

JIMMAUNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND VETERINARY MEDICINE
SCHOOL OF VETERINARY MEDICINE

BOVINE BRUCELLOSIS; SEROPREVALENCE, ASSOCIATED RISK FACTORS
AND ASSESSMENT OF KNOWLEDGE,
ATTITUDE AND PRACTICE OF FARM OWNERS IN SELECTED DISTRICTS OF EA
STWOLLEGAZONE, OROMIA, ETHIOPIA

BY

WAKUMAMITIKU

NOVEMBER 2019

JIMMA, ETHIOPIA

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OWNERS IN SELECTED DISTRICTS OF EAST WOLLEGA ZONE, OROMIA,
ETHIOPIA**

A Thesis Submitted to the School of Veterinary Medicine, Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Veterinary Public Health

BY

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November 2019
Jimma, Ethiopia

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
JIMMA UNIVERSITY
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We, the undersigned, members of the board examiners of the final open defense by **Wakuma Mitiku** have read and evaluated his/her thesis entitled “**Bovine Brucellosis; Seroprevalence, Associated risk factors and Assessment of Knowledge-Attitude and Practice of Farm Owners on Brucellosis in Selected Districts of East Wollega Zone, Oromia, Ethiopia**” and examined the candidate. This is therefore to certify that the thesis has accepted in partial fulfillment for the degree Master of Science in **Veterinary Public Health**.

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DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this thesis to my father **Mitiku Gemechu** and my mother **Necho Abdeta**, who grounded a firm foundation of my academic journey. Their contribution is enormous indeed, that I can not quantify. I dedicate it also to my beloved wife **Biftu Fentahun** for being patient, providing moral support, encouragement and inspiration for two years stay at the University.

STATEMENT OF THE AUTHOR

First, I declare that this thesis is my original work and that all sources of material used for this thesis have been duly acknowledged. This thesis has been submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a postgraduate (MSc) degree at Jimma University, College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine and is deposited at the University/College library to be made available to borrowers under rules of the Library. I solemnly declare that this thesis is not submitted to any other institution anywhere for the award of any degree. Brief quotations from this thesis are allowable without special permission provided that accurate acknowledgement of source is made. Requests for permission for extended quotation from or reproduction of this manuscript in whole or in part may be granted by the head of the major school or the dean of the school of graduate studies when in his or her judgment the proposed use of the material is in the interests of scholarship. In all other instances, however, permission must be obtained from the author.

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Wakuma was born on April 4, 1986 G.C from his father Mitiku Gemechu and his mother Necho Abdetain Illamu Melolekebele, Hababo Guduru district, Horo Guduru Wollega zone, Oromia region, Ethiopia. He attended his primary education (1-6) in Kenate Biya elementary school and junior education (7-8) in Imbabo junior and elementary school starting from 1993 years. He attended his secondary education (9-10) in Fincha senior secondary school and he also attended his preparatory school in Shambu preparatory school until 2004. After he completed his preparatory school he joined Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine in 2005 and he was awarded with Doctor of Veterinary Medicine (DVM) degree in Veterinary Medicine on June, 2009. After graduation, he was employed as Instructor of Animal Health courses in Horo Guduru College Fincha Campus from January 2010 to August 2012 for consecutive three years. Then after he was employed as Veterinarian in Jimma Geneti Woreda Livestock and Fishery Resource office as work process coordinator from February, 2013-2017 or till he joined Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine to pursue Master of Science (MSc) degree in Veterinary Public Health.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Above all, thank to my almighty God for helping giving me courage to cope up complicated situations I faced for pursuing my study and courage during my whole study time.

Next, I would like to express my deepest and sincere gratitude to my academic advisors Dr. Motuma Debelo and Prof. Tadele Tolosa for their unreserved professional advice in implementing the research design, kind cooperation and constructive comments and suggestions in correcting this thesis to produce a final version.

I want to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to Bedele Regional Veterinary Laboratory and its staff members especially to Dr. Fikadu Bekele for providing me laboratory facilities, cooperation during the field research works, and technical assistance during sample processing and analysis.

Again, I want to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to Gobu Seyo, Sibusire and Gudeya Bilad districts - livestock and fishery office, East-Wollega zone, Ethiopia, especially to Dr. Sisay Bekele and Ato Dessalegn Merdas for their positive cooperation and field guidance during sample collection from the Districts.

Finally, my unreserved, heartfelt gratitude also goes to my wife, w/ro Biftu Fentahun for her unreserved encouragement and tolerance while this document was prepared and to my families for their moral support through my entire educational career.

TABLE OF CONTENTS PAGES

DEDICATION	ii
STATEMENT OF THE AUTHOR	iii
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF ANNEXES	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xii
ABSTRACT	xiv
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	2
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	4
2.1. The Causative Agent	4
2.1.1. Resistance and survival properties	5
2.2 Geographical Distribution	6
2.2.1 Global distribution of animal brucellosis.....	6
2.2.2 Global distribution of human brucellosis.....	6
2.2.3 Africa and the sub-region distribution of bovine brucellosis.....	7
2.2.4. The Status of bovine brucellosis in Ethiopia.....	9
2.3. Possible Risk Factors for Infection	11
2.3.1. Animal risk factors	11
2.3.2. Pathogen risk factors.....	11
2.3.3. Occupational risk factor	11
2.3.4. Management risk factors.....	11
2.4. Transmission of Brucellosis	12
2.4.1 Transmission of brucellosis in animals.....	12
2.4.2. Transmission of brucellosis in humans.....	12
2.5. Pathogenesis	14
2.6. Clinical Signs	15
2.6.1. Clinical signs in animals	15

2.6.2. Symptoms of human brucellosis	16
2.7. Diagnosis	16
2.7.1. Bacteriological detection methods	17
2.7.2. Serological diagnosis	18
2.7.3. Molecular methods	21
2.8. Significance of the Disease.....	21
2.8.1. Economic significance	21
2.8.2. Public health significance	22
2.9. Treatment	24
2.10. Prevention and Control.....	24
2.10.1. Classification of endemic areas based on prevalence	25
2.10.2. Characterization of <i>Brucella</i> Species.....	25
2.10.3. Vaccination.....	25
2.10.4. Application of veterinary extension.....	26
3. MATERIAL AND METHODS	27
3.1. Study Area	27
3.2. Study Animals and their Management	29
3.3. Study Design	29
3.4. Sampling Procedure and Sample Size Determination	30
3.5. Sample and Data Collection	31
3.5.1. Blood sample collection.....	31
3.5.2. Questionnaire survey	31
3.6. Serological Tests	32
3.6.1. Rose bengal plate test (RBPT)	32
3.6.2. Competitive ELISA	32
3.7. Data Management and Analysis	33
4. RESULTS	33
4.1. Overall seroprevalence of bovine brucellosis	33
4.2. Risk factors analysis	34
4.2.1. Animal level risk factors analysis.....	34
4.2.2. Herd level risk factors analysis	35
4.3. Questionnaire Survey	37
5. DISCUSSION	38

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	42
7. REFERANCES	43
8. ANNEXES.....	55

LIST OF TABLES PAGES

Table 1. Distribution of bovine brucellosis in some African countries	8
Table 2. The number of animals sampled from each districts	31
Table 3. Overall individual animal and herd level brucellosis seroprevalence based on RBPT and ELISA test.....	33
Table 4. Univariable logistic regression analysis of common risk factors associated with Brucella seropositivity at individual animal level	34
Table 5. Univariable logistic regression analysis of risk/indicator factors for herd level brucellosis seropositivity.....	35
Table 6. Multivariable logistic regression analyses identifying the association of potential risk factors to Brucella seropositivity in cattle.....	37
Table 7. Knowledge-attitudes and practices of farm owners about brucellosis.....	37

LISTOFFIGURESPAGES

Figure1:Modeoftransmissionofbovinebrucellosis(*B.abortus*) 14

Figure2:Epididymitisinbulls(a)andabortionincow(b) 16

Figure3:Hygromasonlegjoints..... 16

Figure4:Waysofdiseasetransmission(a)Blowingthroughthevulvatoenhancemilk
let-down(b)DirectsucklingofrawmilkfromcattlecampsintheTerekeka
country.....23

Figure5:Mapofstudyarea..... 29

LIST OF ANNEXES PAGES

Annex1: Data recording format for blood sampling	62
Annex2: Questionnaire survey for the assessment of brucellosis and associated risk factors	63
Annex3: Age determination in cattle based on teeth eruption	67
Annex4: Rose Bengal Plate Test (RBPT) reagents, material and equipment and procedure	68
Annex5: C-ELISA Test Procedures	69

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AASUR	Addis Ababa and Surroundings
AI	Artificial Insemination
ARNS	Amhara Regional National State
<i>B. abortus</i>	<i>Brucella abortus</i>
bvs biovars	
C-ELISA	Competitive Enzyme Linked Immuno Sorbent Assay
CFT	Complement Fixation Test
CFU	Colony Forming Unit
CHE	Central Highlands of Ethiopia
CI	Confidence Interval
CSA	Central Statistical Agency
CSF	Chaffa State Farm
°C	Degree Celsius
E. coli	Escherichia Coli
EARNs	Eastern Amhara Regional National State
ELISA	Enzyme Linked Immuno Sorbent Assay
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FPA	Fluorescence polarization assay
GBWOARD	Gudeya Bila Woreda Office of Agriculture and Rural Development
GSWOARD	Gobu Seyo Woreda Office of Agriculture and Rural Development
IgA	Immunoglobulin A
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
IgM	Immunoglobulin M
μl	Micro liter
MoA	Ministry of Agriculture
NEE	North East Ethiopia
NVI	National Veterinary Institute
OD	Optical Density
OIE	Office of International Epizootics
OR	Odd Ratio
PAHO	Pan American Health Organization

PCR PolymeraseChainReaction
P-valueProbabilityvalue
RBPT RoseBengalPlateTest
RFM RetainedFetalMembrane
RLPSRoughLipopolysaccharide
S19Strain19
SEE SouthEastEthiopia
SLPSSmoothLipopolysaccharide
SPSSStatisticalPackageforSocialScience
SSWOARDSibuSireWoredaOfficeofAgricultureandRuralDevelopment
UKUnitedKingdom
USAUnitedStatesofAmerica
USDAUnitedStatesofDevelopmentAgency
WHO WorldHealthOrganization

ABSTRACT

Brucellosis is a highly contagious bacterial disease of major socio-economic and public health importance which is caused by gram-negative bacteria of the genus *Brucella*. A cross-sectional study was conducted on cattle in selected districts of East-Wollega zone between November 2018 and September 2019 to assess bovine brucellosis seroprevalence, potential risk factors, knowledge-attitude and practice of farm owners about brucellosis. The study zone and districts were selected purposively, while peasant association, herd and individual animals were selected randomly. A total of 488 blood samples were collected from 362 local breed and 126 crossbreed cattle of above six months of age. The RBPT screened 11 *Brucella* seropositive out of 488 (2.25%) (95% CI: 0.94-3.5). The RBPT positive sera were further retested by using C-ELISA and 6 (1.23%) (95% CI: 0.25-2.2) were confirmed to be seropositive. Out of 87 herds included in the study, 6 (6.9%) (95% CI: 3.2-14.2) were seropositive using C-ELISA with at least one seropositive animal in the herd. The overall seroprevalence of brucellosis was 1.23% and 6.9% at animal and herd level respectively. Moreover, information was gathered on individual animal and farm to assess risk factors using a semi-structured questionnaire prepared for this purpose. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 20 software program. The result of multivariable logistic regression analysis showed that herd size (OR: 8.5, 95% CI: 1.217-19.872, $P=0.031$), age (OR: 6.5, 95% CI: 1.459-28.967, $P=0.014$), pregnancy status (OR: 12.78, 95% CI: 2.35-45.725, $P=0.009$) and abortion case (OR: 8.3, 95% CI: 6.759-10.389, $P=0.001$) were the significant risk factors for *Brucella* seropositivity. The result of questionnaire survey revealed that the majority of the farm owners or respondents do not have sufficient knowledge about brucellosis and are at risk of acquiring the infection. Although the overall prevalence of bovine brucellosis was low in study area, it could serve as a source of infection to different herds as there were foci of infection in herds and brucellosis is a highly contagious disease. Hence better control and prevention measures should be implemented to reduce risk of infection and transmission of the disease in livestock and human in the study area.

Key-words: *Bovine, Brucellosis, East-Wollega, Ethiopia, Oromia, Risk factors, Seroprevalence.*

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

Since the earliest days of civilization, man is closely associated with animals and thus gave an opportunity of intercommunicability of microbial infections between humans and animals (Radostitis *et al.*, 2007). Although many researches and initiatives have been carried out by various national, regional and international public health agencies to reduce the burden of infectious diseases, still emerging and re-emerging infectious diseases pose great threats and challenges to public health worldwide (Olano and Walker, 2011; Birhan *et al.*, 2015). Of these diseases, 60% that affect humans have zoonotic backgrounds simply because human life is dependent on interactions with other creatures like livestock (Megersa *et al.*, 2011; Molyneux *et al.*, 2011).

Ethiopia has one of the largest livestock populations in Africa (CSA, 2012/2013). Livestock contributes more than 30% of the agricultural gross domestic product and 19% in export earnings (MoA, 2012). Livestock also plays a crucial role in the economies of many developing countries. They provide food, or more specifically animal protein in human diets, income, employment and possibly foreign exchange. For low income producers, livestock also plays a store of wealth; provides draught power and organic fertilizer for crop production. The comparatively huge livestock resources of the country, the economic return gained from this subsector do not coincide, because of prevalent infectious diseases, among other factors (Yifat *et al.*, 2012).

Brucellosis is one of these infectious, contagious, and worldwide spread forms of an important zoonotic disease caused by bacteria of the genus *Brucella*. Brucellosis is a public health problem with adverse health implications both for animals and human beings as well as economic implications for individuals and communities. It is of major public health importance in most developing countries, which have no national brucellosis control and eradication program (Radostitis *et al.*, 2007). In addition, the policy of many developing countries, importing exotic, high production animals, without having the required veterinary infrastructure and appropriate level of development of socio-economic situations of the animal holders aggravates the situation (Robinson, 2003).

Millions of individuals are at risk worldwide, especially in countries where infection in animals has not been brought under control, procedures for heat treatment of milks such as pasteurization are not routinely applied, and standards of hygiene in animal husbandry are low (Addis, 2015). Consumption of unpasteurized raw milk and dairy products is a common method of transmission (OIE, 2009).

The burden of brucellosis is mainly on the poor individuals as they are often forced to live in close contact with their animals and so are more likely to become infected (Racloz *et al.*, 2013; Hagi *et al.*, 2015). The disease results to prolonged health problems which may cause permanent disabilities and is an important cause of travel associated morbidity (Zinsstag *et al.*, 2007).

Brucellosis in cattle is primarily caused by *Brucella abortus*, occasionally by *Brucella melitensis* and rarely by *B. suis* when they share pasture or facilities commonly with infected pigs, goats, or sheep (Godfroid *et al.*, 2013). Occasionally other species of animals such as sheep, swine, dogs and horses may be infected with *B. abortus* (Chauhan *et al.*, 2017).

Bovine brucellosis is an infectious disease known for its impact on reproductive performance of cattle in Africa (McDermott and Arimi, 2002). It is an economically significant disease of livestock causing reproductive wastage through infertility, delayed heat, loss of calves, reduced meat and milk production, culling and economic losses from international trade bans (OIE, 2009). The most common route of transmission in cattle is through direct contact with an aborting cow and the aborted fetus. Ingestion of contaminated pasture and water may also play a secondary role (Robinson, 2003).

Bovine brucellosis has been reported from several parts of the country (Asmare *et al.*, 2010). Although the disease has been eradicated from most of the developed countries, it is still a major public and animal health problem in many developing countries, where livestock are a major source of food and income (Pappas *et al.*, 2006). The high prevalence is probably due to the fact that many countries have not yet started control or eradication schemes (Alveraz *et al.*, 2011). Brucellosis is endemic in Ethiopia since 1970 (Yohannis, 2017). Since then, studies have demonstrated the presence of antibodies against *Brucella* in animals and humans in different parts of the country (Bekele *et al.*, 2000; Ibrahim *et al.*, 2010; Degefa *et al.*, 2011; Yohannes *et al.*, 2013).

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Brucellosis has considerable impact on animal and human health, as well as wide socio-economic impacts, especially in countries in which rural income relies largely on livestock breeding and dairy products (Maadi *et al.*, 2011). Livestock provides a lifeline for a large proportion of 95% of the world's rural population that live in the developing world (Wadood *et al.*, 2009). It causes loss due to abortion or breeding failure in the affected animal population, diminished milk production and causing reduced work capacity through sickness of the affected human (Bashitu *et al.*, 2015).

Ethiopia is particularly vulnerable to the effect of zoonotic diseases because the economy is largely dependent on agriculture (McDermott *et al.*, 2013) and majority of households have direct contact with domestic animals, creating an opportunity for infection and spread of disease. In Ethiopia, brucellosis is found in top five zoonotic diseases next to rabies and anthrax (Pieracci *et al.*, 2016).

About 85% of the herds in the study area share the communal grazing system. Free grazing allows unrestricted contact between animals that contribute to the spread of brucellosis in extensive management system. The prevalence is linked to the practice of animal movement to communal watering points and other areas when searching for pasture and water (Abubakar *et al.*, 2012).

Most of the studies on cattle brucellosis have been carried out in central and northern Ethiopia which focused on dairy cattle's of urban and peri-urban areas (Dinka and Chala, 2009; Megersa *et al.*, 2011). However, the majority of livestock were found in rural areas where most households have direct contact with domestic animals and the habit of consuming raw milk, raw or undercooked meat is still a common practice, especially among rural communities (Kambarage *et al.*, 2003; Shirima *et al.*, 2003). This could mainly be attributed to lack of knowledge of the zoonotic risks associated with the consumption of un-pasteurized milk.

The reports from some parts of Ethiopia are indicating that the occurrence of livestock and human brucellosis is increasing (Dinka and Chala, 2009). However, it is difficult to note the general prevalence of animal and human brucellosis in the whole country due to lack of uniform studies in different parts of the country. The limited studies (surveys) so far conducted on brucellosis are not sufficient to show the exact national picture and significance except highlighting the existence of the disease in very limited areas of the country.

There is inadequate information on the status of bovine brucellosis in East Wollega zone of Oromia region, western Ethiopia (Dinka and Chala, 2009; Megersa *et al.*, 2011). The prevalence of brucellosis in cattle in selected districts of East Wollega zone also has not been studied yet. Therefore this study has been conducted with the following objectives.

- ❖ To assess the overall sero-seroprevalence of bovine brucellosis in study area.
- ❖ To assess potential risk factors of bovine brucellosis in the study areas.
- ❖ To assess knowledge, attitudes and practices of farm owners about brucellosis.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. The Causative Agent

The genus *Brucella* resides within the family *Brucellaceae*, order *Rhizobiales*, class *Alphaproteobacteria* and phylum *Proteobacteria*. All *Brucella* species are gram-negative, with an outer membrane mainly composed of lipopolysaccharides (Murray and Holt, 2005). *Brucella* is small gram-negative bacteria, coccobacilli, non-motile, non-sporulating, non-toxicogenic, non-fermenting, facultative intracellular organism, that can infect many species of animals, including humans (Manturetal., 2007). The cellular and colonial morphology of the *Brucella* species are uniform and similar in most respects. All *Brucella* species possess smooth lipopolysaccharide (SLPS) in their outer cell wall except *B. ovis* and *B. canis*, which have rough lipopolysaccharide (RLPS) and prot

ein antigens (Lapaque *et al.*, 2005).

To date, ten species are recognized within the genus *Brucella* (Godfroid *et al.*, 2011). The genus *Brucella* consists of six classic species that infect land animals namely; *B. melitensis*, *B. abortus*, *B. suis*, *B. ovis*, *B. neotomae* and *B. canis*. The *B. melitensis* biovars (bvs) 1-3 (mainly isolated from sheep and goats), *B. abortus* bvs 1-6 and 9 (from cattle and other bovidae), *B. suis* bvs 1-3 (from pigs), bvs 4 (from reindeer) and bvs 5 (from small rodents), *B. canis* (from dogs), *B. ovis* (from sheep) and *B. neotomae* (from desert woodrats). This classification is based mainly on difference in pathogenicity and host preference (Moreno *et al.*, 2002).

Brucella abortus is the causative organism for bovine brucellosis. *Brucella abortus* is mainly infective for cattle, but occasionally other species of animals such as sheep, swine, dogs and horses may be infected. Although *Brucella abortus* infecting cattle has seven recognized biovars, the most reported of which are biovars 1, 2, 3, 4, and 9, with biovar 1 being the most prevalent. The distribution of biovars could be important in ascertaining the source of some infections (Neta *et al.*, 2010). Cattle also become infected by *B. suis* and *B. melitensis* when they share pasture or facilities with infected pigs, goats, or sheep. The infections in cattle caused by heterologous species of *Brucella* are usually more transient than that caused by *B. abortus* (Bashit *et al.*, 2015).

Recently, several new marine species have been described including *B. innipialis* (isolated from seals) and *B. ceti* (isolated from whales and Dolphins) (Foster *et al.*, 2007), *B. microti* (isolated from the common voles (*Microtus arvalis*) and red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*) (Scholz *et al.*, 2008; Scholz *et al.*, 2009) and lastly *B. inopinata* (isolated from a human breast implant wound) is the only species that has not been isolated from any animal reservoir (Scholz *et al.*, 2010).

2.1.1. Resistance and survival properties

Under favorable conditions, *Brucella* organisms can survive in the environment for a very long period. Their ability to withstand inactivation under natural conditions is relatively high compared with most other groups of non-spore forming pathogenic bacteria (Jeger *et al.*, 2009). *B. abortus* is sensitive to pasteurization temperatures and its survival outside the host is largely dependent on environmental conditions such as moisture content, temperature, changes in pH, humidity level and conditions of storage. In raw milk *Brucella* can survive for 24 hours at 25-37°C, at 8°C can survive for 48 hours while at 40°C can survive for 2.5 years. The pathogen may survive in aborted fetus in the shade for up to eight

months,fortwotothreemonthsinwetsoil,onetotwomonthsindrysoil,threetofourmonthsinfaeces,andeightmonthsinliquidmanure tanks(Yohannes,2017).

Survivalisprolongedwhenthe temperatureislow,particularlywhenitisbelowfreezing.Itshould benotedthatthebacteriaareparticularlysusceptibletoheatanddesiccationanddirectsunlightwill rapidlydestroyexposedorganisms.Carbondioxideisimportantelementsforgrowthof*Brucella* organism,especially*B.abortus*;suchorganisms,whichrequirecarbondioxidefortheirgrowth,are calledcapnophilicorganisms.AtPH<4,*Brucella*agentsdonothavepotentialtosurvive(PadillaP osteretal.,2010).Allstandarddisinfectantsdestroy*Brucella*species.A10g/l solutionofphenolwill kill*Brucella*afterlessthan15minutesexposureat37°C.Formaldehydesolutionisthemosteffectiveofthecommonlyavailabledisinfectants(Yohannes,2017)

2.2 Geographical Distribution

2.2.1 Global distribution of animal brucellosis

Brucellosishasworldwidedistribution,butnowadaysthediseaseisrareinmanyindustrializedord evelopednationsbecauseofroutinescreeningofdomesticlivestockandanimalvaccinationprogr ams.Althoughthedistributionofbrucellosisisworldwide,thediseaseismorecommonincountrie swithpoorlystandardizedanimalandpublichealthprograms(Roba,2017).Thisdisease,however ,isaleadingcauseofzoonoticinfectionsandofeconomicimportanceinthecountriesoftheEastern MediterraneanRegion(Cadmusetal.,2013).

*Brucellaabortus*isfoundworldwideincattle-raisingregions,exceptinJapan,Canada,and someEuropean countries.Australia,New Zealand, andIsraelareamongfewcountrieswhereithasbeeneradicated.Eradicationofdiseasefromdomesti catedherdsisalmostcompleteintheUSA.*B.abortus*canbefoundinwildlifeanimalsinsomeregio ns,includingtheGreaterYellowstoneAreaofNorthAmerica(Asmare,etal.,2010).

2.2.2 Global distribution of human brucellosis

Brucellosis is named after Sir David Bruce, who in 1886 isolated the causative agent from a soldier in Malta where the disease caused considerable morbidity and mortality among British military personnel. During the 19th century, brucellosis was thus known as Malta or Mediterranean fever (Buzganetal.,2010). Human brucellosis is also known by many different names such as intermittent typhoid, Rock fever of Gibraltar, and more commonly, undulant fever (Buzganetal.,2010). Human br

ucellosis tends to occur more commonly in regions with less established animal disease control programs and in areas where public-health initiatives may be less effective. An estimated 500,000 new human *Brucella* cases were reported annually worldwide (Pappas *et al.*, 2006). Four species of *Brucella* have known pathogenicity for humans worldwide, these include; *B. melitensis*, *B. abortus*, *B. suis* and *B. canis* (Godfroid *et al.*, 2011). However, *B. melitensis*, *B. abortus*, and *B. suis* are highly pathogenic for humans with *B. melitensis* being the most pathogenic for humans (OIE, 2011).

Human brucellosis is known to be highly endemic in the Mediterranean basin, Middle East, Western Asia, Africa and South America (Pappas *et al.*, 2006). Countries with the highest incidence of human brucellosis include Saudi Arabia, Iran, Palestinian Authority, Syria, Jordan and Oman (Pappas *et al.*, 2005). Syria had the highest annual brucellosis incidence worldwide, reaching an alarming 1603 cases per million per year according to data from OIE (2004). In the United Arab Emirates, most cases are reported from Dubai, a popular international travel destination, underlining the importance of the disease in the field of travel medicine (Refai, 2002). In the United States, brucellosis is much less common, with only 100-200 human cases reported each year. This decrease in cases in the United States is felt to be due to effective animal vaccination programs and milk pasteurization. In Europe, human brucellosis is thought to be associated with travellers and immigrants from the Middle East or the private import of dairy products from endemic areas (Georgi *et al.*, 2017). The World Bank (2011) ranked Dubai and Abu Dhabi as being the second and third, most popular medical tourism destination in the region behind Jordan (Refai, 2002).

2.2.3 Africa and the sub-region distribution of bovine brucellosis

According to the OIE (2009) bovine brucellosis is a reportable zoonosis and is of considerable socioeconomic concern. Most African countries are of poor socioeconomic status, with people living with and by their livestock, while health networks and surveillance and vaccination programs are virtually non-existent in most Africa (McDermott and Arimi, 2002). In most low-income countries, there is much less public investment in veterinary and health services, with weak surveillance and operational capacity. Such interventions are not feasible in many developing countries because of poor surveillance programs, limited institutional capacity and lack of funds for livestock holder compensation (Zinsstag *et al.*, 2007).

In most sub-

Saharan countries, cattle seroprevalence estimates have been observed to range between 3 and 15% (Ghanem *et al.*, 2009; Jergefa *et al.*, 2009; Haileselassie *et al.*, 2010). In Africa, bovine brucellosis was first recorded in Zimbabwe (1906), Kenya (1914) and in South Africa in the year 1915 (Chukwu, 1985). However, still the epidemiology of the disease in livestock and humans as well as appropriate preventive measures are not well understood and such information is inadequate particularly in sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 1. Distribution of bovine brucellosis in some African countries

Country	Host	Notest ed	Prevalence (%)	Tests used	Reference
Eritria	Cattle	15049	2.77	CFT	Scacchia <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Zambia	Cattle	395	20.7	c-ELISA	Muma <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Sudan	Cattle	250	2	ELISA	Senein and Abdelkadir, 2012
Kenya	Cattle	393	1	c-ELISA	Kang'ethe <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Zimbabwe	Cattle	1291	5.5	c-ELISA	Matope <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Somaliland	Cattle	153	1.96	RBPT	Ahmed, 2009
Nigeria	Cattle	220	5.45	RBPT	Bwala <i>et al.</i> , 2015
Tanzania	Cattle	655	5.3	RBPT	Swai and Schoonman, 2010
Uganda	Cattle	423	5	c-ELISA	Makita <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Gambia	Cattle	465	1.1	CFT	Unger <i>et al.</i> , 2003
Senegal	Cattle	479	0.63	CFT	Unger <i>et al.</i> , 2003
Ghana	Cattle	444	2.93	RBPT	Folitse, 2014

Cameroon	Cattle	940	9.64	i-ELISA	Shey-Njila,2005
Djibouti	Cattle	428	4	RBPT	Chanta <i>etal.</i> , 1994

2.2.4. The Status of bovine brucellosis in Ethiopia

Eventhough, several serological surveys have showned bovine brucellosis is an endemic and wide spread disease in Ethiopia, most of the studies on cattle brucellosis have been carried out in central and northern Ethiopia and do not provide an adequate epidemiological picture of the disease in different agro-ecological zones and livestock production systems of the country ((Dinka and Chala, 2009; Meger *saetal.*, 2011). The problem is compounded by an absence of officially coordinated program for control of disease, surveillance programs, diagnostic facilities or reliable data.

The evidences of brucellosis in Ethiopian cattle have been serologically demonstrated by different authors. Most of the studies suggested a low seroprevalence (below 5%) in cattle under crop-livestock mixed farming (Berhe *etal.*, 2007; Ibrahim *etal.*, 2010; Adugna *etal.*, 2013). The evidences of *Brucella* infections in Ethiopian cattle have been serologically evaluated in different parts of the country by different authors in different production systems.

Since the first report of brucellosis in the 1970s in Ethiopia, the disease has been noted as one of the important livestock and human diseases in the country (Ibrahim *etal.*, 2010; Tesfaye *etal.*, 2011; Geresu *etal.*, 2016). In Ethiopia, information on losses specifically through brucellosis in the different types of production systems is sparse, with the exception of Sintaro (1994) who reported an annual loss from brucellosis estimated to be 88,941.96 Ethiopian Birr (\$5231 equivalent) among 193 cattle, largely due to reduced milk production and abortions (Chaffa State Farm, Wollo, from 1987 to 1993).

Prevalence in intensive management system

Higher individual bovine brucellosis seroprevalence has been recorded in intensively managed cattle herds as compared to those in the extensive management system. In Borena zone of Oromia region, the highest seroprevalence (50%) was documented using ELISA in Didituyur ranch (Aleman and Solomon, 2002). A seroprevalence of 39% was also recorded at the Institute of Agricultural Research in Western Ethiopia (Meyer, 1980), 22% in dairy farms in Northeastern Ethiopia (Sintaro, 1994), 11 to 15% in dairy farms and ranches in Southeastern Ethiopia (Bekele *etal.*, 2000), and 7.7% in Tigray region (Haileselassie *etal.*, 2010).

Relatively low individual animal seroprevalence were recorded in some intensive farms in different parts of the country. Tolosa (2004) documented 1.7% in Jimma Zone of Southern Ethiopia, Kassa *et al.* (2007) documented 2.46% in Sidama Zone of Southern Ethiopia; Mussie (2007) reported a prevalence of 0.26% in Western part of Amhara Regional State; Bashitu *et al.* (2015) reported a prevalence of 0.2% in dairy cattle of Debrebirhan and Ambo Towns. According to these authors, the reasons for the low prevalence of bovine brucellosis in these study areas were explained by better hygienic practices, use of maternity pen and/or separation of cows during parturition, cleaning and disinfection activities, culling of infected animals depending on own herds for replacing stock and farm owners knowledge of brucellosis in these intensive farms.

Prevalence in extensive management system

In Ethiopia, 95% of cattle are farmed under extensive systems. According to the available data, *Brucella* seroprevalence within extensive cattle rearing systems is lower than that of intensive systems. Reports from North Tigray region (Haileselassie *et al.*, 2010) and Southern Sidama zone (Asmare *et al.*, 2010), an overall prevalence of 1.2 and 1.66% were recorded following screening 848 and 1627 cattle from extensive system, respectively. A cross-sectional epidemiological study carried out in Tigray Region of Ethiopia revealed that of 816 indigenous cattle sera examined, only 27 (3.3%) were seropositive using RBPT, of which 26 (3.19%) were also positive by CFT. Overall herd-level prevalence was reported to be 42.31% and the within-herd prevalence varied from 0 to 15.15% based on CFT (Berhe *et al.*, 2007). In another study, Ibrahim *et al.* (2010) reported overall individual and herd level seroprevalences of 3.1 and 15.0%, respectively. Using CFT, Kebede *et al.* (2008) reported individual and herd animal prevalence of 11% and 45.9%, respectively. Dinka and Chala (2009) investigated bovine brucellosis using RBPT in four districts of East Showa Zone. In their study, *Brucella* antibody was detected in 8.7, 18.6, 5.1 and 10% of the samples in Fentale, Arsi Negele, Lume and Adami Tulu study districts respectively. The overall herd prevalence was reported to be 11.2%. Jergfa *et al.* (2009) also conducted seroprevalence study using RBPT and CFT in three agroecological areas of central Oromia namely: Walmara, Adami Tulu-Jido Kombolcha and Lume Districts. Their result revealed overall prevalence of 2.9 and 13.6% in individual animal and herd level, respectively. Adugna *et al.* (2013) reported overall animal level seroprevalence of 1% in cattle under a traditional production system in Western Ethiopia. Recently Yoh

annes,(2017)reportedoverallindividualanimalprevalenceandherdprevalenceof1.3%and5.8%,respectivelyincattlefarmedunderextensivesystems in Wolaita Zone.

2.3.PossibleRiskFactorsforInfection

2.3.1.Animalriskfactors

Susceptibilityofcattletto*B.abortus*infectionisinfluencedbytheage,sexandreproductivestatusoftheindividualanimal.Sexuallymaturepregnantcattlearemoresusceptibletoinfectionwiththeorganismthansexuallyimmaturecattleofeithersex.Susceptibilityincreasesasstageofgestationincreases(Tsegaye*et al.*,2016).Mostanimalsinfectedasadultsremaininfectedforlife.Herdsizeandanimaldensityaredirectlyrelatedtoprevalenceofdiseaseanddifficultyincontrollinginfectioninapopulation(Radostit*et al.*,2006).

2.3.2.Pathogenriskfactors

*Brucellaabortus*isafacultativeintracellularorganismcapableofmultiplicationandsurvivalwithinthephostphagocyticcells.Theorganismsarephagocytizedbypolymorphonuclearleucocytesinwhichsomesurviveandmultiply.Theorganismisabletosurvivewithinmacrophagesbecause;ithastheabilitytosurvivephagolysosome.Thebacteriumpossessesanunconventionalnonendotoxinlipopolysaccharidewhichconfersresistancetoantimicrobialattacksandmodulatesthehostimmuneresponse.Thesepropertiesmakelipopolysaccharideanimportantvirulencefactorforsurvivalandreplicationof*Brucella*(Ramirez*et al.*,2006).

2.3.3.Occupationalriskfactor

Laboratoryworkershandling*Brucella*culturesareathighriskofacquiringbrucellosisthroughaccidents,aerosolizingand/orinadequatelaboratoryprocedures.Inadditiontothis,abattoirworkers,farmersandveterinariansareathighriskofacquiringtheinfection(Chain*et al.*,2005).

2.3.4.Managementriskfactors

The spread of the disease from one herd to the other and from one area to another is almost always due to the movement of an infected animal from infected herd into an non-infected susceptible herd (Addis,2015;Tsegaye*et al.*,2016).Large numbers of organisms are shed from the reproductive tract when infected cows abort.In cows which lactate following abortion, milk, including colostrum, is an important source of infection, and bacteria are excreted intermittently

in milk throughout the lactation period. The fluid in hygromas caused by *Br. abortus* infection may contain large numbers of organisms, but because of being restricted to the lesion they do not seem to be important in the spread of the disease (Tolosa, 2004).

2.4. Transmission of Brucellosis

2.4.1 Transmission of brucellosis in animals

In cattle, transmission of *B. abortus* typically occurs through ingestion of live bacteria. It is transmitted among animals mainly through ingestion of contaminated feed and water and occasionally by inhalation of aerosols or by direct contact with infected materials (McDermott and Arimi, 2002; Maurin, 2005).

The most significant feature of bovine brucellosis epidemiology is the shedding of large numbers of organisms during the ten days after abortion or calving of infected cows and the consequent contamination of the environment. The disease spreads through contamination of placental material and vaginal discharges of aborting animal (Abubakar *et al.*, 2012).

Movement of infected cattle into a herd can result in transfer of the disease when cattle ingest the bacteria from aborted fetuses, placenta and discharges from cows that have aborted or contaminated pasture or water (Park *et al.*, 2005). Venereal transmissions by infected breeding bulls to susceptible cows appear to be rare. Transmission may occur by artificial insemination when *Brucella* contaminated semen is deposited in the uterus but reportedly not in midcervix (Cheville *et al.*, 1998). Venereal transmission is an important route of spread in pigs (Poester *et al.*, 2013). The incubation period varies widely depending on exposure dose, previous vaccination, species, age, sex and gestation of pregnancy (Nicoletti and Gilsdorf, 1997). The transmission of brucellosis by ticks, fleas or mosquitoes from an infected herd to non-infected herd has never been proved (OIE, 2009).

2.4.2. Transmission of brucellosis in humans

The disease is mainly transmitted to humans through ingestion of contaminated animal products such as cheese and unpasteurized milk and by direct contact with infected animals through handling abortions, dystocia and parturitions (Shirima *et al.*, 2010). The source of naturally acquired brucellosis in humans is almost always from animal reservoirs, but very few cases of human to human transmission via blood transfusion, intrauterine infection, organ and tissue transplantation, sexual contact, and breastfeeding have been reported (Godfroid *et al.*, 2011). The source of human infection resid

es always in domestic or wild animal reservoirs. The risk of contracting zoonosis from wildlife is higher in poor communities whose people and livestock interact with wildlife, commonly referred to as wildlife-livestock interface areas (Muma *et al.*, 2014). Wildlife-livestock interfaces pose each challenge to human, animal and environmental health practitioners due to the complex and continuous cycle of disease transmission (Pandey *et al.*, 2013).

From the public health viewpoint, brucellosis is considered to be an occupational disease for people who work with infected animals, particularly farm workers, veterinarians, ranchers, game hunters and meat packaging factory employees (OIE, 2011). Human infection transmission typically occurs through three primary sources which include; consumption of unpasteurized dairy products where brucellosis is endemic, contact with infected livestock or wild animals, meat or tissues of animals and laboratory exposures. Infection may also occur by inhalation, conjunctival contamination, accidental ingestion, skin contamination especially via cuts and abrasion and accidental self-inoculation with *Brucella* S19 vaccine during field vaccination can lead to brucellosis transmission to handlers (WHO, 2006).

Brucella is highly infectious in laboratory settings and numerous laboratory workers who culture the organism have become infected. It is a frequently reported laboratory acquired infection (Singh *et al.*, 2015). *Brucella* organisms can be shed in the milk of infected animals for variable length of time, but for many, it can be shed for the life of the infected animal (Merck Veterinary Manual, 2012). Although *Brucella* agents can be transmitted directly and indirectly from its animal reservoir to humans, indirect transmission remains the highest overall risk and mainly occurs through the consumption of unpasteurized milk or dairy products (Godfroid *et al.*, 2005). Fresh milk and dairy products prepared from unpasteurized milk such as soft cheeses, yoghurts and ice creams may contain high amounts of the bacteria and consumption of these is an important cause of human brucellosis (Makita *et al.*, 2008).

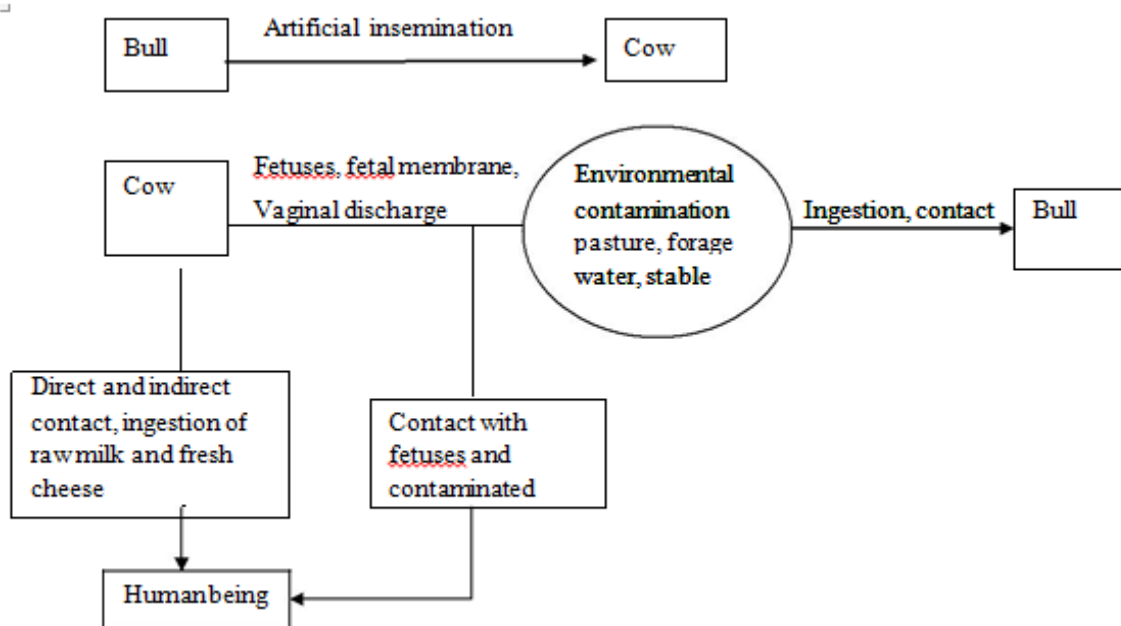


Figure 1: Mode of transmission of bovine brucellosis (*B. abortus*)

Source: Acha and Szyfres, 2001

2.5. Pathogenesis

The ability of the pathogen to survive and replicate within different host cells explains its pathogenicity. Pathogenesis depends upon various factors such as the *Brucella* species, size or dose of the inoculum, modes of transmission and the immune status of the host (Muflihanah *et al.*, 2013). *Brucella* enters the body via the ingestion, conjunctival mucosa, respiratory tract, or skin and after initial invasion of the body, localization occurs initially in the lymph nodes. Virulent *Brucella* have the ability to survive in both polymorphonuclear and mononuclear phagocytes and also can depress chemotaxis and phagocytosis by polymorphonuclear leucocytes (James, 2013).

Brucella multiplies in the lymph nodes as parasites and then enters the blood and produces the bacteraemia followed by the acute febrile phase of the disease after phagocytosis. From the blood, the organisms are distributed throughout the reticuloendothelial system and become present in many of the sites (James, 2013).

Brucella abortus has predilection in the pregnant uterus, udder, testicle and accessory male sex glands, lymph nodes, joint capsule and bursa. If the infected animals are pregnant, *B. abortus* will colonize and replicate in high number in the chorionic trophoblast of the developing fetus. The preferential localization to the reproductive tract of the pregnant animals is due to the presence of unknown fac

tors in the gravid uterus. These are collectively referred to as allantoic fluid factors that would stimulate the growth of *Brucella*. Erythritol, a four-carbon alcohol, is considered to be one of these factors (Pandey *et al.*, 2013) which are elevated in the placenta and fetal fluid from about the fifth month of gestation (Yohannes, 2017). The preferential replication of *Br. abortus* in the extraplacental site within trophoblasts of the chorioallantoic membrane results in rupture of the cells and ulceration of the fetal membrane. The damage to placental tissue together with fetal infection and fetal stress will induce maternal hormonal changes. As a result, abortion occurs principally in the last three months of pregnancy. The incubation period is inversely proportional to the stage of development of the fetus at the time of infection (Megid *et al.*, 2010).

2.6. Clinical Signs

2.6.1. Clinical signs in animals

The incubation period varies between 14 and 120 days (Radiostitis *et al.*, 2000). Primary clinical manifestations of brucellosis among livestock are related to their reproductive tract. In cattle, *B. abortus* causes abortions, stillbirths and weak calves. Infections in non-pregnant females are usually asymptomatic, but pregnant adult females infected with *B. abortus* develop placentitis, which normally causes abortion between the fifth and ninth month of pregnancy. The placenta may be retained and lactation may be decreased. Epididymitis, orchitis and testicular abscesses are sometimes seen in bulls (Cadamus *et al.*, 2006). Infertility occurs occasionally in both sexes, due to metritis or orchitis/epididymitis. Hygromas, particularly on the leg joints, are a common symptom in some tropical countries. Arthritis can develop after long-term infections. Systemic signs do not usually occur in uncomplicated infections, and deaths are rare except in the fetus or newborn. Females usually abort only once, presumably due to acquired immunity (Yohannes, 2017). Even in the absence of abortion, there is heavy shedding of bacteria through the placenta, fetal fluids and vaginal exudates (OIE, 2010).

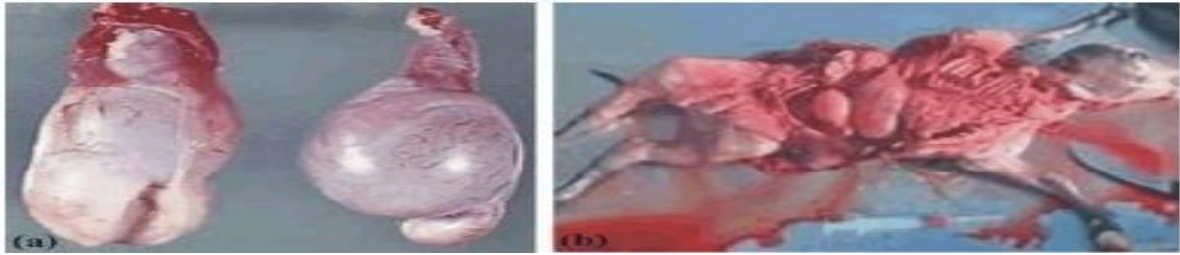


Figure 2: Epididymitis in bulls (a) and abortion in cow (b)

Source: Acha and Szyfres, 2001



Figure 3: Hygroma on leg joints

Source: Godfroid *et al.*, 2004

2.6.2. Symptoms of human brucellosis

The most common symptoms of human brucellosis include undulant fever in which the temperature can vary from 37.8°C in the morning to 40°C in the afternoon; night sweats and weakness. Common symptoms also include insomnia, anorexia, headache, constipation, sexual impotence, nervousness, encephalitis, arthritis, endocarditis, orchitis and depression (Quinn *et al.*, 2002). Spontaneous abortion is seen mostly in the second and third trimesters of pregnancy in pregnant women infected with *Brucella*. Lack of appropriate therapy during the acute phases may result in localization of *Brucella* in various tissues and organs and lead to sub-acute or chronic disease which is very hard to treat (Bosilkovski *et al.*, 2007).

2.7. Diagnosis

Clinician must develop a high degree of clinical suspicion based on epidemiological information and history which are critical to making the clinical diagnosis. In all cases a sample should be collected from the patient and laboratory testing should be requested as the definite diagnosis of brucellosis is impossible without laboratory confirmation (Bricker, 2002). In most developing countries, surveillance of zoonotic diseases is not recognized as a “one health” collaboration undertaking between

in veterinary medicine and human medicine. In addition, many countries lack diagnostic capacity and health infrastructure to diagnose the disease (Muma *et al.*, 2014). Despite the vigorous attempts for more than one century to come up with a definitive diagnostic technique for brucellosis, diagnosis still relies on the combination of several tests to avoid false negative and positive results (Poester *et al.*, 2010). Several diagnostic methods have been used in the diagnosis of brucellosis, these include; bacteriological detection methods, direct demonstration of antibodies using serological techniques and molecular methods (James, 2013).

2.7.1. Bacteriological detection methods

The isolation and identification of *Brucella* offers a definitive diagnosis of brucellosis and is useful for epidemiological purposes. It should be noted that all infected materials present a serious hazard, and they must be handled with adequate precautions during collection, transport and processing. A presumptive bacteriological diagnosis of *Brucella* can be made by means of the microscopic examination of smears from vaginal swabs, placenta or aborted foetuses with the Stamp modification of the Ziehl-Neelsen staining method. However, morphologically related microorganisms, such as *Chlamydia abortus*, *Chlamydia psittaci* and *Coxiella burnetii* can mislead the diagnosis because of their superficial similarity (Poester *et al.*, 2010). Accordingly, the isolation of *Brucella* species on appropriate culture media such as Farrell's selective media is recommended for an accurate diagnosis (Marín *et al.*, 1996).

Isolation may be performed by culturing body tissues or secretions like blood, milk and vaginal discharge (Poester *et al.*, 2010). *Brucella* species can also be cultured from pus, joint and ascitic fluids. Vaginal swabs and milk samples are the best samples to use in isolating *Brucella* from animals (Roba, 2017). The identification of *Brucella* species in culture depends on a great deal of phenotypic traits such as: CO₂ requirement and biochemical tests (Bricker, 2002). Broth agar can be prepared from powder media for culture of *Brucella* organisms. Due to the low *Brucella* load in the blood and milk, broth or biphasic medium is recommended for improving sensitivity (Poester *et al.*, 2010). However, for other specimens, solid media such as dextrose agar, tryptose agar, and trypticase soy agar, are recommended for primary isolation of *Brucella*, but some species, i.e., *B. ovis* and *B. canis* require addition of 5-

10% of sterile bovine or equine serum to the culture media. Optimum pH for growth of *Brucella* varies from 6.6 to 7.4, and culture media should be adequately buffered near pH 6.8 for optimum growth. The optimum growth temperature is 36-38°C. However, most strains grow between 20 and 40°C (Poester *et al.*, 2010).

The most widely used selective medium is the Farrell's medium (Marin *et al.*, 1996), which is prepared by the addition of six antibiotics to a basal medium to inhibit growth of contaminants that may prevent isolation of *Brucella* species. On suitable solid media, *Brucella* colonies can be visible after 2–3 days of incubation. After 4 days of incubation, *Brucella* colonies are round, 1–2 mm in diameter, with smooth margins. They are translucent and a pale honey colour when plates are viewed in the daylight through a transparent medium (OIE, 2012).

Inoculation into Guinea pig and mouse is another technique that has value for the isolation of *Brucella* when specimens are derived from potentially contaminated sources such as milk, cheese, semen, or genital discharges. Inoculations should be made subcutaneously into Guinea pig or intravenously (0.1 ml), or subcutaneously if the material is heavily contaminated, into mice. A Guinea pig is killed 3 weeks post-infection and 6 weeks after inoculation (Poester *et al.*, 2010).

2.7.2. Serological diagnosis

Serological tests are relatively easy to perform and provide a practical advantage in detecting the prevalence of *Brucella* infection. The tests are crucial for laboratory diagnosis of brucellosis since most of control and eradication programs rely on these methods. Despite the development of numerous serological tests, no single test identifies all infected animals and a wide variation exists in estimates of their diagnostic accuracy (Abernethy *et al.*, 2012; Adone and Pasquali, 2013). These serological tests are presumptive diagnosis for brucellosis in animals as well as human (OIE, 2012).

Several serological tests are used today, but most commonly used serological tests are screening tests (e.g., RBPT), monitoring or epidemiological surveillance tests (e.g., milk ring test), and complementary or confirmatory tests (complement fixation test, ELISAs). Selection of a given test should take into account the species of organism and the local regulations (Nielsen, 2002; Poester *et al.*, 2010). Body fluids such as serum, uterine discharge, vaginal mucus, milk, and semen plasma from suspected cattle may contain different quantities of antibodies of the IgM, IgG1, IgG2 and IgA types directed against *Brucella* (Zewdie, 2018).

Milk ring test

It is cheap, easy, simple and quick to perform. It detects lacteal anti-*Brucella* IgM and fat globules from milk and forms red rings in positive cases. However, it tests false positive when milk that contains colostrum, milk at the end of the lactation period, milk from cows suffering from abnormal disorder or mastitis. Milk that contains low concentration of lacteal IgM, IgA or lacks the fat clustering factors, test

stsfalsenegative. Because lacteal antibodies rapidly decline after abortion or parturition, the reliability of milk ring test using 1 ml milk to detect *Brucella* antibodies in individual cattle or intact milk is strongly reduced (Nielson *et al.*, 2001). Although the milk ring test performed with 8 ml milk, it improved the detection of brucellosis in tank milk. It may test false positive when races of colostrum are present in tank milk (OIE, 2009).

Rose bengal plate test (RBPT)

The RBPT is a simple spot agglutination test where drops of stained antigen and serum are mixed on a plate and any resulting agglutination signifies a positive reaction. It does not need special laboratory facilities and is easy to perform. It is used to screen sera for *Brucella* antibodies. The test is an excellent screening test but may be over sensitive for diagnosis in individual animals, particularly vaccinated ones (Munoz *et al.*, 2005). Although the low pH (3.6) of the antigen enhances the specificity of the test, the ambient temperature at which the reaction takes place may influence the sensitivity and specificity of the test (Bricker, 2002).

Complement fixation test (CFT)

Complement fixation test (CFT) is another commonly used serological method. It is the most reliable diagnostic test now in routine use for individual animals although it is complex to perform, requiring good laboratory facilities and adequately trained staff to accurately titrate and maintain the reagents. It measures more antibodies of the IgG1 type than antibodies of the IgM type. It is relatively insensitive to antibody resulting from strain 19 immunizations (vaccinations). There are numerous variations of the CFT in use, but this test is most conveniently carried out in a microtiter format (Nielson *et al.*, 2001). Either warm or cold fixation may be used for the incubation of serum, antigen and complement at either 37°C for 30 minutes or 4°C for 14–18 hours. A number of factors affect the choice of the method; anti-complementary activity in serum samples of poor quality is more evident with cold fixation, while fixation at 37°C increases the frequency and intensity of prozones and a number of dilutions must be tested for each sample (Xavler *et al.*, 2009).

Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay

Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) has become popular as a standard assay for the diagnosis of brucellosis serologically. It measures IgG, IgA and IgM antibodies and this allows a better

interpretation of the clinical situation. The diagnosis of brucellosis is based on the detection of antibodies against the smooth LPS. Detection of IgG antibodies is more sensitive than detection of IgM antibodies for diagnosing cases of brucellosis but specificity is comparable (Araj, 2010; Sathyanarayana *et al.*, 2011; Agasthya *et al.*, 2012).

The indirect ELISA (I-ELISA) has been used for serologic diagnosis of brucellosis in sheep, goats and pigs. It has also been used for diagnosis using serum or milk from cattle (Di Febo *et al.*, 2012). I-ELISA has been usually used for smooth LPS *Brucella* species and it is sensitive and specific for *B. abortus* or *B. melitensis*, but it is not capable of differentiating antibodies induced by the vaccine strains S19 or Rev1 (Lim *et al.*, 2004; Khan and Zahoor, 2018). Sensitivity of I-ELISA varies from 96 to 100% and its specificity from 93.8% and 100% (Gall & Nielsen, 2004).

On the other hand competitive enzyme linked immunosorbent assays (C-ELISA) were developed in order to eliminate some, but not all of the problems arising from residual vaccinal antibody, and from cross-reacting antibodies. The assays are carried out by selecting a monoclonal antibody with slightly higher affinity for the antigen than most of the vaccinal or cross-reacting antibody, but with lower affinity than antibody arising from infection (Munoz *et al.*, 2005; OIE, 2009; Poister *et al.*, 2010). The specificity of the competitive enzyme immunoassay is very high and is able to detect all antibody isotypes (IgM, IgG1, and IgG2 and IgA) (Nielsen, 2002). However, it is slightly less sensitive than the indirect enzyme immunoassay. This assay is an outstanding confirmatory assay for the diagnosis of brucellosis in most mammalian species.

Fluorescence polarization assay (FPA)

It is based on the physical principle of the mass-dependent change of the molecules rotation speed in a liquid medium. The smaller the molecule, the faster it rotates and the depolarization of a polarized beam of light occurs. In FPA the serum sample is incubated with a specific *Brucella* antigen, conjugated with a fluorescent label. In case there are anti-*Brucella* antibodies in the serum, large fluorescently labeled antigen-antibody complex is formed, which can easily be distinguished from the unbound antigen negative control. FPA method has a high specificity but less sensitivity than I-ELISA (Mc Given *et al.*, 2003). In Europe and the USA FPA method is used in programs to monitor and control the spread of brucellosis, but it requires special equipment and it is not suitable for rapid and

deasytesting.

2.7.3. Molecular methods

Molecular techniques are important tools for diagnosis and epidemiologic studies, providing relevant information for identification of species and biotypes of *Brucella* species allowing differentiation between virulent and vaccine strains (Queipo-Ortuño *et al.*, 2008). Molecular detection of *Brucella* species can be done directly on clinical samples without previous isolation of the organism. In addition, these techniques can be used to complement results obtained from phenotypic tests (Bricker, 2002). Despite the high degree of DNA homology within the genus *Brucella*, several molecular methods, including PCR, have been developed that allow, to a certain extent, differentiation between *Brucella* species and some of their biovars (OIE, 2009; Colmenero *et al.*, 2010).

Polymerase chain reaction

The polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is a recent and promising technique that allows accurate diagnosis of bovine brucellosis (Baddour, 2012). The technique is chosen based on the type of biological sample and the goal, i.e., diagnosis or molecular characterization or epidemiological survey. Most of the molecular diagnostic methods for brucellosis have sensitivity ranging from 50% to 100% and specificity between 60% and 98%. The DNA extraction protocol, type of clinical sample, and detection limits of each protocol, are factors that can influence the efficiency of the technique (Mitika *et al.*, 2007).

2.8. Significance of the Disease

2.8.1. Economic significance

Endemic brucellosis in low-income countries of sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia has multiple economic implications across agriculture and public health and broader socio-economic development sectors. Efforts to control the disease in low-income countries must take a different approach. Simply replicating past successes in brucellosis control and eradication in high-income countries will not work. Low-income countries have at least ten-fold higher burden of infectious disease from a wide variety of pathogens (McDermott and Grace, 2013).

The assessment of the economic aspects of brucellosis, with emphasis on the low-income countries of Africa and Asia, is structured in three main parts. The first describes an overall framework for economic assessment of disease burdens and the impacts of potential control programs. The second part systematically reviews available animal, human and joint burden estimates from studies conducted in these regions. The third section provides estimates, when available, of different costs associated with brucellosis illness and its control. This section also comments on tools and approaches for assessing control programs that are of relevance to low and middle-income (Zamri-saad and Kamarudin, 2016).

When brucellosis is detected in a herd, flock, region, or country, international veterinary regulation may impose restrictions on animal movements and trade, which result in huge economic losses. The economic losses as well as its zoonotic importance are the reasons why programs to control or eradicate brucellosis in cattle (OIE, 2008).

In Ethiopia, information on losses specifically through brucellosis in the different types of production systems is sparse, except for Sintaro (1994) who reported an annual loss from brucellosis estimated to be 88,941.96 Ethiopian Birr (\$5231 equivalent) among 193 cattle, largely due to reduced milk production and abortions (Chaffa State Farm, Wollo, from 1987 to 1993).

2.8.2. Public health significance

Brucella abortus, *B. melitensis* and *B. suis* are highly pathogenic for humans (OIE, 2009). The majority of reported human brucellosis cases are caused by *B. melitensis*, *B. abortus*, and *B. suis*, in occurrence order, novel and atypical *Brucella* are also being investigated (AIDahouk *et al.*, 2013). Brucellosis remains the most common zoonotic disease in the world, with more than 500,000 new cases reported annually (Godfroid *et al.*, 2013); the actual number of cases, including undetected and unreported cases, is believed to be considerably higher (AIDahouk *et al.*, 2013). Brucellosis is often an neglected disease despite being endemic with high zoonotic potential in many countries (Poester *et al.*, 2013). The prevalence of human brucellosis differs between areas and has been reported to vary with standards of personal and environmental hygiene, animal husbandry practices, and species of the causative agent and local methods of food processing (Chugh, 2008).

As compared to study of animal brucellosis, study of human brucellosis in Ethiopia is sparse with very little information on risk factors for human infection. For instance, out of 56 cases with fever of unknown origin, two (3.6%) were reported to be positive for *B. abortus* antibodies by RBPT and CFT (Jergafa *et al.*, 2009). A study conducted in traditional pastoral communities by Ragassa *et al.* (2009) r

revealed that 34.1% patients with febrile illness from Borena, 29.4% patients from Hammer, and 3% patients from Metema areas were tested positive using *Brucella* IgM/IgG lateral flow assay. Studies conducted in high risk groups such as farmers, veterinary professionals, meat inspectors and artificial insemination technicians in Amhara Regional State (Mussie, 2007), Sidama Zone of Southern People Nations and Nationalities State (Kassahun *et al.*, 2007), and Addis Ababa (Kassahun *et al.*, 2006) found a seroprevalence of 5.30%, 3.78% and 4.8% by screening sera from 238, 38 and 336 individuals respectively. The discrepancy between and others might be due to difference in milk consumption habits and sensitivity of test methods used (Ferede *et al.*, 2011).

Humans may become infected by ingestion of raw or unpasteurized dairy products, by direct transmission through contact with infected animals or by handling specimens containing *Brucella* species in laboratory. It is also transmitted to human by direct contact with the skin or mucosa during parturition and abortion (Degefu *et al.*, 2011; Ferede *et al.*, 2011; Addis, 2015).

In South Sudan a fraught with several potential risk factors could fuel the dissemination of brucellosis to livestock and humans (Lado *et al.*, 2012). The traditional pastoralist's practice of assembling several herds into cattle camps with close livestock-human interactions is one of the key milestones. Moreover, poor awareness is a risk milestone to occurrence and perpetuation of brucellosis in livestock which could create human health hazards (Yohannes, 2017). Further brucellosis risk indicators including the widespread animal herder's practice of vulval blowing, to facilitate milk let-down during cow milking (figure 4a) and the practice of direct udder-to-mouth consumption of raw milk (figure 4b) could exacerbate human brucellosis (Lado *et al.*, 2012)



(a)(b)

Figure 4: Ways of disease transmission (a) Blowing through the vulva to enhance milk let-down (b) Direct suckling of raw milk from cattle camps in the Terekeka country.

Source: Lado *et al.*, 2012.

2.9. Treatment

An effective treatment for animals with brucellosis is not known to date (Tolosa, 2004). The treatment of brucellosis in the cow has generally been unsuccessful because of the intracellular sequestration of the organisms in lymph nodes, mammary gland, and reproductive organs and the bacteria are facultative intracellular which survive and multiply within the cells (Radostits *et al.*, 2000). Generally, treatment of infected livestock is not attempted because of the high treatment failure rate, cost, and potential problems related to maintaining infected animals in the face of ongoing eradication programs (Asmre *et al.*, 2010). Man can be treated with antibiotics (doxycycline with rifampicin); however, relapses are impossible (Smits and Kadri, 2005).

2.10. Prevention and Control

Prevention, control and eradication of brucellosis are a major challenge for public health programs. Although controlled or eradicated in animals in a number of developed countries through a combination of mass vaccination, test and slaughter programs, effective disease surveillance and animal movement control while the disease in humans has majorly been controlled through milk pasteurization (McDermott and Arimi, 2002; Pappas *et al.*, 2006), re-introduction of brucellosis remains a constant threat, while in others, especially in the developing world, this disease continues to exert its devastating impact perpetuating poverty (Smits *et al.*, 2004).

A very important approach to the control of brucellosis that is gaining more and more recognition in recent years is the One Health Approach to control and prevent human and animal brucellosis requires multidisciplinary approaches since neither a veterinarian alone nor a physician alone could not perform all approaches of control. So it requires participation of other disciplines and farmers for effective control especially in developing countries where most people are living close to animals (Pieracciet *al.*, 2016).

In the One Health framework veterinary, medical, environmental and allied professionals and experts collaborate together with the aim of identifying possible risk factors for this infection and design a suitable approach to combatting the infection. Unfortunately, in many underdeveloped and developing countries, this kind of collaboration is non-existent or weak which gives room for brucellosis to thrive unchecked especially in rural populations (Beruktayit and Mersha, 2016).

In Ethiopia there have been national programs proposed for prevention and control of brucellosis through One Health Approach. However, at regional levels, no strategy is in place to control brucellosis. This is largely a result of lack of facilities and budget to run such a program (Beruktayit and Merseha 2016). The successful prevention of this disease, which is so difficult in cattle production in the tropics, requires that, as far as possible, all available steps be taken to combat it (Yohannes *et al.*, 2013).

2.10.1. Classification of endemic areas based on prevalence

Classification of endemic areas based on prevalence will enable initiation of appropriate control methods in endemic areas. Identification of low and high prevalence areas will greatly facilitate the implementation of appropriate control programs, and should ideally be combined with other strategies like accurate livestock census data and a livestock identification system (either simple ear notches or more sophisticated ear labeling system). In areas where the disease is less prevalent (livestock seroprevalence of less than 1%), cull policy with compensation may be recommended. For areas with high and moderate prevalence (>5%) under well-organized farming systems, we may recommend test and segregation policy by which animals with brucellosis will be isolated and products consumed after pasteurization (Yohannes *et al.*, 2013).

2.10.2. Characterization of *Brucella* Species

Genotyping and identification of *Brucella* species based on molecular approaches have proved to be powerful tools to confirm the disease and to identify *Brucella* species and its biovars and *Brucella* like organisms. As a prerequisite, *Brucella* species identifications should be undertaken to inform selection of the most appropriate vaccine (for example, *B. melitensis* has recently been found infecting cattle in Kenya) and to enable differentiation of vaccine and wild-type strains (Muendo *et al.*, 2012).

2.10.3. Vaccination

The WHO has long been involved in brucellosis surveillance and control, including research and development of vaccines to prevent animal brucellosis (Munir *et al.*, 2010). Systematic vaccination of animals is recommended where the prevalence is greater than 5% (Holveic *et al.*, 2007). Vaccines increase individual resistance to systemic infection, and in infected animals decrease the probability of placental infection, abortion and massive shedding of infectious organisms (Ibrahim, 2010). In different parts of the world both live vaccines, such as *B. abortus* S-19, *B. melitensis* Rev-1, *B. suis* S-2, rough *B. melitensis* strain M111, and *B. abortus* strain RB-

51 and killed vaccines, such as *B. abortus* 45/20 and *B. melitensis* H-38 are available. Each vaccine has been reported to have its own advantages and disadvantages, with protection following localized persistence of live vaccines preferred by most and showing efficacy in small ruminants and cattle (Thakur and Thapliyal, 2002).

Brucella abortus S19 Vaccine

The most widely used vaccine for the prevention of brucellosis in cattle is the *Brucella abortus* S19 vaccine, which remains the reference vaccine to which any other vaccines are compared. It is used as a live vaccine and is normally given to female calves aged between 3 and 6 months as a single subcutaneous dose of 5–

8×10^{10} viable organisms. A reduced dose of organisms can be administered subcutaneously to adult cattle, but some animals may abort and excrete the vaccine strain in the milk. Alternatively, it can be administered to cattle of any age as either one or two doses of 5×10^{10} viable organisms, given by the conjunctival route; this produces protection without the risks of abortion and excretion in milk when vaccinating adult cattle (Seleem *et al.*, 2010). *Brucella abortus* S19 vaccine induces good immunity to moderate challenge by virulent organisms. Seed lots for S19 vaccine production should be regularly tested for residual virulence and immunogenicity in mice (Seleem *et al.*, 2010).

Brucella abortus strain RB51 vaccines

This is a recently developed vaccine and has replaced *Br. abortus* strain 19 in a number of countries as the approved calf hood vaccine because it does not interfere with serological evaluation (Asmare *et al.*, 2010). *Brucella abortus* strain RB51 is a live stable rough mutant of *Br. abortus* strain 2308, which lacks much of the lipopolysaccharide O-

side chain and has been investigated as an alternative to strain 19 vaccines (Radostits *et al.*, 2000). A adult vaccination with *Br. abortus* strain RB51 only rarely causes abortion. One way to reduce these effects of RB51 is to reduce the dose. When using the reduced dose of this vaccine (1×10^{10} colony forming units [CFU]), on late pregnant cattle, no abortions or placental lesions are reproduced (Dinka and Chala, 2009).

2.10.4. Application of veterinary extension

Health education is another option to reduce occupational and food-borne risks. The ultimate prevention of human infection remains the elimination of infection among

ganimals(Radostitsetal.,2000).Thedevelopmentofanationalveterinaryextensionservicesinthecountry,iscriticaltopromoteawarenessaboutbrucellosis,itsimpactonlivestockproductionandzoonoticrisks.Everybodyhasresponsibilitytokeephisenvironment,animalsandownhealthcare.Toloweryourriskofgettingbrucellosisfromnaturalsource;avoideatingordrinkingunpasteurizedmilk,cheeseoricecream;checkthelabeltomakesureitsays“pasteurized”anddon'teatitifyouarenotsure;donothandlesickordeadanimalbodies,butifyoumust,thenuseglovesandprotective materials;cookmeatthoroughlyanddisinfectingtheareawheretheanimalsareaborted(Beruktayitetal.,2016).

3.MATERIALANDMETHODS

3.1.StudyArea

ThestudywascarriedoutinthreepurposelyselecteddistrictsofEastWollegazonenamelyGobuSeyo,SibuSireandGudeyaBilaintheperiodfromNovember2018toSeptember2019.GobuSeyodistrictissituatedinEastWollegazone265kmwestofAddisAbababorderedbyWestShewazoneintheeast,SibuSireinthewest,GudeyaBilainthenorthandBonayaBosheinthesouth.Thecapitaltow

nofGobuSeyo(Ano)islocated65kmtoeastfromNekemte,thecapitaltownofEastWollegazone. Thedistricthasanaltituderangingfrom1300-2998meterabovesealevelandtemperatureofthearearangesfrom13.6⁰Cto28.8⁰C. Thisdistricthas76,791ofCattle,5,334ofSheep,9253ofGoat,720ofHorses,601ofMules,3300ofDonkeys(GSWOARD,2017).

SibuSireisoneofthedistrictsoftheEastWollegazonewhichborderedonthesouthbyWamaBonyaya,onthewestbyGutoWayu,andonthenorthandeastbyGobuSeyoandGudeyaBiladistrictsofEastWollega. TheadministrativecenterofthisdistrictisSire. SibuSiredistrictislocatedabout272kmwestofthecapitalcityofEthiopia,AddisAbaba. Itliesbetween8°56'-9°23'Nlatitudesand36°35'-36°56'Elongitudes. Thealtitudeofthedistrictvariesfrom1336to2500meterabovesealevel. About74.2%ofitssurfaceareabelongstomid-altitudeagro-climate,7.53%ofthelandishighlandagro-climateandtheremaining18.27%isclassifiedaslowlandagro-climate. Themeanannualtemperatureandmeanannualrainfallis25⁰Cand1050mm, respectively. Thelivestockpopulationoftheareaais(Cattle125,343,Sheep14,502,Goat24,212,Horse5685,Mule1023,Donkey8415and57,695poultry(SSWOARD,2017).

GudeyaBilaisoneofthedistrictsintheEastWollegazoneanditwaspartoformerBilaSeyoworeda. Itislocatedatthedistanceof270KmfromAddisAbabatowest. ThedistrictisborderedbyJimaGenetistrictofHoroGuduruwollegaineast,BakoTibedistrictofWestShoainsouth-east,GobuSayoandSibuSiredistrictsofEastWollegainwestandAbeDongorodistrictofHoroGuduruWollegainnorth. Thereare13peasantassociationsand2townadministrations(BilaandJare). TheareahasrainfallfromJunetoSeptemberandadryseasonfromOctobertoMay,withameanannualrainfallof1100mm-1950mm. Thealtituderangesfrom1100m-2400m. Thedailyaverageminimumandmaximumtemperaturesare18.5⁰Cand27.5⁰C, respectively. AccordingtotheWoreda'sOfficeofAgricultureandRuralDevelopment,thelivestockpopulationsofthestudyareain2017were104,567cattle,85,743sheep,106,212goats,63,685horses,2482donkeysand1632mules(GBWOARD,2017).

Mixedcrop-livestock,extensivesystemisthemainproductionssystempracticedinthearea. Almostalltypesoflivestockspeciesarebeingrearedinthestudyzone. However,cattlearethepredominantinthearea. Cattleareusedasassetsandarethesourceoftractionpowerbesidesmilkandmeat

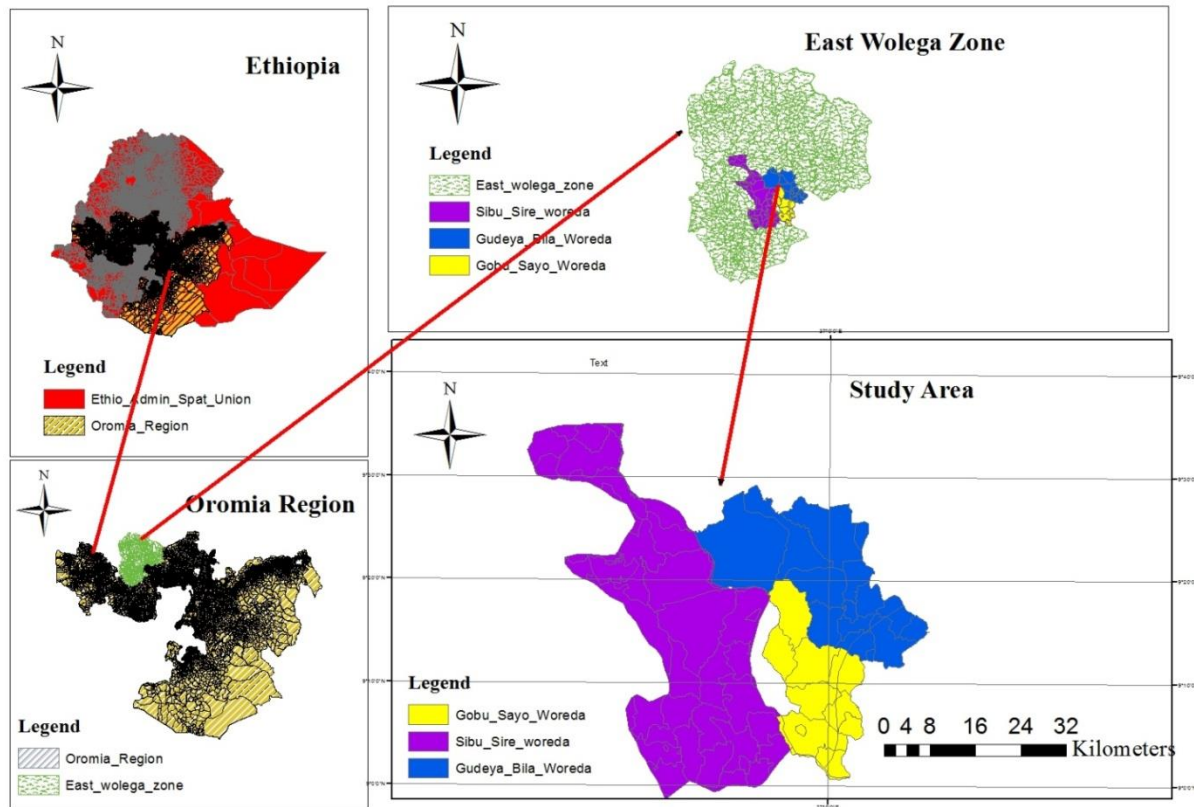


Figure 5: Map of study area

3.2. Study Animals and their Management

The study population used in this study were all cattle population above 6 months of age with no history of vaccination against brucellosis in selected districts of East Wollega zone that were kept under extensive and semi-intensive management systems. Classification of management systems was done based on the criteria adopted by Rashid (1993). Both sexes and different age groups greater than six months were included in the study as the disease is not common in the cattle less than 6 months of age due to maternal antibody.

3.3. Study Design

A cross-sectional study was carried out in indigenous breeds of cattle under extensive husbandry and crossbreeds (Zebu with Holstein Friesian) of cattle under semi-intensive husbandry to assess seroprevalence of bovine brucellosis and their association with different risk factors. Semi-structured questionnaire survey was also conducted to collect data on factors expected to be associated

ted with the epidemiology and transmission of brucellosis.

3.4. Sampling Procedure and Sample Size Determination

The study zone and districts were selected purposively. Peasant associations (PA's) were taken randomly according to the proportions of PA's found in each district. Accordingly, 2 PA's from Gobu Seyo, 3 PA's from Gudeya Bila and 4 PA's from Sibusire districts were included in sampling. Nine peasant associations were sampled from a total of 43 (Gobu Seyo: 9, Sibusire: 19, Gudeya Bila: 15) in these three districts. This was followed by sampling of herds (households) in these selected peasant associations. Those cattle that housed in the same barns or under individual households were considered as one herd (Tolosa, 2004; Asgedom *et al.*, 2016). According to data obtained from the district agricultural office, the number of households in each PA's varies from 350 to 400. In each study area, the list of household data were regained from the kebele manager. Averages of 8 herds (households) were selected by systematic random sampling method from each PA. A total of 75 herds (20 from Gobu Seyo, 32 from Sibusire and 23 from Gudeya Bila) were included in sampling. Animals above six months of age within the herds were selected using simpler random sampling method.

Additionally all farms of mainly crossbreed cattle were sampled purposively, since there were few crossbreed cattle in study area. Farms were divided into three categories; small scale (≤ 10 head of cattle), medium scale (≥ 10 -20 head of cattle) and large scale (≥ 20 head of cattle) depending on number of animals (Boyazoglu, 1998). Totally 12 farms (two large scale farm, five medium scale farms and five small scale farm) were included in sampling. Study animals were selected by simpler random sampling method (lottery method depending on their ear tag, name and color). The numbers of animals sampled from each scale were determined by the proportion of the cattle population existing in each scale.

In order to determine the desired sample size, there were no previous reports of bovine brucellosis prevalence in the present study area. Therefore, the average expected prevalence rate was assumed to be 50% for the area within 95% confidence interval (CI) at 5% desired precision as stated by Thrusfield (2007). Hence, using the formula, calculated sample for the current study becomes 384 heads of cattle; however, a total of 488 serum samples (362 from local breed and 126 from crossbreed) of both sexes were sampled from 87 herds in the study area to increase the precision of the result.

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \times p_{\text{expe}} (1 - p_{\text{expe}})}{d^2}$$

Where, n = required sample size

P_{exp} = expected prevalence

d = desired absolute precision

Z = confidence statistics

Table 2. The number of animals sampled from each district

District	Number of animals sampled
Gobu Seyo	149
Sibu Sire	188
Gudaya Bila	151
Total	488

3.5. Sample and Data Collection

3.5.1. Blood sample collection

Animals were restrained by animal handlers and approximately 10 ml of blood sample was collected from the jugular vein after disinfection of the site using vacutainertubes with 18-20 gauge hypodermic needles. Each blood sample from each animal was labeled on vacutainertube by using codes describing the specific animal and kept overnight at room temperature to allow clotting. At the next morning clearly separated serum of approximately 2 ml were decanted to the cryovialstowhich identification was coincided. The obtained serum were stored at -20°C until tested by both Rose Bengal Plate Test and C-ELISA test materials. During blood sampling, epidemiological data for study at individual animal level were collected using sample data collection sheet (Annex 1).

3.5.2. Questionnaire survey

Verbal agreement was obtained from the respondents and the objective of the survey explained to them before starting the interview. A 12 semi-intensive and 75 extensive, total of 87 owners or respondents were interviewed in local languages (Afaan Oromo) parallel to blood collection using semi-structured questionnaire that were believed to influence the epidemiology and transmission of Brucellosis (Annex 2). Similarly, information related to the animal attributes like breed, sex, age, reproductive status, parity, origin of the animal, history of abortion and retained fetal membranes were

ecollected. Based on its biological relevance, age was stratified into three categories: <3 years, ≥3–6 years and >6 years according to dental eruption (Pace and Wakeman, 2003) (Annex 3). Besides, information on farms such as: herd size, management systems, mating method, presence of parturition pen, disposal after birth and other risk factors were also collected using a questionnaire format prepared for this purpose.

3.6. Serological Tests

3.6.1. Rose Bengal plate test (RBPT)

All serum samples were screened using the RBPT at Bedele Veterinary Regional Laboratory according to OIE (2016) procedures (Annex 4). Sera and antigen were taken from refrigerator and left at room temperature for half an hour before the test conducted. Briefly, 30 µl of each test serum were taken and placed on a clean glass slide. Then the same amount of 30 µl of RBPT antigen were added to the side of each test serum. The antigen and test serum were mixed thoroughly in a plastic applicator, shaken for 4 min, and agglutination was read immediately. Any observed agglutination by the naked eye was considered to be a positive reaction.

3.6.2. Competitive ELISA

All RBPT positive sera were further tested using the COMPELISA 160 and 400, a competitive ELISA kit for the detection of antibodies against *Brucella* in serum samples (New Haw, Addlestone, Surrey, KT15 3NB, United Kingdom) at the National Veterinary Institute (NVI), Bishoftu, Ethiopia. The test was performed according to the manufacturer's manual in 96-well polystyrene plates that were pre-coated with *Brucella* species lipopolysaccharide (LPS) antigen (Annex 5). 20 µl of each test serum was added to each well followed by 100 µl of prepared conjugate solution. The plates were then shaken vigorously for two minutes and incubated at room temperature for 30 min on a rotary shaker, at 160 revs/min. Plates were washed 5 times and dried. 100 µl of P-Phenyl Phosphate solution was added to all wells and the plates were incubated at room temperature for 10 to 20 min. The reaction was then being stopped using stopping solution. Optical densities (OD) were read at 450 nm using microplate reader. The lack of color development indicated that the sample tested was positive. A positive/negative cutoff was calculated as 60% of the mean of the OD of the 4 conjugate control wells. Any test sample giving an OD below this value was taken as being positive.

3.7. Data Management and Analysis

Descriptive statistics were utilized to summarize data after coded and transferred to Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 20. Two epidemiological parameters were generated namely individual animal and herd level seroprevalence. Individual animal seroprevalence was calculated by the number of positive animals divided by the total number of animals tested. Similarly, herd level prevalence was calculated by the number of positive herds with at least one seropositive animal in the herd divided by the total number of herds screened. An animal was considered positive if it tested seropositive on C-

ELISA test. Univariable logistic regression analysis was used to select the individual explanatory variable that may predict the outcome variable in the model. The explanatory variables ($P \leq 0.25$) were further checked for multicollinearity using the variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance factor (TF) before multivariable logistic regression analysis. Variance inflation factor values of greater than 3 or tolerance less than 0.1 were considered the cut-

off points for the collinearity diagnostics. The strength of association between outcome (*Brucella* seropositivity) and risk factors was assessed using the odds ratio (OR). Multivariable logistic regression analysis was conducted to calculate the probability of disease happening as a function of several independent variables. The backward elimination procedure was used to eliminate the factors that were not significant at $P < 0.05$ in overall model. Factors that were significant ($P \leq 0.05$) were retained in the final model and model fit was observed using the Hosmer-Lemeshow test.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Overall seroprevalence of bovine brucellosis

In the present study, a total of 488 cattle (157 male (32.17%) and 331 female (67.83%)) sera were collected from animals above six months of age which were not vaccinated against bovine brucellosis.

Of them, 11 (2.25%) (95% CI: 0.94-

3.5) were positive in a RBPT test and six were confirmed to be seropositive for brucellosis using C-ELISA, giving seroprevalence of 1.23% (95% CI: 0.25-

2.2). Out of 87 herds included in the study, 6 (6.9%) (95% CI: 3.2-14.2) were seropositive using C-ELISA with at least one seropositive animal in the herd. An overall animal level seroprevalence of 1.23% and herd level seroprevalence of 6.9% were recorded (Table 3).

Table 3. Overall individual animal and herd level brucellosis seroprevalence based on RBPT and ELISA test.

Test assay	Classification	Animal level			Herd level		
		N	%	95% CI	NF	%	95% CI
RBPT	Negative	477			78		
	Positive	11	2.25	0.94-3.5	9	10.34	3.9-16.74
C-ELISA	Negative	482			81		
	Positive	6	1.23	0.25-2	6	6.9	3.2-14.2
Total		488			87		

N: number of animals NF: number of farm %: Prevalence

4.2. Risk factors analysis

4.2.1. Animal level risk factors analysis

The results of animal level *Brucella* seropositivity and their association with exposure variables as in univariable logistic regression were represented in Table 4. Accordingly, seroprevalence of bovine brucellosis was not significantly related with study districts ($P > 0.05$). Though there were no significant difference among study districts and *Brucella* seropositivity, slightly higher proportion of seropositivity was observed in Gobu Seyodi district (2%) when compared to Sibusire (0.53%) and Gudaya Bila (1.34%) districts. Sex was found not a significant factor for brucellosis infection, ($P = 0.428$) despite females having a slightly higher proportion of infection 1.5% ($n = 331$) compared to males 0.64% ($n = 157$). Seroprevalence of bovine brucellosis was significantly related with age of an animal ($P < 0.05$). Seroprevalence of 5.37% was observed in older animals (> 6 years) and 0.42% in animals ≥ 3 -

6 years old. No animal less than 3 years old was found to be seroreactive. Among 331 female animals tested 15 (4.5%) showed history of abortion, 28 (8.45%) with history of retained placenta, 44 (13.29%) were pregnant and 287 (87%) were nonpregnant (heifers, lactating and dry cows). The seroprevalences of brucellosis were also significantly associated with aborting cows ($P = 0.000$), retention of placenta ($P = 0.047$) and pregnancy status of an animal ($P = 0.004$). The study failed to detect significant variation in *Brucella* seropositivity between breeds, animal origin and parity at individual animal. Animals with zero parity were negative in both RBPT and C-ELISA. Though number of parities was not significant at the 5% level, since their P values were ≤ 0.25 they were considered as potential risk factors and thus subjected to the multivariable logistic regression analysis.

Table 4. Univariable logistic regression analysis of common risk factors associated with *Brucella* seropositivity at individual animal level

Risk factors	N	C-ELISA Positive (%)	OR (95% CI)	p-value
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Districts				
SibuSire	188	1(0.53%)		
GudeyaBila	151	2(1.34%)	0.12(0.014-1.05)	0.56
GobuSeyo	149	3(2%)	1.79(0.328-2.353)	0.796
Sex				
Male	157	1(0.64%)		
Female	331	5(1.5%)	2.39(0.277-20.65)	0.428
Age				
Young(<3years)	159	0		
Adult(\geq 3-6years)	236	1(0.42%)	4.25(2.65-46.35)	0.025
Old(>6years)	93	5(5.37%)	6.7(1.452-30.97)	0.015
Breed				
Cross	126	1(0.79%)		
Local	362	5(1.38%)	0.57(0.066-4.937)	0.611
Stockreplacement				
Purchased/bought	114	1(0.87%)		
Self-reared/born	374	5(1.33%)	0.65(0.076-5.648)	0.697
Parity				
Nullparous	132	0		
Monoparous	80	1(1.25%)	3.5(0.217-56.69)	0.183
Biparous	91	3(3.297%)	8.39(0.86-81.63)	0.067
Multiparous	28	1(3.58%)	10.25(0.624-68.6)	0.103
Pregnancystatus				
Nonpregnant	287	2(0.69%)		
Pregnant	44	3(6.8%)	16.09(2.84-23.89)	0.004
Historyofabortion				
Absent	316	2(0.64%)		
Present	15	3(20%)	16(9.27-14.48)	0.000
HistoryofRFM				
Absent	303	2(0.67%)		
Present	28	3(10.71%)	12.7(6.7-29.79)	0.047

N=numberofanimalscreened

4.2.2.Herdlevelriskfactorsanalysis

Theherdlevelunivariablelogisticregressionanalysisrevealedthatherdsizeswerefoundtobestronglyassociatedwithherdseropositivityto*Brucella*infection($P<0.05$).Therewasnosignificantdifferenceof*Brucella*seropositivityaccordingtomanagementsystems($P=0.902$).Howeverrelativelyhigherproportionofseropositivitywasobservedinextensivemanagement(8.33%)whencomparedtosemiintensivemanagementsystem(6.66%).Thestudyalsofailstodetectasignificantvariationin*Brucella*seropositivityamongotherriskfactorsatherdlevel(Table5).

Table5.Univariablelogisticregressionanalysisofrisk/indicatorfactorsforherdlevelbrucellosis seropositivity

Riskfactors	NF	C-ELISA Positive(%)	OR(95%CI)	p-value
Districts				
SibuSire	36	1(2.77%)		

GudeyaBila	25	2(8%)	0.95(0.82-4.165)	0.45
GobuSeyo	26	3(11.53%)	0.6(0.215-1.748)	0.36
Managementsystem				
Semi-intensive	12	1(6.66%)		
Extensive	75	5(8.33%)	1.15(0.123-10.725)	0.902
HerdSize				
≤10	24	0		
≥10-20	29	2(6.8%)	3.45(1.87-27.65)	0.026
≥20	34	4(11.76%)	8.45(1.18-22.28)	0.011
MatingMethod				
Artificial	2	0		
Natural	79	5(6.32%)	1.63(0.498-5.374)	0.417
Both	6	1(16.66%)	2.62(0.612-8.643)	0.773
Parturitionpen				
Present	8	1(12.5%)		
Absent	79	5(6.32%)	5.2(0.45-5.94)	0.185
Disposalafterbirth				
Present	14	1(7.15%)		
Absent	73	5(6.8%)	1.05(0.113-9.705)	0.968

NF=numberoffarms

In Table 6, the result of multivariable logistic regression analysis showing important risk factors for *Brucella* seropositivity. Risk factors with p -value ≤ 0.25 in the univariable logistic regression model were included in the multivariable logistic regression model. Accordingly; age, herd size, parity, pregnancy status of the animal, presence of parturition pen, history of abortion and retained fetal membranes were included in the final logistic regression model. However, in the final analysis animal seropositivity was influenced more by herd size, age, pregnancy status of animals and abortion case. Thus multivariable logistic regression analysis depicts that brucellosis seropositivity were found to be 6.5 (95% CI: 1.459-28.967) times higher among older animals greater six years than younger animals. Animals involved in large herd size were 8.5 times more likely to be at high risk for *Brucella* infection than animals in small herd size (95% CI: 1.217-19.872, $P=0.031$). Similarly, pregnancy status in females were found to be significantly associated with seropositivity ($P=0.009$). Brucellosis seropositivity was found to be 12.8 (95% CI: 2.35-45.72) times higher among pregnant animals compared to those of the non-pregnant animals. The seroprevalence of brucellosis was also significantly higher in female animals those had a history of abortion (20%) compared with no history of abortion (0.7%) (95% CI: 6.759-10.389, OR=8.3, $P=0.001$). This could be explained by the fact that abortion is typical outcomes of

brucellosis. The risk factors showed no statistically significant associations regardless of the seropositivity recorded.

Table 6. Multivariable logistic regression analyses identifying the association of potential risk factors to *Brucella* seropositivity in cattle

Risk Factors	Categories	95% CI	OR	p-value
Age	Young (<3 years)*			
	Adult (≥3-6 years)	2.265-15.653	3.15	
	Old (>6 years)	1.459-28.967	6.5	0.014
Herd Size	Small (≤10 heads of cattle)*			
	Medium (≥10-20 heads of cattle)	1.05-5.654	2.45	0.046
	Large (≥20 heads of cattle)	1.217-19.872	8.56	0.031
Pregnancy status	Nonpregnant*			
	Pregnant	2.350-45.72	12.78	0.009
History of abortion	Absent*			
	Present	6.759-10.389	8.3	0.001

*: Reference category; CI: Confidence interval; OR: Odds ratio

4.3. Questionnaire Survey

The majority of participants, 97.35% of extensive farm owners or respondents and 83.34% of intensive farm owners or respondents were not aware of bovine brucellosis. Respondents were also interviewed to describe the occurrence of some reproductive problems and indicated 12.65% abortion. Most of the respondents (85%) had no knowledge on causes of abortion and as brucellosis cause abortion in cattle and 96.55% of them had not isolated an aborted animal from mothers. The practices of proper disposal after birth were done relatively in a better way by farmers in semi-intensive management system. The majority of the respondents consume raw milk (80.45%) and raw meat (94.25%). Similarly, most of the farmers (87.35%) have the habit of assisting cows during parturition, of which only very few (3.5%) of them use protective gloves (Table 7).

Table 7. Knowledge, attitudes and practices of farm owners about brucellosis

Variable	Extensive farm (n=75)	Semi-intensive farm (n=12)	Total (n=87)
Awareness about brucellosis			
Yes	2(2.65%)	2(16.66%)	4(4.6%)
No	73(97.35%)	10(83.34%)	76(95.4%)
Abortion			
Yes	7(9.33%)	4(33.33)	11(12.65%)
No	68(90.66%)	8(66.67%)	76(87.34%)

Perception on cause of abortion			
Yes	9(12%)	4(33.33%)	13(15%)
No	66(88)	8(66.67%)	74(85%)
Separation of aborted cow			
Yes	1(1.33%)	2(16.66%)	3(3.45%)
No	74(98.67%)	10(83.37%)	84(96.55%)
Proper disposal of after birth			
Burial	5(6.7%)	6(50%)	11(12.64%)
Burning	2(2.7%)	2(15.38%)	4(4.6%)
Open dump	68(90.6%)	4(33.32%)	72(82.8%)
Raw milk consumption			
Yes	65(86.66%)	5(41.66%)	70(80.45%)
No	10(13.34%)	7(58.34%)	17(19.55%)
Raw meat consumption			
Yes	71(95.67%)	11(91.66%)	82(94.25%)
No	4(5.33%)	1(8.34%)	5(5.75%)
Assisting cow during parturition			
Yes	68(90.66%)	8(66.66%)	76(87.35%)
No	7(9.34%)	4(33.34%)	11(12.64%)
Use of protective gloves during assisting			
Yes	-	3(37.5%)	3(3.5%)
No	68(100%)	5(62.5%)	73(96.5%)

5. DISCUSSION

The study revealed that the overall prevalence of bovine brucellosis was 1.23% in the three selected districts of East Wollega Zone. The prevalence in this study was similar to the findings of Tefera (2006) with prevalence of 1.13% in intensive and extensive farms of Addis Ababa and Sululta, Degefu *et al.* (2011) who found an overall prevalence of 1.38% from Agropastoral cattle of Jijjiga, Berhe *et al.* (2007) who found an overall prevalence of 1.49% in intensive and semi-intensive farms of Tigray Region, Asmare *et al.* (2010) with cattle prevalence 1.92% in Sidama Zone, Yohannes *et al.* (2012) with cattle prevalence of 1.97% in Guto Gida district of East Wollega zone, Roba (2017) with prevalence of 1.1% in Dida Tuyura Ranch and pastoral herd of Borena zone, Yohannes (2017) with prevalence of 1.3% in Humbod district of Wolaita zone.

The present study was lower than many of the earlier reports in Ethiopia. For instances, higher preva

lencethanthe current report was observed by various authors (4.63% in extensive and intensive farms in Bahirdar by Hailemeleket, 2005, 11% in smallholder farms in Central Ethiopia (Wuchale-Jida district) by Kebede *et al.*, 2008, 7.7% prevalence of bovine brucellosis in extensive and semi-intensive farms of Tigray region by Haile Silas *et al.*, 2010, 2.43% in Jijiga by Bekele *et al.*, 2011, 14.14% prevalence of bovine brucellosis in Assela government dairy farm of Oromia regional state by Deselgnand Gangwar, 2011, 2.9% prevalence in Arsizone of Oromia regional state by Tsegay *et al.*, 2016).

Tadese (2003) in north Gonder, Mussei (2007) in crossbreeds of Bahirdar, Lidia (2008) in central highland of Ethiopia, Degefa *et al.* (2011) in Arsizone of Oromia regional state, Tesfaye *et al.* (2011) in dairy farms of Addis Ababa, Bashitu *et al.* (2015) in crossbreeds of Debrebirhan have reported prevalence of 0.14%, 0.26%, 0.45%, 0.05%, 0.69%, and 0.2% respectively which is slightly lower overall prevalence when compared to this finding.

The difference in prevalence observed between the reports from different parts of Ethiopia and the present study may be due to differences in herd size, sample size, tests used, agroecological and management conditions, and the presence or absence of infectious foci, such as *Brucella*-infected herds, which could spread the disease among contact herds.

The present study showed that there was no significant difference in seroprevalence of brucellosis among three study districts (Gobu Seyo, Sibuu Sire and Gedeya Bila). This could be due to similarity among traditional management system.

Though in the present study the seroprevalence of bovine brucellosis was not statistically significant between sexes, the result showed that infection was higher in female (1.42%) than male (0.63%). This finding was in agreement with the findings of Hailemeleket *et al.* (2007) in Tigray region, Berhe *et al.* (2007) in Tigray region, Deselegnand Gangwar (2011) in Asella dairy farm, Asgedom *et al.* (2016) in and around Alaged districts who reported higher prevalence in female than male. The lower prevalence of female reactors in this study could be due to smaller number of female tested as compared to female and it has also been reported that the organism prefer gravid uterus for growth and multiplication relative to testicle and epididymis (Megersa *et al.*, 2011).

In this study, all infected animals were adult and there was statistically significant difference ($P=0.014$) in seroprevalence of *Brucella* among different age groups. The finding was in agreement with Asgedom *et al.* (2016); Megersa *et al.* (2011) and Tsegay *et al.* (2015). This finding was also in agreement with the report of Lidia (2008) in central highland of Ethiopia and Nuraddis *et al.* (2010) in sele

cted site of Jimma zone, who reported only older age category reactors. According to some authors (Bekele *et al.*, 2000; Taye, 2005; Roba, 2017; Yohannes, 2017) susceptibility to brucellosis is reported to increase as the animals approach to the breeding age. Thus, sexually mature cattle are more susceptible to infection with *Brucella* organism than sexually immature animal of either sex (Taye, 2005). In this study there was no seropositive reactor in nulliparous and in animals less than 3 years of age. This finding was in agreement with the prevalence report of 0.0% in nulliparous animals by (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2010), (Berhe *et al.*, 2007), (Kebede *et al.*, 2008). This shows that brucellosis is highly related with age and sexual maturity of animals.

Breed differences in susceptibility have not been clearly documented in cattle, although genetically determined differences in susceptibility of individual animals have been demonstrated (Yohannes, 2017). In this study, the seroprevalence was found to be higher in local (1.38%) than crossbred (0.79%). This could be due to, limited number of crossbred animals in this study. Nevertheless, this difference was not statistically significant which is in agreement with the report of (Lidia, 2008) and (Yohannes *et al.*, 2012) in central highland and East Wollega zone of Ethiopia respectively. On the contrary, Jergefa *et al.* (2009) in their study found that breed of cattle has significant effect on the serological prevalence of brucellosis and is higher in crossbred than in indigenous ones.

Herds size remained significantly associated with seropositivity to brucellosis in this study. This finding was in agreement with the reports (Asmare *et al.*, 2010; Hailesillasie *et al.*, 2010; Ibrahim *et al.*, 2010; Adugna *et al.*, 2013; Yohannes, 2017). An increase in herds size is usually accompanied by increase in stocking density, as well as an increase in risk of exposure to infection. Stocking density is an important determinant of the potential for transmission between susceptible and infected animals (Omer *et al.*, 2000). It is a sound undeniable fact that the spread of the disease from one herd to another herd and from one area to another is almost frequently due to the movement of an infected animal from a non-infected herd to a non-infected susceptible herd (Radostits *et al.*, 2000). Thus, brucellosis should never be viewed as the disease of individual animals, but should be considered in the context of herd and also the animal population in the region.

The pregnancy status was significantly determining seropositivity in the present study ($p=0.009$). Seropositivity to brucellosis was higher in pregnant animals (9%) compared to non-pregnant animals (heifer, lactating and dry cows) (0.69%). Furthermore, female cattle are more susceptible to *Brucella* organism in gravid uterus of pregnant animals due to the presence of erythritol in female reproductive tract which stimulates the growth of the organism (Radostits *et al.*, 2000). Thi

sdisagreeswiththereportof(Omer^{etal.},2000;Adugna^{etal.},2013;Yohannes,2017)intheirstudyfoundthatpregnancystatusofcattlehasnosignificanteffectontheseroprevalenceofbrucellosis.

Thoughinthepresentstudytheseroprevalenceofbovinebrucellosiswasnotstatisticallysignificantbetweenthemanagementsystems,theresultshowedthatrelativelyhigherseroprevalenceintheextensivemanagementsystem.Insuchcircumstances,cattleofunknown disease status might mix andoftengrazedtogetherandresultedinspreadingandtransmissionofdiseaseamongherds.About85%oftheherdsinthestudyareasharedthecommunalgrazingsystem.Ithasalsobeenindicatedthatfreegrazingwhichallowsunrestrictedcontactbetweenanimalsmayhavecontributiontothespreadofbrucellosisinextensivemanagementsystem(Abubakar^{etal.},2012).Thelowerprevalence recordedinthesemi-intensivemanagementsysteminthestudyareacouldbeduetothebetterhygienicpracticesinthesemi-intensivemanagementsystemwhichwasepressedbytherelativelybetterproportionoffarmershavingseparateparturitionpens,separatingcowsduringparturition,properlydisposingafterbirthandhavingbetterknowledgeoncauseofabortionandaboutdisease.Brucellosishasbeenlabeledto be adisease of poor hygienic condition that could arise from exposure to aborted fetus, placentas, vaginal discharges or newborn calves from infected cows (Radostits^{etal.},2000).

Twentypercent(20%)ofanimalswithhistoryofpreviousabortionhad*Brucella*antibodyintheirusum according to recent study. Statistical analysis also revealed association between *Brucella* seropositivity and history of previous abortion ($P=0.001$). Association between brucellosis seroprevalence and occurrence of abortion also reported (Berhe^{etal.},2007;Ibrahim^{etal.},2010;Adugna^{etal.},2013;Tsegaye^{etal.},2016;Yohannes,H.,2017).

The questionnaire survey has provided information regarding the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, farm management and husbandry practice, knowledge-attitude and practices of cattle owners about brucellosis in selected districts of East Wollega zone. Knowledge of disease is a crucial step in the development of prevention and control measures (Gesse^{etal.},2014). Despite huge efforts of the government institutions to improve animal production in the areas, most farmers were not familiarized with new technologies. The educational status attained by majority of the respondents was low which falls between illiterate and lower grades. This low level of educational status may lead to reduced production gained from animals because of low use of innovations such as artificial insemination for breeding, use of modern dairy farming and vaccination

ion of animals. In addition to this, proper disposal of aborted materials, housing animals in corral, use of a separate parturition pen and assisting parturition by using protective gloves were not under consideration. These could have effect on the transmission of the disease within and between the herds and human. This is in agreement with previous studies in extensive livestock production system (Ragassa *et al.* 2009; Megersa *et al.* 2011; Adugna *et al.*, 2013). The occurrence of brucellosis in humans is associated with contact with domestic animals, exposure to aborted animals and assisting animal parturition (Kozukee *et al.* 2006). In this study, the majority of the respondents have the habit of drinking raw milk, raw meat and assisting parturition. This implies the lack of awareness about the effects of disease and this in turn, contributes to the spread and transmission of the infection to humans in the area.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Results of the present study revealed that bovine brucellosis was found to be 1.23% and 6.9% at animal level and herd level respectively. This indicates existence of bovine brucellosis in the East Wollo zone of Oromia region, Western Ethiopia. The finding of positive serological reactors indicate the presence of foci of infection that could serve as sources of infection for the spread of the disease in unaffected animals and herds. The study revealed that herd size, age of an animal, pregnancy status of animals and abortion cases were found to be significantly associated with *Brucella* seropositivity. The studies also clearly showed that farm owners had less knowledge of the disease and are at risk of acquiring the infection that was realized by consuming raw milk, assisting parturition and handling of aborted materials without using protective gloves.

Based on the above conclusions, the following recommendations were forwarded:

- ❖ Isolation of calving animals in separate calving pens should be encouraged.
- ❖ Incinerating aborted fetuses and fetal membranes should be practiced.
- ❖ Isolation of different herds and different species of animals should be carried out to reduce stocking density.
- ❖ Proper hygienic and good management practices should be exercised.
- ❖ Awareness creation for the stakeholders about the route of transmission, severity of the disease, and its effect both on animal and humans should be provided.
- ❖ Further nationwide and integrated investigations in all production systems of different geographical areas should be conducted to have clear image on the magnitude and distribution of the disease.

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8. ANNEXES

Annex 1: Data recording format for blood sampling

Epidemiological investigation of Brucellosis in cattle of study area

Zone _____ District _____ PA/Town _____ village _____

S/N ₀	Farmname	District	PA	Agro-ecology	HerdSize	Animalorigin	Age	Sex	Breed	Parity	MatingSystem	RPstatus	Historyofaborti	Frequencyofabortion	Gestationalstag eofabortion	HistoryofRP,Sti llbirth	Lab.result (+/-)	
																	RBPT	CFT
1																		
2																		
3																		
4																		
5																		

PA-Peasant Association; RP-

Retained placenta (Yes/No); History of maternal abortion (Y/N); RP Status-

Reproductive Status (Pregnant, Lactating, Dry cow and Heifer); Mating System (natural or AI); Origin of the animals (born/bought).

Annex 2: Questionnaire survey for the assessment of brucellosis and associated risk factors.

Interview intended for livestock owners/respondents in the study area

I. General Information on demographic characteristics of the respondents

Name of respondent _____ Sex _____ Zone _____

District _____ PA/Town _____ Mob.No _____

1.Occupationa.Governmentemployeeb.Non-governmentemployee(NGO)

c.Self-businessd.Farmer

2.Educationlevel?a.1-8gradeb.8-12gradec.>12grade

3.Locationa.urbanb.Peri-urbanc.rural

4.Areyoupracticingfarmanimalsastheonlywayoflife?a.Yesb.No

5.Ifyouhaveanotherjobspecifyjobtype.....

6.Howdidyouacquireskillstoraisecattle/farming?

a)Agriculturaltraining(level)b)Fromextensionagents

c)Fromparents d)other

II.Informationonherd(husbandryandmanagementsystem)

1.Herdtypeandsizeinyourfarm

Typeofcattle	Numberofanimals
Lactatingcows	
Pregnantcows	
Drycows	
Heifers	
Bull/ox	
Calves	

2.Whatisthefeedingmanagementofcattle?

a.Communalandfreegrazingb.Privateandfreegrazing

c.Tetherd.Stallfeed

3.Whichbreedofcattledoyouown?Whatisthenumberofcattleineachbreed?

Breedofcattle	Numberofcattle
---------------	----------------

Local	
25% cross	
50% cross	
More than 50%	

4. What type of breeding system do you have for your animals?

a. AI b. Natural Mating c. Both

7. How is the housing management?

a) Barn (Separately or mixed with other livestock)

b) Corral (Separately or mixed with other livestock)

c) Open field (Separately or mixed with other livestock)

d) Within the family house (Separately or mixed with other livestock)

e) Others

8. What are your culling criteria?

a) Disease b) old age c) infertility d) poor production e) other

9. Where do you get your replacement stock?

.....

10. General farm hygiene/cleanliness

a) Very good b) Good c) Satisfactory d) Poor

III. Knowledge-attitudes and practices of farm owners about brucellosis

1. Have you ever seen reproductive problem in your farm? a. Yes b. No

2. Are you aware of any disease that causes abortion? a. Yes b. No

If yes, what is the local name for disease that causes abortion?

.....

3. Do you know about brucellosis (“Gatachiisaa” in Afaan Oromoo)? a. Yes b. No

4. Do you think brucellosis is a zoonotic disease? a. Yes b. No

5. If yes through which means disease can transmit?

.....

6. Was there any occurrence of abortion/stillbirth in your farm? Y/N

7. If your answer is yes, in which of the cows and at which time of pregnancy?

Cow identification	Time of abortion
Heifer	
Cow at first calving	
Cow at second	
Cow at third calving and more	

8. How many abortions/stillbirths or retained after birth have you encountered during the last three years? a. Number of abortion----- b. Number of stillbirth-----

c. Number of retained fetal membrane-----

9. Do you separate cows during parturition? a. Yes b. No

10. Do you separate aborted animal from mother? a. Yes b. No

11. Do you dispose after birth? a. Yes b. No

12. If yes how do you dispose of the after birth?

a. Burning b. Burying c. Both d. Throw to the environment (open dump)

13. Is there frequent contact between your herds and other animals? a. Yes b. No

14. Did you see any testicular swelling? a. Yes b. No

15. Do you consume raw milk? a. Yes b. No

16. Do you boil milk? a. Yes b. No

17. Do you consume raw meat of cattle? a. Yes b. No

18. Do you assist cow during parturition? a. Yes b. No

19. If your answer is yes, do you use protective glove during assisting? a. Yes b. No

20. What do you do with the known *Brucella* infected animals?

- a. Separate the infected animal
- b. Sell to neighbor
- c. Sell to market
- d. Take to the local veterinarian clinic

.....

21. Have you introduced new animals into your farm in the last one year? Yes { } No { } If yes, how many Cattle?

22. Did the farm/herd be tested for brucellosis?

.....

Thank you very much for participation and cooperation in this study!!!

The outcomes of the study will be shared among stakeholders whenever available for the purpose of improving animal, public and environmental health. Do you have any comment or question about the interview and our conversation?

Annex 3: Age determination in cattle based on teeth eruption

No	Teeth	Ages
1	I1 erupts	1 1/2-2 years
2	I2 erupts	2-2 1/2 years
3	I3 erupts	3 years
4	C erupts	3 1/2-4 years

5	All incisors are wear	5 years
6	I1 is level and the neck has emerged from the gum	6 years
7	I2 is level and the neck is visible	7 years
8	I3 is level the neck is visible	8 years
9	C is level and the neck is visible	9 years
10	The teeth that have not fallen out are reduced to small round pegs	15 years

Source: Pace and Wakeman, 1983

Annex 4: Rose Bengal Plate Test (RBPT) reagents, material and equipment and procedure (OIE, 2016).

Reagents and materials required for RBT

Reagents:

- Rose Bengal Test *Brucella* antigen
- Positive control sera (from previously positive serum)
- Negative control sera (from previously negative serum)

- Test sera

Materials

- Plate
- Micropipette of 30 μ l
- Micropipette tips
- Applicator
- Tube of serum collection
- Magnifying glass
- Vacutainer tubes fitted with handle and needles
- Rack

Procedures

The test sera and the antigen will be left at a room temperature for half an hour every time before the test is proceeded.

- 30 microliter of each test serum will be taken and placed on a clean glass slide.
- 30 microliter of RBPT antigen will be added to the side of each test serum using a pipette.
- Then the antigen and the test serum were mixed thoroughly by an applicator.
- The glass slide was shaken by hand for 4 minutes.
- Finally the result of each test was read by looking the presence or absence of agglutination and the degree of agglutination was also appreciated in a very good light source and when necessary magnifying glasses were used.

Interpretation: After four minutes rocking (shaking) any visible agglutination was considered positive.

Annex 5: Competitive ELISA test procedures (COMPELISA 160 and 400, New Haw, Addlestone, and Surrey, KT15 3NB, United Kingdom).

1. Warm the diluting buffer to room temperature, it is recommended that the diluting buffer is warmed in a water bath at 23°C (\pm 3°C). Mix the conjugate concentrate (BM40) thoroughly and dilute to working strength in the warmed diluting.
2. Add 20 μ l of each test serum per well. Leave columns for controls.
3. Add 20 μ l of the positive control to wells for strong positive and weak.

4. Add 20 μ l of the negative control to wells for negatives.
5. Then, 100 μ l of prepared conjugate solution was added to each well
6. The plate is then vigorously shaken (on the microtitre plate shaker) for two minutes in order to mix the serum and conjugate solution. Cover the plate with a lid and incubate at room temperature ($21^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 6^{\circ}\text{C}$) for 30 minutes on a rotary shaker, at 160 revs/min.
7. Shake out the contents of the plate before washing each plate 5 times with either washing solution or drinking water from a tap under low pressure (keep tap water at a steady, soft flow). Dry plate by tapping firmly onto a few layers of absorbent towel until no more liquid is removed
8. Add 100 μ l of substrate solution to all wells using a multi-channel pipette and incubate the plate at room temperature ($21^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 6^{\circ}\text{C}$) for a minimum of 10 minutes and a maximum of 20 minutes.
9. Switch on microplate reader and allow the unit to stabilize for 10 minutes
10. Slow the reaction by adding 100 μ l of stopping solution to all wells.
11. Lastly, the Optical Density (OD) of the controls and samples was measured at 450 nm in a Microplate photometer (Flow laboratories, UK) immediately after addition of stop solution to prevent fluctuations in OD values. The lack of color development indicates that the sample tested was positive. A positive/negative cut-off can be calculated as 60% of the mean of the optical density (OD) of the 4 conjugate control wells. Any test sample giving an OD equal to or below this value should be regarded as being positive.