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2 | Title

3 | **Understanding reservoirs of multi-host pathogens: A One Health** 4 | **approach to rabies in Tanzania**

5 | Summary/Abstract

6 | **Summary**

7
8 | In this case study we report on a One Health approach to rabies in Tanzania. We
9 | highlight the importance of multi-sectoral collaboration in understanding the
10 | local epidemiology of rabies and show that domestic dog vaccination plays a
11 | vital role in disease control in two areas with very different disease ecology.

12 | **Abstract**

13
14
15 | Rabies virus is a multi-host zoonotic pathogen that is endemic across large parts of sub-Saharan
16 | Africa. This case study reports a One Health approach to rabies in Tanzania which highlights the
17 | value of multi-sectoral collaboration and illustrates the importance of understanding the reservoir
18 | dynamics of multi-host pathogens when targeting interventions.

19 | As part of our research we have established contact tracing for rabies in Tanzania. This involves
20 | identifying patients presenting with animal-bite injuries and investigating the animals responsible for
21 | the bites. Through contact tracing we identify the owners of biting animals, ascertain the rabies
22 | status of these animals, and identify additional bite victims who have not presented to healthcare
23 | centres.

24 | Domestic dog vaccination is a key component of current rabies control programmes as domestic
25 | dogs are responsible for most human rabies exposures across Africa. However, in some areas rabies
26 | transmission also occurs within wildlife populations. For example, in the Lindi and Mtwara regions of
27 | southern Tanzania, jackals represent an unusually high proportion of animal rabies cases.
28 | Maintenance of rabies virus within wildlife populations can have implications for control strategies
29 | centred around domestic dog vaccination.

30 | Throughout this case study we illustrate the use of multiple data sources to identify the role of
31 | domestic dogs and wildlife in rabies transmission in the Lindi and Mtwara regions of southern
32 | Tanzania and compare this to the island of Pemba where domestic dog cases dominate. We highlight
33 | how domestic dog vaccination plays a vital role in controlling rabies in these two areas with very
34 | different disease ecology.

35 36 | **What is the incremental value that makes this a One Health** 37 | **case?**

38
39 | Rabies is a fatal viral disease that is most commonly transmitted to humans by
40 | bites from infected animals. Whilst prompt administration of post-exposure

41 prophylaxis (PEP) (which comprises of wound washing, a series of post-exposure
42 rabies vaccinations and, if indicated, administration of rabies immunoglobulin) to
43 people exposed to rabies can prevent the disease developing, it does not tackle
44 the source of the disease. The One Health approach recognising the link between
45 human, animal and ecosystem health is highlighted in this case study by
46 illustrating, with the help of two distinct examples from different sites in
47 Tanzania, how preventing rabies in domestic animals can have wide-reaching
48 benefits.

49 As a multi-host pathogen capable of infecting any mammal, rabies virus is
50 particularly suited to a One Health approach to its control. Controlling rabies
51 within animal populations benefits not only those animals, but also benefits
52 human health and the health of other animal populations through a reduction in
53 onward transmission. Interruption of rabies transmission can also have positive
54 conservation impacts as previous rabies outbreaks in endangered species such
55 as Ethiopian wolves and African wild dogs have been devastating (Johnson et al.,
56 2010; Kat et al., 1997; Randall et al., 2006; Sillero-Zubiri et al., 1996).

57 This case study also highlights how cooperation between the human healthcare
58 and veterinary sectors can lead to enhanced disease surveillance, improved
59 evaluation of disease control interventions and greater understanding of the
60 transmission dynamics amongst animal host species. By understanding which
61 species are responsible for maintaining circulation of rabies virus (domestic dogs
62 in Tanzania) and targeting interventions at those species, we increase the
63 likelihood of rabies elimination locally and therefore reduce the risk of future
64 human rabies exposures. This particularly benefits poor and marginalised
65 communities who may not be able to access the PEP that is required if they were
66 bitten by a rabid animal.

67

68 Learning outcomes

- 69 1. Illustrate how collaboration between workers in the human healthcare and veterinary
70 sectors can enhance surveillance and maximise the impact of control strategies for zoonotic
71 diseases such as rabies.
- 72 2. Highlight how identification of the species essential to sustained circulation of multi-host
73 pathogens aids in optimising interventions.

74

75 Background and context

76

77 Rabies is a deadly viral disease that claims tens of thousands of lives each year
78 worldwide (Hampson et al., 2015). A large proportion of these deaths occur in
79 children under 15 years of age (World Health Organization, 2024). These figures
80 are especially shocking when we consider that rabies is a vaccine-preventable
81 disease and that safe and effective rabies vaccines have been available for many
82 decades.

83 Domestic dogs are responsible for approximately 99% of human rabies cases
84 (World Health Organization, 2024) with transmission to humans commonly
85 occurring via bites from infected animals. Once the symptoms of rabies develop,

86 the disease is invariably fatal. Prompt administration of PEP can effectively
87 prevent the disease, but barriers to access of PEP exist in many rabies-endemic
88 countries.

89 Widespread domestic dog vaccination across Europe, North America, and more
90 recently Latin America, has all but eliminated dog-mediated human rabies cases
91 in these regions. In contrast, rabies is still endemic in large parts of Africa and
92 Asia, predominantly affecting poor and marginalised communities. Africa has the
93 highest estimated per capita rate of human rabies deaths globally at 2.09 deaths per
94 100,000 people (Hampson et al., 2015; Taylor and Nel, 2015). In 2015, the 'Zero by 30'
95 target to achieve zero human dog-mediated rabies deaths by 2030 was set.
96 Effective surveillance and widespread domestic dog rabies vaccination are vital
97 components in achieving this target of Zero by 30. More information on the Zero
98 by 30 strategy can be found on the World Health Organization (WHO) website
99 linked below in Further Reading.

100 Whilst nearly all transmission of rabies to humans comes from domestic dogs,
101 some wildlife populations can maintain circulation of rabies virus. Across Africa,
102 there is evidence that some wildlife species such as jackals and bat-eared foxes
103 may be capable of maintaining circulation of rabies virus independently of
104 domestic dogs (Bingham et al., 1999; Meredith and Thomson, 1993; Swanepoel
105 et al., 1993). This has led to concerns that domestic dog vaccination alone will
106 not be effective in controlling rabies transmission and preventing human rabies
107 deaths in an African context.

108 Understanding which species are maintaining circulation of the pathogen of
109 interest is key when planning control strategies for multi-host pathogens. If there
110 is a single species maintaining the virus (the maintenance host) and only limited
111 ongoing transmission within other species following spillover events,
112 interventions targeted at the maintenance host should, in time, eliminate the
113 disease from all species (Haydon et al., 2002). This was seen with rinderpest, a
114 pathogen capable of infecting more than 40 species, when vaccination of cattle
115 alone was able to eradicate the disease (Youde, 2013). If a virus is maintained in
116 two or more separate host species, either with each serving as an individual
117 maintenance host or with multiple host species serving as a combined
118 maintenance population, control strategies targeted at one of these host species
119 may be less effective as the pathogen may continue to circulate in the other
120 host(s). If we can determine which host species are responsible for maintaining a
121 pathogen we can target interventions accordingly. However, this is often not
122 straightforward and it may be necessary to combine multiple sources of
123 information to determine the maintenance hosts. An example of this is seen in
124 the wildlife-rich ecosystem of Serengeti in northern Tanzania where multiple data
125 sources were used to determine that domestic dogs were the only population essential for
126 maintenance of rabies, although other carnivores contributed to the continued circulation of rabies
127 virus as non-maintenance populations (Lembo et al., 2008).

128 Rabies is endemic in Tanzania and is a legally notifiable disease of both humans and animals. The
129 annual incidence of human exposure to rabies via bites from probable rabid animals varies across
130 the country with estimates ranging from 11.3 to 75.6 per 100,000 people (Changalucha et al., 2019;
131 Sambo et al., 2013). The incidence of human rabies deaths in Tanzania is estimated to be between
132 0.8 to 2.4 per 100,000 people per year (Sambo et al., 2013). Access to life-saving PEP across Tanzania

133 is limited by cost and availability (Changalucha et al., 2019; Sambo et al., 2013). Whilst access to PEP
134 clearly needs to be improved, a One Health approach to rabies control would reduce human rabies
135 exposures and thereby reduce the reliance on emergency PEP.

136 In 2010, a rabies elimination demonstration project commenced throughout the southern Tanzanian
137 regions of Lindi, Mtwara, Morogoro, Pwani, Dar es Salaam and Pemba Island. This large-scale
138 government-led intervention project was coordinated by the WHO and funded by the Bill and
139 Melinda Gates Foundation. The goals of the demonstration project were to demonstrate the
140 feasibility of the control and eventual elimination of canine rabies through mass dog vaccination,
141 improve access to PEP (which was provided free of charge throughout the project), and improve
142 surveillance and diagnostics (Mpolya et al., 2017; Sambo et al., 2022). The project was initially
143 planned as a five-year project but was extended, meaning that the final project-funded domestic dog
144 vaccination campaigns occurred from late 2016 to early 2017.

145 In this case study, we report on how a One Health approach has been successfully implemented to
146 reduce both human and animal rabies cases in areas with very different disease ecology and
147 highlight the importance of transdisciplinary collaboration in this success. We focus on the regions of
148 Lindi and Mtwara in southern Tanzania where wildlife comprise a large proportion of animal rabies
149 cases and compare these regions to the island of Pemba where domestic dog rabies cases
150 predominate (Figure 1).

151

152

153 **Figure 1: Map of the study area with the regions of Lindi, Mtwara and**
154 **the island of Pemba shaded in light blue.**

155 Transdisciplinary Process

156

157 Contact Tracing

158 Surveillance is a vital part of disease control programmes. Without an accurate
159 understanding of the disease burden, we cannot track progress in disease
160 control programmes or assess the effectiveness of interventions. Under-reporting of
161 rabies is common in countries in which rabies is endemic. Across Africa and Asia, it has been
162 estimated that official reports of human rabies deaths represent less than 3% of the deaths that
163 actually occur (Knobel et al., 2005). A study from Tanzania in 2002 estimated the annual number of
164 human rabies deaths at 1,499 per year, whilst official estimates for the same period recorded the
165 mean number of rabies deaths per year as 10.8, suggesting that fewer than 1 in 100 deaths were
166 reported (Cleaveland, 2002). Given the degree of under-reporting of human rabies deaths, it seems
167 likely that there will be substantial under-reporting of animal rabies cases also (Nel, 2013).

168 Contact tracing provides a way of enhancing disease surveillance and improving
169 estimates of disease burden, and is more tractable where the number of
170 infectious cases is low. Contact tracing to enhance rabies surveillance has been
171 successfully used across multiple regions of Tanzania (Hampson et al., 2008;
172 Lembo et al., 2008; Lushasi et al., 2023, 2021) and was implemented across
173 Lindi, Mtwara and Pemba as part of the rabies elimination demonstration project.
174 For success, it relies on collaboration between human healthcare workers,
175 veterinary field officers and researchers. Data on patients presenting with bites

176 from probable rabid animals are obtained from healthcare centres and case
177 reports of sick or biting animals are obtained from livestock field officers (LFOs).
178 All animal-bite victims and owners of biting animals are traced and interviewed
179 by researchers from the rabies research team at the Ifakara Health Institute (IHI)
180 in Tanzania who are supported by Wellcome Trust-funded projects. The
181 researchers work in collaboration with LFOs and local guides from village offices
182 to obtain details regarding the bite incident. Rabies virus causes an acute
183 encephalitis which often manifests in animals as increased aggression and a
184 tendency to bite. These characteristic clinical signs and distinct route of
185 transmission mean that rabies exposure events are often memorable to both
186 those affected and to their friends and family. Details regarding the animal's
187 behaviour and the circumstances of the bite are used to assess whether the
188 animal is considered likely to have been rabid. Probable rabid animals are
189 defined in accordance with the WHO definitions to describe animal rabies cases (see
190 WHO Expert Consultation on Rabies linked below in Further Reading). If additional animal-bite
191 victims or owners of additional biting animals are identified during investigations,
192 they are also traced and interviewed. By interviewing people bitten by probable
193 rabid animals, data on the species of the rabid animal and other animals that it
194 has bitten may be obtained, improving our understanding of inter-species
195 transmission events.

196 If probable rabid animals (domestic or wildlife) are identified during
197 investigations and the animal has died or been euthanised, brain samples are
198 collected for rabies testing. Samples are collected by LFOs and preliminary
199 testing undertaken on site using a rapid diagnostic test, with additional samples
200 sent to the Tanzania Veterinary Laboratory Agency for confirmatory testing.

201 The contact tracing surveillance method implemented throughout the project
202 utilises human animal-bites to identify probable rabid animals and was the same
203 across all of the project areas. Efforts were thus focussed on human settlement
204 areas, excluding wildlife protected areas such as national parks and game
205 reserves.

206
207
208

209 **Figure 2: Contact tracing being undertaken in a village in southern Tanzania.**
210 Researchers work with local guides and/or livestock field officers to identify animal-bite
211 victims and interview them about their potential rabies exposure.

212

213 Vaccination Campaigns

214 As part of the rabies elimination demonstration project, five rounds of mass dog vaccination
215 campaigns were undertaken in the project regions between 2010 and late 2016/early 2017 (Mpolya
216 et al., 2017; Sambo et al., 2022). The exact timing of the vaccination rounds varied between districts.
217 No widespread mass dog vaccination campaigns had been undertaken in Lindi and Mtwara regions
218 or on Pemba prior to this project. Dog vaccination campaigns were managed and supervised by
219 District Veterinary Officers or the Head of the Livestock department and undertaken by LFOs.

220 Discussions with local authorities and village leaders were undertaken prior to vaccination
221 campaigns to ensure that communities were aware of the campaigns, which were advertised using
222 loud speakers, fliers, announcements at schools, and community messengers. A central point
223 vaccination strategy was used whereby owners bring their dogs to a central location. Vaccinations
224 were administered free of charge. From 2013 onwards, transects were undertaken following
225 vaccination campaigns to enable assessment of the level of domestic dog vaccination coverage
226 achieved (Sambo et al., 2017). Transects were undertaken by two trained enumerators in the
227 evening of the same day as the vaccination campaigns. Each enumerator would walk (or occasionally
228 cycle) a separate route through a village recording all of the marked (vaccinated) and unmarked
229 (unvaccinated) dogs that were observed during a one-hour period.

230

231 Capacity building

232 As part of the project, over 250 government-employed healthcare workers, LFOs, and veterinarians
233 have been trained in rabies surveillance and data reporting. Healthcare workers received training on
234 PEP administration protocols, conducting joint rabies risk assessments for animal-bite victims, and
235 on the importance of One Health collaboration in rabies control. Similarly, LFOs and veterinarians
236 were trained in animal investigations, conducting joint rabies risk assessments for suspected animal
237 rabies cases, sample collection, and field testing using rapid diagnostic tests.

238 In addition, local researchers have benefited from capacity-building initiatives at various levels,
239 including support for Master's (4 researchers) and PhD (4 researchers) programmes, as well as
240 participation in specialized short training courses in areas such as bioinformatics and modelling.
241 These researchers have presented the project's findings at both local and international conferences,
242 fostering knowledge exchange and collaboration.

243

244 Project Impact

245 Data collection based around contact tracing has enabled assessment of trends in both human and
246 animal rabies cases and underpinned a better understanding of both the burden and the local
247 epidemiology of disease in the areas being studied.

248

249 Pemba Island

250 Annual domestic dog vaccination campaigns were undertaken across Pemba from 2010 – 2014. Prior
251 to this period, rabies was considered endemic on Pemba. All of the animal rabies cases identified on
252 Pemba were from domestic dogs. Following implementation of mass dog vaccination, rabies was
253 eliminated on Pemba by May 2014 and no human rabies exposures, human rabies deaths or animal
254 rabies cases were detected between May 2014 and July 2016 (Lushasi et al., 2023). A rabies
255 outbreak was identified in August 2016, which authorities were alerted to by an influx of animal-bite
256 patients in the hospitals on Pemba. Phylogenetic analyses confirmed that the outbreak was due to
257 imported cases in dogs, rather than continued circulation of lineages that circulated previously
258 (Lushasi et al., 2023). Domestic dog vaccination was reinstated, initially locally, but then island-wide,
259 with high vaccination coverage achieved. Following the reinstatement of annual domestic dog
260 vaccination, cases have once again declined with the last rabies case on Pemba identified in October
261 2018 (Figure 3). Analyses showed that the combined One Health approach of widespread annual
262 domestic dog vaccination combined with free PEP for animal-bite victims rapidly eliminated rabies

263 across Pemba and was highly cost-effective. Projections over a ten-year period suggested that with
264 this One Health approach, no deaths would be predicted to occur after year four and that 71 deaths
265 would be prevented overall at a cost of \$1,657 per death averted (Lushasi et al., 2023).

266

267 **Figure 3: Animal rabies cases and human deaths across Pemba from 2010 to 2022.** Bars represent cases in
268 animals, all of which were in domestic dogs. Annual domestic dog vaccination occurred during 2010-2014 and
269 was restarted in 2016. Mass dog vaccination campaigns are depicted by vertical dotted lines. Annual mass dog
270 vaccination is ongoing since 2016 but details of timing of recent campaigns were unavailable at the time of
271 writing. Dots represent human rabies deaths scaled by the number of deaths.

272 Lindi and Mtwara

273 Extensive analyses have been undertaken of the data from Lindi and Mtwara for the period January
274 2010 to July 2019, with further analyses ongoing to incorporate more recent data. The last
275 widespread dog vaccination campaign in these regions was undertaken in 2016.

276 During the period of domestic dog vaccination, there was a marked reduction in the number of
277 animal rabies cases, human rabies exposures and human rabies deaths. Regression models
278 confirmed a statistically significant reduction in animal rabies cases from January 2010 until August
279 2017 (Lushasi et al., 2021). Following cessation of domestic dog vaccination campaigns, the number
280 of both human and animal rabies cases has steadily increased to return to the levels seen at the start
281 of the demonstration project (Figure 4).

282

283

284 **Figure 4: Animal rabies cases and human rabies deaths by species in Lindi and Mtwara from 2011 to 2022.**
285 Bars represent cases in domestic dogs (red), jackals (blue), other domestic animals (cats) (pink) and other
286 wildlife (pale blue). Dashed lines indicate vaccination campaigns from 2011 to 2016. Dots represent human
287 rabies deaths scaled by the number of deaths.

288 Approximately 40% of animal rabies cases observed in Lindi and Mtwara during the first eight-and-a-
289 half years of the study were in jackals (Lushasi et al., 2021). The wildlife cases were found across all
290 districts within the regions and did not appear to be clustered around the wildlife protected area of
291 the Selous game reserve (Figure 5). This raised questions about whether jackals could
292 be contributing to maintenance of rabies virus within Lindi and Mtwara.
293 Understanding the transmission dynamics and roles of different species in
294 maintaining rabies virus within this area was thus considered a priority due to
295 the potential impact of additional maintenance host species on the effectiveness
296 of control programmes centred around domestic dog vaccination.

297

298

299 **Figure 5: Locations of animal rabies cases across Lindi and Mtwara regions from**
300 **2011 to 2022.** The Selous game reserve (a wildlife protected area) is shaded grey. Domestic
301 dog cases are shown in red and wildlife cases in blue.

302

303

304 Reconstruction of transmission chains using the detailed spatial and temporal data from contact
305 tracing showed that frequent inter-species transmission was occurring, suggesting that rabies virus
306 was readily transmitted between species. Inter-species transmission occurred in both directions
307 (from domestic animals to wildlife and from wildlife to domestic animals) suggesting that wildlife,
308 especially jackals, were not 'dead-end' hosts and were contributing to ongoing transmission (Lushasi
309 et al., 2021). This presence of rabies in wildlife and frequent inter-species transmission might have
310 been a barrier to interventions centred around domestic dog vaccination. However, over the period
311 of domestic dog vaccination, a decline was seen in rabies cases in both domestic dogs and wildlife.
312 Our analyses allowed us to infer a causal association of the vaccination campaigns with the decrease
313 in cases and show that increasing domestic dog vaccination coverage was associated with a decrease
314 in rabies cases in jackals as well as domestic dogs. A 35% increase in vaccination coverage (35% was
315 the median vaccination coverage achieved across districts) was associated with a reduction in the
316 incidence of dog rabies cases of up to 86% and a reduction in the incidence of jackal rabies cases of
317 up to 91% (Hayes et al., 2022). By combining results from different analyses, we demonstrated that
318 dogs alone were responsible for maintaining rabies virus in the region and that domestic dog
319 vaccination was effective in reducing rabies in dogs, humans and other species of animal, including
320 jackals.

321

322 Combined impacts

323 Following implementation of domestic dog vaccination in Pemba, Lindi and Mtwara, the number of
324 animal rabies cases, human exposures to rabies and the number of human rabies deaths were all
325 substantially reduced. In Pemba, rabies was eliminated initially in 2014, but freedom from disease
326 was short-lived. However, since the subsequent outbreak was eliminated in 2018, the island remains
327 rabies-free (as of August 2024). Domestic dog vaccination effectively reduced the number of animal
328 rabies cases across all species which led to fewer people being exposed to rabies. By reducing
329 human rabies exposures, we reduce the need for PEP, which can be challenging for people to access
330 due to long travel distances to healthcare facilities and limited availability and affordability.

331 Surveillance is essential for understanding disease burdens and for assessing the impact of
332 interventions. Contact tracing in southern Tanzania has given us insight into both the level of
333 infection and the local rabies transmission dynamics. Contact tracing also allows identification of
334 people exposed to rabies that have not sought appropriate healthcare. These people can be
335 encouraged to seek PEP and their reasons for not seeking or receiving PEP can be identified, which
336 helps to avoid unnecessary rabies deaths and provides insight into why these preventable deaths
337 may occur.

338 Understanding the role of the different species in maintaining rabies allows us to advocate for the
339 most appropriate interventions. Across Africa, the diversity of wildlife species and presence of rabies
340 within wildlife populations has been previously seen as a potential barrier to interventions centred
341 around domestic dog vaccination. By showing that, even in the Lindi and Mtwara regions where
342 jackals comprised around 40% of animal rabies cases, domestic dog vaccination was effective in
343 controlling rabies across all species and reducing the number of human rabies exposures and deaths,
344 we have provided evidence to policy makers that investment in domestic dog vaccination is
345 worthwhile. Moreover, while rabies continues to circulate in dogs, contact tracing reveals the risk of
346 spillover to wildlife remains high.

347 Under this project, three PhD candidates and three MSc students have been
348 trained, leading to an increase in local research capacity. Additionally, over 250

349 government staff members, including healthcare workers and LFOs across Lindi
350 and Mtwara, have benefited from rabies-related training programs.

351

352 Project Outlook

353 Despite the end of the rabies elimination demonstration project, contact tracing (supported by
354 Wellcome Trust-funded projects) continues in Lindi and Mtwara and analysis of the data from recent
355 years is ongoing. In 2018, following the rabies elimination demonstration project, an active One
356 Health surveillance approach, known as integrated bite case management (IBCM), was introduced
357 across the study regions. Under the IBCM system, veterinary and livestock officers investigate
358 suspected animal rabies cases reported by healthcare workers treating animal-bite victims seeking
359 PEP. IBCM has become an integral part of the daily responsibilities of both veterinary officers and
360 healthcare workers. The IHI rabies research team use the data collected through IBCM to implement
361 contact tracing across Lindi and Mtwara. Within the framework of IBCM, healthcare workers conduct
362 risk assessments for animal-bite victims, while veterinarians handle animal investigations, sample
363 collection, and testing. Together, they ensure that PEP is correctly administered to individuals who
364 have been exposed to rabies. Epidemiological investigations under IBCM focus on confirming the
365 rabies status of animals that have bitten someone and identifying other exposed individuals who
366 need referral to health facilities for PEP. This targeted approach is less labour-intensive compared to
367 contact tracing, which involves gathering extensive additional information about the animal (such as
368 tracing the animal it was bitten by or identifying its other contacts). Because of its focused nature,
369 IBCM is more sustainable and feasible to implement on a wider scale than contact tracing.

370 On Pemba Island, contact tracing was discontinued in 2018 following the local elimination of rabies.
371 Instead, the Ministries of Health and Livestock Development, with support from the IHI rabies
372 research team, established IBCM to monitor any suspected rabies cases. Fortunately, since the
373 elimination of rabies in 2018, no cases have been reported to necessitate contact tracing.

374 Evidence has been presented to governments and local authorities to highlight the impacts and
375 importance of domestic dog vaccination with a view to trying to securing ongoing commitment to,
376 and investment in, mass dog vaccination. Data and lessons learned from the project contributed to
377 the revision of the National Rabies Control Strategy in Tanzania in 2024.

378 An application has been made by the Tanzanian government to Gavi, the vaccine alliance, for the
379 supply of human rabies vaccines. In 2018, Gavi approved investment in human rabies vaccines, but
380 the roll-out has been delayed due to the COVID-19 pandemic and vaccines are likely to reach the
381 first eligible countries in 2025. Regular supply of human rabies vaccines across Tanzania would help
382 ensure equitable access to PEP and reduce unnecessary rabies deaths.

383 Even with improved access to PEP, controlling rabies across Tanzania remains a One Health
384 challenge. The veterinary sector typically has more limited funding compared to the human
385 healthcare sector making implementation of nationwide mass dog vaccination financially and
386 logistically challenging. Nonetheless, this project has strengthened the relationship between the
387 human healthcare and veterinary sectors. The data and findings from this project, along with the
388 strengthened intersectoral collaboration have played a key role in assisting the government of
389 Tanzania in preparing their application to the World Organisation for Animal Health for endorsement
390 of rabies control efforts.

391

392 Conclusions

393 Rabies provides us with an excellent example of how adopting a One Health approach to disease
394 control can bring extensive benefits to both human and animal communities. We have shown how
395 understanding which species are necessary for sustained disease circulation and targeting
396 interventions at those species can greatly reduce the burden of disease, even in areas with very
397 different disease ecology. Across both of the areas that we have focussed on in this case study, we
398 saw marked declines in rabies cases during periods of domestic dog vaccination and observed the
399 interruption of rabies transmission on Pemba. The elimination of rabies from Pemba contrasts with
400 the situation in Lindi and Mtwara where rabies cases continue to rise. Whether this continued rise is
401 driven by resurgence from residual low levels of disease or by introductions from neighbouring areas
402 is currently unclear, but incorporation of genetic data in future analyses may help to resolve this
403 question. Regardless of which of these mechanisms is driving the increase in rabies cases, it is of the
404 utmost importance that domestic dog vaccination is reinstated and that surveillance is maintained in
405 these areas if we are to reach the 'Zero by 30' target.

406

407 Group Discussion Questions

408 *What should the reader be aware of? What are the potential pitfalls? Imagine*
409 *these may be used for a classroom discussion or short essay question.*

- 410 1. What are the long-term risks in the regions discussed in this case study if
411 domestic dog vaccination is not maintained?
- 412 2. Given the limited financial resources available to sustain mass dog
413 vaccination, are there areas that should be prioritized for vaccination?
414 Which factors might you need to consider when planning the timing and
415 location of vaccination campaigns?
- 416 3. What approach to vaccination should be taken by a conservationist only
417 interested in protecting wildlife species from rabies?

418

419 Acknowledgements

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425 participation in this research.

426 *Additional acknowledgements to be added after anonymous review*

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