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Navicular Bone of Horses

Controlling Gastro-Intestinal

Highlights

Major Transboundary Disease

Percoll Density Centrifugation

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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Relationship between the Distal Phalanx Angle and Radiographic Changes in the Navicular Bone of Horses: A Radiological Study

By Cristobal Dörner, Pablo Fueyo & Rodrigo Olave

Riding School of the Chilean Army

Abstract- The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between the distal phalanx angle and the radiological condition of the navicular bone and establish a database of reference values for hoof radiographic A retrospective study was measurements in Chilean horses. performed considering radiographic examinations on 146 feet from 92 horses. Linear and angle measurements of the hoof capsule and distal phalanx were obtained and compared statistically. Radiographic condition of the navicular bone was determined and statistically compared with the radiographic hoof values. Additionally, horses were categorized by breed to elucidate differences between breeds. There was a significant negative correlation between the palmar angle and the navicular score. Also, there was a significant statistical differences between the distal phalanx angle, weight-bearing surface of the toe and second phalanx length when compared by breed. The information gathered in this study can help to prevent the presentation or the advance of the radiological changes in the navicular bone. A radiographic-guided shoeing should always be considered. Additionally, the present study provides a database of normal values of the hoof capsule in Chilean horses that can be used by veterinarians and farriers as a guideline for routine and orthopedic shoeing.

Keywords: horse, foot, palmar angle, navicular disease, radiographs.

GJMR-G Classification: NLMC Code: WA 360

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Relationship between the Distal Phalanx Angle and Radiographic Changes in the Navicular Bone of Horses: A Radiological Study

Cristobal Dörner^a, Pablo Fueyo^a & Rodrigo Olave^p

Abstract- The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between the distal phalanx angle and the radiological condition of the navicular bone and establish a database of reference values for hoof radiographic measurements in Chilean horses. A retrospective study was performed considering radiographic examinations on 146 feet from 92 horses. Linear and angle measurements of the hoof capsule and distal phalanx were obtained and compared statistically. Radiographic condition of the navicular bone was determined and statistically compared with the radiographic hoof values. Additionally, horses were categorized by breed to elucidate differences between breeds. There was a significant negative correlation between the palmar angle and the navicular score. Also, there was a significant negative correlation between the hoof angle and the navicular score. There were significant statistical differences between the distal phalanx angle, weight-bearing surface of the toe and second phalanx length when compared by breed. The information gathered in this study can help to prevent the presentation or the advance of the radiological changes in the navicular bone. A radiographic-guided shoeing should always be considered. Additionally, the present study provides a database of normal values of the hoof capsule in Chilean horses that can be used by veterinarians and farriers as a guideline for routine and orthopedic shoeing.

Keywords: horse, foot, palmar angle, navicular disease, radiographs.

I. INTRODUCTION

oot pain is described as the most common cause of forelimb lameness in sport horses(Dyson2011^a) and has been associated with poor hoof balance and conformation (Turner 1986). Some authors have been suggested that changes in foot conformation increase the load on the palmar aspect of the foot and so the navicular bone is overstressed predisposing to foot pain and lameness. Unfortunately, there is limited information about the relation between the distal phalanx (P3) orientation within the hoof and the radiological changes in the navicular bone.

A condition that causes foot pain is the one called "Negative palmar angle syndrome (NPAS)". This is a term in which the solar or palmar and/or plantar margin of P3 has a negative angle in relation to the ground surface, and sole depth under the dorsal-distal

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margin of P3 is greater than that under the palmar processes when viewed on a lateral radiographs (Floyd 2010). The term "long toe, low heel" has been used to describe this condition and has been accepted as being abnormal among veterinarians and farriers. Conversely, a recent study in horses with foot pain indicated the variations in shape of the distal phalanx were not accurately predicted by external characteristics of the hoof capsule (Dyson *et al* 2011). On the other hand, a marked correlation between hoof conformation and forces applied to the equine foot has been also described (Eliashar *et al* 2004). According to the aforementioned, in many cases it is very difficult to predict an abnormal condition in the structures inside the hooves when only the external hoof capsule is seen.

In normal conditions, the distal phalanx solar angle or palmar angle with the surface range between 2° - 10° (Parks 2003). As the border of the distal phalanx is the insertion point of the deep digital flexor tendon (DDFT), a change in its orientation, increases the DDFT tensile force and subsequently the force it exerts on the navicular bone during the different phases of a stride (Wilson et al 2001; Weaver et al 2009; de Zani et al 2016). Furthermore, biomechanical overloadexerted over the navicular bone has shown to be harmful and may result from aged related accumulation of workload (Dik et al 2001). Accordingly, in theory the more tensile forces exerted to the navicular bone (biomechanical overload) the moreradiographic changes should be found (Dik et al 2001; Wilson et al 2001; Weaver et al 2009). The changes seen in the navicular bone in horses presenting navicular disease are well documented (Verschooten et al 1989; Wright 1993; Buttler et al 2000; Dyson 2011^b; Komosa *et al* 2013).

In this study, we hypothesized that the compressive force exerted by the DDFT over the navicular bone due to an abnormal distal phalanx angle, as described by different authors (Wilson *et al* 2001, Eliashar *et al* 2004; Weaver *et al* 2009; Holroyd *et al* 2013), has a correlation with the radiographic changes observed in the navicular bone. Additionally, we provided a database of normal values of the hoof capsule in Chilean horses that can be used by veterinarians and farriers as a guideline for routine and orthopedic shoeing.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Horse Selection

One hundred and forty-six feet (146) from horses were used for the study (54.79% from Chilean Criollo horses and 45.21% from Warmbloods horses) (385 – 590 kg bwt) in routine work and shoeing status examined consecutively between July 2015 and December 2016. All horses were assessed for lameness. Sound horses were immediately enrolled for the study. Lame horses selected for this study had lameness abolished after a palmar digital nerve block was performed, using 1.5 mL mepivacaine 2% (VetacaineTM)^ainjected just proximal to the lateral cartilages of the distal phalanx. Horses presenting with laminitis or lameness located anywhere else were excluded from the study. Horses selected should have been trimmed within 5 weeks. Additionally, age, gender and breed were recorded.

To establish the normal reference values for the hoof radiographic measurements of the Chilean Criollo horses and to investigate the differences of hoof radiographic measurements between Chilean Horses and Warmblood horses, horses were categorized by breed.

b) Radiographic Image Adcquisition

Eighty forelimbs from Chilean horses (left front n=40; right front n=40) and sixty-six forelimbs from Warmblood horses (left front n=33; right front n=33) were radiographed obtaining a total sample of one hundred and forty-six feet (n=146). All radiographic examinations were performed after standard foot preparation as describe by Buttler et al (2000). Radiographic views selected to evaluate horses' feet were based on previous studies performed in different breeds (Dyson et al 2011; Dyson 2011^b; Thieme et al 2015; Wright 1993). Lateromedial, 60° dorso proximal oblique navicular (upright pedal) and palmaro proximal - palmaro distal (Navicular Skyline) radiographic views were obtained. For lateromedial view, the foot to be examined was placed on a block 6 cm high and the x-ray beam was centered approximately 1 cm distal to the coronary band, midway between the dorsal and palmar aspects of the hoof. The x-ray generator was set at 76 Kvp and 1.2 mAs. For the 60° dorsoproximal navicular view, the hoof was placed over the x-ray tunnel in a square stance and the x-ray beam was centered in the coronary band and the x-ray generator was set at 78 Kvp and 1.6 mAs. The last radiographic view was obtained with the limb over the tunnel and placed backwards and the x-ray beam was centered between the heel bulbs following the pastern angle and the x-ray generator was set at 80 Kvp and 2.0 mAs.Radiographs were obtained using a digital x-ray machine (Envision G2 DR panel)^b and a Poskom PXP-20HF x-ray generator.

c) Image Analysis

Radiographs were analyzed using an image analysis software (Metron-DVM 7.05 for windows)^c. Following the instructions of the program, 10 parameters on the LM view were measured. The following measurements were obtained: Palmar angle, descent of the distal phalanx, distance of the distal phalanx to ground, hoof angle, proximal HL zone, distal HL zone, percentage of the weight-bearing surface of the toe, coffin joint angle, pastern joint angle, length of the middle phalanx (Figure 1 and Figure 2).To determine the radiographic condition of the navicular bone ("navicular score") a standardized classification was used as described by Dyson (2011^b) (Table 1).

d) Data Analysis

Statistical analyses were run on a specialized statistical software (SPSS Inc, version 19 for windows)^d. A Kolmogorov-smirnov test was performed to assess whether the data were normally distributed. A t-student test for independent variables was used to compare the data between breeds. All measurements were compared to determine whether they were significantly different between groups. A Spearman correlation test was run to determine the association between the radiographic hoof values and the radiographic score of the navicular bone. The significance level was set at p < 0.05.

III. Results

One hundred and forty-six feet (146) from horses were used for the study (47.83% geldings; 42.39% mares; 9.78% stallions). Eighty feet were from Chilean Criollo horses and sixty-six feet were from Warmblood horses (29.53% Holsteiner; 10.16% Selle Frances; 5.52% Warmblood cross). The mean \pm standard deviations (s.d.)and t-student test of the data obtained for radiological hoof values for Chilean and Warmblood horses are summarized in table 2.

There was significant difference between groups for palmar angle, toe/support %, third phalanx distance to the ground, and length of the middle phalanx determined radiologically (table 2). Warmblood horses have a smaller palmar angle (3.39 ± 3.37) than Chilean Criollo horses (6.46 ± 3.88)(p= 0.000) as well as the toe/support % (65.12 ± 5.48 and 67.35 ± 5.78 respectively, p= 0.033). Additionally, there was a significant difference in the length of the middle phalanx in which the Chilean Criollo horses have a shorter middle phalanx bone (3.99 ± 0.53 , p value 0.000). The other measurements determined radiologically showed no difference between breeds (table 2).

Table 3 summarizes means \pm s.d. and t-student test results when horses were assessed by limb, showing no statistical differences when right and left legs were compared between each other. This situation was seen in both breeds.

Additionally, the mean \pm s.d. for the navicular score for each breed was analyzed. Chilean Criollo horses (0.95 \pm 0.80) showed a lesser value when compared with Warmblood horses (1.23 \pm 0.83). These results were statistically different (p=0.038).

Each measurement determined radiologically was correlated with its respective navicular score. The palmar angle and hoof angle (rho= -0.190, p= 0.024) showed a weak negative correlation with the navicular score (rho= -0.173, p= 0.041) (table 4). The other parameters measured did not show significant association with the navicular score.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study was performed in order to establish the relationship between the distal phalanx angle within the hoof capsule and the radiological condition score of the navicular bone.Additionally,a database of reference values of the radiographic hoof values from the Chilean Criollo horses were obtained and compared with the values obtained from Warmblood horses. Hoof trimming has shown a remarkable influence on hoof conformation and in some measurements that describe the position of the third phalanx within the hoof capsule (Kummer*et a*/2006) so in our study,horses were excluded when the feet had not been trimmed within 5 weeks.

The selection and use of Metron software for this study was based on the previous results obtained where it was determined that Metron software can be used to objectively measure most of the parameters predefined by the software (Vargas Rocha*et al* 2004).

Chilean Criollo horses showed a larger palmar angle when compared with Warmblood horses, finding somehow expecteddue to the described lower palmar angle of Warmbloods compared to other breeds (Kummeret al 2006). Toe/support % was larger in Chilean horses and thus they should have a better capacity to dissipate the ground reaction forces within the hoof capsule compared with Warmbloods. Nonetheless, one study showed no differences when the presentation of catastrophic pathologies and toe/support % were compared (Kane et al 1998). According to the *FédérationEquestreInernationale* (2017), a Pony is a small horsewhose height at the withersdoes not exceed 148 cms. Chilean horsesare considered as Ponies due to their height (<145 cms),so a shorter middle phalanx compared to Warmblood horses was expected. Chilean horses tend to have narrow, upright, and small feet relative to their body size (Reckmann 1999; Vergara 2012), hence the larger palmar angle in Chilean horses is mostly due to the hoof conformation and its relation with the inner structures of the hoof capsule (Dyson et al 2011). When the radiographic navicular score was obtained, Chilean horses showed a lower mean score than Warmblood horses used in this study. The above situation was

suspected according to the hoof and palmar angle obtained, where larger palmar angle has been associated with a smaller probability to present navicular bone or DDFT lesions (Holroyd *et a*/2013). This situation is most likely related to the forces exerted by the DDFT to the navicular bone (Wilson *et a*/2001, Eliashar*et a*/2004, Weaver *et a*/2009).

According to the results of our study, there was a significant negative correlation between the navicular score and the palmar angle. There was also a significant negative correlation between the navicular score and the hoof angle. The aforementioned results, were in accordance to our expectations and these may be the reflection of the increased force exerted by the DDFT due to a highest moment arm force (Wilson et al 2001) to the navicular bone when the hoof presents a low palmar angle (neutral to negative) (Floyd 2010). This situation has also being documented by Weaver et al (2009)were they topographically map pressure distribution across the palmar surface of the navicular bone in response to forces applied by the deep digital flexor tendon (DDFT). This study showed and evaluated the effect of raising the heels in vitro showing the relationship between the DDFT and navicular disease. Moreover, Eliasharet al (2004) concluded that an increase in the palmar angle by 1° would decrease the force of the DDFT on the navicular bone by 4%, supporting the biomechanical overload suffered by the navicular bone when an abnormally low palmar angle is present. Additionally, no significant correlation has been found between heel collapse and the palmar angle (Floyd 2010) thus the radiographic evaluation to determine the hoof inner structures measurements is mandatory.Considering biomechanical and risk factors for development of navicular disease, the palmar angle of the distal phalanx should play an important role in the presentation of the disease. According to Dik and van den Broek (1995) and Diket al (2001), horses presenting with different palmar angles should present different shapes of the navicular bone based on a shape-dependent distribution of the forces exerted on the navicular bone. For example, navicular bone shape 1 and 2 are associated with overloading of the distal interphalangeal joint, and navicular bone shape 3 is related with strain of the collateral ligament of the navicular bone (Dik and van den Broek1995).

As this study did not evaluated the correlation between the palmar anglewith the presentation of clinical navicular disease, further investigation is required in this matter. Nonetheless, recent studies has shown very interesting data regarding correlations between radiographic measurements of the foot and abnormalities of specific structures found with magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) (de Zani*et al* 2016). Moreover, it has been documented that the larger the palmar angle, the smaller the likelihood of a DDFT or navicular bone lesion (Holroyd *et al* 2013).

In conclusion, this study contributes to the informational ready available in the literature helping to have a better understanding of changes suffered by inner structures of the hoof capsule. We have documented the reference hoof values from the Chilean Criollo horses and at the same time we have shown a few difference between this breed and Warmblood horses. Additionally, we have demonstrated that there is significant statistical correlation between the а radiographic navicular score and the palmar angle. Given these results, a radiological evaluation of horse's feet before and after shoeing is always recommended. To fully understand the implication of the changes suffered on the palmar angle in horses presenting navicular disease, further investigation is needed.

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Table 1: Radiographic findings and classification of the navicular bone (Dyson 2011)

Grade	Condition	Radiographic Findings
0	Excellent	Good corticomedullary demarcation; fine trabecular pattern. Flexor cortex of uniform
		thickness and opacity. No lucent zones along the distal border of the bone, or $$ <6 narrow
		conical lucent zones along the horizontal distal border.
1	Good	As above, but lucent zones on the distal border of the navicular bone more variable in shape.
2	Fair	Slightly poor definition between the palmar cortex and the medulla due to subcortical
		increased opacity. Several (<8) lucent zones of variable shape along the distal horizontal
		border. Mild entheseophyte formation on the proximal border of the navicular bone. Proximal
		or distal extension of the flexor border of the navicular bone.
3	Poor	Poor corticomedullary definition due to increased opacity of the medulla. Thickening of the
		dorsal and flexor cortices. Poorly defined lucent areas in the flexor cortex of the bone. Many
		(>7) radiolucent zones along the distal horizontal or sloping border. Lucent zones along the
		proximal border of the bone. Large entheseophyte formation on the proximal border of the
		bone. Radiopaque fragment on the distal border of the navicular bone.
4	Bad	Large cyst-like lesion within the medulla. Lucent region in the flexor cortex. New bone on the
		flexor cortex of the navicular bone.

Table 2: Radiological values of the hoof of both groups expressed as the mean ± s.d. and the results of t-Student test

	Chilean Horses	Warmblood Horses	
Parameters	Mean \pm s.d.	Mean \pm s.d.	<i>P</i> value
Palmar angle	6.46 ± 3.88^{a}	3.39± 3.37ª	0.000
P3 descent	0.38 ± 0.49	0.53 ± 0.60	0.096
P3 dist. to ground	1.86 ± 0.54^{a}	2.02 ± 0.56^{a}	0.048
Hoof angle	51.38 ± 5.96	51.21 ± 4.34	0.885
Prox. HL zone	1.51 ± 0.33	1.58 ± 0.26	0.204
Dist. HL zone	1.47 ± 0.42	1.43 ± 0.24	0.405
Toe/Support %	67.35 ± 5.78^{a}	65.12 ± 5.48^{a}	0.033
Coffin joint angle	9.89 ± 6.71	9.24 ± 7.13	0.791
Pastern joint angle	2.47 ± 4.66	3.36 ± 5.21	0.354
Length of P2	3.99 ± 0.53^{a}	4.66 ± 0.33^{a}	0.000

P3, distal phalanx; HL, hoof-lamella; P2, middle phalanx.

^aSignificant difference *P*< 0.05

	Chilea	n Horses		Warr	nblood Horses	
	LF	RF		LF	RF	
Parameters	Mean ± s.d.	Mean ± s.d.	<i>P</i> value	Mean ± s.d.	Mean ± s.d.	Р
						value
Palmar angle	6.69 ± 4.02	6.19 ± 3.94	0.474	3.59 ± 3.28	3.05 ± 3.48	0.768
P3 descent	0.45 ± 0.48	0.32 ± 0.51	0.321	0.53 ± 0.65	0.56 ± 0.56	0.588
P3 dist. to ground	1.83 ± 0.56	1.87 ± 0.52	0.754	2.08 ± 0.56	1.97 ± 0.58	0.500
Hoof angle	51.99 ± 2.37	50.64 ± 8.41	0.360	51.17 ± 4.08	51.24 ± 4.75	0.713
Prox. HL zone	1.52 ± 0.33	1.53 ± 0.34	0.991	1.57 ± 0.23	1.61 ± 0.27	0.823
Dist. HL zone	1.47 ± 0.32	1.50 ± 0.51	0.865	1.42 ± 0.25	1.45 ± 0.23	0.710
Toe/Support %	67.00 ± 6.34	67.49 ± 5.53	0.736	65.41 ± 5.27	64.84 ± 5.85	0.949
Coffin joint angle	9.20 ± 6.44	9.91 ± 6.92	0.846	8.98 ± 7.19	9.51 ± 7.28	0.751
Pastern joint angle	3.28 ± 4.46	1.96 ± 4.39	0.320	3.66 ± 4.81	1.98 ± 5.41	0.147
Length of P2	4.00 ± 0.53	3.98 ± 0.55	0.988	4.63 ± 0.33	4.71 ± 0.33	0.892

Table 3: The mean ± s.d. values for radiological hoof parameters for Chilean and Warmblood horses when assessed by limb and results of t-Student test

P3, distal phalanx; HL, hoof-lamella; P2, middle phalanx; LF, left front limb; RF, right front limb.

Table 4: Results from the Spearman correlation test assessing correlations between the hoof values obtained from all horses and the radiological score of the navicular bone

Parameters	Rho Spearman	<i>P</i> value
Palmar angle & Navicular score	-0.173	0.041 ^a
P3 descent & Navicular score	-0.136	0.108
P3 dist. to ground & Navicular score	0.096	0.259
Hoof angle & Navicular score	-0.190	0.024 ^a
Prox. HL zone & Navicular score	-0.045	0.595
Dist. HL zone & Navicular score	-0.058	0.498
Toe/Support % & Navicular score	0.118	0.165
Coffin joint angle & Navicular score	0.074	0.386
Pastern joint angle & Navicular score	0.021	0.801
Length of P2 & Navicular score	0.113	0.182

P3, distal phalanx; HL, hoof-lamella; P2, middle phalanx.

^a Significant difference P< 0.05

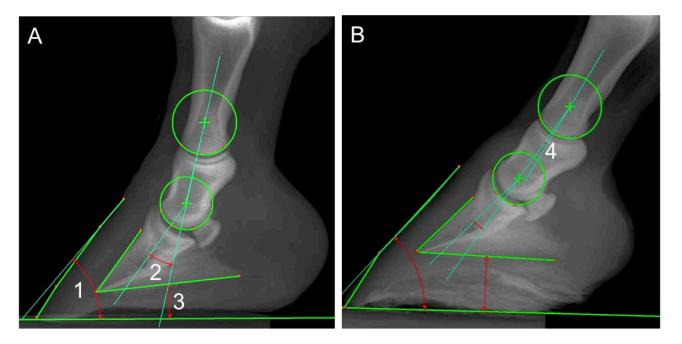


Figure 1: Angle measurements using Metron software. A. Normal palmar angle. Podophalangeal axis is broken backwards. B. Notice the negative palmar angle. There is an overgrown hoof capsule, classical upright conformation seen in Chilean Criollo horses. 1, hoof angle.2, coffin joint angle.3, palmar angle. 4, pastern joint angle.

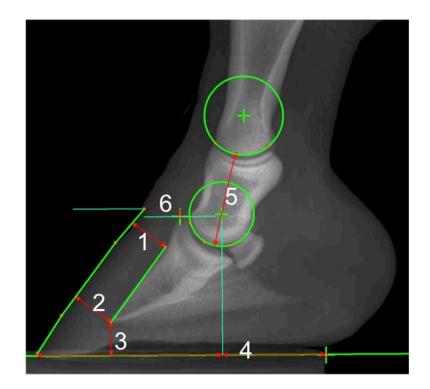


Figure 2: Linear measurements using Metron software.1, proximal HL zone.2, distal HL zone.3, distance of the distal phalanx to ground.4, percentage of the weight-bearing surface of the toe.5, length of the middle phalanx. 6. descent of the distal phalanx.

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Combined Use of Herb Extract as Anthelmintic for Controlling Gastro-Intestinal Parasites and Hemoto-Biochemical Effect on Sheep

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Abstract- This study was conducted on sheep for the evaluation of anthelmintic efficacy of some selected indigenous medicinal plants comparison with synthetic anthelmintic of ivermectin (0.1%). Three (3) medicinal plants Neem (Azadirachta indica), Bitter gourd (Momordica charantia) and Clove (Eugeniu caryophyllus) were selected. Crude aqueous extracts (CAE) and Crude methanol extract (CME) were prepared separately for in vivo screening against gastro instestinal parasites in sheep during July to December, 2015. Sixteen (16) naturally gastrointestinal parasites infested sheep (>840 EPG) were selected age between 6 to 24 months. The sheep population was divided into four (4) groups (A, B, C and D) which consisted of four (4) sheep in each group. Group A was control and group B, C and D were treated groups. Stock solution was prepared by following the herbs extraction standard procedure. Combined herbal anthelmintic dose was prepared at the ratio of 1: 2: 2 (neem: bitter gourd: clove) to get better result instead of single use. In vivo screening, the extracts efficacy was observed @ 1ml/kg body weight at concentration (100 mg/ml) on day 0 and 7. The egg per gram (EPG) load was counted by using the McMaster egg counting technique on day 0, 7, 14, 21 and 28. Continuous reduction of EPG load observed at post-treatment period of group B, C and D (89%, 86 % and 90.7 %), respectively on day 28, in compared to day 0. Significant differences $(p \le 0.05)$ were observed among the treated groups. Conversely, in control group A, the EPG load sharply increased, ranging from 947.5 at day 0 to 1572.5 at day 28 but the differences were not significantly differed ($p \ge 0.05$). The Hb (%), PCV, TLC and TEC increased and ESR (mm/1st hr) decreased that was significant (p≤0.05) among the treated groups. In leukocytes count, the eosinophils (6.2%) and basophils (0.2%) decreased at the 28th day.

Keywords: gastrointestinal parasites, medicinal plants, pharmacokinetics, extracts, ivermectin, GIT, EPG.

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Shankar Biswas^a, Jotan Kar^o, Md Bayzid^e & Sabuj Kanti Nath^w

Abstract- This study was conducted on sheep for the evaluation of anthelmintic efficacy of some selected indigenous medicinal plants comparison with synthetic anthelmintic of ivermectin (0.1%). Three (3) medicinal plants Neem (Azadirachta indica), Bitter gourd (Momordica charantia) and Clove (Eugeniu caryophyllus) were selected. Crude aqueous extracts (CAE) and Crude methanol extract (CME) were prepared separately for in vivo screening against gastro instestinal parasites in sheep during July to December, 2015. Sixteen (16) naturally gastrointestinal parasites infested sheep (>840 EPG) were selected age between 6 to 24 months. The sheep population was divided into four (4) groups (A, B, C and D) which consisted of four (4) sheep in each group. Group A was control and group B, C and D were treated groups. Stock solution was prepared by following the herbs extraction standard procedure. Combined herbal anthelmintic dose was prepared at the ratio of 1: 2: 2 (neem: bitter gourd: clove) to get better result instead of single use. In vivo screening, the extracts efficacy was observed @ 1ml/kg body weight at concentration (100 mg/ml) on day 0 and 7. The egg per gram (EPG) load was counted by using the McMaster egg counting technique on day 0, 7, 14, 21 and 28. Continuous reduction of EPG load observed at post-treatment period of group B, C and D (89%, 86 % and 90.7 %), respectively on day 28, in compared to day 0. Significant differences ($p \le 0.05$) were observed among the treated groups. Conversely, in control group A, the EPG load sharply increased, ranging from 947.5 at day 0 to 1572.5 at day 28 but the differences were not significantly differed ($p \ge 0.05$). The Hb (%), PCV, TLC and TEC increased and ESR (mm/1st hr) decreased that was significant ($p \le 0.05$) among the treated groups. In leukocytes count, the eosinophils (6.2%) and basophils (0.2%) decreased at the 28th day. The levels of AST, ALT and creatinine also varied significantly ($p \le 0.05$) among the treated groups on days 7, 14, 21 and 28 and no toxicogenic effects was found. These findings revealed that adult gastrointestinal parasites are more vulnerable to selected indigenous herbs, no harmful effects on animal body and further may use as herbal anthelmintic at 1ml/kg (100 mg/ml).

Keywords: gastrointestinal parasites, medicinal plants, pharmacokinetics, extracts, ivermectin, GIT, EPG.

INTRODUCTION

I.

elminthosis is a parasitic disease of animal that are major problems of livestock production throughout the world, particularly in tropical and subtropical areas (Hussain et al., 2010). Bangladesh is an agro-based developing country of South Asia which has huge livestock population. Livestock is an important sector which plays important contribution to solve unemployment, poverty alleviation, promote human health by supplying animal protein sources with high calorie value in the forms of meat and milk and help to achieve the sustainable development goals (SDGs). But parasites hinder the growth of livestock production and it has been identified as one of the important limiting factors in small ruminant specially in sheep farming (Hussain et al., 2010). It is estimated over 90% of the endoparasitism cases in small ruminants are due to such as Haemonchus contortus and Trichostrongylus axei whose are found in the abomasums of small ruminants (Sani et al., 1990). Other most common gastrointestinal parasites are Paramphistomus spp, Gastrothillus spp. Cooperia spp in sheep (Eysker and Ploege, 2000). Clinically it is manifested by reduced weight, roughness hair, anaemic condition and lowered meat and milk production (Githigia et al., 2005). For controlling of helminthes a lot of chemicals have been used in most of the part of the world. Frequently use to livestock development which grow resistance against chemical anthelmintics (Papadopoulos et al., 2012). This view has renewed the interested to study of medicinal plants for the development of novel anthelmintics. Plants have been used for human benefit from time immemorial (Koehn and Carter, 2005). According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2008). almost 80% of Asia's population has incorporated into their primary modality of health care by using traditional medicine, which has compounds derived from medicinal plants (Hossain et al., 2003). The use of plants as medicine is slowly increasing day by day in the world because they have minor or no side effects (Jordan et al., 2010). Bangladesh is endowed with vast resources of medicinal plants. About 5000 plant species have been estimated to be present in this country and most of them are reported be used in

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traditional medicines for the health care of the millions of people of this country (Rahman et al., 2010). Neem (Azadirachta indica) is a tropical evergreen tree native to Indian sub-continent (Girish and Bhat, 2008). The various parts of neem such as fruits, seeds, leaves, bark and roots are used as antiseptic, anthelmintic, antibacterial, antiviral, antiulcer and antifungal, insecticides, pesticides agrochemicals and (Brahmachari, 2004). It has been recommended for using against gastro-intestinal nematodes and related problems in many parts of the world (Biswas et al., 2002; Subapriya and Nagini, 2005). Bitter gourd (Momordica charantia) is a traditional medicine of India sub-continent are used to relieve diabetes, as a stomachic, laxative, emetic, anthelmintic agent, for the treatment of cough, respiratory diseases, hyperglycemia, increasing milk flow, intestinal parasites, jaundice, kidney stones (Sampath and Bhowmik, 2010). Clove (Eugeniu caryophyllus) used as carminative and to increase hydrochloric acid in the stomach that improve peristalsis (Chaieb et al., 2007). Clove has been used a natural anthelmintic digestive stimulant (Patil et al., 2014). A large number of chemical anthelmintics are now available but most of them are expensive, anthelmintic resistance, high price value and adverse effects (Hannan et al., 2003). The multiple drug resistance not only increases morbidity and mortality but also increase expenditure and prevention and control of parasitic diseases are becoming very difficult day by day. In Bangladesh very limited research works have been conducted on the use of medicinal plants as anthelmintic. This present study was considered with the following objectives i) To evaluate the in vivo anthelmintic efficacy from Azadirachta indica, Momordica charantia and Eugeniu caryophyllus against GIT parasites in sheep. ii) To find out the combine in vivo efficacy at different concentration from methanol and aqueous treated extract. iii) To evaluate the effects of herb extracts on animal body by analysis the heamatological (Hb, PVC, ESR, TEC TLC and DLC) and biochemical (AST, ALT and creatinine) parameters.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Study area, study period and study design

The study area was included the sheep farm, a small gabble type farm housing during July to December 2015. An intervention study was conducted on in-vivo screening of herbs extract by using the three indigenous medicinal plants (Neem, Bitter gourd and clove) against gastrointestinal parasites in sheep.

b) Collection and processing of plant materials

Fresh leaves of neem *(Azadirchta indica)* Bitter gourd *(Momordica charantia)* fruits and dry clove *(Eugeniu caryophyllus)* were collected from the local area. Neem and bitter gourd washed thoroughly into running tap water to ensure removing of extraneous dusts materials (Sujan *et al.*, 2008). Then cut into small pieces and taken a plastic jar. Then perform air-dried and finally sun dried for 3 days on the roof by covering a piece of cloth as prevention oxidation such as antioxidants and others chemical components (Amin *et al.*, 2009). Clove was cleaned and be prepared for use. Dust was prepared from the dried leaves by using blender, mortar and pestle. Dried bitter gourd and clove dust was prepared with the help of a blender (Sujan *et al.*, 2008). A 25-mesh diameter seize was prepared to obtain fine dust and were preserved them into air-tight plastic container until being used (Amin *et al.*, 2009).

c) Preparation of Crude methanol extract (CME)

Crude methanol extract (CME) was prepared from the selected three medicinal herbs according to the standard herb extraction methods (Gilani *et al.*, 2004). Ten (10) gm of each category of dusts were taken into a 500ml beaker and separately mixed with 100ml 70% aqueous methanol. Then the mixtures were stirred for 30 minute by a magnetic stirrer (6000 rpm) and left as such for next 24 hrs (Amin *et al.*, 2009). The extracts were filtered through a fine cloth and final filtration was done through filter paper (Whatman No. 1) (Hussain *et al.*, 2010). Evaporation of water from filtrate by using a vacuum rotary evaporator at 50°C till it reached the final volume of 10 ml (Amin *et al.*, 2009). Stored in a refrigerator in air tightly corked-labeled bottle at 4°C temperature until use (Hussain *et al.*, 2010).

d) Preparation of Crude aqueous extract (CAE)

Crude aqueous extract (CAE) was prepared by using the selected herbs according to the standard herb extraction methods (Gilani et al., 2004). Half kilogram (kg) of each two category (neem and bitter gourd) plants parts and 250 gm of clove were taken separately and washed thoroughly in the running tape water. Each sample was dried in room temperature at 30 minutes and then bitter gourd was cut into small pieces. Then 50 gm of neem leaves was taken in blender's plastic pocket and mixed with 300 ml distilled water and prepared juice (Anonymous, 1996). Then the juice was filtered through a fine piece of porous cloth and final filtration was done by using the filter paper (Whatman No. 1) (Amin et al., 2009). The juice performed evaporation by using evaporator at 50°C till it reached the final volume of 10 ml as condense form. Stored in air tightly corked-labeled bottle at 4°C temperature in a refrigerator until use (Hussain et al., 2010).

e) Preparation of stock solution

Each category of condensed crude aqueous and crude methanol extracts was mixed separately at the ratio of 1: 2: 2 (neem: bitter gourd: clove) as formation of final stock solution. Then preserved in air tight corked-labeled bottle and stored at 4°C temperature in a refrigerator (Hussain *et al.*, 2010). Stock solution was used by diluting with required amount distilled water.

Herbal anthelmintic dose f)

Herbal anthelmintic dose was prepared for in vivo screening by adding required amount of distilled water after weighting stock solution (Amin et al., 2009). For in vivo screening combine herbal anthelmintic dose was given 1 ml/kg (100mg/ml) body weight for this study.

g) Sampling Strategy

A total number of 33 sheep of both sexes (male and female) and different age (6-24 month) were selected by taking interview with the help of prepared questionnaire. Highly infected (>840 EPG) sixteen (16) sheep were used for this present study. The sheep were divided into four (4) groups; each group was consisted of four (4) populations with the mean EPG are 947.5, 918.7, 923.7 and 911.5 for group A, B, C and D, respectively. Group A was represented as infected control group and B, C and D were treated groups.

h) Treatment intervention, Dose and Dosing

This study was investigated the herbs extracts dose was 1 ml/kg body weight at the concentration of 100 mg/ml (Amin et al., 2009). Ivermectin (1%) was used at 0.2 mg/kg body weight at sub cuteneous route in group B. 1 ml/ kg (100mg/ml) body weight was used as herbal anthelmintic doses in group C and D on day 0 and 7.

i) In vivo screening of plant extracts for anthelmintic efficacy

Oral administration of crude aqueous extract (CAE) and crude methanol extract (CME) at 1 mg/kg were performed and compared with ivermectin (Acimec®- ACI Pharmaceuticals Ltd.) on day 0, 7, 14, 21 and 28 by McMaster egg counting technique. The efficacy of different treatment was determined by faecal egg count reduction test. The effect of herbs extracts on animal body specially circulatory and visceral organs effects were determined by analysising the haematobiochemical parameters.

Collection, preservation and transportation of i) samples

Faecal and blood samples were collected from each sheep at day 0, 7, 14, 21 and 28 of the pre and post treatment period. Fresh eight gm fecal samples were collected from rectum in the morning before they are fed and then put the samples immediately into a sterile container containing six ml formalin. Blood samples were collected from jugular vein of each sheep and four ml blood placed into vacutainer tube, containing ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid (EDTA) and four (4) ml placed in another vacutainer tube without containing EDTA. Samples were then being immediately transferred by transport media to laboratory through ice eskie and stored temporarily in refrigerator before laboratory evaluation.

k) Examination of fecal samples for parasitic egg count

In each case, three gm of fresh faeces was accurately weighed and mixed in 42ml of saturated salt solution (Sodium chloride-400gm, water-10000ml; specific gravity-1.2) while the number of eggs per gram of faeces was obtained by multiplying the total number of eggs counted in the two squares of the counting chambers of the McMaster slide by the dilution factor of 50. Externeous particles were removed and residue was left pass through. Homogenus distribution was performed by well stirring. McMaster slide was filled by using a Pasteur pipette and remove the bubbles. Then second counting chamber was filled in the same way. Then egg floated up and sticks to the cover glass. Characteristics of eggs were identified using standard parasitological criteria described by Soulsby (1986). Then egg was counted by using microscope at low magnification.

	Number in two chambers
Number in one gram =	

- × Dilution factor

0.3

Total volume of suspension in ml

*Dilution factor =

Total volume of faeces

Determination of the drug efficacy /)

During the pre and post-treatment period EPG and clinical performance were monitored. Faeces were examined on day 0, 7, 14, 21 and 28 of post-treatment

period. Efficacy of the drug was calculated as per described formula by Moskey and Harwood (1941).

EPG of faeces before treatment - EPG of faeces after treatment

Percent efficacy =

EPG before treatment

 $\times 100$

m) Evaluation of haematological parameters

EDTA containing blood samples were used to determine the haematological parameters such as Hb, TEC, TLC and DLC with the help of microscope at day 0, 7, 14 and 28 during the treatment period.

n) Evaluation of biochemical parameters

The activities of biochemical parameters like as AST, ALT and creatinine concentration were determined at day 0 and 7, 14 and 28 of post treatment. Serum was separated by centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 15 minurtes. The separated serum was used for the estimation of biochemical parameters. AST and ALT activity was determined according to the method described by Reitman and Frankel (1957). Creatinine was determined by the method described by Husdan and Rapoport (1968).

o) Statistical Analysis

The experimental Data were entered into a spread sheet of the MS Excel-2007 Program. Data were sorted and cleaned using the Excel program before exporting to STATA-11 (STATA Corp, USA) for analysis. Descriptive statistics were performed to express the each category as percentage, mean and standard error (SE). ρ values of \leq 0.01 and \leq 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

III. Results

a) In-vivo screening of ivermectin, crude aqueous extracts (CAE) and crude methanol extract (CME) with their efficacy

The efficacy was observed and compared with the control group A (non-treated) and group B with C and D groups. The efficacy of group C and D was determined at the concentration of 100 mg/ml. Efficacy of ivermectin and herbs extract was considered based on declination of EPG count. The average EPG loads per gm faeces sample were 947.5, 918.7, 923.7 and 911.5 in the group A, B, C and D, respectively on day 0 of the pre-treatment. The EPG load were reduced in different post-treatment period and reached 109 (89 % reduction), 130.7 (86 % reduction) and 84 (90.7 % reduction) for group B, C and D, respectively on day 28, compared to the results obtained at day 0. Highly significant differences ($p \le 0.01$) were observed among the treated groups. The highest reduction of EPG was observed on day 28 irrespective of treatment groups (Table-1). Conversely, in the control group, the EPG load sharply increased, ranging from 947.5 at day 0 to 1572.5 at day 28 but the differences were not significantly differed ($p \ge 0.05$).

Table 1: Efficacy of ivermectin, crude aqueous extracts (CAE) and crude methanol extract (CME) of neem, Bitter gourd and clove based on reduction of EPG

Group	Treatment	Pre- treatment	Post-treatment			
		Day 0 (Mean±SE)	Day 7 (Mean±SE)	Day 14 (Mean±SE)	Day 21 (Mean±SE)	Day 28 (Mean±SE)
Α	Control	947.5±26.2	990.5±19.8	1162.5±33	1442±26.8	1572.5±22.1
В	Ivermectin	918.7±27	586.5±20.5 (36 %)	294.2±26.1* (66.8 %)	157±15.7** (82.8 %)	109±11.6** (89 %)
С	Crude aqueous extracts (CAE)	923.7±18.8	505±26.4 (45.2 %)	306.5±17.2 (66.8 %)	236.7±34** (74.4 %)	130.7±17.1** (86 %)
D	Crude methanol extract (CME)	911.5±29.3	454.5±24.3 (50.1 %)	279.5±27.5** (69.3 %)	157±19.1** (82.7%)	84±6.9** (90.7 %)

Each group consists of four sheep.

SE= Standard error; * = significant differences ($p \le 0.05$); **= highly significant differences ($p \le 0.01$)

The maximum reduction rate was observed in Crude methanol extract (90.7 % reduction where the ivermectin treated group (89 % reduction) and crude aqueous extracts (86 % reduction).

b) Effects on haematological parameters

The Hb (gm/dl) in untreated control group it decreased from 8.4 at day 0 to 6.1 at day 28 post-treatment. The Hb contents were increased from 7.8 at day 0 to 8.6 at day 28, 7.9 at day 0 to 8.4 at day 28 and

8.2 at day 0 to 9.2 at day 28 in ivermectin, CAE and CME treated groups, respectively. The PCV contents were increased from 28.2 at day 0 to 34.2 at day 28, 29.2 at day 0 to 36.6 at day 28 and 28.6 at day 0 to 35.2 at day 28 in ivermectin, CAE and CME treated groups, respectively. The PCV of the untreated control group reduced significantly ($p \le 0.01$) in different interval of the post-treatment, compared to 32.8 at the day 0, 23.2 at the day 28 (Table-3). The mean values of ESR (mm/1st hr) were 0.4, 0.7, 0.5 and 0.5 for group A, B, C and D,

respectively at day 0. TEC levels increased among the anthelmintic treated groups and reached from 6.8 at day 0 to 11.4 at day 28, 6.2 at day 0 to 9.2 at day 28 and 7.2 at day 0 to 10.8 at day 28, across the study period in ivermectin, CAE and CME treated groups (Table-2), correspondingly but the variation was not significant

($p \ge 0.05$). The mean value of TLC content decreased from 7.3 at day 0 to 5.4 at day 28. The TEC levels increased among the treated groups and reached from 6.2 at day 0 to 10.1 at day 28, 7.4 at day 0 to 9.6 at day 28 and 6.2 in day 0 to 8.5 at day 28 in ivermectin, CAE and CME treated groups, respectively.

Table 2: Effects of ivermectin, crude aqueous extracts (CAE) and crude methanol extract (CME) on Hb, PVC, ESR, TEC and TLC

-	. .	Pre-treatment		Post - treat	tment	
Treatment	Parameters	Day 0 (Mean±SE)	Day 7 (Mean±SE)	Day 14 (Mean±SE)	Day 21 (Mean±SE)	Day 28 (Mean±SE)
	Hb	8.4±0.7	8.14±0.5**	8.06±0.4**	7.84±0.3*	6.11±0.2*
	PCV	32.4±01.2	29.8±0.67**	27.4±0.5 **	25.2±0.6**	23.2±0.7**
Control	ESR	0.7±0.2	0.1± 0.1*	0.1±0.2*	0.1±0.1*	0±0*
	TEC	7.90±0.3	7.45±0.3**	6.84±0.1**	6.67±0.3**	6.24±0.3**
	TLC	7.29±0.5	6.95±0.5**	6.44±0.5**	5.72±0.5**	5.34±0.5**
	Hb	7.8±0.7	7.78±0.6	7.8±0.5	8.2±0.3	8.6±0.3
	PCV	28.2±01.4	29±1.6	30.8±1.2	33.2±1.4	34.2±1.5
Ivermectin	ESR	0.7±0.2	0.1± 0.1*	0.1±0.1*	0.1±0.2*	0±0*
	TEC	6.82±0.6	7.87±0.7	8.97±0.7	9.84±0.6	11.41±0.7
	TLC	6.22±0.6	7.16±0.6	8.28±0.7	9.02±0.6	10.07±0.8
	Hb	7.9±0.2	7.48±0.3	7.34±0.2	7.9±0.2	8.4±0.2
Crude aqueous	PCV	29.2±01.2	29.8±1.1	31.2±1.2	33.4±0.9	36.6±0.7
extracts (CAE)	ESR	0.5±0.2	0.3±0.2	0.2±0.1*	0.1± 0.1*	0±0*
	TEC	6.17±0.3	6.75±0.3	7.57±0.4	8.31±0.5	9.20±0.5
	TLC	7.4±0.3	7.94 ± 0.3	8.57±0.3	9.11±0.3	9.64±0.3
	Hb	8.4±0.7	8.5±0.7	8.6±0.6	8.9±0.4	9.2±0.4
Crude	PCV	28.6±1.5	30.2±1.2	32.6±1.3	34.4±01.1	35.4±1.1
methanol	ESR	0.5±0.2	0.2±0.1*	0.2±0.1*	0.1±0.1*	0±0*
extract (CME)	TEC	7.16±0.5	7.88±0.4	8.92±0.4	9.97±0.2	10.84±0.1
	TLC	6.23±0.7	6.8±0.7	7.53±0.7	8.01±0.6	8.53±0.6

Each group consists of four sheep.

SE= Standard error; * = significant differences ($p \le 0.05$); **= highly significant differences ($p \le 0.01$)

c) Effects on differential lymphocyte count

The mean values of lymphocyte (%) were reduced in different post-treatment period and reached from 66.2, 65.2 and 63.2 at the day 0 to 51.7, 52.7 and 52.5 for group B, C and D, respectively on day 28 of post-treatment (Table 3). The average values of neutrophil (%) of sheep were 36.5, 36.7 and 36 at the day 0 and reached 26.75, 28.5 and 29.2 on day 28 of post-treatment of group B, C and D (Table 3). Highly significant differences ($p \le 0.05$) were observed among treated groups. The average values of monocyte (%) of sheep were 1.5, 1.2 and 1.5 at the day 0 and reached 2.5, 2.2 and 2.5 on day 28 of post-treatment of group B, C and D (Table 3). Highly significant differences $(p \le 0.05)$ were observed among treated groups across the study period, compared to day 0. Conversely, in control group, the values of monocyte increased, ranging from 2.2 at day 0 to 0.2 at day 28. The eosinophil contents were decreased from 7 at day 0 to 5.7 at day 28, 6.7 at day 0 to 6 at day 28 and 7.2 at day 0 to 6.25 at day 28 in ivermectin, CAE and CME treated groups, respectively (Table 3). The eosinophil

percentage of untreated control group increased significantly ($p \le 0.05$) 8.2 at day 28, compared to 6.2day 0. The basophil contents were decreased from 0.5 at day 0 to 0.2 at day 28, 0.5 at day 0 to 0.2 at day 28 and 0.5 at day 0 to 0.2 at day 28 in the ivermectin, CAE and CME treated groups. The basophil of the untreated control group declined from 0.7 to 0 on day 28.

-		Pre-treatment	Post-treatment			
Treatment	Parameters	Day 0 (Mean±SE)	Day 7 (Mean±SE)	Day 14 (Mean±SE)	Day 21 (Mean±SE)	Day 28 (Mean±SE)
	Lymphocyte	63±1.4	63.7±0.9	65.7±0.9	68.7±0.9	70.5±1.2
	Neutrophil	34.5±1.9	36±1.4	38.7±1.5	41.5±2.2	44.2±1.7
Control	Monocyte	2.25±0.5	1.5±0.5*	0.7±0.5**	0.5±0.5**	0.2±0.5**
	Eosinophil	6.2±0.9	6.5±0.5	6.5±0.5	7±0.8**	8.2±0.5**
	Basophil	0.7±0.6	0.5±0.5	0.2±0.5	0±0	0±0
	Lymphocyte	66.2±2.0	63.2±0.9*	61.2±0.9**	56.2±1.7**	51.7±1.7**
	Neutrophil	36.5±1.2	34.7±0.9	33.75±0.5**	30±1.6**	26.7±0.9**
Ivermectin	Monocyte	1.5±0.5	0.7±0.5	1±0.8	1.5±0.5	2.5±0.5
	Eosinophil	7±1.1	6.7±0.9	6.5±0.5	6±0.8	5.7±0.9
	Basophil	0.5±0.5	0.5±0.5	0.2±0.5	0.5±0.5	0.2±0.5
Orreale	Lymphocyte	65.2±2.7	63.7±1.7	60.7±1.8*	55±2.5*	52.7±.95**
Crude	Neutrophil	36.7±1.7	35.2±.55*	33.5±.57**	31.7±1.5**	28.5±2.6**
aqueous	Monocyte	1.25±0.5	0.8±0.5	1±0.8	1.7±0.5	2.2±0.5
extracts (CAE)	Eosinophil	6.7±0.9	6.5±0.5	6±1.1	6.25±1.2	6±0.8
	Basophil	0.5±0.5	0.5±0.5	0.2±0.5	0±0	0.2±0.5
	Lymphocyte	63.2±.9	62.5±1.7	60.1±1.9	56±1.6	52.5±1.2
Crude	Neutrophil	36±1.6	34.5±1.2	33±1.1	31±1.5*	29.2±0.9*
methanol	Monocyte	1.5±0.5	0.7±0.9**	1±0.8**	1.5±1.1**	2.5±0.5**
extract (CME)	Eosinophil	7.2±0.9	6.7±0.1	6.5±1.7	6.25±1.2	6.25±0.9
	Basophil	0.5±0.5	0.5±0.5	0.2±0.5	0±0	0.2±0.5

Table 3: Effects on differential lymphocytes count in sheep affected with gastro-intestinal parasitic infestation

Each group consists of four sheep.

SE= Standard error; * = significant differences ($p \le 0.05$); **= highly significant differences ($p \le 0.01$)

d) Effects on biochemical parameters

The AST (U/L), ALT (U/L) and creatinine (mg/dl) values were differentiated among the treated and control groups. The levels of AST, ALT and creatinine varied significantly ($p \le 0.01$) at different observational periods within the ivermectin, CAE and CAME treated groups. The result recommended that the AST, ALT and creatinine level decreased significantly in

ivermectin, CAE and CAME treated groups on days 7, 14, 21 and 28 compared to day 0 (Table 4). The levels of AST, ALT and creatinine also varied significantly ($p \le 0.01$) among the groups on days 7, 14, 21 and 28. The values of AST, ALT and creatinine were significantly lower in the treatment groups than in the untreated group across the study period.

Table 4: Effects on biochemical parameters in sheep affected with parasitic infestation

Treatment	Paramatara	Pre- treatment		Post trea	t treatment		
rreatment	Parameters	Day 0	Day 7	Day 14	Day 21	Day 28	
		(Mean±SE)	(Mean±SE)	(Mean±SE)	(Mean±SE)	(Mean±SE)	
	AST	92.9±5.2	95.7±5.4	99.5±6.1	102.2±6.7	105.4±7.1	
Control	ALT	21.7±1.5	22.9±1.4	24.4±1.3	25.2±1.7	26.5±1	
	Creatinine	1.6±0.1	1.7±0.1	1.9±0.1	2.0±0.1	2.1±0.1	
	AST	99.4±6.7	96.6±6.4**	93.2±6.0**	88.7±5.9**	85.4±5.8**	
Ivermectin	ALT	24.5±2.1	22.1±2.0**	19.8±1.7**	17.6±1.6**	16.0±1.2**	
	Creatinine	1.7±0.1	1.3±0.1**	1±0.1**	0.8±0.1**	0.7±0.1**	
Crude	AST	90.9±3.1	87.4±2.7*	84.4±3.0*	80.6±2.7**	75.4±3**	
aqueous	ALT	24.5±1.4	23.3±1.3**	21.1±1.0**	19.8±0.8**	18.4±0.5**	
extracts (CAE)	Creatinine	1.8±0.1	1.5±0.2**	1.2±0.1**	1.0±0.2**	0.8±0.2**	
Crude	AST	95.7±9.4	92.7±9.5**	89.5±8.8**	86.5±8.4**	82.9±7.0**	
methanol	ALT	23.7±2.9	21.7±2.5**	19.5±2.2**	18.3±2.2**	17.1±2.0**	
extract (CME)	Creatinine	1.8±0.0	1.6±0.1*	1.4±0.1**	1.1±0.1**	0.8±0.1**	

Each group consists of four sheep.

SE= Standard error; * = significant differences ($p \le 0.05$); **= highly significant differences ($p \le 0.01$)

IV. DISCUSSION

Efficacy was founded on the basis of reduction of EPG count in comparison with the control and ivermectin treated group with other group on the day o to 28 day. The efficacy of neem, Bitter gourd and clove at the form of crude aqueous and methanol treated Extract against parasitic infestation in sheep was satisfactory level which was determinated by iv vitro and in vivo anthelmintic activity. The present study showed higher efficacy at the concentration of 100 mg/ml than the concentration of 25 mg/ml and 50 mg/ml. The anthelmintic efficacy was compared with corresponded studies Bhalke et al., (2011); Sujon et al., (2008); Rabiu and Subhasish, (2011); Surendra et al., (2013) and Kumar et al., (2014) who found that neem leaves were 85.4% and 89.7% effective at the dose rate of 100 mg/kg body weight, respectively and ivermectin was effective 96.62% against gastrointestinal helminths in sheep. The current result is in agreement with Qamar et al., (2011), after oral administration were observed and compared with the ivermectin. Efficacies of drug and herbs extract were considered based on declination of EPG count. In the study the maximum reduction level of ivermectin treated group (89 %) efficacy was observed which was close to the following author activites. The result is also consistent with Sujon et al., (2008) and Jaiswal et al., (2013) who found efficacy of Ivermectin and neem 94% and 81%, respectively. The maximum EPG reduction rate was observed in aqueous treated extracts 86 % reduction at the concentration of 100 mg/ml by oral administration of 1 ml per kg body weight. The control group A where the EPG count increased from 947.5 at the day 0 to 1572.5 at the day 28. On the other hands the maximum EPG reduction rate was observed in methanol treated extracts 88.6 % reduction at the concentration 100 mg/ml by oral administration of 1 ml per kg body weight. Costa et al., (2008) and Marta et al., (2008) reported neem, bitter gourd and clove extract were very effective in eliminating parasitic infection in sheep. The other authors of the same kinds of work against gastrointestinal parasites were investigated Das et al., (2000); Brelin, (2002); Mishra et al., (2005); Saha et al., (2006); Amin et al., (2008) found almost similar results. Frequently reduction of EPG indicates the effectiveness of both aqueous and methanol treated extracts against gastrointestinal parasites in sheep. So the present work proved the anthelemintic property of neem, bitter gourd and clove in response to the existence of popular reports of such activity in animals.

a) Effects on haematological parameters

The hematological parameters were analyzed on the comparison with control and treated groups (Table 2). The following investigated blood parameters such as PCV, Hb, TEC and TLC were improved significantly in parasites affected sheep with the anthelmintic (ivermectin) and selected herbs extracts treatment. Due to reduction of blood-sucking parasites (Haemonchus spp) and other gastrointestinal parasites infections in sheep the blood parameters such as Hb, PCV, TEC and TLC increasing day by day. The ESR percentages were decreased in control group due to blood cell destruction by comparison on the day 0 to day 28 (Table 2). The effectiveness of herbs extracts both aqueous and methanol treated indicated the stimulatory effect on the hemopoietic system. The rise in mean PCV after treatment might be associated with the increase of Hb%, as these parameters are closely interrelated with each other. The improvement of blood PCV, Hb, TEC and TLC levels in the treated sheep might be due to the elimination of external and internal parasites, which was expected. Similar kinds of improvement of these blood parameters after anthelmintic treatment have been previously reported in sheep Amin et al., (2008); Aruwayo et al., (2011) and Rahman (2002) observed extract of neem leaves increased TEC, Hb content on day 21 of post-treatment in goat. Similarly, (Rob et al., 2004) stated that Hb content, PCV, TEC and TLC increased in sheep on day 28.(Kumar et al., 2003) reported that fall of Hb, PCV, TEC and TLC might be due to disturbance caused by worms rather than a direct blood lost. Reduction of ESR may be due to recovery from inflammation, which was produced by parasitic infestation. The result of the current study is consistent with Rahman et al., (2009) who found the ESR values was increased up to 5.19 mm on day 28 in untreated groups. Similar findings have been reported by (Kumar et al., 2003) and Deka and Borah (2008). In the study ESR and PCV values significantly (p≤0.05) increased in treated group which is similar to the finding of Navaka et al., (2013). The effects of herbs extracts as anthelmintic in animal body were indicated that the Eosinophil, basophil were decresed on the day 0 to on the day 28. On the other hand the monocytes count was increased day by day. In this study has showed the eosinophil and basophil were decresed and monocyte levels were increased which indiacates that the herbs extracts have effectiveness against gastrointestinal parasites in sheep. The percentages of eosinophil, basophil were decresed and monocytes were increased after post-treatment in parasitic infections reported by (Aruwayo et al., 2011). Similarly, Biu et al., (2009) reported that the mean values for monocytes, basophils and eosinophils increased significantly with increasing dose of anthelmintics while mean values for lymphocytes and neutrophil decreased significantly.

b) Effects on biochemical parameters

Effect of herbs extracts on animal body in the levels of AST, ALT and creatinine in anthelmintic treated groups decreased, which indicates the removal of

parasites from the affected sheep. Furthermore, it indicates that treatment with ivermectin, aqueous and methanol treated extracts are not toxic to the liver and kidney. By external palpation of liver and kidney in sheep are normal in size and shape. No debilitating lesion was founded on the liver. These results are in near similar with earlier reports (Sokumbi and Egbunike, 2000; Gupta *et al.*,2005).

V. Conclusion

Efficacy of herb extracts and drugs were measured in vitro and in vivo after the preparation and use of various concentration viz. 25 mg/ml, 50 mg/ml and 100 mg/ml of crude aqueous extract (CAE) and crude methanol extract (CME). In vitro screening the anthelmintic efficacy (96.6%) of methanol extract at the concentration of 100 mg/ml was higher than the aqueous extracts (86.6%). Highly parasitic infested sheep (16) age between 6 to 24 months were selected based on EPG count (>840 EPG) indicating anemic condition. In vivo screening of aqueous extracts and methanol extract at the concentration of 100mg/ml were reasonably effective 86 % and 88.6 % reduction of EPG. By hemato-biochemical parameters analysis the percentages of eosinophil and basophil were decrease which indicates reduction of endoparasites and correction of anemia. Therefore, these herbs can be used as alternatives to conventional anthelmintic and this could reduce the unnecessary use of conventional drugs which make parasites more resistant to the drugs.

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Equine Lung Worm: A Systematic Review

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Abstract- Lungworms are parasitic nematode worms of the order Strongylidae that infest the lungs of vertebrates. Dictyocaulus arnfieldi is the true lungworm affecting donkeys, horses, mules and zebras and is found throughout the world. Dictyocaulus arnfeildi can cause severe coughing in horses and because patency is unusual in horse (but not in donkeys) differential diagnosis in disease due to other respiratory disease can be difficult. Adult Dictyocaulus worms are slender, medium sized roundworms, up to 8 centimeter long. Females are about one third longer than males. They have a whitish to grayish color. Dictyocaulus worms have a direct lifecycle, i.e. there are no intermediate hosts involved. The pathogenic effects of lungworm depends on their location within the respiratory tract, the number of infective larvae ingested, the animal immune status, on the nutritional status and age of the host. Despite the prevalence of patent D. arnifieldi infection in donkeys, overt clinical signs are rarely seen; however, on close examination slight hyperphoea and harsh lung sounds may be detected. Diagnosis is based on clinical signs, epidemiology, presence of first-stage larvae in feces, and necropsy of animals in the same herd or flock. Bronchoscopy and radiography may be helpful. Larvae are not found in the faeces of animals in the prepatent or postpatent phases and usually not in the reinfection phenomenon. ELISA tests are available in some laboratories. Bronchial lavage can reveal Dictyocaulus arnifieldi infections in horses. The concern of lungworm in Ethiopia is increasing and is now to be a major problem of equines. Routine deworming of horses and donkeys may help prevent cross infection when kept together. Reducing pasture contamination with infective larvae is a key preventative measure that can be achieved to a large extent with adequate management measures. Rotational grazing with a change interval of 4 days and keeping the paddocks empty for at least 40 days significantly reduces pasture contamination.

Keywords: coughing, dictyocaulus arnfeildi, lifecycle, lung, pathogenic effect.

GJMR-G Classification: NLMC Code: WA 360



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Equine Lung Worm: A Systematic Review

Nuraddis Ibrahim

Summary- Lungworms are parasitic nematode worms of the order Strongylidae that infest the lungs of vertebrates. Dictyocaulus arnfieldi is the true lungworm affecting donkeys, horses, mules and zebras and is found throughout the world. Dictyocaulus arnfeildi can cause severe coughing in horses and because patency is unusual in horse (but not in donkeys) differential diagnosis in disease due to other respiratory disease can be difficult. Adult Dictyocaulus worms are slender, medium sized roundworms, up to 8 centimeter long. Females are about one third longer than males. They have a whitish to grayish color. Dictyocaulus worms have a direct lifecycle, i.e. there are no intermediate hosts involved. The pathogenic effects of lungworm depends on their location within the respiratory tract, the number of infective larvae ingested, the animal immune status, on the nutritional status and age of the host. Despite the prevalence of patent D. arnifieldi infection in donkeys, overt clinical signs are rarely seen; however, on close examination slight hyperphoea and harsh lung sounds may be detected. Diagnosis is based on clinical signs, epidemiology, presence of first-stage larvae in feces, and necropsy of animals in the same herd or flock. Bronchoscopy and radiography may be helpful. Larvae are not found in the faeces of animals in the prepatent or postpatent phases and usually not in the reinfection phenomenon. ELISA tests are available in some laboratories. Bronchial lavage can reveal Dictyocaulus arnifieldi infections in horses. The concern of lungworm in Ethiopia is increasing and is now to be a major problem of equines. Routine deworming of horses and donkeys may help prevent cross infection when kept together. Reducing pasture contamination with infective larvae is a key preventative measure that can be achieved to a large extent with adequate management measures. Rotational grazing with a change interval of 4 days and keeping the paddocks empty for at least 40 days significantly reduces pasture contamination.

Keywords: coughing, dictyocaulus arnfeildi, lifecycle, lung, pathogenic effect.

I. INTRODUCTION

quines are one of the most important and mostly intimately associated with man. They have enormous contribution through their involvement in different social and economic sectors. Equines play an important role as working animals in many parts of the world, for packing, riding, carting and ploughing. Equine power is very crucial in both rural and urban transport system. This is because of its cheapness and availability and so provides the best alternative transport means in places where the road network is insufficiently developed and the landscape is rugged and mountainous and in the cities where narrow streets prevent easy delivery of merchandise (Feseha *et al.*, 1991).

In Ethiopia equines have been as animals of burden for long period of time and still render valuable services mostly as pack animals throughout the country particularly in areas where modern means of transportation are absent, unaffordable or inaccessible (Abayneh *et al.*, 2002).

In some areas of North West Kenya and Southern Ethiopia, donkey meat is a delicacy and the milk believed to treat whooping cough (Fred and Pascal, 2006).

Even though mules and donkeys have often been described as sturdy animals; they succumb to a variety of diseases and a number of other unhealthy circumstances. Among these, parasitic infection is a major cause of illness (Sapakota, 2009). Lungworms are widely distributed throughout the world providing nearly perfect conditions for their survival and development but are particularly common in countries with temperate climates, and in the highlands of tropical and subtropical countries. *Dictyocaulidae* are known to exist in East Africa and South Africa (Hansen and Perry, 1996).

Dictyocaulus arnfieldi is the true lungworm affecting donkeys, horses, ponies and zebras and is found throughout the world (Smith, 2009). Donkeys and their crosses (Mules) are the natural hosts for lungworm and the condition in horses is usually found in those that have been in the company of donkeys and mules (Rose and Hodgson, 2000). This review article supports researchers to more understand the equine lung worm disease and factors influencing the disease occurrence under Ethiopian condition. It also helps policy makers to draw sound decisions in order to improve the control policy. The review paper gives information to farmers and cattle rearing people regarding equine lung worm disease.

And therefore, the objectives of this paper are to give background information on the disease and recommend modern control measures.

II. Definition and Etiology of Lungworm

Lungworms are parasitic nematode worms of the order *Strongylidae* that infest the lungs of vertebrates. The taxonomy of this parasite is belonging to kingdom *Animalia*, phylum *Nematode*, class *Secementea*, family *Dictyocaulidae*, genus *Dictyocaulus*

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and species of *Dictyocaulus amfieldi* (Johnson *et al.,* 2003).

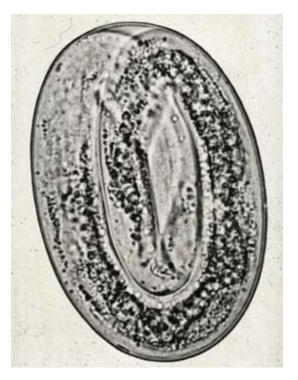
An infection of lower respiratory tract, usually resulting in bronchitis or pneumonia can be caused by several parasitic nematodes, including *D. viviparous* in cattle and deer; *D. arnfeildi* in horses and donkeys; *D. filaria, Protostrongylus rufescens,* and *Mullarius capillaries* in sheep and goats; *Metastrongylus apri* in pigs; *Filaroides (Oslerus) osleri* in dogs; and *Aelurostrongylus absrtusus* and *Capillaria aerophila* in cats, other lungworm infection occur but less common (Fraser, 2000).

Dictyocaulus arnfieldi is the true lungworm affecting donkeys, horses, mules and zebras and is found throughout the world (Smith, 2009). It is a relatively well adopted parasite of donkeys but tend to be quite pathogenic in horses, where this parasite is endemic (Bowman, 2003).

The first three lungworm listed above belong to superfamily *Trichostrongylidea* and have direct life cycle; others belong to Metastrongylidea and, except F.osleri and *C.aerophila* have indirect life cycle. Diseases caused by the three Dictyocaulus species are of most economic importance. The cattle lungworm Dictyocaulus viviparous is common in Northwest Europe and is the cause of severe outbreaks of "husk" or "hoose" in young grazing cattle. The lungworm of sheep and goat, *Dictyocaulus filarial* is less pathogenic but does cause losses especially in Mediterranean countries, although it also recognized as a pathogen in Australia, Europe and North America. Dictyocaulus arnfeildi can cause severe coughing in horses and because patency is unusual in horse (but not in donkeys) differential diagnosis in disease due to other respiratory disease can be difficult. Mullarius capillaries present worldwide and, while usually nonpathogenic in sheep, can cause severe signs in goats. Other lungworm infections generally cause occasional sporadic infection on many species in many countries (Fraser, 2000)

III. Morphology of *Dictyocaulus Arnfieldi*

Adult *Dictyocaulus* worms are slender, medium sized roundworms, up to 8 centimeter long. Females are about one third longer than males. They have a whitish to grayish color. As in other roundworms, the body of these worms is covered with a cuticle, which is flexible but rather tough. The worms have a tubular digestive system with two openings, the mouth and the anus. They also have a nervous system but no excretory organs and no circulatory system, i.e. neither a heart nor blood vessels. The female ovaries are large and the uteri end in an opening called the vulva. Males have a copulatory bursa with two short and thick spicules for attaching to the female during copulation. The eggs of *Dictyocaulus arnfieldi* are approximately 60x90 micrometers. They have an ovoid shape and contain a fully developed L1 larva (Junquera, 2014).





Lungworm larvea are slender and 25 to 70 millimeters long. The *D. arnfeildi* larvae resemble those of *D. viviparous* but the tail ends in a small spine (Fraser, 2000).



Figure 2: Larva of Dictyocaulus arnfeildi

Source: (http://www.studyblue.com)

a) Epidemiology

The epidemiology of lungworm disease is largely concerned with factors determining the number of intensive larvae on the pasture and the rate at which they accumulate. The third stage larvae are long living in damp and cool surroundings. Warm and wet summers give rise to heavier burdens in the follow autumn and spring. Horses are not the favorite host of this parasite and do not usually transmit the disease to other horses. In most instances, horses acquire this disease when pastured with donkeys (Blood *et al.*, 1999).

Under optimal condition the larvae may survive in the pasture for a year. They are quite resistant to cold although it generally delays their maturations. They can withstand temperature of 4-5 degree Celsius; Larvae can over winter in cold climates (Blood *et al.*, 2000). Most outbreak of verminous pneumonia occur during cool season specially autumn and early winter because the larvae stages of the causative worms tolerate and prefer low temperatures (Hansen and Perry, 1996).

The natural host of the parasite is donkey, and comparably, large numbers of parasites can accumulate in the lungs of this host without clinical signs. Donkeys and mules can act as a reservoir for horses (Beelitz *et al.*, 1996). *Pilobolus* fungi may play a role in the dissemination of *D. arnifieldi* larvae from faeces, as *D. viviparus. D. arnifieldi* is found worldwide, particularly in areas with heavy rainfall (Urquhart *et al.*, 1999).

b) Life Cycle

The detailed life cycle is not fully known, but is considered to be similar to that of bovine lungworm, *Dictyocaulus viviparus* except in the following respect. The adult worms are most often found in the small bronchi and their eggs, containing the first stage larvae, hatch soon after being passed in the faeces (Urquhart *et al.*, 1999).

Dictyocaulus worms have a direct lifecycle, i.e. there are no intermediate hosts involved. Adult females lay eggs in the airways of infected hosts. These eggs are transported to the pharynx within respiratory secretions. From the pharynx these eggs are coughed out, into the mouth to be swallowed or directly to the outside. Those that are swallowed release the L1 larvae in the gut, which are shed in the faeces. Once in the environment, L1-larvae develop to infective L3 larvae in about 1 week. These larvae show a low motility and remain close to the droppings. Animals become infected mainly while grazing, but infection can also happen indoors through contaminated hay or bedding. Once ingested and in the host's gut infective larvae penetrate into the gut's wall and reach the lymphatic nodules where the molt to L4 larvae. Through the thoracic duct and the jugular vein they reach the heart and are pumped to the lungs. Once in the lungs they are stopped in the lung capillaries, cross their wall and reach the bronchioles, bronchi or the trachea where they complete development to adult worms. The prepatent period (time between infection and first larvae shed with the faeces) lasts about 4 weeks. However, larvae in the lungs may become arrested (dormant, hypobiotic, inhibited) for up to 5 months. These larvae resume development at early spring and re-infect the pastures during the next season (Junquera, 2014).

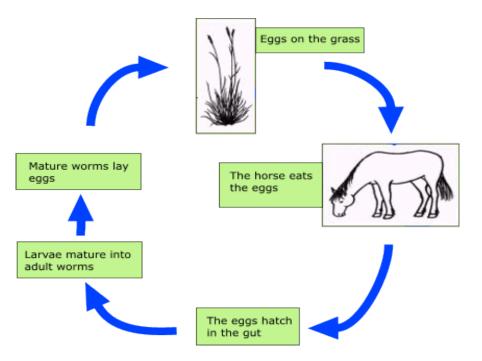


Figure 3: The lifecycle of Dictyocaulus arnfieldi

c) Pathogenesis

The pathogenic effects of lungworm depends on their location within the respiratory tract, the number of infective larvae ingested, the animal immune status, on the nutritional status and age of the host (Blood et al., 1989; Fraser, 2000). Larvae migrating through the alveoli and bronchioles produce an inflammatory response, which may block small bronchi and bronchioles with inflammatory exudates. The bronchi contain fluid and immature, latter adult worms and the exudates they produce also block the bronchi. Secondary bacterial pneumonia and concurrent viral infections are of the complication of Dictyocaulosis (Howard, 1993). The major pathologic changes which results from primary infection may be divided into three stages. These are the prepatent stages, where blockage of small bronchi and bronchioles by eosinophilic exudates produced in response to the developing and migrating larvae. The patent stage, when adult worms cause bronchitis and primary pneumonia development occurs. The post patent phase is when adult worms are expelled and majority of animals gradually recover. The pathological changes seen in the lungs during necropsy are atelectasis, emphysema, petechial hemorrhage and lung consolidation (Aiello and Mays, 1998).

d) Clinical Signs

Despite the prevalence of patent *D. arnifieldi* infection in donkeys, overt clinical signs are rarely seen; however, on close examination slight hyperphoea and harsh lung sounds may be detected. This absence of significant clinical abnormality may be partly a reflection

Source: http://www.merial.ph/SiteCollectionDocuments/equine

of the fact that donkeys are rarely required to perform sustained exercise. Infection is much less prevalent in horses. However, patent infections may develop in foals and these are not usually associated with clinical signs. In older horses infections rarely become patent but are often associated with persistent coughing and an increased respiratory rate (Urquhart *et al.*, 1999). Donkeys usually show no disease signs and can be silent carriers and shedders of this parasite, which causes clinical signs in horses (Johnson *et al.*, 2003).

e) Diagnosis

Diagnosis is based on clinical signs, epidemiology, presence of first-stage larvae in feces, and necropsy of animals in the same herd or flock. Bronchoscopy and radiography may be helpful. Larvae are not found in the faeces of animals in the prepatent or postpatent phases and usually not in the reinfection phenomenon. ELISA tests are available in some laboratories. Bronchial lavage can reveal *Dictyocaulus arnifieldi* infections in horses (Stuart, 2012).

Verminous pneumonia is easily confused clinically with bacterial bronchopneumonia, with acute and chronic interstitial pneumonia, and with viral pneumonia. The disease usually occurs in outbreak form in summer and autumn (Blood *et al.*, 1999). The diagnostic methods of lungworms are described as the following ways in details.

f) Clinical Diagnosis

Typical signs and symptoms are heavy coughing (often paroxysmal), accelerated and/or difficult breathing and nasal discharge. Affected animals lose

appetite and weight. Severe infections can also cause pneumonia (lung inflammation), emphysema (over inflation of the alveoli), and pulmonary edema (liquid accumulation in the airways). Adult livestock usually develops resistance and if re-infected may not show clinical signs but continue shedding larvae that contaminate their environment (Junquera, 2014).

g) Faecal Examination

A convenient method for recovering larvae is a modification of the Baermann technique in which large faecal samples (5-10 grams) are wrapped in tissue paper or cheese cloth and suspended or placed in water contained in a beaker. The water at the bottom of the beaker is examined for larvae after 4 hours; in heavy infections, larvae may be present within 30 minutes. Bronchial lavage can reveal *Dictyocaulus arnfieldi* infections in horses (Stuart, 2012).

h) Serological Diagnosis

Enzyme Linked Immuno Sorbent Assay (ELISA) test can demonstrate antibodies from five weeks after the animals have been exposed and it may be useful in

identifying infected animals when heavy burdens of worms do not generate and larvae in the feces. This time need to perform an ELISA depends on the availability of antigen-coated microstate-plates. If such plates can be provided; the result can be obtained within four hours after the serum has been prepared. If not, plates have to be coated with antigen for up to 16 hours (Boon *et al.*, 1984).

IV. NECROPSY FINDINGS

The morphological change in the lungs include wide spread areas of collapsed tissue of dark pink color, hemorrhagic bronchitis with much fluid filling all the air passed and enlargement of the regional lymph nodes. Histologically, the characteristic lesions are edema, eosinophilic infiltration, debris and larvae in the bronchioles and alveoli. The most obvious lesions at necropsy are discrete patches of over inflation. The bronchial epithelium is hyperplasic and heavily infiltrated by inflammatory cells, particularly eosinophils (Reinecke, 1989).

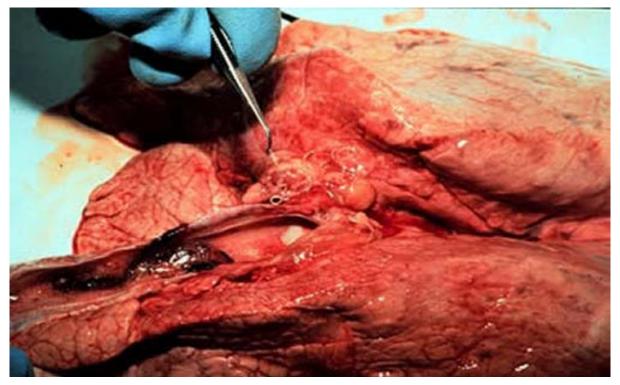


Figure 4: Necropsy finding of *Dictyocaulus arnifieldi* in lung of horse *Source: Staurt (2012)*

a) Differential Diagnosis

On a clinical basis, bacterial pneumonia is considered as the first tentative diagnosis. Other probable tentative diagnoses are considered such as chronic hypersensitivity pneumonitis, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, fungal pneumonia, immune mediated interstitial or vascular disease and unusual drug reactions as well as foreign body in the trachea (Burks, 1998).

b) Control and Preventions

Routine deworming of horses and donkeys may help prevent cross infection when kept together. Pastures that housed donkeys may be infected with lungworm larvae. As a result, horses and donkeys should not be grazed together (Johnson *et al.*, 2003).

Reducing pasture contamination with infective larvae is a key preventative measure that can be

achieved to a large extent with adequate management measures. Rotational grazing with a change interval of 4 days and keeping the paddocks empty for at least 40 days significantly reduces pasture contamination. This is due to the fact that larvae are susceptible to dryness and won't survive more than 4 or 5 weeks on pasture if they do not find an adequate host. Obviously, by very moist weather or where pastures are almost permanently moist survival may be longer. Alternate grazing with sheep and/or horses may be considered, since Dictyocaulus species are quite host-specific (for cattle, sheep & goats, horses). The longer the absence of the specific host, the higher will be the reduction of its specific lungworm. However, this may not be advisable in places infected with gastrointestinal roundworms that are simultaneously parasitic of cattle and sheep or horses. For their first grazing season it is highly advisable that young stock does not share the pastures with older stock that has been exposed earlier to infected grounds and can therefore shed larvae. It must also be avoided that young stock uses pastures already used by older stock during the same season. It must also be considered that heavy rains and flooding can disseminate infective larvae inside a property or from one property to neighboring ones. Keeping the pastures as dry as possible and keeping livestock away from places excessively humid are additional key measures to reduce the exposure of livestock to infective larvae. In endemic regions preventative strategic treatment of young stock is often recommended just prior to their first grazing season, followed by additional treatments depending on the infestation level of the pastures and the residual effect of the administered anthelmintic (Junguera, 2014).

Table 1: Different modern broad-spectrum anthelmin	nthic drugs cu	urrently used	against Lungworm
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Drug groups	Anthelminthic drugs	Dose (mg/kg)	Routs of administration
Macrolides	Ivermectin	0.05	PO and SC
Benzimidazole	Oxfendazole	2.5	PO
	Fenbendazole	5.0	PO
	Albendazole	7.5	PO
	Febantele	10	PO
Imidathiazole	Levamisole	8.0	PO

c) Economic Impact of the Disease

The vitality and wellbeing of horses of all age are thread by a variety of internal parasites and the use of control ensures and the best performance (Power, 1992). Internal parasites are one of the greatest limiting factors to successful horse rising throughout the world. All horses at pasture become infected and suffer a wide range of harmful effects ranging from impaired development and performance to death despite the availability of large array of modern anthelmintic, parasite controls often fail to safeguard horse health. Source: Blood et al. (2000)

The main reason for these break downs are errors the choice of anthelmintic and in the time of treatment (Herd, 1987).

d) Prevalence of lungworm infection in different parts of Ethiopia

The concern of lungworm in Ethiopia is increasing and is now to be a major problem of equine in the central highlands of Ethiopia. However there were little preliminary findings of lungworm infection which were done by few researchers of the country (Table 2).

Table 2: Prevalence of lungworm infection in different parts of Ethiopia

S. No.	Site of study	Prevalence in %	Researcher name
2	North Wollo	17.5	Belay, 2005
4	Jimma	13.8	Tihitna et al., 2012
5	South eastern Ethiopia	42.7	Kamil et al. (2017)

V. CONCLUSION

Dictyocaulus arnfieldi is the true lungworm affecting donkeys, horses, ponies and zebras and is found throughout the world. The natural host of the parasite is donkey, and comparably, large numbers of parasites can accumulate in the lungs of this host without clinical signs. Donkeys and mules can act as a reservoir for horses. The epidemiology of lungworm disease is largely concerned with factors determining the number of intensive larvae on the pasture and the rate at which they accumulate. The third stage larvae are long living in damp and cool surroundings. Warm and wet summers give rise to heavier burdens in the follow autumn and spring. Pastures that housed donkeys may be infected with lungworm larvae. As a result, horses and donkeys should not be grazed together. In endemic regions preventative strategic treatment of young stock is often recommended just prior to their first grazing season, followed by additional treatments depending on the infestation level of the pastures and the residual effect of the administered anthelmintic.

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Major Transboundary Disease of Ruminants and their Economic Effect in Ethiopia

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Abstract- Trans-boundary animal diseases pose a serious risk to animal production and jeopardize international trade. The objectives of this paper were to give general overview about major trans boundary disease of ruminants and their economic effect in Ethiopia. Ethiopia has been facing devastating economic losses from major outbreaks of trans-boundary animal diseases (TADs) such as foot and mouth disease, contagious bovine pleuropneumonia, lumpy skin disease in cattle and pest des petites ruminants, contagious Caprine pleuropneumonia, sheep and goat pox, and brucellosis in small ruminants. These diseases impose major economic costs and risks to the country, the neighbors, and trading partners. Even though both the direct and indirect impact of these diseases causes devastating economic losses to the country, the indirect effect is more serious. The trade implication of TADs can cause a greater economic impact than the direct production losses themselves. The trade ban due to the existence of these major trans-boundary disease and other negative domestic impacts on agriculture and other sectors, can be raised as an example. Among other factors affecting the economic benefit of the country from livestock sector, increased outbreaks of highly contagious trans-boundary animal diseases (TADs) is considered as major cause of economy loses.

Keywords: ethiopia, economic lose, livestock, trans-boundary disease.

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Befikadu Seyoum ^a & Endale Teshome ^o

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Keywords: ethiopia, economic lose, livestock, trans- boundary disease.

I. INTRODUCTION

rans-boundary animal diseases (TADs) have been described as those diseases that are of significant economic, trade and food security importance for a considerable number of countries; which can easily spread to other countries and reach epidemic proportions; and where control/management, including exclusion, requires cooperation between several countries [1]. These diseases are highly contagious and have the potential for rapid spread, irrespective of national borders, causing serious socio- economic consequences [2]. With increasing globalization, the persistence of trans-boundary animal diseases(TADs) in the world poses a serious risk to the world animal agriculture and food security and jeopardizes international trade [3].

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In recent decades, the world has been facing devastating economic losses to livestock farmers from major outbreaks of TADs, such as foot and mouth disease (FMD), in Europe, classical swine fever in the Caribbean and Europe(1996–2002), render pest (RP) in Africa in the 1980s, pest des petites ruminants in India and Bangladesh, contagious bovine pleura pneumonia in Eastern and Southern Africa (late 1990s), as well as Rift Valley fever in the Arabian Peninsula (2000)[4].

In Ethiopia, the aggregate annual economic losses from such animal diseases through direct mortality and reduce productive and reproductive performance were estimated at US\$ 150 million, equivalent to three billion Ethiopian birr per year [5]. The overwhelming majority of morbidity and mortality is caused by a finite set of common and predictably occurring disease problems that are conditioned by local geography, climate, and animal management system [6].

In the past two to three decades, public health authorities in industrialized countries have been faced with an increasing number of food safety problems. The situation is equally serious in developing countries. In addition to known food borne diseases, public health communities are being challenged by the emergence of new or newly recognized types of food-borne illnesses, often with serious health and economic consequences. For example, result of the BSE crises, the world suffered economic losses of more than 10 billion U.S. dollars [7].

Ethiopia has estimated livestock population of 57.4 million cattle, 58.6 million sheep and goat [8]. However, Livestock production system, particularly in pastoral areas, is mainly constrained by rampant animal disease and seasonal feed and water shortages, which can be up to a level of losing the entire livelihood of the pastoral households. Besides the direct losses incurred by the disease, the trans-boundary nature of most diseases, with potential risk of introduction of notifiable diseases, which are not yet reported from Ethiopia, and its high rate of transmissibility among different herds and/or between domestic animals and wildlife increases the risk. In particular concern to South Omo Zone area apart from other areas of the region, is that it shares boundaries with other countries, Kenya and South Sudan, and there is no real avoidance of movement of animals among the different pastoral agro-pastoral communities in these different countries, which makes the situation most favorable for the introduction and/or transmission of trans-boundary diseases; some are known to be found in neighboring countries ,but, not in Ethiopia, like East Coast fever, Rift Valley fever, and Nairobi sheep disease [9].

In Ethiopia limited works has been done on this disease so far and few works have been reported on risk factors assessments, epidemiological aspects, seroprevalence and financial impacts in selected areas of the country. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to review major trans-boundary disease of ruminants and their economic effect in Ethiopia.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

a) Epidemiological Feature of Major Trans-boundary Diseases in Cattle

Ethiopia is a resourceful country bestowed with the largest livestock resource in the Africa continent [10] with the potential to export substantial numbers of live animals and their products. Livestock is central to the Ethiopian economy, contributing for 20% of the GDP, supporting the livelihoods of 70% of the population and generating about 11% of annual export earnings [11]. However, the livestock sub-sector's contribution to the economy and foreign currency earnings in particular, is very low as per the country expectation and potential of the sectors. Some of the major factors contributing to the poor performance of the livestock sub-sector include the prevalence of highly contagious trans-boundary animal diseases (TADs) such as foot-and-mouth disease (FMD), lumpy skin disease (LSD) and contagious bovine pleura pneumonia (CBPP). These diseases continue to hinder international trade in live cattle and their products seriously in an era of globalization. Public concern is growing regarding the rapid trans-boundary spread of animal diseases through animals and animal products have forced importing countries to apply strict measures so that animals and their products exported should meet international sanitary phytosanitary (SPS) requirements [12].

i. Foot and mouth disease

Foot and Mouth Disease (FMD) also known as Aphtous fever, is a major global animal health problem [13]. It ranks first among the notifiable, list of infection animals disease. It is the most contagious transboundary animal disease (TAD) affecting cloven hoofed animals of domesticated and wildlife. Among species of the domesticated animals; cattle, sheep, goats, pigs and buffalo are susceptible. It is caused by RNA virus of genus Aphthous virus known as foot and mouth disease virus. There are seven recognized serotypes of FMD (O, A, C, Asia 1, SAT 1, SAT 2 and SAT 3), which differ in distribution across the world [14].

In Ethiopia, although its level of prevalence may have significant variations across the different farming systems and agro ecological zones of the country, FMD is endemic and known for its wider distribution. The records of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MOARD) from 1997 to 2006 showed that FMD outbreak occurred everywhere throughout the country with highest incidence in the central part [15]. The sero-prevalence of FMD among Borana pastoral cattle in 2008 was reported to be 24.6% (14). Another study that covered broader areas of the country showed sero-positivity of 44.2% with 1.6% and 8.9% mortality and case fatality rates [16].

Endemic distributions of five of seven serotypes of FMDV are maintained in Ethiopia: serotype O, serotype A, serotype C, serotype SAT 2, and serotype SAT 1. Infection or vaccination against one serotype does not provide protection against the other serotypes [17; 18; 15].

The disease was first recorded in Ethiopia in 1957 when serotypes O and C were found [19; 20]. FMD is transmitted by a variety of methods between herds, countries and continents. In endemic areas, the most important method of spread is probably by direct contact between animals moving across state and national boundaries as trade or nomadic cattle. The routes of spread include inhalation of aerosolized virus, ingestion of contaminated feed, and entry of the virus through skin abrasions or mucous membranes [21].

In Ethiopia, it is believed that infected animal's movement is common method of spreads of FMD. The movement of animal health workers and artificial inseminators from one farm to the other without taking into consideration the disease situation suggest that these could have been suspected in a spread of virus. On top of these, poor hygienic conditions on the farms notably the absence of foot bath, management practices like failure to isolate infected animals from the healthy ones and the absence of quarantine for newly introduced animals are also open doors for introduction of the virus to a farm [22;23]. In the most favorable circumstances, it is now estimated that sufficient virus to initiate an infection can be wind borne as far as 250 km (156 miles) [24].

The morbidity rate in outbreaks of FMD in susceptible animal's involvement and complications such as secondary infection, exposure or malnutrition can rapid approach 100% but some strains are limited in their infectivity to particular species [25]. However, the case fatality is generally very low, about 2% in adults and 20% in young stock [26].

ii. Lumpy skin disease

Lumpy skin disease is one of the most economically significant trans-boundary, emerging viral diseases. It is a disease with a high morbidity and low mortality rate and affects cattle of all ages and breeds [27]. The disease is caused by Neethling virus prototype strain classified in the genus Capri poxvirus of family Poxviridae. It is acute to sub-acute infectious disease and cattle strain of *Capri poxvirus* does not infect and transmit between sheep and goats [28; 29]. Lumpy skin disease occurs in different ecological and climatic zones and extends its boundaries to different areas [30]. It is currently endemic in most African countries and expanded to Middle East region [31]. It has been endemic in Africa for more than 70 years occurring in a wide range of ecotypes. In Ethiopia the disease was first observed in the western part of the country (southwest of Lake Tana) in 1983. Recently, Lumpy skin disease is found almost inall the regions and agro ecological zones of the country [32 and33].

Lumpy skin disease is mechanically transmitted by different types of biting and blood feeding arthropods [34]. Direct contact could be a minor source of infection. LSDV occurs in cutaneous lesions, saliva, respiratory secretions, milk and semen. The virus is very resistant to inactivation, surviving in desiccated crusts for up to 35 days, and can remain viable for long periods in the environment and this favors its transmition for prolong period [35].

Outbreaks of LSD are highly associated with seasonal peak of mechanical vectors in wet and warm weather conditions in Ethiopia. Therefore, morbidity and mortality rates for LSD vary greatly in different endemic areas depending on the severity of strain, prevalence of insect vectors and susceptibility of the host.During its occurrence it causes significant economic problems as a result of reduced milk production, beef and draft animals' loss, abortion, infertility, loss of condition and damage to the hide [36 and 28].

iii. Contagious bovine pleuropneumonia

Contagious Bovine Pleuropneumonia (CBPP) is a highly infectious cattle disease, which is caused by *Mycoplasma mycoides subsp. mycoides SC* (small colony, bovine biotype), is one of the major constraints to cattle-raising and trade in Africa. Contagious bovine pleuropneumonia is widespread in pastoral areas of African countries [37]. According to Tambi *et al*, [38], Ethiopia is one of countries in which CBPP is endemically maintained all over the country with 25% morbidity and more than 10% mortality rate. The economic effects of CBPP in a cattle population are enormous often resulting into heavy losses. In Zambia CBPP devastated livestock production and reduced the cattle from 650,000 herds in 1997 to about 400,000 herds in 2006 [39].

Cattle movements are responsible for the transmission of the CBPP from one herd, region or country to others. Close, repeated contact is generally thought to be necessary for transmission. In addition to contact *M. mycoides SC* can also spread through aerosol route if the climatic conditions are favorable [37,40].

b) Epidemiological Feature of Major Trans-boundary Diseases in Small Ruminant

Small ruminants form an integral and important component of pattern of animal production. Because of factors such as their low cost, little feed requirement, manageable quantities of products and high reproductive rate, keeping sheep and goats is preferable than large ruminants[41].

Development of small ruminant production in Ethiopia is constrained by widely distributed disease, lack of feed and improper management. Among diseases contributing to the poor production of small ruminants, highly contagious trans-boundary animal diseases (TADs) such as Pest des petites ruminants (PPR), Sheep and Goat pox, Brucellosis and Contagious Caprine Pleuropneumonia (CCPP) are found to be common in the country [42]. These diseases continue to hinder international trade of live goat and sheep and their products seriously in an era of globalization [43].

i. Peste des petites ruminants

Peste des Petits Ruminants (PPR) is an acute, highly contagious, infectious and notifiable transboundary viral disease of domestic and wild small ruminants [44]. *Pest des petitis Ruminants virus* (PPRV), the causative agent, belongs to the genus Morbillivirus of the family Paramyxoviridae [45]. Currently, PPR occurs in most African countries situated in the wide belt between the Sahara and the Equator (including the Sudan, Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda), the Middle East, and the Indian subcontinent [46]. It is a disease that threatens the national food security of affected countries and also results in economic losses due to sanitary related trade embargoes. The disease has high morbidity and mortality rates and significant economic impacts in developing countries [47].

There are often a number of risk factors that contribute to the overall risk of disease transmission in a particular community, production system or value chain [48]. These risk factors are often quite simple attributes of the sub-population such as the amount of movement, exchange of animals between households and flocks as a result of social practices and changes in economic conditions that exhibit seasonal patterns, distance from services, lack of large scale vaccination campaigns, altitude, season, and inter-species contact or interaction with wildlife [26]. In Ethiopia the morbidity and mortality rates from PPR can be up to 100% in severe outbreaks. In milder outbreaks, morbidity is still high but the mortality rate may be closer to 50% [49].

ii. *Contagious caprine pleuropneumonia*

Contagious Caprine pleuropneumonia (CCPP) is a highly fatal Caprine disease firstly reported in Algeria in 1873 [50]. It is a devastating disease of goats [51] included in the list of notifiable diseases of the Office International des Epizooties (OIE) and caused by *Mycoplasma capricolum subsp. Capripneumoniae*

(Mccp) [52]. It is a major threat to the goat farming industry in developing countries [53] and is pandemic in Africa, the Middle East and Asia [54].

This disease is the major trans-boundary disease in Ethiopia and characterized by fibrinous pleuro-pneumonia with increased straw colored pleural fluid in the infected lung [55]. The disease has been reported to affect only goat species and does not infect sheep [56]. In Ethiopia CCPP has been suspected to occur for a long period, especially in areas found at the vicinity of endemic areas of Kenya and Sudan. It has been confirmed to be present in Ethiopia since 1980s. The disease has been reported from almost all regional states of Ethiopia [57]. It is more prevalent in the arid and semi-arid low land of rift valley, Borena rangelands, South Omo, Afar and other pastoral areas of Ethiopia where about 70% the national goat population are existed. Sero prevalence rate from different authors varies from 6% to 77% in different parts of the countries [58].

CCPP is transmitted directly by an aero genic route through contaminated droplets. The outbreak of the disease follows the introduction of an infected animal into a group of susceptible goats [59]. Disease outbreak may occur after heavy rain, animal transportation over a long distance, poor climatic conditions and primary infections. This is because recovered carrier begins shedding the infectious agent during stress [56]. CCPP is a major cause of economic losses in the goat industry globally as these intracellular bacteria can infect domestic as well as wild breeds of goat [58,60,61), with 100% morbidity and 60–80% mortality rates [55].

iii. Sheep and goat pox

Sheep and goat pox (SGP) is viral diseases of sheep and goats characterized by fever, generalized papules or nodules, vesicles (rarely), internal lesions (particularly in the lungs) and death [62]. The virus that causes SGP is a *Capri poxvirus*, one of the largest viruses (170-260 nm by 300-450 nm) [63]. There is only one serotype of SGP virus (SGPV). Various strains of SGPV cause disease only in sheep, others only in goats, and some in both sheep and goats [64].

Sheep and Goat Pox (SGP) is one of the most important diseases of sheep and goats in Ethiopia following Pest des Petites Ruminants (PPR) and Contagious Caprine Pleuropneumonia (CCPP). This disease is among the commonest of the diseases that affect small ruminants entailing a huge economic loss and Office International des Epizooties (OIE) listed as trans- boundary disease of animal affecting the economy of the country through limiting international trade of animals and their products [65]. Morbidity rates in indigenous breeds can be 70-90% with mortality ranging from 5-10%. Mortality and morbidity rates in newly imported animals can reach 100% [66]. The most likely manner for SGP to enter a new area is by introduction of infected animals. Restrictions on the movement of animals and animal products (meat, hair, wool, and hides) are important to prevent SGP [67].

iv. Brucellosis

Brucellosis is an infectious bacterial disease that's caused by different species of Brucella. Each Brucella spp. has a preferred natural host that serves as a reservoir. Brucellosis in small ruminants is caused mainly by *B.melitensis*[68]. Brucella infection follows a very strict, host-related hierarchy of pathogenicity [69]. Thus, goats are the natural hosts of *B.melitensis* and sheep are preferred hosts of the pathogen [70]. Prevalence rates vary throughout and even within the same geographical zones operating different husbandry techniques [71].

This disease is common trans-boundary disease in Ethiopia that cause huge economic loses and trade restriction [72]. The herd level important risk factors for small ruminants brucellosis identified are large flock size, addition of new animals from unscreened sources, intensive system of management, history of abortion, grazing communal pasture, keeping sheep and goat together [73].

In Ethiopia, studies conducted on brucellosis in small ruminants indicated that; prevalence proportions of 1.5% in sheep and 1.3% in goats in the central highlands [74], prevalence proportions of 15% in sheep and 16.5% in goats in the Afar region[75] and 1.6% in sheep and 1.7% in goats in the Somali region [76]. The presence of this disease has also been reported in the Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples' Regional State and pastoral areas of Borana[77]. The disease is known by its high mortality rate in lambs and kids [78].

c) Factors Spread Trans-boundary Diseases

Traditionally, trade and travel have been instruments for disease spread. Now, changing climate across the globe is adding to the misery. Climate change is creating new ecological platform for the entry and establishment of diseases from one geographical region to another. Several new trans-boundary diseases emerge, and old diseases reemerge, exhibiting increased chances for unexpected spread to new regions, often over great distances[79].

Other common ways of spreading of transboundary diseases to a new geographical location are of live diseased through entry animals and products. contaminated animal importation of contaminated biological products such as vaccines or germplasm or via entry of infected people (in case of zoonotic diseases). Even migration of animals and birds, or natural spreading by insect vectors or wind currents, could also spread diseases across geographical border [80, 2].

d) Economic Effect of Trans-boundary Diseases

TADs impose major economic costs and risks to infected countries, their neighbors, and trading partners. The varying impact of TADs among stakeholders and the threat to existing and potential trade in wealthier countries complicates the question of appropriate control. For all livestock producers, the threat of TADs increases the risk of lost production and impacts on livelihood, increasing vulnerability to poverty particularly for small-scale producers. The impact of TADs and of their control varies depending on the virulence of the disease, number of animals at risk, dependency on livestock for livelihood, and method of control [81].

Direct effects of TADs on livestock productivity include reduced feed intake, changes in digestion and metabolism, increased morbidity and mortality and decreased rates of reproduction, weight gain, reduced draught power and manure and milk production. These have aggregate effects that limit economically important herd-management decisions regarding animal selection and optimal longevity. Many TADs have mortality rate 50-90% in susceptible animals [2]. For instance, in the wake of the render pest pandemic of 1887 was estimated to have killed about 90% of Ethiopian cattle and more than 10 million cattle on the continent as whole [82]. On other hand, the socio-economic significance of PPR is a result of heavy losses at production level and market effects along the value chain. It is estimated that 10% of the total impact of the disease is on trade and public expenditure and 90% on herd productivity [83]. In Ethiopia, FAO estimated that losses associated with PPR reached an average of US\$ 375 per flock, with an average of 143 small ruminants per flock (an average loss of more than US\$ 2 per animal) [84].

Indirect losses are often less visible than the obvious effects of clinical disease but may be equally or more important in their overall economic impact. Disease control has costs including vaccine purchase, vaccine delivery, disease surveillance, laboratory diagnosis and testing, quarantine and movement management, expensive antibiotic treatment [85]. Movement restrictions and local quarantines mean the closure of livestock markets and reduced or no opportunities for sale of live animals and possibly meat and other products. In addition to the measurable economic impact on a national economy the inability to sell one steer or some sheep or goats can bring severe hardship to a pastoral family with no other income of sources of support [86].

The trade implication of TADs can cause a greater economic impact than the direct production losses themselves [87]. The trade ban From February 1998 to April 1999, by Saudi Arabia and Other Gulf states of live animals from the Horn due to Rift Valley fever outbreak in Kenya is estimated to have cost US

\$32 million in lost exports and other negative domestic impacts on agriculture and other sectors such as transport and services [72]. In addition to this FMD is one of the major diseases in Ethiopia that hampering export of livestock and livestock products to the Middle East and other African countries, in which the country lost more than US\$14 million [88]. These bans have disrupted trade patterns and dealt severe economic blows to the region. Following the 1998 ban, for instance, exports from the port of Berbera in Somaliland ,a major export point for Ethiopian livestock from Somali Region, dropped from nearly three million head in 1997 to just over one million in 1998, representing an export loss of approximately \$100 million. As a result livestock prices in Ethiopia and Somalia fell by approximately 30 percent [89]. Traders have found ways of circumventing trade bans, for instance by exporting livestock to Yemen for re-export to Saudi Arabia, but, such measures do not address the root problem of SPS concerns from Gulf States. Indeed, the length of the bans suggests that Saudi Arabia and other Gulf States lack confidence in the Horn's disease surveillance and regulatory systems. The most recent ban was finally lifted in October 2009 [90].

Trans-boundary animal diseases have significant and measurable effects on human welfare in developing countries. Particularly in pastoral societies, livestock contribute directly or indirectly to food security and nutrition a source of protein, micronutrients, animal power and tradable asset [91].

e) Prevention and Control of Trans-boundary Diseases

Techniques and tools for the control of major TADs are already existed. They have been used successfully in many countries that most have been eradicated from or prevented from infecting North America, much of Europe, much of Southern Africa, Australia and New Zealand. In these countries there is now nothing other than sporadic and localized outbreaks which are usually quickly dealt with [92,93].

The following techniques are used for prevention and control of Trans-boundary disease these are: Preventing incidence of trans-boundary diseases and disease transmitting vectors and minimizing the movement of animals across the borders is essential. Also, prompt practice of quarantine protocol would reduce many trans-boundary diseases [94], Reducing man-made disasters that have adverse implications on climate [79], Interrupting the human-livestock wildlife transmission of infections, Breaking the cycle of disease transmission [95], Establishing regional biosecurity arrangement with capacity for early disease warning system for surveillance, monitoring and diagnosis of emerging disease threats [96], Undertaking animal breeding strategies to create disease resistant gene pools[97], Strengthening government policies to enhance agricultural/animal research and training, and technology development [98], Ensuring appropriate preparedness and response capacity to any emerging disease and Intensification of international cooperation in preventing spread of TADs [96,99].

In addition to this the International Organization for Animal Health recognizes the improvement of national standards in animal health, should be parallel to the improvement of veterinary services in terms of increasing the capacity of early epidemiological detection, diagnosis and control of TAD [59]. Roles of Veterinary Services in function of TADs control, rapid detection and early response are crucial for the control of TADs. This function is highly linked with the transparent and timely notification of disease for effective control of such diseases at source. To achieve those, national Veterinary Services (VSs), as a public good, play quite important roles and need to be strengthened in various areas of their important mission, including human and financial resources, legislation for animal health and diagnostic and surveillance capability, and disease control measures. The World Organization for Animal Health, has supported Member Countries/ Territories to evaluate Performance of Veterinary Services, by applying the OIE Public Veterinary Service tool, which is designed to assist VSs to identify gaps and weaknesses regarding their ability to comply with OIE International Standards on animal health, to form a shared vision with stakeholders and to establish priorities and carry out strategic in control of TADs [100].

III. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Trans-boundary diseases is becoming ever more important since it can spread throughout an entire region, impact trading partners and commerce, tourism, consumer confidence, and occur in distant countries, with devastating economic and livelihood consequences. With the globalization of trade and the increasing movements of people, these major crises will continue to menace the global animal and human populations. In Ethiopia the Livestock sub-sector's contribution to the economy and foreign currency earnings in particular, is very low as per the country expectation and potential of the sectors. Some of the major factors contributing to the poor performance of the livestock sub-sector include the prevalence of highly contagious trans-boundary animal diseases (TADs) such as foot-and-mouth disease (FMD), lumpy skin disease (LSD) and contagious bovine pleura pneumonia (CBPP) in cattle and pest des petites ruminants, contagious Caprine pleuropneumonia, sheep and goat pox, and brucellosis in small ruminants. These diseases continue to hinder international trade in live animal and their products seriously in an era of globalization.

Based on above conclusive remarks the following recommendations are forwarded:

- Strategies to improve veterinary service delivery by field staff and laboratories should be designed.
- ✓ In the medium to long term, health facilities and laboratories need to be better equipped and the number of veterinary staff in the public and private sectors should be increased.
- Rapid detection and early response are crucial for the control of TADs at source and national level.
- Government policies to enhance agricultural/animal research and training, and technology development should be strengthened.
- ✓ Animal movement from region to region should be controlled and quarantine should also be established.

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Use of Different Immunoresponse Assays for Evaluation of Live Attenuated Sheep Pox Vaccine in Comparison with Challenge Test

By Nermeen G. Shafik, Ibrahim M.M, Sonia A. Rizk & Ali A.M

Abstract- Sheep pox (SP) is one of the priorities, high-impact animal diseases in many developing countries, where live attenuated vaccines are routinely used against sheep pox virus (SPV). Sheep pox virus is a member of the family Poxviridae, genus Capri poxvirus. In this study, live attenuated Sheep pox vaccines were evaluated for humoral and cellular immunity using virus neutralization index (NI), ELISA and lymphocyte proliferation assay (XTT) beside routinely titration of life attenuated virus content of vaccine in Vero cell line which gives mean satisfactory TCID50/dose (3.34) for used vaccine batches, in addition to clinical examination of vaccinated sheep and also application of challenge test. Sixty susceptible lambs were divided into (10) groups and vaccinated with field and safety doses of (10) different batches of live attenuated vaccine intradermal (I/D) in tail fold while three lambs kept as control. The results showed that lymphocyte proliferation began to increase till reach to its peak (1.312) at 10th day post vaccination then decrease after that with re-increasing after challenge , serological assays results revealed that protective serum antibody titer started at 10th day post vaccination with mean titer (1.6 and 1.99), mean absorbance (1.56 and 2.02) and at three weeks the mean titer (2.35 and 2.61) , mean absorbance (2.43 and 2.51) for NI and ELISA respectively, also all vaccinated lambs showed satisfactory levels of protection against the virulent SPV through challenge test as SID50 more than (2.5) for all batches of vaccine.

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Use of Different Immunoresponse Assays for Evaluation of Live Attenuated Sheep Pox Vaccine in Comparison with Challenge Test

Nermeen G. Shafik^a, Ibrahim M.M^a, Sonia A. Rizk^a & Ali A.M^a

Abstract- Sheep pox (SP) is one of the priorities, high-impact animal diseases in many developing countries, where live attenuated vaccines are routinely used against sheep pox virus (SPV). Sheep pox virus is a member of the family Poxviridae, genus Capri poxvirus. In this study, live attenuated Sheep pox vaccines were evaluated for humoral and cellular immunity using virus neutralization index (NI), ELISA and lymphocyte proliferation assay (XTT) beside routinely titration of life attenuated virus content of vaccine in Vero cell line which gives mean satisfactory TCID₅₀/dose (3.34) for used vaccine batches, in addition to clinical examination of vaccinated sheep and also application of challenge test.

Sixty susceptible lambs were divided into (10) groups and vaccinated with field and safety doses of (10) different batches of live attenuated vaccine intradermal (I/D) in tail fold while three lambs kept as control. The results showed that lymphocyte proliferation began to increase till reach to its peak (1.312) at 10th day post vaccination then decrease after that with re-increasing after challenge , serological assays results revealed that protective serum antibody titer started at 10th day post vaccination with mean titer (1.6 and 1.99), mean absorbance (1.56 and 2.02) and at three weeks the mean titer (2.35 and 2.61) , mean absorbance (2.43 and 2.51) for NI and ELISA respectively, also all vaccinated lambs showed satisfactory levels of protection against the virulent SPV through challenge test as SID₅₀ more than (2.5) for all batches of vaccine.

The results demonstrated that vaccine titration in Vero cell line and evaluation of humoral, cellular immuneresponses using different assays for vaccinated lambs were possible to be an accurate parameter for evaluation of life attenuated sheep pox vaccine equivalent the protective results obtained against a virulent SPV in challenge test.

I. INTRODUCTION

Sheep pox virus is a member of genus Capri poxvirus in the family Poxviridae (1). Sheep pox is a disease of sheep and goats characterized by pyrexia, generalized skin and internal pox lesions, and lymphadenopathy (2). Sheep pox and goat pox are ancient diseases that are currently endemic in the Middle East, the Indian subcontinent, and Central and Northern Africa. Kids and lambs are generally more susceptible than adults (3).

Vaccination has been considered to be the cheapest and sustainable means of disease control in the enzootic situation like India, Egypt and Middle East

(4). Prophylaxis using attenuated vaccines is the choice of control measure as the immunity is long lasting (5). Vaccines are considered among the most valuable and cost-effective tools for the control of infectious diseases. The development of safe and effective vaccines for the prevention and control of emerging and neglected infectious diseases is an international priority (6) and (7).

In endemic countries a variety of attenuated live vaccines have been used against SPV. Live attenuated vaccine protection is mediated by both cellular and humoral immunity (8) and (9). The virus neutralization test is the most specific serological test for evaluation of immunity against SPV, also the enzyme linked Immunosorbent assay (ELISA) had already been proved to have great potentiality as a quantitative serological tool in the detection of antibodies against several viral infections including the pox viruses. It had been proved that the sensitivity and specificity of ELISA are superior to those of other serological tests (10) and (11).

A significant number of veterinary vaccine potency tests for serial release are conducted using in vitro methods. For live viral vaccines, these include culture techniques to quantify microbial content as an indicator of antigenic content of the vaccine (12) and (13).

Potency testing for inactivated veterinary vaccines has traditionally used challenge testing of vaccinated animals with live microbes to determine the quantity of vaccine necessary to provide adequate protection. Inadequately protected and control animals that become infected usually develop significant clinical signs of the disease and/or die. However, in recent years, antibody quantification procedures have been developed and validated and subsequently replaced the challenge test for several vaccines (14), (15) and (16).

The global veterinary vaccine industry continues to actively pursue in vitro assays and the reduction in the use of animals for in-process antigen measurement and finished product potency testing (17), (18) and (19)

The present work aims to use different immuneresponse assays for evaluation of live attenuated sheep pox vaccine as alternatives to challenge test.

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c) Animals

d) Experimental Design

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

a) Virus

Virulent sheep pox virus, Egyptian strain of sheep pox virus was obtained from the Pox Department, VSVRI Abbassia, Cairo. The virus had been previously isolated from a local outbreak (20) and was used for challenge test.

b) Cell Culture

African Green Monkey Kidney cell line (VERO) was supplied by VSVRI, Abbasia Cairo and used for virus titration and serum neutralization test.

Attenuated sheep pox vaccine

10 batches of live attenuated sheep pox vaccine from Romanian strain of sheep pox virus years (2014, 2015 and 2016) stored at -20°C.

Batches of Sub Groups Number of SHEEP POX (b) 20X (Safety Groups (a) Field Sheep/Gp Vaccine dose dose) (2016) 3 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp1 3 Sheep (2015) 3 Sheep 3 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp2 Gp3 (2015) 3 Sheep 3 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp4 (2015) 3 Sheep 3 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp5 (2015)3 Sheep 3 Sheep 6 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp6 (2015)3 Sheep 3 Sheep 3 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp7 (2015) 3 Sheep Gp8 (2015) 3 Sheep 3 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp9 (2015) 3 Sheep 3 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp10 (2015) 3 Sheep 3 Sheep 6 Sheep Gp CO. CONTROL 3 Sheep Total # 63 Sheep

Table (1): Experimental Design

- e) Evaluation of life attenuated sheep pox vaccine
- Titration of live attenuated sheep pox in Vero cell Line by using tenfold serially dilutions of vaccine and calculation of tissue culture infective dose fifty / dose for each vaccinal batch (*TCID*₅₀/dose)
- 2. *Potency field tests:* Ten groups of sheep were vaccinated by inoculated subcutaneously in the ventral aspect of the tail fold with the field and (20X) safety dose of different (10) batches of vaccine, beside one control group, kept unvaccinated as negative control. The animals were clinically observed daily to detect post-vaccinal reaction, and different blood samples were collected for cellular and humeral immune responses were evaluated.
- Challenge test: was applied according to (10); 3 weeks post vaccination, all sheep groups and control group, inoculated with 0.5 ml of the virulent SPV through the intradermal route as five inoculums for each dilution of six tenfold serial diluted virus in both body sides of sheep. The challenged animals were kept in separate isolator under observation for (7) days, then exanimate for count of button shaped lesion and calculated sheep infected dose fifty (*SID*₅₀).

f) Samples

Heparinized blood samples were collected from vaccinated and control animals before and after vaccination at different intervals (0, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, 21 and 28 days) for application of the cellular immuneresponse assay.

Sixty three susceptible native breed sheep 6

The experimental sheep were divided into ten

months old were screened using serum neutralization

groups (contain 6 animals/each) and each group

divided into two subgroups as described in Table

(1).Beside control group (Gp Co.) contains three

animals, were kept unvaccinated as negative control.

test and found to be free from antibodies against SPV.

- Whole blood samples for separation of serum were collected also for application of the humoral immuneresponse assay at different intervals (0, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, 21 and 28 days).
- g) Evaluation of cellular immune response of the vaccine Batches

The cellular immunity was evaluated by application of Lymphocyte blastogenesis assay. It was carried out according to **(21)** and **(22)** using XTT cell viability assay kit (AppiChem).

- *h)* Evaluation of humoral immune response of the vaccine Batches
- Serum neutralization test (SNT): It was carried out using the microtitre technique according to (23) where SP antibody titer was expressed as neutralizing index (NI) according to (24).

Indirect ELISA: It was performed to evaluate the humoral immune response according to the method

described by (25) and the results were expressed by Mean of Absorbance (Ab).

Results III.

Table (2): Showed the titer values of life sheep pox virus of different Batches of vaccine using Vero cell line (T.C) which calculated as TCID₅₀.

Table (2): Titration of different Batches of SHEEP POX Vaccine in Vero Cell Line

Batches of SHEEPPOX Vaccine	Virus Titer of Vaccine (TCID ₅₀ /dose)	Virus Titer of Vaccine (TCID ₅₀ /1ml)	Lot Dose	CONCLUSION
1-(2016)	2.5	3.5	10 dose	Satisfactory
2-(2015)	2.7	3.7	10 dose	Satisfactory
3-(2015)	4.5	6.5	100 dose	Satisfactory
4-(2015)	4.3	5.3	10 dose	Satisfactory
5-(2015)	2.5	3.5	10 dose	Satisfactory
6-(2015)	4.1	5.1	10 dose	Satisfactory
7-(2015)	4.3	6.3	100 dose	Satisfactory
8-(2015)	3.3	5.3	100 dose	Satisfactory
9-(2015)	2.7	3.7	10 dose	Satisfactory
10-(2015)	2.5	3.5	10 dose	Satisfactory
Virus Control	2.1/0.1 ml	4.1/1ml		Control

Table (3-1) Showed the post vaccinal body temperature changes (thermal response) of all vaccinated animals and control ones through different follow up intervals of experiment and till application of challenge test. the thermal reaction elevated only in sheep groups of batches (2, 6 and 10) at 5th days post

vaccination, while at 7th and 10th days the thermal reaction recorded in all sheep groups, and there was mild thermal reaction for all vaccinated groups while control unvaccinated group showed severe thermal reaction post challenge.

Table (3): Field follow up for Different Batches of SHEEP POX Vaccine post Vaccination

Days							3-1-	Therma	l Resp	onse (F	Reactic	on)					
Dayo		Post Vaccination														Post Ch	nallenge
Batches	Day	<i>y</i> 0	D	ay 3	D	Day 5		Day 7		ay 10	Day	/ 14	Da	ay 21		Day	/ 28
of SHEEP POX Vaccine	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x		F	20x
1-(2016)	-	-	-	-	-	-	+++	++	+	+	-	-	-	-		-	-
2-(2015)	-	-	-	-	+	++	+++	++	+	+	-	-	-	-		-	-
3-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	++	+	+	-	-	-	-	Challenge	-	-
4-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	+ +	++	+	+	-	-	-	-		-	-
5-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	+++	++	+	+	-	-	-	-	Test in	-	-
6-(2015)	-	-	-	-	+	++	+++	++	+	+	-	-	-	-	ו Sheep	-	-
7-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	++	+	+	-	-	-	-	ğ	-	-
8-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	+ +	++	+	+	-	-	-	-		-	-
9-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	+ +	++	+	+	-	-	-	-		-	-
10-(2015)	-	-	-	-	+	++	+++	++	+	+	-	-	-	-		-	-
Controls	-			-		-		-		-	-	-		-		+	+

* No Thermal reaction (-) (37.6 - 38.5) = Normal Temp. or very mild not over 0.5° c

*Mild Thermal reaction (+) (38.6 - 39.5)(39.6 - 40.5)

*Severe Thermal reaction (+ +)

Also clinical examination of all sheep groups explained in Table (3-2) Showed that small post vaccinal lesions or reactions in tail fold of sheep vaccinated with some batches and after 7 days of

challenge test few numbers of intradermal buttons shaped lesions were observed in body sides of vaccinated sheep groups control unvaccinated sheep group.

Davia				(3-2- C	linical I	Examir	nation ((App	earand	ces c	of I/D L	esior.	1)			
Days		Post Vaccination														Post C	hallenge
Batches	Da	ay O	Da	у З	Da	ay 5	Da	ıy 7	Da	ay 10	Day	/ 14	Da	ay 21		Da	ay 28
of SHEEP POX Vaccine	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x		F	20x
1-(2016)	-	-	-	-	-	-	<u>+</u>	+	-	-	-	-	-	-		V	V
2-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Cha	V	V
3-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Challenge	V	V
4-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	V	V
5-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	est i	V	V
6-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	<u>+</u>	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	in Sh	V	V
7-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Sheep	V	V
8-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		V	V
9-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	<u>+</u>	+	-	-	-	-	-	-		V	V
10-(2015)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		V	V
Controls		-	-			-		-		-		-		-			+++

* No Lesion (-)

*Small or Mild reaction (+)

*Detected Skin reaction (+)

* Variable numbers (V)

Table (4): Showed the titers of Vaccine Batches with virulent field strain of sheep pox virus, and using Challenge Test in Sheep after being challenged calculated of SID₅₀.

Table (4): Titration of different Batches of SHEEP POX Vaccine using Challenge Test in Sheep

Batches of SHEEPPOX Vaccine	Post Challenge (I/D) Button Shaped Lesion	Titer of Vaccine Post Challenge Test in sheep [Average of sheep infective dose ₅₀] (SID50)	Deference Between SID ₅₀ of Control & vaccinated Groups	CONCLUSION
1-(2016)	+	2.3	3	Satisfactory
2-(2015)	<u>+</u>	2.1	3.2	Satisfactory
3-(2015)	<u>+</u>	0.5	4.8	Satisfactory
4-(2015)	<u>+</u>	0.7	4.6	Satisfactory
5-(2015)	<u>+</u>	2.4	2.9	Satisfactory
6-(2015)	<u>+</u>	0.9	4.4	Satisfactory
7-(2015)	<u>+</u>	0.6	4.7	Satisfactory
8-(2015)	+	1.7	3.6	Satisfactory
9-(2015)	+	2.2	3.1	Satisfactory
10-(2015)	+	2.6	2.7	Satisfactory
Mean for all Batches	<u>+</u>	1.6	3.7	
Virus Control	+++	5.3		control

NB. The Batch of SHEEP POX Vaccine considered satisfactory if the deference between SID₅₀ of Control and Vaccinated Sheep is more than (2.5) after challenge.

Laboratory follow up of Different Batches of SHEEP POX Vaccine

Table (5): Showed the results of cell mediated immune response (XTT) expressed as the mean of absorbance and clarified that the lymphocyte proliferation.

Days					Cell me	diated	immun	e respo	nse(XT	T) (Mea	an of Ab	sorban	ce)				
						Po	ost Vaco	ination								Post C	Challenge
Vaccine Batches	Da	y 0	Day	/ 3	Da	y 5	Day	7	Day	/ 10	Day	/ 14	Day	/ 21		Da	ay 28
Datches	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x		F	20x
1-(2016)	0.075	0.076	0.370	0.421	0.518	0.600	1.035	1.052	1.320	1.420	1.041	1.061	0.501	0.635		0.832	0.864
2-(2015)	0.071	0.073	0.365	0.410	0.517	0.590	1.032	1.048	1.290	1.400	1.036	1.058	0.490	0.580		0.820	0.859
3-(2015)	0.074	0.073	0.366	0.413	0.516	0.611	1.033	1.050	1.300	1.415	1.039	1.058	0.498	0.621	Chi	0.822	0.861
4-(2015)	0.072	0.074	0.369	0.419	0.515	0.632	1.031	1.052	1.315	1.421	1.040	1.060	0.500	0.610	Challenge	0.825	0.860
5-(2015)	0.075	0.076	0.370	0.410	0.516	0.607	1.030	1.049	1.310	1.412	1.039	1.059	0.490	0.609	je Test in	0.830	0.856
6-(2015)	0.073	0.073	0.370	0.411	0.517	0.590	1.036	1.050	1.321	1.420	1.042	1.061	0.501	0.612		0.823	0.858
7-(2015)	0.072	0.075	0.368	0.412	0.514	0.570	1.030	1.051	1.291	1.391	1.038	1.060	0.940	0.609	Sheep	0.824	0.862
8-(2015)	0.074	0.072	0.372	0.420	0.518	0.622	1.037	1.053	1.325	1.429	1.042	1.067	0.507	0.617		0.830	0.856
9-(2015)	0.075	0.077	0.371	0.418	0.516	0.608	1.035	1.051	1.320	1.421	1.041	1.063	0.503	0.614		0.829	0.863
10-(2015)	0.070	0.071	0.370	0.423	0.517	0.633	1.032	1.054	1.326	1.416	1.040	1.064	0.508	0.610		0.833	0.857
Mean of means	0.073	0.074	0.369	0.416	0.516	0.606	1.0331	1.051	1.312	1.415	1.040	1.061	0.544	0.612		0.827	0.860
Controls	0.0)78	0.0	78	0.078 0.078 0.078 0.078 0.078)78		1	.043							

Table (5): Cell mediated immune response (XTT)

* Cell mediated immune response of control animals (absorbance) not exceeded, just between 0.07 – 0.08 all over the time of study up to Challenge Test.

Humoral Immuneresponses

Table (6 and 7) showed the results of SNT and ELISA assays, expressed as mean NI and absorbance (Ab).

Days				Н	umoral	immun	espons	se (me	an resu	ults of S	erolog	ical Exa	aminati	on)(N)		
Days		Post Vaccination														Post Cha	allenge
Vacc	Day	0	D	ay 3	Da	ıy 5	Da	ay 7	D	ay 10	D	ay 14	D	ay 21		Day	28
Batches	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x	F	20x		F	20x
1-(2016)	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.9	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.6		2.0	2.2
2-(2015)	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.4	1.4	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.4	2.7		2.1	2.3
3-(2015)	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.7	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.6	Cha	2.0	2.2
4-(2015)	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.6	Challenge	2.0	2.2
5-(2015)	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.6		2.0	2.2
6-(2015)	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	2.1	2.1	2.5	2.4	2.7	Test in	2.1	2.3
7-(2015)	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.8	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.6	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.6	Sheep	2.1	2.2
8-(2015)	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.6	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.6	ğ	2.1	2.2
9-(2015)	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.8	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.5	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5		2.1	2.1
10-(2015)	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.9	2.4	2.3	2.6		2.0	2.2
Mean of means	0.32	0.33	0.52	0.83	0.82	1.13	1.36	1.42	1.6	1.99	1.99	2.36	2.35	2.61		2.05	2.21
Controls	0.2	2	(0.2	0	.3	0	.4		0.4		0.3		0.4			1.00

Table (6): Neutralizing antibody titers

* Neutralization Index (NI) \geq 1.5 considered protective mean against Capri pox viruses (Cottral, 1978)

* Positive (NI) in Vaccinated and Safety groups starting from the 10th day post vaccination (about 2 weeks).

	Post Challenge	28	20X	2.45	2.35	2.35	2.45	2.40	2.35	2.45	2.45	2.45	2.40	3.41	1.9
ance)	Post Challen	Day 28	ш	2.25	2.25	2.30	2.40	2.35	2.30	2.30	2.40	2.40	2.30	2.33	 -
sorb					C	Challe	enge	Test	in Sl	neep					
dA to r		21	20X	2.55	2.45	2.45	2.55	2.50	2.45	2.55	2.55	2.55	2.50	2.51	40
) (Mear		Day 21	ш	2.35	2.35	2.40	2.50	2.45	2.40	2.45	2.50	2.50	2.40	2.43	0.40
(ELISA		14	20X	2.50	2.40	2.40	2.50	2.45	2.40	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.47	15
ation)		Day 14	ш	2.30	2.30	2.35	2.45	2.40	2.35	2.40	2.45	2.45	2.35	2.38	0.45
Examir		10	20X	2.20	1.89	1.90	2.22	1.98	1.90	2.20	1.92	1.94	2.00	2.02	14
logical		Day 10	ш	1.50	1.40	1.60	1.60	1.70	1.30	1.60	1.70	1.80	1.40	1.56	0.44
(mean results of Serological Examination) (ELISA) (Mean of Absorbance)	ination	17	20X	1.60	1.40	1.09	1.20	1.30	1.20	1.50	1.30	1.50	1.10	1.32	34
results	Post Vaccination	Day 7	ш	0.68	0.70	0.83	06.0	0.98	0.88	06.0	0.94	0.97	0.84	0.86	0.34
(mean I	PC	15	20X	1.02	0.92	06.0	0.98	0.92	0.96	0.97	06.0	0.94	0.98	0.95	35
		Day	ш	0.54	0.56	0.60	0.64	0.62	0.61	0.59	0.66	0.67	0.61	0.61	0.35
Humoral immune response		Day 3	20X	0.73	0.68	0.65	0.75	0.70	0.67	0.75	0.65	0.70	0.66	0.64	33
l immu		Day	ш	0.43	0.37	0.41	0.45	0.36	0.44	0.35	0.42	0.36	0.31	0.39	0.33
lumora		0	20X	0.44	0.29	0.28	0.45	0.35	0.28	0.45	0.30	0.38	0.29	0.35	
		Day 0	ш	0.36	0.28	0.46	0.37	0.28	0.36	0.25	0.43	0.26	0.23	0.33	0.35
	Days	Batches	Of SHEEP POX Vaccine	1-(2016)	2-(2015)	3-(2015)	4-(2015)	5-(2015)	6-(2015)	7-(2015)	8-(2015)	9-(2015)	10-(2015)	Mean of means	Controls

Table (7): ELISA Titer

* Mean of Absorbance \geq one considered positive (protective samples)

Table (8): Collective Immuneresponse Evaluation of Different Batches of SHEEP POX Vaccine

	allenge	28	20X		0.860	43	2.21	00	3,41		<u>ල</u>
	Post Challenge	Day 28	ш		0.827	1.043	2.05	-	2.33		-
		1		Cha	alleng	e Tes	st in She	ер			1
		Day 21	20x		0.612	0.078	2.61	0.3	2.51		0.40
		Day	ш		0.544	0.0	2.35	0	2.43		C
		14	20X		1.061	78	2.36	4	2.47		ري ب
		Day 14	ш		1.040	0.078	1.99	0.4	2.38		0.45
		10	20X		1.415	78	1.99	4	2.02		4
Mean of means		Day 10	ш		1.312	0.078	1.6	0.4	1.56		0.44
Mean c	cination	17	20x		1.051	0.078	1.42		1.32		84
	Post Vaccination	Day 7	ш		1.033	0.0	1.36		0.86		0.34
		15	20x		0.606	0.078	1.13	8	0.95		35
		Day 5	ш		0.516	0.0	0.82	0.3	0.61		0.35
		e S	20X		0.416	78	0.83	0	0.64		3
		Day 3	ш		0.369	0.078	0.52	0.2	0.39		0.33
		4 0	20X		0.074	78	0.33	5	0.35		35
		Day 0	ш		0.073	0.078	0.32	0.2	0.33		0.35
Davs		Exam	Assay	Cellular	immune. (XTT).	Controls	Humoral immune. (NI)	Controls	Humoral immune.	(ELISA)	Controls

Table (0) Collective virue	Titorotion	for all vacaina Databaa
Table (9): Collective virus	meration	for all vaccine batches

Mean of	Virus Titer of Vaccine	Batches	CONCLUSION
Titer for all Batches in cells (TCID ₅₀ /dose)	3.34	10 Batches	Satisfactory
Virus Control	2.1		control
Titer for all Batches in Sheep (Challenge Test)	1.6	10 Batches	Satisfactory (as deference: $5.3 - 1.6 = 3.7 > 2.5$)
Virus Control	5.3		control

1- Immuneresponse Assays

2- Titration in cell Line (Cell T) & Sheep (Sheep T)

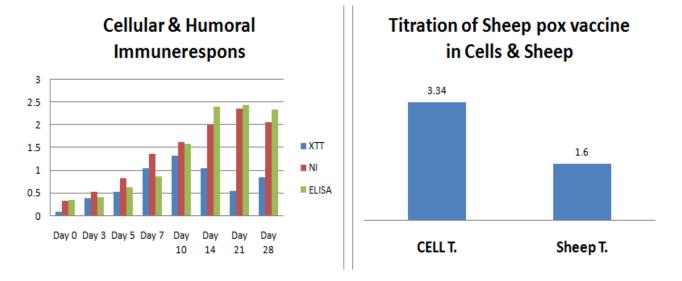


Fig. (1): Collective Evaluation Methods of Live Attenuated Sheep Pox Vaccine

IV. Discussion

Immunity to sheep pox involves both humoral and cellular responses (26). Antigens on the envelope and on the tubular elements of the virion surface stimulate protective antibodies. Even though it is the cell mediated immune response which eliminates the infection, antibodies limit the spread of the infection within the body. Neutralizing antibodies do play a significant role in the immunity as they have been shown to be an essential component of the protective immune response against sheep pox as the same was found to be absent in unvaccinated and pre-vaccinal serum samples (27) .Current evaluation of animal vaccines still focuses on the potency of final products in a batch-wise manner. All recent researches go in way to shafting from in-vivo to in-vitro for replacement the animal models, to ensure relevant quality attributes of vaccine batches by in-vitro evaluation of vaccines rather than by in-vivo potency tests on the final product (28).

For evaluating veterinary vaccines challenge studies were widely used under controlled conditions and sero-conversion studies, but the potency test in animals requires a large number of animals and involves unrelieved pain and suffering. A relevant in-vitro assay should provide a more accurate, reproducible, rapid, safe, vaccine potency test (29).

So, this study was performed for evaluation of live attenuated sheep pox vaccine by using different immuneresponse assays as alternatives to challenge test.

Table (2): Shows the titer values of life sheep pox virus of the ten different Batches of vaccine using

Vero cell line (T.C) which calculated as $(TCID_{50})$. The titer values were ($\geq 2.5 \ TCID_{50}$ / dose) for all batches in comparing with used control sheep pox virus (2.1 $TCID_{50}$ / 0.1ml) so all vaccine batches were considered Satisfactory on the level of tissue culture and these results agree with protocol of life attenuated sheep pox vaccine evaluation (30) and (31).

Table (3-1) Shows the post vaccinal body temperature changes (thermal response) of all vaccinated animals and control ones through different follow up intervals of experiment and till application of challenge test. The body temperature elevated only in sheep groups of batches (2, 6 and 10) at 5th days post vaccination, while at 7th and 10th days the thermal reaction recorded in all sheep groups as the result of using the live attenuated vaccine. Also there was a mild thermal reaction for all vaccinated groups while control unvaccinated group showed severe thermal reaction post challenge due to the development of protective humoral and cellular immuneresponse of vaccinated sheep as shown in Tables (5,6 and 7) these results agree with (32).

Clinical examination of all sheep groups explained in Table (3-2) Showed that small post vaccinal lesions or reactions in inner side of tail fold for sheep vaccinated with batches (1, 6 and 9) only that disappeared within 3 days (salve regeration), and there were no lesions or reactions in other groups. While after 7 days of challenge test few numbers of intradermal buttons shaped lesions were observed in both body sides of vaccinated sheep groups in comparing to huge number of buttons shaped lesions showed in control unvaccinated sheep group. The mild post challenge reactions appeared on the previously vaccinated animals, are due to the circulating antibodies derived through vaccination, which limits spread virus in animals (33) and (34),the results also were agreement with (35).

Table (4): Shows the titration of Vaccine Batches using Challenge Test in Sheep after being challenged with different dilutions of virulent field strain of sheep pox virus, then calculated as SID_{50} and the difference between the values SID_{50} of used control animal group and vaccinated groups were more than (2.5) for the vaccines and all batches considered satisfactory, these method of calculation and results were agree with (30) and (31).

It is known that sheep pox immunity depends mainly on the cell-mediated immune response in comparison to the humoral immune response (12) and (33).

The results of cell mediated immune response (XTT) expressed as the mean of absorbance in Table (5) showed the gradual increasing in lymphocyte proliferation as reached its peak on the 10th day (1.312 and 1.415) then decrease to lowest level at 21th day post vaccination (0.544 and 0.612) and re-increased to (0.827 and 0.860) post application of challenge test. These results agree with those of (36) and (37). Our results were in agreement with, (38) and (39) who reported the increase of lymphocyte activity by the 3rd day post vaccination and reached its peak on the 10th day then decreased.

Table (6 & 7) showed the results of SNT and ELISA assays. The humeral immune response increased gradually to be detected by the 10th day post vaccination as the mean NI was (1.6 and 1.99) more than protective level (>1.5) and mean absorbance of ELISA was (1.56 and 2.02) also more than protective level (> 1) then reached to the highest level mean of NI (2.35 and 2.61) and mean absorbance of ELISA (2.43 and 2.51) at the 21st day. These results also documented by (10) that reported neutralizing Index $(NI) \ge 1.5$ considered protective mean against Capri pox viruses and were found by (27) and (40), mentioned that serum neutralizing antibodies develop on the 2nd day and a significant rise of antibody titer was detected from the 21st to 42nd day post inoculation. Neutralization is very specific for almost all viruses (39). Results also harmonize with (41) and (42) who concluded that the serum neutralizing antibodies do play a significant role in the immunity against sheep pox and agree with (43) pox vaccines is the most effective immunogenic available and provide strong humoral immune response.

Table (8 & 9) and fig. (1) Showed the collective results obtained from all methods used for evaluation of live attenuated sheep pox vaccine either in-vivo or invetro. The pattern of these results indicated the presence of co-relation between different vaccine evaluation assays with the same value and accuracy to

overcome and solve the safety problems and precautions of Challenge Test. (14), (15) and (16).

So the positive concordance found between the antibody levels and protection in tested lambs indicates that using immuneresponse assays as method for evaluation of live attenuated sheep pox vaccine appears to be as accurate as challenge test and presents several advantages in terms of costs and speed of issue of results.

We conclude that NI and ELISA as immuneresponse assays can be reliable measure of the efficacy of vaccine batches, provided that a good correlation has been demonstrated between protective immunity and resistance to challenge in vivo. So NI and ELISA can be used as alternatives to challenge test.

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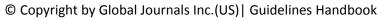


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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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