

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.36489/saudecoletiva.2021v11i66p6369-6380>

Historical and vulnerability factors associated with transmission of leprosy in Brazil

Factores históricos y de vulnerabilidad asociados con la transmisión de la lepra en Brasil

Fatores históricos e de vulnerabilidades associados a transmissão da hanseníase no Brasil

ABSTRACT

Objective: The study aimed to describe the role of the history of public policies and of vulnerability factors still associated with leprosy transmission in Brazil. **Method:** This is a descriptive study through a bibliographic review based on the search for articles from the last 20 years in databases. **Results:** It was found that biological, clinical, socioeconomic and political factors are still relevant to maintaining high rates and physical disabilities associated with leprosy in the country. **Conclusion:** The authors recommend to achieve the objectives proposed by the World Health Organization for the elimination of leprosy, a multiprofessional approach, with actors from the areas of health, human and exact, in integrated actions between primary care, health surveillance and public policy managers.

DESCRIPTORS: Leprosy; Policy; Vulnerability; Streaming.

RESUMEN

Objetivo: El estudio tuvo como objetivo describir el papel de la historia de las políticas públicas y de los factores de vulnerabilidad aún asociados a la transmisión de la lepra en Brasil. **Método:** Se trata de un estudio descriptivo mediante revisión bibliográfica a partir de la búsqueda de artículos de los últimos 20 años en bases de datos. **Resultados:** Se encontró que los factores biológicos, clínicos, socioeconómicos y políticos siguen siendo relevantes para mantener altas tasas y discapacidades físicas asociadas a la lepra en el país. **Conclusión:** Los autores recomiendan lograr los objetivos propuestos por la Organización Mundial de la Salud para la eliminación de la lepra, un enfoque multiprofesional, con actores de las áreas de salud, humana y exacta, en acciones integradas entre atención primaria, vigilancia de la salud y gestores de políticas públicas.

DESCRIPTORES: Lepra; Política; Vulnerabilidad; Transmisión.

RESUMO

Objetivo: O estudo teve como objetivo descrever o papel da história de políticas públicas e de fatores de vulnerabilidade ainda associados à transmissão da hanseníase no Brasil. **Método:** Trata-se de um estudo descritivo através de revisão bibliográfica a partir de busca de artigos dos últimos 20 anos em bases de dados. **Resultados:** Verificou-se que fatores biológicos, clínicos, socioeconômicos e políticos ainda encontram-se sendo relevantes para manutenção de elevados índices e de incapacidades físicas associados à hanseníase no país. **Conclusão:** Os autores recomendam para atingir os objetivos propostos pela Organização Mundial de Saúde de eliminação da hanseníase, uma abordagem multiprofissional, com atores das áreas de saúde, humanas e exatas, em ações integradas entre a atenção básica, vigilância em saúde e gestores de políticas públicas.

DESCRIPTORIOS: Hanseníase; Lepra; Política; Vulnerabilidade; Transmissão.

RECEIVED ON: 01/06/2021 APPROVED ON: 02/18/2021

Mariana Montalvão Silvestre

Graduated in medicine at the Federal University of Western Bahia. Collaborator in the research group Infectious and Parasitic Diseases (DIP).

ORCID: 0000-0003-0724-9055

Fernanda Rebouças Pereira

Student of the undergraduate medical course at the Federal University of Western Bahia. Collaborator in the research group Infectious and Parasitic Diseases (DIP).

ORCID: 0000-0003-3652-8635

Rafael Attiê Pennacchi

Student of the undergraduate medical course at the Federal University of Western Bahia.
ORCID: 0000-0003-4983-9475

Arlindo Gomes de Macêdo Junior

Graduated in Biomedicine at the State University of Santa Cruz - UESC. Master and PhD in Applied Immunology and Parasitology at the Federal University of Uberlândia - UFU. He is currently Adjunct Professor C at the Federal University of Western Bahia and coordinator of the Infectious and Parasitic Diseases (DIP) research group.
ORCID: 0000-0002-3731-3428

INTRODUCTION

Leprosy is a highly disabling disease and still stigmatized by its history from past centuries.¹ Worldwide, more than 200,000 new cases are detected annually, with India, Brazil and Indonesia accounting for about 80% of all new cases.²

Leprosy presents with a clinical picture that varies from person to person, with the main manifestations: the presence of one or more hypochromic, hyperchromic or erythematous spots; paresthesias at the injury site; papules, tubers and nodules; thickening of the nerves and pain, loss of sensation and/or strength in the affected nerve areas.^{1,3,4}

Brazil is the country with the highest incidence and prevalence of leprosy in the world and the only one among the 35 countries of the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) that has not yet eliminated it as a public health problem.⁵ In 2018, 28,660 new cases were registered in Brazil, 13,73% of all new cases detected in the world and 92,6% of cases detected in the Americas. Of these, approximately 8,5% were detected with grade 2 deformity.⁶

Due to the great extent of Brazil, it is known that leprosy is heterogeneously distributed among states and municipalities, with regions with similar health standards to those of developed countries and regions with mortality rates similar to those of the poorest countries in the southern hemisphere.^{7,8}

In addition to the territorial size, different factors are associated with the transmission of leprosy in Brazil, and it is important to carry out studies to characterize the vulnerability profiles involved

in its transmission and the history of public policies for its confrontation in the country.

METHOD

The article is a descriptive study through bibliographic review. The research was carried out in the Scielo (Scientific Electronic Library Online) and Pubmed databases using the descriptors: leprosy AND politics AND Brazil; leprosy AND transmission AND Brazil, in Portuguese and English. As an inclusion criterion, it was established that the articles should be complete, published in the last 20 years in indexed journals, present discussions about factors involved in leprosy vulnerability and control in Brazil and be written in Portuguese or English. During the reading process, the main factors were pointed out to answer the guiding question: which vulnerability factors are still involved with leprosy transmission in Brazil? In order to assess the role of the policies involved in the leprosy scenario in the country, the main public coping actions have been historically raised during the last years. During the reading process, the main factors were identified to answer the guiding question: what are the vulnerability factors are still involved with leprosy transmission in Brazil? In order to assess the role of the policies involved in the leprosy scenario in the country, the main public actions of confrontation have been raised historically during the last years.

RESULTS

After a critical evaluation by the authors, the data found in the notes were

gathered and the main information was synthesized in text format. According to the literature analysis, the data will be presented according to the main biological, clinical and epidemiological, geographic, socioeconomic and political factors involved in the continuity of leprosy prevalence in Brazil.

Biological factors

Considering the parasite-host relationship, only 5% of individuals in contact with the pathogen are susceptible to leprosy. As the variability of *M. leprae* is low, the genetic profile and polarization of the host's immune response are crucial in combating the pathogen.^{9,10,11} Alterations in the *PARK2*, *IL-10* and *LTA* genes and in the coding variations of *TLR1* and *SLC11A1* are examples of an association with leprosy per se as they reduce the production of *IL-6* and *CCL2* in macrophages.¹²

In 2009, the genome-wide association of leprosy (GWAS), described the main genes involved in the response to leprosy 13, the main ones being the *NOD2* and *LACC1* routes. The *NOD2* receptor recognizes the dipeptide muramyl and signals the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines necessary for antimicrobial activity.^{13,14} *LACC1* interacts directly with *NOD2*, producing species reactive to oxygen and producing pro-inflammatory cytokines. Polymorphisms in *LACC1* are a risk factor due to reduced signaling via *LACC1-NOD2*.¹⁵ Another example is the *HLA-A*28* gene, related to the dimorphic and virchowian clinical form.¹⁶ Other polymorphisms associated with the beginning of polarization for clinical forms are still being investigated.¹⁷ Related to the pathogen, changes in the *M.*

leprae tetratricopeptide (TTC) may be contributing to resistance to polychemotherapy.^{18,19}

Clinical and epidemiological factors

Leprosy is more prevalent in men than in women and they are at a higher risk of being diagnosed with grade two physical disability.²⁰ Among the factors involved are the delay in seeking health services and the lack of more programs aimed at men's health, and the chance of not adhering to treatment is three times greater than that of women.^{20,21}

When drawing the epidemiological profile in Brazil, Veloso et al., 2018, revealed the indeterminate form as the least frequent, being justified by the difficulty of diagnosis as it has a low number of injuries.²²

In Brazil, the most affected age group is the economically active, with an indirect impact on the economy, especially when the diagnosis is late and the individual already has physical disabilities.²² The failure to perform sputum smear microscopy or its non-notification, reveals that it is still a neglected examination in the diagnosis and classification of leprosy.^{8,23} WHO has established that efforts to reach the 2020 targets must focus on timely detection of cases before disabilities occur, especially with the examination of collectives.²⁴

Inadequate treatment is an important risk factor for disease transmission, as multibacillary patients continue to transmit the bacteria. The relapse of the disease can occur years after the irregular and/or ineffective polychemotherapy, with the possible appearance of strains resistant to treatment, constituting a risk to society.¹

Reaction episodes, which may appear before, during or after treatment, are found in 30 to 50% of individuals. In 2015, approximately 5,5% of new cases in Brazil were detected grade 2 deformity, with serious injuries that compromise the functionality of the affected limb or organ and 67,86% were multibacillary.²

The degree of physical disability is indirectly related to the population's lack of information about the disease's clinic, the

time between the disease and its diagnosis and the lack of access to services with professionals trained to detect leprosy early. 5,7% of people who discover they have leprosy in Brazil, already have sensitive and / or motor injuries that could have been avoided.²⁵ Thus, the degree of disability is an indicator for assessing the effectiveness of early diagnosis and people's adherence to treatment.²⁶ It is recommended that health managers be aware of possible increases in multibacillaries and the number of treatment dropouts and physical disabilities.

Social and economic factors

Socioeconomic conditions have a great influence on the distribution and spread of leprosy, with a close relationship with precarious housing conditions, low education and income and with migratory movements.^{27,28}

The home transmission of leprosy is associated with a 2,9 to 5,0 times greater risk when you already have a case in the family.²⁹ As transmission occurs through the airways through intimate contact, prolonged contact with an individual with high numbers of bacilli and untreated predisposes to contagion.³⁰ Housing with a large number of people in the same environment is a vulnerability factor for the maintenance of the bacillus transmission chain.^{1,31,32}

The high rate of cases in individuals with low education is an indirect marker of precarious self-care.^{1,29,32} Formal education provides knowledge about health needs, seeking medical assistance and greater access to health services.³³ The high level of education has already been identified as a protective factor against leprosy and to complete the polychemotherapy scheme.^{32,34}

Leprosy also has a profound relationship with migratory movements, since they facilitate the spread of the disease²⁷, being important actions integrated in primary care for the screening of possible cases of infections, reception and monitoring of families arising from migratory effects in their territories.

Geographic factors

With the great extent of Brazil, leprosy is heterogeneously distributed, with regions with health standards similar to those of developed countries and regions with mortality rates similar to those of the poorest countries in the southern hemisphere.^{8,35} The highest prevalence coefficient is in the Midwest, North and Northeast, traditionally considered to be socio-economically unfavorable regions.³⁶ The South and Southeast region, on the other hand, have a lower prevalence rate and a high cure rate.⁸

In this context, geoprocessing, defined as a set of mathematical and computational techniques that are used to produce cartographic materials³¹, it allows visualizing the distribution of diseases and injuries in the community. PAHO itself recommends that countries with a large territorial extension make use of spatial analysis so that health services are reorganized to meet the needs of the population.³⁷ This analysis is used to identify areas with high incidence related to social inequalities, helps to improve epidemiological surveillance measures and to elucidate the spatial trend that leprosy follows according to the reality of each location.^{28,36,38}

Currently, the quality of case reporting influences the geoprocessing and analysis of territorialization data. When assessing the quality of the data in some places referring to leprosy, part of the notifications in SINAN are incomplete or differ between their own information.³⁹ Improvements in notifications are important to outline epidemiological and spatial profiles of leprosy, making it possible to plan public policies aimed at the real needs of the population.

Historical and political factors

Public leprosy elimination policies are developed around the world. In 1991, WHO set a goal to reduce the prevalence rate from 1 for every 10.000 inhabitants by 2000.⁴⁰ From 1998 onwards, control actions for primary care were decentralized.^{41,42} In 2004, with the National

Leprosy Elimination Program (PNEH), there was a redirection of leprosy care policies to municipalities. This enabled the visibility of leprosy distribution in the country with activities based on the reality of each location.⁴²

In 2005, without success in eliminating leprosy, Brazil launched the National Leprosy Elimination Plan 2006-2010, with the objective of decentralizing Primary Care, the commitment of state and municipal governments to take charge of offering jobs to individuals living with leprosy, the guarantee of polychemotherapy and training of health professionals.¹

In 2010, Ordinance No. 3,125 was published, which approved the Guidelines for Leprosy Surveillance, Care and Control, which advocated actions for the entire SUS Primary Care network and guaranteeing specialized care in the outpatient and hospital network whenever necessary, thus strengthening comprehensive care and health promotion in Brazil.⁴³

However, in 2011 the Ministry of Health considered the results insufficient and incompatible with the capacity of SUS. Trying to solve this problem, the General Coordination of Leprosy and Diseases in Elimination was created, whose main objective was to strengthen the response to leprosy and other infectious diseases endemic in the low-income population and considered neglected.¹

Since then, the "Integrated plan of strategic actions for the elimination of leprosy, filariasis, schistosomiasis and onchocerciasis as a public health problem, trachoma as a cause of blindness and control of geo helminthiasis" was launched between 2011 and 2015.^{1,35} One of the main objectives of the plan was to guarantee access to health services for the poorest population, optimizing resources to combat these diseases. And in 2016, this same team launched the "Guidelines for surveillance, care and elimination of leprosy as a public health problem" that aimed, in addition to eliminating the disease, standardizing the care of the per-

son with leprosy and standardizing the surveillance procedures valid for all the national territory.^{18,43}

Already more recently, WHO launched in 2016 the Leprosy Elimination Strategy 2016-2020, with the aim of globally interrupting transmission or eliminating it and reducing grade 2 deficiencies in newly detected cases to below 1 per million population in global level by 2020.² The strategy was based on strengthening government control, coordination and partnership in providing sufficient resources and subsidizing research, in combating leprosy and its complications, in combating discrimination and in promoting social inclusion.²

**In addition,
strengthening
strategies to
avoid abandoning
polychemotherapy
is extremely
important.**

All leprosy elimination plans and strategies instituted in Brazil since 1991, with the introduction of polychemotherapy and the increase in the detection of new cases, were the cause of the decrease of about 90% in the global number of cases in the last two decades.¹ The reduction in the rate of detection of new cases occurred mainly in the south and southeast, where most municipalities were able

to control leprosy.⁸ However, in the north, central-west and northeast regions, the reduction in the coefficient is slow and insufficient.⁴⁴

DISCUSSION

Before the vulnerability factors found for the prevalence of leprosy in Brazil, evaluations of the implementation of municipal leprosy control programs and the Family Health Strategy (FHS) regarding the diagnosis, classification and treatment of leprosy are still of great relevance for the achievement of the goals established by the WHO.

Health actions, including the active search for an early diagnosis and establishment of appropriate treatment, consist of important coping strategies that can be carried out to eliminate the emergence of new cases and diseases associated with leprosy.^{45,46} In schools in the municipalities, case search actions may be carried out in children under 15 years of age.^{47,48}

Another important aspect for addressing issues of vulnerability is the need for training activities for FHS professionals regarding the basic actions that can be taken aiming at the control of leprosy and the prevention of disabilities.⁴⁹

The awareness of health professionals to be more careful in filling out the information in the notification forms is also an important strategy for surveillance policies and future situational retrospective studies in different territories.

In addition, strengthening strategies to avoid abandoning polychemotherapy is extremely important. Taking into account the particularities of each individual, location and health service, there are a plurality of factors involved in interrupting and abandoning treatment.^{50,51} These factors must be known and specific actions for each local need must be carried out. Actions like these may prevent transmission, disease progression and the development of physical disabilities in the infected individual.

CONCLUSION

In recent years, Brazil has advanced in public policies and actions to combat new cases and decrease the number of diseases

related to leprosy. However, the country still faces challenges to eliminate its transmission. The country's epidemiological scenario highlights the need for integration between health professionals, both human and exact,

in a multiprofessional way, to work in primary care and health surveillance. This integration will be important to understand the situation of leprosy in the country, as well as in health planning to face it. ■

REFERENCES

- Alves ED, Ferreira, TL, Ferreira, IN. Hanseníase - Avanços e Desafios. 1.ed. Brasília: Universidade de Brasília; 2014.
- Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS). Estratégia Global para Hanseníase 2016-2020: Aceleração rumo a um mundo sem Hanseníase. OMS, 2016.
- Ministério da Saúde (BR). Guia para o controle da hanseníase. Brasília: Ministério da Saúde, 2002.
- Burns, T. Rook's Textbook of Dermatology. 8. ed. Leicester, Reino Unido: Willey-Blackwell, 2013
- Organização Pan-Americana de Saúde (OPAS). Detecção proativa e precoce é essencial para acabar com deficiências relacionadas à hanseníase em crianças. Brasília: OPAS, 2017.
- Ministério da Saúde do Brasil (BR). Boletim epidemiológico de Hanseníase. Brasília: Ministério da Saúde, 2020.
- Ministério da Saúde (BR). Plano integrado de ações estratégicas de eliminação da hanseníase, filariose, esquistossomose e oncocercose como problema de saúde pública, tracoma como causa de cegueira e controle das geohelmintíases. Brasília: Ministério da Saúde, 2013.
- Ribeiro MDA, Silva JCA, Oliveira SB. Estudo epidemiológico da hanseníase no Brasil: reflexão sobre as metas de eliminação. Rev Panam Salud Publica. 2018; 42: e42.
- Mendonça Vanessa Amaral, Costa Rosane Dias, Melo Gustavo Eustáquio Brito Alvim de, Antunes Carlos Maurício, Teixeira Antonio Lúcio. Imunologia da hanseníase. An. Bras. Dermatol. 2008; 83(4): 343-350.
- Lastória, JC, Abreu MAMM. Hanseníase: diagnóstico e tratamento. Diagn Tratamento. 2012; 17(4): 173-179.
- Lazaro FP, Werneck RI, Mackert CC, Cobat A, Prevedello FC, Pimentel RP, Macedo GM, Eleuterio MA, Vilar G, Abel L, Xavier MB, Alcáiz A, Mira MT. A major gene controls leprosy susceptibility in a hyperendemic isolated population from north of Brazil. J Infect Dis. 2010; 201: 1598-1605.
- Léséleuc L, Orlova M, Cobat A, Girard M, Huong NT, Ba NN, et al. PARK2 Mediates Interleukin 6 and Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein 1 Production by Human Macrophages. PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases. 2013; 7(1): e2015
- Zhang FR, Huang W, Chen SM, Sun LD, Liu H, Cui Y, et al. Genomewide association study of leprosy. N Engl J Med. 2009; 361(27): 2609-2618
- Toledo Pinto TG, Batista-Silva LR, Medeiros RCA, Lara FA, Moraes MO. Type I Interferons, Autophagy and Host Metabolism in Leprosy. Front Immunol. 2018; 9: 806.
- Lahiri A, Hedle, M, Yan, J. Human LACC1 increases innate receptor-induced responses and a LACC1 disease-risk variant modulates these outcomes. Nat Commun. 2017; 8: 15614
- Aguilar-Medina M, Escamilla-Tilch M, Frías-Castro LO, Romero-Quintana G, Estrada-García I, Estrada-Parra S, et al. HLA Alleles are Genetic Markers for Susceptibility and Resistance towards Leprosy in a Mexican Mestizo Population. Ann Hum Genet. 2017; 81(1): 35-40.
- Gaschignard J, Grant AV, Thuc NV, Orlova M, Cobat A, Huong NT, et al. Pauci- and Multibacillary Leprosy: Two Distinct, Genetically Neglected Diseases. PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases 2016; 10(5): e0004345
- Reja AHH, De A, Patra PK, Biswas S, Duttgupta U, Sil A, et al. Genomic Reduction at TTC Repeats in the Bacterial Genome of Treated Cases of Hansen's Disease: A Possible Survival Mechanism of Mycobacterium leprae. Indian J Dermatol. 2018; 63(6): 449-454
- Matsuoka M, Zhang L, Budiawan T, Saeki K, Izumi S. Genotyping of Mycobacterium leprae on the basis of the polymorphism of TTC repeats for analysis of leprosy transmission. J Clin Microbiol. 2004; 42(2): 741-745
- Romão ER, Mazzoni AM. Perfil epidemiológico da hanseníase no município de Guarulhos, SP. Revista de Epidemiologia e Controle de Infecção. 2013; 3(1): 22-27.
- Monteiro MJ, Andrade SSC, Santana EMF, Peixoto BV, Nogueira JA, Soares MJGO. Perfil Epidemiológico De Casos De Hanseníase Em Um Estado Do Nordeste Brasileiro. Revista Brasileira Ciências da Saúde – USCS. 2017; 15(54): 21-28.
- Velôso DS, Melo CBS, Santos TLB, Nascimento JP, Costa EF, Carvalho FA. Perfil Clínico Epidemiológico da Hanseníase: Uma Revisão Integrativa. 2017; 10(1): 1464-1471.
- Neves TV, Valentim IM, Reis IB, Souza EB, Diniz AP Rocha ESD, et al. Informações do SINAN e de prontuários de unidades de saúde da família acerca de incapacidades físicas decorrentes da hanseníase em Palmas, Tocantins. Revista Eletrônica Gestão & Saúde. 2015; 6(3): 2460-70.
- Ministério da Saúde (BR). Casos novos de hanseníase por estados e regiões. Brasília, Ministério da Saúde, 2016.
- Arantes Cíntia Kazue, Garcia Maria Luiza Rufino, Filipe Mariana Scombatti, Nardi Susilene Maria Tonelli, Paschoal Vânia Del'Arco. Avaliação dos serviços de saúde em relação ao diagnóstico precoce da hanseníase. Epidemiol. Serv. Saúde [Internet]. 2010; 19(2): 155-164.
- Alves Cinthia Janine Meira, Barreto Jaison Antônio, Fogagnolo Leticia, Contin Leticia Arsie, Nassif Priscila Wolf. Avaliação do grau de incapacidade dos pacientes com diagnóstico de han-

REFERENCES

- seniase em serviço de dermatologia do estado de São Paulo. *Rev. Soc. Bras. Med. Trop.* 2010; 43(4): 460-461
27. Amaral Evaldo Pinheiro, Lana Francisco Carlos Félix. Análise espacial da Hanseníase na microrregião de Almenara, MG, Brasil. *Rev. bras. enferm.* [Internet]. 2008; 61(spe): 701-707.
28. Imbiriba Elsia Nascimento Belo, Silva Neto Antônio Levino da, Souza Wayner Vieira de, Pedrosa Valderiza, Cunha Maria da Graça, Garnelo Luiza. Desigualdade social, crescimento urbano e hanseníase em Manaus: abordagem espacial. *Rev. Saúde Pública* . 2009; 43(4): 656-665
29. Santos Andréia Soprani dos, Castro Denise Silveira de, Falqueto Aloísio. Fatores de risco para transmissão da Hanseníase. *Rev. bras. enferm.* [Internet]. 2008; 61(spe): 738-743.
30. Gonçalves KS. Indicadores Epidemiológicos e Análise Espacial dos Casos Novos de Hanseníase no Município de Serra: Tendência Temporal e Efetividade do Programa de Controle da Doença [dissertação]. Vitória: Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo, 2014.
31. Gracie Renata, Peixoto Julia Novaes de Barros, Soares Fabiane Bertoni dos Reis, Hacker Mariana de Andrea Vilas-Boas. Análise da distribuição geográfica dos casos de hanseníase. Rio de Janeiro, 2001 a 2012. *Ciênc. saúde coletiva* [Internet]. 2017; 22(5): 1695-1704.
32. Júnior AFR, Vieira MA, Caldeira AP. Perfil epidemiológico da hanseníase em uma cidade endêmica no Norte de Minas Gerais. *Revista Brasileira de Clínica Médica.* 2012; 10(4): 272-277.
33. Franco-Paredes C, Marcos LA, Henao-Martínez AF, Rodríguez-Morales AJ, Villamil-Gómez WE, Gotuzzo E, Bonifaz A. Cutaneous Mycobacterial Infections. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2018 32(1): e00069-18.
34. Gonçalves-Brito KK, Andrade SSC, Diniz IV, Matos SDO, Oliveira SHS, Oliveira MJG. Caracterização Dos Casos De Hanseníase Diagnosticados Através Do Exame De Contato. *Journal of Nursing UFPE / Revista de Enfermagem UFPE.* 2016; 10(2): 435-441.
35. Ministério da Saúde (BR). Plano integrado de ações estratégicas de eliminação da hanseníase, filariose, esquistossomose e oncocercose como problema de saúde pública, tracoma como causa de cegueira e controle das geohelmintíases. Brasília: Ministério da Saúde, 2013.
36. Ribeiro MA, Albuquerque IZMN, Vasconcelos MIO, Dias LKS, Cavalcante ASP. Geoprocessamento Em Saúde Como Tecnologia De Análise E Monitoramento Da Hanseníase No Município De Sobral-Ceará. *Revista Baiana de Saúde Pública.* 2018; 41(2): 451-465.
37. Organização Pan-Americana da Saúde. Uso de los Sistemas de Información Geográfica em Epidemiologia (SIG-EPI). *Boletim Epidemiológico.* 1996; 17(1).
38. Nardi S, Pedro H, Seixas L, Amorim K, Cunha, R, Freitas A, Angelo L, Paschoal V. Comportamento da endemia da hanseníase com base nos sinais cardinais. *Arquivos De Ciências Da Saúde.* 2017; 24(2): 82-87.
39. Galvão PRS, Ferreira AT, Maciel MGG, Almeida RP, Hinders D, Schreuder PA, et al. Uma avaliação do sistema de informação SINAN usado no Programa de Controle de Hanseníase no estado do Pernambuco, Brasil. *Cadernos de Saúde Coletiva.* 2009; 17(1): 87-102.
40. Ministério da Saúde (BR). Controle da Hanseníase na Atenção Básica. Brasília: Ministério da Saúde, 2001.
41. Borba SMLS. Vigilância epidemiológica da hanseníase na atenção básica: o caso do município de Itaboraí, região metropolitana do Rio de Janeiro [dissertação]. Rio de Janeiro: Fundação Oswaldo Cruz, 2015.
42. Costa MS, Junior PCB, Moura JPG, Pantoja PVN. Policies for leprosy: the evolution of management in health. *Revista Enfermagem Digital Cuidado e Promoção da Saúde.* 2015; 1(2): 99-103.
43. Ministério da Saúde (BR). Diretrizes Para Vigilância, Ação e Controle da Hanseníase. Brasília: Ministério da Saúde, 2010.
44. Leal Danielle Rodrigues, Cazarin Gisele, Bezerra Luciana Caroline Albuquerque, Albuquerque Ana Coelho de, Felisberto Eronildo. Programa de Controle da Hanseníase: uma avaliação da implantação no nível distrital. *Saúde debate* [Internet]. 2017; 41(spe): 209-228.
45. Rodrigues, Elaine Fernanda, Márcio José Trovarelli, and Nági-la Garcia Galan de Oliveira. Busca ativa de hanseníase numa comunidade de trabalhadores rurais em uma usina de cana-de-açúcar. 2009: 44-44.
46. Pereira Elizane Viana Eduardo, Nogueira Lidya Tolstenko, Machado Herion Alves da Silva, Lima Lana Andrade Napoleão, Ramos Clóvis Henrique Mauriz. Perfil epidemiológico da hanseníase no município de Teresina, no período de 2001-2008. *An. Bras. Dermatol.* [Internet]. 2011; 86(2): 235-240.
47. Moura Luiza Taciana Rodrigues de, Fernandes Tânia Rita Moreno de Oliveira, Bastos Lívia Dias Mangueira, Luna Igara Cavalcanti Feitosa, Machado Lara Barreto. Hanseníase em menores de 15 anos na cidade de Juazeiro-BA. *Hansenol. Int.* 2012 Jun; 37(1): 45-50.
48. Schneider Priscila Barros, Freitas Bruna Hinnah Borges Martins de. Tendência da hanseníase em menores de 15 anos no Brasil, 2001-2016. *Cad. Saúde Pública* [Internet]. 2018; 34(3): e00101817.
49. Oliveira CM, Linhares MSC, Neto FRGX, Mendes IMVP, Kerr LRF5. Conhecimento e práticas dos Agentes Comunitários de Saúde sobre hanseníase em um município hiperendêmico. *Saúde em Revista.* 2018; 18(48): 39-50.
50. Girão RJ, Soares NL, Pinheiro JV, Oliveira Gda P, de Carvalho SM, de Abreu LC, Valenti VE, Fonseca FL. Leprosy treatment dropout: a systematic review. *Int Arch Med.* 2013; 6(1): 34.
51. Saraswat N, Agarwal R, Chopra A, Kumar S, Dhillion A. Assessment of Factors Responsible for Dropout to Multi Drug Therapy for Leprosy. *Indian Journal of Leprosy.* 2019; 91(3): 225-232