# Prevalence of Canine Parvovirus in Domestic Dogs around Serengeti National Park (Tanzania)

Optatus Mwalongo<sup>1</sup>, Francis Shahada<sup>1</sup>, Machunde Bigambo<sup>2</sup>, Paul Gwakisa<sup>1, 3</sup>, Felix Lankester<sup>1, 2, 4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Life Sciences and Bio-Engineering, Nelson Mandela African Institution of Science and Technology (NM-AIST), P.O. Box 447, Arusha, Tanzania

<sup>2</sup>Serengeti Health Initiative, Arusha, Tanzania

<sup>3</sup>Genome Science Centre and Dept. of Veterinary Microbiology and Parasitology, Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania

<sup>4</sup>Paul G. Allen School for Global Health, Pullman, Washington, 99164, USA

Corresponding Author: Mobile: +255 759 928 038, E-mail: francis.shahada@nm-aist.ac.tz

Abstract: Since 1978 canine parvovirus (CPV) has been an important pathogen of domestic dogs, causing acute haemorrhagic enteritis and myocarditis mostly in puppies. This study was conducted to determine the prevalence of CPV strains in domestic dogs living around the Serengeti National Park (Tanzania). In this study, 77 whole blood samples collected from domestic dogs presenting no clinical signs were tested for CPV antigenic strains (CPV-2a and CPV-2b) using convectional PCR. Eight samples(10.4%) were positive for CPV(CPV-2a and CPV-2b). The study shows that CPV is a common finding in healthy domestic dogs, which suggests they can act as potential reservoirs for transmission to other susceptible domestic dogs and wild life species.

Keywords: canine parvovirus, prevalence, domestic dogs, convectional PCR

## 1. Introduction

For centuries domestic dogs (*Canis familiaris*) have been used as human companion animals, hunters and for security purposes, they are one of the most abundant carnivore species [1] and they are found almost everywhere in the world. Since they make up a large contiguous population with many individuals roaming freely [2, 3] this facilitates contact between infected and susceptible individuals, which makes them good reservoirs for pathogens [4] such as canine parvovirus, canine distemper (CDV) and rabies [5].

Canine parvovirus, a small, non-enveloped and single stranded DNA virus belonging to the family parvoviridae [6-9], emerged in the mid 1970s from felinepanleukopenia virus (FPV)[10-12] when it acquired a new host range in domestic canids. Since then it has caused widespread mortality of domestic dogs [11-14] which, following infection, suffer acute haemorrhagic enteritis and myocarditis [15-17].

The CPV type-2 (CPV-2) which was an original version of domestic dogs evolved from feline panleukopenia (FPV) in the mid 1970s [11, 13, 14] further evolved into three antigenic variants, CPV-2a, CPV-2b and CPV-2c, which subsequently infected, and became endemic in several wild carnivores [8, 18-22].

Although CPV has been reported to affect dogs of all ages (Yang et al., 2010), it primarily affects puppies between six weeks and 4 months of age [22-24]. Following an incubation period from 3 to 5 days [24] the disease manifests itself with fever, vomiting, anoxorea, depression and typical dark or bloody diarrheoa. A blood profile typically shows marked thrombocytopenia and leucopenia [15, 23, 25, 26].

Prevalence of CPV differs from one geographical area to another [27] with the different antigenic variants occurring globally and are found co-circulating [22]. In Africa, CPV strains 2a, 2b and 2c have been reported in several countries including Tunisia, Nigeria, Republic of South Africa, Kenya, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Cape Verde and Namibia [18, 28-31], but there is no available data on the occurrences of CPV in the remaining countries of Africa. However, several of these countries are using the CPV vaccines, suggesting that CPV infections exist in these places too. In most developing countries free-ranging dogs and stray dogs are common, the majority of which are not vaccinated. As the prevalence of CPV tends to be high among unvaccinated dogs [31], it is likely that they serve as reservoirs of the virus [32].

Domestic dogs have been reported to be reservoirs of infectious pathogens and, where they live in close proximity to wild carnivore species, it has been reported that, the spillover of pathogens from such dogs cause a number of epidemics in wild carnivore species. For instance, they were implicated to be the source of canine distemper epidemic that occurred in Serengeti lions in 1994 and was responsible for nearly 30% deaths the lions [33, 34], rabies epidemic of 1991 in African wild dogs (Lycaon pictus) of the Serengeti ecosystem [35, 36] and they were also associated to be the source of rabies epidemics that affected Ethiopian wolf population [37, 38]. Despite the fact that domestic dogs are implicated as potential reservoirs and source of several infectious diseases including CPV to susceptible wild carnivore species [33, 36], there is no available data on prevalence of CPV in domestic dogs in Tanzania.

Most of the research findings have reported the prevalence of CPV in domestic dogs manifesting clinical signs such as diarrhea, vomiting, depression, dehydration, fever and myocarditis [39], but in this study, the purpose was to

determine the prevalence and types CPV strains in asymptomatic domestic dogs in villages surrounding the Serengeti National Park, Tanzania.

## 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1 Study site

The study was carried out in the Mara, Simiyu and Arusha regions of northern Tanzania.

#### 2.2 Samples Collection

A total of 77 domestic dog blood samples were used for analysis in this study. The samples were simple randomly selected (in terms of age and location) from an archive that contained frozen samples which had been collected from healthy domestic dogs (both puppies and older dogs had equal chance to be selected for blood sampling) attending rabies vaccination clinics in villages bordering the Serengeti National Park, a zone of 10 Km from the park, between 2007 and 2009 years. The samples used came from 12 villages from Serengeti, Tarime and Loliondo districts found in Mara, Simiyu and Arusha regions, northern Tanzania.

#### 2.3 DNA extraction

The viral DNA was extracted from whole blood samples using a ZR Viral DNA Kit (Zymo Research Corp. USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. A multivalent vaccine DHLPP (Vanguard, Pfizer-USA) containing attenuated canine parvovirus strain was used as a positive control.

#### 2.4 Primers for convectional PCR

The primers used in convectional PCR were designed to amplify VP1/VP2 of the capsid genes. The specific primer pairs; Pbs/Pbas detect CPV type-2b, Pabs/Pabas detect both CPV type-2a and type-2b, and the primer pair H for/Hrev was designed to amplify a larger fragment of DNA for sequencing purposes. The primers Pb and Pab were designed by Pereira et al. (2000) [40] and H was designed by Buonavoglia et al. (2001) [41]. The primer pairs Pb and Pab yielded amplicons of the same size, so they were used in separate reactions. All primers used were synthesized by Inqaba biotechnical Industries Ltd (Republic of South Africa) (The primer sequences are shown in Table 1).

CPV type	Primer	Primer sequence	Location	Amplicon size
CPV-2a	Pabs	5'-GAAGAGTGGTTGTAAATAATT-3'	3025-3045	427
	Pabas	5'-CCTATATAACCAAAGTTAGTAC-3'	3685-3706	
CPV-2b	Pbs	5'-CTTTAACCTTCCTGTAACAG-3'	4043-4062	427
	Pbas	5'-CATAGTTAAATTGGTTATCTAC-3'	4449-4470	
CPV	H for	CAGGTGATGAATTTGCTACA	3556-3575	610
	H <u>rev</u>	CATTTGGATAAACTGGTGGT	4185-4166	

s-sense and as-antisense

#### 2.5 PCR assay

The PCR assay was performed as per Pereira et al. (2000) [40] with some modifications. The PCR reaction mixture(25 $\mu$ I) consisted of DreamTaq Green Master Mix(2x) containing: Dream Taq DNA polymerase, 2x Dream Taq Green buffer, dATP, dCTP, dGTP and dTTP,0.4 mM each, and 4 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>. The primer pairs used in amplification were Pbs/Pbs, Pabs/Pabs and H *for*/H *rev*, each 1 $\mu$ I (0.4 $\mu$ M), 6.5  $\mu$ I of water free nuclease and 3 $\mu$ I of template DNA.

The convectional PCR thermal cycling conditions were set as: activation of DreamTaq DNA polymerase at 94°C for 3minutes, 30cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 seconds, primer annealing at 55 °C for 1 minute, extension at 72 °C for 1 minute, final extension at 72 °C for 5 minutes and 4 °C final hold.

#### 2.6 Gel-Electrophoresis

The Gel-electrophoresis of the PCR products were analyzed using 1.5% agarose gels stained by Gel-Green nucleic acid stain to view the 610bp and 427bp bands so as to verify the presence of the CPV strains . The PCR products were run on gel along with a DNA ladder of 100bp in 1X TBE electrophoresis buffer. Then the results from the gels were visualized by ultraviolet illumination using Gel Doc <sup>TM</sup> EZ Imager (Bio- Rad Laboratories, Inc) (Figure 1 & 2).

#### 2.7 Statistical Analysis

The summarized data were analyzed using Mintab16 (Mintab16, Inc, state college-Pennsylvania) to estimate the CPV DNA prevalence in domestic dogs. The 95% confidence intervals for CPV DNA prevalence were estimated. For this study one sample proportional statistical analysis was performed on Mintab16 platform.

# 3. Results

The prevalence of CPV DNA in apparently healthy domestic dogs was 10.4 % (8/77) [95% CI=3.58% - 17.22%]. The prevalence of CPV-2a was 6.5% (5/77) and CPV-2b 3.9% (3/77). The CPV positive cases were detected in samples collected from six different villages, namely Merenga (MR), Losoito (LS), Nyamburi(NY), Nyambwaga (NM), Itiryo (IT), and Kitaramanka (KT), in different districts (Serengeti and Tarime). Among the 12 sampled villages, 4 positive cases were from 2 villages in Tarime district (two cases from each, Nyamwaga and Itiryo), also, 4 positive cases were from four villages (one case from each, Bisarara, Merenga, Losoito, and Nyamburi) in Serengeti district, whereas, none of case was detected from among the three sampled villages (Pinyinyi, Engakaseko, and Malambo) in Loliondo district. In summary, Serengeti district-4 cases, Tarime district-4 cases, and none in Loliondo district, therefore, six out of 12 sampled villages had positive cases for CPV-2a and 2b.

The positive samples were from the domestic dogs with the ages of 6, 8, 9 and 10 months, but also 1 and 2 years old [Four cases (50%) were from below one year and the other

#### International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR) ISSN (Online): 2319-7064 Impact Factor (2012): 3.358

four cases (50%) were from one year and above]. In terms of sex, six out of eight of the positive samples were females, furthermore, all the positive CPV cases were from the samples collected in 2008 and 2009 years, and none of the samples from 2007 tested positive.



**Figure 1:** Agarose gel-electrophoresis and GelGreenflorescence of PCR amplified samples using primer Pab. The samples 131,134,135,136,138,139,140 and 106 are positive for CPV-2a/b.



**Figure 2**: Agarose gel-electrophoresis and GelGreenflorescence of PCR amplified samples using primer H. The samples 13, 136, and 107 are positive for CPV.

# 4. Discussion

This study provides the first data on the prevalence of CPV antigenic strains type-2a and 2b in asymptomatic domestic dogs in Tanzania. Approximately one in ten healthy dogs was positive (8 out 77) which suggests that dogs can be potential carriers of the virus.

In this study, the prevalence of antigenic strains CPV-2a was almost twice as high as CPV-2b. This finding is in agreement with studies in countries such as Italy, German, Korea, China, French and Taiwan where CPV-2a has been reported to be more predominant [18, 41-43]. In contrast, CPV-2b has been reported to be the predominant strain in other parts of the world. E.g. Southern Africa, USA, Japan and Turkey [39, 44].The reason why the CPV stains vary in frequencies in different localities is unknown [45]. Since the samples used in this study were collected from only one geographical region (Northern Tanzania including Musoma, Simiyu and Arusha regions), consequently the reported prevalence of CPV-2a is being higher than CPV-b in Tanzania might change if domestic dogs had been sampled from the entire country.

This study reported a prevalence of 10.4% (8/77), but in some other places, there are some reports showing even higher prevalence. For instance, analyses of the faeces of stray dogs in South Korea and Cape Verde (Africa) detected

a seroprevalence of CPV-2a of 93.8%, and a prevalence of CPV DNA of 43.3% (23/53) respectively [31, 32]. The reason for variation in proportions of CPV strains in different countries is currently unknown. However, probably this can be associated to poor animal husbandry which normally results in free-ranging/stray dogs and also, ineffective policies for controlling the disease, for example, lack of routine vaccination campaigns.

Though, 12 villages were sampled, but the CPV positive cases were detected in samples from only six villages in two districts. In Serengeti district, there were two times the number of villages 4/12 (33%) with positive cases of CPV compared to the number of villages 2/12 (17%) with such cases in Tarime district, and surprisingly, none of the villages in Loliondo district had a positive case. So, Serengeti district had the largest proportion (33%) of the CPV cases detected in domestic dogs followed by Tarime district which had a proportion of 17%. The proportion of the villages without positive CPV-2a and 2b cases from all three districts was  $6\12$  (50%). Although, the proportion of the villages with positive cases in Serengeti district was half of the number to that of Serengeti, but there were equal number of the positive cases of the CPV-2a and 2b in such districts. Therefore, from these results we suggest that CPV is localized to some places, since the positive cases were detected in some villages.

Normally CPV affects puppies [22, 23], though in some cases it has been reported to affect older dogs [24], but in this study two positive cases were from old domestic dogs with ages above one year. There are two possibilities of explaining this result, in the first case, there is a probability that the positive adult dogs could have been infected when puppies and then remained carriers of the virus, alternatively, the dogs could have been infected at their adult age, supporting the view that the adult dogs are susceptible to canine parvovirus.

The detection of canine parvovirus DNA in samples dating back to 2007 shows that CPV has been circulating in domestic dogs for at least seven years. Indeed, 34% (14/55) of sera samples collected from free ranging black-backed jackals (*Canis mesomelas*) between 1987 and 1988 in Kenya were found to be positive for antibodies against CPV [46] indicating that the virus has been circulating in East Africa since at least 1987. Since only emerged in 1978 in Ontario [47] these findings indicate how fast CPV has spread.

The presence of CPV in domestic dogs from the villages around the Serengeti national park, and reports of domestic dogs, which live in villages on the periphery of the Serengeti ecosystem, roaming some distance into park areas in search for food [48] suggests that transmission to wild carnivores is a possibility. Furthermore, transmission might occur when wild carnivores enter human settlement areas to scavenge for food or predate upon domestic dogs [46, 49]. Sick dogs are likely to be easier targets and more frequently eaten which may further potentiate transmission.

Canine parvovirus causes high mortality in puppies dramatically impacting reproductive success [50]. In small and endangered wildlife populations, therefore, the implications of a CPV outbreak could be catastrophic [51]. Indeed, CPV has been implicated as a barrier to the recovery of wolf populations in North America [52].

The asymptomatic dogs can continue shedding the virus in the environment where it stays viable for longer periods, up to 52 days [16],Therefore, the transmission and spread of the virus can occur in absence of direct contact between the animals, since they can contract it from the contaminated environment [53], this has an implication in making the disease endemic in dogs because other susceptible dogs may contract the virus either from the dog shelter such as kernels or from the contaminated environment.

# 5. Conclusion

This current study report the detection of CPV-2a and 2b in apparently healthy domestic dogs in regions surrounding the Serengeti ecosystem, Tanzania. The detection of the CPV in asymptomatic dogs shows that the CPV can remain unnoticed among the dog population, hence creates a potential risk in terms of transmission and persistence of the disease, since they can continue shedding the virus in the environment. Furthermore, it was found that CPV-2a is a predominant circulating strain in domestic dogs in Tanzania.

Despite of the safe and effective vaccines in place, CPV remains to be an important pathogen which causes mortality and morbidity in domestic dogs in Tanzania. Since the communities living in proximity to the Serengeti ecosystem own domestic dogs which are seldom vaccinated because people are ignorant on the importance of vaccination, poor infrastructures and high costs of the vaccines, these limit the availability of vaccines, consequently, this may result in a large number of unvaccinated dogs of which make the CPV to continue persisting among the dog population, hence serve as reservoirs and source of infections both to other domestic dogs and susceptible wild carnivore species. So vaccination of domestic dog pathogens could probably be an appropriate practice in controlling the disease both in wild and domestic carnivores, so to ensure successes, the practice should be compulsory and enforced by laws.

### 6. Acknowledgement

The study was financially supported by the Nelson Mandela African Institution of Science and Technology (NM-AIST) and we are so grateful to Carnivore Disease Project (CDP) working under the Serengeti Health Initiative Project (Tanzania) for providing us with samples used in this study. Also, thanks to Nicholaus Peter Myambwa for his wonderful support in technical assistance during my study.

# References

- Daniels, T.J. and M. Bekoff, Population and social biology of free-ranging dogs, Canis familiaris. Journal of Mammalogy, 1989: p. 754-762.
- [2] Begon, M., et al., Rodents, cowpox virus and islands: densities, numbers and thresholds. Journal of Animal Ecology, 2003. 72(2): p. 343-355.

- [3] Dye, C., et al., Microparasite group report: persistence of microparasites in natural populations. Ecology of infectious diseases in natural populations (eds BT Grenfell & AP Dobson). Publications of the Newton Institute, 1995: p. 123-143.
- [4] Cleaveland, S., M. Laurenson, and L. Taylor, Diseases of humans and their domestic mammals: pathogen characteristics, host range and the risk of emergence. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences, 2001. 356(1411): p. 991-999.
- [5] Hess, G., et al., Spatial aspects of disease dynamics. The ecology of wildlife diseases, 2002: p. 102-118.
- [6] Knipe, D. and P. Howley, Fields of virology. edition (2006) Ith edition. 2007, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- [7] Reed, A.P., E.V. Jones, and T.J. Miller, Nucleotide sequence and genome organization of canine parvovirus. Journal of virology, 1988. 62(1): p. 266-276.
- [8] Parrish, C.R., Host range relationships and the evolution of canine parvovirus. Veterinary microbiology, 1999. 69(1): p. 29-40.
- [9] Nakamura, M., et al., A novel antigenic variant of canine parvovirus from a Vietnamese dog. Archives of virology, 2004. 149(11): p. 2261-2269.
- [10] Truyen, U., Emergence and recent evolution of canine parvovirus. Veterinary microbiology, 1999. **69**(1): p. 47-50.
- [11] Hoelzer, K. and C.R. Parrish, The emergence of parvoviruses of carnivores. Veterinary research, 2010. 41(6): p. 39.
- [12] Ikeda, Y., et al., Feline host range of canine parvovirus: recent emergence of new antigenic types in cats. Emerging infectious diseases, 2002. **8**(4): p. 341.
- [13] Truyen, U. and C.R. Parrish, Feline Panleukopenia virus: Its interesting evolution and current problems in immunoprophylaxis against a serious pathogen. Veterinary microbiology, 2013.
- [14] Shackelton, L.A., et al., High rate of viral evolution associated with the emergence of carnivore parvovirus. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 2005. **102**(2): p. 379-384.
- [15] Burtonboy, G., et al., Canine hemorrhagic enteritis: detection of viral particles by electron microscopy. Archives of virology, 1979. 61(1-2): p. 1-11.
- [16] Decaro, N., et al., Clinical and virological findings in pups naturally infected by canine parvovirus type 2 Glu-426 mutant. Journal of veterinary diagnostic investigation, 2005. 17(2): p. 133-138.
- [17] Parrish, C., R. Oliver, and R. McNiven, Canine parvovirus infections in a colony of dogs. Veterinary microbiology, 1982. 7(4): p. 317-324.
- [18] Decaro, N. and C. Buonavoglia, Canine parvovirus—A review of epidemiological and diagnostic aspects, with emphasis on type 2c. Veterinary microbiology, 2012. 155(1): p. 1-12.
- [19] Ikeda, Y., et al., Predominance of canine parvovirus (CPV) in unvaccinated cat populations and emergence of new antigenic types of CPVs in cats. Virology, 2000. 278(1): p. 13-19.
- [20] Parrish, C.R., et al., The global spread and replacement of canine parvovirus strains. The Journal of general virology, 1988. 69: p. 1111-1116.
- [21] Steinel, A., et al., Parvovirus infections in wild carnivores. Journal of Wildlife Diseases, 2001. **37**(3): p. 594-607.

#### International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR) ISSN (Online): 2319-7064 Impact Factor (2012): 3.358

- [22] Nandi, S. and M. Kumar, Canine parvovirus: current perspective. Indian Journal of Virology, 2010. 21(1): p. 31-44.
- [23] Houston, D., C. Ribble, and L. Head, Risk factors associated with parvovirus enteritis in dogs: 283 cases (1982-1991). Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association, 1996. 208(4): p. 542-546.
- [24] Nandi, S., et al., Emergence of Canine Parvovirus-2 Variants and its Impact on Vaccination. World Applied Sciences Journal, 2013. 23(10).
- [25] Nandi, S., et al., Occurrence of canine parvovirus type 2c in the dogs with haemorrhagic enteritis in India. Research in veterinary science, 2010. **88**(1): p. 169-171.
- [26] Appel, M., et al., Status-report-canine viral-enteritis. 1978, amer veterinary medical assoc 1931 n meacham rd suite 100, schaumburg, il 60173-4360.
- [27] Aldaz, J., et al., High local genetic diversity of canine parvovirus from Ecuador. Veterinary microbiology, 2013. 166(1): p. 214-219.
- [28] Acosta-Jamett, G., Role of domestic dogs in diseases of significance to humans and wildlife health in central Chile. 2010.
- [29] Bajehson, D.B., Molecular characterization of canine parvovirus strains from domestic dogs in South Africa and Nigeria. 2010, University of Pretoria.
- [30] Berentsen, A.R., et al., Rabies, canine distemper, and canine parvovirus exposure in large carnivore communities from two Zambian ecosystems. Vector-Borne and Zoonotic Diseases, 2013. 13(9): p. 643-649.
- [31] Castanheira, P., et al., Molecular and serological surveillance of canine enteric viruses in stray dogs from Vila do Maio, Cape Verde. BMC veterinary research, 2014. 10(1): p. 91.
- [32] Yang, D.-K., et al., Serological survey for canine parvovirus type 2a (CPV-2a) in the stray dogs in South Korea. Journal of Bacteriology and Virology, 2010. 40(2): p. 77-81.
- [33] Cleaveland, S., et al., Serological and demographic evidence for domestic dogs as a source of canine distemper virus infection for Serengeti wildlife. Veterinary microbiology, 2000. 72(3): p. 217-227.
- [34] Roelke-Parker, M.E., et al., A canine distemper virus epidemic in Serengeti lions (Panthera leo). Nature, 1996. 379(6564): p. 441-445.
- [35] Cleaveland, S., The epidemiology of rabies and canine distemper in the Serengeti, Tanzania. 1996, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine.
- [36] Woodroffe, R., The conservation implications of immobilizing, radio-collaring and vaccinating free-ranging wild dogs. The African wild dog: status survey and conservation action plan. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland, 1997: p. 124-138.
- [37] Haydon, D., et al., Low-coverage vaccination strategies for the conservation of endangered species. Nature, 2006. 443(7112): p. 692-695.
- [38] Laurenson, K., et al., Disease as a threat to endangered species: Ethiopian wolves, domestic dogs and canine pathogens. Animal Conservation, 1998. 1(4): p. 273-280.
- [39] Yilmaz, Z., A. Pratelli, and S. Torun, Distribution of antigen types of canine parvovirus type 2 in dogs with hemorrhagic enteritis in Turkey. Turkish Journal of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, 2005. 29(4): p. 1073-1076.

- [40] Pereira, C.A., et al., Molecular characterization of canine parvovirus in Brazil by polymerase chain reaction assay. Veterinary microbiology, 2000. 75(2): p. 127-133.
- [41] Buonavoglia, C., et al., Evidence for evolution of canine parvovirus type 2 in Italy. Journal of General Virology, 2001. 82(12): p. 3021-3025.
- [42] Truyen, U., G. Platzer, and C. Parrish, Antigenic type distribution among canine parvoviruses in dogs and cats in Germany. Veterinary record, 1996. 138(15): p. 365-366.
- [43] Martella, V., et al., A canine parvovirus mutant is spreading in Italy. Journal of clinical microbiology, 2004. 42(3): p. 1333-1336.
- [44] Sagazio, P., et al., Antigenic characterization of canine parvovirus strains isolated in Italy. Journal of virological methods, 1998. 73(2): p. 197-200.
- [45] Firoozjaii, A., et al., Characterization of Iranian isolates of canine parvovirus in fecal samples using polymerase chain reaction assay. Iran. J. Biotech, 2011. 9: p. 63-68.
- [46] Alexander, K., et al., Serologic survey of selected canine pathogens among free-ranging jackals in Kenya. Journal of Wildlife Diseases, 1994. 30(4): p. 486-491.
- [47] Carman, P. and R. Povey, The seroprevalence of canine parvovirus-2 in a selected sample of the canine population in ontario. The Canadian Veterinary Journal, 1984. 25(6): p. 259.
- [48] Butler, J., J. Du Toit, and J. Bingham, Free-ranging domestic dogs (< i> Canis familiaris</i>) as predators and prey in rural Zimbabwe: threats of competition and disease to large wild carnivores. Biological Conservation, 2004. 115(3): p. 369-378.
- [49] Funk, S., et al., The role of disease in carnivore ecology and conservation. Conservation Biology series-cambridge-, 2001: p. 443-466.
- [50] Woodroffe, R., Managing disease threats to wild mammals. Animal Conservation, 1999. **2**(03): p. 185-193.
- [51] Creel, S., et al., Serosurvey for selected viral diseases and demography of African wild dogs in Tanzania. Journal of wildlife diseases, 1997. 33(4): p. 823-832.
- [52] Mech, L.D. and S.M. Goyal, Effects of canine parvovirus on gray wolves in Minnesota. The Journal of wildlife management, 1995: p. 565-570.
- [53] Crawford, C. Canine and Feline Parvovirus in Animal Shelters. in Proceedings of the Western Veterinary Conference, Las Vegas, NV, USA. 2010.

# **Author Profile**



**Optatus Mwalongo**, is a master's degree student at Nelson Mandela African Institution of Science and Technology in Health and BioMedical Sciences in 2012 and 2014, Arusha, Tanzania. During 2008 and ursued his Bachelor of Science in education degree at

2011, He pursued his Bachelor of Science in education degree at University of Dar es salaam, Tanzania.