

NOTES ON:

PRINCIPLES OF VETERINARY EPIDEMIOLOGY

DISEASES IN POPULATION

- **A DISEASE** is a particular abnormal condition that negatively affects the structure or function of part or all of an organism, and that is not due to any external injury
- **POPULATION:** A complete collection of individuals that have some particular characteristic (s) in common. It could be of known size e.g. 50 fish in aquarium or of unknown size as tick populations in infested cows or number of stray dogs in certain district.

ETIOLOGY OF DISEASES *DETERMINANTS*

DETERMINANTS:

- * Definition. Disease is caused by multiple factors. Those factors are determinants of disease, i.e. any characteristic that affects the health of a population.
 - ❖ Epidemiologists assume that illness does not occur randomly in a population, but happens only when the right accumulation of risk factors or determinants exists in an individual.
 - ❖ To search for these determinants, epidemiologists use analytic epidemiology or epidemiologic studies to provide the "Why" and "How" of such events.
 - ❖ Ideally, the findings provide sufficient evidence to direct prompt and effective public health control and prevention measures.
- ❖ **Classification of determinants**
1. Primary and secondary
 2. Intrinsic and Extrinsic
 3. Determinants associated with host, agent or environment

1. **Primary and secondary:** For the initiation of most diseases;
 - i. **Primary determinant:** Primary cause of a disease
 - ii. **Secondary determinants.** Factors responsible of spread of a disease

1-Primary determinants = factors whose variations exert a major effect in inducing disease → necessary causes

- ❖ Examples for primary determinants: viruses, bacteria, parasites, trauma, climate, radiation, allergens, mineral deficiency (also all extrinsic); genetic constitution, metabolism, behaviour (also all intrinsic)

2-Secondary determinants = predisposing, enabling and reinforcing factors → component causes

- ❖ Examples for secondary determinants: age, sex, breed, hormonal status, immunological status (also all intrinsic); location, trauma, concurrent disease, vaccination status, husbandry (also all extrinsic)

1-PRIMARY DETERMINANTS (SPECIFIC FACTOR):

A) INTRINSIC: The causal agent is an integral part of the host.

1. **Hereditary:** Due to genetics different breeds have different risks for diseases, such as Cryptorchidism in horses, and umbilical hernia in calves.
2. **Metabolic and hormonal diseases** e.g. bloat in cattle, where clover at certain stage of growth gives rise to frothy bloat, but the exact cause of fermentation is unknown.
3. **Behavioral disorders:** e.g. weaving in horses, feather pecking and cannibalism in poultry.

B) EXTRINSIC: The causal agent is not integral part of the host. Includes:-

1. **Non- living agent:** Physical agents' e.g. trauma, bite of insects, fractures, etc
2. **Chemical agents** e.g. organic and inorganic poisons, poisonous plants, allergy, etc
3. **Living agents** e.g. bacteria, viruses, Mycoplasma, rickettsia, helminthes, fungi, etc.

2-SECONDARY DETERMINANTS (PREDISPOSING FACTORS).

A) INTRINSIC: - It includes:-

1. **Age:** is very important because the risk of many diseases changes widely over the animal's life due to underlying physiological changes that are associated with age, Neonates are highly susceptible to many enteric and respiratory infections but resistance increases as the animals mature.
2. **Sex.** This has a relative susceptibility of different sexual organs and tissues on invasion by pathogenic agents, as infection of pregnant uterus of the cows by B.abortus
3. **Species breed and strain.** There is a natural variation in the susceptibility of animals to diseases e.g. FMD can affect cattle and sheep while horses are resistant.
4. **Metabolism and hormonal balance.** There are effects of sex hormones, cortisone and metabolic state on the disease condition on the other hand, estrogen cause relative resistance of the uterus to vibrio and trichomonas infection during estrus.
5. **State of nutrition.** Well-nourished animals is more resistant to the disease than those which are underfed e.g. Helminthes and john's disease. Also, good

condition and highly fed animals are susceptible to some diseases than in poor condition e.g. enterotoxaemia diseases.

6. **Stress.** Stress factors have a great role in the spreading of diseases e.g., parasitic infestation, increases the incidence of hepatic necrosis (black disease) in lambs.
7. **Physiological state.** Brucellosis is established only after puberty causing abortion at the 6th months of pregnancy or later.
8. **Vaccination** .increases an individual's resistance to disease but the protection is not absolute for most biologics.

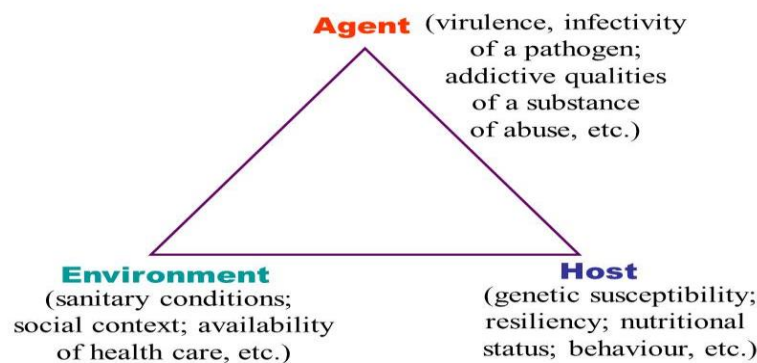
B-EXTRINSIC: It includes the factors in the environment

- 1) Animal stocking density, animal movement between groups; Housing (e.g. ventilation, sanitation):
- 2) Environmental conditions (e.g. temperature, humidity, wind velocity, precipitation).

I) EPIDEMIOLOGICAL TRIAD "DETERMINANTS ASSOCIATED WITH HOST, AGENT OR ENVIRONMENT "

Definition: A model used to explain the etiology "cause" of diseases.

The 'epidemiological triad' of causal factors



Cf. Fireman's mantra: a fire requires air, fuel and heat

- * **Animal disease results** from interaction between the host, agent and the environment. A vector may be involved in transmission.
- * **A vector, an organism** which transmits infection by conveying the pathogen from one host to another without causing disease itself, may be part of the infectious process.



CONTINUE...

AGENT: is the cause of the disease

- Can be bacteria, virus, parasite, fungus, mold
- Chemicals (solvents), Radiation, heat, natural toxins (snake or spider venom)

HOST:

is an organism, usually human or animal, that harbors the disease

PATHOGEN:

disease-causing microorganism or related substance

ENVIRONMENT:

is the favorable surroundings and conditions external to the human or animal that cause or allow the disease or allow disease transmission

1-AGENT: Biological, physical, or chemical factors whose presence, absence are necessary for the disease to occur. Examples: bacteria, viruses, fungi, poison, drugs, trauma, radiation, fire.

AGENT FACTORS: A variety of factors influence whether exposure to an organism will result in disease, including the

1. **INFECTIVITY** .The capacity of an agent to produce infection or disease. Measured by the secondary attack rate.
2. **PATHOGENICITY** .The capacity of the agent to cause disease in the infected host. Measured by the proportion of individuals with clinically apparent disease.
3. **VIRULENCE** .Refers to the severity of the disease. Measured by the proportion of severe or fatal cases. If fatal, use case fatality rate.

2- HOST is an organism, usually human or animal, that harbors the disease

HOST FACTORS (INTRINSIC) A variety of factors intrinsic to the host, called risk factors, can influence an individual's exposure, susceptibility or response to a causative agent. It includes:-

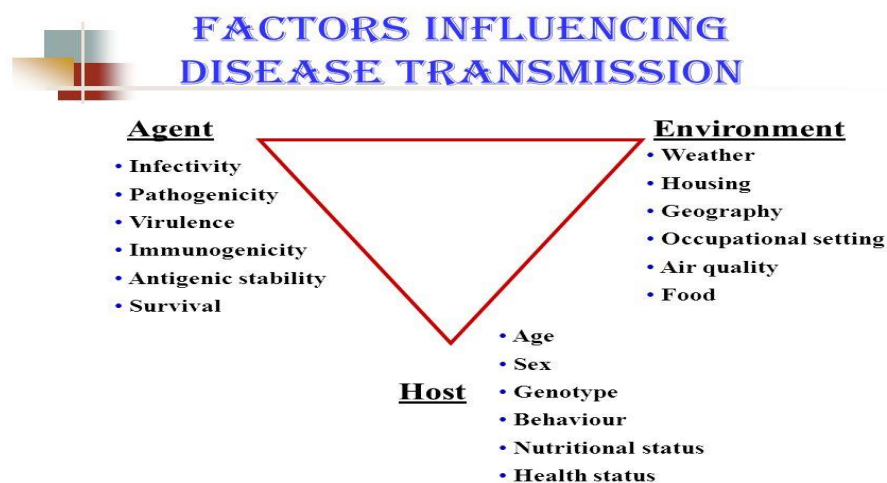
1. Genetics "Breed"
2. Previous exposure
3. Age , sex , breed ,etc
4. Behavior (e.g. mutual grooming, dominance, pica)
5. Production status (e.g., lactating vs. non-lactating)
6. Reproductive status (e.g., pregnant vs. non-pregnant)
- 2- Innate resistance (e.g. gastric barrier)
- 4- Vaccination status and response

- 3) **THE ENVIRONMENT** is the favorable surroundings and conditions external to the human or animal that cause or allow the disease or allow disease transmission
- Environmental factors can include the biological aspects as well as the social, cultural, and physical aspects of the environment

Table (1): Factors associated with the increase risk of animal diseases.

Host Characteristics	Agent	Environmental Factors
Age	Infectivity	Stocking density/Herd size
Sex	Pathogenicity	Regions, , herds, Animal movement ,climatic changes, feeding etc
Production status	Virulence	Geographical distribution
Genetics		Environmental conditions/hygiene
Previous Disease		Housing
Immune Status		Climate/climatic changes
Vaccination status		Nutritional status
Body confirmation		Air, water , feed pollution

Factors associated with occurrence of diseases or outbreaks

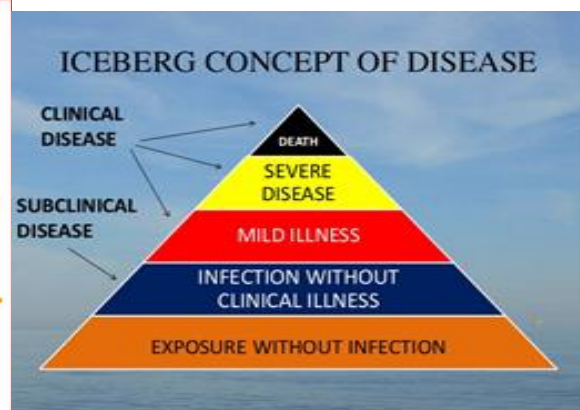
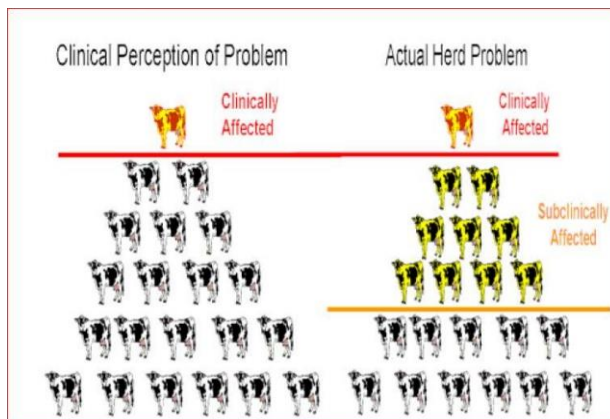
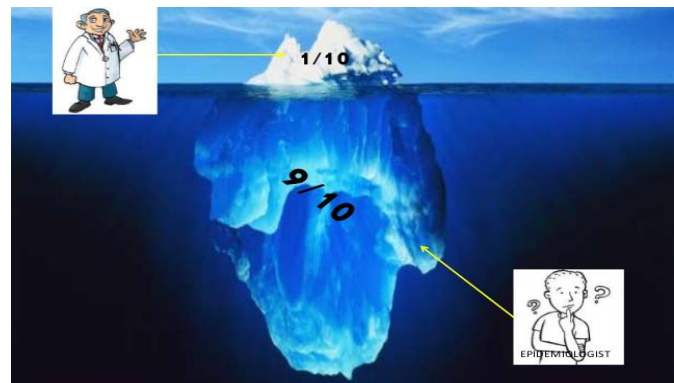


NATURAL HISTORY AND SPECTRUM OF DISEASE

- The “natural history of disease” refers to the progression of disease process in an individual over time; in the absence of intervention.
- There are four stages in the natural history of a disease. These are:
 1. Stage of susceptibility
 2. Stage of pre-symptomatic (sub-clinical) disease
 3. Stage of clinical disease
 4. Stage of recovery, disability or death
- The process begins with the appropriate exposure to or accumulation of factors sufficient for the disease process to begin in a susceptible host. For an infectious disease, the exposure is a microorganism.
- For cancer, the exposure may be a factor that initiates the process, such as asbestos fibers or components in tobacco smoke (for lung cancer)

ICEBERG PHENOMENON OF DISEASES

- * **Iceberg phenomenon of disease** gives a picture of the spectrum of diseases in a community.
- * **The visible part of the iceberg** denotes the clinically apparent cases of disease in the community. The part of the iceberg below the water level denoted the latent, subclinical, undiagnosed and carrier states in the community, which forms the major part.
- * **The hidden part is** especially important in disease like hypertension, diabetes and malnutrition.
- * **Some diseases exhibiting iceberg phenomenon:** diabetes , hypertension ,malnutrition, mastitis ,TB ,parasitic infestation



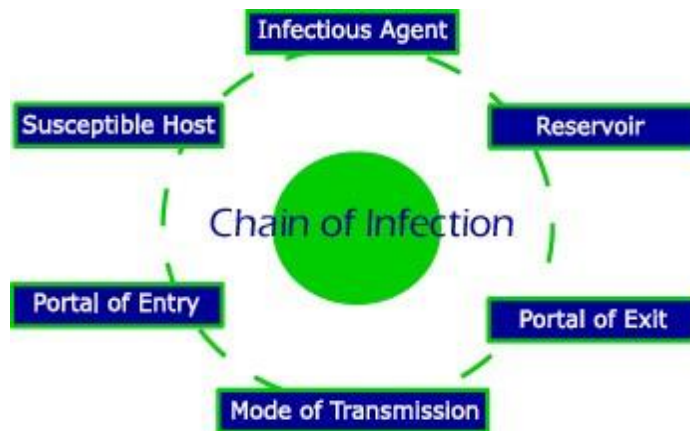
CHAIN OF INFECTION

DEFINITION. The six components involved in the transmission of microorganisms are illustrated and described as the chain of infection.

THE 6 ELEMENTS OF THE CHAIN ARE:

1. **Infectious Agent** - e.g. virus, bacteria, protozoa, fungi, animals (worms)
2. **Reservoir** - Where the agent normally resides
3. **Portal of Exit** - How the agent leaves the host

4. **Mode of transmission** - Direct or indirect contact
5. **Portal of Entry** - How the agent enters the susceptible host
6. **Susceptible Host** - Impacted by overall health, genetic factors, etc.



All these six components should be present to transmit an infectious disease from one human or animal to a susceptible host.

1. CAUSATIVE AGENT

- **The causative agent** for infection is any microorganism capable to producing disease.
- **Microorganisms** responsible for infectious diseases include bacteria, viruses, fungi, and protozoa. Sometimes, microorganisms are part of patient's own body flora and can cause infection in the immunocompromised host. These infections are called endogenous infections. Infections which are acquired from external sources are called exogenous infections

2. RESERVOIR OR SOURCE

- a) **RESERVOIR** is the 2nd link in the chain of infection.
 - A reservoir is the place where the agent survives, grows, and/or multiplies: human, animal or environment. • e.g. Pseudomonas spp. survive and multiply . It is the natural habitat of the infectious agent."
- b) **THE SOURCE** is defined as "the person, animal, object or substance from which an infectious agent passes or is disseminated to the host (immediate source).
- c) **A CARRIER** is a person who is colonized with a specific pathogenic microorganism but shows no signs or symptoms of infection, e.g. salmonella and Avian flu in water fowl

THE ELEMENTS IN A CARRIER STATE ARE:

1. The presence of the disease agent in the body.
2. The absence of recognizable signs and symptoms of disease.

3. The shedding of the disease agent in the discharges or excretions thus acting as source of infection for others

CARRIERS MAY BE CLASSIFIED AS BELOW:

- A. Type

1. **Incubatory** carriers are those who shed the infectious agent during the incubation period of the disease.
2. **Convalescent** carriers are those who continue to shed the disease agent during the period of convalescence
3. **Healthy** carriers emerge from the subclinical cases. They are the victim of subclinical infection who has developed carrier state without suffering overt disease.

- B. Duration

3. **Temporary carriers:** Are those who shed infectious agent for short periods of time.
4. **Chronic carriers:** A carrier who excretes the infectious agent for indefinite period.

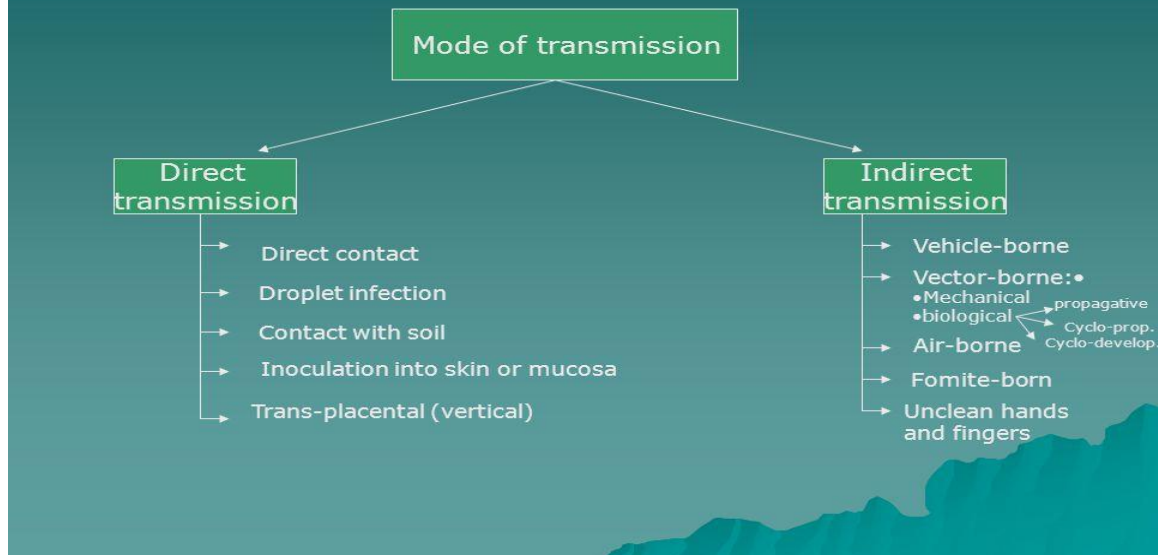
5. PORTAL OF EXIT

- The portal of exit is the path by which an infectious agent leaves its reservoir. Usually, • this portal is the site where the microorganism grows. Common portals of exit include the respiratory, genitourinary, and gastrointestinal tracts, the skin and mucous membranes and the placenta (transmission from mother to fetus).



MODE OF DISEASE TRANSMISSION

(II): Modes of transmission



4. Mode of transmission

- **Direct contact:** it refers to person-to-person spread of microorganisms through actual physical contact.
- **Indirect contact:** occurs when a susceptible person comes in contact with a contaminated object.
 - In health care settings, virtually any item could be contaminated with certain microorganisms, e.g. endoscopes, respiratory equipment, etc. Thorough cleaning, disinfection, and sterilization are essential in the health care.



1-DIRECT TRANSMISSION

- * It is the transfer of an infectious agent directly into the body. It occurs through direct contact with the pathogen, but the pathogen can be delivered into the body in different ways.

There are four types of contact transmission.

- * **Direct**—requires physical contact between hosts.
- * **Indirect**—contact with body fluids or tissues of an infected individual.
- * **Droplet**—large infectious particles sprayed into the air from the respiratory tract of an infected individual.
- * **Droplet nuclei**—small infective particles that are suspended in the air, taken in by a host, and are capable of traveling to the lung.

Note: Pathogens delivered by droplet or droplet nuclei are usually limited to about one meter's distance away from the victim. Longer distances or a more

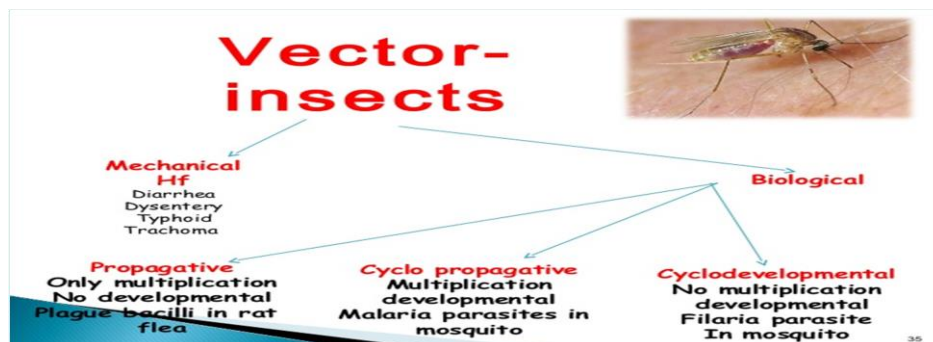
indirect route to the victim is classified as an indirect transmission through airborne means.

Examples of diseases spread by contact are sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), pink eye, Ebola, ringworm, and respiratory diseases.

2-INDIRECT TRANSMISSION

Indirect transmission is the transfer of a pathogen by a vector, vehicle, or through the air

A) BY VECTORS. A vector is a living organism, such as an insect or arthropod that carries a disease-causing agent from one host to another in the life cycle of a pathogen.



B) VEHICLE-BORNE TRANSMISSION

- Vehicle-borne transmission occurs when a non-living object carries a disease-causing agent from one host to another in the life cycle of a pathogen. Inanimate objects that can carry disease include cooking utensils, bedding, clothing, toys, surgical instruments, medical supplies, water, blood, serum, plasma, and body tissues and organs.
- Examples of diseases spread through vehicle-borne transmission are food-borne diseases and waterborne diseases.

C) AIRBORNE TRANSMISSION

- * In airborne transmission, pathogens are suspended in the air and enter a body through the respiratory tract.
- * This may sound at first like the droplet or droplet nuclei of contact transmission mentioned above, but in airborne transmission, infectious agents may be suspended in the air for longer periods of time.
- * Pathogens become airborne when they are shed from feces, sprayed from urine, or distributed by many different processes such as heating, cooling, or venting systems, or slaughterhouse environments.

5-PORTALS OF ENTRY.

- ❑ 1) Skin 2- Gastrointestinal Tract 3- Respiratory 4-Urogenital
- ❑ 5) Via Placenta 6)Parenteral (injection, bite)

6- SUSCEPTIBLE HOST

- The final link in the chain of infection is the susceptible host.
- A susceptible host is an animal who can become infected by the infectious agent.

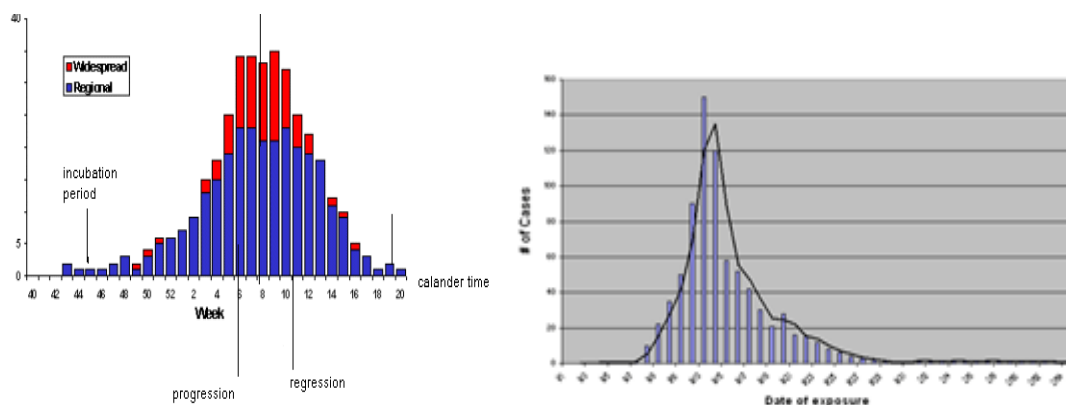
THERE ARE SEVERAL LEVELS OF INFECTION

- Colonization - Subclinical or Inapparent - Latent infection
- Manifest or clinical infection.

BASIC EPIDEMIC THEORY (EPIDEMIC CURVE)

* **EPIDEMIC CURVE** : : A graph in which the number of new cases of a disease is plotted against an interval of time to describe a specific epidemic or outbreak. . The shape of the epidemic curve may suggest what kind of outbreak is occurring.

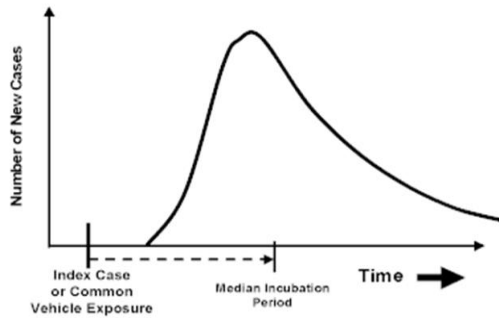
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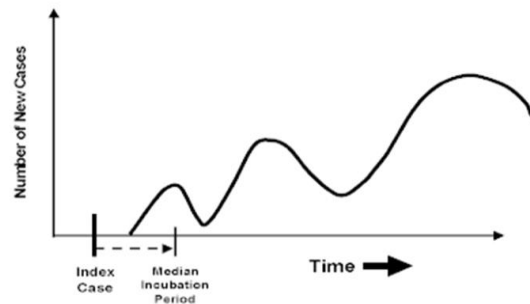
THE OVERALL SHAPE OF THE EPI-CURVE CAN REVEAL THE TYPE OF OUTBREAK

1. **POINT SOURCE EPIDEMIC**, animals are exposed to the same exposure over a limited, defined period of time usually within one incubation period.
2. **PROPAGATED (PROGRESSIVE SOURCE)** Epidemic occurs when a case of disease serves as a source of infection for subsequent cases and those subsequent cases, in turn, serve as sources for later cases

Epidemic Curve of Point Source Epidemic



Epidemic Curve of Propagating Epidemic



FACTORS AFFECTING THE SHAPE OF THE EPIDEMIC CURVE.

1. The incubation period of the disease.
2. The infectivity of the agent.
3. The proportion of susceptible animals in the population.
4. The disease between animals (i.e. animal density).

HOW CAN IT HELP IN AN OUTBREAK?

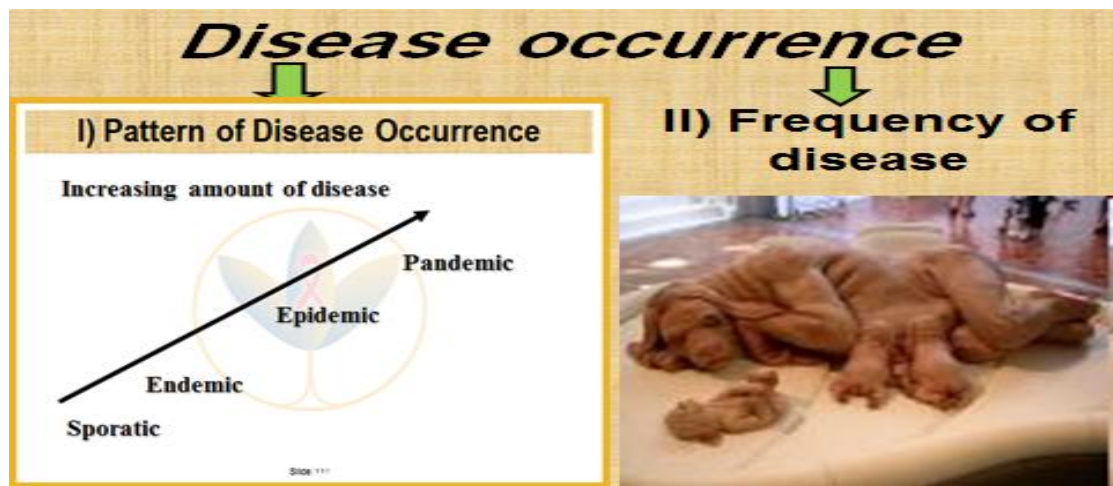
- An epi-curve can provide information on the following characteristics of an outbreak.
 - 1) **Pattern of spread**
 - 2) **Magnitude - outliers**
 - 3) **Time trend**
 - 4) **Exposure and or disease Incubation period**
- SO, a highly infectious agent with a short incubation period infecting a large proportion of susceptible animals at high density produces a curve with a steep initial slope on a relatively small time scale, representing a rapid spread of infection among the population (shift to left),
- This occurs at per-acute form of the diseases e.g. velogenic form of Newcastle and Avian influenza. Red curve

DISEASES IN POPULATION

- **Disease** - a disorder of structure or function in a human, animal, or plant, especially one that produces specific symptoms.
- **Population:** A complete collection of individuals that have some particular characteristic (s) in common . It could be of known size e.g. 50 fish in aquarium or of unknown size as tick populations in infested cows or number of stray dogs in certain district.

MEASURING OF DISEASE OCCURRENCE

- I) **PATTERN OF DISEASE OCCURRENCE "QUALITATIVE "** Sporadic - Endemic – Epidemic – panademic - cyclic"
- II) **FREQUENCY "QUANTITATIVE"** Prevalence, incidence, incidence rate secondary attack rate, mortality rate, case fatality rate



I) **PATTERN OF DISEASE OCCURRENCE "QUALITATIVE "**

- 1) **SPORADIC** refers to a disease that occurs infrequently and irregularly.
- 2) **ENDEMIC** refers to the constant presence and/or usual prevalence of a disease or infectious agent in a population within a geographic area.

Endemic diseases: The frequencies of diseases representing by:-

- a. **Holo-endemic:** most population is affected.
- b. **Hyper-endemic:** High proportion is affected.
- c. **Meso-endemic:** moderate proportion.
- d. **Hypo- endemic:** low proportion

3-EPIDEMIC refers to an increase, often sudden, in the number of cases of a disease above what is normally expected in that population in that area.

EPIDEMICS OCCUR when an agent and susceptible hosts are present in adequate numbers, and the agent can be effectively conveyed from a source to the susceptible hosts. More specifically, an epidemic may result from:

- a) A recent increase in amount or virulence of the agent,
- b) The recent introduction of the agent
- c) An enhanced mode of transmission so that more susceptible persons are exposed,
- d) A change in the susceptibility of the host response to the agent, and/or
- e) Factors that increase host exposure or involve introduction through new portals of entry.

OUTBREAK carries the same definition of epidemic, but is often used for a more limited geographic area.

EPIDEMIC PATTERNS. Epidemics can be classified according to their manner of spread through a population:

A. COMMON-SOURCE

B) PROPAGATED

C) MIXED

A) COMMON SOURCE EPIDEMIC – when a group of persons is exposed to a common infection or source of germs

1. **Point source** from a single source (food) .Persons exposed in one place at one time and become ill within the incubation period .Ex: bad mayonnaise at a picnic
2. **Intermittent irregular and somewhat unpredictable** . Tuberculosis spread by person to person contact and people move around and interact with other people
3. **Continuous epidemic** .When an epidemic spreads through a community or population at a high level, affecting a large number of people within the population without diminishing.

B) PROPAGATED EPIDEMIC when a single source cannot be identified, yet the epidemic or diseases continues to spread from person to person

- Usually experiences exponential growth
- Cases occur over and over longer than one incubation period.

C) MIXED EPIDEMIC . a common source epidemic is followed by person-to-person contact and the disease is spread as a propagated outbreak

4-PANDEMIC. Refers to an epidemic that has spread over several countries or continents, usually affecting a large number of people.

5-OTHER PATTERNS

- A) DIURNAL OR SHORT TERM PATTERN :** Diseases which occur during a certain period of time . e.g, during night, egg laying
- B) SEASONAL PATTERN:** Such as vector born diseases , poisonous plants toxicity and calf mortality .
- C) CYCLIC PATTERN :** It refers to the rise and wane of the disease with a fairly Constant periodicity of several years. This may be due to fluctuation in herd immunity or other known factors which be related to the agent or its reservoir. e.g., Rift valley fever)

EXERCISE "MATCH"

STRATEGIES OF MAINTENANCE "SURVIVAL" OF PATHOGENIC ORGANISMS

1. Wide host range pathogen affects different animal species .e.g., Brucellosis that makes the control of these diseases very difficult.
2. Persistence within the host: The host's defense mechanisms fail to eliminate agent.
3. Immune-suppression e.g., Bovine leukosis, virus diarrhea.
4. Antigenic variation e.g., FMD, Equine influenza ,etc.

5. Intracellular parasitism e.g., TB, Brucellosis where a pathogen is able to survive and multiply in the macrophages.
6. Avoidance of a stage in the external environment such as that occurs through Vertical transmitting e.g. Blue tongue; vector transmitting e.g. Rift valley fever
7. The development of resistance form e.g., spores in clostridia and anthrax.
8. Development of some substances: which may interfere with effect of some antibiotics on the infectious agent e.g., penicillin's enzyme.

FREQUENCY OF EPIDEMIC DISEASES

* It is the quantitative distribution of disease in a population. This can be done simply on the basis of counts the individuals which infected, diseased or dead.

1. **COUNT** : No of cases of disease : 30 cases of Kennel cough in dogs
2. **RATES** : Number of new cases / number of population (per thousand).
3. **RATIO** : Number of new cases / number of live population.
4. **PROPORTION**: Number affected/population. 30 cases in a kennel of 200 dogs; $30/200=0.15$ (15%)
5. **PREVALENCE = P** "...number of diseased animals in a known population, at a designated point in time, without distinction between old and new cases."

PREVALENCE =

$$= \frac{\text{No of affected animals at a particular point in time}}{\text{Total number of animals at risk at that point in time}} \times 100$$

- **Numerator** = existing cases (old and new) with differing durations of disease
- **NOT a measure of risk** but a measure of the disease burden on the community
- A 'slice' through the population at a point in time to determine who has disease and who does not. **Does not determine when the disease developed.**

PREVALENCE =

A POINT PREVALENCE – prevalence of disease at a point in time

– "Do you currently have asthma?"

B- PERIOD PREVALENCE – prevalence of disease at a specified period of time (e.g.) a single calendar year "Have you had asthma during the last 2 years?"

- * For example, if 20 cows in a herd of 200 cows were sick on a particular day, the prevalence of the sick in the herd on that day would be $20/200$ that is 0.1 (10%). This is a proportion that represents the probability of an animal having a specified disease at a given time. Prevalence can take values between 0 and 1 and is dimensionless.

6) INCIDENCE (I):

- * It is an expression of the number of the new cases that occurs in a known population over a period of time.
- * Incidence, like prevalence, can be defined simply in terms of the number of affected animals, but is usually expressed in relation to the population at risk

CUMULATIVE INCIDENCE "CI"

- **Definition:** It is the proportion of non-diseased individuals at the beginning of a period of study that becomes diseased during such period.

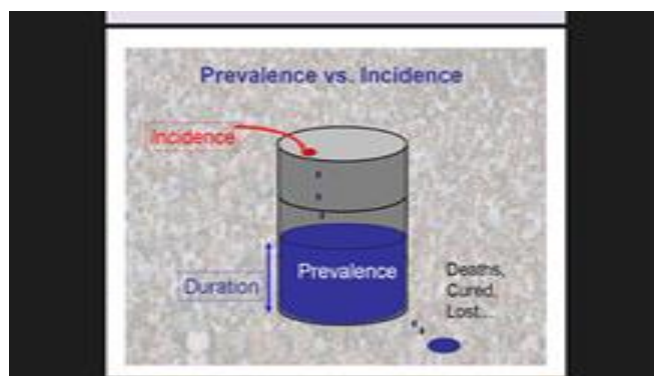
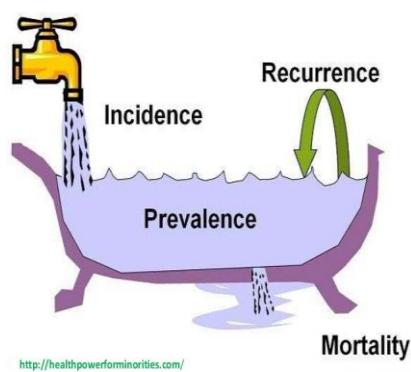
$$CI = \frac{\text{No of individuals become disease during particular time}}{\text{No of healthy individuals at the beginning of that period}} \times 100$$

Example:

- Last year, a herd of 121 cattle were tested using the tuberculin test and all tested negative. This year, the same cattle were tested again and 25 tested positive. So, the cumulative incidence over a period of 12 months would be calculated as 25/121, which amounts to 0.21 hence, an individual animal within this herd has a 21 % chance of becoming infected.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PREVALENCE AND INCIDENCE

- ❖ Prevalence therefore depends on the duration of the disease "D" and the incidence of the disease "I". $P = I \times D$.
- ❖ So, decrease in the incidence of a disease such as john's disease in cattle will decrease the overall prevalence of that disease. Moreover, improvements in the therapy of diseases that are frequently fatal may decrease mortality but could increase prevalence by prolonging the life of diseased animals that otherwise would have died quickly.



7) MORTALITY RATE: Number deaths/ Total number of animals during a period of time

$$\text{Mortality rate} = \frac{\text{No of dead animals at a given period of time}}{\text{No. of population at risk at the same time}} \times 100$$

8) CASE FATALITY RATE: It is the proportion of diseased animals that die of a disease / it is therefore, a measure of the probability of death in diseased animals.

$$\text{Case fatality rate} = \frac{\text{No of dead animals at a given period of time}}{\text{No. of diseased animals at the same period of time}} \times 100$$

EXAMPLE OF CALCULATION OF PREVALENCE INCIDENCE MORTALITY AND CASE FATALITY RATE:-

Suppose a veterinarian investigates a disease that runs a clinical course ending in either recovery with permanent immunity or death in a herd of cattle. On 1 March, 2007, the herd was investigated when the disease is already present.

- * Total herd size on 1 March, 2017 :1000
- * Total number of clinically ill on 1 March, 2017 : 400
- * Total number becoming clinically ill (1 March, 2007 and 1 March, 2008) :200
- * Total number dying during a year : 120

- * **So, prevalence** on 1 March, 2017 = (400 / 1000) x 100 = 40 %
- * **C I from** 1 March, 2017 to 1 July, 2018 (200/1000) x 100 = 20%
- * **Mortality rate** = (120/ 1000) x 100 = 12 %
- * **Case fatality rate** = (120 / 600) x 100 = 20 %.

9) ATTACK RATE: It is the proportion of a well-defined population that develops illness over a limited period of time, e.g, during an epidemic or outbreak Attack rate is useful for comparing the risk of disease in groups with different exposures

$$\text{AR} = \frac{\text{Number of new cases occurring in a given time}}{\text{Population at risk at the start of the time period}} \times 100$$

Sometimes, a population may be at risk for only a limited period of time e.g., (Feed contains mycotoxin). Or, due to the risk of developing the disease is limited to a narrow age-range such as the neonatal period.

DIAGNOSIS OF EPIDEMIC DISEASE

- * **THE DIAGNOSIS** of any health problem depends on; the real knowledge and experience of veterinarian besides diagnostic tests which represents the basis for taking a decision when handling a health related problem.
- * **SCREENING:** Is the identification of unrecognized disease by application of rapid tests to separate apparently healthy individuals which probably have the disease from those do not have the disease (The main concern is with asymptomatic healthy individuals).Theoretically, if a disease at an early stage the chances cure is good.

SCREENING TEST VERSUS DIAGNOSTIC TEST

Screening test

1. Done on apparently healthy individuals
2. Applied to groups
3. Results are arbitrary and final
4. Based on one criteria and cut-off
5. Less accurate
6. Less expensive
7. Not a basis for treatment
8. Initiative comes from investigator

Diagnostic test

1. Done on sick or ill individuals
2. Applied on single patient
3. Diagnosis is not final
4. Based on evaluation of a no. of signs/symptoms & lab findings
5. More accurate
6. More expensive
7. Used as a basis for treatment
8. Initiative comes from a patient

A SCREENING TEST is not intended to be diagnostic. Animals with positive results should be referred for diagnosis and treatment.

- * It is the basis for taking a decision when handling a health-related problem?
- * Decision such as whether to treat, implement a program, e.g. mass treatment, mass immunization, selective slaughter, sanitation, etc.,.

• SCREENING VS. DIAGNOSTIC

- **SCREENING TESTS** aim to detect unknown disease in an well-appearing person, Test examples: temperature, CMT, Mallein, Tuberculin, Brucellin tests
- **DIAGNOSTIC TESTS** aim to test persons who have a symptom or other evidence of potential disease. Test examples: chest x-ray, biopsy, blood/urine test.

USES OF SCREENING TEST

1. Case detection
2. Control of disease
3. For research purposes
4. Educational opportunities

INDICATION OF SCREENING TEST

Disease "burden, early detection of disease

TYPES OF SCREENING TEST

1. Mass screening
2. High risk/ selected /targeted screening
3. Multi-purpose screening, the screening of a population by more than one test done simultaneously to detect more than one disease Example: a) screening of

pregnant women for VDRL, HIV, HBV by serological tests MULTIPHASIC SCREENING

4. Multiphasic screening. The screening in which various diagnostic procedures are employed during the same screening program. Example: a) DM – FBS, Glucose tolerance test b) Sickle cell anemia – CBC, Hb electrophoresis
5. Case finding screening

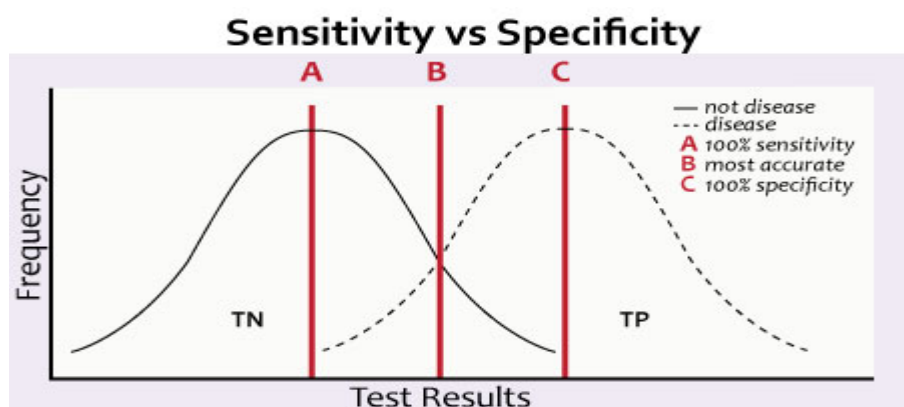
QUALITY OF SCREENING TESTS

Depends on:

1. **Validity** : ability of the test to distinguish between who has a disease and who does not ,A perfect test would be perfectly valid
2. **Reliability: repeatability of a test** .A perfectly reproducible method of disease ascertainment would produce the same results every time it was used in the same individual.

1-VALIDITY

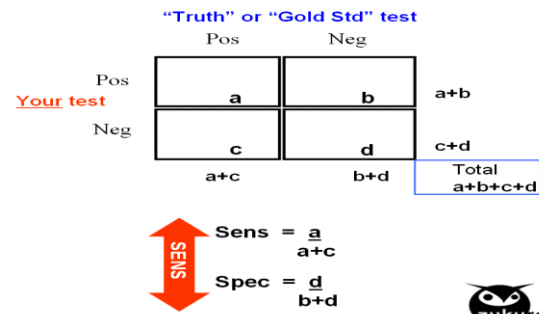
- * **Sensitivity** – the ability of the test to identify correctly those who HAVE the disease; the search for diseased persons
- * **Specificity** – the ability of the test to identify correctly those who DO NOT HAVE the disease; the search for well persons
- **SENSITIVITY AND SPECIFICITY** quantify a test's accuracy in the presence of known disease status
- **Note:** When calculating sensitivity or specificity, another more definitive test (gold standard) is used to know who really has or does not have the disease, e.g.) FOBT then colonoscopy w/ biopsy (the gold standard will determine true presence of ca)



2 X 2 TABLE

		DISEASE	
		+	-
T E S T	+	True + (a)	False + (b)
	-	False - (c)	True - (d)
		Sensitivity = $a / a + c$ = TP / TP + FN	Specificity = $d / b + d$ = TN / FP + TN

The only epi table that matters: The 2 x 2



Example(1): suppose a sample of 10000 animals was tested for presence of a disease agent using a test of 96% sensitivity and 94% specificity and diseased prevalence (true)20%.

Test results	Infected	Non infected	Total
Positive	1920	480	2400
Negative	80	7520	7600
Total	2000	8000	10000

Prevalence: $20\% = 20 \times 10000 / 100 = 2000$ (infected)
 $10,000 - 2000 = 8000$ (non infected)

Sensitivity: $96\% = 2000 \times 96 / 100 = 1920$ (true +ve)

Specificity: $94\% = 8000 \times 94 / 100 = 7520$ (true -ve)

$2000 - 1920 = 80$ (false -ve)

$8000 - 7520 = 480$ (false +ve)

Example (2): Disease prevalence 1%, population 10000, sensitivity 95%, specificity 85%.

TEST RESULTS	Infected	Non infected	Total
Positive	95	1485	1580
Negative	5	8415	8420
Total	100	9900	10000

• Prevalence: $1\% = 1 \times 10000 / 100 = 100$ (infected)
 $10000 - 100 = 9900$ (non infected)

• Sensitivity: $95\% = 100 \times 95 = 95$ (true +ve)

• Specificity: $85\% = 9900 \times 85 / 100 = 8415$ (true -ve)

$100 - 95 = 5$ (false -ve)

$9900 - 8415 = 1485$ (false +ve)

Example(3). Calculation using a fixed threshold or gold standard measure.

<i>Somatic cell</i>	<i>Mastitis</i>	<i>Healthy</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Elevated SCC</i>	40	190	230
<i>Low SCC</i>	10	760	770
<i>Total</i>	50	950	1000

- *Prev.% = 5*1000/100 =50 (mastitis cow
1000 -50 =950 (non mastitis (healthy) cow)*
- *Sensitivity 80% =50*80 =40 (true reactor or elevated)*
- *Specificity 80% = 950*80/100 =760 (true non -reactors)
50-40 = 10 (false non reactors or slow SCC)
950-760 =190 (false reactor or elevated SCC)*
- *Positive predictive value =40/230 =0.173 = 17.3%*
- *Negative predictive value =190/770 =0.247 = 24.7%*

Test Result (PTB)	Disease + Osteomyelitis	Disease - No Osteo	
Positive +	33		Total Test+ 37
Negative -			Total Test- 39
	Total D+ 50	Total D- 26	Total Subjects 76

PPV = .89
* ___ / 37

Sensitivity = ___
___ / ___

Specificity = ___
___ / ___

NPV = ___
___ / 39

BIOSECURITY IN LIVESTOCK FARMS

LEARNING OBJECTIVE:

1. Clearly define biosecurity, bioexclusion, biocontainment.
2. Discuss the importance of biosecurity to protect our food supply and human health.
3. Understand the veterinarian role in biosecurity.

DEFINITIONS:

1. Greek word: Bios: Life -Security: Protection
 2. Biosecurity: Steps taken at a facility or agency to prevent the introduction, spreading or transmission of infectious agents from infected premises.
 3. Bio-exclusion: Keeping infectious organisms from entering a facility or population
 4. Bio-containment :Keeping infectious organisms from leaving a facility or population
- Biosecurity is the cheapest, most effective means of disease control available.

WHY ARE BIOSECURITY & BIOCONTAINMENT IMPORTANT?

1. Protect animal health
2. Improves overall flock health and reduces costs of disease treatment
3. Protect our food supply and human health.
4. Prevent Zoonotic diseases.e.g, E coli, Salmonella, Cryptosporidium, Brucellosis, Tuberculosis, Johne's/Crohn's Disease.

PRINCIPLES ANIMAL DISEASES BE CONSIDER IN BIOSECURITY:

- ❖ **Cattle:** e.g. Salmonella, BSE, FMD, John's, Leucosis, Viral calf scours, T.B, BVD PI, Leptospirosis.
- ❖ **Poultry:** e.g. Bursal Disease, Fowl Cholera, Influenza, Marek's Disease Mycoplasmosis Coccidiosis, Fowl Coryza, I LT, Newcastle disease; Salmonellas.

DEVELOP A BIOSECURITY PROGRAM

The following steps must be followed

1. **Risk Assessment:** identify problems; determine the size of the problem and the likelihood of occurrence and potential impact on herd, options for control measures
2. **Risk Management:** design and implementation of prevention and control plan: biosecurity Goal: minimize factors that increase disease risk, maximize factors that decrease risk .
3. **Risk Communication:** explaining to workers, customers and full management team.

BIOSECURITY ZONES

1. Positive or hot zone: No animal movement allowed in or out of zone.
2. Buffer or quarantine zone: Animal movement unidirectional only is going out for slaughter with continuous surveillance.
3. Free or negative zone: Continuous surveillance initiated with no movement restrictions.

MAJOR COMPONENTS OF BIOSECURITY:-

RITS: Resist - Isolate –Traffic – Sanitation (is multiple disease protection hurdles).

1) RESISTANCE

- ❖ Vaccination protocol, adequate nutrition, minimize stress
- ❖ Purchase animals of known status
- ❖ On-site testing / surveillance

2) ISOLATION:

- ❖ It refers to the confinement of animals within a controlled environment.
- ❖ A fence keeps birds in, but it also keeps other animals out.
- ❖ Isolation also applies to the practice of separating birds by age group.
- ❖ In large poultry operations, all-in/all-out management styles allow simultaneous depopulation of facilities between flocks and allow time for periodic clean-up and disinfection to break the cycle of disease.

3) TRAFFIC CONTROL: includes both the traffic onto your farm and the traffic patterns within the farm.

4) SANITATION: Sanitation addresses the disinfection of materials, people and equipment entering the farm and the cleanliness of the personnel on the farm.

CLASSIFICATION OF POULTRY OPERATIONS ACCORDING TO APPLICATION OF BIOSECURITY MEASURES:-

1. Sector 1 (Industrial integrated system) high level biosecurity and birds/products marketed commercially
2. Sector 2 (Commercial): Moderate to high biosecurity; birds and products usually marketed commercially
3. Sector 3 (Small commercial poultry production system): Low-minimal biosecurity; birds/products in live bird markets
4. Sector 4 (Village or back yard production): No biosecurity, consumed locally or informal marketing system.

ERADICATION OF EXTERNAL PARASITES

External parasites live on the skin of animals or visit them to feed. Most of these parasites can be seen with the eye alone, although for mites you need to look through a microscope.

THERE ARE SIX COMMON TYPES OF ARTHROPODS AFFECTING LIVESTOCK.

1. Flies- most suck blood, deposit eggs in necrotic dead or dying tissue, cause annoyance and live where there is filth and waste matter.
2. Mosquitoes- they suck blood and transmit disease and are especially prevalent in areas where water is allowed to accumulate.
3. Ticks- they suck blood, carry disease, lay eggs in the hair of the animal and transmit parasites
4. Fleas- they suck blood, transmit disease and parasites and live in hair and bedding.
5. Lice- they are a small flat wingless insect, which scratching and eventually resulting in a general decline in overall health and appearance
6. Mites- they are very small insects that produce mange so eventually the skin becomes rough and wrinkled.

WHY ARE EXTERNAL PARASITES IMPORTANT?

1. Some are just a nuisance to the animals.
2. Some cause skin and eye irritation and damage, which can lead to bacterial infection and fly maggot attack.
3. Some create large wounds.
4. Others suck blood, causing the animals to become weak.
5. Some can spread diseases between animals.
6. Some can cause disease through poisonous bites (toxins).
7. All of these leads decreased production and even death.

ECTOPARASITES ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR ECONOMIC LOSSES TO CATTLE AND SHEEP PRODUCERS.

1-DIRECT LOSSES

1. Direct losses are a result of discomfort and damage caused by the parasites. Discomfort results in drops in milk production and retarded growth rates.
2. Ticks, blowflies, sheep keds and mites cause direct damage to hides and wool or damage resulting from rubbing and scratching due to pruritis.

2-INDIRECT LOSSES

Indirect losses are due to diseases transmitted by ectoparasites.

1. Tick borne diseases - Babesiosis, Anaplasmosis, Dermatophilosis, Theileriosis and Heart Water.
2. Flies - transmit mastitis and keratoconjunctivitis, Trypanosomiasis and other diseases
3. Midges - transmit Bluetongue, African Horse Sickness and other diseases

WHAT IS THE ECONOMIC IMPACT?

1. Losses can occur from these parasites due to irritation, blood loss, depressed appetite, and decreased rate of gain.
2. Mange can affect the mammary gland and interfere with milking.
3. Lactating animals will lose production depending on the level of infestation.

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS FOR EXTERNAL PARASITES

1. Intensive grazing in woodland areas (ticks)
2. Close confinement
3. hot weather conditions
4. Anything that puts cattle in frequent contact with other cattle
5. Overcrowding and poor hygiene
6. excessive humidity and darkness

CLINICAL SIGNS

1. Rough hair coat Lack of appetite, poor rate of gain
2. Depression, lethargy and off-feed.
3. Constant rubbing against fences or equipment.

GENERAL MEASURES FOR PREVENTION AND CONTROL OF EXTERNAL PARASITES

1. Hygienic animal accommodation should be constructed that it can be always kept clean
2. Frequent disposal of manure heaps, old rubbish and vegetations which attracts insects
3. Efficient animal management (grooming, clipping, washing)
4. Periodical spraying or dipping of animals with insecticides
5. Cracks and cervices inside stable should be sealed and closed
6. Pasture rotation.

1) CONTROL OF TICKS

- **TICKS ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR MAJOR ECONOMIC LOSSES** amongst livestock in the world and have adverse effect on livestock host in several ways and parasitize a wide range of vertebrate hosts, and transmit a wider variety of pathogenic agents than any other group of arthropods
- **THE LIFE-CYCLE OF TICKS CONSISTS OF FOUR STAGES;** egg, larva, nymph and adult.
- The larva and nymph have to take a blood meal from a host before they are able to moult to the next stage.
- Some species pass their entire life on the one host, others pass different stages of the cycle on successive host, and others are parasitic only at certain stages. Adult ticks require blood for reproduction.
- They are able to survive for up to two years without feeding. Once they attach to a host they feed for about a week before mating.
- The female then lays eggs. One-host ticks are more easily controlled than those which pass part of their life cycles away from the host.
- A list of single and multiple host ticks

TABLE 1 SINGLE AND MULTIPLE HOST TICKS

➤ ONE-HOST TICKS	➤ Boophilus spp. and Otobius megnini
➤ TWO-HOST TICKS	➤ Rhipicephalus evertsi and Rhipicephalus bursa
THREE-HOST TICKS	➤ Ixodes spp., Rhipicephalus spp. (except R. evertsi and R. bursa) Haemaphysalis spp., Amblyomma spp., Hyalomma spp., Ornithodoros spp. and Dermacentor spp.

DAMAGE CAUSED BY TICKS

- a. Tick-bite paralysis .Acute ascending flaccid motor paralysis caused by the injection of a toxin by certain ticks while feeding. Examples are paralysis caused by the feeding of *Dermacentor andersoni*, sweating sickness caused by *Hyalomma truncatum* and tick toxicosis caused by *Rhipicephalus* species.
- b. Physical damage .Ticks cause damage to hides and loss of production, anemia and death when they are present in large numbers. Ticks are attached to the body for a blood meal and may cause severe irritation to livestock. Included are

"tick worry", irritation, restlessness and weight loss due to massive infestation of ticks

- c. Vector of pathogens .The major losses, however, caused by ticks are due to their ability to transmit protozoan, rickettsial and viral diseases of livestock, which are of great economic importance world-wide. Tick-borne protozoan diseases (e.g. Theileriosis and Babesiosis) and rickettsial diseases (e.g. Anaplasmosis) and cowdriosis and tick-associated dermatophilosis are major health and management problems of livestock in many developing countries

SERIOUS EFFECT OF TICK INFESTATION:

1. Ticks adversely affect the economic performance of cattle through blood loss, discomfort; hide damage and weakness.
2. Some ticks have long mouthparts and can cause severe skin damage, which can lead to fly strike and bacterial infection.
3. Ticks can also spread diseases such as piroplasmosis (cattle fever), anaplasmosis, and babesia. Ticks are usually most active during the warmer and wetter parts of the year.

THE LIFE CYCLE OF MOST TICKS IS ONE TO TWO YEARS, BUT BOOPHILUS TICKS REQUIRE AS LITTLE AS 40 DAYS UNDER FAVORABLE CONDITIONS

Ticks are classified as one-host, two-host, or three-host ticks, according to how many different hosts are used between egg hatching and adult feeding. Boophilus ticks, winter ticks and spinose ear ticks are one-host ticks. Once the larvae find a host, they stay on the same animal until they have become adults and taken one final meal of blood. All the other ticks mentioned above are three-host species.

CONTROL OF TICK:

1 -ON THE PASTURE: either by taking animals away from the pasture, so the females on the ground will die from starvation after longevity period (40-45 days in summer and 100 days in winter) or indirectly in which the pasture is divided into two parts and allowing the animals to one division (thus acting as collectors of ticks) then treat them by spraying or dipping at 10 days intervals.

2- IN THE STABLE: It includes:

1. Removal of bedding and other waste materials and burned.
2. Clean then disinfestations of the stable thoroughly by application of contact poison insecticides.
3. Special attention should be paid to cracks in the walls.

3- ON THE ANIMALS: EITHER BY:

A) SHORT TERM REMEDIATION OF TICKS REQUIRES:-

- Chemical control of all life stages on the animal while leaving residual acaricide on the hair coat to prevent reinfestation for several days.
- Effective treatments include dipping, spraying and use of certain ear tags.
- Meanwhile Pour-ons, dusts, and backrubs may aid in controlling some species.

B) LONG-TERM REDUCTION of tick populations in pastures include

Cultural or habitat management:

- These methods include pasture burning and long-term pasture rest and rotation.
- No acaricides are approved for application to pasture and range for tick control, but waste land and recreational areas may be treated

Insecticidal formulations used against ticks

Application method	Insecticide formulation
Dipping, washing or spray-on	malathion (5%), dichlorvos (0.1%), carbaryl (1%), dioxathion (0.1%), naled (0.2%), coumaphos (1%)
Insecticidal powder (dust)	carbaryl (5%), coumaphos (0.5%), malathion (3–5%), trichlorphon (1%)
Residual spray on floors, etc.	oil solutions or emulsions of DDT (5%), lindane (0.5%), propoxur (1%), bendiocarb (0.25–0.48%), pirimiphos methyl (1%), diazinon (0.5%), malathion (2%), carbaryl (5%), chlorpyrifos (0.5%)
Ultra-low-volume fogging (area spraying)	organophosphorus insecticides, carbamate compounds and pyrethroids
Flea and tick collars for dogs and cats	dichlorvos (20%), propoxur (10%), propetamphos (10%), permethrin (11%)



TREATMENT OF TICK DAMAGE: Clean the wound then treat it with an insecticidal-disinfectant combination to heal the wound and to keep flies away also systemic antibiotics may be needed.

HOW YOU DEAL WITH RESISTANCE OF TICKS TO INSECTICIDES:

1. Increase concentration and frequency of insecticide applications

2. Change the insecticide to one of the proven effectiveness and has different chemical action.
3. General hygienic measures including pasture rotation.

2) ERADICATION OF MITES

1. Mites are very small insect and can usually not be seen with the naked eye.
2. Mites live on the animal for the entire life cycle and are spread among animals by close contact; they cause skin irritation, which leads to rubbing, scratching and hair loss.
3. Irritation from mites is usually seen on the head, neck and legs.
4. Mange is frequently associated with crowded conditions and poor husbandry.
5. There are different types of mange, depending on the type of mite involved: sarcoptic mange, demodectic mange, chorioptic mange and psoroptic mange.
6. Skin disease with irritation, scratching, rubbing and biting should always make one suspect mange or lice.

SYMPTOMS

1. Infestations of mites cause dermatitis in all species. The mites cause intense itching and discomfort which is associated with decreased feed intake and production. Scratching and rubbing caused by mites result in extensive damage to hides and fleece.
2. Mites are able to cause mange on different species of livestock but are somewhat host specific, thus infecting some species more severely than others

THE MOST IMPORTANT TYPES OF MANGE AND THE AFFECTED ANIMAL SPECIES

MANGE	ETIOLOGY	ANIMALS AFFECTED
Sarcoptic mange	<i>Sarcoptes scabiei</i>	All species
Psoroptes mange	<i>Psoroptes ovis</i>	Sheep, Cattle and Horses
Chorioptic mange	<i>Chorioptes bovis</i>	Cattle, Horses, Goats and Sheep
Demodectic mange	<i>Demodex bovis</i> , <i>D. ovis</i> , <i>D. caprae</i> , <i>D. equi</i> and <i>D. Phylloides</i>	Cattle, Sheep, Goats, Horses, and Pigs



Bovine Sarcptic mange (Scabies) (9)



Demodectosis in cow (9)

PREVENTIVE MEASURES OF SHEEP MANGE

1. Notification: Compulsory notification of the existence or suspected existence of disease.
2. Isolation: Infested animal should be isolated at once and all in contacts and treated carefully.
3. Inspection: Imported and newly purchased sheep should be inspected carefully before admission to new flock
4. General hygienic measures:
 - ❖ All litter and bedding from infested premises should be wetted with petroleum and burnt.
 - ❖ Diseased cows should be milked and attend to the last of the herd.
 - ❖ Sheep should be sheared before dipping and the wool must be burnt.

CONTROL AND TREATMENT OF MITES

- ❖ Control and treatment of mange is by using insecticide, which may be applied as injectable drugs such as ivermectin, hand sprays or dips.

INSECTICIDES USED FOR MITES:

1. Gammatox paste dip: It is used for the treatment of sarcoptic mange (0.2 %) in water.
2. Diazinon: 0.1 % every three weeks (2-3 times)
3. Bayticol (pour-on) : 1m / 20 kg B.wt
4. Ivomac: S/c injection as 1 ml / 50 kg B. wt.

DO CATTLE GET MANGE?

- ❖ Cattle of any age are susceptible to demodectic mange, although disease is more evident in the young.

- ❖ Most cases are seen in dairy cattle in late winter or early spring. Infestation with *D. bovis* is usually subclinical, and infestation may extend for many months

WHAT DOES MANGE LOOK LIKE ON A COW?

- ❖ **SYMPTOMS.** The surface mite is usually found on the neck, legs, and tail head.
- ❖ It produces limited hair loss, which only increases slowly in size. However, the lesions are obviously itchy which results in hide damage elsewhere as the cattle try to rub the affected areas

CAN HUMANS GET SCABIES FROM COWS?

- ❖ The mites that cause scabies in animals like horses and dogs are different to those that cause scabies in humans, but humans can still catch these scabies (also known as mange). ... While mange can live in domestic and farm animals for over a month, they only survive a few days in a human

3) CONTROL OF LICE

- Lice infestations of livestock are usually seen during winter. Lice cause intense itching resulting in damage to hides and fleece from scratching.
- Lice are usually host specific and can be divided into blood sucking (Anoplura) and biting (Mallophaga) lice. They spend their entire lifecycle on the host.

Sucking lice The main sucking lice affecting cattle and sheep are:

- **Cattle**
 - *Linognathus vituli* (the long nosed cattle louse)
 - *Haematopinus eurysternus*
- **Sheep**
 - *Linognathus pedalis* (the sheep foot louse)
 - *Linognathus ovillus* (the blue sheep louse)

Biting lice The main biting lice affecting cattle and sheep are:

- **Cattle**
 - *Damalinia bovis* (*Bovicola bovis*)
- **Sheep**
 - *Damalinia ovis* (*Bovicola ovis*)

Affected animals	Sucking lice	Biting lice
Cattle	<i>Linognathus vituli, Haematopinus eurysternus</i>	<i>Damalinia bovis</i>
Sheep	<i>Linognathus pedalis, L. ovillus</i>	<i>Damalinia ovis</i>
Goats	<i>Linognathus stenopsis</i>	<i>Damalinia caprae</i>
Pigs	<i>Haematopinus suis</i>	-
Horses	<i>Haematopinus asini</i>	<i>Damalinia equi</i>

- Heavy louse infestations may cause pruritus, alopecia, excoriation and self-wounding. Severe infestation with sucking lice may cause anaemia. Lice can be divided into blood sucking (Anoplura) and biting (Mallophaga) lice
- Lice are wingless; they live on the skin and cannot survive for long periods off the animals.
- Lice are very specific to the type of animal and will not spread to other animal species. They are spread by contact among animals of the same species..
- Heavy lice infestations can cause irritation and distress; Animals rub and lick themselves, and damage their hides.
- Sucking lice can also cause weakness from blood loss.
- Lice are usually associated with unhealthy livestock in crowded conditions.
- Often heavy lice infestations are secondary to some other disease problem, largely because sick animals do not groom themselves.

CONTROL OF LICE:

- ❖ Control by using insecticides (dusts, pour-ons, spot treatment, hand-sprays, and dips) besides application of general hygienic and sanitary measures

HOW DO YOU CONTROL LICE IN CATTLE?

- ❖ Fall treatment using a systemic product is very effective for sucking lice," Williams says.
- ❖ "For chewing lice, there are several brands of pyrethroid-based pour-ons that spread over the body via skin oil." Spraying is an option, too, but doing so on cold days can stress the animal, he adds

4) CONTROL OF FLIES

- Flies belong to the order Diptera, a large, complex order of insects.
- **FLIES CAN BE DIVIDED INTO:**

1. FLIES WITH BITING MOUTHPARTS

- Only the females feed on vertebrate blood, which is required for egg laying e.g. black flies, sand flies, biting midges, mosquitoes, horse flies, and deer flies.
- Both male and female flies feed on vertebrate blood e.g. stable flies, horn flies, buffalo flies, tsetse flies, sheep keds, and hippoboscids or louse flies.

2. FLIES WITH NONBITING MOUTHPARTS/NUISANCE FLIES

- **FACE FLIES, HEAD FLIES, FILTH-BREEDING FLIES AND EYE GNATS.**
- Flies where larval stages result in damage – Myiasis, Screw-worm, warble flies, flesh flies, blow flies and sheep nasal bot.
- Non-biting flies may feed on the secretions from the eyes, nose and any small wounds.
- This distracts animals from grazing, causing a reduction in growth and productivity. Non-biting flies are not key vectors of any specific disease organisms, but because of their feeding and reproduction habits, and the structure of their feet and mouthparts, they can act as mechanical vectors for a whole range of pathogens, from viruses to helminthes.
- Biting flies can cause even greater irritation to domestic animals, and they too are vectors for bacteria, viruses, spirochetes and chlamydiae etc. However, because they feed on blood, they can also cause anemia and hypersensitivity.
- As larvae, flies may develop in the subcutaneous tissues of the skin, respiratory passages, or GI tract of vertebrate hosts and produce a condition known as myiasis.
- The growth and performance of nearly all farmed animals are adversely affected by flies, especially when they are present in high numbers. Infested animals become harassed and feed intake is drastically reduced. The result: significant reductions of meat and milk production and serious economic losses

Biting and Nuisance Flies

- Biting
 - Mosquitoes
 - Black flies
 - Horse flies
 - Deer flies
 - Stable flies
 - Photo credit: Bastiaan (Bart) Drees
- Nuisance
 - House flies
 - Face flies
 - Bottle flies



ACT - Ectoparasite Id and Lifecycles

FLIES	DISEASES TRANSMITTED/VECTOR OF
Sand fly	<i>Leishmania</i> spp.
Biting midges	Blue tongue virus and <i>Onchocerca cervicalis</i>
Mosquitoes	Equine encephalomyelitis, Japanese B encephalitis, Rift valley fever, African horse sickness
Horse fly	Equine infectious anemia, African horse sickness, Anthrax, <i>Trypanosoma evansi</i> , <i>T. vivax</i> and <i>Bovine leukosis virus</i>
Stable fly	Anthrax, Surra, Equine infectious anemia, Lumpy skin diseases and Anaplasmosis
Tse tse fly	<i>Trypanosoma brucei</i>
Louse fly	<i>Haemoproteus</i> spp.
Face fly	<i>Moraxella bovis</i> , <i>Thelazia</i> spp. and <i>parafilaria bovicola</i>

FLIES WHICH CAUSE FLY STRIKE OTHER FLIES: blowflies and screw-worm

Flies are important because they lay their eggs on animals

1. The eggs hatch into larvae (maggots) and can cause severe injuries to animals
2. The condition caused by maggots living on animals is called fly strike
3. Tick bites and cuts can become infested with blowflies or screwworm. This can lead to severe wounds and even death

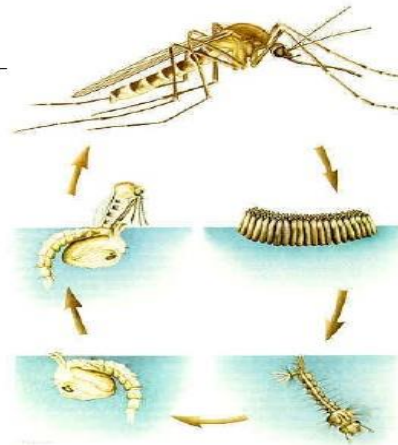
TREATMENT OF FLY STRIKE

1. Clip and clean coat around the area affected, remove maggots and treat with insecticidal cream, powder or spray.
2. The animals may need treatment with antibiotics

C) MOSQUITOES:

Mosquitoes

- May be encountered day and night
- Many different species
- Attracted to incandescent light but not to fluorescent light!

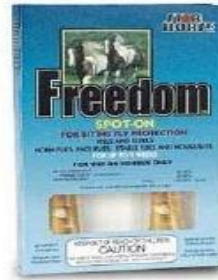


1. Are small insects with piercing-sucking mouthparts, and scales on their wings. Their attacks can cause loss of weight and decreased milk production.
2. The mosquito life cycle consists of 4 stages. The eggs are laid either directly on the water surface or on damp soil and sides of containers that will be flooded later. Common breeding sites for mosquitoes are drainage ditches, ponds, tin cans, old tires and tree holes. The eggs of most species hatch in 2 to 3 days, and the larvae or "wigglers" feed in the water on organic matter.
3. The larvae pass through 4 stages in about 7 to 10 days. The pupal stage lasts 2 to 3 days, and the adult emerges from the pupa skin at the water surface.
4. The most effective control method available is source reduction by removing or draining mosquito breeding sites. Daily fogging or aero soling for adult mosquitoes may provide relief but only as temporary control measure.

CONTROL OF FLIES

1. Practice good stable and koraal hygiene (clean regularly)
2. Remove manure to large bins to restrict fly breeding and to make compost
3. Drain damp areas to stop breeding of mosquitoes and biting midges
4. Use dips; sprays and treats wounds to prevent fly and strike problems
5. Immediately treat skin wounds so that strikes do not occur.

Fly Control



APPLICATION OF INSECTICIDES:

1. Various methods including dipping, spraying, ear tagging or pour on, have been used to apply chemicals to protect livestock against ticks.
2. Direct application of acaricides to animals is the most popular method of controlling ticks on livestock.
3. Applications of acaricide to tick-infested cattle via dipping or sprayer can be equally effective under ideal conditions with proper handling of equipments without injuring animals and subsequent dilution of a product

CATTLE DIPS: Dipping or spraying with an acaricide is the most efficient way of reducing the number of ticks.

SITTING & DIP

1. The ground where a dip is to be built and the area around should be slightly sloping and as hard as possible. Soil is ideal: The ground must: support the structure of the dip; be well drained and not muddy in wet weather.
2. Cattle must not be hot or thirsty when they are dipped, so it is important to have a water trough inside the collecting yard.

CATTLE SPRAY RACE

1. A spray race site requires the same features as a dip site and these have already been described; the only difference is that the dip tank has been changed for a spray race.
2. The race consists of an approximately 6 m long and 1m wide tunnel with masonry side walls and a concrete floor.
3. A spray pipe system on a length of 3 to 3.5m in the tunnel having 25 to 30 nozzles placed in the walls, ceiling and floor, discharge dip liquid at high pressure and expose the cattle passing through to a dense spray.. Spraying is quicker than dipping and causes fewer disturbances to the animals. However, spray may not efficiently reach all parts of the body or penetrate a fur of long hair.
4. Hand spraying is an alternative method that can work well if carried out by an experienced person on an animal properly secured in a crush. The method is time consuming and therefore only practicable for small herds where there is no communal dip tank or spray race. Sprays made directly on the animals; Control is short-lived

CONTROL

1. Use the correct insecticide and follow the manufacturer's directions.
2. Birds may be sprayed, dusted or dipped, depending on the size of the flock. Dusting is more convenient if there are only a few birds in the flock. Whatever method is used, ensure that the bird is completely covered with insecticide
3. The vent (anus) and under wings are often missed; these are favorite areas for parasites.
4. The roof and walls of the shed should be treated, as well as perches, nesting boxes and litter. Make sure that all cracks and crevices are well penetrated with insecticide.
5. As insecticides have no effect on parasite eggs, follow-up treatments are required.

Fig (12) Insecticide Spraying

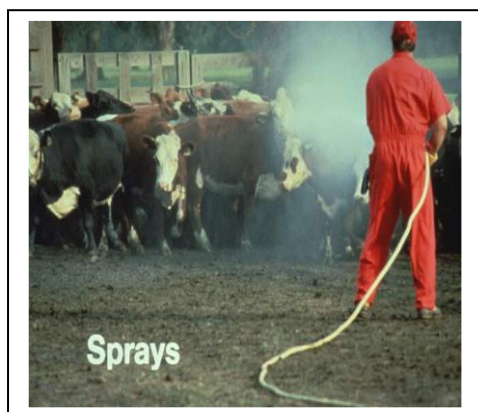


Fig (13) Dipping vat



