

1 **Screwworm re-emergence, illegal cattle movements, and emerging risks to wildlife and**
2 **protected areas in Mesoamerica**

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 New World Screwworm (*Cochliomyia hominivorax*), eradicated from North and Central America
28 through decades of Sterile Insect Technique programs, has re-emerged across Mesoamerica with
29 alarming speed. Following a surge in Panama in 2023, the parasite spread northward through
30 Central America, reaching Mexico by late 2024. Nearly 100,000 domestic animal cases and
31 hundreds of human cases have since been reported, prompting livestock trade restrictions and
32 significant economic losses. Despite this scale, wildlife impacts have received limited attention.

33 Here, we collate confirmed and suspected screwworm infestation cases in free-ranging wildlife
34 across Mesoamerica, discuss conservation implications and the role of livestock movements as a
35 main driver of the parasite’s re-emergence, and propose priority One Health planning. We report
36 screwworm myiasis in four Baird’s tapirs (*Tapirus bairdii*) in Costa Rica and camera-trap images
37 from Guatemalan protected areas showing potential screwworm infestation in two pumas (*Puma*
38 *concolor*) and an additional tapir.

Type of Article: *Diversity* “Short opinion pieces on conservation concepts, methods, or applications or on current and immediate, national, regional, or global conservation problems.”

39 Considering historical data, recent modeling, and current conditions in Mesoamerica such as
40 reduced wildlife populations, degraded habitats, elevated livestock densities, and limited veterinary
41 capacity, we argue that this parasite poses a credible conservation threat. Evidence from detection
42 patterns, enforcement outcomes, and documented trafficking routes implicates illegal livestock
43 movements as a key driver of re-emergence and spread. Sustained control will likely require
44 addressing this underlying driver alongside expanded sterile fly release, strengthened wildlife
45 health surveillance, and cross-sector, transboundary coordination. Integrating wildlife into
46 screwworm response frameworks is essential to protect biodiversity, ecosystem integrity, and
47 sustainability of eradication investments.

48 New World Screwworm (*Cochliomyia hominivorax*; hereafter “screwworm”) is a parasitic fly of the
49 Americas (World Organization for Animal Health [WOAH] 2019). Females lay eggs in open wounds
50 of warm-blooded animals (WOAH 2019); larvae then feed on living tissue, causing damage, pain,
51 and potentially severe morbidity and death (WOAH 2019). Screwworm was a major pest in the
52 early-to-mid 20th century, causing significant economic damage (Novy 1991; Alexander 2006).
53 Impacts on agricultural producers led to a full-scale eradication program in the 1950s in the United
54 States (US) through release of sterile male flies (Sterile Insect Technique [SIT] (Krafsur et al.
55 1987; Novy 1991; Wyss 2000; Vargas-Terán et al. 2021). After successful eradication from the US,
56 the strategy was repeated southward through Mexico to Panama, rendering Central America
57 screwworm-free by the 2000s (Wyss 2000; WOAH 2019; Vargas-Terán et al. 2021). The Darién
58 Gap jungle straddling the Panama-Colombia border was designated a barrier zone to prevent
59 reinfestation from South America (WOAH 2019; Vargas-Terán et al. 2021). Here, millions of sterile
60 flies were released weekly for decades (Comisión Panamá - Estados Unidos para la Erradicación
61 y Prevención del Gusano Barrenador del Ganado [COPEG] 2024).

62 Between 2001-2022, Panama experienced sporadic screwworm cases, averaging 25 cases per
63 year (Maxwell et al. 2017; Zaldivar-Gomez et al. 2025). However, cases surged to >6,500 cases in
64 2023 alone, a 260-fold increase (De Escobar 2023; WOAH 2023; USDA APHIS 2025). From
65 Panama, screwworm rapidly spread northwards across Central America (Zaldivar-Gomez et al.
66 2025), reaching Mexico by late 2024 (WOAH 2024b). Currently, almost 100,000 screwworm cases
67 in domestic animals and hundreds of human cases have been reported across Mesoamerica
68 (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). Legal livestock trade among countries has been repeatedly or
69 permanently halted, with significant economic losses (Venegas-Montero et al. 2024; USDA 2025).
70 To date, surveillance has focused primarily on livestock and humans, with wildlife often overlooked
71 despite their susceptibility to infestation and potential consequences for biodiversity, parasite
72 spread, and ecosystem health.

73
74 Here, we (i) collate and contextualize emerging screwworm confirmed and suspected infestation
75 cases in wildlife across Mesoamerica, drawing on official reports, field observations, and camera-
76 trap data; (ii) discuss potential impacts for biodiversity conservation (ii) present converging
77 indications that livestock movements constitute a credible driver of the parasite’s rapid re-
78 emergence and spread; and (iv) propose priority One Health actions for surveillance,
79 management, and policy.

80
81 Confirmed wildlife cases from official sources are detailed in Table 1, excluding exotic species (see
82 Supplementary Table S3 for unofficial reports). We also report four Baird’s tapirs (*Tapirus bairdii*)
83 with confirmed screwworm infestation in a fragmented landscape in northwestern Costa Rica
84 between August 2024 and April 2025 (Figure 1): the first tapir screwworm cases during five years
85 of monitoring, occurring ~one year after initial domestic animal cases in the country (Zaldivar-
86 Gomez et al. 2025). Affected individuals presented deep, suppurative wounds with active myiasis
87 in living tissue. The TapirVet Project provided successful veterinary intervention (immobilization,
88 treatment, and post-release monitoring), but two tapirs were subsequently reinfested. Another

89 infested tapir, detected in southwestern Costa Rica, died despite intervention. Additionally, in April
90 2025, camera-trap monitoring in Guatemala’s Mirador-Rio Azul and Laguna del Tigre National
91 Parks, and Naachtun-Dos Lagunas Biotope captured images of two pumas (*Puma concolor*) and a
92 Baird’s tapir with distinctive wounds exposing live tissue, consistent with suspected screwworm
93 myiasis (Figure 2A–C). Across >20,000 camera-trap nights in these parks since 2019, diverse
94 morbidities have been documented, including injured or missing limbs. These represent the first
95 lesions observed with characteristics suggestive of screwworm infestation. The first puma (Figure
96 2A) was detected seven months after Guatemala’s first domestic case (Zaldivar-Gomez et al.
97 2025) and within two weeks of cases in Mexico ~35 km away (Figure 2D). The second puma and
98 tapir (Figure 2B–C) were photographed one month apart and ~2 km from each other, with
99 domestic cases reported within 12–18 km in the preceding 2–3 months (Figure 2D). Given limited
100 wildlife health surveillance (WHS) in many countries (Machalaba et al. 2021) and the inherent
101 challenges of detecting disease in free-ranging wildlife, reported cases likely underestimate the
102 true extent of infestation.

103

104 Short-term, population-level impacts on Mesoamerican wildlife remain to be assessed; however,
105 screwworm poses a plausible conservation threat. Following a reintroduction to the Florida Keys in
106 2016, a region similarly suitable for year-round screwworm reproduction, 15–20% of endangered
107 Florida Key deer (*Odocoileus virginianus clavium*) died or were euthanized (Delgado et al. 2016;
108 Skoda et al. 2018; Parker et al. 2020). The outbreak was contained before fawning season, likely
109 averting greater population-level effects (Lopez et al. 2016; Parker et al. 2020). The Florida Keys
110 constitute a highly managed, insular system with intensive surveillance and rapid response
111 capacity, enabling faster containment than is generally feasible in mainland Mesoamerican
112 settings.

113

114 Medium- to long-term impacts, should endemicity be reestablished, are difficult to infer due to
115 limited comparable data. Reports from pre-eradication endemic North America, where ecological
116 and socio-environmental conditions differed from contemporary Mesoamerica, describe seasonal
117 infestation, periodic large outbreaks in wildlife (Lindquist 1937; Allen 1950; Strode 1954) and
118 reductions of up to 60% in deer fawn survival (Teer et al. 1965; Marburger & Thomas 1965),
119 suggesting that the parasite contributed to regulating wild mammal populations (Marburger &
120 Thomas 1965; Alexander 2006).

121

122 Pre-eradication data on wildlife populations and screwworm infestation levels in Mesoamerica are
123 lacking; however, screwworm myiasis cases in an endangered tapir species (*Tapirus pinchaque*)
124 were reported in Colombia, where screwworm remains endemic (Cepeda-Duque et al. 2025).
125 Recent published modeling suggests that the parasite could drive local extinction of this species
126 within a national park surrounded by degraded landscape, even in the absence of hunting or
127 further habitat loss (Mantilla-Meluk et al. 2025). Several key socio-ecological conditions shaping
128 parasite-wildlife dynamics have changed in Mesoamerica since pre-eradication and now resemble
129 aspects of the Colombian scenario. Wildlife populations have sharply declined (World Wildlife
130 Fund for Nature 2024), while natural habitats have been degraded (Auliz-Ortiz et al. 2024). At the

131 same time, a substantially larger regional cattle population (Food and Agriculture Organization of
132 the United Nations [FAO] 2025; Supplementary Information Figure S1) has altered landscape
133 connectivity (Devine et al. 2020a) and potential host density. Gutierrez et al. (2019) noted that SIT
134 succeeded partly because oviposition sites were sparse; in contrast, contemporary livestock
135 densities may provide abundant and continuous oviposition opportunities, potentially increasing
136 infestation pressure on both domestic animals and wildlife relative to historical conditions.

137 Taken together, this context—along with confirmed animal infestations near and within protected
138 areas (Figures 2 and 3; Supplementary Information Figure S2), the fly’s broad host range and
139 dispersal capacity (Mayer & Atzeni 1993; Alexander 2006; WOAHA 2019; Venegas-Montero et al.
140 2024), detection of suspect wildlife cases shortly after nearby domestic cases (Figure 2D),
141 reinfestation of treated wild animals, repeated parasite incursions into cleared zones, limited
142 veterinary capacity in remote landscapes (Pérez-Flores et al. 2025), and potential for climate-
143 driven range expansion—underscores the need for proactive WHS and monitoring of conservation
144 impacts.

145 In response to screwworm reemergence, governments across the region are implementing a
146 range of measures aimed at containing reinfestation and protecting livestock and public health.
147 This includes strengthening law enforcement, controlling livestock movement, conducting livestock
148 surveillance and treatment, awareness campaigns, and fly trapping (Instituto de Protección y
149 Sanidad Agropecuaria 2024; Servicio Nacional de Salud Animal 2024; Ministerio de Agricultura y
150 Ganadería 2025; Servicio Nacional de Sanidad e Inocuidad Agroalimentaria 2025; Servicio
151 Nacional de Sanidad, Inocuidad y Calidad Agroalimentaria [SENASICA] 2025a, 2025b; Ministerio
152 de Agricultura, Ganadería y Alimentación 2025). Sterile flies are being released in Mexico, with
153 expanded release and distribution planned for 2026, especially along the US-Mexico border
154 (COPEG 2025, USDA 2025, USDA 2026).

155 Despite these efforts, WHS remains limited. Strengthened and sustained monitoring of wildlife
156 populations and health is essential to assess screwworm impacts, identify species relevant to
157 dispersal, clarify contemporary disease ecology, inform adaptive conservation and management
158 planning, enable timely detection of newly infested areas, support targeted fly trapping, evaluate
159 control measures and sterile fly release effectiveness, and increase confidence in elimination
160 during re-eradication efforts (Matlock et al. 1996; USDA 2025; WOAHA 2019). In addition to
161 targeted wildlife capture for research or mitigation, broader coverage of suspect cases could be
162 achieved by leveraging existing field networks, including rangers, community members, and
163 camera traps (Lawson, Petrovan, Cunningham, AA. 2015; Barroso & Palencia 2025; Montecino-
164 Latorre et al., 2026).

165 Livestock movement, historically a primary driver of propagation (Novy 1991; Lindquist et al. 1992;
166 Reichard 1999; Alexander 2006; Vargas-Terán et al. 2021), appears to be a key contributor to
167 screwworm’s reemergence and spread (Zaldivar-Gomez et al. 2025). This hypothesis is supported
168 by earlier-than-expected reemergence in Mexico (Zaldivar-Gomez et al. 2025); detection patterns
169 bypassing adjacent administrative units rather than following a diffusion-like process (Zaldivar-

170 Gomez et al. 2025 and Supplementary Information 1); and introduction into new Mexican states
171 and municipalities linked to cattle movements (SENASICA 2025c, 2025d). Moreover, large-scale
172 illegal cattle transport routes running from Nicaragua through Honduras and Guatemala into
173 Mexico are well-documented (Asmann & Dittmar 2022; InSight Crime 2022; Montoya 2022;
174 Hidalgo, 2025). Cattle trafficking bypasses sanitary controls, supporting spread of parasites and
175 pathogens (Asmann & Dittmar 2022). Despite sterile-male fly releases during the northward
176 advance, the parasite reached Mexico (COPEG 2025). Initial detections in several countries were
177 in illegally imported horses and cattle (WOAH 2024a, 2024b), and within-Mexico spread appears
178 to have slowed following stricter enforcement of “healthy-only” livestock transport (SENASICA
179 2025a).

180 We argue that sustained control of screwworm is unlikely without addressing illegal livestock
181 traffic, although clarifying its relative importance versus other drivers of reemergence remains a
182 critical research need. Other potentially contributing factors include SIT failure (Maxwell et al.
183 2017), climate change (Gutierrez & Ponti 2014), and migration of people and potentially domestic
184 animals. The relative contribution of wildlife- or invasive species- mediated screwworm spread
185 remains uncertain, however these animals could become comparatively more important in
186 maintaining or spreading the parasite if livestock infestations and illegal movements are effectively
187 controlled.

188 Facilitation of screwworm re-emergence is just one social-ecological concern associated with
189 illegal cattle movements. Cattle trafficking, linked to organized crime and some of the world’s
190 highest rates of deforestation, creates conditions that intensify wildlife–livestock interfaces,
191 undermine disease control, and amplify conservation risks. (FAO 2006; Consejo Nacional de
192 Areas Protegidas & WCS 2018; McSweeney et al. 2018; Devine et al. 2020b; Tellman et al. 2020;
193 Wrathall et al. 2020; Asmann & Dittmar 2022; InSight Crime 2022; Dittmar et al. 2022, Montoya
194 2022). By 2022, at least 1 million cattle illegally occupied Mesoamerican protected areas
195 (McSweeney et al. 2014; Tellman et al. 2020; Asmann & Dittmar 2022; InSight Crime 2022;
196 Montoya 2022), and key cross-border trade points include such zones (Soberanes 2018; Dittmar
197 et al. 2022; InSight Crime 2022). Unregulated livestock movement also risks introducing other
198 transboundary pathogens, e.g., Foot and Mouth Disease or African Swine Fever, which threaten
199 wildlife health, livestock, livelihoods, and economies, and can cause trophic cascades (WOAH
200 2025; Humphreys et al. 2025; Kuiken and Cromie 2022).

201 Re-emergence of screwworm in Mesoamerica brings renewed focus to a potentially consequential
202 threat to biodiversity, protected area integrity, and ecosystem health. While screwworm eradication
203 programs have long prioritized livestock protection, wildlife impacts have remained largely
204 peripheral to surveillance and response strategies. Given cross-cutting ecological, economic, and
205 public health implications, screwworm re-emergence constitutes a One Health challenge that
206 extends beyond livestock production. Sustained transboundary and cross-sector coordination,
207 coupled with the integration of wildlife considerations into national One Health frameworks, can
208 reduce disease risk while reinforcing conservation governance and landscape integrity. This
209 requires a comprehensive, coordinated, multi-pronged strategy that combines existing control

210 measures with integration of wildlife health monitoring into protected area management,
211 establishment of rapid response protocols, strengthened enforcement against livestock trafficking,
212 and support for legal ranchers and affected communities.

213 Without such integration, gains achieved through decades of eradication, conservation progress,
214 and public investment may prove fragile in the face of shifting ecological and socio-economic
215 pressures.

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417 **Table 1. Confirmed cases of screwworm infestation in native wild species in Central America, as reported in official**
 418 **sources until July 2025.**
 419

Country	Affected wild animal (identified to taxonomic level reported in the source)	Number of cases	Captivity status	Source
Panama	New World porcupine (<i>Coendou sp</i>)	1 [^]	Unknown	https://mida.gob.pa/wp-content/uploads/2025/07/BoletinMensual_Mayo-2025.pdf?csrt=4956185204491234556
	Folivora (species of sloth)	1*		https://mida.gob.pa/wp-content/uploads/2025/06/BoletinMensual_Abril-2025.pdf?csrt=4956185204491234556 .
	Kinkaju (<i>Potus flavus</i>)	2		https://www.copeg.org/situacion-actual/situacion-panama/
	Deer	1		
	Sloth	1*		
	Porcupine	1 [^]		
Costa Rica	Unknown [§]	20	Probably free-ranging	https://www.senasa.go.cr/informacion/centro-de-informacion/informacion/estado-sanitario/boletines-epidemiologicos/10349-2025-04-boletin-epidemiologico/file https://www.senasa.go.cr/informacion/centro-de-informacion/informacion/estado-sanitario/boletines-epidemiologicos/10301-2025-03-boletin-epidemiologico/file https://www.senasa.go.cr/informacion/centro-de-informacion/informacion/estado-sanitario/boletines-epidemiologicos/10302-boletines-epidemiologicos-2024/file
	Brown-throated sloth (<i>Bradypus variegatus</i>)	1	Probably free-ranging	https://www.senasa.go.cr/informacion/centro-de-informacion/informacion/estado-sanitario/boletines-epidemiologicos/10302-boletines-epidemiologicos-2024/file

Type of Article: *Diversity* “Short opinion pieces on conservation concepts, methods, or applications or on current and immediate, national, regional, or global conservation problems.”

Guatemala	Common opossum (<i>Didelphis marsupialis</i>)	1	Free-ranging	https://wahis.woah.org/#/in-review/5986?reportId=175268&fromPage=event-dashboard-url
Mexico	Roadside hawk (<i>Rupornis magnirostris</i>)	2	Free-ranging	Reported in WAHIS as an Eurasian sparrowhawk (<i>Accipiter nisus</i>) in Event 6269 (https://wahis.woah.org/#/in-review/6269?reportId=175092&fromPage=event-dashboard-url) which is not native to Mexico. A red-shouldered hawk was also reported later in https://www.excelsior.com.mx/nacional/gusano-barrenador-confirman-primer-caso-animal-silvestre/171993 . However, Servicio Nacional de Sanidad, Inocuidad y Calidad Alimentaria (SENASICA) México confirmed both birds were in fact Roadside hawk.

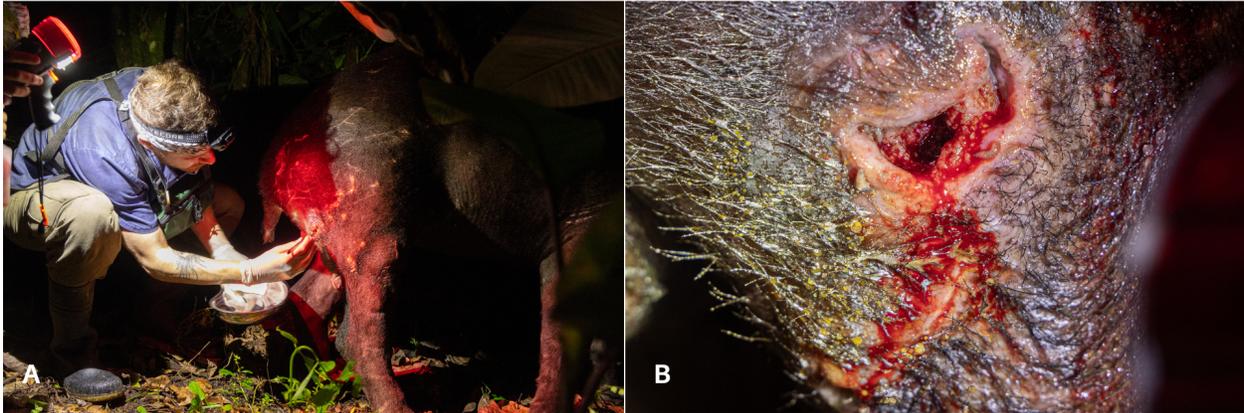
420 * ^: They could be the same individual

421 §: A press release by Sistema Nacional de Áreas de Conservación in September 2024 mentions 6 infestation cases of two-toed sloth (*Choloepus hoffmani*),
 422 two of the infestation cases in Baird's tapirs (*Tapirus bairdii*) reported in this document, and a case in Mexican hairy dwarf porcupine (*Sphiggurus mexicanus*);
 423 see

424 <http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/noticias/ComPrensa/ComunicadosPrensaSetiembre22102024.zip>

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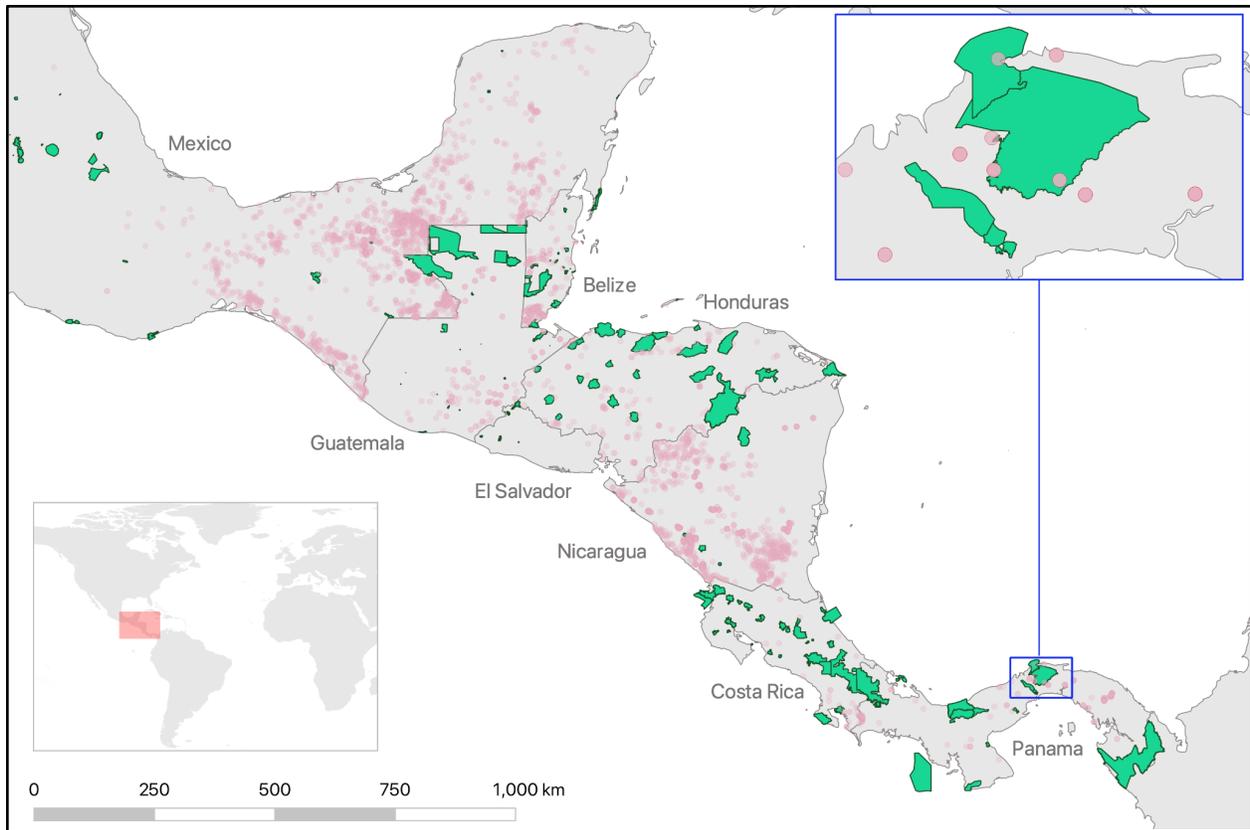
Figure 1. A) Treatment of a wound in a sedated Central American tapir (*Tapirus bairdii*) likely resulting from intraspecific conflict and infested by New World Screwworm (*Cochliomyia hominivorax*). Treatment administered by co-author Dr. Jorge Rojas-Jiménez (TapirVet Project). B) Close-up of the infested wound with fly larva on the low edge. The tapir was successfully treated and fully recovered. Photographs: Michiel van Noppen.

433



434

435 **Figure 2. Camera trap images of two pumas (*Puma concolor*; panel A and B) and a Baird's tapir**
436 **(panel C) with open wounds, potentially caused by screwworm infestation, documented in the**
437 **Naachtún-Dos Lagunas Biotope, Maya Biosphere Reserve, and Laguna del Tigre National Park,**
438 **Guatemala (WCS 2025). D) Locations of screwworm confirmed infestations in domestic**
439 **animals (points) in northern Guatemala and southern Mexico between October 2024 and June**
440 **2025 according to data in the World Animal Health Information System (WAHIS) database and**
441 **Ministerio de Agricultura, Ganadería y Alimentación, Guatemala; and locations of the pumas**
442 **and Baird's tapir described in panels A-C (asterisks). The color scale of points and asterisks**
443 **shows the date of the report with grading from dark blue (for cases detected in October 2024)**
444 **to yellow (for cases detected in June 2025); points and asterisks with similar colors indicate**
445 **cases closer in time.**



446

447 **Figure 3. The spatial distribution of confirmed screwworm infestation in animals between**
448 **January 1st, 2023, and July 26th, 2025 (red circles) according to data in the WAHIS**
449 **database; and national parks with terrestrial components (green polygons) according to**
450 **the World Database on Protected Areas in Central America and Southern Mexico. Other**
451 **protected area types, such as RAMSAR sites, are not shown. The blue-framed inset shows**
452 **reported cattle infestation cases in Chagres and Portobelo National Parks, Panama.**

453