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RESEARCH LETTERS

Tool for Eliminating Dog-Mediated Human Rabies through Mass Dog Vaccination Campaigns

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The World Health Organization and collaborating agencies have set the goal of eliminating dog-mediated human rabies by 2030. Building on experience with rabies endemic countries, we constructed a user-friendly tool to help public health officials plan the resources needed to achieve this goal through mass vaccination of dogs.

Globally, rabies kills ≈60,000 persons annually; most (≈99%) cases are transmitted by domestic dogs (1–3). Controlling dog rabies through periodic mass vaccination campaigns substantially reduces human exposures (4). The elimination of dog rabies in most of the Western Hemisphere and countries in Asia has demonstrated the effectiveness and sustainability of vaccinating dogs (5,6) by combining massive dog rabies vaccination with coordinated efforts of the medical and veterinary sectors (One Health approach), including education about responsible pet ownership, rabies awareness campaigns, and access to postexposure prophylaxis (5,6).

The World Health Organization recommends that at least 70% of the dog population be vaccinated to control and potentially eliminate dog rabies (3). In 2016, WHO and partner organizations set the goal of eliminating dog-mediated human rabies by 2030 (7). This goal could be achieved by massive, costly administration of preexposure and postexposure prophylaxis, mass vaccination of dogs, or both.

Countries to which rabies is endemic in dogs are at different stages in their rabies control efforts (5,8). Countries at early stages face barriers related to a limited understanding of the local epidemiology, logistic and operational challenges, competing priorities from other diseases, and lack of planning tools to reasonably project the resources needed. During 2016, we estimated the resources potentially required to eliminate dog rabies globally by 2030 (7). We combined multiple data sources to estimate 4 key factors that affect this goal: country development, cost of dog vaccination programs, potential demand for dog rabies vaccine, and estimated number of vaccinators. We aimed to realistically assess the global situation by highlighting the main challenges that might hamper elimination efforts. However, although these global estimates can inform an important discussion about global and regional strategic planning and resource mobilization, they are not necessarily useful to inform country-level decision-making. We addressed this limitation by providing a user-friendly tool that requires only limited country-specific data to help countries plan toward the goal of eliminating dog rabies through mass dog vaccination.

We designed the tool to plan for dog rabies elimination by 2030 (a 13-year framework). We assumed 13 years would be enough time for even the least developed rabies control programs to achieve elimination, provided the country was fully committed. The country’s starting point within this time frame would depend on its current dog vaccination rate, and the given country would demonstrate incremental improvements in preparation for the vaccination campaign (e.g., training of workforce involved, dog population surveys) or in the proportion of the dog population vaccinated. The tool requires input of demographic data (human population, percentage urban, human-to-dog ratio); current dog vaccination coverage; logistic data for the campaigns (available vaccinators, dog vaccination rates, campaign duration); and an estimated cost per vaccinated dog. We constructed a worksheet to help users estimate the cost per vaccinated dog based on a pilot campaign. The tool (including assumptions, instructions, and data requirements) is available for public use (online Technical Appendix, https://wwwnc.cdc.gov/EID/article/23/12/17-1148-Techapp1.xlsm) and already has been used in Haiti and Guatemala as part of a rabies elimination workshop held at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.
Prevention (Atlanta, GA, USA). Users can account for uncertainty in point estimates by varying model parameters.

To show the utility of the planning tool, we input known information from 2 recent mass dog vaccination campaigns in western Kenya to project expected long-term costs and a timeline for rabies elimination. With a conservative estimate of 523 (95% CI 138–1,100) annual human rabies-associated deaths and substantial medical costs (1), Kenya is actively trying to eliminate human rabies by 2030 (9). We used the following values: 46,050,302 persons, of whom 26% live in urban areas; 7.4 and 21.2 humans per dog in rural and urban areas, respectively; 5% of the dog population vaccinated; 4,300 available vaccinators; 100 dogs vaccinated daily per vaccinator; a 21-day campaign in each region; an estimated cost per dog vaccinated of US $1.81 (range US $1.48–$2.12); and 0% discount rate (Figure). Conditional on the availability of resources, the results suggest that Kenya can eliminate dog rabies during the next 13 years, in line with the 2030 global goal; vaccination campaigns would cost ≈US $62.0 million (range US $50.6 million–$72.8 million), equivalent to ≈$56.0 million additional aggregate spending over 13 years (not discounted). If the average vaccination rate was 100 dogs per vaccinator per day, Kenya would have enough capacity to conduct 21-day campaigns and reach the 70% dog vaccination goal.

The tool enables users to estimate the resources required to eliminate rabies using country-specific input values. We hope this tool will help stimulate and inform a necessary discussion on strategic planning, resource mobilization, and continuous execution of rabies elimination.

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Unexpected Infection with Armillifer Parasites

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Visceral pentastomiasis is usually found incidentally during surgery. We describe a case of visceral pentastomiasis discovered during inguinoscrotal hernia surgery for a man from Benin, Africa. Because surgical removal of nymphs is needed for symptomatic patients only, this patient’s asymptomatic pentastomiasis was not treated and he recovered from surgery uneventfully.

In November 2015, a surgeon from Belgium, working for Medics without Vacation in Bassila, Benin, Africa, incidentally discovered pentastomiasis in an adult man during surgery for a massive inguinoscrotal hernia (half a liter content). Other than the hernia, the patient had no health problems. During the procedure, the surgeon observed at least 10 coiled, larva-like structures on the patient’s peritoneal tissue. He removed the hernial sac and sent a tissue specimen to the national reference laboratory for parasitology at the Institute of Tropical Medicine (Antwerp, Belgium) for identification of the parasite. Apart from the hernia symptoms, the patient was asymptomatic, so the parasites were not removed; the patient’s surgical recovery was uneventful.

Macroscopic examination of the peritoneal tissue detected 8 distinct, typical larva-like structures with an average length of 1–2 cm (Figure, panel A). Because the structures were suspected to be pentastomes, they were compared with reference material from the Institute of Tropical Medicine Educational Department (Figure, panel B) and confirmed as Armillifer spp. nymphs. On the basis of the patient’s residence in Benin, and the fact that the recovered nymphs consistently exhibited <22 annuli, the structures were presumptively identified as A. armillatus (1, 2). Adults of this species are often found in the respiratory system of large snakes. Although no information was available regarding the patient’s contact with snakes, the presence of this parasite in a resident of Benin is not surprising because snake consumption in that country is common practice. The patient’s surgeon confirmed that dead snakes were indeed often sold for consumption along the streets near the hospital.

The Pentastomida are a peculiar group of gonochoric, vermiform endoparasites, currently classified as a unique phylum, related to branchiuran crustaceans (3). The main characteristics of this group of ancient parasitic arthropods are an often annulated elongate body and a mouth typically flanked by 2 pairs of hooks.

Human visceral pentastomiasis can be caused by several species of pentastomes: Linguatula serrata (worldwide, predominantly the Middle East), A. armillatus (West and Central Africa), A. moniliformis (Southeast Asia), A. grandis (Africa), A. agkistrodonis (China), Porcephalus crotali (worldwide, predominantly the Americas), and P. taiwana (China) (2, 4, 5). Reported cases of human visceral pentastomiasis were caused mainly by A. armillatus pentastomes (6) from infected snakes, which shed ova in excretions and respiratory secretions, thereby