–4 years of age. The incidence of shigellosis typically peaks in late summer and fall. Treatment reduces duration of illness and, importantly, the period of communicability. However, the organism has become resistant to many antibiotics used for empiric therapy; for example, high levels of resistance to ampicillin and trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole have been found in Oregon. Testing for antibiotic susceptibility is important for treatment.

Outbreaks in daycare centers are common, mainly due to the poor hygienic practices of small children. Houseless populations in Oregon also experience outbreaks of shigellosis more frequently. Hand washing is the most important means of prevention.

After a historic low of 50 cases in 2014, the number of cases jumped to 113 in 2015; 101 in 2016; 128 in 2017; 289 in 2018; and 160 in 2019. Of these 160 cases, 55 were *S. sonnei*, 26 were *S. flexneri* and 2 were *S. boydii*. The species of *Shigella* is not known for many cases due to the use of culture-independent diagnostic testing.

Four *Shigella* outbreaks were investigated in 2019. In addition, one cluster of *S. sonnei* and one of *S. flexneri* were also investigated.
Incidence of shigellosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2019

- **Female**
- **Male**

Incidence of shigellosis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

- **Oregon Incidence Rate**
- **U.S. Incidence Rate**
Incidence of shigellosis by reported race: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: "Other" race includes individuals reporting multiple races.

Incidence of shigellosis by reported ethnicity: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Incidence of shigellosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Shigellosis cases by species: Oregon, 2019

Hover over the pie chart to view historical data.

* Some cases of shigellosis have an unknown species because they were diagnosed with culture-independent diagnostic testing (CIDT).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disease overview</th>
<th>Incidence by year and month</th>
<th>Incidence by age and sex and in OR vs. U.S.</th>
<th>Incidence by race and ethnicity</th>
<th>Incidence by county</th>
<th>Shigellosis cases by species</th>
<th>Disease prevention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Prevention

- Wash hands with soap and warm water carefully and frequently, especially after going to the bathroom or after changing diapers and before preparing food or beverages.
- Properly dispose of soiled diapers.
- Disinfect diaper changing areas after using them.
- Keep children with diarrhea out of child care settings.
- Supervise hand washing of toddlers and small children after they use the toilet.
- Do not prepare food for others while ill with diarrhea.
- Avoid swallowing water from ponds, lakes or untreated pools.
Vibriosis is caused by infection with bacteria from the *Vibronaceae* family. This family of bacteria includes the species that causes cholera, and public health investigators typically distinguish between either cholera (infection with toxigenic *V. cholerae*) and other “vibriosis” (infection with any other *Vibronaceae*, including those vibrios lately rechristened as “Grimontia”).

Commonly, vibriosis is acquired by eating raw or undercooked molluscan shellfish and presents as watery diarrhea, abdominal cramps and fever. In Oregon, *V. parahaemolyticus* is the most frequently reported species, as this pathogen is found naturally in the coastal waters and shellfish of the Pacific Northwest, especially during summer months. Non-foodborne infections with *Vibrio* species can also occur through contact with sea or brackish water (e.g., infection with *V. alginolyticus* after swimming with an open wound, or through a laceration while shucking an oyster). These types of infections can produce bullae, cellulitis, muscle pain, fever and sepsis.

Vibriosis was not reportable until 1998 in Oregon and 2007 nationwide. Today, all *Vibrio* infections are nationally notifiable. Case reporting is essential to the identification of contaminated shellfish beds and removal of these shellfish from the raw seafood market. In 2013, the CDC FoodNet Program estimated every reported case of *Vibrio* represented 142 people not diagnosed with the infection.
Nationally, reported rates of vibriosis have trended upwards in the past decade. Scientists now believe that *V. parahaemolyticus* is an indicator of climate change; the bug requires temperatures warmer than 59°F to grow and is proliferating in waters that had historically been too cool. With warmer water temperatures in the Pacific Northwest, we can expect more bacteria in the waters and more contamination of shellfish growing in these waters.

In 2019, a multi-state outbreak identified by molecular typing involving 12 Oregon cases was linked to oysters from multiple harvesting locations in Washington State. A second multi-state cluster of nine cases, also identified by genetic typing, included six Oregon residents. Although all consumed raw oysters, no one harvesting location could be identified from case interviews.

Unlike other enteric pathogens such as *Salmonella* or Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli*, molecular typing is less likely to identify outbreaks, as the Vibrio species found in the Pacific Northwest are genetically similar. Case interviews and exposure histories are more helpful in identifying clusters of illness.

In 2019, Oregon counted 37 cases of vibriosis, down from the 67 reported in 2018. Males outnumbered females (21 to 16). Almost half of these cases were initially detected from a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) test. In 2018, following a substantial increase in cases, Oregon changed the case definition for *Vibrio* infections to exclude some of these PCR tests, in an attempt to mitigate the problem of false positives. Not all of the increase in cases can be attributed to changes in culture independent diagnostic testing, however, as 30/37 cases in 2019 were culture confirmed.

There were fewer non-typed cases reported in 2019 (7) compared to 2018 (9). The rest of the cases were *V. parahaemolyticus* (27) and *V. alginolyticus* (3).
Incidence of vibriosis by age and sex: Oregon, All

Incidence of vibriosis: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

Vibriosis became nationally notifiable in 2007.
Vibriosis cases by species: Oregon, 2019
Hover over a section of the pie chart to view historical data.
Prevention

- Avoid eating raw oysters or other raw shellfish.
- Cook shellfish (oysters, clams, mussels) thoroughly.
- Cook shellfish (oysters, clams, mussels) to an internal temperature of 145°F. If you don't have a food thermometer, shucked shellfish (clams, mussels and oysters without shells) become plump and opaque when cooked thoroughly, and the edges of the oysters start to curl. Shellfish in shells should open when cooked. Throw out shells that don't open during cooking.
- Uncooked spoiled seafood can have an ammonia odor. This odor becomes stronger after cooking. If you smell an ammonia odor in raw or cooked seafood, do not eat it.
- Read more from the FDA on selecting and serving fresh and frozen seafood safely here and on safe food handling here.
Tularemia, also known as rabbit or deer-fly fever, is considered a “category A” agent of potential bioterrorism. It is caused by Francisella tularensis, a hardy organism found in rodents, rabbits and squirrels; in ticks, deer flies and mosquitoes; and in contaminated soil, water and animal carcasses. The organism is remarkably infective; as few as 10–50 organisms can cause disease.

Tularemia occurs throughout the United States. People get infected primarily through handling contaminated animals; the bite of infective deer flies, mosquitoes or ticks; direct contact with or ingestion of contaminated food, water or soil; or inhalation of infective aerosols. Francisella tularensis is highly infectious when grown in culture and can be a risk for infection among laboratory workers. For potentially exposed workers, management options include a “fever watch” or antimicrobial prophylaxis.

Disease onset is usually sudden, and includes fever, malaise, myalgia, headache, chills, rigors and sore throat. Tularemia has six clinical forms, depending on the bacterium’s portal of entry. Ulceroglandular tularemia is the most common form of the disease, accounting for 75%–85% of naturally occurring cases.

Other clinical forms include pneumonic (pulmonary symptoms); typhoidal (gastrointestinal symptoms and sepsis); glandular (regional adenopathy without a skin lesion); oculoglandular (painful, purulent conjunctivitis with adenopathy); and oropharyngeal (pharyngitis with adenopathy).

There were two sporadic cases in Oregon in 2019.
Incidence of tularemia by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of tularemia: Oregon vs. nationwide, 2000–2019

Tularemia became nationally notifiable in 1999.
Prevention

- Use precautions when hiking, hunting, camping or working outdoors:
  - Use insect repellents containing 20%–30% DEET, picaridin or IR3535.
  - Wear long pants, long sleeves and long socks to keep ticks and deer flies off your skin.
  - Remove attached ticks promptly with fine-tipped tweezers.
  - Don’t drink untreated surface water.
  - Don’t run over sick or dead animals (or any animals for that matter) with a lawn mower.

- If you hunt, trap or skin animals:
  - Use gloves when handling animals, especially rabbits, muskrats, prairie dogs and other rodents.
  - Cook game meat thoroughly before eating.

- Laboratory workers should use precautions when working with suspect cultures:
  - Procedures that manipulate cultures and might produce aerosols or droplets should be done under biosafety level 3 conditions.
## Disease overview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Incidence by year and month</th>
<th>Incidence by county</th>
<th>West Nile virus cases by species</th>
<th>Disease prevention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### West Nile virus

West Nile virus (WNV) first appeared in the United States on Long Island in 1999 and then moved westward across the country. In Oregon, the first indigenous case was reported in 2004. West Nile virus is a mosquito-borne Flavivirus that affects both animals and humans. Corvid birds (crows, ravens, jays, magpies) are the reservoir; humans and other animals are considered “dead-end” hosts — i.e., they may be infected and develop symptoms, but they do not transmit the infection further. Of human beings infected, only approximately one in five will have any symptoms at all — typically flu-like symptoms such as fever, headache and muscle aches. However, approximately one in 150 infected persons will have symptoms of central nervous system infection that may include neck stiffness, stupor, disorientation, tremors, convulsions, muscle weakness, paralysis and coma.

The risk of getting West Nile virus in Oregon has been very low. Though most cases were in those aged 20–50 years, those >50 years of age have the highest risk of developing serious illness. Incidence is highest in the summer months.

In 2019, nine human cases of West Nile virus (eight locally acquired and one imported) occurred in Oregon. In addition, 87 mosquito pools and seven horses tested positive for WNV infection.
Incidence of West Nile virus infection by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

There were no Oregon cases of West Nile virus infection until 2003.

Incidence of West Nile virus infection by month: Oregon, 2019

Median 2014–2018

Cases
Incidence of West Nile virus by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Confirmed cases of West Nile virus infection by species and year: Oregon, 2010–2019

Source: Oregon State University Veterinary Laboratory and Oregon State Public Health Laboratory.
Prevention

- Avoid mosquito bites:
  - Use insect repellents when you go outdoors. Repellents containing DEET, picaridin, IR3535, and some oil of lemon eucalyptus and para-methane-3,8-diol products provide longer-lasting protection. To optimize safety and effectiveness, repellents should be used according to the label instructions.
  - When weather permits, wear long sleeves, long pants and socks when outdoors.
  - Take extra care during peak mosquito-biting hours.

- Mosquito-proof your home:
  - Install or repair screens on windows and doors to keep mosquitoes outside. Use your air conditioning, if you have it.
  - Reduce the number of mosquitoes around your home by regularly emptying standing water from flowerpots, gutters, buckets, pool covers, pet water dishes, discarded tires and bird baths.
  - Report dead birds to local authorities.
Yersiniosis

Yersiniosis is a bacterial infection characterized by diarrhea (sometimes bloody), vomiting and abdominal pain. The main reservoir for *Yersinia* is the pig.

Transmission occurs by the fecal-oral route through contaminated food and water, or through contact with infected people or animals. Infection is most often caused by eating raw or undercooked pork contaminated with *Yersinia enterocolitica*. Preventive measures include cooking food thoroughly, avoiding cross-contamination with raw foods of animal origin and washing hands after handling food.

The annual number of yersiniosis cases in Oregon increased notably in 2013 and has remained high in recent years. The increase in cases spans all age, race and sex categories. The most common species is *Y. enterocolitica*. In 2019, there were 53 cases in Oregon residents. All cases were sporadic; no outbreaks were reported. Of the 31 cases with known species, the majority were *Yersinia enterocolitica* (28), and there was one each of *Y. aldovae*, *Y. intermedia* and *Y. pseudotuberculosis*. The species is unknown for the remaining 21 cases due to the diagnosis of patients solely through culture-independent diagnostic testing (CIDT).

Infection with *Yersinia pestis*, also known as “plague,” is counted separately from other cases of yersiniosis.
Incidence of yersiniosis by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

Incidence of yersiniosis by age and sex: Oregon, 2010–2019
Incidence of yersiniosis by county of residence: Oregon, 2010–2019

Note: Rates based on small case counts might be unstable.
Prevention

- Avoid eating raw or undercooked pork.
- Consume only pasteurized milk or milk products.
- Wash hands with soap and warm water before eating and preparing food, after contact with animals and after handling raw meat.
- After handling raw chitterlings (chitlins), clean hands and fingernails scrupulously with soap and water before touching infants or their toys, bottles or pacifiers.
- Prevent cross-contamination in the kitchen; use separate cutting boards for meat and other foods. Carefully clean all cutting boards, countertops and utensils with soap and hot water after preparing raw meat.
- Dispose of animal feces in a sanitary manner.
Disease outbreaks

Oregon state and local health departments investigated 429 acute and communicable disease outbreaks in 2019, up 24% from 346 in 2018. Outbreaks in 2019 were the result of multiple modes of disease transmission: 15 outbreaks were foodborne, 231 were respiratory, 141 were due to person-to-person transmission, nine were due to animal contact and one was waterborne. There was also one outbreak of lung injury associated with the use of e-cigarette, or vaping, products – this nationwide outbreak included 26 Oregonians that met CDC’s case definition. The mode of transmission was indeterminate or unknown in 31 outbreaks. Among the 231 respiratory outbreaks in 2019, sharing of respiratory secretions caused outbreaks of influenza (179), pertussis (22), respiratory syncytial virus (12) and measles (4), among others.

Foods contaminated with a variety of Salmonella, Shigella, Vibrio and shiga toxin-producing Escherichia coli made folks ill at a variety of venues. Almost every outbreak reinforces the tried-and-true public health mantras of “wash your hands” and “cover your cough.”

Respiratory outbreaks were by far the most commonly reported type of outbreak, accounting for 54% (231) of outbreaks investigated in 2019. Outbreaks of gastroenteritis were a close second, accounting for 43% (185) of all reported outbreaks in 2019.

Thanks to rigorous specimen collection, 277 (65%) of all outbreaks investigated in 2019 were confirmed. Sixty-nine percent (127/185) of gastroenteritis outbreaks had disease-causing agents identified, mostly caliciviruses (norovirus and sapovirus), and disease-causing agents were identified in 96% of respiratory outbreaks (222/231). As of May 1, 2019 the Oregon State Public Health Laboratory (OSPHL) discontinued testing for norovirus in long-term care facilities experiencing outbreaks of noro-like illness. OSPHL can test for sapovirus, astrovirus and rotavirus when stool specimens are norovirus-negative.
Outbreaks overview

List of outbreaks in Oregon in 2019

- 179 influenza*
- 97 calicivirus (norovirus and sapovirus)
- 22 pertussis
- 14 Salmonella
- 12 RSV*
- 5 Shiga-toxin producing Escherichia coli (STEC)*
- 4 measles
- 4 Shigella
- 3 human metapneumovirus
- 2 Cryptosporidium*
- 2 parainfluenza
- 2 rhinovirus
- 2 rotavirus
- 1 Escherichia coli (other than STEC)
- 1 Giardia*
- 1 hepatitis A
- 1 mumps
- 1 scabies
- 1 scombroid
- 1 Trichinella murrelli
- 1 varicella
- 1 Vibrio parahaemolyticus
- 1 outbreak of lung injury associated with e-cigarettes or vaping products
- 74 outbreaks with unknown etiologies

*Note: 1 outbreak in 2019 was a combination of both influenza and RSV; 1 outbreak was a combination of STEC, Cryptosporidium, and Giardia.
Gastrointestinal outbreaks

Of the 185 gastroenteritis outbreaks investigated in 2019, person-to-person transmission was responsible for 133 outbreaks, 15 outbreaks were foodborne, nine were due to animal contact, and one outbreak was waterborne. Transmission was undetermined (we couldn’t figure it out) or unknown (we didn’t have enough data to figure it out) in 27 of the outbreaks. More than 90% of person-to-person outbreaks (120) happened in institutional cohorts, especially among those in long-term care facilities (LTCFs).

In 2013, the case definition of a norovirus outbreak was modified to be more in line with national standards. Some outbreaks previously classified as indeterminate were reclassified as suspect norovirus. The new classification includes outbreaks where classic norovirus symptoms were observed, but a positive specimen was not documented.

Fifty-nine percent of gastroenteritis outbreaks reported from 2012 to 2019 occurred in LTCFs for the elderly.

Lab-confirmed norovirus and suspect norovirus outbreaks: Oregon, 2012–2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confirmed norovirus</td>
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<td>102</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>79</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Lab-confirmed norovirus outbreaks include any outbreak with two or more lab-confirmed cases of norovirus.
Norovirus infection causes nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, muscle aches, fever and abdominal cramps, which can result in dehydration. Symptoms typically resolve within a day but can remain for up to three days. Norovirus is highly transmissible and persons typically get norovirus by eating contaminated food containing infected stool or vomit particles.

The Oregon State Public Health Laboratory (OSPHL) began genotyping specimens associated with gastrointestinal outbreaks in late 2012. As shown in the figure on the next page, norovirus genogroup GII genotype 4 New Orleans was predominant in 2012, accounting for 25 (40%) of 63 total confirmed norovirus outbreaks among Oregon long-term care facilities (LTCF). In late 2012, a new norovirus strain of genogroup GII, genotype 4 originating in Sydney, Australia (GII.4 Sydney 2012) became the predominant norovirus strain and caused a severe norovirus season globally and in the United States. In 2013, GII.4 Sydney was responsible for 40 (58%) of 63 confirmed norovirus outbreaks among Oregon LTCFs. GII.4 Sydney remained the dominant outbreak strain through 2015, when it accounted for 24 (53%) of 45 lab-confirmed norovirus LTCF outbreaks that year. We also saw an increase in GI genogroup outbreaks in 2015. Following this, in 2016, we saw a rise in other GII genotype outbreaks in Oregon's LTCF. These other GII genotype outbreaks have continued to be the dominant outbreak strain in recent years.

In 2019, 11 (42%) of 26 lab-confirmed norovirus outbreaks in LTCF were caused by other genotypes of genogroup GII. As of May 1, 2019, testing for norovirus in LTCF experiencing outbreaks of noro-like illness was discontinued at OSPHL. Forty-six percent (12) of the lab-confirmed outbreaks in LTCF in 2019 were of an unknown genotype.
Norovirus sequences in Oregon LTCFs, 2012–2019

Genotype
- GI
- GI Other
- GI.4 Minerva
- GI.4 New Orleans
- GI.4 Sydney
- GI.6B Miami
- Unknown
Norovirus outbreaks in LTCFs by county of occurrence: Oregon, 2019

Use the filter to change the years displayed in the chart or hover over a bar to see historical data.
### Selected cases of notifiable diseases by year: Oregon, 2000–2019

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>2000</th>
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<th>2002</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>E. coli (STEC)</td>
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<td>Acute hepatitis B</td>
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