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1 **Rabies control in Liberia: Joint efforts towards Zero by 30**

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56 **Key words**

57 Rabies, Liberia, diagnostic, phylogenetics, SARE tool, GDREP tool

58 **Abstract**

59 Despite declaration as a national priority disease, dog rabies remains endemic in Liberia, with surveillance  
60 systems and disease control activities still developing. The objective of these initial efforts was to establish  
61 animal rabies diagnostics, foster collaboration between all rabies control stakeholders, and develop a short-  
62 term action plan with estimated costs for rabies control and elimination in Liberia.

63 Four rabies diagnostic tests, the direct fluorescent antibody (DFA) test, the direct immunohistochemical  
64 test (dRIT), the reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assay and the rapid  
65 immunochromatographic diagnostic test (RIDT), were implemented at the Central Veterinary Laboratory  
66 (CVL) in Monrovia between July 2017 and February 2018. Seven samples (n=7) out of eight suspected  
67 animals were confirmed positive for *rabies lyssavirus*, and molecular analyses revealed that all isolates  
68 belonged to the Africa 2 lineage, subgroup H. During a comprehensive in-country One Health rabies

69 stakeholder meeting in 2018, a practical workplan, a short-term action plan and an accurately costed mass  
70 dog vaccination strategy were developed. Liberia is currently at stage 1.5/5 of the Stepwise Approach  
71 towards Rabies Elimination (SARE) tool, which corresponds with countries that are scaling up local-level  
72 interventions (e.g. dog vaccination campaigns) to the national level. Overall an estimated 5.3 – 8 million  
73 USD invested over 13 years is needed to eliminate rabies in Liberia by 2030.

74 Liberia still has a long road to become free from dog-rabies. However, the dialogue between all relevant  
75 stakeholders took place, and disease surveillance considerably improved through implementing rabies  
76 diagnosis at the CVL. The joint efforts of diverse national and international stakeholders laid important  
77 foundations to achieve the goal of zero dog-mediated human rabies deaths by 2030.

78

## 79 **1. Introduction**

80 Rabies elimination succeeded in much of the western world but remains a huge challenge in resource limited  
81 countries. Despite being a preventable viral disease which can be controlled through effective vaccination  
82 and population management in the reservoir species, an estimated 59,000 people still die each year and  
83 roughly 3 million remain at risk. Of these deaths, the majority occur in children in rural communities in  
84 Asia (60%) and Africa (36%), where domestic dogs are the main reservoir species (Hampson et al., 2015;  
85 WHO, 2018a). In these regions, the disease is mainly caused through the canine associated classical *rabies*  
86 *lyssavirus* (RABV) in the genus *Lyssavirus* of the family *Rhabdoviridae*. It is a single strand negative-sense  
87 RNA virus with five genes (N-, P-, M-, G- and L-gene) (ICTV, 2018). In Africa, four different lineages  
88 (Africa 1-4) are known, with the Africa-2 clade the dominant lineage in West- and Central Africa (De  
89 Benedictis et al., 2010; Kissi et al., 1995; Talbi et al., 2009; Troupin et al., 2016).

90 Rabies surveillance methods are often ineffective in resource-limited countries due to lack of laboratory  
91 diagnosis, poor disease awareness with bite victims not seeking medical attention, and disease misdiagnosis  
92 by clinical staff resulting in massive underreporting of human and animal cases. These factors contribute

93 to a cycle of neglect and lead to under-representation of the true disease burden, preventing decision makers  
94 from allocating funds for disease control measures (Cleaveland et al., 2002; Mallewa et al., 2007; Nel,  
95 2013a, 2013b; Weyer and Blumberg, 2007; WHO, 2018a).

96 Recently there has been a global drive to eliminate canine-mediated human rabies by 2030, in line with the  
97 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UN SDGs). The Food and Agriculture Organization  
98 (FAO), the World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE), the World Health Organization (WHO) and  
99 Global Alliance for Rabies Control (GARC) launched the United Against Rabies (UAR) initiative in 2018  
100 (Lembo et al., 2011; Minghui et al., 2018). To reach zero dog-transmitted human deaths by 2030, the UAR  
101 is the leading global coordination for the implementation of rabies control programmes. In addition, FAO,  
102 GARC, US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US CDC) and other partners have joined efforts  
103 to develop tools, guidelines and initiatives to assist countries in achieving the global goal. Several rabies-  
104 dedicated regional networks were established in dog-rabies endemic regions, including the Pan-African  
105 Rabies Control Network (PARACON) in 2014 under the secretariat of GARC. Its mission is to provide  
106 countries with a platform for sharing knowledge, the dissemination of tools, and advocacy to prioritise  
107 rabies and facilitate elimination of dog-mediated human rabies in sub-Saharan Africa by 2030 (Scott et al.,  
108 2015). For effective disease control, it is fundamentally important that all rabies control activities are  
109 planned and carried out with close collaboration between the animal and human health sectors. This ‘One  
110 Health’ concept should be adapted to specific local settings, based on the human-animal relationship as  
111 governed by cultural and religious context. A One Health approach further facilitates better disease  
112 surveillance and communication and results in health benefits and financial savings. However, such  
113 collaboration often does not exist in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) (Léchenne et al., 2015;  
114 Scott et al., 2015; WHO 2018a; Zinsstag et al., 2015, 2005). Within PARACON, collaboration amongst  
115 African countries is highly promoted. Representatives from the partner countries frequently meet for  
116 meetings and workshops. A widely used tool within rabies networks like PARACON is the ‘Stepwise  
117 Approach towards Rabies Elimination’ (SARE) tool. The SARE evaluates a country’s current situation in

118 relation to dog-mediated rabies control and elimination efforts and facilitates the development and  
119 implementation of an effective national control programme (Coetzer et al., 2016). The tool consists of two  
120 components, the SARE component and the Practical Workplan component. The SARE component  
121 evaluates the country's situation by generating a comprehensive list of accomplished and pending activities,  
122 resulting in a SARE score, ranging from 'endemic for dog-mediated rabies' to 'freedom from dog-mediated  
123 rabies', based on progression. While the accomplished activities are useful for advocacy and resource  
124 mobilisation, the pending activities help countries focus their efforts toward continued implementation of  
125 disease intervention initiatives. The Practical Workplan component uses the country's SARE assessment  
126 output to automatically create a workplan populated with existing objectives/priority actions, outcomes,  
127 responsible authorities, timeframes (including Gantt charts), and deliverables for each of the pending  
128 activities. Each activity in the workplan is automatically populated with content based on recommendations  
129 from a global panel of experts. Although pre-populated, all content can be modified by the users,  
130 customising the workplan into a detailed, country-centred technical document. Countries can easily develop  
131 effective, actionable workplans based on sound monitoring and evaluation approaches and principles in a  
132 relatively short timeframe (Coetzer et al., 2018, 2016; FAO and GARC, 2012; Scott et al., 2017, 2015).  
133 The Global Dog Rabies Elimination Pathway (GDREP) was developed by the US CDC in 2017, to  
134 complement the SARE tool. GDREP is a user-friendly Microsoft® Excel-based budgeting tool to produce  
135 cost estimates for national mass dog vaccination programmes, based on data gathered from rabies  
136 vaccination campaigns in Haiti, Ethiopia, the United States (USA), Vietnam and Latin America (Undurraga  
137 et al., 2017; Wallace et al., 2017). The GDREP tool requires information on the size of the human and dog  
138 population in the country, current dog rabies vaccination coverage, available workforce and dog vaccination  
139 rate. With the user-provided information - gathered prior to and during the SARE workshop - the tool  
140 generates a phased framework specifying how many years remain for a specific country to progress to  
141 freedom from dog-mediated rabies, coupled with the estimated costs required as both annual and phased  
142 sums.

143 Evaluating the true burden of rabies in dogs is required to understand the current disease situation and to  
144 develop strong control strategies. Efficient surveillance programmes, where samples from suspect and  
145 biting animals are sent to Central Veterinary Laboratories (CVLs) for RABV detection, analysis and  
146 reporting, are crucial. Therefore, elimination in endemic countries also relies on availability of fully  
147 functioning and accurate diagnostic facilities. As of 2018, the direct fluorescent antibody (DFA) test and  
148 the direct immunohistochemical test (dRIT) - antibody-based protocols for detection of viral antigen - and  
149 conventional or real-time-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assays - molecular investigations for  
150 detection of viral RNA - are the diagnostic assays recommended for post-mortem rabies diagnosis by the  
151 OIE (OIE, 2018). Having different techniques ready to perform rabies diagnostics offers flexibility to  
152 overcome major limitations, for example, from lack of equipment, maintenance, or reagent supply.  
153 Although the DFA is an accurate and easy test, it is often challenging to implement in LMICs. The dRIT  
154 has several advantages over the DFA and is currently promoted through GARC in PARACON partner  
155 countries. The dRIT requires only a basic light microscope, whereas the DFA needs a fluorescence  
156 microscope. The dRIT is also easier to interpret in degraded or archived samples, and preserving samples  
157 in glycerol seems to influence DFA more than dRIT (Coetzer et al., 2017; Dürr et al., 2008; Scott et al.,  
158 2015). However, Lembo et al. (2006) reported that storage in glycerol did not seem to influence the DFA,  
159 and they and Prabhu et al. (2018) demonstrated full corroboration in detection of virus from field samples  
160 between DFA and dRIT. Advantages of DFA over dRIT are the following: less chemicals are used, which  
161 is particularly important in countries where waste disposal is not well regulated; several commercialised  
162 rabies conjugated antibodies are marketed; and the test protocol is much simpler with fewer steps. The third  
163 OIE-recommended assay is the RT-PCR approach, which is the only recommended technique to detect  
164 rabies in decomposed samples (Markotter et al., 2015; McElhinney et al., 2014; Prabhu et al., 2018).  
165 Molecular detection by RT-PCR is the only technique available in some veterinary laboratories in Africa,  
166 particularly those recently equipped for rapid diagnosis of avian influenza and other transboundary diseases.  
167 Nevertheless, implementing a molecular based technique to detect RABV requires great care to prevent  
168 sample cross-contamination, so a validated disinfection protocol and good laboratory practice is

169 fundamental (Aiello et al., 2016). Ideally, reliable efficient rabies diagnosis would be through the  
170 availability of an antibody based protocol, either DFA or dRIT, and a molecular protocol for diagnostic  
171 confirmation. But proper application of the recommended tests in developing countries often remains  
172 limited, due to poorly equipped laboratories, challenges maintaining reagent cold chains, appropriate  
173 sample transportation, and lack of quality control systems. Existing surveillance data often reflects only the  
174 rabies situation of the urban areas near CVLs. In this context, recently developed rapid  
175 immunochromatographic diagnostic tests (RIDTs) based on the lateral flow principle, which do not rely on  
176 a functional laboratory or adequate cold chain, offer new opportunities for decentralised rabies diagnosis in  
177 remote areas where the majority of animal bites cases are reported to occur. Although the sensitivity of  
178 RIDTs has been under debate, it has been demonstrated that applying a modified protocol of the Bionote  
179 kit results in an increased sensitivity and specificity, ranging from 93% to 98% and from 95% to 99% when  
180 compared to DFA, respectively (Léchenne et al., 2016; Mauti et al., 2020; Yale et al., 2019). To reach a  
181 higher detection performance, it is necessary to omit the 1:10 dilution of the original sample in phosphate  
182 buffered saline (PBS), although the dilution is still recommended by the manufacturer. Nevertheless, RIDTs  
183 can now be considered as a practical field tool for initial surveillance purposes. However, confirmation of  
184 rabies cases can only be achieved by means of one of the gold standard techniques (Duong et al. 2016;  
185 Eggerbauer et al., 2016; Léchenne et al., 2016; OIE, 2018; WHO, 2018b).

186 Interrupting virus transmission requires at least 70% vaccination coverage of the affected dog population  
187 (Coleman and Dye, 1996; WHO, 2018a). Several studies demonstrate that mass dog vaccination is the only  
188 cost-effective and sustainable control measure (Hampson et al., 2015; Mindekem et al., 2017; Zinsstag et  
189 al., 2009). But it is crucial to know more about the target dog population and existing human-dog  
190 relationship before planning and implementing dog rabies vaccination programmes (Mauti et al., 2017;  
191 Mindekem et al., 2005; WHO, 2018a). In N'Djamena, the capital city of Chad in Central Africa, canine  
192 rabies transmission was interrupted after two consecutive vaccination campaigns with sufficient  
193 vaccination coverages. However, rabies reappeared earlier than predicted. Based on phylogenetic and

194 phylodynamic analysis, Zinsstag et al. (2017) hypothesised that reintroduction may have been due to influx  
195 of infected dogs from neighbouring areas, underlining the importance of including neighbouring settings  
196 for rabies control. Domestic dogs are tied to humans, so the role of humans and the precise mechanisms  
197 governing rabies diffusion should be further investigated. In some areas, long-distance transport of infected  
198 dogs is a known risk for rabies introduction or reintroduction. However, additional analysis of rabies  
199 genetics in combination with landscape features from new areas will further clarify disease spread (Bourhy  
200 et al., 2016; Brunker et al., 2012; Cori et al., 2018; Dellicour et al., 2017).

201 In Liberia, dog rabies is endemic and surveillance systems and disease control activities are still in the early  
202 phase. However, rabies vaccination in humans has been documented since 1949 (Poindexter, 1953), but  
203 following civil war from 1989-2003 and the devastating Ebola outbreak in 2014-2015, health care services  
204 and infrastructure were substantially weakened (National Transitional Government of Liberia, 2004; The  
205 Lancet, 2014). Large areas of the country still do not have electricity. A few studies have described rabies  
206 prevalence, the molecular characterisation of circulating rabies virus isolates and estimated post-exposure  
207 prophylaxis (PEP) demand based on dog bites (Jomah et al., 2013; Monson, 1985; Olarinmoye et al., 2019).  
208 During 2008-2012, 488 dog bite cases were registered at several county hospitals, with children under 10  
209 years of age the most affected group (Jomah et al., 2013). In the 2018 annual report, the National Public  
210 Health Institute (NPHIL) registered 1,645 bite cases and 10 related deaths (Unpublished report, NPHIL,  
211 2018). However, data on the biting animals is poorly captured on the veterinary side. Olarinmoye et al.  
212 (2017) applied a decision tree model to human bite data for Monrovia, the capital city of Liberia, estimating  
213 155 human rabies deaths annually and high demand for PEP. However, the actual burden of rabies in Liberia  
214 remains unknown. PEP in Liberia is based on wound washing and post-exposure vaccination of exposed  
215 persons, since rabies immunoglobulin (RIG) is not available. Rabies vaccine is limited to major cities, with  
216 remote and marginalised communities having no access to life-saving treatment. Usually, health facilities  
217 in these areas lack continuous power supply to store rabies vaccines, thus limiting possibilities for the  
218 adequate supply of vaccine to these remote areas. Collaboration between the public health and veterinary

219 service is minimal, and functional rabies surveillance remains a substantial challenge. However, a One  
220 Health Coordination Platform was created in 2017 to coordinate zoonotic disease activities between sectors.  
221 The first rabies case was diagnosed by DFA at the CVL in Liberia. Rabies was subsequently declared a  
222 priority disease and is currently the focus of a working group which promotes joint disease surveillance  
223 systems between the veterinary and human sectors. Whereas dog owners normally have to pay for dog  
224 vaccination, free small scale dog vaccination campaigns were conducted between 2012 and 2018. About  
225 1500 dogs, mostly from Monrovia, were vaccinated against rabies during the World Rabies Day (WRD)  
226 activities (personal communication). Within the Global Health Security Agenda (GHSA) programme, FAO  
227 is committed to improve Liberian national animal health services to assist country compliance with  
228 International Health Regulations (IHR, 2005). The technical reorientation of the USAID-funded FAO  
229 Emerging Pandemic Threats (EPT-2) led FAO Emergency Centre for Transboundary Animal Diseases  
230 (ECTAD) teams to develop work plans supporting implementation of the GHSA against four Action  
231 Packages, including Zoonotic Diseases (ZD), Biosafety and Biosecurity (BB), Laboratory Systems (LS)  
232 and Workforce Development (WD). Under the ZD Action Package, GHSA countries are expected to  
233 conduct a national zoonotic disease prioritisation process using the CDC One Health Zoonotic Disease  
234 Prioritisation Tool (OHZDPT). Rabies was deemed a top five priority zoonotic disease in all FAO GHSA  
235 countries, including Liberia. Lastly, Liberia was part of a larger study, led by the Swiss Tropical and Public  
236 Health Institute (Swiss TPH), to estimate the burden of rabies in Ivory Coast, Mali, Chad and Liberia. The  
237 aims for Liberia were to establish diagnostic capacity for animal rabies and collect laboratory data on rabies  
238 cases. The research aim coincided with FAO and GARC plans and to avoid overlap of activities close  
239 collaboration was sought.

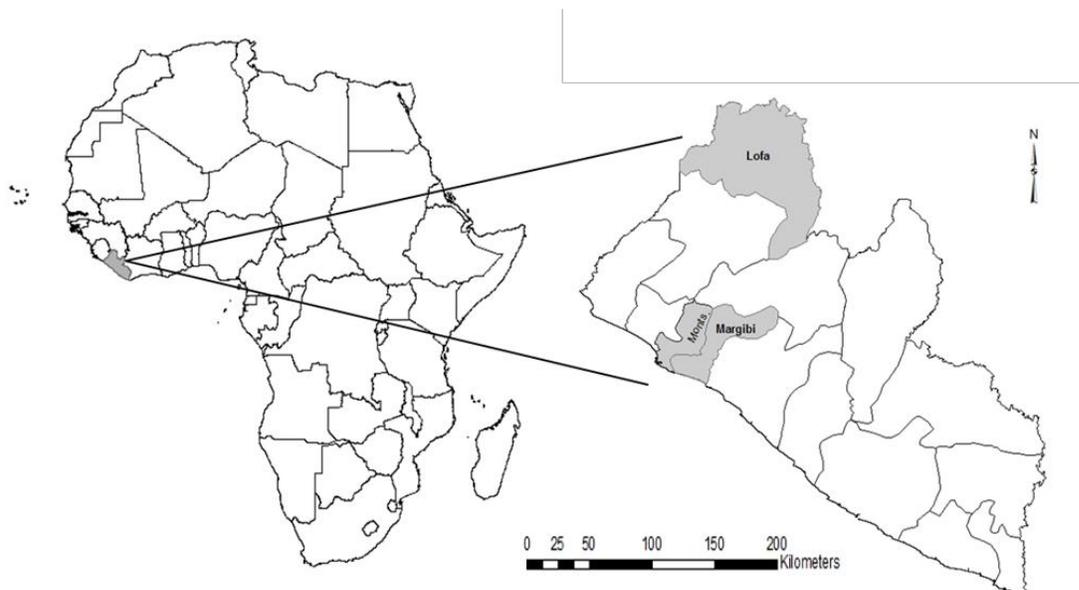
240 The aim of the present work was to establish animal rabies diagnostics at the CVL, to foster collaboration  
241 between all stakeholders involved in rabies control in Liberia *inter alia* through a comprehensive in-country  
242 rabies stakeholder workshop in Margibi County and to develop a short-term action plan for rabies control  
243 and elimination in Liberia.

244

## 245 2. Material and methods

### 246 2.1. Study area

247 Liberia is located in West Africa and has never been colonised. It is bordered by Guinea to the north, Côte  
248 d'Ivoire to the east, the Atlantic Ocean to the south and Sierra Leone to the west. The country is divided  
249 into 15 counties, covering 111,369 km<sup>2</sup>. The estimated population of Liberia was approximately 4.9 million  
250 inhabitants in 2018. The capital city Monrovia forms one district, which is a subunit of Montserrado County.  
251 Phylogenetic analyses (see point 2.4.) were performed on rabies strains originating from three counties,  
252 urban Montserrado and Margibi and rural Lofa. Montserrado County is in the northwest of Liberia, with a  
253 population of around 1.1 million people. Margibi County borders Montserrado to the west and has around  
254 199,689 inhabitants. Lofa is in the north, with 276,863 inhabitants (Central Intelligence Agency, USA.  
255 2018) (Figure 1).



256

Figure 1: County map of Liberia (study areas in grey)

257

### 258 2.2. Implementation of rabies diagnostics at the Central Veterinary Laboratory

259 Implementation of rabies diagnostic tests was a joint effort by Swiss TPH, FAO, Istituto Zooprofilattico  
260 Sperimentale delle Venezie (IZSVe – FAO Reference Center for rabies) and GARC. The FAO organised  
261 assessment missions for quality assurance (October 2016) and diagnostic techniques (January 2017).  
262 Subsequently, in 2017, the FAO renovated the Leon Quedlum Central Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory  
263 (CVL) in Monrovia, supported by the GHSA programme. To design a functional and modern diagnostic  
264 laboratory according to biosafety/biosecurity (B/B) and quality assurance (QA) standards (ISO 17025), the  
265 initial renovation over several months included full infrastructure restoration, including roof repair, city  
266 power grid connection and restructuring of the water supply system. A molecular unit was configured,  
267 including an RNA extraction room, a PCR mix room and a “gel” room, in addition to reception and  
268 necropsy rooms. Key equipment and required reagents were provided mainly by FAO, with support from  
269 Swiss TPH. Between July 2017 and February 2018, the three OIE-recommended rabies tests were  
270 implemented: the DFA test (by FAO and the FAO Reference Center (RC), the IZSVe, and Swiss TPH and  
271 their Malian study partner, the CVL Bamako), the dRIT (by Swiss TPH and GARC) and the molecular  
272 conventional RT-PCR protocol (by FAO and the IZSVe) (De Benedictis et al., 2011). Additionally, the  
273 RIDT (Anigen/Bionote Inc.) was introduced by Swiss TPH and the CVL Bamako. Staff were trained on  
274 standard protocols in sessions organised by FAO, IZSVe and Swiss TPH. Laboratory staff were instructed  
275 on B/B (May 2017), QA, Good Laboratory Practices (GLPs), and the most commonly used molecular  
276 methods for animal pathogen diagnosis (reverse transcription (RT), end-point and real time polymerase  
277 chain reaction (PCR)) (December 2017) by FAO. The FAO RC invited the CVL to carry out the rabies  
278 diagnosis proficiency testing (PT) in November 2018, which provided time to the laboratory staff to practice  
279 the implemented techniques. This was an effort to support the government in improving the sector through  
280 capacity building.

281 A PT panel of 10 blind samples including two controls for the exercise were provided. The PT samples  
282 consisted of lyophilized material prepared from healthy mammals’ brain homogenates, including 5 samples  
283 which were mixed with mice brain experimentally infected with RABV or rabies-related lyssaviruses. The

284 PT panels were prepared according to the ISO 17043 and were shipped, using a dedicated courier, as  
285 dangerous goods. In order to be cost effective, a unique parcel containing the PT panel and the 2 controls  
286 (1 positive and 1 negative) along with extra control vials used for the training purposes were shipped on  
287 dry ice prior to the training course organized by FAO and IZSVe (on DFA and RT-PCR). The results of  
288 this PT programme which included 14 laboratories from Sub-Saharan African countries are presented in  
289 the work of Gourlaouen et al. (2019). A high concordance rate was achieved amongst the participants with  
290 87.7% and 98.2% for the DFA and the RT-PCR, respectively (Gourlaouen et al., 2019).

291

### 292 2.3. Sample collection and rabies diagnostics

293 Sample collection was event driven. After the implementation of rabies diagnostics at CVL, fifteen County  
294 Livestock Officers, Health Surveillance Officers and members of the OH platform were asked to contact  
295 staff of CVL via mobile phone following a suspected dog bite or identification of suspected animals. CVL  
296 staff, trained on proper animal handling, travelled to field sites and transported the animal or carcass by car  
297 to the CVL. If a field visit was not possible, the animal head was transported in an icebox to CVL using a  
298 local transport company. Sample collection was performed at the CVL and brain samples were tested with  
299 the DFA test and RIDT tests. A questionnaire was completed with information on the biting animal, date  
300 of examination and origin of the sample. However, the renovation work of the CVL in 2017 interrupted the  
301 sample collection process and analysis of suspected rabies samples as there was no electricity and laboratory  
302 space to store and analyse suspected samples.

303

### 304 2.4. Confirmatory testing and phylogenetic analysis

305 Following an agreement with Liberian veterinary services, aliquots of all rabies suspected samples (n=8)  
306 were shipped (some in parallel) to IZSVE (n=6) and Institut Pasteur Paris (n=7, RNA samples) between  
307 May 2017 and August 2018 for confirmatory testing and molecular characterisation. DFA test, cell culture  
308 test and/or molecular techniques (conventional and real-time RT-PCR) were used to re-test the samples in

309 the international reference laboratories as described previously (Dacheux et al., 2016, 2008; De Benedictis  
310 et al., 2011; OIE, 2018). Sequencing of the complete N and G gene sequences was performed after  
311 amplification as previously described (Bourhy et al., 2008; Fusaro et al., 2013), with specific primers  
312 available upon request, or by next-generation sequencing (WHO, 2018c). Using jModelTest2 (Darriba et  
313 al., 2012), the best-fit model of nucleotide substitution according to the Bayesian Information Criterion was  
314 the general time reversible model plus gamma-distributed rate heterogeneity (GTR+G), which was further  
315 confirmed using Smart Model Selection in PhyML (Lefort et al., 2017). A maximum-likelihood  
316 phylogenetic tree was constructed using subtree-pruning-regrafting branch-swapping and PhyML version  
317 3.0 (Guindon and Gascuel, 2003). The robustness of individual nodes on the phylogeny was estimated using  
318 1000 bootstrap replicates with aBayes branch supports. In addition to the Liberian sequences, sequences  
319 from West and Central African countries were included in the analysis.

320

## 321 2.5. Development of a short-term action plan for rabies control and elimination

322 Following on from establishment of rabies surveillance in Liberia, and to advance rabies control and  
323 elimination efforts in general, representatives from all governmental stakeholders and line ministries  
324 involved in rabies control participated in a comprehensive in-country One Health rabies stakeholder  
325 meeting organized by FAO and GARC. The workshop took place in Liberia from May 28 to June 1, 2018.  
326 Three work-streams were completed: undertaking a SARE assessment, developing a practical workplan  
327 using the SARE tool's Practical Workplan component, and estimating costs of mass dog vaccination with  
328 the GDREP tool. The cost estimates generated were based on a cost of USD 2.60 per dog vaccinated, which  
329 is representative of published values for the region (Kayali et al., 2006).

330

## 331 2.6. Ethical considerations

332 Research approval was granted by national authorities in Liberia and the Ethics Committee of Northwest  
333 and Central Switzerland (EKNZ Basec Req-2017-00495) in July 2017. The research project fulfilled all

334 ethical and scientific standards and posed no health hazards. All involved personnel were vaccinated against  
 335 rabies following the instructions of the vaccine producer. All data were handled confidentially.

336

### 337 3. Results

#### 338 3.1. Phylogenetic analysis of the first laboratory-confirmed animal rabies positive cases

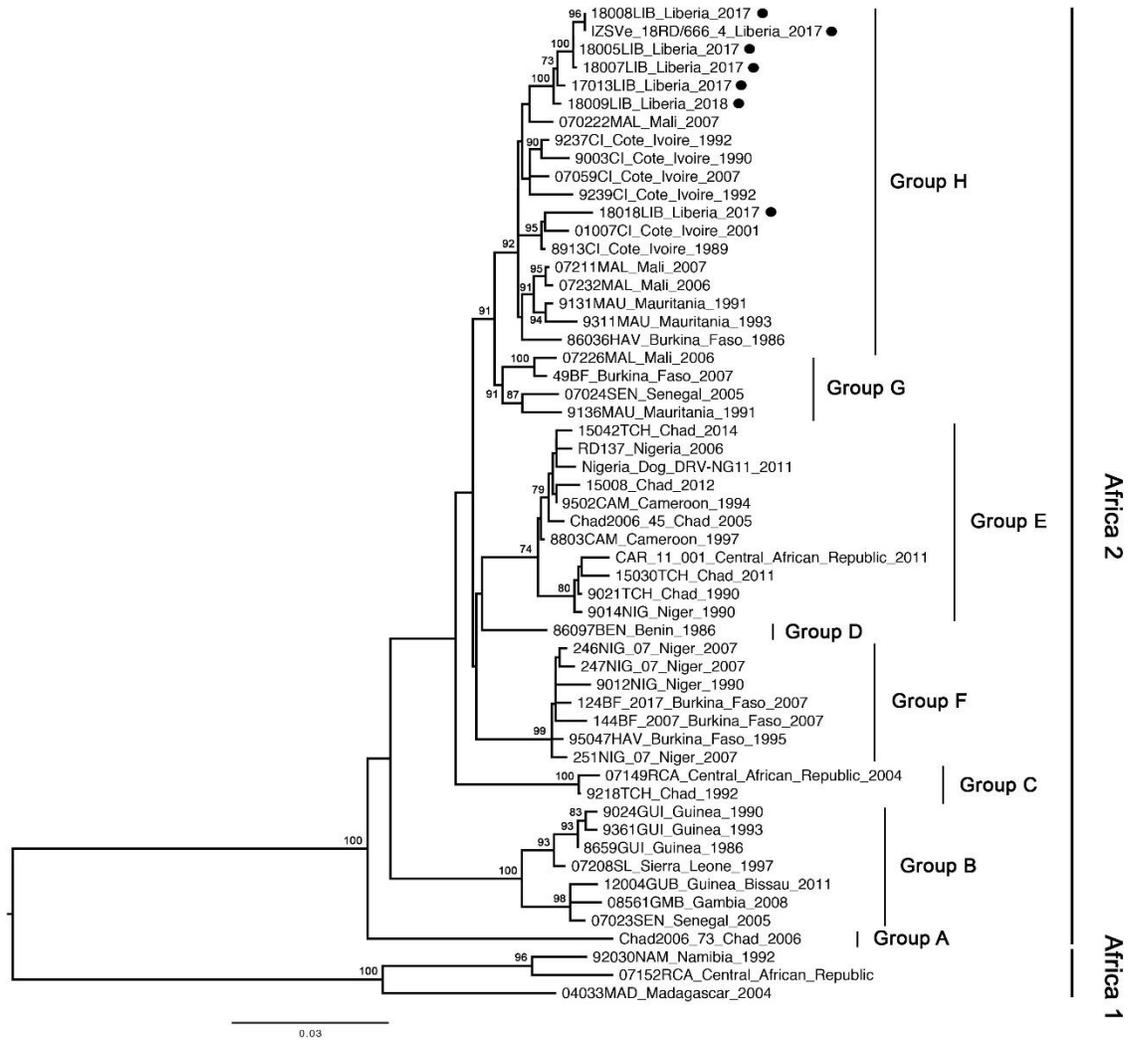
339 Between February 2017 and April 2018, eight suspected animals were submitted to CVL. Seven samples  
 340 tested by RIDT and DFA were confirmed positive for rabies virus. Details on positive animals are shown  
 341 in Table 1.

342 Table 1: Information on positive tested animals

Nr.	Species	Known owners	Sex	Age	Symptoms	Vaccination status	Date of sample collection	Date of examination	Origin of the sample	Genbank accession numbers
17013LIB_Liberia_2017	dog	yes	male	adult	change in behavior, no food intake	unvaccinated	27.02.2017	25.07.2017	Margibi County	MN049979
18005LIB_Liberia_2017	cat	yes, animal neighbor	male	subadult	change in behavior, no food intake	unknown	05.12.2017	14.02.2018	Montserrado County	MN049983
18007LIB_Liberia_2017	dog	yes, animal of the household	female	puppy	change in behavior, no food intake	unvaccinated	25.09.2017	16.02.2018	Montserrado County	MN049982/MH481712
18008LIB_Liberia_2017	dog	yes, animal of the household	female	adult	change in behavior	unvaccinated	25.03.2018	25.04.2018	Montserrado County	MN049981/MH481711
18009LIB_Liberia_2018	dog	yes	na	na	na	na	na	na	Lofa County	MN049980
18018LIB_Liberia_2017	dog	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	MN049984
IZSVe_18RD/666_4_Liberia_2017	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	MH481713

343

344 Full sequences of the genes encoding for viral glycoprotein and nucleoprotein from isolates  
 345 17013LIB\_Liberia\_2017, 18005LIB\_Liberia\_2017, 18007LIB\_Liberia\_2017, 18008LIB\_Liberia\_2017,  
 346 18009LIB\_Liberia\_2018, 18018LIB\_Liberia\_2017, IZSVe\_18RD/666\_4\_Liberia\_2017 were obtained and  
 347 subsequently published in GenBank (accession numbers MN049979 – MN049984; MH481708 -  
 348 MH481713). The phylogenetic analyses of the N genes revealed that the RABV detected in Liberia  
 349 belonged to the Africa 2 lineage subgroup H, which circulates in central and western African canine  
 350 populations. The Liberian viruses from this study clustered together with viruses circulating in  
 351 neighbouring countries (Côte d’Ivoire, Mali, Mauritania and Burkina Faso). Isolate  
 352 18018LIB\_Liberia\_2017 had high similarity to isolate 01007CI\_Cote\_Ivoire\_2001 from Côte d’Ivoire  
 353 (Figure 2).



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Figure 2: Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree based on 1350-nt nucleoprotein genes of seven rabies virus sequences from Liberia, 2017-2018 and representative sequences from Mali, Côte d’Ivoire, Mauritania, Burkina Faso, Senegal, Nigeria, Chad, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Niger, Benin, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Namibia and Madagascar. Subgroups A-H within the Africa-2 lineage are indicated, with Liberian sequences obtained during this study marked by black dots. Bootstrap values (1000 replicates) > 70% are shown next to nodes. Scale bar indicates nucleotide substitutions per site.

3.2. Results from the Stepwise Approach toward Rabies Elimination (SARE) tool – SARE assessment and Practical Workplan component.

Based on the SARE assessment undertaken during the in-country workshop, Liberia achieved a nationally-endorsed SARE score of 1.5/5, indicating it is in the process of scaling up intervention campaigns based on

364 existing data. To help Liberia progress up the SARE ladder to freedom from dog-mediated human rabies,  
365 national stakeholders developed a practical workplan utilising the SARE tool. Based on consensual  
366 agreement amongst participants, only remaining content from workplan Stage 0 and Stage 1 activities (all  
367 relating to core, fundamental programmatic activities like small-scale vaccination campaigns and local-  
368 level dog population estimates) were finalised to ensure a solid foundation before scaling-up to nationwide  
369 control efforts. The workplan, focussing primarily on fundamental activities at the local level, was used to  
370 populate a short-term rabies action plan to be actioned by government personnel for the next three years  
371 (2019 – 2021). The short-term rabies action plan can be used to ensure programmatic implementation at  
372 the local-level and advocate for additional funding necessary for disease intervention initiatives to continue  
373 and expand in waves.

374

### 375 3.3. Results from the Global Dog Rabies Elimination Pathway (GDREP)

376 Based on the information provided for Liberia and information gathered prior to and during the workshop,  
377 the GDREP tool estimated that dog-mediated human rabies deaths could be eliminated by 2025 and dog  
378 rabies could be completely eliminated by 2028, followed by self-declaration of freedom from dog rabies  
379 by 2030. These estimates are based on a three-phase approach where total cost of the proposed elimination  
380 programme (through mass dog vaccination) will scale up over the three phases. During phase I (years 1-3),  
381 an additional 75,000 USD per year is required in addition to the estimated 1,000 USD now spent annually  
382 on in-country rabies control efforts. For phase 1, a total of 228,000 USD is needed over the initial three  
383 years to strengthen capacity for surveillance and vaccination and to implement demonstration projects (e.g.  
384 small-scale mass dog vaccination events at pre-selected local areas). These activities will generate data to  
385 support scale-up of activities and raise disease awareness. In phase II (years 4-6), additional funds needed  
386 increase from an estimated 75,000 USD per year to 662,000 USD per year. This three-year phase focusses  
387 on increasing the national dog vaccination coverage from <18% to the required 70% coverage. Phase III  
388 (years 7-13) is considered the maintenance phase and is the most critical phase with regards to mobilisation

389 of funds and sustainable governmental commitment. Phase III focusses on maintenance of adequate  
390 vaccination coverage to ensure dog rabies elimination. To accomplish this, Liberia requires an estimated  
391 additional 746,000 USD per year to eliminate dog rabies and undertake the self-declaration process for  
392 freedom from dog-mediated rabies. In total, it is predicted that Liberia requires an investment of 5.3 – 8  
393 million USD over the next 13 years to successfully implement and maintain dog vaccination coverage to  
394 end disease transmission and eliminate canine rabies in the country.

395

#### 396 **4. Discussion**

397 Controlling and eliminating dog-mediated rabies in Liberia is a complex undertaking. However, a diverse  
398 set of stakeholders recently joined together to achieve this goal. A major initial hurdle was overcome  
399 through implementation of effective rabies diagnosis in the country, resulting in the first laboratory-  
400 confirmed animal rabies cases being diagnosed and reported. Documentation of the disease within the  
401 country enabled government authorities to begin planning for control and elimination of canine rabies in  
402 Liberia. A practical workplan and short-term action plan were developed using the SARE tool and an  
403 accurately costed mass dog vaccination strategy produced using the GDREP tool at a 2018 rabies  
404 stakeholder meeting. Liberia is currently at stage 1.5 of the SARE tool, signifying the country is preparing  
405 for local-level intervention dog vaccination campaigns, and needs investment of 5.3 – 8 million USD over  
406 the next 13 years for successful elimination of rabies by 2030.

407 There are still no accurate estimates of the ‘true’ national rabies burden in Liberia, so future research  
408 activities should focus on developing a well-functioning ‘One Health’ rabies surveillance system. This can  
409 be achieved through timely confirmation of suspect rabies samples at the Monrovia CVL using the recently  
410 established DFA test, and through decentralisation of rabies diagnosis using dRIT or RIDT. The latter test  
411 is especially useful in areas lacking electricity, as it does not require a microscope and can be stored at room  
412 temperature (Léchenne et al., 2016). Some challenges were experienced during implementation of the dRIT

413 test. A break in cold chain seemingly influenced the viability of the diagnostic reagents, and it was difficult  
414 to locally source some required test reagents. However, these challenges should not influence  
415 implementation of the test in Liberia or other resource-limited countries, because the test has many  
416 advantages. Regarding molecular detection of rabies, further commitment is needed to ensure successful  
417 accurate diagnosis. In addition to laboratory confirmation of rabies cases, improvement of rabies awareness  
418 for the community and health care personnel is also crucial for effective disease surveillance. Exposed  
419 people need to have timely access to PEP, which consists of effective wound washing, rabies vaccination  
420 and, under certain circumstances, administration of RIG, to reach the goal of zero human deaths by 2025  
421 as projected by the GDREP. Approval from the responsible authorities to use RIG throughout the country  
422 should be prioritised to ensure feasibility to reach the goal.

423 Molecular characterisation of the RABV-positive samples improved the resolution of the surveillance  
424 network and revealed that the seven laboratory-diagnosed and sequenced samples all belong to subgroup H  
425 of the lineage Africa-2. This result is not surprising, as the Africa 2 lineage is widely distributed in central  
426 and western Africa with subgroup H being prevalent in Côte d'Ivoire, Mauritania, Mali and Burkina Faso  
427 (Talbi et al., 2009). This demonstrates the transboundary nature of rabies (Coetzer et al., 2017; Hayman et  
428 al., 2011) and has implications for its control in Liberia. One Liberian isolate was similar to an isolate from  
429 Côte d'Ivoire and suggests a wide distribution of this subgroup over a large area including at least Liberia  
430 and Côte d'Ivoire. The recently published study of Olarinmoye et al. (2019) detected the Africa-2 lineage  
431 as well as the China lineage 2 and Africa lineage 3 in Liberia, but these results are still being debated by  
432 the wider scientific community. Based on this discrepancy among studies, more information is required to  
433 better understand the current rabies situation in Liberia through improved molecular epidemiological  
434 studies – possible through well established collaborations fostered during this study and through regional  
435 rabies networks such as PARACON. With such studies, it would be possible to identify rabies hotspots and  
436 areas of concern for rabies transmission, enabling more strategic targeted mass dog vaccinations with a  
437 more cost-effective approach. Dogs are inevitably linked to humans and thus to human-mediated

438 transportation within the region, and future rabies control efforts must take this into account (Bourhy et al.,  
439 2016; Brunker et al., 2012; Dellicour et al., 2017; Talbi et al., 2010). For better resolution of virus  
440 circulation patterns in Liberia and the neighbouring countries, a broader range of samples originating from  
441 neighbouring areas should be included in future analyses.

442 While improved burden estimates are important for disease prioritisation and elimination, improving active  
443 and passive surveillance programmes are long-term activities that require considerable resources and time.  
444 In an effort to ensure short-term progress and maintain governmental support, the SARE tool was used to  
445 identify additional activities that need to be accomplished to contribute to rabies elimination. By  
446 accomplishing the activities, Liberia can advocate for further operational and financial support from both  
447 domestic and international donors and stakeholders to ensure that the national strategy for rabies elimination  
448 remains adequately resourced throughout the 13 year time period. As evidenced by the GDREP tool, an  
449 estimated total cost of 7,436,000 USD is required over 13 years to achieve elimination through mass dog  
450 vaccination, re-emphasising the need for continued, long-term and stable investment. The estimates  
451 generated by the GDREP tool were based on a cost of USD 2.60 per dog vaccinated, which is representative  
452 of published values in the region (Kayali et al., 2006). However, as there is limited data available for Liberia  
453 due to the limited number of vaccination campaigns undertaken in the country, these estimates should be  
454 refined further with efforts made to reduce these costs. Additionally, detailed information on the size and  
455 structure of the dog population should be studied in future research projects. By obtaining a more accurate  
456 cost per dog vaccinated and reducing costs where feasible, the costs towards dog-rabies elimination by mass  
457 dog vaccination can be dramatically reduced. The full benefit of the GDREP tool not only accurately  
458 estimates costs of dog vaccination campaigns, but also generates realistic, evidence-based figures for  
459 stakeholders to create long-term resource mobilisation plans and implement effective strategies for timely  
460 resource mobilisation.

461 Important questions remain on who pays for rabies control and how necessary funds may be secured up  
462 front. One interesting possibility is development impact bonds (DIB) (Anyiam et al. 2017), a performance-

463 based investment instrument, where costs of rabies control efforts are shared between the government,  
464 private investors and outcome funders. With such an approach, the investment risk is shared, securing  
465 resources over a longer-term and mobilising current resources to drive intervention campaigns. With clear  
466 objectives, deliverables and timelines and the short-term action plan for Liberia developed using the SARE  
467 tool's Practical Workplan component, the investment impact and outcomes are more easily measured and  
468 quantified. Other non-financial resources are also available to facilitate country efforts towards achieving  
469 elimination. Mass dog vaccination is key to achieving rabies elimination, so procurement and delivery of  
470 dog vaccine remains vital. Through utilisation of resources such as the OIE rabies vaccine bank, which  
471 provides high-quality vaccine at an affordable price in a timely manner, Liberia can reduce associated costs  
472 and immediately initiate planned local-level intervention strategies, as detailed in the short-term action plan.  
473 This, and the many other available resources, can help Liberia scale up efforts towards nationwide  
474 intervention programmes.

475

## 476 **5. Conclusion**

477 This study in Liberia illustrates the difficulties of rabies control and elimination in LMICs in Africa. Liberia  
478 still has a long road to become free of dog-rabies. However, the dialogue between all relevant stakeholders  
479 occurred and preparations for small-scale intervention campaigns began. Following implementation of  
480 rabies diagnosis at the CVL, which improved disease surveillance, improved communication between the  
481 animal and human health sector remains of utmost importance. RIG, which is not currently available in the  
482 country, should be made immediately available so adequate treatment of category III exposed individuals  
483 and category II immune-compromised persons is possible. Through implementation of accurate laboratory  
484 diagnosis, initiation of molecular epidemiological analyses, improved rabies surveillance, formation of a  
485 One Health taskforce and development and implementation of a detailed, accurate workplan and short-term  
486 action strategy, Liberia and its partners laid the foundation towards achieving the goal of zero dog-mediated

487 human rabies deaths by 2030. The results obtained from the above described project activities in Liberia  
488 pave the way to developing rabies control strategies in other African countries and beyond.

489

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495

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