THE ROLE PLAYED BY WILDLIFE IN THE EPIZOOTIOLOGY OF RABIES IN SOUTH AFRICA AND SOUTH-WEST AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

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The role played by wildlife in the perpetuation of rabies is discussed in the light of information obtained during a routine examination of specimens at the Veterinary Research Institute, Onderstepoort, during the 10-year period, 1967–1976. In the course of the investigation, 9 additional hosts of rabies were confirmed and 4 rabies areas identified. The chief disseminators in 2 of these areas were found to be the dog (Canis familiaris) and the black-backed jackal (C. mesomelas); in the third area, the yellow mongoose (Cynictis penicillata), and in the fourth Genetta and Felis spp., including the domestic cat (Felis catis). It was noted that the domestic cat is of less importance in those areas where dogs and jackals are the chief disseminators.

Résumé

RÔLE DE LA FAUNE SAUVAGE DANS L'ÉPIZOOTIOLOGIE DE LA RAGE EN AFRIQUE DU SUD ET AU SUD-OUEST AFRICAIN

On discute le rôle joué par les animaux sauvages dans la perpétuation de la rage, à la lumière des renseignements recueillis pendant la décennie 1967–1976 lors des examens de routine effectués sur des spécimens à l'Institut de Recherche Vétérinaire d'Onderstepoort. En cours de l'enquête l'existence de 9 hôtes additionnels pour la rage a été confirmée et 4 zones enzootiques ont été identifiées. Dans 2 de celles-ci les principaux propagateurs se sont avérés être le chien (Canis familiaris) et le chacal à dos noir (C. mesomelas); dans la troisième la mangouste jaune (Cynictis penicillata) et dans la quatrième diverses espèces de Genetta et Felis, y compris le chat domestique (Felis catis). On a remarqué que le chat domestique a moins d'importance dans les régions où chiens et chacals sont les principaux propagateurs.

INTRODUCTION

Rabies exists in 2 epidemiological forms: urban rabies, propagated principally in dogs, and wildlife rabies. Within a given area there are apparently only 1 or 2 species responsible for the perpetuation of the disease (WHO, 1973); for example, the red fox (Vulpes vulpes) in Central and Western Europe and the red fox and the racoon dog (Nyctereutes procyonoides) in Eastern Europe. More or less independent epidemics are perpetuated in various parts of North America by foxes (Vulpes fulva and Urocyon cinereoargenteus), skunks (Mepthitis mephitis) and racoons (Procyon lotor). In the Arctic region the Arctic fox (Alopex lagopus) is the chief disseminator. In parts of Europe rabies virus of low virulence is commonly isolated from wild rodents such as Microtinae and Muridae. This form of rabies does not seem to be associated with fox rabies and its epidemiological significance has not yet been assessed (WHO, 1973).

In parts of South America, where rabies occurs mainly in cattle, certain species of vampire bats (*Phyllostoma superciliatum* and *Desmodus rotundus*) (Pawan, 1936) are the chief vectors. Outbreaks in these countries are remarkable for the small number of dogs and the large number of cattle involved.

In South Africa and South-West Africa rabies, though widespread, is more or less confined to certain areas, the most important of which is the central plateau, embracing practically the whole of the Orange Free State, the Western Transvaal and the Northern Cape. In this area the yellow mongoose is regarded as the chief disseminator (Snyman, 1940; Zumpt, 1976). Two other areas are recognized, one being in the Northern and Eastern Transvaal and Natal and the other in the northern part of South-West Africa.

In this paper the behaviour of rabid wild animals, the distribution of rabies and some aspects of the role played by the different wild animals in the perpetuation of the disease will be discussed in the light of information obtained during a routine examination of specimens for the 10-years period, 1967–1976. Some of the results will be compared with data obtained before 1965.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Diagnostic procedures

Brain specimens, collected by veterinarians, Stock Inspectors and Medical Health officers, together with case reports, were submitted to Onderstepoort for examination. One part of the brain of these specimens was preserved in 50% aqueous glycerine solution for the fluorescent antibody test for rabies and for biological tests in 3-week-old mice. The other part was preserved in 10% formalin for histological examination. A positive diagnosis was made when 1 or more of the 3 diagnostic methods proved positive.

Host list

Animals from which specimens were submitted for examination were identified, where possible, and newly identified hosts were added to the host list for rabies.

Grouping

As vernacular names were used in many instances, the precise identification of some species was sometimes not possible. To eliminate confusion, the different species were therefore grouped in a convenient way.

Behaviour of rabid animals

1. Aggressiveness

Aggressiveness was assessed by counting the attacks reported on humans and farm animals. Attacks on dogs and cats were excluded because of the inherent fighting nature of these carnivores. In many instances they and not the rabid vector were the attacking animals.

2. Bite wounds

The possibility of virus transmission was assumed where bite wounds were inflicted and this was assessed by counting the cases in which bite wounds were described. Bite wounds resulting from fights with dogs or cats were also counted.

3. Unusual tameness

For the purpose of this paper an animal was classified as "unusually tame" when its behaviour was such and when it did not show any inclination to bite or to attack.

Cases excluded

Cases of rabies in *Canis mesomelas* in the Etosha Game Reserve are not included in the list to determine behaviour because of their different habitat. They were included, however, in the total number of cases mentioned.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Host list

Since the publication of an addendum by Van der Westhuizen & Meredith (1967) to "A check-list and host-list of zoonoses occurring in mammals and birds in South and South-West Africa" (Neitz, 1956), 9 additional hosts of rabies have been confirmed. All the known wild animal hosts of rabies in South Africa and South-West Africa are listed in Table 1.

Grouping

Single or only a few specimens were presented for examination from certain species and, in some instances, the correct identification of species was not feasible. To avoid confusion the different species were therefore conveniently grouped as follows:

Group	Species in Group
Cynictis	C. penicillata
Canis	C. mesomelas
Felis	Wild Felis spp.
Suricata	S. suricatta
Genetta	Genetta spp.
Otocyon	O. megalotis
Herpestes	Herpestes, Mungos and Ichneumia spp.
Ictonyx	Ictonyx and Poecilogale spp.
Xerus	Xerus and Paraxerus spp.
Mellivora	M. capensis
Rodentia	Mice, rats, mole rats and moles
Other	Species not mentioned

TABLE 1 Wildlife host-list of rabies in the Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

Class, order and family	Genus and species	Vernacular	r names
class, order and ranning	Genus and species	English	Afrikaans
MammaliaPrimatesCercopithecidae	Cercopithecus aethiops (Linnaeus, 1758)	Vervet monkey	Blouaap
Carnivora	Viverra civetta (Schreber, 1778) Genetta rubigionsa (Pucheran, 1855). Genetta tigrina (Schreber, 1778). Genetta genetta (Linnaeus, 1758). Herpestes ichneumon (Linnaeus, 1758). Herpestes pulverulentus (Wagner, 1839). Herpestes sanguineus (Rüppell, 1835). Ichneumia albicauda (G. Cuvier, 1829). Paracynictis selousi (de Winton, 1896). Cynictis penicillata (G. Cuvier, 1829). Atilax paludinosus (G. Cuvier, 1777). Mungos mungo (Gmelin, 1788) Suricata suricatta (Schreber, 1777)	East African civet Rusty-spooted genet Large-spotted genet Small-spotted gent Cape ichneumon Cape grey mongoose Slender mongoose White-tailed mongoose Yellow mongoose Yellow mongoose Water mongoose Banded mongoose Suricate	Siwetkat Muskeljaatkat Grootkolmuskeljaatkat Kleinkolmuskeljaatkat Grootgrysmuishond Kleingrysmuishond Rooimuishond Witstertmuishod Kleinwitstertmuishond Rooimeerkat Kommetjiesgatmuishond Gebandemuishond Stokstertmeerkat
Hyaenidae	Crocuta crocuta (Erxleben, 1777)	Spotted hyena	Gevlektehiëna
Protelidea	Proteles cristatus (Sparrman, 1783)	Aardwolf	Maanhaarjakkals
Felidae	Felis serval (Schreber, 1776) Felis nigripes (Burchell, 1824) Felis caracal (Schreber, 1776) Felis lybica (Forster, 1780) Panthera pardus (Linnaeus, 1758)	Serval cat	Tierboskat Swartpootkat Rooikat Vaalboskat Luiperd
Canidae	Canis mesomelas (Schreber, 1775)	Black-backed jackal Side-striped jackal Chama fox Bat-eared fox.	Rooijakkals Witkwasjakkals Silwerjakkals Bakoorjakkals
Mustelidae	Mellivora capensis (Schreber, 1776)	Honey badger Cape pole cat (skunk) Snake mongoose	Ratel Stinkmuishond Slangmuishond
Hyracoidea Procaviidae	Procavia capensis (Pallas, 1766)	Rock dassie	Klipdas
Artiodactyla Bovidae	Redunca fulvorufula (Afzelius, 1815) Tragelaphus strepsiceros (Pallas, 1766) Sylvicapra grimmia (Linnaeus, 1758) Raphicerus campestris (Thunberg, 1811)	Mountain reedbuck Kudu Grey duiker Steenbok	Rooiribbok Koedoe Duiker Steenbok
RodentiaSciuridae	Xerus inauris (Zimmermann, 1780) Paraxerus cepapi (A. Smith, 1836)	Ground squirrel Yellow-footed squirrel	Waaierstertmeerkat Geelpooteekhoring

TABLE 2 Confirmed cases of rabies in the Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa for the period 1967-1976

						Percent	age of:	
Hosts of rabies	Confirmed cases				Wildlife vectors	Dogs & cats	All	All rabies cases
Wildlife vectors: Cynictis. Canis. Felis. Suricata. Genetta. Otocyon. Herpestes. Ictonyx. Xerus. Mellivora. Other	699 105 51 47 41 39 18 15 8 7				67 10 5 5 4 3 2 1 <1 <1		47 7 4 4 3 2 1 1 <1 <1 <1	37 5 2 2 2 2 2 1 <1 <1 <1 <1
		1 039					79	56
Domestic vectors: Dogs Cats	194 86					70 30	14 6	10 5
		280					21	15
			1 319					72
Antelope: Grey duiker Kudu Steenbok. Mountain reedbuck	5 3 2 1							<1 <1 <1 <1
		11						<1
Farm animals: Cattle. Sheep. Coat. Horse and donkey.	456 31 17 9							25 1 <1 <1
		513						28
		-	524					28
Total				1 843				

Confirmed cases

During the periods 1916-1949 and 1953-1961, 417 and 908 cases of rabies were recorded, respectively, (Maré, 1962), while in the 10 years 1967-1976, 1843 diagnoses of rabies were made. Admittedly, better knowledge of the disease, public awareness and improved diagnostic methods all contributed to the higher number of cases diagnosed in the latter period, but nevertheless the increase is so spectacular that one must conclude that rabies is on the increase in South Africa and South-West Africa. However, because of improved control measures, rabies in dogs is an exception. During the period 1953-1961, 321 cases in dogs were recorded (Maré, 1962), while in the period under investigation only 194 diagnoses were made. This decrease may certainly be attributed to control measures such as registration, licensing and taxation of dogs, elimination of stray animals and mass vaccination of dogs free of charge. Nevertheless, dogs still play an important role in the epizootiology of rabies in this country. They were the victims in 388 out of 516 (75%) cases where bite wounds were inflicted by wild animals (Table 6).

During the period 1953-1961, instances of rabies in wildlife comprised 22% of the total number of

cases, while, in the period 1967–1976, 56% of the diagnoses made were in wildlife (Table 2). Although the figures reflect not only greater public awareness but also a decrease in canine cases, the increase in wildlife involvement emphasizes the increasing importance of wildlife in the epizootiology of rabies in this country.

Transmission

The mode of transmission in most cases, especially in cattle, could not be determined unambiguously but it can be reasonably assumed that the recognized vectors in the relevant area were responsible. In 60% of the cases in the Northern Transvaal where rabies was confirmed in cattle, rabid jackals or jackals with an abnormal behavioural pattern were seen prior to the onset of symptoms in cattle (Brückner, Hurter & Boshoff, 1978). In the present investigation, jackals were shown to be responsible for 8 of the 38 recorded cases of transmission of rabies to domestic animals (Table 3).

Numerous occasions where dogs were bitten by different wild animals are known, but, as a rule, such dogs were destroyed and the outcome is unknown.

TABLE 3 Confirmed transmissions of rabies to domestic animals for the period 1967-1976

Access	Victim							
Vector	Cattle	Sheep and goat	Dogs	Total				
Cynictis	5	1	4	10				
Canis Felis	2 3	1	1	8				
Herpestes	3	0	î	4				
Genetta	0	1	0	1				
Dog	1	1	7	9				
Cat	0	1	1	2				
	16	7	15	38				

Behavioural pattern of the different groups

The behavioural patterns of both normal and rabid wild animals show a wide variation. Some species are very aggressive and dangerous while others are less so, depending *inter alia* on whether they are nocturnal or diurnal, large or small. These differences may play an important role in their effectiveness as disseminators of rabies virus.

1. Cynictis penicillata

The yellow mongoose is widely distributed in South Africa, but it is most prevalent in the central plateau, which includes almost the whole of the Orange Free State, the Western Transvaal and the Northern Cape (Meredith, Smith & Smith, 1974; Snyman, 1937). The yellow mongoose is diurnal and rarely nocturnal. It is a solitary hunter and takes both vertebrate and invertebrate prey (Rautenbach & Nel, 1978). In many parts it occurs in close association with S. suricatta and X. inauris (Zumpt, 1976). Yellow mongooses have a symbiotic relationship in which X. inauris is the builder of a burrow system, Cynictis the defender of the mutual colony, while S. suricatta very often invades such a burrow and expels the other inhabitants, thereby promoting the spread of rabies. S. suricatta remains in the burrow system until all the food supplies are depleted and then moves on to the next colony. In other parts the yellow mongoose, in the absence of X. inauris, has different living habits and is thus less dangerous as a disseminator of the disease.

TABLE 4 Behaviour of rabid wild animals in the Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

Group	Visit buildings, as percentage of group	Unusually tame, as percentage of group
Cynictis	89	20
Xerus	87	0
Genetta	82	5
Felis	80	0
Herpestes	80	17
Ictonyx	77	33
Suricata	75	4
Canis	60	23
Otocyon	46	13
Mellivora	29	0

Sixty-seven per cent (Table 2) of all the cases of wild animals encountered were *Cynictis*, and 89% (Table 4) of them were encountered in or at farm buildings such as homesteads, stores, stables and kraals. Being one of the smallest disseminators and

having an average mass of only 0,8 kg (Rautenbach & Nel, 1978), the rabid mongoose is a relatively easy animal to cope with. Only 38% (Table 5) were described as aggressive and 52% (Table 6) bit humans, farm animals, dogs or cats. The majority of cases where bite wounds were inflicted resulted from dogs attacking and killing a rabid mongoose. Successful attempts by mongoose to attack humans were rare. Only 10 known outbreaks of rabies in domestic animals could definitely be traced to the yellow mongoose (Table 3).

2. C. mesomelas (black-backed jackal)

The second most commonly involved wild animal is the black-backed jackal (C. mesomelas). It is a hardy, resourceful and very cunning animal, which wanders over great expanses of country when in search of food (Roberts, 1951), and, having an average mass of 7,8 kg, is one of the larger disseminators of rabies (Rautenbach & Nel, 1978). It is regarded as one of the major pests by the sheep farmer on account of its having developed the habit of attacking sheep.

Rabies in jackals seems to be most prevalent during the months July-November (Brückner, Hurter & Boshoff, 1978). This coincides with their mating and whelping season as well as the shortage of natural food resources during this period (Bueler, 1969).

Seventy-five and 30 cases, respectively, were recorded in jackals in the farming areas and the Etosha Game Reserve (Table 2). In farming areas, 60% of the jackals were encountered at or in farm buildings (Table 4). Almost 50% were aggressive and 37% (Table 5) attacked humans or farm animals.

Rabid jackals were often encountered at watering places where they attacked cattle. Cases where a so-called "tame" jackal was seen wandering aimlessly around, later becoming aggressive and even killing domestic animals or attacking humans without provocation, were also described.

3. Felis and Genetta spp.

Although from different families, wild Felis and Genetta spp. are similar in habit. F. libyca, the most commonly encountered species, is widely distributed and has a wide habitat tolerance. G. tigrina usually prefers a habitat close to water, whereas G. genetta exists away from it (Rautenbach & Nel, 1978). Both Felis and Genetta spp. are nocturnal animals which prey upon any small animal they can capture, and not infrequently raid poultry yards. They are fierce animals when trapped or cornered (Roberts, 1951). Unlike the yellow mongoose, which adapts itself to close existence with farming activities, Felis and Genetta spp. prefer to keep away from such activities (Rautenbach, personal communication 1978) Notwithstanding this fact, more than 80% (Table 4) of the Felis and Genetta cases were encountered at or in farm buildings, and 87% and 62% respectively were aggressive (Table 5). Except for *M. capensis* apart, they were responsible for the highest percentages of bite wounds inflicted, 76% for the Genetta spp., and 90% for the Felis spp., respectively (Table 6).

Being nocturnal animals, rabid individuals enter buildings at night and have been known to attack people whilst they are asleep. When rabid, they are very dangerous animals and furious fighters, but this is not always the case. In one instance, a rabid *Genetta* spent the night with a man in bed without trying to bite him. Several cases have been recorded

where a wild cat entered a dwelling and successfuly attacked several people before it could be killed. They have also attacked people in the veld. In 2 particular cases they could not be removed from their victims and had to be killed before their jaws could be opened.

4. Mellivora capensis

Badgers prey to some extent upon small animals and, when attacked, put up a fierce fight, usually being more than a match for their prey, partly on account of the toughness of their hides, and partly because of their claws and fairly strong canine teeth (Roberts, 1951). Shone (1962) mentioned that badgers were involved in a number of outbreaks of rabies amongst cattle and sheep in Rhodesia, and Darbyshire (1953) reported on the death of 47 sheep in one flock in Rhodesia, where it was suspected that a rabid badger was involved.

According to the case reports accompanying the 7 badger cases, the badger is one of the most dangerous rabid animals to deal with. Only 2 (29%) visited farm buildings (Table 4), but all of them were very aggressive (Table 5). Two bit humans and the other 5 bit farm animals (Table 6). In 4 cases more than 1 victim was involved. Dogs were not involved.

5. Suricatta, O. megalotis, Herpestes and Ictonyx

Suricatta and Herpestes are diurnal, while O. megalotis, though diurnal in undisturbed areas, especially during winter (Rautenbach & Nel, 1978), becomes exclusively nocturnal in settled areas. Ictonyx is strictly nocturnal.

None of these animals is really regarded as dangerous. As a matter of fact, they are sometimes kept as pets. *Suricatta* being of a mild and sociable disposition is easily tamed, *Ictonyx* is docile and friendly, while *Otocyon* is described as a harmless insectivorous fox (Roberts, 1951).

Information obtained in this investigation indicated that these animals, even when rabid, are relatively easy to cope with. They were neither very aggressive (Table 5) nor successful in their attacks on humans or animals (Table 6). Except for Suricatta, 45% or less were in contact with humans or domestic animals and in the vast majority of cases these contacts took place when they were attacked by dogs. There were only 6 cases where Otocyon, 2 where Herpestes and 10 where Suricatta tried to attack humans or farm animals. They were as a rule easily killed either by dogs or by man.

TABLE 5 Aggressiveness in the different groups of rabid animals

Vector			Aggressive	Aggression			
Group	Cases	Man	%	Farm animals*	%	Total	%
Mellivora. Felis. Xerus Genetta. Cynictis Suricata Canis. Otocyon. Herpestes.	7 51 8 41 622 47 75 39 18 15	2 36 6 25 223 13 20 9 2	29 71 75 62 36 28 26 23 11	5 8 0 0 11 5 8 4 1 0	71 16 0 0 -2 11 11 10 5	7 44 6 25 234 18 28 13 3 0	100 87 75 62 38 38 37 33 16 0
Cat Dog	86 194	74 107	86 64	1** 14**	7	75 162	87 83

^{*} Dogs and cats excluded ** Including dogs and cats

TABLE 6 Bite wounds inflicted by the different groups of rabid animals

Vectors			Victims						
Group No.	No.	Dogs		Man		Farm animals		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Mellivora Felis. Genetta Suricata Canis Cynictis Otocyon Herpestes Xerus Ictonyx	7 51 41 47 75 622 39 18 8 15	7 10 10 21 24 296 13 6 3 5	0 20 24 45 32 48 33 33 37 33	2 27 21 5 9 14 2 1 0	29 54 51 10 12 3 5 6 0	5 8 0 5 8 11 4 1 0	71 16 0 10 10 10 2 10 6 0	7 45 21 31 41 326 19 8 3 5	100 90 76 66 66 52 45 44 37 33
Total	923	388	40	86	9	42	4	516	56
Cats	86 194	12 33	14 17	60 90	70 47	1 14	1 7	73 137	85 71

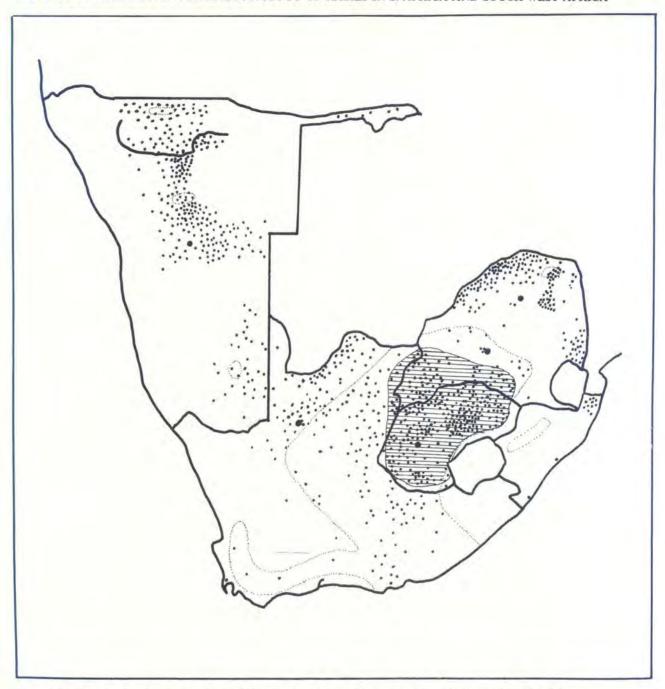


FIG. 1 Distribution of rabies cases in South Africa and South-West Africa during the 10-year period, 1967-1976

6. Rodentia

Except for *Xerus* and *Paraxerus*, 375 specimens from rats, moles and mole rats were examined with negative results. It can therefore be concluded that it is very unlikely that they play a significant role in the disemination of rabies in this country.

Rabies areas

Reports on the existence of rabies in South Africa prior to the first authentic outbreaks at Port Elizabeth in 1893 are scanty (Hutcheon, 1894; Snyman, 1940). Following that outbreak, the incidence rate fluctuated from year to year.

Reviews on rabies in this country by Neitz & Thomas (1934) and Snyman (1940) stress that it occurs mainly in the Orange Free State, the Western Transvaal and the Northern Cape. They also observed

that the incidence of the disease is related to the regional population density of various species of the family *Viverridae*. This area became known as the viverrid rabies area. Prior to 1957, only a few sporadic cases of rabies had been reported from the Northern Transvaal. Subsequently, the disease spread within a few years throughout the Northern and Eastern Transvaal and, during 1961, into Natal (Maré, 1962). In this area, typical "dog rabies" was recognized, and 50 out of the 66 cases diagnosed were in dogs (Maré, 1962).

In South-West Africa suspected cases have been reported from Ovamboland since 1926, but the first diagnosis was made only during 1938 (Snyman, 1940).

A comparison of the distribution of rabies in 1976 (Fig. 1) and 1962 (Maré) shows that there is little change in the distribution of the disease. Only a few cases have been recorded in new districts.

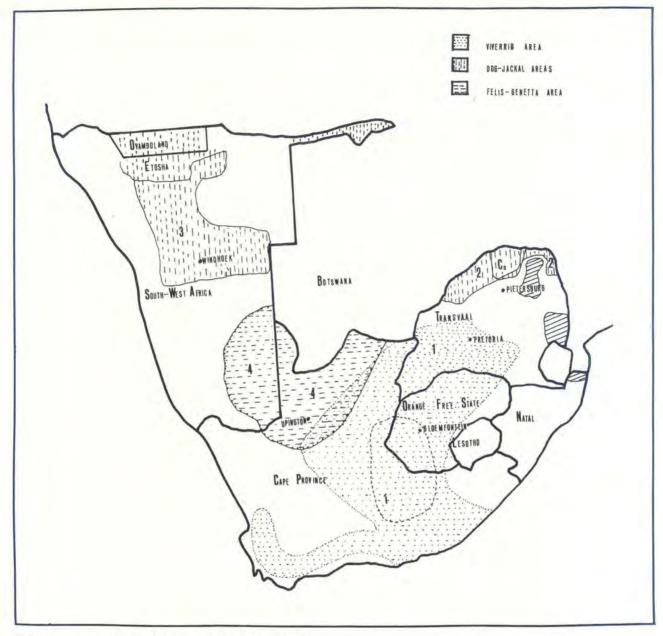


FIG. 2 Rabies areas in South Africa and South-West Africa

Rabies areas according to the distribution of wild vectors

Although the density of the different species involved in the different areas is unknown, their distribution is reasonably well known (Rautenbach, 1978, personal communication). Cynictis is, with a few exceptions, confined to the central plateau, but the other important vectors, including Felis, Canis, Herpestes, Genetta, Otocyon and Suricatta spp., are widely distributed. It is assumed, however, that the Northern Transvaal and the coastal regions may have a denser population of at least some of the species concerned.

The distribution of the wild vector cases encountered indicates 4 recognizable rabies areas (Table 7 and Fig. 2). In all these areas, cases of the chief vectors comprise 73% or more of the total number of vector cases in that area. In Area 1, known as the viverrid rabies area, *Cynictis* is the most common vector (75%). Apart from *Cynictis*, cases of all the other wild vectors except *M. capensis* were encountered in this area.

Cases of the second most important vector (5%) in this area, Suricatta, was to a large extent concentrated in the southern Orange Free State and the northeastern Cape.

In Areas 2 and 3 in the Northern Transvaal and the northern part of South-West Africa, respectively, C. mesomelas and dogs are the most common vectors, while Felis and Genetta spp. dominate the picture in the 4th area in the southern part of South-West Africa and the north-western Cape. No cases of the black-backed jackal were encountered in this area, while Cynictis comprised less than 1% of the vectors in this area which overlaps the viverrid area.

Vector: victim ratio

The different vectors, as described above, whether noctural or diurnal, differ in behavioural pattern, body size and habits. It was seen that *Felis* and *Genetta* spp., the chief vectors in the southern South-West Africa and Northern Cape area, are much more

TABLE 7 The distribution of chief vectors in the different rabies areas

	Area								
Species	Northern Transvaal	%*	Northern South-West Africa	%	Central Plateau	%	Southern South-West Africa Northern Cape	%	
C. mesomelas. Dogs. C. penicillata Felis and Genetta. Cat. Other vectors.	12 11 2 0 1	88	55 24 2 2 2 3 24	73	8 53 692 29 48 70	75	0 11 2 58 24 13	75	
Total	26		110		910		108		

^{*} Chief vector as a percentage of total vectors

aggressive and successful in their attacks on humans and farm animals than either the black-backed jackal or the yellow mongoose, the 2 chief vectors in the other areas. One would thus expect more victim cases per vector in this area than in the other areas, especially in the Northern Transvaal, where no *Felis* or *Genetta* cases were encountered. Interestingly enough, this was not the case.

TABLE 8 The ratio between rabies cases in vectors and domestic animals in the different areas

Admi	Cas	D. die	
Area	Vectors	Farm animals	Ratio
Northern Transvaal Northern South-West Africa	26 110	92 167	1:3,5 1:1,5
Central plateau	910	224	1:0,24

In the Northern Transvaal and the northern part of South-West Africa, where *C. mesomelas* and dogs are the chief vectors, one vector case was encountered for every 3,5 and 1,5 cases, respectively, in farm animals (Table 8), while in the southern South West Africa and the northern Cape area and the viverrid area, where *C. mesomelas* is of very little importance, the ratio is 1:0,16 and 1:0,24, respectively. This difference in ratio may indicate less efficient transmission of the virus by the relatively small *C. penicillata*, *Genetta* and *Felis* spp. The ratio can also be influenced by the relative density of both vectors and victims in the different areas. Unfortunately, this is not known.

TABLE 9 The distribution of cases in dogs and cats in the different areas

Area	Cas	Ratio	
Alca .	Dogs	Cats	Ratio
Northern Transvaal	12	1	10:1
Northern South-West Africa	24	3	10:1
Central PlateauSouthern South-West Africa	53	48	10:10
and Northern Cape	11	24	10:20

Another interesting observation is the difference in ratio between dog and cat cases in the different areas (Table 9). Both being domesticated animals, one would expect no marked difference between the numbers kept as pets in the different areas, so that the difference in the ratio of rabies cases in dogs and cats in the different areas is difficult to explain. In the Northern Transvaal, where mainly jackals are involved, 1 case in dogs is recorded for every 0,09 cases in cats, while in the southern part of South-West Africa and the Northern Cape, where no jackal cases were encountered, the ratio between dogs and cats is 1:2,2. In the other areas where jackal and other species are involved, the ratio lies somewhere between the 2 extremes with northern South-West Africa, where mainly jackals are involved very close to the Northern Transvaal.

From these results it is clear that 4 different rabies areas can be identified. They differ in locality, in the vectors chiefly involved, the ratio between vectors and victims and the ratio between dogs and domestic cats.

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