

CHALLENGES IN DEVELOPING VACCINE FOR CANINE DISTEMPER

AHMAD MT^{1*}, HASHMI HA², HASSAN MU³, KHALIQ A⁴, SHAH SKA⁵, MAQBOOL B⁶, EJAZ A⁷, JAMIL S⁸, REHMAN MU⁹, FRAZ A¹⁰

¹Department of Pathology, University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan

²Department of Clinical Studies, Faculty of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, PMAS Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi, Punjab, Pakistan

³University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Lahore, Subcampus CVAS, Jhang, Punjab, Pakistan

⁴Department of Livestock and Dairy Development, Balochistan, Pakistan

⁵Department of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, The University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Swat, KPK, Pakistan

⁶Department of Veterinary Medicine, Faculty of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, The University of Agriculture, Dera Ismail Khan, KPK, Pakistan

⁷Department of Pharmacy, Islamia University Bahawalpur, Punjab, Pakistan

⁸Faculty of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Sciences, The University of Agriculture Peshawar, KPK, Pakistan

⁹Department of Animal Husbandry, The University of Agriculture Peshawar, KPK, Pakistan

¹⁰Foot and Mouth Disease Research Centre, Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan

*Correspondence author email address: vet.tauseef@gmail.com

(Received, 27th June 2024, Revised 20th September 2024, Published 30th September 2024)

Abstract: *The Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) represents a considerable risk to domestic and wild carnivore populations globally, notwithstanding the existence of vaccinations. This study examines the significant obstacles in creating successful CDV vaccines, especially regarding virus evolution, immune evasion, cross-species transmission, and vaccine reluctance. This review aims to consolidate existing research on CDV vaccine development, emphasizing emerging technologies, such as nanoparticle and DNA vaccines, and their capacity to address present challenges in immunogenicity and cross-species protection. Through the analysis of recent findings, this review delineates significant gaps in the comprehension of CDV's genetic variety of CDVs, the sustainability of wildlife reservoirs, and the obstacles to attaining extensive vaccination coverage. This review evaluates the influence of public health infrastructure and socioeconomic factors on vaccination distribution and uptake constraints, particularly in developing areas. These findings highlight the significance of a One Health approach, which amalgamates veterinary, wildlife, and public health viewpoints to address CDV epidemics more efficiently. Future research should focus on augmenting vaccine efficacy in non-domestic species, increasing public awareness of immunization initiatives, and creating thermostable vaccines for improved distribution accessibility. This review offers critical insights into the intricacies of the CDV vaccination and presents a framework for enhancing worldwide initiatives to combat this destructive virus.*

Keywords: Canine Distemper Virus, vaccine development, immune evasion, nanoparticle vaccines, cross-species transmission, immunization coverage, One Health approach.

Introduction

Innovation in vaccination for the Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) is essential, yet complex, and has far-reaching effects on domesticated and wild carnivorous mammals. CDV is a contagious virus that is associated with high mortality. It goes beyond household pets because it endangers wild animals, which calls for such vaccination to be in place for health and conservation(1). Even though the population has a vaccine, the continuous occurrence of outbreaks in countries stresses the public's understanding of the virus(2). This review aims to crystallize the existing literature on CDV and understand the challenges related to CDV vaccine development, such as the structure of the Cubed virus, immune system control and transmission nature, and vaccine utilization reluctance.

Research in the last few years carried out in different locations has shown how evasion of the host immune response and genetic variability of CDV pose obstacles to developing effective and universal vaccines (1). As an illustration, new strains of CDV have been found in South

Africa and Europe, and they carry changes that affect the efficiency of the vaccines in use. Although these studies have helped advance the understanding of CDV and host immunity, including its pathology, there is still a huge problem not addressed in these studies(3). Virus immune evasion is particularly prominent in wildlife and immunocompromised animals. Considering viral changes, especially in CDV, the possibility of vaccine effectiveness is essential for determining optimal vaccination measures(4). Overcoming this gap can result in the development of an improved vaccine for CDV, effectively reducing its transmission in domestic and wild populations and protecting the entire ecosystem(5).

This article aims to conduct an inclusive review of the barriers encountered in CDV vaccine development and discuss new tools for this task, especially nanoparticle and DNA vaccines. Considering the literature that this paper draws, it seeks to expose the deficiencies of the present vaccines and determine what can be done to address the problems(6). This review stands out because it explores the

[Citation: Ahmad, M.T., Hashmi, H.A., Hassan, M.U., Khaliq, A., Shah, S.K.A., Maqbool, B., Ejaz, A., Jamil, S., Rehman, M.U., Fraz, A., (2024). Challenges in developing vaccine for canine distemper. *Biol. Clin. Sci. Res. J.*, 2024: 1159. doi: <https://doi.org/10.54112/bcsrj.v2024i1.1159>]

confluence of immunology, cross-species transmission, and public health, and suggests new solutions regarding the limitations of current vaccination models(7). This approach

addresses the identified gap and prepares a launch pad for further studies to devise successful and universally relevant vaccination techniques for CDV.

Table 1: Summary Table for Challenges and Strategies in Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) Vaccine Development

Key Areas	Challenges	Current Approaches	Future Directions
Viral Evolution & Immune Evasion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - CDV genetic diversity complicates vaccine efficacy. - Immune evasion mechanisms undermine host immunity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use of live-attenuated and inactivated vaccines. - Limited recombinant vaccines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Development of vaccines targeting conserved viral proteins. - Research on immune modulation to prevent immune escape.
Cross-Species Transmission	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - CDV spreads between domestic dogs and wildlife reservoirs. - Wildlife populations sustain the virus. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Vaccination programs focusing on domestic animals. - Limited focus on wildlife. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One Health approach integrating veterinary and wildlife conservation. - Targeted vaccination programs for wildlife populations.
Vaccine Efficacy in Non-Domestic Species	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Limited understanding of vaccine safety and efficacy in wildlife and endangered species. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Modified live vaccines (MLVs) show mixed results in wildlife. - Some recombinant vaccines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Field trials for nanoparticle and DNA vaccines in wildlife. - Research into species-specific immune responses to vaccines.
Vaccine Hesitancy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Misinformation among pet owners. - Fear of vaccine side effects leads to low vaccination rates. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Public health campaigns are sparse. - Limited veterinary outreach. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Education campaigns addressing vaccine safety and public health risks. - Increased veterinary involvement in public awareness.
Global Vaccine Distribution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Geographic and socioeconomic barriers in developing regions. - Cold chain and storage limitations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conventional cold chain-dependent vaccine delivery. - Inequitable access to vaccines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Development of thermostable vaccines. - Innovative distribution methods (e.g., drone delivery) for remote areas. - Strengthening of public health infrastructure.

This table presents a comprehensive overview of the obstacles and existing tactics for Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) vaccine development, emphasizing the domains necessitating additional study and innovation. Principal issues encompass viral evolution, interspecies transmission, vaccine efficacy in non-domestic species, vaccine hesitation among pet proprietors, and worldwide vaccine delivery obstacles. Contemporary methods predominantly depend on established immunization technology, with deficiencies in accessing wildlife populations and isolated areas. Future directions highlight the necessity for nanoparticle and DNA vaccines, more comprehensive One Health policies, and mitigating socioeconomic obstacles to enhance immunization coverage, particularly in marginalized regions.

2. Overview of Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) and Vaccine Development

2.1 General Pathogenesis and Viral Structure

Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) is one of the world's most highly contagious viral diseases and is almost always fatal to domestic dogs and wild carnivores. As a member of the Paramyxoviridae family, CDV is a complex, enveloped, single-stranded, negative-sense RNA virus. Nucleoprotein (N), phosphoprotein (P), matrix protein (M), fusion protein (F), hemagglutinin (H), and large polymerase protein (L) are six proteins that are essential structural elements of this virus genome. These structural proteins have essential functions in the ability of the virus to infect host cells, evade the host immune system, and cause significant difficulties in creating vaccines(8). The following figure 1 illustrates the structure of CDV, highlighting the roles of its key structural proteins and their involvement in viral pathogenesis and immune evasion.

[Citation: Ahmad, M.T., Hashmi, H.A., Hassan, M.U., Khaliq, A., Shah, S.K.A., Maqbool, B., Ejaz, A., Jamil, S., Rehman, M.U., Fraz, A., (2024). Challenges in developing vaccine for canine distemper. *Biol. Clin. Sci. Res. J.*, 2024: 1159. doi: <https://doi.org/10.54112/bcsrj.v2024i1.1159>]

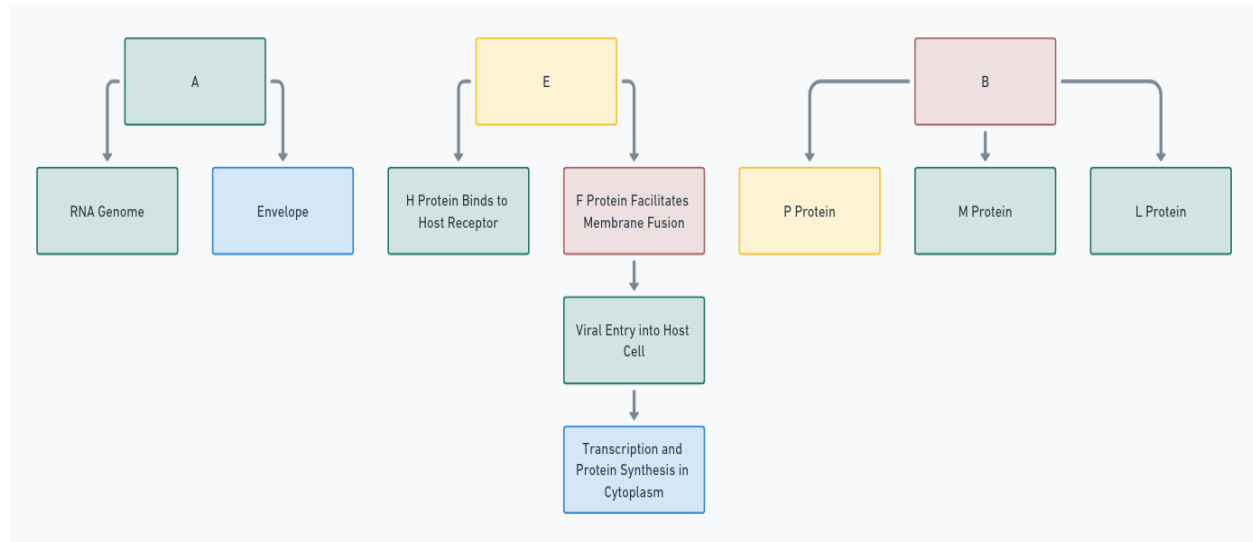


Figure 1: This diagram illustrates the CDV structure, featuring essential components, including the Nucleocapsid (N), RNA genome, envelope, and surface proteins (H and F). The text demonstrates the binding of the H Protein to the host receptor, while the F Protein promotes membrane fusion, resulting in viral entrance into the host cell. The subsequent transcription and protein synthesis phases in the cytoplasm are likewise illustrated.

The CDV envelope is a bilayer of lipids derived from the outer membrane of the host cell, enclosing embedded glycoproteins of the virus H and F types. The H protein is essential for interacting with members of the host cell surface receptor family and rapidly initiating infection(9). Consequently, upon binding to the host cell, the F protein enables the combination of the viral envelope with the host cell membrane, delivering the viral core into the host cell cytoplasm. At this stage, the first stage of reproduction of the virus is completed, which involves the penetration of intercellular negative-stranded RNA (vRNA) into a host cell, which then undergoes transcription into positive-stranded mRNA, allowing for the expression of proteins that are constituent parts of the virus. These structural proteins interact with host cell proteins, which are critical for the invasion or CDV infection of the host immune system(10). By affecting essential cells of the immune system, CDV, for some time, restrains the immune response and causes a generalized infection with a prolonged presence of the virus(9).

The risks posed by CDV's immunosuppressive activities of CDV make it difficult to develop vaccines against CDV. Genetic mutations, particularly in the H and F proteins, may change the specific nature of the virus and affect the effectiveness of hemagglutinin-targeting and fusion-protein-targeting vaccines head-on(11). For instance, antigenic drift, such as small changes in surface proteins of viruses, can cause significant evolution of the viruses due to the generation of viral variants bearing surface proteins unrecognizable by antibodies with an active vaccine. This ability to extravagantly, extraordinarily, and unusually circumvent strategies helps vaccines function in many different situations, so that they last long and are effective against new strains, making it difficult to stimulate their development. In addition, CDV can impair lymphocytes and dendritic cells, decreasing the immune response and making it more difficult for the organism to defend itself effectively(12).

Different strategies, such as live-attenuated, inactivated, and recombinant techniques for developing CDV vaccines, are already in use and have been investigated. Live-attenuated vaccines, which involve a less active infection, prime the immune system successfully, as it is almost like a natural infection by the virus. However, these preparations risk the loss of virulence over time, mainly when used on species that are less tolerant to the disease caused by the vaccine, such as wild carnivores(13). Inactivated vaccines help avoid these problems because they are derived from killed viruses and have reduced side effects. However, they are limited by their lower immunogenicity; hence, many doses are required for optimal protection. These include recombinant vaccines, which provide viral antibodies without using the virus, but instead provide viral proteins or mutant DNA in other viral vectors(14). However, there are many limitations, including the more variable efficiency of the vaccines, and some studies revealed that these 'subunit' complexes provide no better long-lasting immunity than the recombinants(15).

Recently, various future technologies have been evaluated, including nanoparticle-based and mRNA vaccines, which can enhance the durability and immune responses of vaccines. Nanoparticle vaccines provide better delivery and presentation of viral antigens; promisingly, they elicit much stronger and more targeted immune responses(16). More work is required to ensure that these new technologies are able to provide cross-protection for different CDV strains. Genetic changes or genetic drift of the CDV are additional hurdles in developing a single CD vaccine. Therefore, the Development and control of CDV are required through this additional and emerging stem cell therapy technology(17).

2.2 History of CDV Vaccination Strategies

Canine Distemper virus (CDV) is a common viral illness in domesticated dogs and other carnivores, and is generally fatal and highly infectious. Since the 20th century, three

generations of vaccines have been reported: live, killed, and recombinant vaccines. All these types have been used in the fight against CDV, but both have achieved excellent results, simple good results, and safe and immunogenic results(17). The first major revival in the clinical immunization of CDV was accomplished by Nigerian development of live attenuated vaccines, which occurred in the 1950s as shown in figure 2. The vaccinated no longer got the disease, as they had just been given viruses modified to be weaker(18).

Research has demonstrated that the live attenuated vaccine for CDV is highly efficacious in preventing CDV diseases because it encompasses multiclonal immunity against CDV. However, such vaccines are unsafe, especially for immunocompromised animals or species, because the vaccine reverts to pathogenicity and causes disease(19). In one such example, a field description of the lake was done in Africa in wild dogs and death deal ravaged disease subsequently caused by the vaccine(20).

Evolution of CDV Vaccines with Details

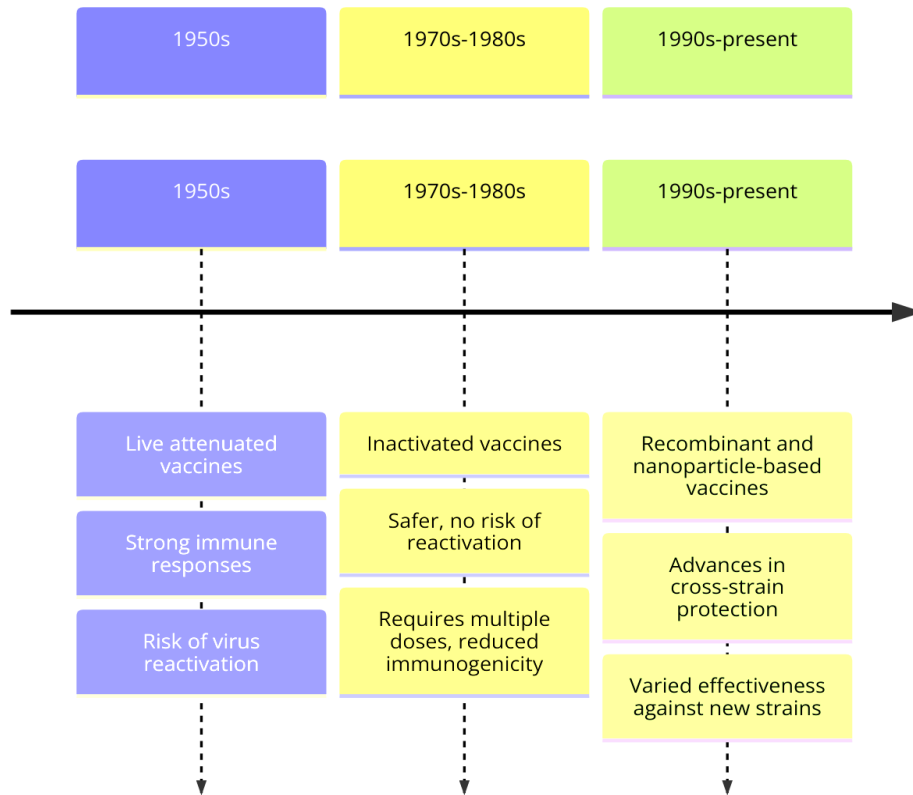


Figure 2:

Figure 2 shows CDV vaccine development occurred over several decades, commencing in the 1950s with live attenuated vaccinations that conferred robust, enduring protection but posed a danger of virus reactivation, particularly in impaired animals. Inactivated vaccines were developed in the 1970s and 1980s, providing a safer option by utilizing killed viruses. However, these need multiple doses due to diminished immunogenicity. Since the 1990s, recombinant and nanoparticle-based vaccinations have developed, employing new technology to enhance cross-strain protection and efficacy; however, issues persist about differential effectiveness among different virus strains.

In the 1970s and the 1980s, inactivated vaccines became safer. Such vaccines are based on the use of killed viruses, which eliminate the risk of reverting. However, they were safer when immunization was concerned but less immunogenic, requiring a long series of them followed by

boosters to retain acquired immunity(21). (22) reported that inactivated vaccines provide only short-term immune responses to some wild canids, necessitating quick re-vaccination. Nevertheless, despite their low risk, the fact that they are not effective in providing long-term immune responses limits their usage. In the 1990s, protein synthesis began by using viral vectors to express genes that encode CDV proteins. These vaccines became more comfortable, as no more live vaccines could reverse to a virulent form(23). Despite this inspired hope, there have been reports of varied responses to vaccines, with some working better than others. For example, (24) surveyed vaccinated populations where the results of cellular immune responses were different, indicating that modifications are needed. Owing to the alteration in the genomes of the circulating strains of the canine distemper virus and the appearance of vaccine-resistant variants, the difficulties associated with

[Citation: Ahmad, M.T., Hashmi, H.A., Hassan, M.U., Khaliq, A., Shah, S.K.A., Maqbool, B., Ejaz, A., Jamil, S., Rehman, M.U., Fraz, A., (2024). Challenges in developing vaccine for canine distemper. *Biol. Clin. Sci. Res. J.*, 2024: 1159. doi: <https://doi.org/10.54112/bcsrj.v2024i1.1159>]

creating a CDV vaccine have only increased(25). Recent attempts have focused on blood-created immunity enhancement with the help of constructs associating different vaccine strategies with new technologies, including vaccines based on nanoparticles. These advances aim to extend the breadth of protection against the disease in non-target populations, which, in case studies, seeks to improve the safety of high-risk wildlife populations in ongoing research(16).

3. Challenges in Immune Response and Vaccine Efficacy

3.1 Immune Evasion Mechanisms and Vaccine Response

Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) is an infectious disease agent that minimizes the chance of being targeted. Therefore, the inability to develop a CDV vaccine is a challenge. As already pointed out, CDV focuses on using standard and immunological defense mechanisms in the host, especially vertebrate hosts(1). It is vital to appreciate the existence of these immune evasion strategies to devise effective vaccines for sustained protection(26).

The host immune system is primarily targeted by CDV, which consistently attacks and inhibits somatic cell transducing signal pathways, cadherins, and the type I interferon (IFN) signalling pathway, which is vital for one's innate immune response to pathogen invasion(27). CDV proteins (such as the V and C proteins) and other methods can also inhibit the activities of IRF factors that induce antiviral factors, such as interferons known as IRFs(27) as shown in figure 3. Therefore, since non-productive synthesis of interferons does not occur, fuel starvation could take place, thus providing an optimal environment for multiple virus particle 'uneducated' replication. The interruption proved vital for quickly embedding the couple from the other within one host (28). In addition to causing havoc with the primary immune response, CDV negatively affects adaptive immunity by targeting lymphocytes. The virus further induces T and B cell apoptosis, resulting in lymphopenia and poor host immune response. This immune suppression facilitates not only the persistence of CDV but also exposes patients to secondary infections, which makes the disease even more challenging to control(29). Recent studies, including (3), indicate that this immune suppression potentiates vaccine development problems by inducing potent adaptive immune responses.

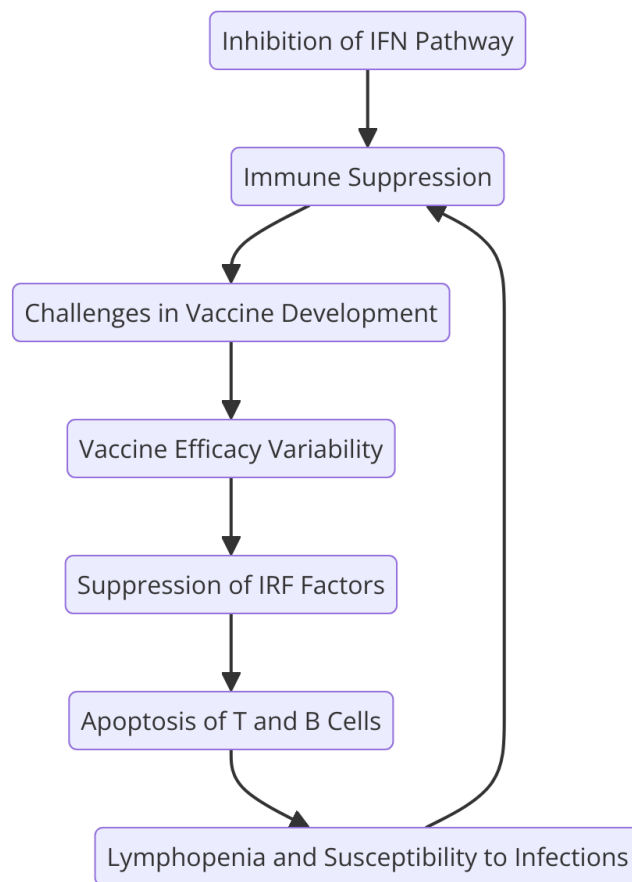


Figure 3

This cycle diagram (Figure 3) depicts the immune evasion techniques utilized by CDV, including the inhibition of the IFN pathway, suppression of IRF factors, and induction of death in T and B cells. These effects result in immunological suppression, posing obstacles to vaccine development and contributing to diversity in vaccine efficiency among

various species or breeds. The cycle underscores the persistent interconnection among these elements, complicating the attainment of effective vaccination responses. Concerns regarding the efficacy of CDV vaccines also include differences in immune responses depending on the

[Citation: Ahmad, M.T., Hashmi, H.A., Hassan, M.U., Khaliq, A., Shah, S.K.A., Maqbool, B., Ejaz, A., Jamil, S., Rehman, M.U., Fraz, A., (2024). Challenges in developing vaccine for canine distemper. *Biol. Clin. Sci. Res. J.*, 2024: 1159. doi: <https://doi.org/10.54112/bcsrj.v2024i1.1159>]

species or breed of dog. For instance, Siberian Huskies seem to have a compromised humoral immune response to vaccination, possibly because of breed-specific or physiological factors. Such variations in immune responses to CDV infection or vaccines have challenged the development of a single vaccine for all dog breeds(30). Some animals are composed of average genetic, anatomical, or physiological factors, but their wild counterparts, African hunting dogs, are said to be different(29). To overcome mass immunization, researchers want to examine the use of mucosal vaccines to enhance vaccine efficacy by supplementation with adjuvants. Initial studies have shown success, especially in inducing better immune responses, in species with lower vaccine acceptance(21). Nonetheless, CDV has immune evasion mechanisms that have proven to be a significant medical challenge for achieving broad-range vaccine efficacy across various regions(1).

3.2 Maternal Antibodies and Vaccine Challenges in Neonates:

Female animals provide passive immunity to their fetuses through maternal immunoglobulins, which can also be transferred to their offspring through the colostrum(31). In other words, it challenges effective Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) vaccination in neonates. As these antibodies can neutralize the vaccine virus, the protective immune response of the puppy is not activated(32). As such, even when it is clarified that they are vaccinated and have high maternal antibodies, puppies are still likely to succumb to CDV infection, as the vaccine does not confer sufficient immunity (19, 32).

Due to the rabies vaccine, the main soft puppies can receive after these maternal antibodies have been abated from 12 to 16 weeks of age(32). Larson and Schultz (2006) demonstrated that waiting for 16 weeks to vaccinate considerably improved success rates because maternal antibodies were low enough for an adequate immune response. However, choosing this delaying strategy makes puppies vulnerable during the first 6-8 weeks of their lives, with a high day risk of infection. In this context, many vaccination protocols have been suggested, in which puppies are initially vaccinated at the age of six to eight weeks, followed by several doses at intervals of two-four weeks up to the age of 16 weeks. This approach aims to elicit a sufficient level of immunity against infection before the levels of maternal antibodies decline, thereby shortening the vulnerable phase(33). Vila Nova, Cunha (34) showed that this protocol enhanced the immunity of different breeds of dogs.

Some studies have also utilized 'combination' vaccines of live-attenuated and inactivated strains. Regarding inactivated and adjuvant vaccines, the use of inactivated vaccines decreases the likelihood of neutralization by the maternal antibody and can be adjusted with attenuated vaccines for a better immune response(35). A study conducted by Gu, Plotkin (36) noted that seroconversion rates were higher when combination vaccines were used in puppies in comparison with a single vaccine type. Considerably, the focus has also been on the application of adjuvants, other innovations, and even intranasal vaccination in an attempt to overcome the state of immunosuppression seen in puppies in the presence of maternal antibodies. These developmental features have the

potential to reduce maternal antibody incongruence while providing timely and efficient protection(37).

4. Emerging Vaccine Technologies and Immunogenicity Enhancement

4.1 Nanoparticle and DNA Vaccines in CDV Immunization:

Developing vaccine approaches, especially new nanoparticle and DNA vaccines, can significantly improve the immunogenicity of Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) vaccines. These approaches aim to induce even more robust and longer-lasting immunity than conventional vaccines, thereby lowering the risk of CDV infection(15). These vaccines employ nanoparticles to enhance the delivery and presentation of antigens to the immune system. Because of their reduced size and increased surface area, antigen-presenting cells can effectively absorb nanoparticles, resulting in a more robust humoral and cell-mediated immune response(6). Moreover, a recent study by Zhang, Zhu (38) reported that nanoparticle-based CDV vaccines stimulated more neutralizing antibodies and T-cell responses than traditional vaccines did. This proves that nanoparticles can be used to enhance the efficacy of vaccines by broadening immune responses and improving durability(39).

Another new method, the delivery of DNA vaccines, has its ideal benefits because the genetic material of the CDV is delivered directly into the host cells, where the viral antigens are synthesized. This phenomenon evokes both major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I and MHC class II pathways, triggering a broad immune response(40). Vaccine strategies that employ the transgene incorporating the CDV vector also activate cytotoxic T lymphocytes, a T cell type that kills CDV-infected cells(41). In their work, Chen, Chen (42) focused on CDV DNA vaccines in particular, and showed that the level of immune cytokines elicited *in vivo* in vaccinated dogs was more substantial than that of conventional vaccines, stimulating T-cell activation. The advantages of these new vaccine types, nanoparticles, and DNA vaccines are not limited to enhancing their immunogenicity. Such nanoparticles can be a more effective form of specific therapy than naked DNA viruses with a single CDV antigen(40). In addition, designing and producing DNA vaccines is straightforward, enabling rapid and efficient production to scale during outbreaks. Such concerns would make them much more appealing to future CDV vaccination(43). Current research trends in nanoparticle and DNA vaccines suggest that a wider application of these methods in veterinary medicine is within reach. However, more trials are warranted to determine the longevity of the efficacy and safety of vaccines in various populations of dogs(44). As these technologies develop hands-over in the future, they are likely to improve the performance of CDV vaccines to protect against long-lasting viruses(34).

4.2 Role of Adjuvants in Improving Vaccine Efficacy:

Adjuvants, such as oil-based formulations, improve the performance of CDV vaccines, particularly with regard to immunogenicity. These factors act in a manner that boosts the body's first-line defense, the innate immune system, and subsequently promotes adaptive immunity in the body,

which in turn results in increased antibody synthesis, better cellular immunity, and longer-term memory of the immune system(3).

Apart from potential usage in veterinary vaccines for CDV, oil-based adjuvants like mineral oils and squalene are somewhat due to their ability to sustain antigen presentation by inducing a local inflammatory reduction and promoting antigen uptake by antigen-presenting cells(45). With oil-based adjuvants, extending protection over vaccines without adjuvants for longer periods is possible, as more sustained immune responses are generated. These adjuvants also maintain the depot effect, an increase in the disease for which the antigen is exposed to the immune system for an extended period for persuasion(46).

However, oil-based adjuvants are only partially free of problems. Several authors have reported local adverse effects, such as the appearance of injection site granulomas and inflammation, and systemic adverse effects, such as fever(47). For instance, (48) found that, although cancer oil adjuvants boost immune responses in dogs, they are more likely to cause injection site reactions than alum adjuvants. This shows that it is essential to strike a balance between enhanced immunogenicity and reduction of adverse effects(45). Consequently, emulsion-based or polymeric nanoparticle adjuvant strategies, or even newer ones, have been investigated to ensure a robust immune response but limited reactogenicity(49). Ou, Baillet (50) performed comparative studies using CDV vaccines formulated with nanoparticle-based and conventional adjuvants and noted

that higher doses and more robust T-cell responses were elicited. These new systems encourage the withdrawal of unwanted side effects without compromising the vaccine's efficacy, especially when starting medicine(39).

5. Cross-Species Transmission and Wildlife Vaccination Programs

5.1 Cross-Species Transmission and Wildlife Reservoirs

Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) presents major issues, mainly because it exhibits interspecies distance-bridging properties, especially between domestic dogs and wildlife as shown in figure 4. The virus affects many carnivores, including wolves, foxes, and raccoons, which usually serve as wildlife hosts. Some of these animals can retain the virus without illness; therefore, CDV remains concealed in the environment, threatening the rabid dog population(51). CDV spreads among host species through direct contact and sharing of resources, such as food, water, or inhalable elevations(1). One well-publicized outbreak during testing in the 1990s among Serengeti lions, thought to have been caused by pet dogs, raises the issue of wildlife turning prisoner reservoirs. Such outbreaks illustrate how wildlife reservoirs can threaten preventive strategies based on domestic vaccination by re-infecting previously unvaccinated or partially vaccinated domestic populations with the virus (3).

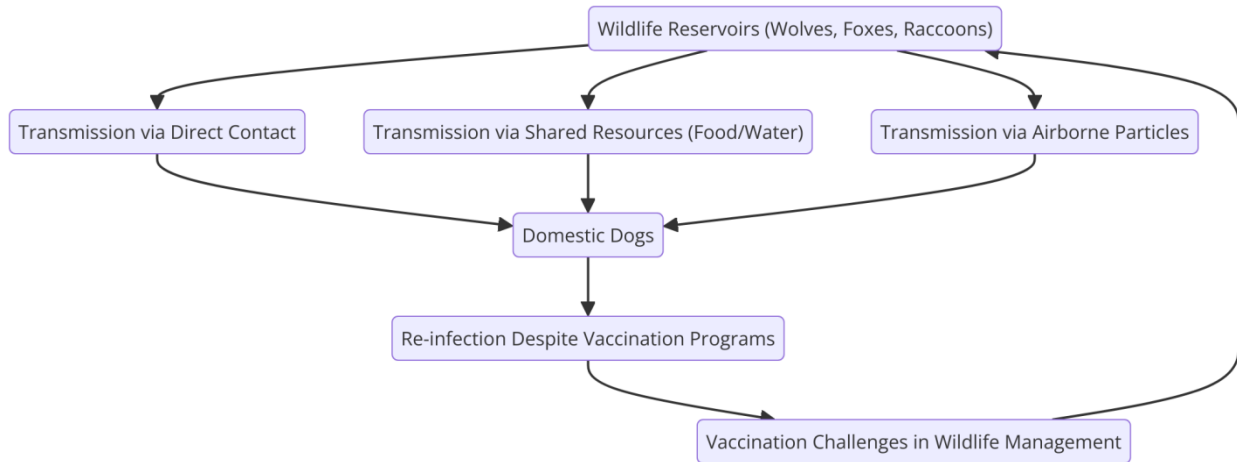


Figure 4:

The figure 4 illustrate the transmission of CDV between domestic and wild species, highlighting the function of wildlife as asymptomatic carriers and the persistent threat they present to unvaccinated or partially vaccinated canine populations. It will also elucidate the complexities of managing the disease via targeted immunization initiatives in wildlife and domestic animals.

Managing the control of CDV in mixed systems with wildlife and domestic animals is challenging. The first step in the vaccination of domestic dogs is essential, as it prevents domestic dogs from shedding the disease virus(19). However, even if domestic dogs are immunized, the virus may continue to spread among wild animals. Although targeted wildlife vaccination has been deployed in some areas, it remains a daunting challenge politically and logistically(52). For instance, oral bait vaccines meant for

wild carnivores have undertaken fair skill in addressing CDV in foxes (1). Nevertheless, wildlife vaccination has the disadvantage of being expensive and time-consuming because of the need for unique delivery systems and monitoring intensity of monitoring(53).

Increased biosecurity interventions and disease surveillance are required to control CDV. High levels of infected quarantine empathy can contain domestic and wild species during outbreak(51). Wildlife health surveillance is also important for controlling CDV, as it is critical for outbreak response and early detection. In looking at the epidemiology of the disease, uncontrolled infection of the CDV virus from host to host brought forth wild animals calls for a more pluralistic vision(5). Focusing on wildlife as a potential source of CDV and improving cross-border cooperation between veterinarians, wildlife biologists, and public health

[Citation: Ahmad, M.T., Hashmi, H.A., Hassan, M.U., Khaliq, A., Shah, S.K.A., Maqbool, B., Ejaz, A., Jamil, S., Rehman, M.U., Fraz, A., (2024). Challenges in developing vaccine for canine distemper. *Biol. Clin. Sci. Res. J.*, 2024: 1159. doi: <https://doi.org/10.54112/bcsrj.v2024i1.1159>]

agencies will help to formulate better control measures and management of CDV among domestic and wild animals(54).

5.2 Vaccination Challenges in Endangered Species

The development of vaccines for endangered species, such as the Canine Distemper Virus (CDV), raises a range of moral and practical issues that conservationists must address to foster the efficient protection of the species. CDV is a highly contagious and deadly virus that places at-risk endangered flesh-eating animals, including lions and Amur tiger(51). Despite this, there are also issues related to the conflict of human interference in the wildlife subject and the worry about unforeseen repercussions on the ecological balance(2).

By the same token, in response to each, it should also be emphasized what is to protect individual animals and their populations from diseases and what is to interfere with 'natural processes.' An advantage of this nature includes, for instance, the protection of endangered predatory animal populations from or supply of practical means of disease catastrophe management – CDV vaccines and flash introduction(55). Relations within user groups are rarely primary. The challenge in immunizing against CDV has been, and remains, to introduce vaccines to endangered populations. The controversy is well encapsulated in handling the 1990s Serengeti outbreak of the canine distemper virus introduced by domestic dogs, or whether wildlife management has to warrant such vaccination efforts, as in other cases (1).

In practice, administration of vaccines to endangered species is often difficult. Seeking out and immunizing in wild, elusive animals, such as elephants and rhinoceros, pose risks and require considerable resources. In some instances, vaccination with wildlife has been practised effectively, as seen in the case of the Black-footed Ferrets of North America, where targeted vaccination helped avert the outbreak of A viral infection that would have wiped out the population (56). In contrast, certain undertakings, such as vaccinating wild carnivores in Africa, have been disappointed due to logistical factors and vaccine concerns. Issues concerning the safety and efficacy of vaccines developed for Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) also influence immunization programs in animal species that are not domesticated(57). Modified live vaccines (MLV) have been successful, especially in domestic dogs, but immunization with endangered species carries some risks. This includes using MLV in African wild dogs, where severe MLV-mediated vaccine side effects made specific conservators hesitant to use vaccines(58). Researchers are oriented towards more effective but safer options, such as recombinant or inactivated vaccines that would have directed protection without reversion to virulence(28).

6. Public Health Implications and Vaccine Distribution

6.1 Vaccine Hesitancy and Public Health Risks

People's reluctance to vaccinate their pets remains a crucial concern in public health institutions, and threatens CDV vaccination campaigns. Outbreaks of canine distemper virus (CDV) can occur due to gaps in immunization coverage,

misinformation, and concerns about vaccine safety(51). Such hesitancy must be understood, strategized, and reversed, as this concerns the safety of both animals and humanity. Misinformation, especially on social networks and the Internet, has aggravated the fear of vaccination(59). According to Sogbesan, Bakare (60), nearly one in four pet owners refuses the CDV vaccine because of concerns they read online about vaccine safety. However, the scientific evidence does not support these concerns. Such misinformation makes some pet owners not see the need to have their pets vaccinated, thereby lowering immunization rates(61).

Another reason for vaccine hesitancy is the lack of adverse effects. While many vaccines, such as CDV, are clearly safe, some pet owners are still hesitant because of possible adverse outcomes such as allergies or autoimmune disorders(61). An example is a survey conducted by Motta, Motta (62), in which 20% of pet owners indicated that they delayed or refused vaccinations for their pets because of safety issues, which are often exaggerated. Refusal of vaccination affects the animals in question and has public health implications. Non-vaccinated pets may harbor CDV, making it difficult to control the disease in other animals, including wild ones(62). In a notable case, vaccine hesitancy was linked to a CDV outbreak in a community in the US, whereby since the immunization coverage for domestic dogs was low, the canine distemper virus was transmitted to resident wildlife populations (62).

Vaccine hesitancy can be reduced through specific education programs and partnerships with veterinarians. As Chirico, Ferrari (56) reported, pet owners educated about vaccine safety through information provided by their veterinary practitioners were 40% more likely to vaccinate their pets. Other policy options, such as compulsory vaccination against rabies as a condition for dog ownership or more stringent vaccination guidelines before boarding pets in facilities, should also be considered, as they have been noted to enhance vaccination uptake rates (61).

6.2 Global Vaccination Programs and Immunization Coverage:

Canine Distemper Virus (CDV) is a severe infectious disease that primarily affects carnivores including domesticated dogs and other animals. Some attempts at vaccination campaigns against CDV have already been made, but they are limited by the distribution of vaccines and immunization coverage, especially in underdeveloped regions(51). Sufficient information is available to indicate that socioeconomic status, geographic location, and lack of health system support all influence the effectiveness of these campaigns. Typically, higher coverage and effectiveness of CDV vaccination programs are recorded in developed nations because of the developed systems of veterinary care, means of transport, and public health policies(63). However, there are still gaps in these rates, especially in rural or low-income areas, where they are generally lower. According to Chirico, Ferrari (56), vaccination coverage was reported to be as high as 85% in America's urban centers and only 60% in rural America, citing wealth inequalities, even in wealthier countries.

On the other hand, effective vaccination programs are rare in developing regions because of a lack of funds, poor

infrastructure, and weak public health systems. For instance, in the case of Sub-Saharan Africa, CDV outbreaks, which are the Canine Distemper virus strains that have emerged in Africa, are due to low vaccination rates of pets, as a small percentage of domestic dogs, no more than 30-40 per cent, are vaccinated (3). Regions like these face cultural and religious barriers, education gaps, and government skepticism that impede vaccination. Other factors, such as distance to facilities and difficulty on roads in poor countries, hardly ease the burden of vaccine distribution of vaccines(64). In developing countries, where electricity can be erratic or non-existent, preserving the vaccines in the cold chain's required temperature during transfer and when keeping them is challenging. Because of these practical problems, some proposals, such as the use of thermostable vaccines or developed drone systems for delivery, have emerged(4). In Tanzania, drones are used to deliver vaccines to remote areas. As such, a 15 per cent increase in vaccination was noted because of increased coverage where CDV vaccines were previously lacking (65).

It is important to note that tackling these global disparities involves more than one strategy and calls for adequate funding for the healthcare system, better veterinary services, and focused community education efforts(1). Concerted efforts by government, international, and local organizations are necessary to address these hindrances and equitably distribute vaccines(28). Equitable access to vaccines can eliminate the socioeconomic, geographical, and infrastructural barriers that inhibit CDV vaccination programs, thereby achieving the goal of immunizing the world against this dreadful disease(66).

Conclusion

This review has covered the necessary aspects of the problems and successes related to immunization against Canine Distemper Virus (CDV), focusing on vaccine development, vaccine uptake, vaccine and disease distribution, and vaccine and disease cross-species transmission. The primary conclusion is that although CDV vaccines are manufactured. In circulation, many – the virus's immune escape strategies, the genetic variations of the viral strains, and the wild animal reservoirs–negate the benefits of these vaccinations. In addition to cross-species transmission and vaccine hesitancy that pose challenges to disease control, especially among susceptible and endangered species, emerging technologies such as nanoparticles and DNA vaccines appear to augment the immunogenicity of vaccines. The broader significance of these findings is that, even if some progress has been made concerning vaccines and strategies to help control the disease, great multi-sectoral efforts are required to implement vaccination programs effectively. Managing the consequences of the One Health approach has brought together veterinary public health, wildlife health and management, and human health. Furthermore, pet owners' vaccine awareness considerations are paramount if better vaccination rates are to be realized. Higher vaccination rates indicate that both pets and wildlife are protected. This literature review offers various contributions to the existing gaps in the literature. Very few studies have evaluated the long-term effectiveness and safety of new vaccine

technologies in species other than domestic animals, and further research is necessary on these vaccines in various settings. Furthermore, there is a gap in understanding how wildlife reservoirs contribute to the cycles of CDV transmission, especially in areas of wildlife-human conflict. Although such initiatives have begun, a more systematic examination is needed to ascertain the social and behavioral factors that inform vaccination uptake, given the initiatives to mitigate vaccine hesitancy that have commenced. The improvement of methods for assessing the safety and efficacy of nanoparticles and DNA vaccines is a priority and should be applied in real field trials, focusing particularly on high-risk wildlife populations. Understanding the evolution of CDV in geographic regions provides an opportunity to understand how vaccines should be designed to address the particular strains found in a particular community. In addition, there is a need for more systematic public health efforts to address vaccine hesitancy and behavioral science research to resolve vaccine uptake if it is to improve worldwide. The limitations of this review may include the selection of the literature analyzed, which might have missed some rising studies and specific aspects of the region in question. In addition, there might be interpretation bias in the findings due to differences in the reviewed studies, such as methodology and data quality. These weaknesses highlight the need for more in-depth and better-targeted investigations to understand the difficulties associated with the CDV vaccination. In conclusion, the results of this review focus on the central issues related to the control of CDV and the importance of vaccination for at-risk animals. Furthermore, with the progressive trend of this research, there is adequate room for vaccine improvement and better public health measures targeting relevant problems. Animal and human health impacts can be ameliorated through synergistic measures in more intensive research to resolve existing knowledge gaps and improve canine distemper vaccination coverage of pet dogs.

References

1. Karki M, Rajak KK, Singh RPJV. Canine morbillivirus (CDV): a review on current status, emergence and the diagnostics. 2022;33(3):309-21.
2. Mattiuzzi C, Lippi GJC. Long COVID: an epidemic within the pandemic. MDPI; 2023. p. 773-6.
3. Ji Y, Yaseen F, Sohail MJFiP. Life orientation and psychological distress in COVID recovered patients-the role of coping as a mediator. 2022;13:997844.
4. Sadarangani M, Marchant A, Kollmann TRJNRI. Immunological mechanisms of vaccine-induced protection against COVID-19 in humans. 2021;21(8):475-84.
5. Echeverry-Bonilla DF, Buritica-Gaviria EF, Orjuela-Acosta D, Chinchilla-Cardenas DJ, Ruiz-Saenz JJV. The First Report and Phylogenetic Analysis of Canine Distemper Virus in *Cercopithecus* thous from Colombia. 2022;14(9):1947.
6. Nguyen B, Tolia NHJnV. Protein-based antigen presentation platforms for nanoparticle vaccines. 2021;6(1):70.
7. Polykretis P, Donzelli A, Lindsay JC, Wiseman D, Kyriakopoulos AM, Mörz M, et al. Autoimmune inflammatory reactions triggered by the COVID-19 genetic vaccines in terminally differentiated tissues. 2023;56(1):2259123.
8. Beyer DK, Forero AJJomb. Mechanisms of antiviral immune evasion of SARS-CoV-2. 2022;434(6):167265.
9. Moreira P, Sequeira AM, Pereira S, Rodrigues R, Rocha M, Lousa DJapa. ViralFP: A webserver of viral fusion proteins. 2021.

10. Kasuga Y, Zhu B, Jang K-J, Yoo J-SJE, medicine m. Innate immune sensing of coronavirus and viral evasion strategies. 2021;53(5):723-36.
11. Porto PS, Anjos D, Dabilla N, da Fonseca SG, Souza MJL, Genetics, Evolution. Immunoinformatic construction of an adenovirus-based modular vaccine platform and its application in the design of a SARS-CoV-2 vaccine. 2020;85:104489.
12. Dantzer KW, de la Parte L, Jagannathan PJC, immunology t. Emerging role of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in vaccine-mediated protection from infectious diseases. 2019;8(8):e1072.
13. Rouzine IM, Rozhnova GJCM. Evolutionary implications of SARS-CoV-2 vaccination for the future design of vaccination strategies. 2023;3(1):86.
14. Li X, Liu S, Yin P, Chen KJFii. Enhanced immune responses by virus-mimetic polymeric nanostructures against infectious diseases. 2022;12:804416.
15. Brisse M, Vrba SM, Kirk N, Liang Y, Ly HJFii. Emerging concepts and technologies in vaccine development. 2020;11:583077.
16. Guimaraes LC, Costa PAC, Scalzo Júnior SRA, Ferreira HAS, Braga ACS, de Oliveira LC, et al. Nanoparticle-based DNA vaccine protects against SARS-CoV-2 variants in female preclinical models. 2024;15(1):590.
17. Lee K-W, Yam JWP, Mao XJC. Dendritic cell vaccines: A shift from conventional approach to new generations. 2023;12(17):2147.
18. Zhao J, Ren Y, Chen J, Zheng J, Sun DJV. Viral pathogenesis, recombinant vaccines, and oncolytic virotherapy: applications of the canine distemper virus reverse genetics system. 2020;12(3):339.
19. Rajabimajid N, Alimoradi Z, Griffiths MDJAJoSH, Behavior. Impact of COVID-19-related fear and anxiety on job attributes: a systematic review. 2021;4(2):51-5.
20. Thumbi S, Blumberg L, Le Roux K, Salahuddin N, Abela BJTL. A call to accelerate an end to human rabies deaths. 2022;400(10369):2261-4.
21. Files MA, Kristjansson KM, Rudra JS, Endsley JJJFiiM. Nanomaterials-based vaccines to target intracellular bacterial pathogens. 2022;13:1040105.
22. Lu B, Lim JM, Yu B, Song S, Neeli P, Sobhani N, et al. The next-generation DNA vaccine platforms and delivery systems: Advances, challenges and prospects. 2024;15:1332939.
23. Rojas JM, Sevilla N, Martín V. Chapter Adenovirus as Tools in Animal Health. 2019.
24. Yang D-K, Park Y-R, Kim H-H, Kim E-J, Lee HJ, Hyun B-HJJoB, et al. Biological and Genetic Characterization of Canine Distemper Virus Vaccine Candidate Named as CD1901-100. 2022;52(2):72-81.
25. Rendon-Marin S, da Fontoura Budaszewski R, Canal CW, Ruiz-Saenz JJVj. Tropism and molecular pathogenesis of canine distemper virus. 2019;16:1-15.
26. Kotraiah V, Phares TW, Browne CD, Pannucci J, Mansour M, Noe AR, et al. Novel peptide-based PD1 immunomodulators demonstrate efficacy in infectious disease vaccines and therapeutics. 2020;11:264.
27. Chiang H-S, Liu HMFii. The molecular basis of viral inhibition of IRF-and STAT-dependent immune responses. 2019;9:3086.
28. Swanzey EJMSL. COVID-19 fear and performance of workers: A moderated mediation role of organizational support and mental wellbeing. 2022;12(2):81-8.
29. Costa VGd, Saivish MV, Rodrigues RL, Lima Silva RFd, Moreli ML, Krüger RHJPo. Molecular and serological surveys of canine distemper virus: A meta-analysis of cross-sectional studies. 2019;14(5):e0217594.
30. Decaro N, Buonavoglia C, Barrs VJVm. Canine parvovirus vaccination and immunisation failures: Are we far from disease eradication? 2020;247:108760.
31. Vannucchi CIJRBR. Reposição de colostro no neonato: o que, quando e como administrar? 2022;46(4):360-3.
32. Shams F, Pourtaghi HJVM, Science. Effect of maternally derived antibodies on two commercial vaccines in changes of serum antibody titres against distemper in puppies. 2023;9(2):698-703.
33. Engmann C, Fleming JA, Khan S, Innis BL, Smith JM, Hombach J, et al. Closer and closer? Maternal immunization: current promise, future horizons. 2020;40(6):844-57.
34. Vila Nova B, Cunha E, Sepúlveda N, Oliveira M, São Braz B, Tavares L, et al. Evaluation of the humoral immune response induced by vaccination for canine distemper and parvovirus: a pilot study. 2018;14:1-8.
35. Vermillion MS, Klein SLJnV. Pregnancy and infection: using disease pathogenesis to inform vaccine strategy. 2018;3(1):6.
36. Gu X-X, Plotkin SA, Edwards KM, Sette A, Mills KH, Levy O, et al. Waning immunity and microbial vaccines—workshop of the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases. 2017;24(7):e00034-17.
37. Pereira M, Valério-Bolas A, Saraiva-Marques C, Alexandre-Pires G, Pereira da Fonseca I, Santos-Gomes GJVs. Development of dog immune system: from in uterus to elderly. 2019;6(4):83.
38. Zhang W, Zhu C, Xiao F, Liu X, Xie A, Chen F, et al. PH-controlled release of antigens using mesoporous silica nanoparticles delivery system for developing a fish oral vaccine. 2021;12:644396.
39. Kim C-G, Lee J-C, Ju D-B, Kim S-K, Yun C-H, Cho C-SJTE, et al. Enhancement of immune responses elicited by nanovaccines through a cross-presentation pathway. 2023;20(3):355-70.
40. Lassaunière R, Polacek C, Gram GJ, Frische A, Tingstedt JL, Krüger M, et al. Preclinical evaluation of a candidate naked plasmid DNA vaccine against SARS-CoV-2. 2021;6(1):156.
41. Zareie P, Farenc C, La Gruta NLJVi. MHC restriction: Where are We now? 2020;33(3):179-87.
42. Chen C, Chen A, Yang YJFii. A diversified role for $\gamma\delta$ T cells in vector-borne diseases. 2022;13:965503.
43. Silveira MM, Moreira GMSG, Mendonça MJLs. DNA vaccines against COVID-19: Perspectives and challenges. 2021;267:118919.
44. Celis-Giraldo CT, López-Abán J, Muro A, Patarroyo MA, Manzano-Román RJV. Nanovaccines against animal pathogens: The latest findings. 2021;9(9):988.
45. Broutin M, Costa F, Peltier J, Maye J, Versillé N, Klonjowski BJV. An Oil-Based Adjuvant Improves Immune Responses Induced by Canine Adenovirus-Vectored Vaccine in Mice. 2023;15(8):1664.
46. Rapaka RR, Cross AS, McArthur MAJV. Using adjuvants to drive T cell responses for next-generation infectious disease vaccines. 2021;9(8):820.
47. Villumsen KR, Koppang EO, Raida MKJF, immunology s. Adverse and long-term protective effects following oil-adjuvanted vaccination against *Aeromonas salmonicida* in rainbow trout. 2015;42(1):193-203.
48. Luo X, Song Z, Zeng X, Ye Y, Zheng H, Cai D, et al. A promising self-nanoemulsifying adjuvant with plant-derived saponin D boosts immune response and exerts an anti-tumor effect. 2023;14:1154836.
49. Filipić B, Pantelić I, Nikolić I, Majhen D, Stojić-Vukanić Z, Savić S, et al. Nanoparticle-based adjuvants and delivery systems for modern vaccines. 2023;11(7):1172.
50. Ou BS, Baillet J, Picece VC, Gale EC, Powell AE, Saouaf OM, et al. Nanoparticle-Conjugated Toll-Like Receptor 9 Agonists Improve the Potency, Durability, and Breadth of COVID-19 Vaccines. 2024;18(4):3214-33.
51. Song L, Shan H, Huang JFIVS. Development of HEK293T-produced recombinant receptor-Fc proteins as potential candidates against canine distemper virus. 2023;10:1180673.
52. Ceri V, Cicek IJP, health, medicine. Psychological well-being, depression and stress during COVID-19 pandemic in Turkey: a comparative study of healthcare professionals and non-healthcare professionals. 2021;26(1):85-97.

53. Wallace RM, Cliquet F, Fehlner-Gardiner C, Fooks AR, Sabeta CT, Setién AA, et al. Role of oral rabies vaccines in the elimination of dog-mediated human rabies deaths. 2020;26(12).
54. Vora NM, Hannah L, Walzer C, Vale MM, Lieberman S, Emerson A, et al. Interventions to reduce risk for pathogen spillover and early disease spread to prevent outbreaks, epidemics, and pandemics. 2023;29(3).
55. Clemmons EA, Alfson KJ, Dutton III JWJA. Transboundary animal diseases, an overview of 17 diseases with potential for global spread and serious consequences. 2021;11(7):2039.
56. Chirico F, Ferrari G, Nucera G, Szarpak L, Crescenzo P, Ilesanmi OJJHSS. Prevalence of anxiety, depression, burnout syndrome, and mental health disorders among healthcare workers during the COVID-19 pandemic: a rapid umbrella review of systematic reviews. 2021;6(2):209-20.
57. Annas S, Zamri-Saad MJA. Intranasal vaccination strategy to control the COVID-19 pandemic from a veterinary medicine perspective. 2021;11(7):1876.
58. Mourya DT, Yadav PD, Mohandas S, Kadiwar R, Vala M, Saxena AK, et al. Canine distemper virus in Asiatic lions of Gujarat State, India. 2019;25(11):2128.
59. Nuwarda RF, Ramzan I, Weekes L, Kayser VJV. Vaccine hesitancy: contemporary issues and historical background. 2022;10(10):1595.
60. Sogbesan A, Bakare A, van Wees SH, Salako J, Bakare D, Olojede OE, et al. Exploring COVID-19 Pandemic Perceptions and Vaccine Uptake among Community Members and Primary Healthcare Workers in Nigeria: A Mixed Methods Study. 2024:2024.09.02.24312966.
61. Haeder SFJV. Assessing vaccine hesitancy and support for vaccination requirements for pets and potential spillovers from humans. 2023;41(49):7322-32.
62. Motta M, Motta G, Stecula DJV. Sick as a dog? The prevalence, politicization, and health policy consequences of canine vaccine hesitancy (CVH). 2023;41(41):5946-50.
63. Ledda C, Costantino C, Cuccia M, Maltezou HC, Rapisarda VJJoer, health p. Attitudes of Healthcare Personnel towards Vaccinations before and during the COVID-19 Pandemic. 2021;18(5):2703.
64. Sinumvayo JP, Munezero PC, Tope AT, Adeyemo RO, Bale MI, Nyandwi JB, et al. Advancing Vaccinology Capacity: Education and Efforts in Vaccine Development and Manufacturing across Africa. 2024;12(7).
65. Enayati S, Campbell JF, Li HJvX. Vaccine distribution with drones for less developed countries: A case study in Vanuatu. 2023;14:100312.
66. Kaur GJMM, report mw. Routine vaccination coverage—worldwide, 2022. 2023;72.



Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>. © The Author(s) 2024