# PREVALENCE OF ENTERIC PARASITES OF DOGS AND CATS IN DHAKA CITY 

A Thesis
By
Md. Ismail Hossain


MASTER OF SCIENCE IN PARASITOLOGY DEPARTMENT OF MICROBIOLOGY AND PARASITOLOGY SHER-E-BANGLA AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY DHAKA-1207

DECEMBER, 2021

# PREVALENCE OF ENTERIC PARASITES OF DOGS AND CATS IN DHAKA CITY 

By<br>MD. ISMAIL HOSSAIN<br>Reg. No. 14-05846<br>\section*{A Thesis}<br>Submitted to the Department of Microbiology and Parasitology Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University, Dhaka<br>Requirements for the degree of MASTER OF SCIENCE (M.S.) IN PARASITOLOGY<br>SEMESTER: July-Dec/2021<br>APPROVED BY

Prof. Dr. Uday Kumar Mohanta<br>Supervisor<br>Department of Microbiology and<br>Parasitology<br>Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University

S. M. Abdullah<br>Co-Supervisor<br>Assistant Professor<br>Department of Microbiology and<br>Parasitology<br>Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University

Dr. Mahfuzul Islam
Associate Professor \&
Chairman, Examination committee
partment of Microbiology and Parasitology
Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University


DEPARTMENT OF MICROBIOLOGY AND<br>PARASITOLOGY<br>Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University<br>Sher-e-Bangla Nagar, Dhaka-1207

Memo No: SAU/

## CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "PREVALENCE OF ENTERIC PARASITES OF DOGS AND CATS IN DHAKA CITY" submitted to the Faculty of Animal Science \& Veterinary Medicine, Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University, Dhaka, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Microbiology and Parasitology, embodies the result of a piece of bona fide research work carried out by Md. Ismail Hossain Registration No. 14-05846 under my supervision and guidance. No part of the thesis has been submitted for any other degree or diploma.

I further certify that any help or source of information, received during the course of this investigation has been duly acknowledged.

Dated

> Prof. Dr. Uday Kumar Mohanta
> Supervisor
> Department of Microbiology and
> Parasitology
> Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University


## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

At the beginning, the author bows the grace and mercy of the "Almighty Allah," the omnipresent, omnipotent and omniscient, who has made me able to perform this research work and to submit the thesis successfully for the degree of Master of Science (M.S.) in Parasitology.

It is my pleasure to express gratitude and best regards to my respected Supervisor, Professor Dr. Uday Kumar Mohanta, Department Microbiology and Parasitology, Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University, Dhaka, for his continuous direction, invaluable suggestions, continuous supervision, constructive criticism, encouragement and valuable suggestions in throughout the tenure of research work.

This author also desires to express his sincere gratitude and appreciation to his teacher Dr. Mahfuzul Islam, Chairman and associate professor, Department Microbiology and Parasitology, Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University, Dhaka, for his invaluable suggestions and sympathetic co-operation through the MS course and research period.

Heartfelt gratitude and profound respect are due to his Co-supervisor S. M. Abdullah, Assistant Professor Department of Microbiology and Parasitology, Sher-eBangla Agricultural University, Dhaka, for their sincere guidance, constructive suggestion, encouragement and amiable behavior during the whole period of study.

The author is especially grateful to Dr. Kamrul Hasan and Dr. M. A. Mannan, Associate professor, Department of Microbiology and Parasitology, Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University, Dhaka- 1207 for their advice and sincere co-operation in the completion of the study.

I also want to acknowledge the co-operation of our lab attendants, computer operator and all other staffs of the department as well as all staffs of Sher-eBangla Agricultural University, Dhaka, for their cordial support all time. I also deeply owe my whole hearted thanks to all the relatives, friends, well-wishers specially Md. Saddam Patwary, Sumaiya Islam, Akash smadder, Al Wasif, Nitol Chandra and Amit Kumar Bosu, for their help and inspiration during the period of the study.

I am also thankful to Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University Research System (SAURES) and Ministry of Science \& Technology for funding the research as a fellow of "National Science and Technology (NST) Fellowship" program in the year 2021 that helped me a lot to conduct the research smoothly.

The Author

## CONTENTS

CHAPTER TITLE PAGE ..... NO.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... i
CONTENT ..... ii-iii
LIST OF TABLES ..... iv
LIST OF FIGURES ..... v
ABSTRACT ..... vi
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION ..... 1-3
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ..... 4-16
2.1 Global Context ..... 4
2.2 National Context ..... 14
CHAPTER 3 MATERIALS AND METHODS ..... 17-20
3.1 Study Area ..... 17
3.2 Study Animal ..... 18
3.3 Sample Collection ..... 18
3.4 Sample size ..... 18
3.5 Fecal sample examination ..... 18
3.5.1 Sedimentation method ..... 19
3.5.2 Floatation method ..... 20
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION ..... 21-44
4.1 Results ..... 21-36
4.1.1 Parasites recovered in dogs ..... 21-28
4.1.1.1 Overall prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs ..... 21
4.1.1.2 Age-wise prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs ..... 23
4.1.1.3 Sex related prevalence parasitic infection in dogs ..... 23
4.1.1.4 Prevalence of parasitic infection according to ..... 24
habitat in dogs
4.1.1.5 Breed-wise prevalence parasitic infection in dogs ..... 24

## CONTENTS (CONT'D)

| CHAPTER | TITLE | PAGE |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
|  |  | NO. |
|  | 4.1.2 Parasites recovered in cats | $\mathbf{2 9 - 3 6}$ |
|  | 4.1.2.1 Overall prevalence of parasitic infection in cats | $\mathbf{2 9}$ |
|  | 4.1.2.2 Age wise prevalence of parasitic infection in cats | $\mathbf{3 1}$ |
|  | 4.1.2.4 Prevalence of parasitic infection according to habit | $\mathbf{3 2}$ |
|  | in cats | $\mathbf{3 1}$ |
|  | 4.1.2.5 Breed wise prevalence parasitic infection in cats | $\mathbf{3 2}$ |
| 4.2 | Discussion | $\mathbf{3 7 - 4 4}$ |
|  | 4.2.1 Prevalence of parasitic infection in Dog | $\mathbf{3 7}$ |
|  | 4.2.2 Prevalence of parasitic infection in Cat | $\mathbf{4 1}$ |
| CHAPTER 5 | SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS | $\mathbf{4 5 - 4 6}$ |
|  | REFERENCES | $\mathbf{4 7 - 5 5}$ |

## LIST OF TABLES

| Table | Title | Page |
| :---: | :--- | :---: |
| No. |  | No. |
| 1 | Prevalence of individual species of endoparasites in dog | 22 |
| 2 | Age wise prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs | 23 |
| 3 | Sex related prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs | 23 |
| 4 | Prevalence of parasitic infection according to habitat in dogs | 24 |
| 5 | Breed wise prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs | 24 |
| 6 | Prevalence of individual species of endoparasites in cats | 30 |
| 7 | Age wise prevalence of parasitic infection in cats | 31 |
| 8 | Sex-wise prevalence of parasitic infection in cats | 31 |
| 9 | Prevalence of parasitic infection according to habit in cats | 32 |
| 10 | Breed wise prevalence of parasitic infection in cats | 32 |

## LIST OF FIGURES

| Table | Title | Page |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| No. |  | No. |
| 1 | Study area pins in map show the specific location. | 17 |
| 2 | Schematic diagram for simple sedimentation method. | 19 |
| 3 | Floatation technique | 20 |
| 4 | Overall prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs | 22 |
| 5 | Toxocara canis in dog; A (40x magnification), B (10x | 25 |
|  | magnification) |  |
| 6 | Toxascaris leonina in dog; A and B Both (40x Magnification) | 25 |
| 7 | Ancylostoma caninum in dog; A and B Both (40x Magnification) | 26 |
| 8 | Trichuris vulpis in dog; A and B Both (40x Magnification) | 26 |
| 9 | Dipylidium caninum in dog; A and B Both (40x Magnification) | 27 |
| 10 | Diphyllobothrium latum in dog; A and B Both (40x Magnification) | 27 |
| 11 | Isospora in dog; A and B Both (40x Magnification) | 28 |
| 12 | Eimeria in dog (40x Magnification) | 28 |
| 13 | Overall prevalence of parasitic infection in cats | 29 |
| 14 | Toxocara cati in cat; A (10x Magnification), B (4x Magnification) | 33 |
| 15 | Ancylostoma caninum in cat; A and B Both (40x magnification) | 33 |
| 16 | Toxascaris leonina in cat; A (40x Magnification), B (10x | 34 |
|  | Magnification) |  |
| 17 | Taenia spp. in cat; A and B Both (40x magnification) | 34 |
| 18 | Capillaria hepatica in cat; A and B Both (40x magnification) | 35 |
| 19 | Dipylidium caninum in cat; A and B Both (40x magnification) | 35 |
| 21 | Diphyllobothrium latum in cat; A and B Both (40x magnification) | 36 |
|  | Isospora of cat; A and B Both (40x magnification) | 36 |
|  |  | 24 |

# PREVALENCE OF ENTERIC PARASITES OF DOGS AND CATS IN DHAKA CITY 


#### Abstract

Enteric parasitic infection in dogs and cats is a major concern for public health as most of them have zoonotic importance. In Dhaka, surveys of enteric parasites in dogs and cats have been reported sporadically over the past 50 years, mostly focusing on stray and shelter dogs and cats. The present work was performed to determine the current prevalence of various parasites through the examination of fecal samples (both sedimentation and floatation methods) collected from pet and stray dogs (48) and cats (139) in Dhaka city. Overall, $35.42 \%$ (17/48) of dogs and $33.09 \%$ (46/139) of cats were positive for at least one parasite. Toxocara canis and Toxocara cati were the most prevalent parasite present in fecal samples followed by Dipylidium caninum, Diphyllobothrium latum, Taenia sp., Toxascaris leonina, Ancylostoma caninum, Trichuris vulpis, Capillaria hepatica, Isospora sp. and Eimeria sp. In dog, enteric helminth and protozoan prevalence were $31.25 \%$ (15/48) and $8.33 \%$ (4/28), whereas single and mixed infections were $70.59 \%$ and $29.41 \%$, respectively. In cats, prevalence of enteric helminth and protozoan were $30.22 \%$ and $7.19 \%$, whereas single and mixed infections were $71.74 \%$ and $28.26 \%$, respectively. Except the two protozoan species, most recovered parasites have public health significance. Therefore, proper attention needs to be paid to prevent dog and cat borne zoonosis through controling parasites by regular deworming and proper hygiene.


Keywords: Prevalence, Helminth, Protozoa, Dogs, Cats, Dhaka.

## CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Now-a-days dogs and cats are the part of our everyday life. They provide us companionship along with emotional support, reduce our stress levels and sense of loneliness, and help us to increase our social activities and add to a child's self-esteem and positive emotional development (Kornblatt and Schantz, 1980). Pet animals, especially dogs, and cats are crucial elements of life for many people all over the world. They were treated as a whole part of the family and mostly considered to be an extended family (Parvez, 2014). In many countries, parents who have no children nursed pet animals as their child. Dogs and cats help the wellbeing of their owner to get play and exercise, help each other to compete with stress where psychological symbiosis occurs between them. They act as natural ambassadors who help to reduce blood pressure and other cardiovascular diseases of people. Dogs and cats also play different roles, such as guiding, assisting, and especially to the blind, disabled person, and defense section of the country (Hasib et al., 2020). Besides, enteric helminth is the most commonly encountered causal agent causing major impediment to dog health all over the world (Traub, 2003).

Most of the gastrointestinal parasites affect the dogs and cats sub-clinically with or without apparent clinical signs like lowered resistance to infectious diseases, retarded growth rate, reduced working efficiency and general ill health (Taylor et al., 2007). The number of pet cats and dogs that coexist with human being is high in most cities and villages in the developing countries like Bangladesh, which constitute a potential risk of infections for human beings. The distribution and intensity of parasitism in dogs are influenced by geographical, climatic, cultural and economic factors. Pet
animals like cats and dogs are frequently helpless victims of various worms which were found into their gastrointestinal tract. Gastrointestinal helminthes of pet pose serious impact both on the hosts and human beings. It impedes the successful rearing of pets and result in losses that are manifested by lowered resistance to infectious diseases, retarded growth, reduced work and feed efficiency and general ill (Robertson et al., 2000).

Close bonds of pets and humans in combination with inappropriate human practices and behavior remain a major threat to public health as dogs and cats harboring infective stages of parasites transmissible to man and other domestic animals. Dogs and cats are associated with zoonotic disease, among which parasite can pose serious public health concerns worldwide especially in rural areas where dogs and livestock are raised together and, where many inhabitants live under poor sanitation conditions and control of stray dogs is practically not existent (Beyene et al., 2015). At least 36 important zoonotic diseases are acquired from dogs worldwide. Some important zoonotic diseases acquired from dogs have been reported from Bangladesh also (Samad, 2008).

Toxocariosis and Ancylostomosis are reported to remain the most important parasites affecting companion animals worldwide. Some canine helminths are documented to cause significant clinical diseases such as hydatidosis, visceral and cutaneous larva migrans in humans. Dog ownership is considered to be a risk factor for the occurrence of Ancylostoma caninum, inducing eosinophilic enteritis, an emerging zoonotic infection. Intestinal helminths are among the most common pathogenic agents encountered in dogs, especially in newly whelped or neonates and they constitute one of the main causes of pathologies of the intestinal tract in dogs. Some of these helminths are responsible for zoonotic diseases such as Toxocariasis or visceral larva
migrans, Ancylostomiosis or cutaneous larva migrans, Tungiasis, Hydatid disease as well as emerging and re-emerging infections such as Cryptosporidiosis and Giardiasis.

There is no current data available on the prevalence of enteric parasitic infections in dogs and cats in Dhaka city. In Dhaka city, a wide study has never been conducted before. Moreover, the findings of previous studies are limited in their value because they generally involved a small number of animals in a particular location, and many were restricted to high risk group. Consequently, it is difficult to compare the prevalence data recording in previous studies due to the differences in demographics of the animals sampled, difference in the sensitivity of diagnostic tests utilities, and certain parasites may have been overlooked. In $21^{\text {st }}$ century, there has also been an increase in the regular prophylactic treatment of pets with anthelmintics, and this is likely to have affected the prevalence of helminthes. Several studies have been carried out on enteric parasitism of pet dog and cat throughout the world but surprisingly in Bangladesh, only few published data are available. Therefore, the current study was undertaken to determine the prevalence and intensity of enteric helminths of dogs and cats. The study will also assist the policy maker to take effective preventive and control measures against different zoonotic diseases.

## Objectives of the study:

i. To identify different endoparasites found in gastrointestinal tract of dogs and cats
ii. To investigate the prevalence of endoparasites in dogs and cats in Dhaka city

## CHAPTER 2

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Dogs and cats are associated with more zoonotic disease among which parasite can pose serious public health concerns worldwide especially in rural areas where dogs, cats and livestock are raised together and in developing countries where many inhabitants live under poor sanitation conditions and control of stray dogs and cats is practically not existent (Beyene et al., 2015). Dogs and cats are definitive hosts for quite a large number of parasites for which other animals may become intermediate hosts and some of the parasites like Toxocara canis, Toxascaris leonine, Dipylidium caninum, Diphyllobothrium latum, Taenia solium, Ancylostoma caninum, Trichuris vulpis, Capilaria hepatica, Isospora sp., Eimeria sp.

### 2.1 Global context

Urgel et al. (2019) detected gastrointestinal parasites in both owned and sheltered dogs found in Cebu, Philippines. Of the 200 fecal samples examined, 122 samples were found to be positive with parasites. Samples from shelter dogs ( $90 \%$ ) were found to have more parasites compared to those from owned dogs (45.4\%). The most common gastrointestinal parasites detected were Ancylostoma spp. (38\%), Trichuris spp. (12.5\%), Toxocara spp. (11.5\%), Cystoisospora spp. (8\%), Taenia spp. (3\%), and Hammondia spp. (1.5\%). Majority of the sampled dogs were 5 years old and below that ( $79.2 \%$ ), male ( $64.6 \%$ ) and of pure breed ( $53.1 \%$ ).

Borthakur and Mukharjee (2011) reported that gastrointestinal helminthes were gathered from 27 necropsied stray felines (Felis catus) in Aizawl, Mizoram, India from January, 2005 to April, 2009. The analyzed felines showed mixed helminthic
diseases, with overall prevalence of $85.2 \%$. Five nematodes, 2 cestodes and 1 trematode was distinguished. The most common helminthes were Taenia taeniaeformis (70.4\%), Toxocara cati (59.3\%), Physaloptera praeputalis (44.4\%), Dipylidium caninum (40.7\%), Spirocerca felineus (18.5\%), Gnathostoma spinigerum (11.1\%), Ancylostoma tubaeforme (7.4\%) and Opisthorchis sp (3.7\%). Co-disease with $T$. taeniaeformis and $T$. cati was seen in $48.1 \%$ (13/27), showing the chance of these felines were paratenic host for toxocariasis in felines.

Panigrahi et al. (2014) determined the overall prevalence of gastrointestinal helminths infection was $41.46 \%$. The highest infection rate was mixed parasitic infection (26.57\%) followed by Ancylostoma caninum (23.44\%), Toxocara canis (20.31\%) and lowest for Taenia spp. (3.13\%). In relation to different groups, the prevalence was lower in female than male, lower in older animals and it was shown a increasing trend as age decreased. It was also lower in pure and exotic breeds than non-descriptive breeds. Very few dog owners ( $10 \%$ ) were conscious about that canine parasite could be transmitted to humans but maximum of them could provide correct information on the mode of transmission. About $12 \%$ dog owners had maintained deworming schedule.

Suganya (2019) studied that a total of 510 fecal examples were collected from pet canines has a place with different zones of Chennai city, Tamil Nadu, India and were prepared by regular procedures and sub-atomic methods. Out of 510 dog fecal samples, 121 samples were positive for the parasitic eggs, prevalence rate was $23.72 \%$. Species wise prevalence of the parasite was observed. PCR for the speciesspecific identification of the parasitic eggs was done. The outcomes revealed 38 examples were positive with product size of 540 bp specific for A. caninum, 25 examples were positive which resuled a product size of 380 bp which is specific for

Toxocara canis. None of the fecal examples tested were positive for Echinococcus granulosus which were positive for the presence of Taenia spp. eggs by microscopy.

Borkataki et al. (2013) examined a total of 100 stray cats by utilizing standard parasitological methods in Jammu, India. Post mortem examinations of stray cats were also done to determine the presence of any mature parasite. All the cats examined were found to be positive for one or other type of parasitic infection. Eggs identified were those of hookworms found to be predominant (80\%) followed by Taeniid eggs (40\%), Toxocara eggs (32\%), Strongyloides eggs (28\%), Dipylidium canium eggs (20\%) and Spirometra eggs (8\%). EPG of the positive samples was also recorded. Mean $\pm$ SD EPG of hookworm eggs, Toxocara eggs and Strongyloides eggs were 50, 102.5, 87.57, respectively. Prevalence of Toxoplasma/Hammondia oocyst was 88\%, Isospora oocyst $80 \%$ and Cryptosporidium oocyst $4 \%$ (ZN- staining). Other five cat carcasses which were lying open on the road-side, also collected and brought to the laboratory for post-mortem examination. While opening the carcasses, three different parasites were also found and they were identified as A. tubaeforme ( $80 \%$ ), T. taeniaeformis (60\%) and D. caninum (40\%).

Khan et al. (2020) examined one hundred and fifty two stool specimens (stray dogs=90 and household dogs=62) which were collected in suburban areas of Lower Dir district, Pakistan. The helminth eggs were processed by direct smear method and centrifugation techniques and identified by microscopic examination. Of the total examined dogs $26.8 \%$ ( $\mathrm{n}=41 / 152$ ) were found to be infected with one or more intestinal parasites. The intestinal helminths detected were Dipylidium caninum (n $=18,11.8 \%)$, followed by Toxocara canis $(\mathrm{n}=16,10.5 \%)$, Taenia spp., $(\mathrm{n}=10,6.57 \%)$ Ancylostoma caninum (n=6, 3.94), Toxascaris spp., Capillaria spp., and Trichuris vulpis ( $\mathrm{n}=2,1.31 \%$ each) in order of their prevalence. Pattern of infection revealed
that 27 ( $65.8 \%$ ) dogs have single, $13(31.7 \%)$ double and $1(2.43 \%)$ triple infection. The stray dogs were highly infected $34.4 \% \quad(n=31)$ than house hold dogs $16.1 \%$ ( $\mathrm{n}=10$ ).

Traub et al. (2014) collected and examined 411 stray dogs samples from four geographical and climactically distinct locations in India. Hookworms were the most commonly identified parasite in dogs in Sikkim (71.3\%), Mumbai (48.8\%) and Delhi (39.1\%). In Ladakh, which experiences harsh extremes in climate, a competitive advantage was observed for parasites such as Sarcocystis spp. (44.2\%), Taenia hydatigena (30.3\%) and Echinococcus granulosus (2.3\%). PCR identified Ancylostoma ceylanicum A. caninum to occur sympatrically, either as single or mixed infections. Accepted Manuscript Sikkim (Northeast) and Mumbai (West). In Delhi, A. caninum was the only species identified in dogs, probably owing to its ability to evade unfavourable climatic conditions by undergoing arrested development in host tissue. The expansion of the known distribution of $A$. ceylanicum to the west, as far as Mumbai, justifies the renewed interest in this emerging zoonosis and advocates for its surveillance in future human parasite surveys. Of interest was the absence of Trichuris vulpis in dogs, in support of previous canine surveys in India.

Ngui et al. (2014) revealed that the overall prevalence of GI parasitic infection was $88.6 \%(95 \% \mathrm{CI}=82.5-94.7)$ in which $88.3 \%$ of dogs and $89.3 \%$ of cats were infected with at least one parasite in Peninsular Malaysia. There were 14 different GI parasites species (nematodes, cestodes and protozoa) detected, including Ancylostoma spp. (62.9\%), Toxocara spp. (32.4\%), Trichuris vulpis (21.0\%), Spirometra spp. (9.5\%), Toxascaris leonina (5.7\%), Dipylidium caninum (4.8\%), Ascaris spp. (2.9\%), Hymenolepis diminuta (1.0\%) and others. General prevalence of GI parasites showed a significant difference between helminth (84.4\%) and protozoa (34.3\%) infections.

Monoparasitism (38.1\%) was less frequent than polyparasitism (46.7\%). As several of these GI parasites are recognized as zoonotic agents, the results of this investigation revealed that local populations may be exposed to a broad spectrum of zoonotic agents by means of environmental contamination with dogs and cats faeces and this information should be used to mitigate public health risks While, GI helminths in rural dogs in Argentina found prevalence rates ranging from 37.9\% to 52.4\% (Soriano et al. 2010). Similarly, studies conducted among shepherd and hunting dogs in Greece (Papazahariadou et al., 2007) noted prevalence rates of $35.5 \%$ and $26 \%$, respectively

Hajipour et al. (2015) examined a total 50 stray cats of which $15(30 \%)$ were female and $35(70 \%)$ were male in east Azerbaijan province, Iran. Overall 47 cats ( $94 \%$ ) were identified as infected with at least one of the endoparasites. The prevalence of parasites found were: Taenia taeniaeformis (60 \%), Dipylidium caninum (58 \%), Taenia hydatigera (24 \%), Mesocestoides lineatus (78 \%), Ancylostoma tubaeforme (14 \%), Toxascaris leonina (30 \%), Toxocara cati (78 \%), Physaloptera praeputialis (10\%), and Syphacia obvelata (10 \%). Contamination rate for zoonotic parasites of cat was greater than expected in AzarShahr region.

Liang and Yang (2015) reported 360 cats feces and intestinal parasites positive feces were 149 ( $41.39 \%$ ) from China of which 64 ( $17.78 \%$ ) were infected with Toxocara cati, 61 (16.94\%) with Isospora felis, 41 (11.39\%) with Isospora rivolta, 33 (9.17\%) with Paragonimus, 23 (6.39\%) with hookworms, 11 (3.06\%) with Toxoplasma-like oocysts, 10 (2.78\%) with Trichuris, 4 (1.11\%) with lungworm, 2 ( $0.56 \%$ ) with Sarcocystis, and 1 ( $0.28 \%$ ) with Trematode.

Rojekittikhun et al. (2014) collected 500 dogs and 300 cats fecal samples from an animal refuge in Nakhon Nayok Province, Thailand to test for gastrointestinal
protozoa and helminths. In dog, the overall prevalence of parasites was $36.2 \%$ (181/500), where $35.7 \%$ (177/500) had helminths and $2.8 \%$ (14/500) had protozoa. The helminths were: hookworm (30.6\%), Trichuris vulpis (16.0\%), Toxocara canis (6.6\%), Hymenolepis diminuta (1.2\%), Spirometra mansoni (0.6\%), and Dipylidium caninum ( $0.2 \%$ ). Giardia duodenalis ( $2.8 \%$ ) was found in dog feces. In cat, the overall prevalence of parasites was $44.3 \%$ (133/300), where $43.3 \%$ (130/300) were helminths and $6.0 \%$ (18/300) were protozoa. The helminths were hookworm (34.7\%), T. cati (9.7\%), S. mansoni (4.0\%), Platynosomum fastosum (2.7\%), Strongyloides sp $(0.7 \%)$, and Echinostoma $\mathrm{sp}(0.3 \%)$. Two species of protozoa, Isospora $\mathrm{sp}(5.7 \%)$ and G. duodenalis ( $0.3 \%$ ) were found in cat feces. Two percent of dogs and five percent of cats had mixed protozoan and helminthic infections. Dogs with double, triple, and quadruple helminthic infections were found at rates of $22.0 \%, 2.8 \%$, and $0.2 \%$, respectively. Cats with double and triple helminthic infections were found at rates of $9.7 \%$ and $1.0 \%$, respectively. Quadruple helminthic infections were not found in cats, and double protozoan infections were not found in either dogs or cats.

Yakhchali et al. (2017) observed that the overall prevalence of helminths and flea were $44 / 51$ ( $86.3 \%$ ) and $31 / 51$ ( $60.78 \%$ ), respectively, in Ahar Municipality, Northwestern Iran. The highest percentage of helminth infection belonged to Toxocara cati (86.3\%), followed by Taenia taeniaeformis (64.7\%), Mesocestoides lineatus (49.02\%), Dipylidium caninum (29.41\%), Taenia hydatigena (19.6\%), Toxascaris T. leonina (11.77\%) and Ancylostoma tubaeforme (5.9\%).

Raza et al. (2018) studied that nematodes and protozoa that transmit through ingestion or skin penetration are major enteric parasites of concern in shelter settings. Ancylostoma spp., Uncinaria stenocephala, Toxocara canis, Toxascaris leonina, Trichuris vulpis and Dipylidium caninum are the major helminths while Giardia,

Cryptosporidium, Isospora spp. and Sarcocstis spp. are the most prevalent protozoa in shelter dogs. The prevalence of gastrointestinal parasites in shelter dogs was generally higher than in owned dogs.

Tamerat et al. (2015) reported that a sum of 384 new fecal examples by utilizing floatation strategy in Eastern Ethiopia. The general predominance of gasterointestinal (GI) helminthes was $83.1 \%$ in which $91 \%$ of canines and $65.9 \%$ of felines were tainted with at least one helminthic parasite. In the two hosts, Ancylostoma was the most predominant parasite, explicitly $70.5 \%$ in dogs and $37.5 \%$ in felines followed by Toxocara with $30.3 \%$ in canines and $32.5 \%$ in felines while Physaloptera (1.1\%) also, Dipylidium caninum (1.7\%) were the most un-pervasive parasites in canines and felines, separately.

Torres-Chable et al. (2015) observed that fecal examples from 80 (26.5\%) canines contained GI parasites. Of these, 58 (19.2\%) were positive for helminths and 22 (7.3\%) were positive for protozoan parasites. No less than seven parasitic species were recognized. The most well-known parasite was Ancylostoma caninum which was distinguished in 48 (15.9\%) canines. Different parasites recognized on various events were Cystoisospora spp. $(\mathrm{n}=19)$, Toxocara canis $(\mathrm{n}=7)$ and Giardia $\operatorname{spp} .(\mathrm{n}=3)$. Three extra parasites, Dipylidium caninum, Trichuris vulpis and Uncinaria spp., were each distinguished in a solitary canine

Ayinmode et al. (2016) found that the gastrointestinal parasites of dog were $43.3 \%$ (88/203) in Ibadan, Nigeria. Single and multiple parasites were 69 (78.4\%) and 19 (21.6\%), respectively. The parasites identified were Ancylostoma sp. 24.6\% (50/88) Isospora sp. 14.2\% (29/88), Toxocara sp. 9.8\% (20/88), Uncinaria sp. 2.5\% (5/88) and Strongyloides sp, $3.9 \%$ (8/88). Ancylostoma sp. (320 x 102 epg ) and Uncinaria
sp. Parasites epg had the most noteworthy and least force individually. Roads inside neighborhoods having markets had the most noteworthy number of positive examples. Every one of the genera of parasites detected in this examination has zoonotic potential.

Idika et al. (2017) identified four helminth parasites namely, hookworm (Ancylostoma spp.), Toxocara spp., Dipylidium caninum and Trichuris vulpis in the study with the prevalence rates $33.2 \%, 5.9 \%, 4.0 \%$ and $0.5 \%$ respectively, in Enugu State, South Eastern Nigeria. Mixed infections with more than one helminth parasites species were recorded in $8.6 \%$ of the cases, of which $7.0 \%$ and $1.6 \%$ represent dogs infected with two and three different parasite species respectively. Annual breakdown of the prevalence data as presented in the highest prevalence was recorded in 2009 (82.6\%) followed by 2011 (79.4\%), 2006 (72.7\%) and 2010 (61.8\%). The lowest recorded prevalence of $43.2 \%$ was in 2013. When the prevalence rates were analyzed by sex, it was observed that male dogs had slightly higher prevalence of infection (56.6\%) than the female dogs ( $54.6 \%$ ) but the difference was not significant $(\mathrm{P}>0.05)$. On breed basis, the local breeds of dog had higher prevalence of infection (62.5\%) than their exotic (48.0\%) counterpart and the difference was significant ( $\mathrm{P}=0.28$ ). Also, dogs under 12 months old had significantly higher prevalence (62.9\%) than dogs over 12 months of age ( $46.4 \%$ ). The result in that study showed that prevalence rates of 52.9 and $50.4 \%$ were recorded for the rainy and dry season, respectively.

Zanzani et al. (2014) were collected a total of 409 fresh fecal samples from household dogs and cats in Northern Italy for copromicroscopic analysis and detection of Giardia duodenalis coproantigens. The assemblages of Giardia were also identified. A questionnaire about intestinal parasites biology and zoonotic potential was submitted to 185 pet owners. The overall prevalence of intestinal parasites resulted
higher in cats ( $47.37 \%-60.42 \%$ ) and dogs ( $57.41 \%-43.02 \%$ ) from micropolitan areas than that from the metropolis of Milan (dogs: $P=28.16 \%$; cats: $P=32.58 \%$ ). The zoonotic parasites infecting pets under investigation were T. canis and T. cati, T. vulpis, A. caninum, and G. duodenalis assemblage A. Only $49.19 \%$ of pet owners showed to be aware of the risks for human health from canine and feline intestinal parasites.

Joffe et al. (2011) evaluate the prevalence of endoparasites in 619 dogs and 153 cats in the Calgary, Alberta region. Both homed and shelter-sourced pets were evaluated, and prevalence was assessed in various age groups. The overall endoparasite prevalence was $16.5 \%$ in canine samples and $7.2 \%$ in feline samples. The most common intestinal parasites in dogs were Giardia (8.1\%) and ascarids (4.2\%). The most common feline endoparasite was ascarids (6.5\%).

Makene et al. (1996) identified that out of 235 domestic dogs from Morogoro municipality and Mgeta area in Morogoro region coproscopically screened for gastrointestinal parasitic infections, 174 (74\%) were found positive for one or the other parasite. Ancylostoma caninum was the most common parasite (72\%). Protozoan parasites and other helminths were less prevalent (4\%).

Villeneuve et al. (2015) reported that 1086 samples from dogs and 636 smples from cats. The overall prevalence of GI parasites in dogs and cats was $33.9 \%$ (CI 31.1 36.8) and $31.8 \%$ (CI 28.2 - 35.5), respectively. Eleven different species of parasites were identified in dogs and eight in cats. Of the dogs that tested positive for any parasite on fecal analysis, $67 \%$ were infected with a single species of parasite and $33 \%$ with multiple species. Seventy-three percent of positive cats were infected with a single species of parasite and $27 \%$ with multiple species. Toxocara canis was the
most prevalent parasite in fecal samples from dogs ( $12.7 \%$, CI 10.8-14.8) followed by Cystoisospora spp. (10.4\%, CI 8.7 - 12.4). Total prevalence of ascarid infection (T. canis and Toxascaris leonina) was $14.6 \%$ (CI 12.6 - 16.9). The most prevalent parasite in cats was $T$. cati ( $16.5 \%$, CI 13.7 - 19.6) followed by Cystoisospora spp. ( $14 \%$, CI $11.4-16.9$ ). The prevalence of any parasites was higher in dogs $\leq 1 \mathrm{yr}$ of age than in dogs $>1$ yr of age $(\mathrm{p}=<0.0001)$. Toxocara canis $(\mathrm{p}=<0.0001), T$. leonina $(\mathrm{p}=0.0040)$, Uncinaria stenocephala $(\mathrm{p}=0.0469)$, Giardia $(\mathrm{p}=0.0004)$, Cystoisospora ( $\mathrm{p}=0.0170$ ) and Cryptosporidium $(\mathrm{p}=0.0003)$ were the parasites that contributed most to this result. In cats, differences in parasite prevalence between the age groups produced significant results only for T. cati ( $\mathrm{p}=<0.0001$ ).

### 2.2 National Context

Mehedi et al. (2020) studied that the prevalence of GI parasites in Mymensingh sadar, Bangladesh was $62.9 \%$ (39/62) and the mixed parasitic disease was $20.9 \%$ (13/62). The commonness of Toxocara cati and Ancylostoma tubaeforme contaminations were $17.7 \%$ and $6.5 \%$, separately. The prevalence of Taenia pisiformis contamination was $3.22 \%$. Not with standing, the prevalence of Isospora felis, Toxoplasma gondii and Balantidium coli contaminations were $4.8 \%, 3.2 \%$ and $6.5 \%$. The prevalence of contamination was significantly $(\mathrm{P}<0.008)$ higher in cat than that in grown-up feline. The general prevalence of intestinal parasites were observed to be $76.66 \%$ in little cats ( $\leq 6$ month age) and $60.00 \%$ in youthful ( $>6$ month to 1 year) felines. The prevalence of GI parasitic disease was observed to be $33.33 \%$ in grown-up ( $>1$ year) felines. In little cats ( $\leq 6$ months), the most elevated disease was brought about by T. cati (23.33\%), trailed by I. felis (10.00\%), A. tubaeforme (10.00\%), T. taeniaeformis ( $6.66 \%$ ) B. coli $(3.33 \%)$ and T. gondii (3.33\%). About $20.00 \%$ little cats were observed to be tainted with blended parasites. Parasites were higher in female felines $66.67 \%$ than in the male felines $57.69 \%$. In both genders, the most noteworthy predominance was seen in instance of $T$. cati $19.23 \%$ in male and $25.00 \%$ in female.

Das et al. (2012) observed that mixed parasite was very much in Chittagong Metropolitan, Bangladesh where 57 dogs ( $\mathrm{N}=60$ ) were found positive for enteric helminths infections. Six different enteric parasites (3 cestodes and 3 nematodes) were identified. The highest (45\%) overall prevalence and worm load (42.18 $\pm 7.99$ ) was recorded in Trichuris vulpis infection. Here higher prevalence was found in Diphyllobothrium latum and Ancylostoma caninum compared to Taenia spp infection. The highest seasonal prevalence was found in Toxocara cains infection (35.71\%) in summer and Ancylostoma caninum (43.75\%) in winter. Prevalence was also
difference with the age of stray dogs where youngs were more susceptible than adults. Sex specific prevalence found that Diphyllobothrium latum, Dipylidium caninum, and Ancylostoma caninum was higher in female dogs.

Mahmud et al. (2014) studied that 272 sick pet dogs in the District Veterinary Hospital (DVH), Sirajganj. A total 7 types of protozoan diseases were found in only 61 dogs and their variation in prevalence were seen on the basis of age and sex. The overall prevalence of protozoan diseases of pet dogs in the study area was observed $22.42 \%$. The highest prevalence was found as Giardiasis (42.62\%), Amoebiasis (26.23\%), Coccidiosis (14.75\%), Balantidiasis (9.84\%), Toxoplasmosis (3.28\%), Babesiosis (1.64\%) and Leishmaniasis (1.64\%). Age-wise highest cumulative prevalence was identified in age group above 1 year (54.10\%), compare to that in less than or equal to 1 year (45.90\%) age groups of pet dogs. On the other hand, sex-wise overall cumulative prevalence of dog was noticed in the female (55.74\%) than male (44.26\%).

Barua et al. (2020) identified 17 different parasite species of zoonotic importance in pet market of Dhaka. Among them 8 species were common in both dog and cat (Taenia spp., Hymenolepis diminuta, H. nana, Ancylostoma spp., Ascaris lumbricoides, Capillaria spp., Toxascaris leonina and Trichuris vulpis). Aside from 8 common species, 2 additional species were only recognized in canines and 7 species in felines. Capillaria spp. had the most elevated predominance in the two canines ( $86.67 \%$ ) and felines ( $90 \%$ ) trailed by Trichuris vulpis ( $83.33 \%$ in canines, $90 \%$ in felines). Other predominant parasites in canines were A. lumbricoides and Toxocara canis (Prevalence $76.67 \%$ for both); in felines were - T. leonina, Toxocara cati, Sarcocystis spp. what's more, Toxoplasma spp. (pervalence 76.67\%, 73.33\%, 60\%
and $60 \%$, respectively). In the age group of hosts, both dogs and cats, puppies or kittens and young hosts had higher prevalence of parasites compared to adults.

## CHAPTER 3

## METHODS AND MATERIALS

### 3.1 Study Area

Different veterinary hospitals, clinics, foster and owner houses located at Mohammadpur, Dhanmondi, Mirpur, Sher-e-Bangla nagar, and Badda region of Dhaka city were selected as the study area. The city is located in central part Bangladesh at $23^{\circ} 42^{\prime} \mathrm{N} 90^{\circ} 22^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, and on the eastern banks of the Buriganga River. It has a distinct monsoon season, with an annual average temperature of $26^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\left(79^{\circ} \mathrm{F}\right)$, and monthly means varying between $19{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\left(66^{\circ} \mathrm{F}\right)$ in January and $29^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\left(84^{\circ} \mathrm{F}\right)$ in May. The average annual rainfall is 2,123 millimetres and relative humidity is $75 \%$ on an average.


Figure 1: Study area pins in map show the specific location.

### 3.2 Study Animal

The study animals were pet and stray dogs and cats of both sexes. Dogs and cats up to six months of age were classified as young, and those above six months of age were referred to as adults.

### 3.3 Sample Collection

Fecal samples were collected with the permission and assistance of the owners. The fecal samples were collected either directly from the rectum or from freshly voided feces of the target animals. The samples were kept in $70 \%$ ethanol containing collection vial. Extra care was taken to avoid contamination with soil which might be harmful through the introduction of free-living organisms from the environment. During sampling, data with regard to species, age, sex and date of collection were recorded for each animal. The samples were taken to the Microbiology and Parasitology laboratory, Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University, Dhaka. Then the samples were stored in refrigerator in $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for future use.

### 3.4 Sample size

A total of 187 samples ( 48 dogs and 139 cats) were collected from dogs and cats of different ages and sexes from the study area.

### 3.5 Fecal sample examination

The fecal samples were examined by qualitative methods where both sedimentation and floatation techniques were performed maintaining proper protocols.

### 3.5.1 Sedimentation method

Five to ten grams of fecal sample was taken in a beaker containing 100 ml of water. The sample was mixed properly with a stirrer and passed through a sieve to another beaker. Then the beaker was allowed to stand for 30 minutes to form clear sediment. The supernatant fluid was carefully poured off and a small amount of the sediment was taken out with the help of medical dropper and spread on a glass slide. This is then covered with a cover slip and placed under microscope at 4X, 10X and 40X.


Figure 2: Schematic diagram for simple sedimentation method.

### 3.5.2 Floatation method

Floatation fluid was made by desolving 400 gm Sodium Chloride Salt into 1000 ml of water. Hence, floatation fluid was made with a specific gravity of 1.28 . Two to five grams of feces was taken in 10 ml of sugar solution and mixed properly. This solution was then taken into $12-15 \mathrm{ml}$ centrifugal tube and tube was loaded up with sugar solution around 1 inch from the highest point. Centrifugation was done for 5 minutes at 1200 rpm . The test tube was then taken out from the centrifuge machine; top 1 inch of the tube was filled up with sugar solution. A coverslip was put on the top of the tube and it was permitted to stand for 10 minutes. After that, the coverslip was placed on a slide and seen under the microscope at 4X, 10X to 40X.


Figure 3: Floatation technique performed in laboratory

## CHAPTER 4

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Results

### 4.1.1 Parasites recovered in dogs

The study was conducted from September, 2019 to February, 2020. A total of 187 samples were collected, and out of them, 48 were dog samples and 139 were cat samples. Through examination of different breeds of dog, a number of different endoparasites were recovered. The endoparasites included six species of helminths and two species of protozoa in dogs. Among the helminths, two species of cestodes (Dipylidium caninum and Diphyllobothrium latum) and four species of nematodes (Toxocara canis, Toxascaris leonina, Ancylostoma caninum and Trichuris vulpis) were identified. Moreover, two protozoan species, namely, Isospora sp. and Eimeria sp were recorded from the samples.

### 4.1.1.1 Overall prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs

In dogs, $17(35.42 \%)$ were found positive where the prevalence of enteric helminth and protozoan were $31.25 \%$ and $8.33 \%$, respectively. Out of 17 samples, 12 dogs were positive, where $70.59 \%$ had a single infection and rest $29.41 \%$ dogs had mixed infections.


Figure 4: Overall prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs

In this study, Toxocara canis was the highest prevalent parasite (8) $16.67 \%$. The other endoparasites prevalent were Toxascaris leonina $2.08 \%$, Ancylostoma caninum 6.25\%, Trichuris vulpis 10.42\%, Dipylidium caninum (4.17\%), Diphyllobothrium latum (2.08\%). Two species of protozoa, Isospora sp. and Eimeria sp., had a prevalence of $6.25 \%$ and $2.08 \%$ respectively.

Table 1: Prevalence of individual parasites in dog

| Species of Endoparasites | Number of total sample | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Toxocara canis | 8 | 16.67 |
| Toxascaris leonina | 1 | 2.08 |
| Ancylostoma caninum | 3 | 6.25 |
| Trichuris vulpis | 5 | 10.42 |
| Dipylidium caninum | 2 | 4.17 |
| Diphyllobothrium latum | 1 | 2.08 |
| Isospora canis | 3 | 6.25 |
| Eimeria sp. | 1 | 2.08 |

### 4.1.1.2 Age-wise prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs

All 48 dog samples were categorized into 2 groups, older and young. 16 samples were collected from older group (> 6 months) and 32 samples were collected from younger group ( $\leq 6$ months). In the younger group, 5 samples were positive ( $31.25 \%$ ), and in the older group 12 samples were positive ( $37.50 \%$ ).

Table 2: Age-wise prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs

| Age groups | No of animals | No. of positive cases | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Young $\operatorname{dog}$ ( $\leq 6$ months) | 32 | 12 | 37.50 |
| Adult $\operatorname{dog}$ (> 6 months) | 16 | 5 | 31.25 |

### 4.1.1.3 Sex related prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs

The study was carried out in a total of 48 dogs where 23 were male and 25 were female. Among the male dogs, 8 cases were positive with the prevalence of $34.78 \%$; While 9 were positive with the prevalence of $36.00 \%$ in female dogs.

Table 3: Sex related prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs

| Sex | No of observed | No. of positive cases | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Male | 23 | 8 | 34.78 |
| Female | 25 | 9 | 36.00 |

### 4.1.1.4 Prevalence of parasitic infection according to habitat in dogs

In this study, 48 dogs were classified into two groups according to the habitat; pet and stray. The prevalence of stray and pet dogs was $77.78 \%$ and $25.65 \%$, respectively. In this study, endoparasitic infections were more prevalent in stray dog than pet dog.

Table 4: Prevalence of parasitic infection according to habitat in dogs

| Class | Number of | No. of infected | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | animals | dogs |  |
| Pet Dog | 39 | 10 | 25.65 |
| Stray Dog | 9 | 7 | 77.78 |

### 4.1.1.5 Breed wise prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs

In this study, a total of 48 dogs of 3 breeds namely, local breed, cross breed and exotic breed, were examined. Out of them, 10 were local breed originated in Bangladesh, 22 were crossbred and the rest 16 were exotic. Prevalence rate was highest in local breed ( $40.00 \%$ ) followed by exotic breed (37.50\%) and crossbreed (31.82\%).

Table 5: Breed wise prevalence of parasitic infection in dogs

| Breed | No of animals | No. of infected <br> dogs | Prevalence (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Local breed | 10 | 4 | 40.00 |
| Cross breed | 16 | 6 | 37.50 |
| Exotic breed | 22 | 7 | 32.82 |



Figure 5: Toxocara canis; A (40x magnification), B (10x magnification)


Figure 6: Toxascaris leonina; A and B Both (40x Magnification)


Figure 7: Ancylostoma caninum; A and B both (40x Magnification)


Figure8: Trichuris vulpis; A and B both (40x Magnification)


Figure 9: Dipylidium caninum; A and B both (40x Magnification)


Figure 10: Diphyllobothrium latum; A and B both (40x Magnification)


Figoue 11: Isospora sp.; A and B both (40x Magnification)


Figure 12: Eimeria sp. (40x Magnification)

### 4.1.2 Parasites recovered in cats

Through examination of 139 different breeds of cats, several endoparasites were identified. Among the endoparasites, seven species were helminths and two species were protozoa in cat. The helminths included three species of cestodes (Dipylidium caninum, Diphyllobothrium latum and Taenia sp.) and four species of nematodes (Toxocara cati, Toxascaris leonina, Ancylostoma caninum and Capillaria hepatica). Other hand, there were only two species of protozoa, Isospora sp. and Eimeria sp.

### 4.1.2.1 Overall prevalence of parasitic infection in cats

Among 139 cat faeces, 46 cases were found positive, which showed a prevalence of $33.09 \%$. Out of these positive cases, 42 showed positive for helminthes (30.22\%) and rest 10 showed positive for protozoa ( $7.19 \%$ ). 33 out of 46 positive cat sample had single endoparasitic infection (71.74\%), and rest 13 ( $28.26 \%$ ) sample had mixed infection in cats.


Figure 14: Overall prevalence of parasitic infection in cats

In this study, total seven types of helminths were found. Among the helminths, T. cati had the highest prevalence ( $15.83 \%$ ) followed by C. hepatica ( $7.91 \%$ ), A. caninum ( $5.04 \%$ ), D. caninum ( $3.6 \%$ ), D. latum ( $2.88 \%$ ), T. leonina ( $2.16 \%$ ) and Taenia sp. (1.44\%). On the contrary two species of protozoa were identified with the prevalence of $6.47 \%$ and $2.16 \%$ for Isospora sp. and Eimeria sp., respectively.

Table 6: Prevalence of individual species of endoparasites in cat

| Species of Endoparasites | No. of positive sample | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Toxocara cati | 22 | 15.83 |
| Toxascaris leonina | 3 | 2.16 |
| Ancylostoma caninum | 7 | 5.04 |
| Capilaria hepatica | 11 | 7.91 |
| Dipylidium caninum | 5 | 3.6 |
| Diphyllobothrium latum | 4 | 2.88 |
| Taenia sp. | 2 | 1.44 |
| Isospora sp. | 9 | 6.47 |
| Eimeria sp. | 3 | 2.16 |

### 4.1.2.2 Age-wise prevalence of endoparasites in cats

A total of 139 cat samples were categorized into 2 groups; older (age $>6$ months) and young (age $\leq 6$ months). Among the samples, 46 samples were collected from older group and 93 samples were collected from younger group where younger group ( $34.41 \%$ ) were more infected than the older group ( $30.43 \%$ ).

Table 7: Age-wise prevalence of endoparasites in cats

| Age group | No. of | No. of | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | animals | positive cases |  |
| Young cat (age $\leq 6$ months) | 93 | 32 | 34.41 |
| Adult cat (age $>6$ months) | 46 | 14 | 30.43 |

### 4.1.2.3 Sex wise prevalence of parasitic infection in cats

The study was carried out in a total of 139 cats where 52 were male and 87 were female. Among 52 male, 18 cases were positive with the prevalence of $34.62 \%$; Among 87 females, 28 were positive with the prevalence of $32.18 \%$.

Table 8: Sex-wise prevalence of parasitic infection in cats

| Sex group | No. of animals | No. of positive cases | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Male | 52 | 18 | 34.62 |
| Female | 87 | 28 | 32.18 |

### 4.1.2.4 Prevalence of parasitic infection according to habit in cats

In this study, 139 cats were classified into two groups, pet and stray, according to the habitat. Among 139 cats, only 21 were stray cats while 118 were pet cats. The prevalence of stray and pet cats was $80.95 \%$ and $24.58 \%$, respectively. In this study, endoparasitic infections were more prevalent in stray cat than pet cat.

Table 9: Prevalence of parasitic infection according to habit in cats

| Type | No. of animals | No. of infected cats | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pet cat | 118 | 29 | 24.58 |
| Stray cat | 21 | 17 | 80.95 |

### 4.1.2.5 Breed wise prevalence of parasitic infection in cats

In this study, a total of 139 cats of 3 types, local breed, cross breed and exotic breed, were examined. Out of them, 34 were local breed originated Bangladesh, 52 were crossbred and, the rest 49 were exotic. Prevalence of infection was highest in Local breed (38.24\%) followed by exotic breed (31.48\%) and crossbred (31.37\%).

Table 10: Breed wise prevalence of parasitic infection in cats

| Breed | No. of animals | No. of infected cats | Prevalence (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Local breed | 34 | 13 | 38.24 |
| Cross breed | 52 | 17 | 31.48 |
| Exotic breed | 49 | 16 | 31.37 |



Figure 14: T. cati; A: 10x magnification, B: 4x magnification


Figure15: A. caninum; A and B Both (40x magnification)


Figure 16: T. leonina; A: 40x magnification, B: 10x magnification


Figure 27: Taenia spp.; A and B Both (40x magnification)


Figure 18: C. hepatica; A and B Both (40x magnification)


Figure 19: D. caninum; A and B Both (40x magnification)


Figure 20: D. latum; A and B Both (40x magnification)


Figure 21: Isospora sp.; A and B Both (40x magnification)

### 4.2 Discussion

### 4.2.1 Prevalence of parasitic infection in Dog

Six species of enteric helminth namely, T. canis, T. leonina, D. caninum, D. latum, A. caninum and T. vulpis, and two species protozoa, Isospora sp. and Eimeria sp. were found during this study in dog. All of the above parasites have been previously reported in dogs from different parts of Bangladesh (Das et al., 2012; Mahmud et al., 2014; Barua et al., 2020) as well as from different parts of world (Collins et al., 1983 in Australisa; Johnston and Gasser, 1993 in Australia; Milstein and Goldmid, 1995 in Australia; Bugg et al., 1999 in Australia; Jones et al., 2011 in Ethiopia; Satyal et al.' 2013 in Nepal; Panigrahi et al., 2014 in India; Ngui et al., 2014 in Nigeria; Rojekittikhun et al., 2014 in Thailand; Villeneuve et al., 2015 in Canada; TorresChable et al., 2015 in Mexico; Ayinmode et al., 2016 in Neigeria; Yadav and Shrestha, 2017 in Nepal; Neigeria; Idika et al., 2017 in Neigeria; Suganya et al., 2018 in India; Khan et al., 2020 in Pakistan).

In this study overall prevalence in was $35.42 \%$, where the prevalence of enteric helminth and protozoa was $31.25 \%$ and $8.33 \%$, respectively. This investigation is in agreement with with Satyal et al. (2013); Rojekittikhun et al. (2014); Panigrahi et al. (2014) and Ayinmode et al. (2016), where the overall prevalence was $46.7 \%, 36.2 \%$, $41.46 \%$ and $43.3 \%$, respectively. This finding of this study is dissimilar with Suganya et al. (2018) and Khan et al. (2020), who recorded the overall prevalence of $23.72 \%$ and $26.8 \%$, respectively. The variation of overall prevalence might be due to the variation of different geographic locations, sampling size, analytical techniques etc.

The prevalence of enteric protozoa (8.33\%) in this study was very close to those of Oliveira-Sequeira et al. (2002) in Brazil (12.2\%) and Palmer et al. (2008) in Australia
(9.4\%). Whereas, the prevalence of enteric protozoa in Pakistan is much lower ( $2.8 \%$ ) (Khan et al., 2020). This might be due to the fact that they examined the faeces of pet and sheltered dogs only.

In our investigation, the single endoparasitic infection was $70.59 \%$, and mixed infection was $29.41 \%$ in dogs. It is quite similar to the findings of Satyal et al. (2013) in Nepal who recorded single parasitic infection in dog as $20.4 \%$ in their study. This is also supported by the findings of Khan et al. (2020) who recorded single parasitic infection as $65.8 \%$ and mixed parasitic infection as $34.20 \%$ in Pakistan. Ayinmodi et al. (2016) in Nigeria documented $69.4 \%$ single parasitic and $21.6 \%$ mixed infection in Nigeria.

Toxocara canis showed the highest prevalence (16.67) in this study which was nearly similar with Johnston and Gasser, (1993) in Australia; Milstein and Goldmid, (1995) in Australia; Panigrahi et al. (2014) in India; Villeneuve et al. (2015) in Canada; Ayinmode et al. (2016) in Neigeria; Suganya et al. (2018) in India; Khan et al. (2020) in Pakistan, who recorded the prevalence as $9.5 \%, 10.9 \%, 20.31 \%, 12.7 \%$, $9.8 \%, 24,79 \%, 10.5 \%$, respectively. However, our findings varied with Jones et al. (2011) in Ethiopia; Ngui et al. (2014) in Malaysia; Barua et al. (2020) in Dhaka who documented the prevalence of $53.9 \%, 32.4 \%, 76.67 \%$, respectively. Moore and O’Callaghan, (1985) in Australia; Rojekittikhun et al. (2014) in Thailand; TorresChable et al. (2015) in Mexico; Idika et al. (2017) in Nigeria recorded the prevalence of T. canis as $6.4 \%, 6.6 \%, 2.3 \%, 5.9 \%$, respectively.

The prevalence of T. leonina was $2.08 \%$ which was almost close to the findings of Kelly and Ng, (1975) in Australia; Blake and Overend, (1982) in Australia; Panigrahi et al. (2014) in India; Ngui et al. (2014) in Nigeria; Villeneuve et al. (2015) in

Canada; who recorded $3.2 \%, 4.0 \%, 4.68 \%, 5.7 \%, 3.0 \%$ prevalence, respectively. Moreover, Moore and O’Callaghan, (1985) in Australia; Khan et al. (2020) in Pakistan mentioned the prevalence as $1.4 \%$, and $1.31 \%$, respectively.

In case of A. caninum, the prevalence was $6.25 \%$ which is supported by the finding Moore and O'Callaghan, (1985) in Australia; Johnston and Gasser, (1993) in Australia; Villeneuve et al. (2015) in Canada; Torres-Chable et al. (2015) in Mexico; Khan et al. (2020) in Pakistan, who recorded the prevalence as $3.0 \%, 6.7 \%, 3.1 \%$, $15.9 \%$ and $3.94 \%$, respectively. However, it varies with Carnack and O'Rourke, (1991) in Australisa; Das et al. (2012) Chattogram metropolitan; Panigrahi et al. (2014) in India; Rojekittikhun et al. (2014) in Thailand; Idika et al. (2017) in Neigeria; Suganya et al. (2018) in India; by a wide margin like $20.1 \%, 25 \%, 23.44 \%$, $30.6 \%, 33.2 \%, 37.19 \%$, respectively.

In our investigation, the prevalence of Trichuris vulpis was $10.42 \%$. This result was close to Moore and O'Callaghan, (1985) in Australia; Johnston and Gasser, (1993) in Australia; with Satyal et al. (2016) in Nepal; Panigrahi et al. 2014 in India; Rojekittikhun et al. (2014) in Thailand; Villeneuve et al. (2015) in Canada; Yadav and Shrestha, (2017) in Nepal; who found the prevalence of $8.8 \%, 8.1 \%, 5.1 \%$, $9.37 \%, 16 \%, 4.4 \% 5.73 \%$, respectively. But a huge variation was found with the findings of Milstein and Goldmid, (1995) in Australia; Ngui et al. (2014) in Nigeria; Idika et al. (2017) in Neigeria; Khan et al. (2020) in Pakistan, who recorded the prevalence as $1.8 \%, 1.0 \%, 0.5 \%, 1.31 \%$, respectively.

Prevalence of D. caninum was $4.17 \%$ in this study, which was almost similar to those of Davies and Nicholas, (1977) in Australia (10.0\%), Carnack and O'Rourke, (1991) in Australisa (4.1\%), Satyal et al. (2013) in Nepal (9.2\%); Ngui et al. (2014) in

Nigeria (4.8\%); Panigrahi et al. (2014) in India (12.5\%); Idika et al. (2017) in Neigeria (4\%); Suganya et al. (2018) in India (1.65\%); Khan et al. (2020) in Pakistan (11.8\%).

This study showed the prevalence of $D$. latum as $2.08 \%$, which matched with the findings of Yadav and Shrestha, (2017) in Nepal; Suganya et al. (2019) in India, who recorded the prevalence as $2.98 \%$ and $1.65 \%$, respectively. But it varies from findings of Das et al. (2012) who recorded prevalence as $25 \%$.

The prevalence of Isospora sp. in this study is $6.25 \%$ which is almost similar to Collins et al. (1983) in Australisa; Johnston and Gasser, (1993) in Australia; Bugg et al. (1999) in Australisa; Villeneuve et al. 2015 in Canada; who recorded this as 5.5\%, $7.9 \%, 6.9 \%, 10.11 \%$, respectively; but varies with Savini et al. (1993) in Australisa; Ngui et al. (2014) in Nigeria; Ayinmode et al. 2016 in Neigeria; Suganya et al. (2018) in India, who found the prevalence as $1.5 \%, 1.3 \%, 14.2 \%, 1.65 \%$, respectively. In case of Eimeria sp., prevalence was $2.08 \%$ which was supported by Ngui et al. (2014) in Nigeria; who reported the prevalence of $2.6 \%$ but not supported by Mahmud et al. (2014) who reported the prevalence of Eimeria sp. as $26.23 \%$ in Sirajgong. It might be due to the examination of the diseased dogs which were brought to the hospital for treatment.

In our study, adult dogs had higher prevalence (37.5\%) than that of the young dogs ( $31.25 \%$ ). This result is similar to that of Panigrahi et al. (2014), who also recorded a higher prevalence in young group (53.19\%) than the adult (36.44\%). But this result varied with that of Khan et al. (2020), who recorded higher prevalence in adult (28.09\%) than the young ( $25.4 \%$ ). Higher prevalence of parasitic infection in young dog might be due to ignorance of anthelmintic treatment.

In this study, the prevalence of infection in stray and pet dogs was $77.78 \%$ and $25.65 \%$, respectively. Satyal et al. (2013) also recorded higher prevalence (56.2\%) in stray dog than pet dogs (37.1\%). However, the prevalence varied from the findings of Khan et al. (2020) who reported $16.1 \%$ prevalence in pet dogs and $34.4 \%$ prevalence in stray dog. In this study, higher endoparasitic infections in stray dog might be due to their higher exposure to parasite and lack of anthelmintic treatment. In relation to the breed, highest prevalencewas observed in local breed (40\%) followed by exotic breed (37.5\%) and crossbred (31.82\%).

### 4.2.2 Prevalence of parasitic infection in Cat

In this study, Seven species of helminths namely, T. cati, T. leonina, A. caninum, $C$. hepatica, D. caninum, D. latum, Taenia sp., and two species of protozoa, Isospora sp. and Eimeria sp. were identified through coprological examination. This parasite have been previously documented in cats from different areas of Bangladesh (Mehedi et al. 2020; Barua et al. 2020), as well as from different parts of world (Jittapalapong et al. 2007 in Thailand; Karatepe et al. 2008 in Turkey; Rojekittikhun et al. 2014 in Thailand; Villeneuve et al. 2015 in Canada; Liang and Yang, 2015 in China; Ito et al. 2016 in Japan).

Overall prevalence in cat was $33.09 \%$, while the prevalence of enteric helminth and protozoa was found $30.22 \%$ and $7.19 \%$, respectively. This findings are very similar with many authors Rojekittikhun et al. 2014; Villeneuve et al. 2015; Liang and Yang, 2015, where the overall prevalence was $44.3 \%, 31.8 \%, 41.39 \%$, respectively. But the results of this study showed higher prevalence compare to Jittapalapong et al. (2007); Palmer et al. (2008), Ito et al. (2016), who recorded the overall prevalence $11.9 \%$,
$18.4 \%, 20.8 \%$, respectively. However, Karatepe et al. (2008); Mehedi et al. (2020) recorded higher prevalence, $76.4 \%, 62.9 \%$, respectively. The dissimilarities in prevalence may be due to different geographic locations, sample size, sampling method, rearing system of cat, deworming practices, etc. Most of the cat population in this study were reared in house as a pet animal. Owners of the cat did not allow them to go outside. As a result, prevalence of parasite in cat was lower than few authors.

In our investigation, the single endoparasitic infection was $71.74 \%$ and the rest $28.26 \%$ were mixed infections in cats. It is similar to the finding of Villeneuve et al. (2015) in Canada who recorded 73\% single parasitic infection and $27 \%$ mixed parasitic infection and Mehedi et al. (2020) where single parasitic infection was $79.04 \%$ and mixed parasitic infection was $20.96 \%$ in Mymensingh. Single parasitic infection may be due the consumption of ready-made food given by the owners. The cats of this study, eats residual food. That's why they were infected with multiple parasites.

Toxocara cati showed highest prevalence (15.83\%) in this study which was nearly similar with Shaw et al. (1983); Karatepe et al. (2008); Rojekittikhun et al. (2014); Villeneuve et al. (2015); Liang and Yang, (2015); Mehedi et al. (2020) who recorded 9-17.74\% prevalence, however our findings varied with Pavlov and Howell, (1977); Wilson-Hanson and Prescott, (1982); Moore and O'Callaghan, (1985); Jittapalapong et al. (2007), Who recorded the prevalence of T. cati at $24.5 \%, 25 \%, 5.3 \%, 3.5 \%$, respectively.

The prevalence of T. leonina was $2.16 \%$, which was almost close to the findings of $3.7 \%$ by Moore and O'Callaghan, (1985); 2.2\% by McGlade et al. (2003) and $7.1 \%$ by Ngui et al. (2014). However variation with Wilson-Hanson and Prescott, (1982) and Karatepe et al. (2008) where observed in the prevalence of T. leonina.

In our study, the prevalence of A. caninum was $5.04 \%$ where many authors (Pavlov and Howell, 1977; Jittapalapong et al. 2007; Villeneuve et al. 2015; Yang and Liang, 2015; Mehedi et al. 2020) found the similar results. But our result showed lower prevalence than Wilson-Hanson and Prescott, (1982) 19\% and Meloni et al. (1993) $20 \%$.

In case of D. caninum, prevalence was $3.6 \%$ which was supported by Moore and O'Callaghan, (1985) and Nugi et al. (2014) who reported that $1.3 \%$ and $7.1 \%$, respectively. But this result was not supported by Wilson-Hanson and Prescott, (1982) and Jittapalapong et al. (2007) who recoded $19 \%$ and $0.14 \%$, respectively.

The result of this study showed $1.44 \%$ prevalence of Taenia sp. in Dhaka city. This type of abutting result was shown by Wilson-Hanson and Prescott, (1982), Moore and O'Callaghan, (1985), Villeneuve et al. (2015) and Mehedi et al. (2020) where the prevalence was $0.3 \%, 2.7 \%, 4.4 \%$ and $3.2 \%$, respectively. But Kelly and Ng, (1975) found $6.9 \%$ of Taenia infection which was a disagreement with our result.

Almost identical results in the prevalence of both Isospora spp. (6.47\%) and Eimeria sp. (2.16\%) was recorded in the study are (Wilson-Hanson and Prescott, 1982; Shaw et al. 1983; Collins et al. 1983; McGlade et al. 2003; Palmer et al. 2008; Rojekittikhun et al. 2014; Ngui et al. 2014; Mehedi et al. 2020 and Karatepe et al. 2008). However Sargent, (1997); Jittapalapong et al. (2007); Villeneuve et al. (2015) and Yang and Liang, (2015) found a degree of variable result in different part of the world. The lower parasitic infection may be attributed due to the feeding habit. The cats in this study had a history of seldom visit to the environment, that's why most of the consumed very scanty amount of oocyst which was infective stage of enteric protozoa.

In our study, young animals (34.41\%) were more infected with various parasite than the older (30.43\%). Our study matched with Villeneuve et al. (2015) who found 39\% infection in the young group where infection in older group was $23.9 \%$. More infection in younger group was in accordance with Jittapalapong et al. (2007); Mehedi et al. (2020). Young cats do not develop a good immune system. Moreover, kitten can be infected with larva through transplacental or transmammary routes. The higher Infection in younger cats may also be due to no anthelmintics and vaccination history, concurrent infection, etc.

In this study, the prevalence of stray and pet cat was $80.95 \%$ and $24.58 \%$ respectively. In relation $34.62 \%$ male and $332.18 \%$ female were infected with various parasites which was similar to the results of Jittapalapong et al. (2007) and Mehedi et al. (2020). The variation in the prevalence in relation to sex can't be explained properly, but it may be associated with hormonal effect, immune-suppression, stress etc. In addition of these factor male cats spent more time in the environment than the female.

## CHAPTER 5

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was performed in the Dhaka city aimed to find out the prevalence and identification of enteric parasites found in dog and cat. A total of 48 dogs and 139 cats fecal sample were collected and the overall, $35.42 \%$ of dogs and $33.09 \%$ of cats were positive for at least one parasite. The results showed that the overall individual prevalence of the endoparasites in Dhaka where highest prevalence was found in Toxocara canis and Toxocara cati than the other parasite Dipylidium caninum, Diphyllobothrium latum, Taenia sp., Toxascaris leonina, Ancylostoma caninum, Trichuris vulpis, Capillaria hepatica, Isospora sp. and Eimeria sp. Both Dog and cat about one sample was detected by mixed infection out of every four positive samples and at least one sample found protozoa out of five positive samples.

The parasite prevalence levels reported in this study reinforce the need to monitor pets across Dhaka, for intestinal parasites and to treat infected animals promptly and correctly with effective anthelmintics. Animals adopted from household with untreated, or ineffectively treated, parasite infections pose ongoing risks for animal and human health. This reinforces the importance of strategies for prevention, which depend in part on pet management and owner awareness of the sources and management options for parasites in their pets. This awareness can be greatly enhanced by veterinarians and their staff. Veterinarians are an important source of information for pet owners and play a critical role in the initiation of education programs emphasizing the importance of preventive measures in reducing the risks of environmental contamination and zoonotic transmission. In addition, periodic fecal
monitoring of pets allows determination of the efficacy of the products being used, compliance with the recommended administration schedules and re-assessment of the therapeutic approach based on current patient health status. The animal surveillance data from this study will help in the development of strategies, based on risk per geographic location for the prevention and response to endoparasites in pets and shelter animals in Dhaka.

## REFERENCES

Ayinmode, A.B., Obebe, O.O. and Olayemi, E. (2016). Prevalence of potentially zoonotic gastrointestinal parasites in canine faeces in Ibadan, Nigeria. Ghana Med. J. 50: 201-206.

Barua, P., Musa, S., Ahmed, R. and Khanum H. (2012). Commonly Found Zoonotic Parasite Species in Dogs and Cats from a Prominent Pet Market of Dhaka, Bangladesh. Annual Res. Rev. Bio. 35: 17-23.

Beyene, N.T., Abera, D., Teha, R. Mekonnen, Y.T. and Lemma, F. (2015). Cat and Dog Gastrointestinal Helminth and Assessment of Community Perception on Helminthic Zoonosis in Haramaya Town, Eastern Ethiopia. Am.-Euras. J. Sci. Res. 10: 299-306.

Blake, R.T. and Overend, D.J. (1982). The prevalence of Dirofilaria immitis and other parasites in urban pound dogs in north-eastern Victoria. Aust. Vet. J. 58: 111-114.

Borkataki, S., Katoch, R., Goswami, P., Godara, R., Khajuria, J.K., Yadav, A. and Kaur, R. (2013). Prevalence of parasitic infections of stray cats in Jammu, India. Sokoto J. Vet. Sci. 11: 1-6.

Borthakur, S.K. and Mukharjee, S.N. (2011). Gastrointestinal helminthes in stray cats (Felis catus) from Aizawl, Mizoram, India. Southeast Asian j. Tro. Med., 42: 255-258.

Bugg, R.J., Robertson, I.D., Elliot, A.D. and Thompson, R.C. (1999). Gastrointestinal Parasites of Urban Dogs in Perth, Western Australia. Vet. J. 157: 295-301.

Collins, G.H., Emslie, D.R., Farrow, B.R. and Watson, A.D. (1983). Sporozoa in dogs and cats. Aust. Vet. J. 60: 289-290.

Carnack, K.M. and O'Rourke, P.K. (1991). Parasites of sheep dogs in the Charleville district, Queensland. Aust. Vet. J. 68: 149.

Das, S., Alim, M.A., Sikder, S., Gupta, A.D. and Masuduzzaman, M. (2012). Prevalence and Worm Load of Enteric Helminthiasis in Stray Dogs of Chittagong Metropolitan, Bangladesh. Ank. Univ. Eczaci. Fak. Derg. 23: 141145.

Davies, P. and Nicholas, W.L. (1977). The helminth parasites of dogs in the Goodradigbee Shire of New South Wales. Aust. Vet. J. 53: 247-248.

Hajipour, N., Imani Baran, A., Yakhchali, M., Banan Khojasteh, S.M., Sheikhzade Hesari, F., Esmaeilnejad, B. and Arjmand, J. (2015). A survey study on gastrointestinal parasites of stray cats in Azarshahr, (East Azerbaijan province, Iran). J. Parasit Dis. 40: 1255-1260.

Hasib, Y.F.M., Kabir, M.H., Barua, S., Akter, S. and Chowdhury, S. (2020). Frequency and prevalence of clinical conditions and therapeutic drugs used in dog and cat at Teaching Veterinary Hospital, Chattogram Veterinary and Animal Sciences University. J. Adv. Vet. Anim. Res. 7: 156-163.

Idika, I.K., Onuoraha, E.C., Obia, C.F., Umeakuana, P.U., Nwosu, C.O., Onah, D.N. and Chiejina, S.N. (2017). Prevalence of gastrointestinal helminth infections of dog in Enugu State, South Eastern Nigeria. Parasite Epidemiology Control. 2: 97-104

Ito, Y., Itoh, N., Kimura, Y. and Kanai, K. (2016). Prevalence of intestinal parasites in breeding cattery cats in Japan. J. Feline Med. Surg. 18: 834-7.

Jittapalapong, S., Inparnkaew, T., Pinyopanuwat, N., Kengradomkij, C., Sangvaranond, A. and Wongnakphet, S. (2007). Gastrointestinal parasitesof stray cats in Bangkok metropolitan areas Thailand. Witthayasan Kasetsat. 41: 69-73.

Joffe, D., Van-Niekerk, D., Gagne, F., Gilleard, J., Kutz, S. and Lobingier, R. (2011). The prevalence of intestinal parasites in dogs and cats in Calgary, Alberta. Can. Vet. J. 52: 1323-1328.

Johnston, J. and Gasser, R.B. (1993). Copro-Parasitological Survey of Dogs in Southern Victoria. Aust. Vet. Prac. 23: 127-131.

Jones, O., Kebede, N., Kassa, T., Tilahun, G.T. and Macías, A. (2011). Prevalence of dog gastrointestinal parasites and risk perception of zoonotic infection by dog owners in Wondo Genet, Southern Ethiopia. Int. j. public health epidemiol. 3: 550-555.

Karatepe, B., Babür, C., Karatepe, M., Kiliç, S. and Dündar, B. (2008). Prevalence of Toxoplasma gondii antibodies and intestinal parasites in stray cats from Nigde, Turkey. Ital. J. Anim. Sci. 7: 113-118.

Kelly, J.D. and Ng, B.K.Y. (1975). Helminth Parasites of Dogs and Cats II Prevalence in Urban Environments in Australasia. Aust. Vet. Pract. 5: 133141.

Khan, W., Nisab, N.N., Ullaha, S., Ahmadc, S., Mehmoodc, S.A., Khana, M., Ahmada, S., Alid, W., Ullahe, H. and Anwar, K. (2020). Gastrointestinal helminths in dog feces surrounding suburban areas of Lower Dir district, Pakistan: A public health threat. Braz. J. Biol. 80: 511-517.

Kornblatt, A.N. and Schantz, P.M. (1980). Veterinary and public health considerations in canine roundworm control: a survey of practicing veterinarians. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 177: 1212-1215.

Liang H. and, Yang, Y. (2015). Prevalence and risk factors of intestinal parasites in cats from China. Biomed. Res. Int. 45: 967-978

Mahmud, M.A.A., Belal, S.M.S.H. and Uddin, F.M.J. (2014). Prevalence of Protozoan Diseases in Pet Dogs at District Veterinary Hospital, Sirajganj, Bangladesh. Bangl. J. Vet. Med. 12: 191-196.

Makene, V.W., Muhairwa, A.P., Mtambo, M.M.A., Kusiluka, L.J.M., Kambarage, D.M. and Maeda, G.E. (1996). Prevalence of Canine Gastrointestinal Parasites in Morogoro, Tanzania. J. Appl. Anim. Res.10: 149-153

Mehedi, B.H., Nahar, A., Rahman, A.K.M.A. and Ehsan, M.A. (2020). Prevalence of gastro-intestinal parasitic infections of cats and efficacy of antiparasitics against these infections in Mymensingh sadar, Bangladesh Bangl. J. Vet. Med. 18: 65-73

McGlade, T.R., Robertson, I.D., Elliot, A.D., Read, C. and Thompson, R.C. (2003). Gastrointestinal parasites of domestic cats in Perth, Western Australia. Vet. Parasitol.117: 251-162.

Meloni, B.P., Thompson, R.C., Hopkins, R.M., Reynoldson, J.A. and Gracey, M. (1993). The prevalence of Giardia and other intestinal parasites in children, dogs and cats from aboriginal communities in the Kimberley. Med. J. Aust. 158: 157-159.

Milstein, T.C. and Goldsmid, J.M. (1995). The presence of Giardia and other zoonotic parasites of urban dogs in Hobart, Tasmania. Aust. Vet. J. 72: 154155.

Moore, E. and O'callaghan, M.G. (1985). Helminths of dogs and cats determined by faecal examinations in Adelaide, South Australia. Aust. Vet. J. 62: 198-199.

Ngui, R., Lee, S.C., Yap, N.J., Tan, T.K., Aidil, R.M., Chua, K.H., Aziz, S., Sulaiman, W.Y., Ahmad, A.F., Mahmud, R. and Lian, Y.L. (2014). Gastrointestinal parasites in rural dogs and cats in Selangor and Pahang states in Peninsular Malaysia. Acta. Parasitol. 59: 737-744.

Oliveira-Sequeira, T.C., Amarante, A.F., Ferrari, T.B. and Nunes, L.C. (2002). Prevalence of intestinal parasites in dogs from Sao Paulo State, Brazil. Vet. Parasitol. 103: 19-27.

Palmer, C.S., Thompson, R.C., Traub, R.J., Rees, R. and Robertson, I.D. (2008). National study of the gastrointestinal parasites of dogs and cats in Australia. Vet. Parasitol. 151: 181-190.

Panigrahi, P.N., Gupta, A.R., Behera, S.K., Panda, B.S.K., Patra, R.C., Mohanty, B.N. and Sahoo, G.R. (2014). Evaluation of gastrointestinal helminths in canine population of Bhubaneswar, Odisha, India: a public health appraisal. Vet. World. 7: 295-298.

Papazahariadou, M., Founta, A., Papadopoulos, E., Chilounakis, S., AntoniadouSotiriadou, K. and Theodorides, Y. (2007). Gastrointestinal parasites of shepherd and hunting dogs in the Serres Prefecture, Northern Greece. Vet. Parasitol. 148: 170-173.

Parvez, M. (2014). Prevalence of Clinical Conditions in Dogs and Cats at Teaching Veterinary Hospital (TVH) in Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Bangladesh. Van. Vet. J. 2: 99-104.

Pavlov, P.M. and Howell, M.J. (1977). Helminth parasites of Canberra cats. Aust. Vet. J. 53: 599-600.

Raza, A., Rand, J., Qamar, A.G., Jabbar, A. and Kopp, S. (2018). Gastrointestinal Parasites in Shelter Dogs: Occurrence, Pathology, Treatment and Risk to Shelter Workers. Animals J. 8: 108.

Robertson, I.D., Irwin, P.J., Lymbery, A.J. and Thompson, R.C.A. (2000). The role of companion animals in the emergence of parasitic zoonoses. Int. J. Parasitol. 30: 1369-1377.

Rojekittikhun, W., Chaisiri, K., Mahittikorn, A., Pubampen, S., Sa-Nguankiat, S., Kusolsuk, T., Maipanich ,W., Udonsom, R. and Mori, H. (2014). Gastrointestinal parasites of dogs and cats in a refuge in Nakhon Nayok, Thailand. Southeast Asian J. Trop. Med. 45: 31-39.

Samad, M.A. (2008). Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Science.Volume 2, LEP Pub.No. 11, BAU Campus, Mymensingh.

Sargent, K.D. (1997). Molecular characterization of Cryptosporidium from selected hosts. Honours thesis, Murdoch University. Parasitology 117: 31-37.

Satyal, R.C., Manandhar, S., Dhakal, S., Mahato, B.R., Chaulagain, S., Ghimire, L. and Pandeya, Y.R. (2013). Prevalence of gastrointestinal zoonotic helminths in dogs of Kathmandu, Nepal. Int. J. Infect. Microbiol. 2:91-94.

Savini, G., Dunsmore, J.D. and Robertson, I.D. (1993). A survey of Western Australian dogs for Sarcocystis spp and other intestinal parasites. Aust. Vet. J. 70: 275-276.

Shaw, J., Dunsmore, J. and Jakob-Hoff, R. (1983). Prevalence of some gastrointestinal parasites in cats in the Perth area. Aust. Vet. J. 60: 151-152.

Soriano, S.V., Pierangeli, N.B., Roccia, I., Bergagna, H.F., Lazzarini, L.E., Celescinco, A., Saiz, M.S., Kossman, A., Contreras, P.A., Arias, C. and Basualdo, J.A. (2010). A wide diversity of zoonotic intestinal parasites infects urban and rural dogs in Neuquen, Patagonia, Argentina. Vet. Parasitol. 167: 81-85.

Suganya, G., Porteen, K., Sekar, M. and Sangaran, A. (2019). Prevalence and molecular characterization of zoonotic helminths in dogs J Parasit Dis 43: 96-102.

Tamerat, N., Abera, D., Teha, R., Terefe, Y. and Lemma, F. (2015). Cat and Dog Gastrointestinal Helminth and Assessment of Community Perception on Helminthic Zoonosis in Haramaya Town, Eastern Ethiopia. Am. Euras. J. Sci. Res. 10 : 299-306.

Taylor M.H., Coop R.L., Wall K.L. (2007). Veterinary Parasitology. 3rd Ed. Black well publishing, UK.

Torres-Chable, O.M., Garcia-Herrera, R.A., Hernandez-Hernandez, M., PeraltaTorres, J.A., Ojeda-Robertos, N.F., Blitvich, B.J., Baak-Baak, C.M., Julián Everardo Garcia-Rejon, J.E. and Machain-Wiliams, C.I. (2015). Prevalence of gastrointestinal parasites in domestic dogs in Tabasco, southeastern Mexico. Braz. J. Vet. Parasitol. 24: 432-437.

Traub R.J. (2003). Dogs, humans and gastrointestinal parasites, Unraveling epidemiological and zoonotic relationships in an endemic tea-growing community in Northeast India. PhD thesis, Murdoch University.

Traub, R.J., Pednekar, R.P., Cuttell, L., Porter, R.B., Abd Megat Rani, P.A. and Gatne, M.L. (2014). The prevalence and distribution of gastrointestinal parasites of stray and refuge dogs in four locations in India. Vet. Parasitol. 205: 233-238.

Urgel, M.F.M., Ybañez, R.H.D. and Ybañez, A.P. (2019). The detection of gastrointestinal parasites in owned and shelter dogs in Cebu. Philippines. Vet. World, 12: 372-376.

Villeneuve, A., Polley, L., Jenkins, E., Schurer, J., Gilleard, J., Kutz, S., Conboy, G., Benoit, D., Seewald, W. and Gagné, F. (2015). Parasite prevalence in fecal samples from shelter dogs and cats across the Canadian provinces. Parasit vectors 8: 281.

Wilson-Hanson, S.L. and Prescott, C.W. (1982). A survey for parasites in cats. Aust. Vet. J. 59: 194.

Yadav, K.K. and Shrestha, B. (2017). Prevalence of Zoonotic Gastrointestional Helminth Parasites in Pet and Stray Dogs of Rupandehi District, Nepal. Microbiol. Infect. Dis. 1: 1-7.

Yakhchali, M., Hajipour, N., Malekzadeh-Viayeh, R., Esmaeilnejad, B., NematiHaravani, T., Fathollahzadeh. M. and Jafari, R. (2017). Gastrointestinal Helminths and Ectoparasites in the Stray Cats (Felidae: Felis catus) of Ahar Municipality, Northwestern Iran. J. Parasitol. 12: 298-304.

Zanzani, S.A., Gazzonis, A.L., Scarpa, P., Berrilli, F. and Manfredi, M.T. (2014). Intestinal parasites of owned dogs and cats from metropolitan and micropolitan areas: prevalence, zoonotic risks, and pet owner awareness in northern Italy. Biomed Res. Int. 69: 65-68.

