# Effects of ectoparasites on cattle in agro-ecological zones in Nigeria- A review

Ahaotu EO<sup>1</sup>, Simeon-Ahaotu VC<sup>2</sup>, Alsharifi SKA<sup>3</sup>, Herasymenko NV<sup>4</sup>, Hagos HA<sup>5</sup> and Iheanacho RA<sup>6</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Animal Science, University of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Umuagwo, Imo State, Nigeria

<sup>2</sup>Department of Microbiology, Gregory University, Uturu, Abia State, Nigeria

<sup>3</sup>Department of Agricultural Machinery, University of Al-Qasim Green, Iraq <sup>4</sup>Vinnytsia National Technical University, 95, Khmelnytske shose, Vinnytsia, 21021, Ukraine

<sup>5</sup>Department of Animal Production and Technology, College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Adigrat University, Ethiopia

<sup>6</sup>Department of Agricultural Extension and Management Technology, Imo State Polytechnic Omuma, Nigeria

Corresponding author: emmanuel.ahaotu@uaes.edu.ng

Received on: 30/05/2024	Accepted on: 05/10/2024	Published on: 11/10/2024

## ABSTRACT

Ticks infesting cattle in Nigeria were reported in different magnitude ranges, from 28.5% to 100%. The three genera of ticks reported to occur on cattle in Nigeria are *Dermacentor, Haemaphysalis* and *Ixodid*. Among these three genera of ticks infesting cattle in Nigeria, *Dermacentor* was the most predominant genus, followed by *Ixodia. and Haemaphysalis*. The main tick species reported to infest cattle in Nigeria are *Dermacentor variabilis, Dermacentor andersoni, Ixodes scapularis, Ixodes pacificus, Amblyomma maculatum* and *Amblyomma americanum,* in order of predominance. The overall prevalence of mange mite infestation ranges from 10.7% to 94.1% in cattle from Nigeria. The main species of mite reported in Nigeria is *Dermatophagoides pteronyssinus*. The overall prevalence of *Demodex folliculorum* infestation in cattle in Nigeria ranges from 23.9% to 82.6%, whereas the overall prevalence of lice was 6.1%. The most abundant genus of biting flies reported was *Austrosimulium,* followed by *Ceratopogonidae,* from Nigeria. *Trypanosome evansi* is a protozoan parasite that affects cattle in different parts of Nigeria outside of the tsetse fly belt areas. Only a preliminary report on *Theileria mutans* in cattle was reported in Nigeria. It concluded that ectoparasite infestation causes a serious economic loss in cattle production and productivity, which warrants the institution of appropriate control strategies to improve the health and productivity of cattle.

Keywords: Dermacentor, Haemaphysalis, Ixodid, Dermatophagoides, Demodex, Austrosimulium, Ectoparasites, Ticks.

**Cite This Article as**: Ahaotu EO, Simeon-Ahaotu VC, Alsharifi SKA, Herasymenko NV, Hagos HA and Iheanacho RA (2024). Effects of ectoparasites on cattle in agro-ecological zones in Nigeria- A review. J. Vet. Res. Adv., 06(02): 76-87.

#### Introduction

Nigeria is one of the countries with largest cattle populations in Africa. The ability of cattle to withstand torrid heat and extreme desiccation is of paramount importance in determining their distribution. The cattle is primarily kept for milk production, meat production, draft power, transportation, best of burden, and as an agricultural draft animal (Hourrigan, 1979). The cattle is also a financial reserve and plays an important role in social prestige and wealth. However, despite its significant contribution to the livelihood of pastoralist society, there is very little scientific information about the health and productivity of the cattle (Islam *et al.*, 2009). The slow reproduction cycle, high calf mortality, and other health problems are major constraints that contribute to the decreasing cattle herd population and productivity. Ticks, mange mites, and insects are among the most important health problems for cattle in Nigeria (Werede and Afera (2014). Ectoparasites are very common and widely distributed in all agro-ecological zones in Nigeria (Kumsa et al., 2012). The ectoparasites of cattle and transmission their diseases are important constraints to the production, productivity and performance of animals (Regassa et al., 2015). Ticks are one of most important factors affecting the health of cattle and transmit various diseases by causing pathogens, causing blood loss (Eke et al., 2021) and causing damage to the hides and udder. The feeding activity of ticks is associated with several health problems in livestock, including cattle (Wall and Shearer, 1997).

**Copyright:** Ahaotu et al. Open Access. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made.

In Nigeria, ticks are common in all agro-ecological zones of the country (Kumsa et al, 2012). The most important tick species reported to infest cattle in different parts of Nigeria include Dermacento rvariabilis, Dermacentor andersoni, Ixodes scapularis, pacificus, Amblyomma maculatum Ixodes and Amblyomma americanum (Sofizadeh et al., 2014, Dinka et al., 2010, and Kiros et al., 2014). Dermacentor and Haemaphysalis are of very low proportions (Hussen, 2018, Soulsby, 1982 and Kamal et al., 1996). Cattlel mange is an extremely contagious ectoparasite caused by the parasitic mite, Dermatophyagoides pteronyssius, which is transmitted by direct or indirect contact. Cattle mange is often considered the most parasitic disease, second to trypanosomiasis 'surra', in affecting cattle production and productivity (Wall et al., 2011). Demodex folliculorumis also another ectoparasite affecting cattle in Nigeria (Stuti et al., 2007, Kissi and Assen, 2017, Mumed and Gemeda, 2015 and Regassa et al., 2015). Demodex folliculorum causes nasopharyngeal myiasis in cattle and results in health hazards and severe economic losses in the cattle industry (Hanem et al., 2013).

Ectoparasites are very important economically on a global scale, and they are responsible for a great variety of livestock health problems. In addition to transmitting diseases, ectoparasites reduce milk and meat production and increase susceptibility to other diseases (Mekonnen *et al.*, 2007). Despite the presence of a high population of cattle and their great social and economic importance to their owners, there is scanty information.

Therefore, the present review is designed to compile the available information on ectoparasites and their impacts on cattle in Nigeria with the objectives to compile high quality information on the presence, identity and status of ectoparasites, their effect and associated pathogens of cattle existing in different parts of Nigeria based on the available previous information.

Ectoparasites are organisms that live on the surface of bigger animals upon which they depend for food, shelter and other basic needs to survive (Rechav and Nutall, 2000). It has been observed that ectoparasites do not only have direct effects on their host, they may also transmit pathogens, thereby acting as vectors of diseases (Parola *et al.*, 2001). Ectoparasites generally affect the health of animals and the quality of hides and skin. The leather industries have suffered great loses over the years

because of infestation of animal skin.

Ectoparasites are a serious threat to both animals and humans all over the world. The painful bites of ectoparasites could be a great nuisance, leading to loss of a large amount of blood (Alasaad *et al.*, 2008). For instance, ticks alone transmit several important protozoans, rickettsia, bacterial and viral diseases to animals, thereby causing great economic losses. Lice and mites usually cause dermatitis which is characterized by alopecia and necrotic foci. There is also intense pruritus (especially with mange), which leads to biting and vigorous scratching of affected parts (Shiferaw, 2018).

Mange is highly contagious skin disease caused by one or combination of several species of mites. These include species from genera Sarcoptus, Chorioptus, Psoroptus and Demodex. Some species are more globally distributed (Jarso et al., 2018). The common species of mites which affect cattle are sarcoptic and psoroptic mites (Mouchira, 2009). Sarcoptic mange in cattle caused by Sarcoptes scabiei is considered to be the most serious zoonotic mange (Singh and Momin, 2001). Sarcoptes scabiei is one of the most commonly encountered cattle diseases in with severe Northern Nigeria clinical manifestations. Infestation of skin caused by mites is a serious problem in cattle and may lead to death. Moreover, the disease is more severe in females and young animals. Mite infestation causes a highly contagious disease which can spread to animals sharing grazing areas and the environment with infested animals. Mites may be transmitted directly by contact or indirectly through objects such as the harnessing materials, saddle, bedding and tree trunks (Lawal and Ameh, 2007 and Megersa, 2014). Close contact with cattle, particularly at watering points, could be responsible for increased exposure during the dry period. Moreover, feed shortages that reduce the immunity of the animals may also account for the increased prevalence and severity of the disease during the dry periods (Tefera and Getachew, 2012).

The preferred site of the burrowing mite of the genus *Demodex* is at the sebaceous glands of the skin and hair follicles. These follicular mites mainly lived as commen sals in the skin. In some animals, these mites may cause mange, which leads to causing economic loss (Islam *et al.*, 2006). The occurrence of mange mite depends on the following factors. In wet season cattle mange mites is higher relative to dry season (Megersa,2014). The

economic significance of mange infested animals arose from decreased body weight, therapy costs, skin deterioration due to perforation of the skin and intense pruritus as skin lesions may cover nearly the entire body, and occasional mortalities in untreated and young animals (Singh, 2005). Mange can severely compromise the welfare of milking animals by increasing susceptibility and reducing their vitality to other diseases as are sult of secondary bacterial infection. During the development of mange, itchiness distracts the animals from eating, so that they often become emaciated. Mange mite infestation can cause alopecia, dry erythma, and rough hair coat with crust formation in cattle(Bhagat et al., 2017). The majority of the lesions is confined to the integument and comprises anemia, hyperkeratosis, general loss of productivity and body weight (Jarso et al., 2018).

Variation in the prevalence of mange mite infestation based on factors like site of attachment, sex, age, body condition, and herd size was reported. For instance, the lesions of mange mite infestation were reported most commonly on the head, neck, abdominal regions, inner surface of the thighs, and inguinal region of infested cattle. Cattle mange mite infestation generally starts in the head region, extending through the neck to other areas with thin skin, such as the penile sheath and the udder. The whole body may become infested within a month. Also, cattle mange infestation commences at areas of thin skin: the head, base of the neck, udder, prepuce, and flank. The head becomes affected rapidly in every case because the animal uses its teeth to scratch the affected areas (Walker et al., 2003).

A higher prevalence in female cattle than in male cattle was reported and its finding was associated with a higher level of prolactin and progesterone hormones that could make the females more susceptible to infestation. Additionally, pregnancy and lactation stress could also aggravate the susceptibility of the female cattle (Feyera et al., 2017, Megersa et al., 2012 and Regassa et al., 2015). Higher prevalence in cattle with poor body condition (Walker et al., 2003) may be attributed to severe allergies and itching due to the outcome of histamine liberated from damaged body cells, which are compelling allergens (Acha and Szyfres, 2003). Furthermore, trypanosomasis, worm burden, and poor nutritional status can all be risk factors for Sarcoptic mange (Parsani and Veer Singh, 2008).

The higher prevalence of mange mite infestation in cattle with a herd size of more than40 indicates that cattle with a herd size of less than 20 (twenty) and between 20 (twenty) and 40(forty). This could be attributed to the fact that cattle from large herd sizes are more prone to being exposed to diseased animals due to the contagious nature of mite infestation. Contact during herding, housing, and suckling is the most important means of transmission. Contact beddings and cattle rub themselves on tree trunks, leaving the mites where the next animal may pick them up when rubbing on tree trunks, which are the other sources of transmission (Megersa *et al.*, 2012 and Feyera *et al.*, 2017).

Since dairy cattle are usually kept indoors and in close proximity, this contact favors transmission of the causative agent of mange and hence easy establishment of the disease in the herd. As herd size increases, the prevalence of S. scabie also increases significantly (Feyera et al., 2017). Therefore, considering the zoonotic importance and the great economic impact of Sarcoptes scabiei on cattle production and productivity, more detailed investigation into the epidemiology, economic significance, and species composition of this disease should be conducted to design and implement an effective control program and improve cattle production and productivity (Walker et al., 2003). High mange mite infestations are generally observed during the rainy season, in young cattle, in cattle with poor body condition, and in large herd sizes (Jarso et al., 2018). Ticks are hematophagous arthropods belonging to class Arachnida. These are major vectors of pathogens in animals and humans. Most importanttick species reported to infest cattle in Nigeria belong to genera Ambylomma, Hyalomma, subgenus Boophilus and Rhipicephalus (Kiroset al., 2014 and Kamal et al., 1996).

The occurrence of ticks in cattle was associated with factors like age, sex, body condition, herd size, herd composition and season which affect mean tick burden of cattle (Sajid *et al.*, 20008).Wet season, high humidity and high temperature; facilitate the growth and survival of tick at all different developmental stages (Latif and Walker, 2004). Ticks are one of the most serious ectoparasites in Nigeria. These causes the greatest economic losses in livestock production and productivity. The main effect of tick infestation in animals includes mild to severe anemia, loss of appetite, leading to a reduction in growth rate and decreased productivity. Additionally, ticks are responsible for direct damage to the cattle through their feeding habits, damage to udders, teats and scrotum (Wall *et al.*, 2011).

The specific site of tick attachment is one of the population limiting systems that operate through the restriction of tick species to certain parts of the host body. The ticks grab on to the hosts using their front legs and then crawl over the skin to find a suitable place to attach and feed (Latif and Walker, 2004). Depending on the tick, site preference on the host depends on the accessibility for attachment, to get blood, and protection to overcome the environmental damage that inhibits its existence and grooming activity (Wall and Shearer, 1997).Tick infestations in cattle were reported from different parts of the country with different prevalence ranging from 28.5% to 100% (Wall *et al.*, 2011 and Regassa *et al.*, 2015).

Ticks are one of the major ectoparasites affecting the health and productivity of cattle in Nigeria. The prevalence of tick infestation in cattle varies from one site to other in Nigeria. Factors like age, sex, body condition, herd size and herd composition also affect the prevalence and burden of ticks in cattle. The prevalence and burden of tick infestations were affected by various factors. For instance, some studies revealed that male cattle carried significantly more ticks than females, which was suggested to be due to the fact that female cows are restrained for daily milking, and during this time the milkers might remove ticks by hand, and this could lead to a gradual reduction in the average tick load. Similarly, some authors reported that the higher prevalence in adult cattle was probably attributed to the fact that adult cattle do not lie on the ground for much of their time but search the higher plant strata for their feeding, whereas the young ones lay on the ground for a longer period of time and easily acquire tick infestation (Megersa et al., 2012).

Furthermore, a higher tick burden was reported on cattle with poor body condition than on those with other body condition scores. This was due to the fact that the resultant worry due to tick attachment might interfere with feeding and lead to loss of condition (Megersa *et al.*, 2012). Also, many reports indicate that when the cattle herd size increases to more than 40, the average tick load increases. In both conditions, there is temporary crowding at grazing areas and watering points, which could facilitate the attachment and infestation of ticks and increase the infestation level. Frequent contact among cattle, cattle, and small ruminants sharing the same grazing area might also contribute to the abundance of *Rh. pulchellus* and *Am. variegatum* (Feyera *et al.*, 2017).

Herd composition is also the other factor that affects tick burden in cattle. Cattle kept and grazing mixed with small ruminants were reported to harbor more tick burden (Megersa *et al.*, 2012). According to Regassa *et al.* (2015), the main tick attachment sites were the anal area, brisket, and scrotum in males and the udder in females. A similar report was provided (Yacob and Yalew, 2008). These sites provide the highest moisture, favorable for growth, and the skin is easily penetrated for sucking blood (Regassa *et al.*, 2015).

insects forming Fleas are the order Siphonaptera. They are wingless, with mouthparts adapted for piercing skin and sucking blood. Fleas are external parasites, living by hematophagy of the blood of mammals and birds. Historically, fleas are among the most important ectoparasites of humans in that several species are the natural vectors of several important infectious diseases, like plague. Today, some 15 families with a total of about 220genera and some 2,500 species of fleas were described (Shiferaw, 2018). Of the 2500 species described to date, over 70% are parasitic on rodents.

Fleas feed on blood and adult fleas remain permanently on their host but usually move around upon it and feed periodically. However, fleas like the 'stick-tight fleas' such as the rabbit flea, Spilopsyllus cuniculi, tend to remain attached for long periods of time after firmly anchoring themselves in place with their mouth parts. Movement of adult fleas between hosts occurs when there is close physical contact. The sexes are separate and male fleas are alleged to have the most complex genitalia in the animal kingdom. Most fleas are associated with a particular host species but this is seldom a highly specific relationship and a hungry flea is liable to feed on any warm-blooded animal. Flea bites can prove intensely irritating and in sensitive individuals and domestic animals they induce flea-bite dermatitis (Gunn and Pitt, 2012). Information on flea infestation in cattle is not yet documented sofar from other country as well as in Nigeria.

Lice are small wingless insects with dorsoventrally-flattened bodies which are classified into a single order (Phthiraptera) and intwo suborders namely, Anoplura (sucking lice) and Mallophaga (chewing/biting lice). Approximately, 540 valid species of sucking lice are recognized, all of which are obligate hematophagous ectoparasites of mammals. Although only about 20of these species are pests of domestic animals, they can occur in huge numbers which may result in host irritation, anemia or dermatitis (Shiferaw, 2018 and Taylor et al., 2016). Biting lice graze on epidermal tissue, hair and other organic waste. They cause intense itching by their feeding and egg laying activities. Sucking lice have a narrow head with mouthparts adapted for penetrating the skin of the host and sucking blood. Both immature and adult stages suck blood or feed on the skin. The sucking louse of the cattle, Microthoracius is an obligate parasite which seems to be species specific.

Lice spread to non-infested animals by close contact, either direct or via fomites but the parasite does not survive long off its host. Lice may occur anywhere on the body of affected cattle but are often first seen on the shoulder and neck areas(Wall et al., 2011). Mouthparts are adapted for sucking blood and tissue fluids, and, if large numbers of lice are present, considerable irritation can be caused by feeding and by their claws digging into the skin (Shiferaw, 2018). The saliva and feces of lice contain substance scapable of causing allergies giving rise to severe irritations to the skin. This is usually shown by the animal rubbing itself against objects. Lice infestations are associated with development of cockle. Cockle is an inflammatory response of the skin to the presence of lice and their saliva. This is seen after the wool or hair has been removed from the skin.

Animals in poor body condition are likely to be seriously affected (Pence, 2002). Generally, infested cattle may stop feeding and bite, rub, or scratch affected areas. Unthriftiness, matted, dull fleece, or tufts of wool may indicate lice infestation. Milk production may decline as a result, and the coat may becomes haggy and matted. There are only a few previous reports on the prevalence of lice infestation in cattle in Nigeria. The study reports indicated that cattle lice infestation is also another ectoparasite affecting cattle in Nigeria.

Many species of flies can pose threats to animals by their direct effects and by the transmission of pathogenic agents from one animal to another. Flies are also important vectors of humans' and animals' zoonotic diseases. Veterinary-important biting, non-biting and larvae-producing files of cattle, wild animals and other domestic animals indicated (Table 1) are present in different parts of the world as well as in Nigeria (Taylor *et al.*, 2016). The presence of flies on cattle can cause considerable health and economic importance in cattle production. Biting and nuisance flies cause irritation and, if prolonged, may prevent birds from feeding, inevitably leading to decreased productivity.

Biting flies pose a particular risk to cattle in trypanosomiasis-endemic areas if they are knownto be mechanical vectors of Trypanosoma evansi (Mitchella et al., 2012). Biting flies are common in cattle. Among biting flies, horse flies (Tabanus) and stable flies (Stomoxy) are hematophagous flies (Ahaotu et al., 2020) which are responsible for mechanical and non-cyclical transmission of trypanomosis in cattle. in different parts of the world (Walker et al., 2003). Trypanosoma evansi incattle. Cattle are transmitted mechanically by the bites of hematophagous flies such as Tabanus and Stomoxys. The most important biting flies for transmission of T. evansi are species of the genus Tabanus (Loomis, 1986). It's the major problem for the occurrence and transmission of trypanosomasis in areas outside of the tsetse fly belt in Africa as well as in Nigeria (Mitchella et al., 2012). Biting flies can cause severeirritation in domestic animals, and they are vectors for bacteria, viruses, spirochetes and chlamydia.

However, because they feed on blood, they canalso cause anemia and hypersensitivity (Walker et al., 2003). Only a very few reports are available on the biting flies of cattle from Nigeria. Non-biting flies include the face fly, head fly, and house fly. Non-biting flies may feed on these cretions from the eyes, nose, and any small wounds. This distracts animals from grazing, causing a reduction in growth and productivity. Non-biting flies are not key biological vectors of any specific disease organisms, but because of their feeding and reproduction habits and the structure of their feet and mouthparts, they can act as mechanical vectors for a whole range of pathogens, from viruses to helminthes (Agrawal and Gupta, 2010). The cattle nasal botfly, Cephalopina titillator (Diptera: Oestridae), occurs worldwide (Yakhchali and Hosseini, 2006). Nasopharyngeal myiasis caused by Oestridae is very common.

The cattle nasal bot (*Cephalopina titillator*) is usually found at necropsy or during meat

inspection (Sazmand and Joachim, 2017). It causes nasopharyngeal myiasis in cattle and results in cattles' health hazards and severe economic losses in the cattle industry (Hanem et al., 2013). The adult fly deposits larvae as obligate parasites of cattle in the nasal cavity, which is known to parasitize the animal for a substantial period of time (Rahman et al., 2001), where it causes irritation of the nasal cavity and predisposes the cattle to secondary bacterial infections and is usually found at postmortem inspection (Yakhchali and Hosseini, 2006). It also impairs animal welfare, reduces host physiological functions (Sohrabi et al., 2013), destroys host tissues and causes significant economic losses through reductions in milk production and losses in terms of weight gain (Duaa et al., 2015).

Several factors contribute to infestation by Cephalopina titillator, including the free movement of cattle between different localities due to the lack of closed-farm systems for cattle breeding; the absence of strict control methods on imported animals; and the absence of specific and sensitive techniques for routine diagnosis of infestation in living cattle (Sanjay *et al.*, 2007). Reports from different study areas indicated that *Cephalopina titillator* is also another ectoparasite affecting cattle in Nigeria.

Various studies reported that female cattle were found to harbor the larvae of *C. titillator* when compared to male cattle (Kissi and Assen, 2017; Mumed and Gemeda, 2015). This wasdue to the fact that female cows were kept not very far from the villages, even during the dry season, because they supplied milk for the family, which was supposed to expose female cows to heavier fly challenge in the valleys near the villages. On the other hand, the males move far from fly challenge areas due to the course of continuous movement as pack animals.

Moreover, female cows are under continuous stress, which may suppress their immunity (Yakhchali *et al.*, 2011). On the other hand, Milnes *et al.* (2003) have reported that the rate of larvae infestation was significantly higher in males than female cows. This study failed to clearly indicate or suggest why the male cattle were more infected than females. However, other authors argue that these variations could be due to the differences in management practices of nomads (Zintl *et al.*, 2003 and Regassa *et al.*, 2015). Normally, the owners use the bulls for transportation. It happens that male bulls make journeys of hundreds of kilometers and

visit many new places, so they are easily exposed to new epidemic areas of *C. titillator* (Zintl *et al.*, 2003). A higher prevalence of *C. titillator* in the old group of cattle than in young (yearlings less than 7 years old) cattle and adult (cattle greater than 7 years old) cattle was reported in Nigeria. This was suggested to be due to the fact that older cattle may be more tolerant to flies and allow the deposition of a higher number of larvae around the nostrils, while the younger cattle actively seek to prevent the flies settling around the nostrils (Roy *et al.*, 2001).

Cephalopina titillator: higher infestation was reported in cattle with poor body condition than in those cattle with both medium and good body condition scores (Kissi and Assen 2017, Mumed and Gemeda, 2015 and Regassa et al., 2015). It was argued that it might be due to the interference of larval infestation with feeding behavior of cattle and respiration, which leads to starvation and lack of oxygen to cells and tissue. It was also suggested that C. titillator larvae infestation has a severe impact on the body condition of cattle and causes losses in terms of body weight gain. In addition, it was reported that C. titillator larvae infestation has several negative impacts on respiratory function, feeding, health, and productivity of cattle, which lose their appetite and show respiratory problems abnormal behavior resembling cranial and coenuriasis (Kissi and Assen 2017). Several studies have revealed that C. titillator is one of the most common ectoparasites of cattle in Nigeria.

Clinical features of ectoparasite infestation in cattle include pruritic dermatosis with papules, crusts, anemia, excoriation, secondary alopecia, and lichenification. The lesions tend to occur on the face, neck, shoulders and across the rump, especially in cases of lice, fleas and mange mite infestations (Wernery, 2002). Hemorrhage, collagen degeneration, and a wedge shaped area of necrosis can occur due to tick mouth parts penetrating the epidermis and becoming lodged in dermis. Tick feeding can introduce cutaneous bacteria into the skin, causing abscesses, or into circulation, leading to bacteraemia and septicemia (Taylor *et al.*, 2016; Wall and Shearer, 1997).

Biting flies, particularly stable flies, horn flies, and tabanids can cause severe disturbance (Ahaotu *et al.*, 2019) and annoyance to cattle, leading to reduced weight gain, reduced milk production and hide damage. Fly bites may cause pruritic papules and wheals. Blood-feeding flies may also be important pathogen vectors (Agrawal and Gupta, 2010). The activity of nuisance flies, such as face fly, houseflies and other muscids leads to disturbance and irritation. These flies may also be mechanical vectors of disease (Wernery, 2002). Irritation, bleeding from nostrils, fever, emaciation, loss of appetite, congestion of mucous membrane, enlargement of lymph nodes, nasal discharge, lack of coordination (neurological signs), increased respiratory rate, frequent sneezing and snoring during breathing were most common clinical signs of *Cephalopina titillator* infestation. It leads to reduced production of milk and body weight gain in cattle (Tareq et al., 2018).

Diagnosis of ectoparasites infestation or ectoparasite-associated dermatosis requires knowledge of the parasite involved and its lifecycle. This can be achieved in many cases, including direct collection of the parasites or examination of an animal's hair. For instance, lice live in an intimate relationship with the host's skin and can easily be found there (Table 2). However, visiting ectoparasites, such as biting flies, may be on the skin for only a short period of time each day, and a diagnosis is often made by implication. Hence, knowledge of the clinical signs of skin disease is usually required (Wernery, 2002). Examination of Cephalopina titillator larvae in cattle can be carried out by using a postmortem after the cattle are

slaughtered. The larvae of the parasites were detected after dissection and gross examination of the heads of cattle, including the nasal cavity, frontal sinuses, turbinate bones, and nasopharynx for the presence of *C. titillator* larvae. Diagnosis of this parasite is very difficult in living animals (Regassa *et al.*, 2015).

Early detection and taking major action is important rather than waiting until the problem of ectoparasites becomes serious. At least once a week, thorough physical observation of animals by their owners is important. Owners need to run their hand over each animal's hair coat, visually inspecting for excessive hair loss, flakes of loose skin, areas of skin irritation and any crusty lesions or bumps that might indicate infestation with ectoparasites. Immediately separate and confine any animal that shows signs of ectoparasite infestation or seems to be unthrifty. It helps to reduce chances of transmission of ectoparasites to rest of their animals. Quarantined animals should not be mixed with main herd until treatment is complete and ectoparasites are eradicated. Isolate newly introduced animals and treat them for ectoparasites before mixing them with other animals (Desta et al., 2010).

Table 1. List of biting, non-biting, and larvae of flies with veterinary importance to Cattle, domestic animals, and other wild Animals

Family	Genus	Species	Common name	Host T	ype of flies
Hippoboscidae	Hippobosca	Camelina	Cattle fly	Cattle	Biting
Oestridae	Cephalopina	titillator	nasal botfly	Cattle	Myiasis
Tabanidae	Tabanus	T. fuscicostatus and T. atratus	s. Horse fly	All animals	Biting
Muscidade	Stomoxys	Calcitrans	Stable fly	All animals	Biting
Muscidae	Musca	Autumnalis	Face fly	All animals	Non biting
Muscidae	Musca	Domestica	House fly	All animals	Non biting
Glossinidae	Glossina Fusca,m	orsitans			
Palpalis			Tsetse Flies	All animals	Biting

Ectoparasites	Name Anatomical site	Laboratory Techniques for	Examination	
Mites	Hair,	hair follicle,	surface,	
	Epidermis Skin scraping,	hair plucks, hair brushings,	,	
	Acetate strip,	serology and Biopsy		
Lice	Hair Skin scraping,	hair plucks and	Acetate strip	
Fleas	Hair,surface,	Environments hair plucks	Environments hair plucks and hair brushings	
Ticks	Surface,	Environments	Visual examination	
Flies	Surface,	Environments Biopsy,		
		observation whilst feeding	g and Postmortem examination	

Ectoparasites can be controlled by treatment of affected animals. As a strategic treatment approach during two seasons is vital. Treatment during dry period reduces overall stress on animals associated with malnutrition and further prevents occurrence of concurrent infections. Secondly, wet season treatment is helpful to prevent re-infestations and propagation of different stages of ectoparasites or hinder life cycles of ectoparasites (Yakhchali et al., 2011). As elected drug for ectoparasites is insecticides oracaricides, while ivermectin given as a subcutaneous injection is a drug of choice for sarcoptic mange treatment. Infested and sick animals may be treated with effective curative agents like Cymerlarsan and quinapyramine methyl sulfate.

Treatment of ectoparasites should be viewed not only in terms of curing sick animals, but also in terms of improving body conditions and enhancing body defense (Yakhchali et al., 2011). Ticks, fleas, lice, and flies are arthropods that live all over the world and infest all types of wild and domestic animals, as well as humans (Jongejan and Uilenberg, 2004). Arthropods are important for the maintenance and transmission of many pathogens, including several species of bacteria, viruses, protozoa, and helminthes, causing diseases in humans, pets, and domestic animals world wide (Billeter et al., 2008). Vector-borne diseases cause significant morbidity and mortality in both humans and animals around the world and affect the global economy, representing approximately 17% of the burden of all infectious diseases (Dantas-Torres et al., 2012).

Ticks and biting flies are the major causes of vector-borne diseases in cattle. The common vector-borne diseases in cattle are Theileriosis, Babesiosis, Anaplasmosis, and Trypanomosis. These vector-borne diseases are caused byorganisms like Theileria, Babesia, Anaplasma, and Trypanosoma evansi, respectively (Mohammed et al., 2017). The former three diseases are transmitted biologically by different species of ticks, and the latter two are transmitted mechanically by biting flies, mainly tabanus and stomoxy. Babesia caballi was molecularly detected from Sudanese cattle by Abdelrahim et al. (2009) using Reverse Line Block (RLB). Both Babesia caballi and Theileriaequi were molecularly confirmed in cattle from Iraq using PCR (Jasim et al., 2015).

Trypanosoma evansi is a common protozoan

disease that affects cattle in different parts of Northern Nigeria thatare not tsetse fly belt areas (Jilo and Abdela, 2017 and Kassa *et al.*, 2011). Information on vector-borne diseases, namely *Theileria, Babesia* and *Anaplasma*, in cattle is not available so far from Nigeria. Only a preliminary report on *Theileria mutans* in cattle was reported from Northern Nigeria. This report can help plan long-term tick and tick-borne pathogen control strategies in the study area and neighboring areas with similar socio-ecological characteristics (Rodighiero *et al.*, 2012).

# Conclusion

In Nigeria, the contribution of cattle to the economy of pastoralists is high when compared with other livestock species. However, ectoparasites and associated pathogens are still one of the major constraints to the productivity, production, and health problems of cattle. Ticks, mites, and myiasis producing flies, especially Cephalonia titillator, are among the major health problems of cattle in Nigeria. Ectoparasites are also responsible for the transmission of highly pathogenic agents to cattle. Ectoparasites of cattle are currently responsible for considerable economic losses due to the degradation of skin quality, reduced productivity, and performance of the animal in Nigeria. The prevalence and burden of ectoparasites in cattle is affected by different risk factors such as poor management, season, herd size, herd composition, co-infection, poor nutrition, and hygienic conditions.

Therefore, improving husbandry practices and veterinary services may reduce the level and burden of ectoparasites in cattle. The economic losses due to ectoparasites in cattle result in a reduction in productivity, decreased reproductive performance, and the death of the affected animals. Overall, this review showed that ectoparasites are important problems in cattle of all age groups, body condition scores, both sexes, and different agroecological zones and harbor a considerable level of ectoparasites, which warrants the institution of appropriate control strategies to improve the health and productivity of cattle.

Based on the above conclusion, the following recommendations are forwarded:

-Appropriate control interventions need to be implemented to reduce the negative impacts of ectoparasites on cattle in Nigeria.

-Awareness creation about the economic

importance of ectoparasites of cattle in Nigeria is very important.

-Improving husbandry practices and veterinary services that help to reduce the level of ectoparasites is urgently needed. In-depth studies on ectoparasites and associated pathogens of cattle should be conducted indifferent parts of Nigeria.

## Reference

- Acha NP and Szyfres B (2003). Zoonosis and communicable diseases common to man and animals. 3rd ed. Washington D.C. pan American health organization, 163: 184-192.
- Agrawal P and Gupta AR (2010). Management of Ectoparasites of Livestock in India. pp.212-225.
- Ahaotu EO, Adeyeye SA, Olueze CC, Akunna TO and Akinfemi A (2020). Benefits and Widespread of External Parasites Infestation in Indigenous Chickens (Gallus Gallus Domesticus) A Study from Randomized States in Nigeria. Journal of Veterinary and Marine Sciences. 2(3): 107-115.
- Ahaotu EO, Nwabueze EU, Akinfemi A and Okorie KC (2019). Economic Importance and spread of Ectoparasites Infestation in Indigenous Chickens (Gallus gallus domesticus). A Study from Selected Local Government Councils and States in Nigeria.7th All Africa Conference on Animal Agriculture, Accra International Conference Center Accra, Ghana 29<sup>th</sup> July to 2<sup>nd</sup> August, pp 103 – 104.
- Alasaad S, Soglia D, Sarasa M and Soriguer RC (2008). Skin-scale genetic structure of Sarcoptesscabiei populations from individual hosts empirical evidence from Iberian ibex-derived mites. Parasitology research, 104: 101-105.
- Andrews AH, Blowey H, Boyd and Eddy RG 2003. Bovine Medicine: Disease and husbandry of cattle. 2nd ed. Hong Kong.Blackwell publishing. Pp 281-282.
- Ashraf S, Chaudhry HR, Chaudhry M and Iqbal Z (2014). Prevalence of common diseases in camels of Cholistan desert, Pakistan. Biology, 2: 49-52.
- Asmaa NM, ElBably MA and Shokier KA (2014). Studies on prevalence, risk indicators and control options for tick infestation in ruminants. Beni-Seuf Univ J Appl Sci., 3: 68-73.
- Bansal GC (2005). Bovine theileriosis in India: an overview. Proceedings of National Academy

of Science, India, 75:134-43.

- Bhagat R, Sheikh AA, Dar RR and Dogra P (2017). Resolving a clinical case of sarcoptic mange infestation in a dromederi camel. PharmaInnov. J., 6: 217–219.
- Billeter SA, Levy MG and Chomel BB (2008).Breitschwerdt.Vector transmission of Bartonella species with emphasis on the potential for tick transmission.Med.Vet. Entomol., 22: 1-15.
- Biu AA and Nwosu CO (1998). Seasonal prevalence of cattle ticks in Maiduguri, Borno State. Entomology in the Nigerian economy Research focus in the 21st century, pp.133-139.
- Capin GA, Emre Z, Canpolat S, Vatansever Y and Duzgun A (2013). Detection of Coxiellaburnetii from ticks by polymerase chain reaction and restriction fragment length polymorphism. Infection.1: 7.
- Dantas-Torres F, Chomel BB and Otranto D (2012). Ticks and tick-borne diseases a one Health perspective. Trends Parasitol. 28: 437-446.
- Desta H (2010). Control of external parasites of sheep and goats. Ethiopia Sheep and Goat Productivity Improvement Program (ESGPIP). pp. 1-10.
- Duaa M, Musleh, Afaf A, Abdel-Meguid and Nancy TM (2015). Protein profile of alimentary canal and secretions of second instar larvae of Cephalopina titillator (Oestridae: Diptera). International Journal of Advanced Research in Biological Sciences. 2: 124–128.
- Eke IO, Ahaotu EO, Oko EC and Lawal M (2021). Factors Affecting the Level of Commercialization among Cattle Rearers in Ngor Okpala Local Government Council of Imo State, Nigeria. IAR Journal of Engineering and Technology. 2 (1): 111-126.
- FAO (1993). Ticks and tick borne disease control. Practical field manual of Tick control, FAO, Rome. pp: 1-299.
- Gunn A and Pitt SJ (2012). Parasitology An Integrated Approach, first edition. Pp.135-149.
- Hanem FK, Ramadan MY and Mageid AD (2013). In vitro control of the camel nasal botfly, Cephalopina titillator, with doramectin, lavender, camphor and onion oils.Parasitology Research. 112: 2503-2510.
- Hourrigan JL (1979). Spread and detection of

Psoroptic scabies of cattle in the United States, Journal of American Veterinary Association. 175: 1278-1280.

- Hussen AH (2018). A study on ticks affecting camels ( Camelus dromedarius ) in Jigjiga district of Somali region , Eastern Ethiopia.International Journal of Advanced Research in Biological Sciences. 5: 121–130.
- Islam MK, Alim MA, Tsuji N and Mondal MMH (2006). An investigation into the distribution, host-preference and population density of Ixodid ticks affecting domestic animals in Bangladesh. Tropical Animal Health and Production, 38: 485-490.
- Islam MS, Rahman SA, Sarker P, Anisuzzaman and Mondal MMH (2009). Prevalence and population density of ectoparasitic infestation in cattle in Sirajgonj district, Bangladesh. Bangladesh Research Publications Journal. 2(1): 332- 339.
- Jarso D, Birhanu S and Wubishet Z (2018). Review on Epidemiology of Camel Mange Mites. Biomedical Journal of scientific and Technical research. 8: 1–4.
- Jasim G, Azzal Y and Othman RM (2015).Conventional and molecular detection of Babesia caballi and Theileria equi parasites in infected camels in south of Iraq. Basrah Journal of Veterinary Research. 14: 110–121.
- Jilo K and Abdela N (2017). A Review on Past and Recent Research in Africa and Middle East Camel Trypanosomiasis. Am. J. Sci. Res., 12:13-20.
- Jongejan F and Uilenberg G (2004). The global importance of ticks. Parasitology. 129: 3-14.
- Kamal AHM, Uddin KH, Islam MM and Mondal MMH (1996). Prevalence of economically important ticks in cattle and goat at Chittagong hilly areas of Bangladesh. Asian-Australasian Journal of Animal Sciences. Vol.9. No.5
- Kassa T, Eguale T and Chaka H (2011). Prevalence of camel trypanosomasis and its vectors in Fentale district, South East Shoa Zone, Ethiopia. Vet. Arh. 81: 611–621.
- Kiros S, Awol N, Tsegaye Y and Hadush B (2014). Hard Ticks of Camel in Southern Zone of Tigray. Journal of Parasitology and Vector Biology. 6: 151–155.
- Kissi LM and Assen AM (2017). Prevalence, Larvae Burden and Gross Pathological Lesion of

Cephalopina titillator in Camels Slaughtered at Addis Ababa Abattoir Akaki Branch. Journal of Veterinary Science and Technology. 8: 6–10.

- Kohler-Rollefson I, Mathias E and Mundy P (2011). A Field Manual of Camel Disease; Traditional and Modern Health Care of Camel. ITTD Publishing, London. pp: 82-84.
- Kumsa B, Tamirat H, Tadesse G, Aklilu N and Cassani R (2012). Prevalence and species composition of ixodid ticks infesting horses in three agro ecologies in central Oromia, Ethiopia. Tropical Animal Health and Production. 44:119–124.
- Latif AA and Walker AR (2004). An introduction to the biology and control of ticks in Africa. pp. 5-10
- Lawal MD and Ameh IG (2007). Some ectoparasites of *Camelus dromedarius* in Sokoto, Nigeria. J Entomol., 4: 143–148.
- Loomis EC (1986). Ectoparasites of cattle. Vet. Clin. North America, 2: 299–321.
- Mamak N, Gençer L, Özkanlar YE and Özçelik S (2006). Determination of tick species and treatment of cows, sheep and goats in the Sivas-Zara region. Turkiye Parazitol Derg: 30: 209-212.
- Megersa B (2014). Major Diseases of Camel Calves in Borana of Southern Ethiopia.African Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences, 6: 159-165.
- Megersa B, Damena A, Bekele J, Adane B and Sheferaw D (2012). Ticks and mange mites infesting camels of Boran pastoral areas and the associated risk factors, Southern Ethiopia. Journal of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Health. 4: 71–77.
- Mekonnen S, Hussein I and Bedhane B (2007). Integrated Approach to the control of ticks and tick borne disease. Journal of Ethiopian Veterinary Association, 1: 30-33.
- Milnes AS, O'Callaghan CJ and Green LEA (2003) longitudinal study of a natural lice infestation in growing cattle over two winter periods. Veterinary Parasitology, 116: 67-83.
- Minjauw B and McLeod A (2003). Tick-borne diseases and poverty.The impact of ticks and tick borne diseases on livestock owners in India and eastern and southern Africa. Edinburgh, UK: Health Programme, Center for Tropical Veterinary Medicine, University of Edinburgh: pp. 24-57.

- Mitchell ES, Jones JR, Foster AP, Millar M, Milnes A and Williams J (2012). Clinical features of psoroptic mange in cattle in England and Wales. Veterinary Record, 170.
- Mohammed AA, Sharma A, Saied MAM, Osman OH, Al-Balowi MH, Salih DA and Singla LD (2017). Lack of Evidence for Infection of Camels with tick-borne Diseases in Riyadh Region, Saudi Arabia.Sudan J. Vet. Res., 32: 39-40.
- Mouchira MM (2009). Pathological Studies on Acariasis in Dromedary (*Camelus Dromedarius*) and Llama (Lama glama) Camelidae. European Journal of Scientific Research . 38: 159-171.
- Mumed A and Gemeda AE (2015). A Cross Sectional Study on Prevalence of Cephalopina titillator Infection in Camel (Camelus dromedaries) in Dire Dawa Administrative Region, Ethiopia. Advances in Biological Research . 9: 225–229.
- Papadopoulos E, Bartram D, Carpenter S, Mellor P and Wall R (2009). Efficacy of alphacypermethrin applied to cattle and sheep against the biting midge Culicoides nubeculosus Veterinary Parasitology, 163: 110–114.
- Parola P, Inukoma H, Camicas JL, Bronqui P and Raoult D (2001). Detection and identification of spotted fever group Rickettiae and Ehrlichae in Africa ticks. Emerging Infectious Diseases. 7(6): 10114-7.
- Parsani HR and Veer Singh MR (2008).Common Parasitic Diseases of Camel.Veterinary World. 1: 317-318.
- Pence DB and Ueckermann E (2002). Sarcoptic manage in wildlife. Rev Sci Tech (International Office of Epizootics). 21(2): 385-398.
- Rechav Y and Nuttall PA (2000). The effects of male ticks on the feeding performance of immature stages of *Rhipcephlus sanquineus* and *Amblylomma americanum* (Acari: Ixodidae). Experimental Applied Acarinalogy. 24: 569-578.
- Regassa A, Awol N, Hadush B and Tsegaye Y (2015). Internal and external parasites of camels (*Camelus dromedarius*) slaughtered at Addis Ababa. Journal of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Health. 6:3-8.
- Rodighiero P, Pressi G and Gebre S (2012). Ticks and tick-borne pathogens in livestock from

nomadic herds in the Somali Region, Ethiopia. Exp. Appl. Acarol. 56:391-401

- Roy AK, Rahman MH, Majumder S and Sarker AS (2001). Ecology of ticks and tick-borne blood protozoa in Madhupur Forest Area, Tangail. Bangladesh Veterinary Journal, 17: 90-97.
- Sajid MS, Iqbal I, Khan MN and Muhammad G (2008). Point prevalence of hard ticks (Ixodids) infesting domestic ruminants of Lower Punjab, Pakistan. International J. of Agriculture and Biology. 10(3): 349-351.
- Sanjay K, Prasad KD and Deb AR (2007). Seasonal prevalence of different ectoparasites infecting cattle and buffaloes. Journal of Research, 16(1): 159-163.
- Sazmand A and Joachim A (2017). Parasitic diseases of camels in Iran (1931 – 2017) – a literature review.www.parasite-journal.org. 24: 1-15
- Shiferaw S (2018). An Overview of Ectoparasites on Domestic Animals in Ethiopia. Journal of Veterinary Science & Medicine. 6: 1–5.
- Sofizadeh A, Telmadarraiy Z, Rahnama A, Gorganli-Davaji A and Hosseini-Chegeni A (2014). Hard tick species of livestock and their bioecology in Golestan province, north of Iran. J Arthropod Borne Dis: 8: 108.
- Sohrabi S, Yakhchali M and Ghashghaei M (2013). Hard ticks (Acarina: Ixodidae) diversity in the natural habitat of Iranian domestic ruminants: a provincial study in Kermanshah. J Vet Res Tehran Uni: 68: 39-46.
- Soulsby EJI (1982). Helminths, Arthropod and Protozoa of Domesticated Animals, 7th edition.Bailliere, Tindall and Cassell Ltd. pp.136-346, 365-491 and 763-778
- Stuti V, Yadav CL, Kumar RR and Rajat G (2007).Seasonal Activity of Boophilusmicroplus on Large Ruminants at an Organised Livestock Farm. Journal of Veterinary Parasitology, 21(2): 125-128.
- Tareq Jaffer Al-Jindeel, Hussein Jabar Jasim, Nawar Jasim Alsalih, Ali Mosa Rashid Al-Yasari (2018). Clinical, Immunological and Epidemiological Studies of Nasopharyngeal Myiasis in Camels slaughtered in Al-Muthanna Province. Advances in Animal and Veterinary Sciences. 6: 299-301
- Taylor MA, Coop RL and Wall RL (2016). Veterinary Parasitology 4th edition. Pp: 219-220.
- Urquhart GM, Armour J, Duncan JL, Dunn AM and

Jennings FW (1996). Veterinary parasitology, 2nd Edition. UK: Blackwell Science. pp: 103-113.

- Walker AR, Bouattour A, Camicas JL, Estrada- Pena A, Horak IG, Latif AA, Pegram RG and Preston PM (2003). Ticks of domestic animals in Africa: a guide to identification of species. Biosci.Rep., Pp.1-221.
- Walker AR, Bouattour A, Camicas JL, Estrada-Pena A, Horak IG, Latif AA, Pegram RG and Preston MM (2003). Ticks of Domestic Animals in Africa: A Guide to Identification of Species. 1st ed. Edinburgh, UK: Bioscience Reports.
- Wall R and Chapman Hall (1997). The diagnosis and control of ectoparasite infestation. Veterinary Entomology.Pp.333-398.
- Wall R and Shearer D (1997). Veterinary Ectoparasites 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition.pp.223-235.
- Wall R, Rose H, Ellse L and Morgan E (2011) Livestock ectoparasites: integrated management in a changing climate. Veterinary Parasitology, 180: 82– 89.

- Werede H and Afera B (2014). Prevalence of ixodid ticks on bovine of WerielekeWereda, Tigray. Acta Parasitol. 5: 146-150.
- Yacob HT, Yalew TA and Dinka AA (2008). Ectoparasites prevalence in sheep and goats and around WolaitaSodo, Southern Ethiopia.Revue Méd.Vét. 159: 450-454.
- Yakhchali M and Hosseini A (2006). Prevalence and ectoparasites fauna of sheep and goats flocks in Urmia suburb, Iran. Vet Arhiv. 76: 431-442.
- Yakhchali M, Rostami A and Esmailzadeh M (2011). Diversity and seasonal distribution of ixodid ticks in the natural habitat of domestic ruminants in north and south of Iran. Rev Med VetToulouse. 162: 229-235.
- Zintl A, Mulcahy G, Skerrett HE, Taylor SM and Gray JS (2003). Babesia divergens, a bovine blood parasite of veterinary and zoonotic importance. Clinical Microbiology Reviews, 16: 622–636.

\*\*\*\*\*