Canine parasitic zoonoses in India: status and issues

This paper (No. 20062017-00101-EN) has been peer-reviewed, accepted, edited, and corrected by authors. It has not yet been formatted for printing. It will be published in December 2017 in issue **36** (3) of the *Scientific and Technical Review*

R. Sharma $^{(1, 2)}$ *, B.B. Singh $^{(1)}$, J.P.S. Gill $^{(1)}$, E. Jenkins $^{(2)}$ & B. Singh $^{(3)}$

 School of Public Health and Zoonoses, Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Ludhiana, Punjab-141004, India

(2) Department of Veterinary Microbiology, Western College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, S7N 5B4, Canada

(3) Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, University of Calgary, Alberta, T2N4Z6, Canada

* Corresponding author: rajgangahar@gmail.com

Summary

Dogs play valuable roles in human society. In addition to serving as pets and companions, dogs have also been important in hunting and, in recent times, as therapy animals. In India, the number of pet dogs is estimated to be around 5 million. The stray dog population in India is estimated to be 19 million and still increasing, owing to ineffective control measures. Stray dogs pose substantial risks to public health due to injury and transmission of zoonoses such as rabies. Both pet and stray dogs may act as reservoirs of zoonotic parasites in India, which has a climate conducive for the environmental survival and transmission of many zoonotic parasites. Presently, visceral larva migrans, cutaneous larva migrans and echinococcosis are the most important parasitic zoonoses in India. Leishmaniasis, dirofilariasis, *Brugia malayi* infection and giardiasis are potentially significant

emerging parasitic zoonoses, and theleziasis, gnathostomiasis and dipylidiasis occur sporadically. Because of their biomedical and public health significance, and the lack of literature and compiled data on parasitic zoonoses of dogs in India, we provide a concise review on this topic along with potential control strategies.

Keywords

Canine – India – Parasitic zoonosis.

Introduction

Humans have shared a close bond with animals for thousands of years. People keep pets for companionship and enjoyment. The dog may have been the first animal to be domesticated and plays a range of cultural, social and economic functions in society (1). Dogs are used in management of many psychological, psychiatric and biomedical conditions in humans (2, 3); for example, assistance dogs help people with certain disabilities to live independently.

Contrary to the psychosocial benefits of well-maintained pet dogs, free-ranging dogs may pose health risks to people as they may harbour a wide range of parasites with zoonotic potential (4). Dogs play a major role in transmission of parasitic zoonoses in India because of many social and environmental factors, and the lack of a robust infrastructure for human and animal disease surveillance and policies for the control of disease and animal populations. In India, wild canids such as foxes (Vulpes bengalensis), jackals (Canis aureus indicus) and wolves (Canis lupus pallipes) also act as reservoirs of zoonotic parasites, and dogs may act as a bridge host between wildlife and people (5, 6). Some parasites such as *Echinococcus granulosus* affect food animals (e.g. sheep, pigs and cattle, which act as intermediate hosts), leading to economic losses through organ condemnation at the slaughterhouse (7). Because of these potential economic and health impacts, we review the prevalence, geographical range, risk factors for human transmission and potential strategies for control of canine parasitic zoonoses in India.

India, with nearly 1.22 billion people, is the second most populous country in the world and harbours around 17% of the world's population. India's dog population is estimated at 25 million (8), with over 5 million 'pet' dogs. There has also been an increase in the number of Indian families opting to keep companion animals, along with changing lifestyle and social status, and the move away from the concept of nuclear families. In a recent survey, pet dogs were present in 17% of households (n = 8,500) in India, and there was one pet dog for every 36 people (9). India has 19.2 million stray dogs and their population is rising owing to a lack of stringent population control. In addition to free-ranging domestic dogs, Indian wild canids include the fox, wild Indian dog (dhole; *Cuon alpinus*), jackal and wolf (10).

Status of zoonotic parasites in dogs

Important zoonotic parasites that are prevalent in India are *Toxocara* canis, Ancylostoma spp., Echinococcus granulosus, Leishmania spp. and *Toxoplasma gondii*. In addition, Dirofilaria spp., Dipylidium caninum, Brugaria malayi, Cryptosporidium spp., Giardia duodenalis and Paragonimus spp. are emerging parasites.

Toxocara canis infection

Dogs are the definitive host for *T. canis* (dog roundworm). This parasite is more common in dogs less than one year of age. Poor hair coat, failure to gain weight and ill thrift are common clinical signs in dogs. Studies on *T. canis* infection in dogs in India indicate a prevalence of 10–80% (11, 12). In surveys conducted >35 years previously, high prevalence values of 82% in eastern India (11) and 55.8% (13) in western India were observed. In studies conducted from 1990 to 2014, prevalence estimates were 1–45% in western, 9–24% in northern (12), 17–23% in southern (14) and 3–11% in north-eastern India (15). Differences in prevalence may be attributed to geographical, temporal and climatic variations as well as differences in methods of detection (microscopy vs. necropsy), type of dog population studied (strays vs. pets) and sampling bias (adult vs.

puppies, males vs. females). Prevalence was higher and more variable in stray dogs (19–45%) than in pets (9–23%). A high prevalence in stray dogs (14, 16, 17) poses risks to people visiting or living in public places contaminated with their faeces (18, 19).

Ancylostomiasis

Two hookworm species, *Ancylostoma caninum* and *A. ceylanicum*, are found in dogs in India (20, 21, 22, 23). Hookworms cause haemorrhagic diarrhoea in puppies and chronic microcytic hypochromic anaemia in adult dogs. Hookworm prevalence ranges between 19% and 91% in various states (11, 13, 14, 24, 25), with higher prevalence (93–98%) in rural areas (15, 20). Based on a molecular diagnostic approach, both *A. caninum* and *A. ceylanicum* have been identified in dogs from Mumbai, Assam, Sikkim and Tamil Nadu, but only *A. caninum* in dogs from Delhi (20, 21, 22, 23). More than half of stray dogs are shedding *A. caninum*, suggesting that implementation of control measures is urgently needed to address this cause of eosinophilic enteritis (23) and cutaneous larva migrans (CLM) (14, 17).

Dirofilariasis

Dirofilariasis is an emerging zoonosis in India (26). *Dirofilaria immitis* and *D. repens* are the most common species recorded in the country. The distribution of *D. immitis* extends from the Pakistani border in the west, to Delhi and Sikkim in the north, to the Burmese border in the east and to Orissa to the south (26, 27), whereas that of *D. repens* covers central and western India (Mumbai), to Kerala in the south and as far north as Delhi (27). The prevalence of *D. immitis* was found to be 1, 3, 4, 34 and 57% in Sikkim, Kolkata, Delhi, Mizoram and Orissa, respectively (27, 28, 29, 30), whereas that of *D. repens* was 5, 7, 17, 14 and 21% in Delhi, Kerala, Mumbai, Orissa and Karnatka, respectively (26, 29, 31). Note that, without molecular diagnostics, microfilaria of *D. immitis* and *D. repens* in canine blood may not be distinguishable and therefore species-specific prevalence estimates may not be accurate.

Echinococcosis

Although there is a high prevalence (20–48%) of cystic echinococcosis (hydatid cysts, or the metacestode stage of *Echinococcus granulosus sensu stricto*, G1–G3) in intermediate hosts (sheep, goats, cattle) in India there are few surveys on echinococcosis in canine definitive hosts (32, 33, 34, 35). The prevalence in dogs in southern India ranges from 4.35 to 21.2% (34, 35) and that in northern India from 1.41 to 16% (22, 32, 36). In India, transmission is enabled through backyard slaughtering, where stray dogs have access to condemned carcasses and offal with hydatid cysts (32).

Dipylidiasis

Various surveys in India on stray and pet dogs showed dipylidiasis (caused by the cestode *Dipylidium caninum*) to have a prevalence of 12.5–16.10% in northern states (37, 38), 10.25% in central states (39) and 0.56% in north-eastern states. This tapeworm is transmitted through flea intermediate hosts, predominantly *Ctenocephalidis felis orientis* (40.42%) and *C. canis* (10.63%) in dogs in India (40). Lower prevalence (0.97%) was observed in pet dogs (41), compared with 6.0% in stray dogs. Successful management of this parasite requires both cestocides and flea control, particularly in households where children may ingest infected flea intermediate hosts.

Giardiasis

The prevalence of *Giardia duodenalis* by microscopy and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was 3 and 20%, respectively, in dogs in teagrowing communities of India (15, 42). As there are host specific genotypes/species of *Giardia* in dogs that pose little zoonotic risk, further studies are required on genotyping of *Giardia* isolates in order to better understand the epidemiology and transmission ecology of this disease.

Leishmaniasis

In India, visceral leishmaniasis (VL, caused by *Leishmania donovani*) and cutaneous leishmaniasis (CL, caused by *L. tropica*) are mainly

considered anthroponotic (i.e. humans act as the main reservoir). 31 Recently, of dogs tested using the rK39 out immunochromatographic dipstick test in Himachal Pradesh, 6.5% were seropositive, and it was reported that VL infection is maintained in asymptomatic dogs as a reservoir (43), but further molecular studies are required for confirmation. Elsewhere, Indian desert gerbils (Meriones hurrianae) and dogs serve as the reservoirs of CL (44). Himachal Pradesh is an emerging focus for CL (45) and this zoonotic disease is gaining importance in the northern part of the country.

Toxoplasmosis

Dogs, like most mammals, can serve as intermediate hosts for *T. gondii*, which can be transmitted to other intermediate hosts, including people, if consumed in raw or undercooked food. Therefore, dogs could act as sources of human exposure in north-eastern states of India where dog meat is consumed. In addition, dogs coprophagic on cat faeces can mechanically transmit *Toxoplasma* oocysts. However, dogs are generally not considered to be sources of zoonotic transmission of *T. gondii*, but to act as sentinels indicating that local transmission is occurring; therefore, the high seroprevalence of 29.25% in dogs in southern India (46) and 30.9% in northern India (47) may have implications for public health.

Rare canine zoonotic parasites

Most of these parasites have been reported in the last decade and thus may be emerging, or at least newly detected, zoonoses. Although sporadic human cases have been reported in Kerala (48, 49), natural infection with *Thelezia callipaeda* (eyeworm) in dogs has been reported recently for the first time in this province (50). *Brugia malayi*, a causative agent of human filariasis, has been reported in dogs from Kerala. Eighty per cent of dogs were positive for microfilariae, of which 20% had sheathed microfilariae confirmed to be *B. malayi* by PCR (51). Dogs may also act as reservoirs of foodborne helminth zoonoses such as diphyllobothriasis, heterophyiasis, paragonimiasis, opisthorchiasis and gnathostomiasis. A prevalence of diphyllobothriasis of 1–8.57% has been reported in stray dogs that

feed near fish markets (16, 52). Reports of human sparganosis in India suggest the existence of *Spirometra* spp. in its definitive hosts, i.e. wild and domestic canids and felids, but there are few studies in dogs and cats (53, 54, 55). In north-eastern India, where frogs are considered a local delicacy, plerocercoid larvae of *Spirometra* spp. have been reported in frogs (56). Sporadic cases of trematode infestation, including heterophyiasis (11, 57), paragonimiasis (58) and opisthorchiasis (15), have been reported in dogs. Finally, 10% of dogs within Balipara, a tea estate in Assam, were found to have *Gnathostoma spinigerum* eggs in their faeces (15), suggesting that dogs serve as a source of environmental contamination.

Zoonotic parasites in wild canids

Various zoonotic parasites have been reported in wild canids in India (6, 59). Mostly, wild canids are thought to act as subclinical carriers of parasites, although there are few, if any, studies on the health impacts in wildlife. The occurrence of parasites of wild canids in different parts of India is given in Table I.

Insert Table I

Transmission to humans and associated risk factors

Dogs can transmit zoonotic parasites to people in various ways, as shown in Fig. 1.

Insert Fig. 1

Transmission through contaminated soil, water and food

People are exposed to the causative agents of ocular and visceral larva migrans (OLM/VLM, caused by *T. canis*), cutaneous larva migrans (CLM, and eosinophilic enteritis caused by *Ancylostoma* spp.) and cystic echinococcosis (CE, hydatid disease caused by *E. granulosus*) through ingestion of (for VLM/OLM and CE), or contact with (for CLM), soil, water and fresh produce contaminated with dogs' faeces (19, 68, 69). Humans may also acquire VLM through consumption of

encysted larvae of *T. canis* in paratenic hosts, if the parasites are not inactivated by cooking.

Transmission through vectors

Mechanical and biological vectors such as flies, fleas and mosquitoes also aid in transmission of some parasitic zoonoses. Vectors (e.g. *Culex*, *Aedes* and *Anopheles* mosquitoes) and climatic factors that support larval development within the mosquito vectors are present in India (70). Geographical area and flea infestation are the principal risk factors for human dipylidiasis (40).

Other modes of transmission

Though it is considered rare in India, other modes of transmission may include consumption of infected dog meat; for example, toxoplasmosis (caused by *T. gondii*) and trichinellosis (caused by *Trichinella* spp.) may be contracted in this way.

Although the overall significance of direct contact as a route of human exposure to canine parasitic zoonoses is not known, transmission of immediately infective parasite stages (e.g. *Giardia*, *Cryptosporidium* and *Echinococcus*) may occur when petting animals that are contaminated with fresh faecal matter, as may transmission of environmentally transmitted parasites if they adhere to fur, particularly when this is combined with poor animal husbandry and personal hygiene practices.

Risk factors associated with transmission and persistence of canine parasites in India include stray dogs, open defecation and improper faecal disposal, improper meat inspection, and lack of canine deworming and awareness of zoonotic transmission. There are no comprehensive measures in place in India to provide education and knowledge about public health and the factors that contribute to the transmission and public health impact of parasitic zoonoses (71). Lack of proper meat inspection and access of stray dogs to the offal of sheep, goats and pigs, the intermediate hosts of *E. granulosus*, are risk factors for a high occurrence of human CE (36). Defecation in the

open by stray dogs contaminates the environment with eggs of helminths such as Ancylostoma spp., T. canis and E. granulosus, and poses risk to humans living in these areas (72, 73, 74, 75). For example, in Punjab, Toxocara spp. eggs were present in 10% of public and private parks examined (18), and Toxocara spp. eggs were found in 4.16% of soil samples in different sites contaminated with faeces from pet/stray dog populations in Chandigarh (19). In a recent study in a tribal area of Tamil Nadu, eggs of Ancylostoma spp. (A. ceylanicum [60%], A. caninum [29%] and A. braziliense [1%]) were detected in soil (23). Risk factors associated with CLM include low socioeconomic status, improper footwear and sleeping in contaminated environments (76).

Distribution and health implications in humans

Toxocariasis

The populations at greatest risk include children and occupational groups (farm and construction workers, gardeners) with exposure to contaminated soil. Toxocara can result in overt clinical syndromes such as VLM and OLM or covert toxocariasis, manifested as subclinical or non-specific symptoms (e.g. abdominal pain) associated with seropositivity for antibodies to Toxocara. Depending on the location of infection in the body, VLM leads to abdominal pain, cough, fever, itchy skin, difficulty in breathing, persistent eosinophilia, hepatosplenomegaly (77, 78), seizures or behavioural abnormalities (79, 80). Infection in dogs was reported as early as the 1940s (11), but the first human case of VLM was observed in 1993 in India (77). Since then, sporadic cases of VLM have been reported in various parts of India (78, 79, 81, 82, 83). Recently, a rare case of cerebral larva migrans due to Toxocara spp. has also been reported (80). A serological study of human toxocariasis showed a prevalence of 6-23% in northern India (68). The accurate number of cases is not known, suggesting a need for enhanced surveillance and reporting systems.

Redness, watering of the eyes, anterior uveitis, secondary glaucoma, periocular swelling, photophobia and loss of vision are the clinical

manifestations of OLM (84, 85). Ocular toxocariasis has been reported in northern India (86, 87). In addition to *Toxocara*, the nematode *Gnathostoma* can also cause OLM in people, but routes of transmission of these two parasites are different. As definitive hosts of *Gnathostoma*, dogs amplify transmission, but are not a direct source of zoonotic transmission (humans are infected through ingestion of fish or frog intermediate hosts). Only isolated cases of ocular gnathostomiasis have been reported, most of them from the coastal areas of India (84, 87, 88, 89, 90). Access of stray dogs to recreational areas such as beaches should be restricted to avoid contamination and prevent public health risks.

Cutaneous larva migrans and eosinophilic enteritis

The clinical signs of CLM vary from mild dermatitis to creeping eruption, where larvae moving below the skin lead to serpiginous, erythematous and pruritic lesions (73, 74, 75). Although the occurrence of ancylostomiasis is high in dogs, human CLM has been reported only sporadically in India (72, 73, 74, 75). There appears to be no report of A. caninum-induced eosinophilic enteritis, but because the condition has a vague clinical presentation it is likely to be underdiagnosed and under-reported. A study reported in 1972 indicated 9% prevalence (16/183) of A. ceylanicum in people from the outskirts of Calcutta (91). Since morphological differentiation of Ancylostoma spp. eggs in faeces is impossible, it is probable that the latest human studies assumed the species to be A. duodenale (19, 20). A recent PCR-restriction study using semi-nested fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) identified A. ceylanicum in 2 out of 41 children from a tribal community in Tamil Nadu (92).

Dirofilariasis

Humans are exposed to microfilaria through the bite of an infected mosquito. *Dirofilaria repens* mostly causes ocular infections (93, 94) while pulmonary dirofilariasis is mostly caused by *D. immitis* (95). Whereas the parasite is considered to be endemic in southern India (26), sporadic reports are documented from the northern (96), eastern (97) and western regions (95) of the country.

Cystic echinococcosis

Cystic echinococcosis (CE) is endemic in India as the conditions conducive to the establishment, propagation and dissemination of the cestode in both humans and livestock are present. The annual incidence of CE varies from 1 to 200 per 100,000 persons (98). High prevalence is reported from Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Kashmir and Central India (99, 100). The prevalence in urban centres has been consistently decreasing over the past few decades, possibly due to economic development and improved government legislation of abattoirs (101). The predominant genotypes in humans in India are the G1 (sheep strain) and G3 (buffalo strain) genotypes of *E. granulosus* (102).

Dipylidiasis

Although *D. caninum* has been reported all over the world, zoonotic transmission is rare and is largely thought to occur in children who accidently ingest flea intermediate hosts. It is rare in humans in India (103, 104).

Giardiasis

The prevalence in people ranges from 11% in the north (105) to 53.8% in the south (106) of India. In patients with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection, the prevalence of *G. duodenalis* was 8–27% (107, 108). Molecular epidemiological studies are required to determine whether *Giardia* present in humans are acquired from animals, other people or shared contaminated environments.

Leishmaniosis

Visceral leishmaniasis (VL) is prevalent in the hot and humid eastern states, while the drier western parts (such as the Thar Desert) are considered to be endemic for CL (109, 110). A large outbreak of CL occurred in Bikaner in 1973 (111). Further research into the epidemiology, geographical distribution and inter-species interactions of the *Leishmania* parasite is required.

Other rare zoonoses

Only seven cases of theleziasis have been reported (48, 49, 112, 113, 114). Filariasis is endemic in 17 states and 6 Union Territories, with about 553 million people at risk of infection in India, and the government has accorded high priority for elimination of this infection through a mass chemotherapy programme (115). All reported human cases of diphyllobothriasis are from south India, and can be attributed to dietary preferences for fish in that part of the country (116). Although few cases of sparganosis have been reported from India, it should be considered a differential diagnosis because of the serious consequences if appropriate treatment is not initiated promptly (117, 118).

Control measures

Robust surveillance and monitoring programmes for important parasitic zoonoses in pet and stray dogs, as well as in humans, should be launched on a national level. Proper diagnostic techniques are key in such surveillance and monitoring programmes; for example, the inaccuracy of morphological diagnosis of ancylostomiasis based on egg morphology in faecal samples from dogs in India demonstrates the need to add molecular diagnostic tools to existing traditional parasitological techniques (21).

The problem of parasitic zoonoses is highly complex and integrated. Therefore, an integrated multidisciplinary approach is necessary, such as 'One Health', which includes, but is not limited to, medical, veterinary, environmental, ecological, sociological and economic experts, as well as policy makers and engaged communities. Veterinary public health control can decrease prevalence in animals and zoonotic transmission of parasites. Often these control measures, such as restricting the access of stray dogs to condemned carcasses/offal, and prompting animal deworming and meat inspection, are well known, but implementation remains elusive because of a lack of resources, community involvement, regulatory enforcement and/or policy promotion. Within traditional public health, health promotion, by means of school-based programmes including regular physical examinations, human deworming and improving standards of hygiene, plays a cardinal role in prevention and control of disease in people. Such programmes do not exist for companion animal populations. Prevention also involves avoidance of raw or inadequately cooked freshwater fish, frogs, snails, pork and other foods of animal origin, as well as contaminated produce. Proper sewage disposal and treatment of drinking water may also prevent parasite transmission in the community. Educational programmes targeting zoonoses with canine reservoirs are required to raise awareness in the general public, especially in endemic areas and vulnerable populations (such as those living under conditions of low socioeconomic status).

Future challenges

There are some canine zoonotic parasites which are not reported in dogs in India but human cases have been found, highlighting the inadequacy of animal surveillance and reporting. In such cases, people serve as sentinels of parasitic zoonoses instead of, ideally, detecting them in animal reservoirs. For example, no cases of *Trichinella* spp. have been found in dogs in India, but it is likely that they are infected because multiple outbreaks of human trichinellosis have been reported (119). The most important source of human trichinellosis is consumption of infected wild boar or pork, but consumption of dog meat can also lead to human infection (120, 121). In India, dog meat is only eaten by certain communities in the north-eastern states of Mizoram, Nagaland and Manipur, where it is considered to be a delicacy. Improper meat inspection and consumption of dog meat are modifiable risk factors that could be addressed to decrease overall transmission of this parasite.

The occurrence of *Gnathostoma* spp. infection has been reported in wildlife (122, 123), including most recently in a free-ranging tigress in Pench Tiger Reserve, Madhya Pradesh (124). Canine species act as definitive hosts, and further study is needed to determine their role in amplifying and disseminating this parasite in the environment. Given that 10% of dogs within Balipara, a tea estate in Assam, were found to

have *Gnathostoma spinigerum* eggs in their faeces (15), this parasite requires further study.

A weak association has been observed between contact with dogs and the occurrence of cryptosporidiosis (generally manifested as diarrhoea), especially in immunocompromised persons (125, 126, 127). India has a population affected with HIV/AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome) of approximately 1.4–1.6 million people (128). Approximately 45,000 deaths due to diarrhoea occur annually in children aged 5–14 years in India (129). In the current scenario, there is a need for molecular epidemiological studies to determine the role and source of protozoa in immunocompromised and paediatric patients in India.

Conclusion

In order to tackle canine parasitic zoonoses in India, the importance of parasitic infections must be recognised by both physicians and veterinarians. Control of infection in dogs is necessary for prevention in humans. As stray dogs represent a large reservoir of zoonotic canine parasites (along with other zoonoses such as rabies), controlling the stray dog population is important, through methods such as surgical, chemical or hormonal sterilisation and/or municipal bylaws. These are greatly preferable to reactive culling, which provides only a short-term solution to a long-term problem. From a public health viewpoint, the ubiquity of zoonotic parasites in dogs in India warrants an appropriate surveillance programme in combination with population control for stray dogs, deworming of pet dogs, control of vectors, proper meat inspection of food animals and increased general public awareness of the risk factors and control measures for zoonotic parasites.

References

1. Larson G., Karlsson E.K., Perri A., Webster M.T., Ho S.Y., Peters J., Stahl P.W., Piper P.J., Lingaas F., Fredholm M., Comstock K.E., Modiano J.F., Schelling C., Agoulnik A.I., Leegwater P.A., Dobney K., Vigne J.D., Vilà C., Andersson L. & Lindblad-Toh K. (2012). – Rethinking dog domestication by integrating genetics, archeology, and biogeography. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **109** (23), 8878–8883. doi:10.1073/pnas.1203005109.

2. Allen K., Shykoff B.E. & Izzo J.L.J. (2001). – Pet ownership, but not ACE inhibitor therapy, blunts home blood pressure responses to mental stress. *Hypertension*, **38** (4), 815–820. Available at: http://hyper.ahajournals.org/content/38/4/815.long (accessed on 31 January 2017).

3. Kingwell B.A., Lomdahl A. & Anderson W.P. (2001). – Presence of a pet dog and human cardiovascular responses to mild mental stress. *Clin. Auton. Res.*, **11** (5), 313–317. doi:10.1007/BF02332977.

4. Macpherson C.N.L. & Torgerson P.R. (2013). – Chapter 8: Dogs and cestode zoonoses. *In* Dogs, zoonoses and public health, (C.N.L. Macpherson, F.X. Meslin & A.I. Wandeler, eds). CAB International, Wallingford, 127–152. doi:10.1079/9781845938352.0127.

5. Varadharajan A. & Pythal C. (1999). – A preliminary investigation on the parasites of the wild animals at the Zoological Garden, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala. *Zoos Print J.*, **14** (3–12), 159–164. doi:10.11609/JoTT.ZPJ.14.12.159-64.

6. Pradhan S., Sharma D., Subba B. & Chettri V. (2011). – Preliminary investigation on the parasites of mammals at Padmaja Naidu Himalayan Zoological Park, Darjeeling. *Zoos Print J.*, **26** (8), 11–13. Available at: www.zoosprint.org/zooprintmagazine/2011/august/11-13.pdf (accessed on 5 February 2017).

7. Singh B.B., Dhand N.K., Ghatak S. & Gill J.P.S. (2014). – Economic losses due to cystic echinococcosis in India: Need for urgent action to control the disease. *Prev. Vet. Med.*, **113** (1), 1–12. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2013.09.007. 8. Menezes R. (2008). – Rabies in India. *Can. Med. Assoc. J.*, **178** (5), 564–566. doi:10.1503/cmaj.071488.

9. Sudarshan M.K., Mahendra B.J., Madhusudhana S.N., Ashwoath N.D.H., Rahman A., Rao N.S., Meslin F.-X., Lobo D., Ravikumar K. & Gangaboraiah (2006). – An epidemiological study of animal bites in India: results of a WHO sponsored national multicentric rabies survey. *J. Communic. Dis.*, **38** (1), 32–39. Available at: http://ismocd.org/jcd/38_1/s5.pdf (accessed on 31 January 2017).

10. Johnsingh A.J.T. (1985). – Distribution and status of dhole *Cuon alpinus* Pallas, 1811 in South Asia. *Mammalia*, **49** (2), 203–208. doi:10.1515/mamm.1985.49.2.203.

11. Maplestone P.A. & Bhaduri N.V. (1940). – The helminth parasites of dogs in Calcutta and their bearing on human parasitology. *Indian J. Med. Res.*, **28** (2), 595–604. Available at: www.cabdirect.org/cabdirect/abstract/19412900529 (accessed on 31 January 2017).

12. Sreeniwas K. & Mahajan R.C. (1991). – Prevalence of *Toxocara canis* in pet dog population in Chandigarh. *Indian J. Med. Microbiol.*, **9** (1), 29–31. Available at: www.ijmm.org/article.asp?issn=0255-0857;year=1991;volume=9;issue=1;spage=29;epage=31;aulast=Sreeni vas;type=0 (accessed on 31 January 2017).

13. Joshi B.N. & Sabne S.S. (1977). – Incidence of *Toxocara canis* infection in stray dogs in Miraj area. *Ind. J. Pathol. Microbiol.*, 20 (4), 239–242. PMID, 614252.

14. Das S.S., Kumar D., Sreekrishnan R. & Ganesan R. (2009).
– Gastrointestinal parasitic infections in dogs in Puducherry. *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, 23 (1), 77–79. Available at: www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:jvp&volume=23&issue =1&article=018 (accessed on 31 January 2017).

15. Traub R.J., Robertson I.D., Irwin P., Mencke N. & Thompson R.C.A. (2002). – The role of dogs in transmission of

gastrointestinal parasites in a remote tea-growing community in northeastern India. *Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg.*, **67** (5), 539–545. Available at: www.ajtmh.org/content/67/5/539.long (accessed on 31 January 2017).

16. Khante G.S., Khan L.A., Bodkhe A.M., Suryawanshi P.R., Majed M.A., Suradkar U.S. & Gaikwad S.S. (2009). – Epidemiological survey of gastro-intestinal parasites of non-descript dogs in Nagpur city. *Vet. World*, **2** (1), 22–23. doi:10.5455/vetworld.2009.22-23.

17. Nath S., Das G. & Roy B. (2011). – Incidence of gastrointestinal parasitic infection in stray dogs in and around Jabalpur (Madhya Pradesh). *Ind. J. Field. Vets*, **7** (1), 49–51. Available at: www.cabdirect.org/cabdirect/FullTextPDF/2011/20113311028.pdf (accessed on 31 January 2017).

18. Singh H., Bali H.S. & Kaur A. (1997). – Prevalence of *Toxocara* spp. eggs in the soil of public and private places in Ludhiana and Kellon area of Punjab, India. *Épidémiol. Santé Anim.*, 31–32. Available at: www.sciquest.org.nz/elibrary/download/62366/Prevalence_of_Toxoca ra_spp_eggs_in_the_soil_of_pub.pdf (accessed on 31 January 2017).

19. Grover R., Bhatti G., Aggarwal A. & Malla N. (2000). – Isolation of *Toxocara* eggs in and around Chandigarh, India. *J. Parasit. Dis.*, **24** (1), 57–59. Available at: www.cabdirect.org/cabdirect/abstract/20023111634 (accessed on 31 January 2017).

20. Traub R.J., Robertson I.D., Irwin P., Mencke N. & Thompson R.C.A. (2004). – Application of a species-specific PCR-RFLP to identify *Ancylostoma* eggs directly from canine feces. *Vet. Parasitol.*, **123** (3–4), 245–255. doi:10.1016/j.vetpar.2004.05.026.

21. Traub R.J., Hobbs R.P., Adams P.J., Behnke J.M., Harris P.D. & Thompson R.C.A. (2007). – A case of mistaken identity – reappraisal of the species of canid and felid hookworms

(*Ancylostoma*) present in Australia and India. *Parasitol.*, **134** (1), 113–119. doi:10.1017/S0031182006001211.

22. Traub R.J., Pednekar R.P., Cuttell L., Porter R.B., Abd Megat Rani P.A. & Gatne M.L. (2014). – The prevalence and distribution of gastrointestinal parasites of stray and refuge dogs in four locations in India. *Vet. Parasitol.*, **205** (1–2), 233–238. doi:10.1016/j.vetpar.2014.06.037.

23. George S., Levecke B., Kattula D., Velusamy V., Roy S., Geldhof P., Sarkar R. & Kang G. (2016). – molecular identification of hookworm isolates in humans, dogs and soil in a tribal area in Tamil Nadu, India. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.*, **10** (8), e0004891. doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0004891.

24. Sahai B.N. (1969). – A survey of the helminth parasites of stray dogs in and around Bareilly, Uttar Pradesh. *Indian Vet. J.*, **46** (8), 734.

25. Mitra K., Ghosh A., Ghosh G.L., Mitra S., Chaudhuri S. & Biswas G. (1990). – Ancylostomiasis in pet dog – a note. *Indian Vet. Med. J.*, **14** (3), 215–217. Summary available at: www.cabdirect.org/cabdirect/abstract/19920879502 (accessed on 31 January 2017).

26. Sabu L., Devada K. & Subramanian H. (2005). – Dirofilariosis in dogs and humans in Kerala. *Indian J. Med. Res.*, **121** (5), 691–693. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/7805674_Dirofilariosis_in_dogs_h umans_in_Kerala (accessed on 31 January 2017).

27. Rani P.A.M.A., Irwin P.J., Gatne M., Coleman G.T., McInnes L.M. & Traub R.J. (2010). – A survey of canine filarial diseases of veterinary and public health significance in India. *Parasit Vectors*, **3**, 30. doi:10.1186/1756-3305-3-30.

28. Chakravarty A. & Chaudhuri M.N. (1983). – Studies on canine filariasis in West Bengal. *Indian J. Anim. Hlth*, **22**, 151–155.

29. Patnaik M.M. (1989). – On filarial nematodes in domestic animals in Orissa. *Indian Vet. J.*, **66**, 573–574.

30. Borthakur S.K., Sarmah K., Rajkhowa T.K., Das M.R. & Rahman S. (2006). – *Dirofilaria immitis* infection in dog. *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **20**, 167–169. Available at: http://citeweb.info/20060531118 (accessed on 5 February 2017).

31. Ananda K.J., D'Souza P.E. & Jagannath M.S. (2006). – Methods for identification of microfilaria of *Dirofilaria repens* and *Dipetalonema reconditum. J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **20** (1), 45–47. Available at:

www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:jvp&volume=20&issue =1&article=010 (accessed on 5 February 2017).

32. Singh B.P. & Dhar D.N. (1988). – *Echinococcus granulosus* in animals in northern India. *Vet. Parasitol.*, **28** (3), 261–266. Available at: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/labs/articles/3388744/ (accessed on 5 February 2017). doi:10.1016/0304-4017(88)90113-6.

33. Rana U.V., Sehgal S., Bhatia R. & Bhardwaj M. (1986). – Hydatidosis in animals in and around Delhi. *J. Communic. Dis.*, **18**, 116–119.

34. Ananda K.L., D'Souza P.E. & Prathiush P.R. (2008). – Diagnosis of *Echinococcus granulosus* infection in dogs by latex agglutination test. *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **22** (2), 57–58. Available at: www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:jvp&volume=22&issue =2&article=014 (accessed on 6 February 2017).

35. Rema Prathiush P., D'souza P.E., Javare Gowda A.K. & D'Souza P.E. (2008). – Diagnosis of *Echinococcus granulosus* infection in dogs by a coproantigen sandwich ELISA. *Vet. Arhiv*, **78** (4), 297–305. doi:10.1.1.334.6303. Available at: www-staro.vef.unizg.hr/vetarhiv/papers/2008-78-4-4.pdf (accessed on 6 February 2017).

36. Singh B.B. (2011). – PhD Thesis, Guru Angad Dev. Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Ludhiana.

37. Bhatia B.B., Chauhan P.P.S., Agrawal R.D. & Katara R.P. (1980). – Incidence of parasitic infections amongst stray dogs in Mathura, Uttar Pradesh. *Vet. Res. J.*, **3** (2), 120–123.

38. Agnihotri R.K., Sharma D. & Sharma Y. (2008). – Incidence of gastrointestinal helminths in dogs of Himachal Pradesh. *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **22** (1), 67–68. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/290278692_Incidence_of_gastroint estinal_helminths_in_dogs_of_Himachal_Pradesh (accessed on 25 February 2017).

39. Qadir S., Dixit A.K., Dixit P. & Sharma R.L. (2011). – Intestinal helminths induce haematological changes in dogs from Jabalpur, India. *J. Helminthol.*, **85** (4), 401–403. doi:10.1017/S0022149X10000726.

40. Devi S., Deka D.K., Neog R., Islam S., Upadhyaya T.N. & Das M. (2011). – *Dipylidium caninum* in dogs and screening of fleas as possible vectors in Greater Guwahati *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **25** (1), 76– 78. Available at: www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:jvp&volume=25&issue =1&article=017. (accessed on 25 February 2017).

41. Singh H., Jyoti, Haque M., Singh N.K. & Rath S.S. (2011). – Prevalence of canine parasitic infections in and around Ludhiana, Punjab. *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **25** (2),179–181. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/259357503_Prevalence_of_canine_ parasitic_infections_in_and_around_Ludhiana_Punjab (accessed on 25 February 2017).

42. Traub R.J., Robertson I.D., Irwin P., Mencke N., Monis P. & Thompson R.C. (2003). – Humans, dogs and parasitic zoonoses unravelling the relationships in a remote endemic community in northeast India using molecular tools. *Parasitol. Res.*, **90** (Suppl. 3), S156–157. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/10605253_Humans_dogs_and_para sitic_zoonoses_-

_Unravelling_the_relationships_in_a_remote_endemic_community_in

_Northeast_India_using_molecular_tools (accessed on 25 February 2017). doi:10.1007/s00436-003-0925-3.

43. Sharma N.L., Mahajan V.K., Negi A.K. & Verma G.K. (2009). – The rK39 immunochromatic dipstick testing: a study for K39 seroprevalence in dogs and human leishmaniasis patients for possible animal reservoir of cutaneous and visceral leishmaniasis in endemic focus of Satluj river valley of Himachal Pradesh (India). *Indian. J. Dermatol. Venereol. Leprol.*, **75** (1), 52–55. Available at: www.bioline.org.br/pdf?dv09012 (accessed on 25 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0378-6323.45221.

44. Sharma M.I.D., Suri J.C., Kalra N.L. & Mohan K. (1973). – Studies on cutaneous leishmaniasis in India III. Detection of a zoonotic focus of cutaneous Lleishmaniasis in Rajasthan. *J. Communic. Dis.*, **5**, 149–153.

45. Sharma N.L., Mahajan V.K. & Negi A.K. (2005). – Epidemiology of a new focus of localized cutaneous leishmaniasis in Himachal Pradesh. *J. Communic. Dis.*, **37** (4), 275–279. Available at: www.academia.edu/17524013/Epidemiology_of_a_new_focus_of_loc alized_cutaneous_leishmaniasis_in_Himachal_Pradesh (accessed on 25 February 2017).

46. Bharathi M.V., Kandavel E., Nedunchelliyan S., Muralimanohar B. & Kumanan K. (2011). – Prevalence of *Toxoplasma* antibodies by using modified direct agglutination test in dogs in Chennai. *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **25** (2), 162–164. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/235763590_Prevalence_of_Toxopl asma_antibodies_by_using_modified_direct_agglutinationtest_in_dog s_in_Chennai (accessed on 25 February 2017).

47. Chhabra M.B., Gupta S.L. & Gautam O.P. (1985). – *Toxoplasma* seroprevalence in animals in northern India. *Int. J. Zoonoses*, **12** (2), 136–142. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/19085569_Toxoplasma_seropreval ence_in_animals_in_northern_India (accessed on 25 February 2017). 48. Joseph A. (1980). – *Kerala Med. Jour.*, **21**, 109. (Cited in reference [49]).

49. Joseph A. & Joseph A. (1985). – Ocular thelaziasis. *Ind. J. Ophthalmol.*, **33**, 113–114. Available at: www.ijo.in/article.asp?issn=0301-4738;year=1985;volume=33;issue=2;spage=113;epage=114;aulast=Jo seph#ft3 (accessed on 25 February 2017).

50. Bindu L., Lucy S., Reghu R., Tessy M., Anoop S. & Subramanian H. (2011). – Canine ocular thelaziosis in Kerala. *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **25** (1), 86–87. Available at: www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:jvp&volume=25&issue =1&article=021 (accessed on 25 February 2017).

51. Ambily V.R., Pillai U.N., Arun R., Pramod S. & Jayakumar K.M. (2011). – Detection of human filarial parasite *Brugia malayi* in dogs by histochemical staining and molecular techniques. *Vet. Parasitol.*, **181** (2–4), 210–214. doi:10.1016/j.vetpar.2011.04.041.

52. Mamatha G.S., D'Souza P.E. & Bhat M.N. (2005). – Gastrointestinal parasitism in dogs and cats in Bangalore. *Intas Polivet*, **6** (2), 152–153.

53. Pal M.G., Chakrabarti, Pramanik A.K., Pradhan K.K. & Chatterji A. (1981). – Spirometrid tapeworm in a mongrel dog. *Indian J. Anim. Hlth*, **20**, 71–72.

54. Saleque A., Juyal P.D. & Bhatia B.B. (1990). – *Spirometra* sp. in a domestic cat in India. *Vet. Parasitol.*, **35** (3), 273–276. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/20811630_Spirometra_sp_in_a_do mestic_cat_in_India (accessed on 25 February 2017). doi:10.1016/0304-4017(90)90062-G.

55. Kumar N., Aithal H.P. & Gupta, S.C. (2004) – Sparganosis in dog: a rare case report. *Vet. Practitioner.*, **5** (1) 55-56.

56. Imkongwapang R. & Lal P. (2012). – Worms in frogs of Nagaland. *Nagaland Post*. Available at: www.nagalandpost.com Accessed on 3.11.2012.

57. Sen H.G. (1965). – *Heterophyes heterophyes* from a dog in the Western part of India. *Trans. Roy. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg.*, **59** (5) 610. doi:10.1016/0035-9203(65)90166-5.

58. Saini N., Ranjan R., Singla L.D., Anand. A. & Randhawa C.S. (2012). – Successful treatment of pulmonary paragonimiasis in a German shepherd dog with fenbendazole. *J. Parasit. Dis.*, **36**, 171–174. doi:10.1007/s12639-012-0098-z.

59. Gawande P., Baviskar B., Umale N., Gandhe A., Baviskar P., Bawaskar S. & Maske D.K. (2010). – Survey of gastrointestinal helminths in captive mammals and birds at Maharajbagh zoo, Nagpur. *Zoos Print J.*, **25** (4), 25–26.

60. Shirbhate M.V. (2006). – Predator–prey relationship and parasitic infections in wild animals from Melghat (Satpuda). Ph.D. Thesis, Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University, Amravati.

61. Varadharajan A. & Kandasamy A. (2000). – A survey of gastro intestinal parasites of wild animals in captivity in the V.O.C park and mini zoo, Coimbatore. *Zoos Print J.*, **15** (5), 257–258. Available at: www.zoosprint.org/ZooPrintJournal/2000/May/257-258.pdf (accessed on 25 February 2017).

62. Patel P.V., Patel A.I., Sabapara R.H., Sahu R.K. & Vyas R.
(2003). – Helminthic infection in wild canids in zoological gardens of Gujarat. Zoos Print J., 18 (4), 1084.
doi:10.11609/JoTT.ZPJ.18.4.1084

63. Ghoke S.S., Naikwade B.S., Thorat K.S., Jogdand N.K. & Kalaskar P.S. (2012). – Incidence of helminthic infection in captive carnivores of Sidhharth Municipal Zoo, Aurangabad, Maharashtra. *Zoos Print J.*, **27** (3), 25.

64. Latchumikanthan A., Vimalraj P.G., Gomathinayagam S. & Jayathangaraj M.G. (2012). – Concurrent infection of *Nanophyetus* (*Troglotrema*) salmincola, Ancylostoma sp. and Isospora sp. in a captive jackal (*Canis aureus*) J. Vet. Parasitol., **26** (1), 87–88. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/264847267_Concurrent_infection_

of_Nanophyetus_Troglotrema_salmincola_Ancylostoma_sp_and_Isos pora_sp_in_a_captive_jackal_Canis_aureus (accessed on 25 February 2017).

65. Rao A.T. & Acharjyo L.N. (1993). – Incidence of heart worms in captive wild carnivores. *Indian J. Parasitol.*, **17**, 201–202.

66. Rao A.T., Nayak B.C. & Acharjyo L.N. (1972). – Histopathology of intestinal lesions due to *Echinococcus granulosus* in an Indian wolf (*Canis lupus*). *Indian Vet. J.*, **49** (2), 199–200.

67. Shrikhande G.B., Satpute A.K., Zanzad S.S. & Maske D.K. (2008). – Helminth parasites in captive wild animals of Rajiv Gandhi Zoological Park. *Vet. World*, **1** (7), 207. Available at: www.veterinaryworld.org/2008/July/Helminth%20Parasites%20in%2 0Captive%20Wild%20Animals%20of.pdf (accessed on 25 February 2017).

68. Malla N., Aggarwal A.K. & Mahajan R.C. (2002). – A serological study of human toxocariasis in north India. *Natl Med. J. India*, **15** (3), 145–147. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/11201875_A_serological_study_of _human_toxocariasis_in_North_India (accessed on 25 February 2017).

69. Rao S.S., Mehra B. & Narang R. (2012). – The spectrum of hydatid disease in rural central India: An 11-year experience. *Ann. Trop. Med. Public. Hlth.*, **5**, 225–0. Available at: www.atmph.org/article.asp?issn=1755-

6783;year=2012;volume=5;issue=3;spage=225;epage=230;aulast=Rao (accessed on 25 February 2017). doi:10.4103/1755-6783.98624.

70. Singh B.B., Sharma R., Gill J.P.S., Aulakh R.S. & Banga H.S. (2011). – Climate change, zoonoses and India. *Rev. Sci. Tech. Off. Int. Epiz.*, **30** (3), 779–788. doi:10.20506/rst.30.3.2073.

71. Dar Z.A., Tanveer S., Yattoo G.N., Sofi B.A., Wani S.A., Dar P.A. & Fomda B.A. (2008). – Seroprevalence of toxocariasis in children in Kashmir, J&K State, India. *Iranian. J. Parasitol.*, **3** (4), 45–50. Available at: http://ijpa.tums.ac.ir/index.php/ijpa/article/view/79 (accessed on 25 February 2017).

72. Mehta V. & Shenoi S.D. (2004). – Extensive larva migrans. *Ind. J. Dermatol. Venereol. Leprol.*, **70**, 373–374. Available at: https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream/1807/3842/1/dv04128.pdf (accessed on 26 February 2017).

73. Malhotra S.K., Rakesh T.R., Pal M., Goyal V. & Sethi S.
(2006). – Cutaneous larva migrans in an unusual site. *Dermatol. Online* J., 12 (2), 11. Available at: http://escholarship.org/uc/item/2fb6q1ck (accessed on 27 February 2017).

74. Padmavathy L. & Rao L.L. (2005). – Cutaneus larva migrans – a case report. *Indian J. Med. Microbiol.*, **23** (2), 135–136. Available at: www.ijmm.org/article.asp?issn=0255-0857;year=2005;volume=23;issue=2;spage=135;epage=136;aulast=Pa dmavathy (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0255-0857.16057.

75. Gutte R. & Khopkar U. (2011). – Cutaneus larva migrans (Ccreeping eruptions). *Ind. Dermatol. Online J.*, **2** (1), 48. Available at: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3481789/ (accessed on 27 February 2017).

76. Traub R.J., Robertson I.D., Irwin P.J., Mencke N. & Thompson R.C. (2005). – Canine gastrointestinal parasitic zoonoses in India. *Trends Parasitol.*, **21** (1),42–48. doi:10.1016/j.pt.2004.10.011.

77. Sarda A.K., Kannan R., Sharma D.K., Mahajan V., Goel A. & Uma K. (1993). – Visceral larva migrans. *J. Postgrad. Med.*, **39** (3), 155–157. Available at: http://jpgmonline.com/article.asp?issn=0022-3859;year=1993;volume=39;issue=3;spage=155;epage=7;aulast=Sard a (accessed on 27 February 2017).

78. Bhatia V. & Sarin S.K. (1994). – Hepatic visceral larva migrans: evolution of the lesion, diagnosis, and role of high-dose albendazole therapy. *Am. J. Gastroenterol.*, **89** (4), 624–627.

79. Moiyadi A., Mahadevan A., Anandh B., Shivashankar R.S., Chickabasavaiah Y.T. & Shankar S.K. (2007). – Visceral larva migrans presenting as multiple intracranial and intraspinal abscesses. *Neuropathology*, **27** (4), 371–374. doi:10.1111/j.1440-1789.2007.00775.x. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/5944427_Visceral_larva_migrans_ presenting_as_multiple_intracranial_and_intraspinal_abscesses (accessed on 27 February 2017).

80. Jagannath P.M., Venkataramana N.K., Rao S.A.V., Naik A.L., Shivakumar S.K., Saktepar A., Gopalakrishnan R. & Shankar S.K. (2009). – Recurrent cerebral larva migrans: A case report and review of literature. *J. Pediatric Neurosci.*, **4** (1), 36–40. doi:10.4103/1817-1745.49107. Available at: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3162836/ (accessed on 27 February 2017).

81. Jain R., Sawhney S., Bhargava D.K., Panda S.K. & Berry M. (1994). – Hepatic granulomas due to visceral larva migrans in adults: appearance on US and MRI. *Abdom. Imaging*, **19**, 253–256. doi:10.1007/BF00203520.

82. Mukund A., Arora A., Patidar Y., Mangla V., Bihari C., Rastogi A. & Sarin S.K. (2013). – Eosinophilic abscesses: a new facet of hepatic visceral larva migrans. *Abdom. Imaging*, **38** (4), 774–777. doi:10.1007/s00261-012-9935-x.

83. Thakkar P.A., Dahat A., Shukla O. & Javadekar B. (2012).
An interesting case of visceral larva migrans (VLM). *Int. J. Med. Sci. Public. Health*, 1 (2), 101–104. doi:10.5455/ijmsph.2012.1.101-104.

84. Basak S.K., Sinha T.K., Bhattacharya D., Hazra T.K. & Parikh S. (2004). – Intravitreal live *Gnathostoma spinigerum*. *Ind. J. Ophthalmol.*, **52**, 57–58. Available at: www.ijo.in/article.asp?issn=0301-

4738;year=2004;volume=52;issue=1;spage=57;epage=58;aulast=Basa k (accessed on 27 February 2017).

85. Barua P., Hazarika N.K., Barua N., Barua C.K. & Choudhury B. (2007). – Gnathostomiasis of the anterior chamber. *Indian. J. Med. Microbiol.*, **25**, 276–278. Available at: www.ijmm.org/article.asp?issn=0255-

0857;year=2007;volume=25;issue=3;spage=276;epage=278;aulast=Ba rua (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0255-0857.34775.

86. Mirdha B.R. & Khokar S.K. (2002). – Ocular toxocariasis in a North Indian population. *J. Trop. Pediatrics*, **48** (6), 328–330. doi:10.1093/tropej/48.6.328.

87. Fomda B.A., Ahmad Z., Khan N.N., Tanveer S. & Wani S.A. (2007). – Ocular toxocariasis in a child: A case report from Kashmir, north India. *Indian J. Med. Microbiol.*, **25** (4), 411–412. Available at: www.ijmm.org/article.asp?issn=0255-0857;year=2007;volume=25;issue=4;spage=411;epage=412;aulast=Fo mda (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0255-0857.37352.

88. Kannan K.A., Vasantha K. & Venugopal M. (1999). – Intraocular gnathostomiasis. *Ind. J. Ophthalmol.*, **47**, 252–253. Available at: www.ijo.in/article.asp?issn=0301-4738;year=1999;volume=47;issue=4;spage=252;epage=253;aulast=K annan (accessed on 27 February 2017).

89. Bhende M., Biswas J. & Gopal L. (2005). – Ultrasound biomicroscopy in the diagnosis and management of intraocular

gnathostomiasis. *Am. J. Ophthalmol.*, **140**, 140–142. doi:10.1016/j.ajo.2004.12.031.

90. Bhattacharjee H., Das D. & Medhi J. (2007). – Intravitreal gnathostomiasis and review of literature. *Retina*, **27**, 67–73. doi:10.1097/01.iae.0000224943.98423.e3.

91. Chowdhury A.B. & Schad G.A. (1972). – *Ancylostoma ceylanicum*: a parasite of man in Calcutta and environs. *Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg.*, **21**, 300–301. Available at: www.ajtmh.org/docserver/fulltext/14761645/21/3/TM0210030300.pdf ?expires=1488245139&id=id&accname=11576&checksum=D77463 A5C735733001DB0D4B72AC125E (accessed on 27 February 2017).

92. George S., Kaliappan S.P., Kattula D., Roy S., Geldhof P., Kang G., Vercruysse J. & Levecke B. (2015). – Identification of *Ancylostoma ceylanicum* in children from a tribal community in Tamil Nadu, India using a semi-nested PCR-RFLP tool. *Trans. Roy. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg.*, **109** (4), 283–285. doi:10.1093/trstmh/trv001.

93. Sathyan P., Manikandan P., Bhaskar M., Padma S., Singh G. & Appalaraju B. (2006). – Subtenons infection by *Dirofilaria repens. Indian J. Med. Microbiol.*, **24** (1), 61–62. Available at: www.ijmm.org/article.asp?issn=0255-

0857;year=2006;volume=24;issue=1;spage=61;epage=62;aulast=Sath yan (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0255-0857.19899.

94. Nath R., Gogoi R., Bordoloi N. & Gogoi T. (2010). – Ocular dirofilariasis. *Indian J. Pathol. Microbiol.*, **53** (1), 157–159. doi:10.4103/0377-4929.59213.

95. Badhe B.P. & Sane S.Y. (1989). – Human pulmonary dirofilariasis in India: a case report. *J. Trop. Med. Hyg.*, **92** (6), 425– 426. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/20547792_Human_pulmonary_diro filariasis_in_India_A_case_report (accessed on 27 February 2017). 96. Gautam V., Rustagi I.M., Singh S. & Arora D.R. (2002). – Subconjunctival infection with *Dirofilaria repens. Jpn. J. Infect. Dis.*, **55**, 47–48.

97. Singh R., Shwetha J.V., Samantaray J.C. & Bando G. (2010). – Dirofilariasis: A rare case report. *Indian J. Med. Microbiol.*, **28** (1), 75–77. Available at: http://medind.nic.in/iau/t10/i1/iaut10i1p75.htm (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0255-0857.58739.

98. Parija SC. (2004). – A textbook of medical parasitology. All India Publishers and Distributors, Madras, 220–229.

99. Nepalia S., Joshi A., Shende A. & Sharma S.S. (2006). – Management of echinococcosis. J. Assoc. Physicians India, 54, 452– 456.

100. Akhter J., Khanam N. & Rao S. (2011). – Clinico epidemiological profile of hydatid diseases in central India, a retrospective and prospective study. *Int. J. Biol. Med. Res.*, **2** (3), 603– 606. Available at: www.biomedscidirect.com/journalfiles/IJBMRF2011171/clinico_epid emiological_profile_of_hydatid_diseases_in_central_india_a_retrospe ctive_prospective_study.pdf (accessed on 27 February 2017).

101. Pednekar R.P., Gatne M.L., Thompson R.C.A. & Traub
R.J. (2009). – Molecular and morphological characterisation of *Echinococcus* from food producing animals in India. *Vet. Parasitol.*, 165, 58–65. doi:10.1016/j.vetpar.2009.06.021.

102. Sharma M., Sehgal R., Fomda B.A., Malhotra A. & Malla N. (2013). – Molecular characterization of *Echinococcus granulosus* cysts in north Indian patients: identification of G1, G3, G5 and G6 genotypes. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.*, **7** (6), e2262. doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0002262.

103. Reddy S.B. (1982). – Infestation of a five-month-old infant with *Dipylidium caninum*. *Del. Med. J.*, **54**, 455.

104. Gadre D.V., Kumar A. & Mathur M. (1993). – Infection by *Dipylidium caninum* through pet cats. *Indian J. Pediatr.*, **60** (1), 151–152.

105. Kaur R., Rawat D., Kakkar M., Uppal B. & Sharma V.K. (2002). – Intestinal parasites in children with diarrhea in Delhi, India. *Southeast Asian J. Trop. Med. Public Hlth*, **33** (4), 725–729. Available at: www.tm.mahidol.ac.th/seameo/2002_33_4/11-2967.pdf (accessed on 27 February 2017).

106. Shenoy S., Urs S., Prabhu G., Mathew B., Antony G. & Bharati B. (1998). – Giardiasis in the adult population of Dakshina Kannada district of south India. *Trop. Doctor*, **28** (1), 40–42. doi:10.1177/004947559802800111.

107. Mohandas K., Sehgal R., Sud A. & Malla N. (2002). – Prevalence of intestinal parasitic pathogens in HIV-seropositive individuals in northern India. *Jpn. J. Infect. Dis.*, **55**, 83–84.

108. Deorukhkar S., Katiyar R., Saini S. & Siddiqui A. (2011). – The prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections in HIV infected patients in a rural tertiary care hospital of western Maharashtra (a 5 year study). *J. Clin. Diagn. Res.*, **5** (2), 210–212. Available at: www.jcdr.net/articles/PDF/1139/1685_9_4_11.pdf (accessed on 27 February 2017).

109. Chatterjee K.D. (1980). – Phylum Protozoa, Sub-phylum Plasmodroma, Class Zoomastigophora. *In* Parasitology (protozoology and helminthology) in relation to clinical medicine. Chatterjee Medical Publishers, Calcutta, 54–69.

110. Bari A. & Rahman S. (2006). – Correlation of clinical, histopathological & microbiological findings in 60 cases of cutaneous leishmaniasis. *Ind. J. Dermatol. Venereol. Leprol.*, **72**, 28–32. Available at: www.ijdvl.com/article.asp?issn=0378-6323;year=2006;volume=72;issue=1;spage=28;epage=32;aulast=Bari (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0378-6323.19714.

111. Mohan K. & Suri J.C. (1975). – Studies on cutaneous leishmaniasis in India V. Isolation of *Leishmania tropica* from gerbils, sandflies and human. *J. Communic. Dis.*, **7**, 353–357.

112. Mahanta J., Alger J. & Bordoloi P. (1996). – Eye infestation with *Thelazia* species. *Ind. J. Ophthalmol.*, **44**, 99–101. Available at: www.ijo.in/article.asp?issn=0301-4738;year=1996;volume=44;issue=2;spage=99;epage=101;aulast=Ma hanta (accessed on 27 February 2017).

113. Nath R., Narain K., Saikia L., Pujari B.S., Thakuria B. & Mahanta J. (2008). – Ocular thelaziasis in Assam: A report of two cases. *Ind. J. Pathol. Microbiol.*, **51**, 146–148. Available at: www.ijpmonline.org/article.asp?issn=0377-

4929;year=2008;volume=51;issue=1;spage=146;epage=148;aulast=N ath (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0377-4929.40430.

114. Sharma A., Pandey M., Sharma V., Kanga A & Gupta M.L. (2006). – A case of human thelaziasis from Himachal Pradesh, India. *J. Med. Microbiol.*, **24**, 67–69. Available at: www.ijmm.org/article.asp?issn=0255-

0857;year=2006;volume=24;issue=1;spage=67;epage=69;aulast=Shar ma (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0255-0857.19902.

115. Raju K., Jambulingam P., Sabesan S. & Vanamail P. (2010). – Lymphatic filariasis in India: epidemiology and control measures. *J. Postgrad. Med.*, **56** (3), 232–238. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/45952053_Lymphatic_filariasis_in _India_Epidemiology_and_control_measures (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0022-3859.68650.

116. Devi C.S., Srinivasan S., Murmu U.C., Barman P. & Kanungo R. (2007). – A rare case of diphyllobothriasis from Pondicherry, South India. *Indian J. Med. Microbiol.*, **25**, 152–154. Available at: www.ijmm.org/article.asp?issn=0255-0857;year=2007;volume=25;issue=2;spage=152;epage=154;aulast=Sh eela (accessed on 27 February 2017).

117. Sundaram C., Prasad V.S.S.V. & Reddy J.J.M. (2003). – Cerebral sparganosis. *J. Assoc. Physicians India*, **51**, 1107–1109. Available at: www.japi.org/november2003/CR-1107.pdf (accessed on 27 February 2017).

118. Duggal S., Mahajan R.K., Duggal N. & Hans C. (2011). –
Case of sparganosis: A diagnostic dilemma. *Indian J. Med. Microbiol.*, **29** (2), 183–186. Available at: www.ijmm.org/article.asp?issn=0255-

0857;year=2011;volume=29;issue=2;spage=183;epage=186;aulast=D uggal (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.4103/0255-0857.81789.

119. Sethi B., Butola K.S., Kumar Y. & Mishra J.P. (2012). – Multiple outbreaks of trichinellosis with high mortality rate. *Trop. Doctor*, **42** (4), 243. doi:10.1258/td.2012.12001E.

120. Liu M. & Boireau P. (2002). – Trichinellosis in China: epidemiology and control. *Trends Parasitol.*, **18**, 553–556. doi:10.1016/S1471-4922(02)02401-7.

121. Liu M.Y. (2005). – Trichinellosis in China and the updates on research advances. *Meat Hyg.*, **6**, 14–16.

122. Arora B.M. & Prasad S.A. (1989). – Ganthostomiasis in a tiger (*Panthera tigris*). *Indian J. Vet. Pathol.*, **13**, 106–107.

123. Thilakan N.J., Selvaraj J., Senthil K.S., Jaya T.M.G. & Jhon L. (2007). – Concurrent infection of *Gnathostoma spinigerum* and *Ancylostoma braziliense* in tigress. *J. Vet. Parasitol.*, **21** (2), 191– 192. Available at: www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:jvp&volume=21&issue =2&article=027 (accessed on 27 February 2017).

124. Shrivastav A.B., Singh K.P., Bhat A.M. & Mishra A. (2011). – Occurrence of *Gnathostoma spinigerum* in free range tigress. *J. Parasit. Dis.*, **35** (1), 75–76. Available at: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3114972/ (accessed on 27 February 2017). doi:10.1007/s12639-011-0029-4.

125. Molbak K., Aaby P., Hojlyng N. & da Silva A.P. (1994). – Risk factors for *Cryptosporidium* diarrhea in early childhood: a case– control study from Guinea-Bissau, West Africa. *Am. J. Epidemiol.*, **139**, 734–740. doi:10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a117064.

126. Glaser C.A., Safrin S., Reingold A. & Newman T.B. (1998). – Association between *Cryptosporidium* infection and animal exposure in HIV-infected individuals. *J. Acq. Immune Defic. Synd. Hum. Retrovirol.*, **17**, 79–82. doi:10.1097/00042560-199801010-00012.

127. Katsumata T., Hosea D., Wasito E.B., Kohno S., Hara K., Soeparto P. & Ranuh I.G. (1998). – Cryptosporidiosis in Indonesia: a hospital-based study and a community-based survey. *Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg.*, **59**, 628–632. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/13496830_Cryptosporidiosis_in_In donesia_A_hospital-based_study_and_a_community-_based_survey (accessed on 27 February 2017).

128. Jha P., Kumar R., Khera A., Bhattacharya M., Arora P., Gajalakshmi V., Bhatia P., Kam D., Bassani D.G., Sullivan A., Suraweera W., McLaughlin C. & Dhingra N. (2010). – HIV mortality and infection in India: estimates from nationally representative mortality survey of 1.1 million homes. *Br. Med. J.*, **23**, 340. doi:10.1136/bmj.c621.

129. Morris S.K., Bridge M., Subbarao P., Yau Y., Parkin P., Allan U. & Tran D. (2010). – Diarrhea mortality in children aged 5 to 14 years in India. Abstract. Infectious Diseases Society of America. Available at:

https://idsa.confex.com/idsa/2010/webprogram/Paper2287.html (accessed on 2 March 2017).

Table IOccurrence of zoonotic parasites in wild canids in India

Parasite	Wild canid hosts	Place	Reference
<i>Toxocara</i> sp.	Wild dog	Satpuda	60
	Jackal	Darjeeling	6
<i>Ancylostoma</i> sp.	Jackal	Kerala	5
	Jackal	Tamil Nadu	61
	Golden jackal, Indian fox, wolf	Gujarat	62
	Jackal	Maharashtra	63
	Jackal	Tamil Nadu	64
<i>Dirofilaria</i> sp.	Indian fox, wolf, jackal & wild dog	Orissa	65
Echinococcus granulosus	Indian wolf	Orissa	66
<i>Dipylidium</i> sp.	Golden jackal, Indian fox, wolf	Gujarat	62
	Wild dog	Satpuda	60
<i>Diphyllobothrium</i> sp.	Wild dog	Satpuda	60
	Jackal	Nagpur	59
	Fox	Maharashtra	63
<i>Paragonimus</i> sp.	Wild dog	Satpuda	60
	Wolf	Nagpur	67
<i>Spirometra</i> sp.	Wild dog	Satpuda	60

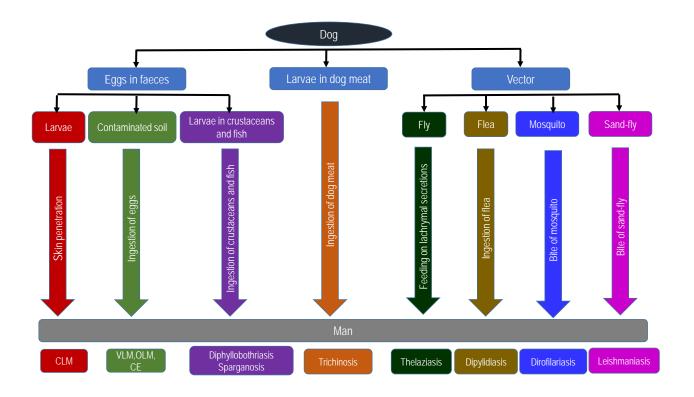


Fig. 1 Transmission of canine zoonotic parasites

- CE: cystic echinococcosis
- CLM: cutaneous larva migrans
- OLM: ocular larva migrans
- VLM: visceral larva migrans