

1 A systematic review of rodent control as part of infectious disease control  
2 programs.

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### 29 **Conflict of Interest**

30 No conflicts of interest to declare

31

32 **Abstract**

33 We investigated the empirical evidence supporting chemical rodent control as a  
34 public health program via a systematic search of the scientific databases  
35 PubMed and Web of Science, searching for term-strings for the concepts:  
36 “rodent control” and “zoonotic disease”. Retrieved results were screened by title  
37 and abstract to eliminate studies that i) do not involve rodents, ii) do not contain  
38 a zoonotic component, iii) involve rodents and zoonosis, but no rodent control.  
39 Remaining articles were read full-text, eliminating studies that lack direct  
40 assessment of rodent control effects, with pre-/post-control measures of  
41 epidemiological outcomes. 957 entries were recovered and only 5 passed all  
42 elimination criteria. Studies were concentrated in Iran, focusing on zoonotic  
43 cutaneous leishmaniasis control. The studies found significant effects in  
44 zoonotic incidence post-control, but achieved low scores in quality-of-report  
45 assessment. The effectiveness of chemical rodent control as a measure against  
46 zoonotic disease is in its infancy, and more studies are necessary to allow an  
47 adequate assessment of the method. It is strongly recommended that future  
48 studies in the subject should adopt standardized guidelines to report studies.

49

50 **Keywords:** rodent-borne zoonosis, public health, pest control, commensal  
51 rodents

## 52 Introduction

53 Rodents and man have doubtless been at odds since the dawn of civilization,  
54 with evidence of rodents as both health and economic pests, and evidence of  
55 control measures going as far back as the Bronze Age (3300 BCE to 1200  
56 BCE) (Borojevic et al. 2010). Today, rodent control – aiming to control and  
57 eradicate invasive rodent species (especially from the genera *Rattus* and *Mus*)  
58 – is a global effort and an industry evaluated at over USD 18.2 billion (16.25  
59 billion Euro at 2019 exchange rates) (OECD 2022, Yeware 2019).

60 Rodent control is relevant in several different spheres, such as conservation  
61 biology in areas with invasive rodent species (Duron et al. 2017), agricultural  
62 sciences and crop pest management (Capizzi et al. 2014, Swanepoel et al.  
63 2017), and public health, as rodents are common reservoirs of zoonotic  
64 diseases (Meerburg et al. 2009). Rodents are also of more general public  
65 interest, given their association with large economic losses due to property  
66 damage, infrastructure and incidental fires, particularly in urban contexts, with  
67 an estimated global financial damage over 23 billion Euros per year (41.65  
68 billion dollars at 2018 exchange rates (OECD 2022)) (Jacob and Buckle 2018).

69 Today, rodent control is well-understood and established as a matter of public  
70 health (Babolin et al. 2016, Combs et al. 2019), with control programs being  
71 carried out as part of governmental public health policies both in urban and rural  
72 contexts (Colombe et al. 2019), with rodenticide application as the main  
73 modality of rodent control applied worldwide (Jacob and Buckle 2018). In spite  
74 of this, the efficacy and size of effect of the control programs on reducing or  
75 eliminating the incidence of rodent-borne zoonoses is largely unknown and is  
76 often not reported as part of the results of rodent control programs. Hence, the  
77 translation of the efforts and resources spent on control programs into public  
78 health benefits cannot be evaluated, and thus cannot inform the control  
79 programs' planning. In this review, we address this issue by performing a  
80 systematic review of the published evidence on the impact of rodent control  
81 measures on human zoonotic outcomes.

82

## 83 Materials and Methods

### 84 *Systematic search protocol*

85 In December 2020, we performed systematic searches using the electronic  
86 databases Web of Science (<https://www.webofknowledge.com>) and PubMed  
87 (<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>). Keywords strings relating to the main  
88 concept of rodent control and eradication were used to find studies of rodent  
89 management for zoonosis control. (The search strategies used are shown in  
90 Table 1.). The search covered the last 50 years of the periodical literature  
91 (1970-2020). Only peer-reviewed articles with full text in English were  
92 considered. The search protocol has been indexed in the International  
93 Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO) under number  
94 CRD42020199140 (2020).

## 95 *Processing the search results*

96 We followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-  
97 Analyses (PRISMA statement and checklist) guidelines (Moher et al. 2009) and  
98 the Critical Appraisal and Data Extraction for Systematic Reviews of Prediction  
99 Modelling Studies (CHARMS guidelines) (Moons et al. 2014). Results were  
100 imported to a reference management software, followed by an exclusion of  
101 duplicates. A manual check of the search results was performed by examining  
102 the title and abstract of each entry, excluding studies related to rodent control  
103 with no clear link to zoonosis control (e.g., studies on genetics of rodenticide  
104 resistance, knowledge, attitudes and practices studies, or rodent control for crop  
105 protection and food safety). Remaining entries were then examined by reading  
106 the full manuscript to check 1) whether they actually evaluate the impact of  
107 rodent control on zoonosis cases in humans; 2) the zoonotic agent(s) involved;  
108 3) the study design; 4) the methods applied for rodent control; 5) the methods  
109 applied to measure the efficacy of rodent control; 6) the zoonotic outcome  
110 measured (e.g. transmission rate, incidence, prevalence); 7) the method for  
111 outcome measurement; 8) the effect (positive or negative) of rodent control on  
112 the measured outcome; 9) the quality of the reported study, assessed using the  
113 Checklist for Quasi-experimental Studies (non-randomized experimental  
114 studies) developed by the Joanna Briggs Institute (2020), where items that  
115 fulfilled the criteria presented by the instrument were awarded a point, while  
116 incomplete/insufficient/absent items were not.

117 Entry classification was performed independently and asynchronously by two  
118 researchers. Classification agreement was evaluated using Cohen's Kappa,  
119 calculated using the Vassar Stats online tool (Lowry 2001).

120

## 121 **Results**

122 The overall search retrieved 957 results (Fig. 1). After title and abstract  
123 evaluation 382 records were removed for being out of scope of rodent studies,  
124 69 were removed for being studies on rodent-borne zoonosis but without any  
125 rodent control measure, and 478 were removed for being non-zoonosis-related  
126 rodent control activity (e.g., crop protection, conservation-related rodent control,  
127 studies on effectivity of rodenticides). Thus, 28 full documents were evaluated,  
128 of which 22 did not report any evaluation of the effect of rodent control in  
129 zoonotic outcomes in humans, and another one had no rodent control as part of  
130 the zoonosis control study, resulting in five articles fulfilling the criteria. Cohen's  
131 Kappa indicated adequate agreement between evaluators (unweighted kappa =  
132 0.712; 95% CI 0.4427-0.9817).

133 The five articles included were classified as Non-Randomized Controlled  
134 Cluster Trials (*sensu* Schmidt (2017)), evaluating the effect of rodent control  
135 campaigns using rodenticide on incidence of cutaneous case-control  
136 leishmaniasis in Iran (Akhavan et al. 2014, Ershadi et al. 2005, Veysi et al.  
137 2012, Veysi et al. 2016, Yaghoobi-Ershadi et al. 2000). All studies used a

138 design with two intervention areas (testing one control method in one area, and  
139 another in the second) and one control area (Akhavan et al. 2014, Veysi et al.  
140 2012, Veysi et al. 2016), or two interventions areas and one control area  
141 (Ershadi et al. 2005, Yaghoobi-Ershadi et al. 2000) (Supplementary material 1).  
142 All studies followed a standardized rodent control routine involving: i) a census  
143 of all rodent burrows in a 500-meter radius around each household, ii) the  
144 destruction of identified rodent burrows, iii) application of poison baits 48 hours  
145 after the destruction of burrows, iv) reassessment of the rodent situation and re-  
146 baiting of active burrows; with the activities starting as early as April and  
147 normally being finished by September, with the exception of Ershadi et al. 2005  
148 where rodenticide application was performed once a month. Zinc Phosphide  
149 was used as rodenticide mixed to foodstuffs in all studies, while Veysi et al.  
150 2012 also applied Coumavec® (composed of the rodenticide coumatetralyl and  
151 the insecticide etofenprox. Composition not informed in the manuscript).  
152 Akhavan et al. 2014 applied phostoxin (aluminum phosphide) as well, and Veysi  
153 et al. 2016 also used Klerat® (a commercial rodenticide with Brodifacoum as  
154 active component. Composition not informed in the manuscript). All studies  
155 used visual census of active burrows to assess the efficacy of the control  
156 method chosen on reducing rodent numbers.

157 Human cases of leishmaniasis were surveyed through home visits, where  
158 people with active cutaneous lesions in conformity with the clinic symptoms of  
159 cutaneous leishmaniasis were identified, and the survey data was used to  
160 calculate the incidence rate of infection and observe if incidence changed after  
161 rodent control. All studies found statistically significant differences in the  
162 incidence of leishmaniasis after rodent control.

163

#### 164 *Quality assessment*

165 Based on the Joanna Briggs Institute criteria, the articles had modest quality  
166 scores (4 out of 9 points) (Table 2). The description of the study design (i.e.,  
167 characterization of areas and populations, field procedures) was often laid out  
168 in sparse detail and gave little explanation on criteria such as: i) similarity  
169 criteria to assess whether the intervention and control populations are  
170 comparable; ii) outcome measurement and reliability mechanisms. The  
171 statistical analysis plans were extremely brief (e.g. five lines of text in Akhavan  
172 et al. 2014), and lacked useful context to provide information about the  
173 adequacy and explanatory power of the analysis plan proposed. Bias control  
174 was also not addressed. The sparse characterization of the populations in the  
175 studied areas was partially addressed using an outcome measurement  
176 expressed in relative numbers (incidence per thousand individuals).

177

#### 178 **Discussion**

179

180 The surprisingly low number of studies evaluating the effects of rodent control  
181 on zoonosis transmission hinders any further discussion on the merits of the  
182 practice. Although the articles found present positive results (Akhavan et al.  
183 2014, Ershadi et al. 2005, Veysi et al. 2012, Veysi et al. 2016, Yaghoobi-  
184 Ershadi et al. 2000), they allow little generalization. This hinderance is due to: 1)  
185 the small number of control and experimental sites used; 2) being focused on  
186 single control events (instead of a rodent control program with systematic  
187 implementation as a continuous service); 3) a single zoonotic system and  
188 localized context is involved in the studies. Leishmaniasis is a vector-borne  
189 zoonosis, transmitted by sand fly (Diptera:Psychodidae, genus *Lutzomyia*) bites  
190 (Roque and Jansen 2014). The studies above fail to provide information on  
191 whether some manner of vector control is taking place, and do not account for  
192 the possibility of variations in vector density affecting the measured outcome  
193 (Roche et al. 2013). This contrasts with other zoonotic control subjects such as  
194 sand flies (Barata et al. 2011, Dinesh et al. 2017), and ticks (Brei et al. 2009,  
195 Schulze et al. 2017), for which there are studies that also assess effects on the  
196 target population size although through indirect measures (parasite burden on  
197 captured hosts). Mosquito control has been subject of a recent systematic  
198 review (Oliver et al. 2021) also identifying a small number of studies evaluating  
199 control programs (N= 8).

200 Despite the consistent trend of rodent control measures having a positive  
201 zoonotic disease outcome change, the studies have a very simple study design,  
202 with a single instance of rodenticide application as rodent control activities were  
203 limited to the period between April and September, following the dipteran vector  
204 life cycle previously reported in the area (Veysi et al. 2012), and only one study  
205 carried out new interventions when the proxy used to estimate rodent  
206 population (number or burrows with signs of active occupation) reached a  
207 certain threshold (Ershadi et al. 2005). Studies also used few independent test  
208 sites for the interventions ( $N \leq 2$ ), and only two studies (Ershadi et al. 2005,  
209 Yaghoobi-Ershadi et al. 2000) characterized the human populations of the  
210 areas studied, both in population numbers (villages with 300-400 inhabitants in  
211 desert environment) and epidemiological indicators (incidence of leishmaniasis  
212 per 1000 people); all other papers lacked this information. The use of non-  
213 randomized clustered trials with very little information on the selection criteria  
214 and a focus on comparing the effect of different rodenticide treatments (instead  
215 of testing the base premise that “rodenticide treatment is effective on controlling  
216 rodent-borne zoonosis”) also weakens any conclusions on its efficacy as a  
217 health program. The lack of variety of pathogens, reservoir systems, and  
218 environments, coupled with the limitations of the study designs, hinder any  
219 possible generalization or putative claim that there is solid evidence that  
220 rodenticide baiting campaigns or any other kind of rodent control program is  
221 effective in reducing human zoonotic health risk. Small arid-climate villages  
222 have limited translation to highly anthropized environments with high  
223 demographic density (Costa et al. 2017, Himsworth et al. 2013).

224 This presents a serious problem with regards to the design and implementation  
225 of interventions. It has become evident that rodent control programs should  
226 become evidence-based, taking into account the ecology of the target species  
227 and their environment, in order to achieve their goals (Parsons et al. 2017).  
228 Unfortunately, rodent management practices often lack basic information being  
229 reported with standardized methodologies. The size of the effect of the control  
230 program should also be reported to inform future interventions regarding  
231 remaining target size. It is also worth noting that evaluations of a population  
232 control program to control a zoonosis are necessary to certify that the effects  
233 are actually positive. For example, the population control of stray dogs in areas  
234 with leishmaniasis has been questioned on whether the reduction of reservoir  
235 dog numbers actually diminishes the incidence of cases (Costa and Vieira  
236 2001, Desjeux 2004).

237 The idea of controlling the populations of zoonotic reservoir species reducing  
238 the impacts of zoonotic disease in humans seems intuitive, as it reduces the  
239 chance of vector infection by reducing the possibilities of a contaminating  
240 contact (also called dilution effect) (Roche et al. 2013). An opposite effect,  
241 however, could be seen as the vacuum left by the removed individuals (or  
242 species, in multispecies reservoir systems) can cause a migration influx,  
243 reseeding the transmission cycle (Himsworth et al. 2013, Johnson et al. 2015,  
244 Zeppelini et al. 2016).

245 Rodent control programs have focused on suppressing and/or reducing the  
246 resident rodent population of a given area by means of systematic rodenticide  
247 application (BRAZIL 2002, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2006),  
248 with secondary implementation of environmental manipulation (such as rat  
249 proofing buildings or remove available burrow terrain). However, this reliance on  
250 chemical control faces issues such as i) population rebound (as it does not  
251 affect the ecological support that the environment can provide to the remaining  
252 population, or addressing the possibility of repopulation through migration); ii)  
253 unequal effect and reach within the population due to neophobia and  
254 differences on movement and exploratory/foraging behavior within the social  
255 structure of the population (and the subsequent selection of neophobic and/or  
256 chemical resistance traits within the surviving population) and; iii) limited  
257 success, effectivity and reduced confidence in the method (Byers et al. 2019,  
258 Desvars-Larrive et al. 2017, Macdonald et al. 1999, Parsons et al. 2017,  
259 Schweinfurth 2020, Zeppelini et al. 2020). On certain cases, it is possible that  
260 rodent control produces the opposite effect on zoonotic transmission  
261 (Himsworth et al. 2013, Murray and Sanchez 2021). Rodent control commonly  
262 lacks the adequate ecological information to inform the design of the  
263 intervention, especially in urban settings, which represent important areas for  
264 the activity, and the historical evidence that supports the current understanding  
265 on the practice is skewed towards northern temperate regions with a somewhat  
266 high degree of urban planning (when compared to fast growing cities in the  
267 developing world (Combs et al. 2018, Zeppelini et al. 2020). This lack of  
268 properly contextualized supporting information for current rodent control

269 programs presents another issue to be taken into account in potential  
270 evaluation efforts.

271 The quality of the scientific reports was a hinderance in this review, as indicated  
272 by the Joanna Briggs Institute assessment tool (Table 2). The analyzed studies  
273 still present substantial room for improvement in design presentation, analysis  
274 and methods, and as of now do not compose enough evidence to risk any  
275 extrapolation or generalization. Future studies need to take into account the  
276 importance of standardization in study reports, especially in studies of public  
277 health concern such as zoonosis control, in order to maximize the informativity  
278 of studies conducted (von Elm et al. 2007). The adoption of a well-established  
279 and widely adopted standardization protocol, such as the PRISMA statement  
280 (Moher et al. 2009) could greatly benefit both researchers reporting their  
281 findings and the audience of such literature. Standardized protocols present and  
282 contextualize the fundamental items that must be reported in a well-informative  
283 and reproducible study, with guidelines specific for each type of study design;  
284 thus, facilitating the assessment of study quality, the accessibility of the  
285 information, and the reliability of decisions and meta-analyses. This study  
286 identified the need for improvement in the statement of aspects such as data  
287 relating to the follow-up of human participants, the definition of human infection  
288 outcomes, and the appropriate statistical analysis plan on published papers in  
289 the field of rodent control.

290 Finally, it is important to address potential sources of bias in our results.  
291 Publication of research results is naturally biased on itself, as positive results  
292 tend to be more readily published in peer-reviewed journals (Mlinaric et al.  
293 2017). Publication of negative results in the field of zoonotic rodent control  
294 represents important information about the (in)effectivity of the control methods,  
295 and could indicate the need to divert attention to other control methods, or that  
296 the method needs to be optimized to achieve suitable performance. It is  
297 necessary to also address the limitations on the raw data pool used in this  
298 review. Only two databases were searched due to time constraints and people  
299 power to process entries. However, the databases were consciously chosen as  
300 to cover a solid array of public health, epidemiology and applied ecology  
301 journals that would likely report our target studies.

302

### 303 **Conclusions**

304 The effectivity of rodent control intervention programs on controlling zoonotic  
305 risk for human populations is a field of study in its infancy. Our results make  
306 clear the urgency for studies evaluating the impact of the various modalities of  
307 rodent control (trapping, poison baits, fertility control, landscape management,  
308 etc.) on the transmission cycle of (several) zoonotic diseases. The empirical  
309 testing and comparison of the efficacy of different rodent control methods on  
310 zoonotic risk mitigation is fundamental to designing the most efficient, cost-  
311 effective, bioethical and environmentally safe control programs that will work at  
312 short and long term. In other fields of rodent control (e.g., crop protection,



313 ecological conservation, development of control methods) studies similar to the  
314 ones necessary for zoonosis control are a well-established research field that  
315 can serve as a guide to the endeavor ahead (Jakel et al. 2017, Jakel et al.  
316 2015, Tabak et al. 2015, Vadell et al. 2017). It is also clear that designing and  
317 reporting health-related studies can benefit from standardization of parameters  
318 to increase the public health benefit yielded from the studies.

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496 Table 1: Search strategies applied in the review.

<b>Database</b>	<b>Keyword string</b>
<b>PubMed</b>	("Rodent Control"[Mesh] OR "rodent control" OR "control rodent" OR "rat eradication")
<b>Web Science</b>	of "rodent control" OR "control rodent" OR "rodent eradication" OR ("rodent-borne zoonotic diseases" AND control)

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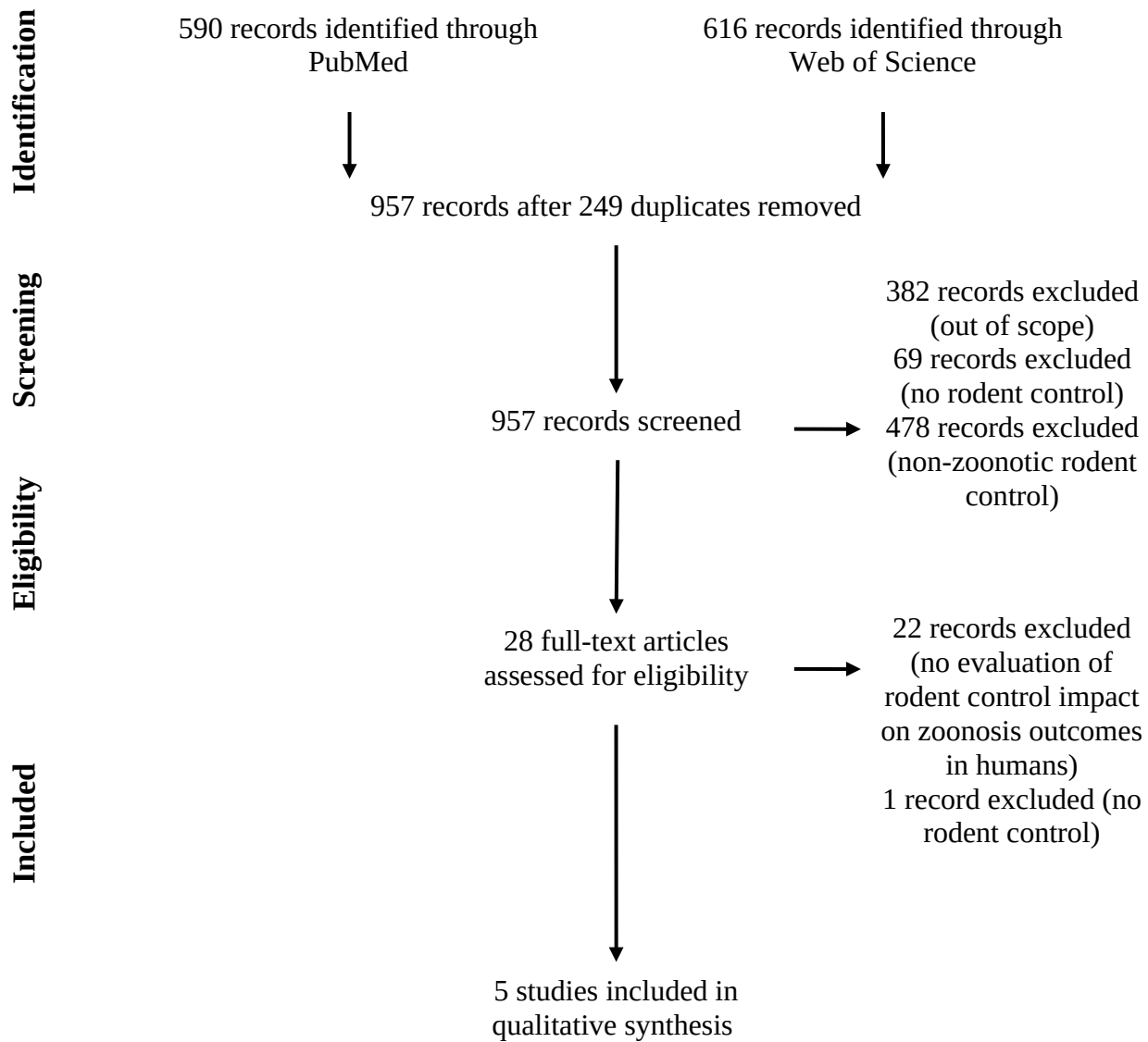
498

499 Table 2: Quality Assessment scores for the studies analyzed in the review based in the Joanna Briggs Institute Checklist for Quasi-  
 500 experimental Studies (non-randomized studies) (2020). Question marks represent categories where the classification of the  
 501 manuscripts was uncertain or not applicable.

	Yaghoobi- Ershadi et al. 2000	Ershadi et al. 2005	Veysi et al. 2012	Akhavan et al. 2014	Veysi et al. 2016
Is it clear in the study what is the 'cause' and what is the 'effect' (i.e. there is no confusion about which variable comes first)?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Were the participants included in any comparisons similar?	?	?	?	?	?
Were the participants included in any comparisons receiving similar treatment/care, other than the exposure or intervention of interest?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Was there a control group?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Were there multiple measurements of the outcome both pre and post the intervention/exposure?					
Was follow up complete and if not, were differences between groups in terms of their follow up adequately described and analyzed?	?	?	?	?	?
Were the outcomes of participants included in any comparisons measured in the same way?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Were outcomes measured in a reliable way?	N	N	N	N	N
Was appropriate statistical analysis used?	N	N	N	N	N

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506 Figure 1: Flowchart summary of the screening process of articles included in the  
507 synthesis.

508

509 Supplemental material 1: Study design, pre- and post-treatment outcome  
510 measures for human zoonotic incidence and rodent infestation, and observed  
511 results of the five studies analyzed in the review. ZCL = Zoonotic Cutaneous  
512 Leishmaniasis.

513