J. Vet. Med. OH Res. (2024). 6(1-2): 01-107 Website: www.lepvmbj.org p-2664-2352: ISSN: e-2664-2360 DOI:10.36111/jvmohr.2024.6(1-2).0038

A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF BACTERIAL ZOONOTIC DISEASES IN THE LIGHT OF 'ONE HEALTH' APPROACH WITH MULTIDRUG RESISTANCE STATUS IN BANGLADESH

M. A. Samad, PhD, WHO Fellow

Rajuk Uttara Apartment Project (RUAP), Kamini Bhabon, 14D 305, Diyabari, Uttara-18, Dhaka, Bangladesh e-mail: lepvmbj@gmail.com, vetmedbd@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Background: Zoonotic diseases are globally distributed and have important public health, animal health, and economic implications. People in low-income agriculture-based countries, including Bangladesh, are frequently exposed to zoonotic pathogens due to close interaction with domestic and peri-domestic animals. Antibacterial resistance (ABR), including multi-drug resistance (MDR) problems, has been reported in Bangladesh. Without updated knowledge of ABR, no drugs could be prescribed for effective treatment and management of different zoonotic diseases. Different emerging, re-emerging, and endemic zoonotic diseases have been reported in Bangladesh but are hardly presented systematically based on the 'One Health' perspective.

Objective: This search aimed at a systematic review to produce a comprehensive, up-to-date report on bacterial zoonotic diseases (BZD), clarify their antibacterial resistance status, and identify the major areas for future research in Bangladesh.

Materials and Methods: A systematic review investigated the prevalence of ZBD and their ABR status over 50 years from 1970 to 2024, considering Bangladesh's 'One Health' concept. The predominant resources were journal publications either available in the library as hard copies or all available in scientific databases, including PubMed, ResearchGate, and Google Scholar. Research reports on ZBD reported in domestic animals, birds, humans and wildlife were reviewed thoroughly to assess the quality of reporting items for inclusion in the systematic review.

Results: The results of the prevalence, effects, and ABR status of BZD in humans, animals, and birds in Bangladesh are reviewed and analyzed from 434 published research reports supported by 97 foreign-related research reports. The prevalence of significant ZBDs from Bangladesh are anthrax, brucellosis, tuberculosis, salmonellosis, E. coli infection, Staphylococcus infection, campylobacteriosis, and leptospirosis. From 1982-2024, 228 outbreaks of anthrax in animals, especially cattle, caused zoonotic cutaneous anthrax in 3066 humans in Bangladesh. Analysis of the Veterinary Hospital Records of 64 districts showed 13.49% case fatality of livestock caused by anthrax, and mortality varied from 12.9 to 100% in cattle along with two affected human cases died of anthrax in Bangladesh. Tuberculosis was recorded in an overall 11.78% (737/6258) cattle, 3.33% (6/180) buffaloes, 7.75% (32/413) sheep, 1.29% (2/155) goats, 6.67% (6/90) humans and 100% (2/2) monkeys. Out of nine serological tests used, i-ELISA and PCR are considered reliable for accurate diagnosis of brucellosis. An overall 2.69% seroprevalence of brucellosis in cattle, 3.65% in buffaloes, 3.70% in goats, 2.32% in sheep, 4.0% in pet dogs, and 13.33% in stray dogs, and 3.14% in humans were detected by i-ELISA. In contrast, PCR detected 1.99% brucellosis in cattle and was not applied in other species. The milk ring test (MRT) detected an overall 4.38% Brucella-positive milk in lactating cows and 13.64% in lactating goats and reported 3.96% in culture/PCR-positive milk samples. Higher seroprevalence of brucellosis in occupational groups, especially 31.3% in slaughterhouse workers, 11.11% in abattoir butchers, 3.42% in livestock farm workers, 6.45% in milkers/dairy workers, and 9.67% in veterinarians were recorded. An analysis of 85 reports shows that Bangladesh has a high prevalence of 42.86% (5209/12154) E. coli infection, 31.37% (468/1492) Staphylococcus spp., and 19.09% (2228/11594) Salmonella spp. in livestock and humans. Antibiogram studies were conducted with 52 antibacterial drugs against Salmonella spp., E. coli, and Staphylococcus pp. The ABR of Salmonella spp. exhibited the highest resistance to trimethoprim (100%), followed by penicillin (93.22%), cloxacillin (90.35%), tetracycline (89.94%), pefloxacin (88.08%), clindamycin (84.00%), erythromycin (87.19%), and rifampicin (85.33%). E. coli isolates expressed the highest resistance to oxacillin (100%%), followed by cloxacillin (98.48%), trimethoprim (91.10%), rifampicin (90.00%), cephalexin (84.45%), ampicillin (83.97%) amoxicillin (82.13%), and erythromycin (80.36%). Staphylococcus spp. isolates resisted ampicillin (72.58%%), doxycycline (60.29%), cefixime (57.14%), and penicillin (54.81%). MDR at a high level were reported against isolates of these three bacteria, which indicates a high risk of transmission of resistance genes from microbial contamination of livestock origin. Conclusion: Antimicrobials are life-saving drugs, but increasing resistance levels seriously compromise their effectiveness in nearly all bacteria causing infection in food animals and humans. Horizontal gene transfer and/or evolutionary mutations, antimicrobials primarily exert selection pressure that contributes to ABR. The 'One Health' holistic and coordinated approach in human and veterinary medicine, environmental sciences

and public health is required to develop effective surveillance techniques with appropriate diagnostic and therapeutic interventions. Research to control zoonotic diseases is neglected in low-income countries and similarly 'One Health' approach to prevent and control zoonotic diseases is also neglected. However, the spread of ABR bacteria in livestock farms can be prevented by effective biosecurity measures, responsible antibiotic use, and strict regulations in livestock production, whereas infection and drug resistance of ZBD in humans can be prevented by food hygiene, hand hygiene, environmental cleaning, contact precautions, active surveillance cultures, education, antimicrobial stewardship and personal protective equipment.

Keywords: Bacterial zoonotic diseases, Prevalence, Antibacterial resistance, Multidrug resistance, One Health approach, Bangladesh

Article Info: Article Code No. © Received: 20 March 2024	LEP: JVMOHR/0038/2024 Revised: 11 May 2024	Accepted: 21 October 2024	Published: 31 December 2024
Cite this article: Samad MA resistance status in Bangladesh	(2024). A systematic review of ba a J. Vet. Med. OH Res. 6 (1-2): 01-1	cterial zoonotic diseases in the light of '007 [doi: 10.36111/jvmohr.2024.6(1-2).00	one health' approach with multidrug [38]

Copy right © 2024. The Authors. Published by LEP. This is an open-access article under the CC-BY-NC-ND License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/BY-NC-ND/4.0/)

INTRODUCTION

A comprehensive literature review identifies 1415 species of infectious organisms pathogenic to humans, including 217 viruses and prions, 538 bacteria and rickettsia, 307 fungi, 66 protozoa, and 287 helminths. Out of these, 868 (61.0%) are zoonotic (transmitted between animals and humans), and 175 pathogenic species are associated with diseases considered to be 'emerging' of which 132 (75.0%) are emerging and re-emerging infections being considered as zoonotic pathogens.^{1,2} Globally, it is estimated that 2.5 billion cases related to zoonotic infections are reported yearly, resulting in 2.7 million deaths.³ Classification of zoonotic diseases is mainly based on etiology, which includes microbial (bacterial, viral, fungal, rickettsial, chlamydial, mycoplasmal), parasitic (nematodes, trematodes, cestodes, protozoal) and acellular non-viral pathogenic agents. Global literature on zoonotic diseases is voluminous, as is inland literature. Writing a manuscript on all zoonotic diseases will make the manuscript voluminous, even with inland literature. Accordingly, attempts have been made to write review articles based on groups of zoonotic diseases like bacterial zoonotic diseases, viral zoonotic diseases, etc. The WHO / WOAH has classified the bacterial zoonotic diseases A (anthrax, botulism, plague, and tularemia) and B (brucellosis, foodborne agents- E. coli 0157:H7, salmonellosis & shigellosis, glanders, psittacosis, melioidosis, Q-fever and typhus fever) categories. The zoonotic bacterial pathogens, especially Campylobacter, Salmonella, Listeria monocytogenes, and the Enterobacteriaceae family, are frequently recorded in livestock animals and poultry bird species, as well as in wildlife, pet, and rodents, causing foodborne diseases.⁴ Zoonotic bacterial diseases are those diseases caused by bacterial pathogens that can be very commonly transmitted naturally between vertebrate animals and humans. The development of antimicrobial resistance due to overuse and misuse of antibiotics has caused increasing public health problems globally. Changes in human lifestyle and closer contact with animals have caused some bacterial infections to re-emerge. Some bacterial zoonotic diseases re-emerged after they were eradicated or under control in most industrial countries. The spread and importance of some bacterial zoonoses are increasing globally, with more problems occurring in low-income countries, including Bangladesh. However, both emerging and re-merging bacterial zoonoses have gained increasing incidence globally, including in Bangladesh. People with close contact with many animals, such as pet owners, farmers, abattoir workers, zoo/pet shop workers, and veterinarians, are at a higher risk of contracting a zoonotic disease. Food-borne zoonoses are a significant public health concern globally, and every year, many people are affected by diseases caused by animal sources of food consumption. Antibiotic-resistant zoonotic bacterial diseases are of particular importance for at-risk groups of people who are either temporarily immunosuppressed owing to pregnancy, infant age, or long-term immunosuppressed because of cancer treatment or organ transplant, diabetes, alcoholism, or an infectious disease like AIDS.⁵ The 'One Health' concept interconnected humans, animals, and the environment in a complex and diversified manner, and the resistant bacteria, including resistance genes, spread in the environment, including soils, surface, and groundwater.^{6,7} The prevalence of zoonotic diseases associated with public health threats has been reported earlier in Bangladesh,⁸ followed by 'One Health' zoonotic disease prioritization of six diseases including anthrax, brucellosis, Nipah, Rabies, Zoonotic influenza, and Zoonotic tuberculosis.⁹ Also, some reviews have described zoonotic diseases with etiology, impact, and control,¹⁰ and significant zoonotic diseases of public health importance.¹¹ This comprehensive review describes a systematic overview of bacterial zoonotic diseases with a special emphasis on prioritizing zoonotic diseases in Bangladesh.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The review article, 'Public health threat caused by zoonotic diseases in Bangladesh,' was published based on a review of all the available inland-related articles up to 2010.⁸ In addition to this review report, some similar reports have been published from Bangladesh.^{10,11} However, this paper includes a view of all

available inland reports on zoonotic diseases supported by international-related research reports, mainly published in peer-reviewed journals locally in Bangladesh and abroad up to early 2024. A literature search using the digital archives Google Scholar, PubMed, ScienceDirect, Web of Science, and Bangladesh Journal online uses different terms of zoonotic diseases based on different bacterial zoonotic diseases. All the related review articles, original papers, case reports, and short communications on all aspects of zoonotic bacterial diseases were reviewed. In addition, zoonotic disease reports from the WHO, FAO, IAE, CDC, and IEDCR were also reviewed using Google search.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Humans have had intimate relationships with animals and birds since they were domesticated in ancient times. Some animals and birds are reared to provide food like meat, milk, or clothing, some for recreational purposes and others for companionship or as guards like dogs. Although humans benefit from these interactions, there are occasionally disadvantages to humans due to the transmission of zoonotic infections from animals. Zoonotic diseases are diseases and infections naturally transmitted between humans and vertebrate animals. There are three classes of zoonotic diseases: (a) Endemic zoonotic diseases, which are present in many places and affect many people and animals; (b) Epidemic zoonotic diseases, which are sporadic in temporal and spatial distribution; and (c) Emerging and re-emerging zoonotic diseases, which are newly appearing in a population or have existed previously but are rapidly increasing in incidence or geographical range.¹² Globally, about 2.5 billion cases of human illness and 2.7 million human deaths occur every year from zoonotic diseases.¹³ An estimated 60.0% of known infectious diseases and up to 75.0% of new emerging infectious diseases (EIDs) are zoonotic in origin. Over 30 new human diseases have been detected in the last three decades, 75.0% of which have originated in animals.² Zoonotic diseases are essential in both human and veterinary medicine because animals share 61.0% (868/1415) of human pathogens, 64.0% (14/22) of infectious agents identified from 1973 to 1994 are zoonoses, and 73.0% (130/177) of emerging infectious diseases are zoonotic in origin.¹⁴ Table 1 shows the bacterial zoonotic diseases with their hosts, etiology, and clinical findings in humans.

Table 1. Bacterial zoonotic diseases with their pathogens, hosts and major symptoms in humans ⁹										
S/ Zoonotic N disease	Causal agent	Animal hosts	Rank score* (Table 2)	Major symptoms, systems and organs involved						
01. Anthrax	Bacillus anthracis	Wide host range- ruminants, humans	0.85	Skin, respiratory & GI tract symptoms						
02. Brucellosis	Brucella abortus, B. melitensis, B. suis, B. canis	Cattle, goats, sheep, pigs & dogs	0.63	Fever, back & joint pain, poor appetite & weight loss						
03. Tuberculosis	Mycobacterium bovis M. caprae, M. microti, M. orygis	Cattle, sheep, swine, deer, wild boars, camels, & bison	0.20	Respiratory organs, bone marrow						
04. Bubonic plague	Yersinia pestitis	Rock & ground squirrels, wood rats, prairie dogs, mice, voles, chipmunks, & rabbits	0.59	Fever, chills, abdominal pain, diarrhea, vomiting, and bleeding from natural opening, pain & swollen lymph nodes						
05. Glanders and Melioidosis	Burkholderia mallei	Horse, donkeys, and mules	0.70	Fever, sweating, muscle aches, chest pain, muscle tightness & headache						
06. Leprosy 07. Leptospirosis	Mycobacterium leprae Leptospira interrogans	Monkeys, rats, mice, cats Wild & domestic animals including pet dogs	s 0.57	Endemic skin lesions ¹⁵ Fever, abdominal pain, jaundice, and with red eyes						

Contd. Table 1. 08. Tularemia	Francisella tularensis	Rabbits, squirrels, muskra deer, sheep, bull snakes, v rodents beavers cats & d	ats, - wild logs	Joint pain, diarrhea, and dry cough
09. Aliarcobacter	Aliarcobacter butzleri	Cattle, sheep, pigs and	.085	Reported bdominal pain, fever,
infections	A. cryaerophilus A. skirrowii	chickens		and vomiting in BD ⁻²
10. Actinomycosis	Actinomyces bovis	Cattle, sheep, horses, pigs	s, Reported in BD	Swelling lymph nodes, soft tissues, skin and abscesses ¹⁷⁻¹⁹
 Bordetellosis Lyme disease Campylobacter enteritis 	Bordetella bronchiseptica Borrelia burgdorferi Campylobacter jejuni Campylobacter coli	Cats and dogs Cats, dogs & horse Cattle, sheep, chickens, turkeys, dogs, cats, mink, ferrets and pigs	- I 0.19	Respiratory problems Fever, headache, skin rash, erythema Enteric disorders, acute flaccid paralysis (AFP) ²⁰
14. <i>Campylobacter</i> <i>fetus</i> infection	C. f. subsp. fetus C f subsp testudinum	Cattle, sheep & goats	Reported in BD	Enteric disorders ²¹
15. Clostridioides	Clostridioides difficile	Cattle, horse & birds	Reported	Pseudomembranous colitis, and diarrhea $\frac{22}{2}$
16. Corynebacterium	C. ulcerans C. pseudotuberculosis	Cattle, dogs and cats	Reported	Diphtheria ²³
17. Enterohemorrhagic <i>E. coli</i> infection	<i>Escherichia coli</i> 0157:H7	Cattle, sheep, pigs, deer, dogs, and poultry	0.26	Enteritis and Hemolytic-uremic syndrome (HUS)
18. Helicobacter infection	Helicobacter pullorum Helicobacter suis	Poultry and pigs	-	Peptic ulcer
	Helicobacter pylori	Humans	Reported	Peptic ulcer ²⁴
19. Vibriosis	Vibrio parahaemolyticus	Farm animals	0.19	Enteritis
	Vibrio cholerae	Humans	Reported in BD	Enteritis ²⁵
20. Salmonellosis	Salmonella enterica Salmonella bongor	Domestic animals, birds, and dogs	0.46	Enteritis ²⁶
21. Ehrlichiosis	Anaplasma	Sheep, cattle, deer,	Reported	Fever, headache, fatigue, muscle
(Rickettsia)	phagocytophilum Ehrlichia ewingii	dogs and cats Ticks	in BD	aches, and occasionally rash 27
22. Pasteurellosis	Pasteurella multocida	Poultry, pigs, cattle, buffaloes, sheep, goats, deer, cats, dogs, antelope	-	Fever, vomiting, diarrhea, and gangrene. Local wound infection, usually followed by an animal bite or scratch.

*Rank score in Bangladesh (out of 1.0) BD = Bangladesh

Others! = Ehrlichia ewingii, Ehrlichia chaffeensis, Ehrlichia canis, Neorickettsia sennetsu

Most of the review reports on zoonotic diseases have been published based on limited data from the research reports but included the priority zoonotic diseases in Bangladesh, including anthrax, tuberculosis, brucellosis, salmonellosis, campylobacteriosis, leptospirosis, and food-borne diseases.^{8,10,11,28,29} There are 41 zoonotic diseases have been recognized in Bangladesh, and their ranking has been made based on five criteria, which include (a) Severity of disease, (b) Intervention ability, (c) Economic burden, (d) Transmissibility and (e) Response capacity (Table 2). A 'One Health' approach that considers humans, domestic and peri-domestic animals, and the environment is required to control zoonotic diseases effectively globally, including in Bangladesh.

Bacterial	zoonotic	diseases	in	Bang	lade	esł	1
				. 0			

Tabl	Table 2. Ranked zoonotic disease list from the 'One Health' zoonotic disease prioritization workshop for Bangladesh ⁹											
Rank Zoonotic diseases		Ranked Score	Rank Zoonotic diseases		Ranked Score	Ranl	k Zoonotic diseases	Ranked Score				
01	Rabies	1.00	15	MERS-CoV	0.49	30	Giardiasis	0.26				
02	Zoonotic influenza	1.00	16	Salmonellosis	0.46	31	Trematodiasis	0.24				
03	Anthrax	0.85	17	Rotavirus	0.44	32	Toxoplasmosis	0.24				
04	Japanese encephalitis	0.81	18	Leishmania	0.44	33	Amoebiasis	0.22				
05	Nipah	0.76	19	Yellow fever	0.44	34	Cryptosporidiosis	0.20				
06	Ebola	0.71	20	Psittacosis	0.44	35	Zoonotic tuberculosis	0.20				
07	Glanders and Melioidosis	0.70	21	Nematodiasis	0.42	36	CCHF	0.19				
08	Bovine spongiform	0.67	22	Kyanasur forest disease	0.41	37	Campylobacteriosis	0.19				
	Encephalopathy (BSE)		23	Rift Valley fever	0.37	38	Schistosomiasis	0.16				
09	Brucellosis	0.63	24	Q fever	0.34	39	Hepatitis E	0.15				
10	Plague	0.59	25	West Nile virus	0.42	40	Lymphatic filariasis	0.15				
11	Leptospirosis	0.57	26	Orf & Pseudocowpox	0.31	41	Typhus	0.07				
12	SARS	0.52	27	Cysticercosis	0.29							
13	Hydatid disease	0.51	28	Escherichia coli (EC)	0.26							
14	Listeriosis	0.49	29	Balantidiasis	0.26							

SARS = Severe acute respiratory syndrome CCHF = Crimean-Congo Hemorrhagic Fever

EC = including EHEC, ETEC and 0:157

MERS-CoV = Middle East Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus

Typhus - including Scrub Typhus, Murine Typhus, and Cat-flea Typhus

Livestock production associated with environmental and public health hazards

Livestock production has long been associated with possible threats to human health regarding zoonotic diseases, food safety hazards from infectious agents, and antibiotic resistance in humans arising from indiscriminate use of antibiotics in both livestock and humans. Livestock farmers and consumers of livestock products risk contracting zoonotic infections, including foodborne infections and intoxications. Gaseous pollutants and bioaerosols are emitted directly from livestock, and pollutants that are excreted with livestock waste, including nutrients, pathogens, natural and synthetic hormones, veterinary antimicrobials, and heavy metals that can enter local soil, surface, and groundwater, and pose direct and indirect public health hazards. Among the environmental bacterial pathogens, food and waterborne E. coli causes diarrhea, hemorrhagic colitis, and hemolytic-uremic syndrome in humans. E. coli 0157:H7 has evolved behaviors and strategies to persist in the environment. The impact of livestock-keeping practices and their implications on public health and environmental issues of *E. coli* infections are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. <i>Escherichia coli</i> isolated from different hosts and its virulence study in chicken embryos ³⁰											
S/ Samples N collected host	No. of samples collected	Embryo inoculated	Embryo death (%)	S/ Samp N collec host	les No. of ted samples collected	Embryo inoculated	Embryo death (%)				
01. Human urine 02. Human stool 03. Cattle 04. Sheep 05. Goat 06. Chicken	10 10 10 10 10 10	6 6 6 6 6	3 50.00) 1 (16.67) 2 (33.33) 2 (33.33) 2 (33.33) 2 (33.33) 6 (100)	07. Duck 08. Pigeo 09. Drain 10. Soil 11. KVE0 12. KAE0	10 n 10 sewage 10 10 C isolates 10 C isolates 10	6 6 6 6 6 6	3 (50.00) 4 (66.67) 1 (16.67) 0 6 (100) 0				

KVEC = Known virulent *E. coli* KAEC = Known avirulent *E. coli*

Antibiogram study of isolated *E. coli* from different sources with gentamicin (GM), azithromycin (AZM), levofloxacin (LVX), tetracycline (TE), ampicillin (AP), ciprofloxacin (CIP), erythromycin (E), amoxicillin (MX), nalidixic acid (NA) and metronidazole (MNZ) showed that the *E. coli* infection of different animals and birds and also of human beings may be treated effectively with LVX and CIP followed by GM and AZM.³¹

The impact of urban livestock-keeping practices and their implications on public health and environmental issues have been assessed in municipalities in certain districts in Bangladesh.³² The local political leaders usually kept the highest number of animals, and about 66% of these animals depended on grazing and scavenging for feed from government and municipal lands, unfenced open land, roadsides, and rubbish dumps that caused different types of human health hazards including dung and urine disposal (20%), malodor (16%), blocked road (14%), flies, parasites and dust (12.0), noise (10%), accidents (9%), water pollution (4%), zoonotic diseases (2%), gas emissions (1%), compromising animal welfare (1%) and others (11%).³²

Heavy metals in the human food chain from animal-source foods

Emerging evidence has shown that municipal garbage waste contains higher amounts of heavy metals and increases health and environmental hazards. Most roaming cattle in municipal areas eat mixed forms of waste, such as food and kitchen leftovers, green waste, papers, paints, chemicals, fertilizers, pesticides, herbicides, tannery, and medical waste.³² All types of municipal waste contain heavy metals, and roaming cattle in urban areas usually take those wastes. The composite form of waste may contain significant heavy metals such as zinc, copper, nickel, lead, cadmium, chromium, and mercury (Table 4).

Ta urł	Table 4. Average heavy metal levels in garbage waste, feces, and milk of urban dairy cows in Mymensingh ³³									
S/	S/ Types of No. of Chromium Zinc Lead Cadmium									
N	N samples samples mg/kg mg/kg mg/kg mg/kg									
1.	Garbage	08	34.27	6.91	9.30	7.93				
2.	Feces	16	38.87	14.07	17.53	12.53				
3.	Milk	16	11.00	3.79	3.46	1.88				

It appears that roaming dairy cattle consume garbage wastes that possess heavy metals such as Cr, Zn, Pb, and Cd to a major extent resulting in the introduction of trace elements in the human food chain.³³

Human health hazards from animal sources methane greenhouse gas

The enteric fermentation of livestock contributes the highest proportion (59%) of greenhouse gas (GHG) emitted from agriculture, followed by rice cultivation (23%), manure management (5%), burning of agricultural crop residue (1%), and soils (12%). Fermentation of carbohydrates in the rumen generates free hydrogen, which is utilized by methanogenic bacteria (like *Methanobrevibacter ruminantium* and *Methanomicrobium mobile*) to reduce carbon dioxide and emit methane. With their symbiotic association, the bacteria in the rumen and the methanogens increase digestion and total microbial production. About 8-12% loss of total dietary energy occurs due to methane formation. Methane production in ruminants depends on the quality, quantity, and digestibility of feed and the type of animal concerned. They can utilize lower-quality forages and crop residues, especially rice straw and weeds from cropland. These low-quality feeds incur low digestibility and significantly contribute to producing high quantities of methane.

Ruminant livestock is one of the key elements for the agriculture-based economy of Bangladesh, although these animals are often condemned as a source of greenhouse gases, mainly methane (CH₄). It was observed that the ration supplied to bovines consisted of 50-60% green roughage, 31-41% rice straw, and 4-5 to 10% concentrate mixture. In terms of DMI, rice straw has contributed the highest (51-65%) proportions, followed by green forage (24-31%) and concentrate mixture (7-17%). In small ruminant ration, 90-95% feed (DMI 75-86%) was supplied from green grasses and concentrate mixtures. Although buffalo, individually, irrespective of sex and age, emitted the highest amount of methane, followed by crossbred and indigenous cattle, goats, and sheep, the males produced more methane than those females in all species.³³ Total methane emissions in Gazipur, Tangail, and Mymensingh districts were 13359.15, 13250.65, and 13653.75 kg/day and 4876.11, 4836.50 and 4983.62 '000' kg/year, respectively. In total, 48,320 kg/day and 309,630 '000' kg/year methane was measured to be emitted in Bangladesh by 56.33 million ruminant livestock, where 64.79% had come from indigenous cattle, followed by crossbred cattle (20.82%), goat (8.79%), buffalo

(5.17%) and sheep (0.43%).³³

Currently, WHO focuses on the WHO blueprint list of priority diseases, which include Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever, Ebola, Marburg, Lassa fever, Middle East respiratory syndrome, Rift Valley fever, Nipah virus, and Henipaviral diseases, but there are some essential zoonotic diseases in the developing world neglected zoonoses include anthrax, brucellosis, tuberculosis, and others.³⁴ Some review articles on zoonotic diseases have been published based on inland reports on single diseases like brucellosis, ^{35,36} anthrax, ³⁷ or some major zoonotic diseases with limited periods, even with incomplete review of reports but up-to-date comprehensive reports are minimal.⁸

Major zoonotic bacterial diseases

Anthrax, tuberculosis, brucellosis, leptospirosis, and listeriosis are the major bacterial diseases associated with livestock production and public health importance. The pathological and molecular study on the affected organs, including mesenteric lymph nodes, lungs, and liver, collected from 50 slaughtered cattle reported that 18.0% of cattle had tuberculosis, 10.0% leptospirosis, and 10.0% listeriosis infection, whereas all samples were negative for brucella infection.³⁸

Anthrax

Anthrax is a zoonotic disease transmitted between animals and humans. Still, only sporadic cases have occasionally been reported in developed countries, including Australia, Sweden, the USA, Italy, and several European countries where it is not a major health issue in animals and humans.³⁹ However, anthrax remains a severely under-reported disease in Africa, Asia, and South America, where humans frequently butcher and eat animals infected with infectious diseases, including anthrax.³⁴ It is still a major health concern for animals and humans in developing and under-developing countries based on agricultural and livestock dependence. An estimate showed every year, 2000 to 20000 human anthrax cases occur globally.⁴⁰ Anthrax outbreaks in animals and humans have been reported in Southeast Asian countries, including Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Nepal, and elsewhere.⁴⁰ Anthrax is caused by a Gram-positive, spore-forming, non-motile bacterium, Bacillus antharcis, which is considered an attractive weapon for bioterrorism because its spores are extremely resistant to natural conditions and can survive for several decades in the environment. Anthrax causative agent is ubiquitous and can survive as a viable spore under extreme weather conditions in the soil for 100 years; thus, it cannot be eradicated.⁴¹ Comparative genomic analysis focusing on single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) discovery revealed a close genetic relationship between these strains from Bangladesh and historic strains collected between 1991 and 2008 in The Netherlands and Germany, respectively.⁴² Isolated strain Tangail-1 harbored both B. anthracis virulence plasmids pX01 and pX02 as confirmed by RT-PCR assays.⁴²

Genotyping based on canonical single-nucleotide polymorphism (canSNF) grouped strain Tangail-1 into the A.Br.001/002 branch, which has previously been isolated in Bangladesh⁴³ and other South Asian countries including China and Central Europe, and this can SNP group of *B. anthracis* seems to be predominant in Bangladesh.⁴²⁻⁴⁴

Anthrax is an endemic zoonotic disease in Bangladesh primarily affecting ruminant animals, caused by the spore-forming, aerobic, gram-positive, non-motile bacterium *Bacillus anthracis*. Anthrax was reported in Bengal in 194845, but its zoonotic prevalence was first reported in humans and cattle in Bangladesh in 1980.⁴⁶ The recurring anthrax outbreaks have been reported in both animals and humans in Bangladesh, where rural animal owners often slaughter their infected animals at the moribund stage and subsequently, sell the infected meat directly to people to compensate for financial losses.⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰ Recently, zoonotic anthrax has been identified in 15 of 64 districts in Bangladesh (Table 5 & 6). Anthrax outbreaks in animals, primarily

cattle (76.62%), have been reported in certain districts in Bangladesh. Occasionally, other animals, including buffaloes (4.98%), goats (16.19%), and sheep (2.22%), have also been affected by anthrax.⁵¹ Similarly, a higher case fatality rate has been reported in cattle (12.9%) than in buffaloes (3.6%) and goats (1.4%) with no case fatality in sheep.⁵¹ Feeding animals with uprooted and unwashed grass and feeding water hyacinth (*Eichhornia crassipes*) were independent risk factors for anthrax in cattle.⁵² Humans are generally affected by anthrax organisms by slaughtering, handling, and processing the meat of infected animals. Knowledge, attitude, and practices towards anthrax among livestock farmers in different districts in Bangladesh have been evaluated and reported half of the animal farmers did not know the mode of transmission of zoonotic anthrax. In addition, the vaccination supply was reported inadequate, and most of the farmers did not show interest in vaccinating their animals. Therefore, it is necessary to ensure increased awareness and modify attitudes on vaccination of the livestock population along with sufficient coverage of the anthrax vaccine to control the anthrax outbreaks.^{53,54} It appears that people in the affected communities had no awareness of the transmission of pathogens from infected animals to humans.⁵⁵

Slaughtering sick animals and selling meat from sick animals at a lower price are commonly observed in Bangladesh.⁴⁷ Types of anthrax exposure in humans in Bangladesh have been reported to be by butchering (20%), contact with meat (46.7%), and live animals infected with anthrax.⁵⁶ People usually do not follow proper carcass disposal of dead animals in Bangladesh, which are mostly thrown in the open fields, rivers, canals, flood water, and ditches of the road, contaminating the newly grown grasses and grazing fields and the environment.⁵⁵ A review of the literature reveals that multiple cutaneous forms of anthrax outbreaks have been reported in more than 1500 humans with no death during the period from 2009 to 2015 in Bangladesh.⁵⁵⁻ Anthrax is a vaccine-preventable disease in animals. Still, a shortage of vaccines and inadequate vaccination programs in the animal population make non-vaccinated animals susceptible to natural infection under field conditions in Bangladesh. Anthrax is a primary disease of animals. If it is controlled in animals by using a scheduled vaccination program, it could help control the infection in humans due to the absence of a source of infection.

Table	Table 5. Reported anthrax outbreaks in animals in Bangladesh ⁸											
S/	Outbreak	Districts	No. of	No. of	Site of	Case fatality	Ref.					
Ν	year		out-	cattle	outbreaks		No.					
			breaks	affected		No. (%)						
01.	1980-'84	Pabna Milk Shed Area	02	62	Villages	43 (69.0)	46					
02.	1984	Dhaka	01	01E	Dhaka Zoo	01	58					
03.	2009-10	Sirajgonj, Pabna & Tangail	14	140	Villages	98 (70.0) ¹	47					
04	2009-10	Sirajgonj, Pabna & Tangail	14	140	Villages	98 (70.0) ¹	55					
05.	2010	Sirajgonj	08	104	Dairy farms	-	43					
06.	2010-12	Sirajgonj	-	159	Upazilas	48 (30.2)	49					
07.	2010-14	Data – Department of Livestock Services	800-1100) -	VHD	March-Sept	59					
08.	2010-12	Secondary survey (Whole Bangladesh)	64*	5937	VHD	801 (13.49)	62					
09.	2011	Pabna, Sirajgonj, Bogra, Faridpur, Meherpur,	11	1278	Villages	165 (12.9)	51					
		& Tangail										
10.	2013-16	Rajshahi, Meherpur, Kushtia, Sirajgonj, Tangail	19	50	Villages	-	61					
11.	2016-17	Sirajgonj (n=2), Tangail (n=1) & Rajbari (n=1)	04	06	Villages	$06 (100)^1$	48					
12.	1980-2023	Bangladesh	06	6354	-	998 (15.7)	39+					

¹Sick animals are slaughtered for meat consumption E = Elephantered

E = Elephant *64 districts VHD = Vet Hos. data 39+ = 6 articles

In Bangladesh, humans are mainly affected by a cutaneous form of anthrax. The Institute of Epidemiology, Disease Control and Research (IEDCR) has maintained the list of outbreak investigations done by IEDCR since 2007. In addition to journal reports, all other available reports, including IEDCR reports on cutaneous anthrax in humans, are also collected and analyzed (Tables 6-9).

Tab	Table 6. Reported cutaneous anthrax outbreaks in humans in Bangladesh ⁸										
S/	Outbreak	Location / Districts	No. of	Site of	No. of human	Ref.					
N	year		outbreaks	outbreaks	affected	No.					
01.	1982-'84	Pabna Milk Shed Area	002	Villages	027	46					
02.	2009	Santhia, Pabna & Shahjadpur, Sirajgonj	002	Villages	055	57					
03.	2010	12 districts	012	Villages	607	57					
04.	2011	7 districts	007	Villages	278	57					
05.	2009-10	Pabna, Sirajgonj & Tangail	014	Villages	273	47					
06	2009-10	Pabna, Sirajgonj & Tangail	014	Villages	273	55					
07.	2010	Sirajgonj	008	Dairy farms	219	43					
08.	2011	Pabna, Sirajgonj, Bogra, Faridpur, Meherpur, Tangail	122	-	002	51					
09.	2011	Rajshahi Medical College Hospital, Rajshahi	Case reports	Hospital	015	56					
10.	2010-12	Sirajgonj	-	Upazilas	258	49					
11.	2012	Sirajgonj, Kushtia, Bogra, Tangail & Meherpur	005	-	176	57					
12.	2012	Sirajganj, Pabna and Tangail	003	-	039	52					
13.	2013	Sirajgonj, Tangail, Meherpur, Chuadanga	005	-	327	57					
14.	2014	Sirajgonj, Narayanganj, Meherpur, Tangail	004	-	225	57					
15.	2015	Meherpur, Naryanganj, Rajshahi, Kushtia	004	-	189	62					
16.	2013-16	Rajshahi, Meherpur, Kustia, Sirajgonj & Tangail	-	17 villages	-	61					
17.	2016	Rajshahi	Case reports	-	013	63					
18.	2016	Sirajgonj, Meherpur, Tangail, Kushtia & Rajshahi	009	Upazilas	-	57					
19.	2017	Rajbari	001	С&Н	017	64					
20.	2016-17	Sirajgonj, Tangail & Rajbari	004	Upazila	070	48					
21.	2023	Meherpur, IDH Dhaka (Oculocutaneous)	002	Hospitals	002	65					
22	2024	DMCH, Dhaka (Periorbital lesion)	001	Hospital	001	66					
23	2024	Gazipur (Cutaneous anthrax)	001	Hospital	-	66					
	Total		220 -		3066						

C & H = Community (n = 11) and Hospital (n = 6)

Tabl	Table 7. Occurrence of cutaneous anthrax cases in humans in different districts in Bangladesh ⁵⁷												
S/	Districts	Years	of outbr	eaks and	d No. of	cases	S /	Districts	Years	of outbr	eaks and	d No. of	cases
Ν		2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Ν		2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
01.	Pabna	069	32	-	-	-	09.	Rajshahi	008	21	-	-	-
02.	Sirajgonj	219	65	74	023	42	10.	Narayangonj	012	-	-	-	008
03.	Kushtia	049	-	05	-	-	11.	Laxmipur	025	-	-	-	-
04.	Tangail	026	29	14	077	26	12.	Chittagong	001	-	-	-	-
05.	Meherpur	082	53	67	187	149	13.	Boghra	-	40	16	-	-
06.	Manikganj	008	-	-	-	-	14.	Chapai-Nawabgon	j -	38	-	-	-
07.	Shatkhira	001	-	-	-	-	15.	Chuadanga	-	-	-	040	-
08.	Lalmonirhat	107	-	-	-	-		Total	607	278	176	327	225

The anthrax outbreaks in animals and humans from 2010 to 2012 in the different upazila in Sirajgonj district showed that the occurrence of anthrax cases in both animals and humans decreased gradually in the succeeding years from 2011 to 2012, which might be due to vaccination campaigns in the earlier year and motivational activities about the transmission of the disease in animals and humans (Table 8).

Table 8. Occurrence of the number of anthrax cases in ruminants and humans from 2010 to 2012 in the Sirajgonj district in Bangladesh^{8,55,60} S/ Risk factors Total Animals Animals Animal N Humans Animals Humans Humans Humans A. Upazila 1. Belkuchi 2. Chouhali 3. Kamarkhanda 4. Kazipur 5. Raiganj 6. Shahazadpur 7. Sirajgonj Sadar 8. Tarash 9. Ullapara Total B. Host species 1. Cattle 2. Buffalo 3. Goat 4. Sheep

Table 9. Major characteristics of bovine and cutaneous human anthrax cases recorded in three districts* during 2016 and 2017 in Bangladesh⁴⁸

S/ N	Characteristics	Bovine anthrax (n = 6)	S/ N	Characteristics	Human anthrax (n = 70)	Sì	N Characteristics	Human anthrax (n = 70)
1.	Fever	6 (100)	A.	General signs		B.	Site of skin lesion	
2.	Fallen on the ground	6 (100)	1.	Skin lesion	70 (100)	1.	Back side	03 (03.20)
3.	Loss of appetite	6 (100)	2.	Itching skin	50 (71.43)	2.	Upper arm	15 (16.00)
4.	Bloody diarrhea	6 (100)	3.	Fever	30 (42.86)	3.	Lower arm	32 (34.00)
5.	Muscle tremor	4 (66.67)	4.	Headache	27 (38.57)	4.	Finger	44 (46.00)
6.	Respiratory distress	3 (50.00)	5.	Nausea	13 (18.57)	C	Source of infection	n
7.	Slaughtered sick animals	6 (100)	6.	Abdominal pain	03 (04.29)	1.	Slaughtering!	38 (54.30)
8.	Anthrax vaccination	0	7.	Diarrhea	02 (02.86)	2.	Handled!!	32 (45.70)
9.	PMB +ve	6 (100)	8.	Vaccination	0			

*Sirajgonj, Tangail & Rajshahi PMB = Polychrome methylene blue != Dressed sick animals !!=Processed meat

Transmission of anthrax

Humans generally acquire zoonotic anthrax directly or indirectly from infected animals or through occupational exposure to infected or contaminated animal products (Fig. 1).

Feeding animals with uprooted and unwashed grass and feeding water hyacinth (*Eichhornia crassipes*) were independent risk factors for anthrax in cattle.⁵² Another study reported that the cattle became sick after eating Kolmi shake (water spinach) collected from a nearby flooded area.⁶⁴

Smallholder livestock farmers often slaughter ruminant animals that are in a moribund state, even those affected by anthrax, and subsequently sell the meat of anthrax-affected animals to compensate for financial losses. Slaughtering and butchering anthrax-infected animals and contact with contaminated raw meat, blood, hides, and skins are the key risk factors for human cutaneous anthrax in Bangladesh.



Fig. 1. Transmission cycle of zoonotic anthrax in cattle and humans

Of the 11 cases of cutaneous anthrax in humans, five females cleaned meat, nine males butchered the animals, three males carried the meat of infected animals, and 59% of affected humans had lesions on their hands.⁶⁴

A surveillance study recorded 104 animal cases of anthrax and 607 associated human cases in the eight investigated dairy farms in the district of Sirajgonj in 2010. The anthrax causative agent *Bacillus anthracis* was recovered from soil samples and turbinate bones on six farms. Of the 17 soil samples collected from burial sites and three from turbinate bones, 13 (76.47%) and three (100%) samples were positive for *B. anthracis*, respectively, with the highest number of isolates in a turbinate bone.⁴³

Animal owners usually slaughtered anthrax-affected moribund animals, ate the meat, and sold it to neighbors; skinners removed and sold hides from discarded carcasses and disposed of butchering waste and carcasses in environments where ruminants live ambient and graze, combined with limited vaccination, provided a context that permitted repeated anthrax outbreaks in animals and humans.⁴⁷ Another study reported that sick animals on the farm or a nearby farm slaughtered in the recent past, a history of heavy rains occurring in the last two weeks preceding an outbreak, and disposal of dead animals into nearby water bodies were independent risk factors for anthrax outbreaks in cattle.⁵⁹

Anthrax spores could be isolated from 11.67% (n = 14/20) of the soil samples collected from the previous outbreaks of anthrax in the districts of Sirajgonj, Bogra, Kushtia, Tangail, and Mymensingh in Bangladesh.⁵³ Another study showed that 7 of 50 soil samples contained anthrax spores.⁶⁷ The soil of Sirajgonj district

showed 29.17% (n = 14/48) positive for *B. anthracis* spores.⁶⁸ Inadequate washing of grasses collected with contaminated soil and the occurrence of flood in the study area have been reported to be significantly correlated with anthrax outbreaks.⁶⁹

This study revealed that poor knowledge, lack of awareness, improper carcass disposal, inadequate vaccination, high calcium content and moisture in the soil, high ambient temperature, and rainfall during the anthrax-prone season were the possible factors of repeated anthrax outbreaks in the investigated areas.⁵³ Another study showed that increasing the ambient temperature and the occurrence of heavy rainfall as well as cloud coverage and wind speed acceleration in the monsoon season, significantly contribute to the anthrax outbreaks in Bangladesh.⁷⁰

Most people (91%) affected with cutaneous anthrax had a history of butchering sick animals for meat, handling raw meat, having contact with animal skin, or being present at slaughter ring sites were the risk factors for human infections. The identical *Bacillus anthracis* genotypes were isolated and identified in animal and human cases.⁵⁵

An investigation of anthrax in humans and animals in four villages in the district of Sirajgonj showed that 49.8% of animals, 44.0% of humans, and 6.2% of birds were affected by anthrax.⁵⁴ Limited community people (2.9 to 20.9%) obtained information on anthrax outbreaks in animals and humans from media, NGO workers, and community health workers.⁵⁴ The control of anthrax in humans depends on infection control in animals. In addition to veterinary medical extension services and hygienic management, targeting at-risk animal populations for vaccination against anthrax may be the most effective strategy to reduce anthrax outbreaks in animals, which protects the supply chain and reduces the risk of exposure to *B. anthracis* in humans.⁷¹

Another study suggested proper grass washing, increased awareness towards zoonosis of anthrax and vaccination, and proper treatment by veterinarians should be ensured to reduce anthrax outbreaks in Bangladesh.⁷² Approximately 71.5% of cattle owners have reported having a level of awareness of anthrax, and 79.2% of cattle owners would not consume meat from dead animals and suggested introducing meat inspection services to prevent human anthrax outbreaks.⁷³

The immunization of cattle with locally available anthrax spore vaccine showed a high level of anti-anthrax IgG antibody at day 30 and reached its peak at day 90 of post-immunization. Anthrax vaccine bacteria has been reported to be sensitive to penicillin, streptomycin, amoxicillin, and kanamycin, and therefore, anthrax-vaccinated animals should not be treated with drugs at least 90 days of vaccination.⁷⁴ A similar immunization experiment in goats showed peak IgG antibody levels at day 30 and maintained that level up to the end of the study at 90 days of immunization.⁷⁵

Anthrax is an emerging zoonotic bacterial disease in Bangladesh.⁷⁶ In addition to ruminant animals and humans, it has occasionally been reported death in a zoo elephant ⁵⁸ and a Safari Park tiger⁷⁷ in Bangladesh. Human anthrax exposure to by-products from animals suspected to have died of anthrax in Bangladesh has been reported.⁶¹ Factors associated with repeated outbreaks of anthrax in Bangladesh have also been reported.⁷⁸ The use of Novel multiplex PCR for rapid detection of *B. anthracis* spores present in soil and genotype of *B. anthracis* strain circulating in Bangladesh have been reported.^{79,80}

Anthrax is a preventable disease caused by vaccines and can be treated with antibiotics; however, specific control procedures on carcass disposal are necessary to contain the disease and prevent its spread.⁸¹ Management of anthrax-infected sick animals and carcasses, as well as antibacterial therapy and vaccination, are the major methods for preventing and controlling anthrax in animals. Management measures include the correct disposal of carcasses, disinfection and decontamination of contaminated materials, and decontamination of the environment. Ruminant livestock animals respond well to penicillin injections if

treated in the early stages of the disease, and oxytetracycline injection daily in divided doses was also reported to be effective. Anthrax can be controlled largely by the annual vaccination of all grazing animals in the endemic areas. Vaccination should be done at least 2-4 weeks before the season when outbreaks may be expected. Zoonotic anthrax in humans is controlled by the control of anthrax in food animals, veterinary supervision of food animal slaughter, and meat processing to reduce human contact with infected animals and animal products. The epidemiology of anthrax involves environmental components, livestock animals, wildlife, and human components. This makes anthrax an ideal example for discussion in the One Health concept.⁸²

An integrated approach has been sought to establish an anthrax-free model, which included regular vaccination of ruminant animals, increased public awareness, rapid confirmatory diagnosis, prompt disposal of carcasses, setting up an effective surveillance system, developing an emergency prevention system, enforcing regulations, and enhancing veterinary services' collaboration. Implementing the anthrax-free model showed that most community members (97.5%) were aware of the nature, occurrence, importance of public health, and management of the disease. The risky habits and attitudes of the farmers toward slaughtering sick cattle reduced significantly (< 85.0%). Vaccination coverage expanded from 40 to 85%, and animal farmers who can presumptively diagnose anthrax clinically have increased from 30 to 85%. The soil of the grazing land contaminated with pathogenic anthrax spores was restricted for either grazing or feeding grasses of the land to cattle. Slaughtering of cattle in the model area was performed after an antemortem examination by a qualified veterinarian in locally set-up slaughterhouses. A committee with members from the administration, law enforcement agencies, local government, livestock, health departments, and political elites monitored this disease control program in the model area. As a result of these works, the model area has been free of anthrax infection for four years. This anthrax research finding concluded that the integrated approach is an efficient, effective, and suitable method to establish an anthraxfree model area where there will be no anthrax.⁸³

Tuberculosis

The name tuberculosis comes from the nodules, called 'tubercles,' which form in the lymph nodes and other affected tissues of affected animals. Tuberculosis is caused by several closely related bacteria in the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex in mammals, which are Gram-positive, acid-fast bacterial rods in the family *Mycobacteriaceae*. The Mycobacterium organisms maintained in animals include *M. bovis* (bovine tuberculosis, bTB), *M. caprae* (caprine tuberculosis, cTB), *M. pinnipedii, M. orygis, M. microti, M. caprae*, and *M. pinnipedii* and *M. orygis* were a member of *M. bovis* before being designated separate species these occasionally affect pets, zoo animals, free-living wildlife and people, whereas *M. tuberculosis* and *M. africanum* are maintained in humans but occasionally affect animals.⁸⁴ However, the taxonomy of the *M. tuberculosis* complex can be controversial and M. bovis and *M. caprae* are sometimes called *M. bovis* subspecies bovis and *M. subspecies caprae*, respectively. Some authors argue that all the organisms in the *M. tuberculosis* complex and *M. caprae* would be renamed *M. tuberculosis* subspecies bovis and *M. tuberculosis*, *M. bovis*, *M. caprae*, *M. origins*, *M. pinniped*, and *M. microtia*, are zoonotic shares between humans and animals.⁸⁴

Although human tuberculosis is one of the listed priority diseases, zoonotic tuberculosis (TB) remains poorly monitored and a critical, unaddressed, neglected global human and animal health problem. There is a higher incidence of zTB in low-income, under-developing, and developing countries, especially Africa and South Asia, including Bangladesh, where dairy products are consumed unpasteurized.⁸⁶

A retrospective study of dairy cattle mortality on the Central Cattle Breeding and Dairy Farm (CCBDF)

between 1992 and 2007 reported a 5.60% average overall mortality rate, with most deaths caused by diseases of the respiratory tract, mainly pneumonia (39.91%) followed by tuberculosis (20.58%) in death cattle.⁸⁷ Some cross-sectional surveys have reported an 8 to 27% prevalence of bTB in cross-bred cattle using the standard tuberculin test in Bangladesh.⁸⁸⁻⁹¹

Zoonotic tuberculosis (zTB) is a form of tuberculosis in humans, predominantly caused by *Mycobacterium bovis* but to a lesser extent by *M. tuberculosis*, *M. caprae* and *M. orygis* (*Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex, MTC.^{92,93} Recently, the detection of *M. orygis* from cattle, captured monkeys, and humans originating from South Asia potentially indicates endemic distribution in South Asia.⁹³ *M. bovis* causes chronic TB in cattle (bTB); however, it may cause infection in goats and other mammalian species,⁹⁴ impacting milk and meat production in these animals. Humans can be infected with zTB via direct contact with infected animals, airborne transmission, or by consuming contaminated raw milk or meat.⁹⁵ Specific groups such as veterinarians, farmers, cattle handlers, slaughterhouse workers, and butchers are at occupational risk for zTB.⁹⁶⁻⁹⁸

Tuberculosis (TB) is an infectious disease caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, causing the highest number of deaths as a single infectious agent globally.⁹⁹ Approximately 10 million people were infected with TB globally, 79% were in the 30 high-burden countries, and 1.2 million people died from TB in 2019.⁹⁹ Each year, tuberculosis claims more than 38,000 people's lives in Bangladesh, and among every 100,000 individuals, 221 new cases of TB are identified annually, resulting in 24 deaths.

Bangladesh ranks seventh among the 30 countries with the highest risk.¹⁰⁰ Approximately 80% of all TB cases in Bangladesh are pulmonary TB.¹⁰¹ The Global TB Report 2020 estimated that 0.7% of new cases and 11% of previously treated cases are found to be positive for multi-drug-resistant TB (MDR-TB), which has an incidence rate of 2.0 per 100,000 population in Bangladesh.⁹⁹ bTB is endemic to Africa, South Asia, and Central and South America and significantly more prevalent in dairy cattle.¹⁰² Of the 188 countries and territories reporting their bTB situation to the OIE, 82 countries (44.0%) were affected. Of the 82 affected countries, 29 (35.4%) reported bTB in livestock and wildlife. Two (2.4%) countries reported bTB present only in wildlife, compared to 51 (62.2%), which indicated that only livestock was affected.¹⁰³ Over 50 million cattle are infected worldwide, and it is estimated that economic losses due to bTB add up to about US\$ 3.0 billion annually.¹⁰⁴ An estimated 140,000 new cases and 11,400 deaths occurred due to zTB in humans in 2019 in the world. In contrast, there were 43,400 cases and 2,020 deaths caused by bTB in Southeast Asia, including Bangladesh.99 Zoonotic tuberculosis in humans is caused mainly by M. bovis, which remains neglected in developing countries, including Bangladesh, where the actual status of the zTB is underestimated due to limited epidemiological reports.^{105,106} In addition, the impact of zTB on human health has also been underestimated in the national tuberculosis control program in Bangladesh. This bacterium is usually transmitted in humans through close contact with infected cattle and consumption of unpasteurized milk.¹⁰⁵ Cattle are the main reservoir of *M. bovis*, which remains latent but occasionally produces lesions characterized mainly by cervical lymphadenopathy, intestinal lesions, and chronic skin lesions like lupus vulgaris.¹⁰⁶

The overall animal-level prevalence of bTB has been estimated to range from 2 to 11.3% in Bangladesh (Table 10).^{89,90,107,108} The yearly reports on the prevalence of bTB in Bangladesh submitted to WHO revealed that the disease is endemic in animals in Bangladesh.¹⁰⁹ This zoonotic disease has a dual impact on human and animal health, and the effects on animal health are associated with reduced milk and meat production, intensifying poverty in marginalized animal farmers.⁹¹ The milk of infected cows may contain *M. bovis*. Although consumption of raw milk is rare in humans, it is not uncommon. In contrast, the milk pasteurization system is inadequate to meet Bangladesh's human consumption demand.⁹¹ However, pasteurization system

is inadequate to meet Bangladesh's human consumption demand.⁹¹ However, pasteurized milk and meat occasionally contain this organism, but Ultra Heat Treatment (UHT) could destroy most of the contaminated bacteria in milk, including TB organisms.¹¹⁰ Moreover, the demand for milk has increased due to rapid urbanization in Bangladesh, influencing the farmers to rear high-yielding crossbred cows. Still, these exotic and their cross-bred have been reported to be more susceptible to bTB than zebu cattle.¹¹¹

The major drawback of the tuberculin skin test (TST) is the inability to detect the energy state of the animal, which is a failure to detect the latent stages of infection and to distinguish between vaccinated and infected individuals.¹¹² The IFN- γ assay (Bovigam[®]) can detect very early stages of the disease by producing IFN- γ in (*in vitro*) stimulated blood samples. It can be used as a promising biomarker in cattle TB diagnosis.¹¹³ The use of both the SICTT and IFN- γ assay in parallel increased the sensitivity of bTB detection (~ 94%) compared with SICTT alone.^{114,115} The result of the PCR technique revealed that out of nine bovine samples, seven (88.0%) gave an amplified band, indicating positive and higher sensitivity of the method.¹¹⁶

Table 10. Prevalence of zoonotic tuberculosis in humans and animals in Bangladesh										
S/ Reagent used/	Name of N	o. of host	s Source of	Test used	Positive	References				
N Species	host	tested	hosts		No. (%)	No.				
01. <i>M. bovis</i>	Cattle	009	Savar &BAU	DF PCR	07 (88.0)	116				
02. bPPD & aPPD	Sheep	273	Dinajpur	CFT	25 (09.15)	117				
	1		01	CCTT	04 (01.46)					
	Goats	155	(Parbotipur)	CFT/CCTT	02 (01.29)					
03. bPPD	Cattle 1/2 -1yr	L 39	Rangpur	CFT	06 (02.34)	118				
	·	C 10	Rangpur	CFT	01 (0.10)					
	Cattle 5-7yr	L 71	Rangpur	CFT	27 (19.17)					
		C 30	Rangpur	CFT	03 (00.90)					
04. bTB	Cows (milk)	300	Sylhet	PCR	37 (12.33)	119				
bTB	Human (sputu	m) 90	Sylhet	PCR	06 (06.67)	119				
05. M. orygis	Cattle	18	Dairy farms	PM & molecular	18 (100)	93				
	Monkeys	02	Zoo		02 (100)					
06. bPPD	Cattle	183	BLRI cattle	Caudal fold TT	16 (08.74)	120				
aPPDd		183	BLRI cattle	CCTT	13 (07.10)					
			BLRI cattle		03 (01.64)					
	RCC	044	BLRI cattle	Caudal fold TT	0					
	Local Pabna	133	bPPD	Caudal fold test	13 (09.77)					
	Cross	006	bPPD	Caudal fold test	0					
	Lactating	067	bPPD	CFT	07 (10.45)					
	Dry cows	043	bPPD	CFT	01 (02.32)					
	Heifers	021	bPPD	CFT	02 (09.52)					
	Calf	052	bPPD	CFT	03 (05.77)					
07. bPPD	Dairy cattle	1865	5 districts	SICTT	211 (11.30)	121				
08. bPPD	Dairy cows	470	3 districts	CFT	101 (21.49)	122				
09. CFT +ve	Dairy cows	101	3 districts	CCT (bPPD, aPPD)	36 (07.66)	122				
10. Serotest (bTB)	Dairy cattle	570	3 districts	BART	05 (0.88)	122				
11. Microscopic	MBT	138	3 districts	Zeihl-Neelsen staini	ng 07 (07.97)	122				
12. bPPD	Sheep	140	Dinajpur dist	rict CFT	07 (5.0)	123				
13. bPPD	Cattle	510	Mymensingh	CFT	105 (20.6)	124				
				CCTT	037 (07.3)					

J. Vet. Med. OH Res 6 (1-2) 2024

Cor	ntd. Table 10. Pr	evalence of zoc	notic tub	erculosis in hun	nans and animals in	Bangladesh	
S/ N	Reagent used/ Species	Name of host	No. of hosts tested	Source of hosts	Test used	Positive No. (%)	References
14.	bPPD	Buffaloes	180	Bhola	SIDT	06 (03.33)	125
15.	M. bovis	Cattle	512	Sylhet district	t CFT	01 (00.19)	126
16.	bTB	Cattle	442	Chattogram	ELISA	33 (07.5)	127
17.	bPPD	Cattle	577	Dhaka city	SICTT	81 (14.2) +ve	114
						44 (7.6) ± 452	-ve
			63+ve	Dhaka city	IFN-γ assay	52 (82.54)	
			$08 \pm$	-	-ELISA	05 (62.50)	
			03 -ve			01 (33.33)	
18.	bPPD	Cattle	*125 +v	ve Dhaka city	IFN-γ assay	104 (83.2)	115
			17 ±		ELISA	11 (64.7)	
			06 -ve			01 (16.67)	

*SICTT = Single intradermal comparative tuberculin test ± Inconclusive CFT = Caudal fold test 5 districts= Dhaka, Gazipur, Munshiganj, Mymensingh & Jamalpur 3 districts = Mymensingh, Sirajgonj & Dhaka CCTT = Comparative cervical tuberculin test BART = Bovine antibody rapid test MBT = Milk, blood & tissue

Risk factors of zoonotic TB

The risks of bTB have been reported to be 3.3 times higher in non-grazing than grazing cows, 2.9 times higher in cross-bred than indigenous cows, and 2.3 times higher in cows with cough than cows without cough.⁹⁷ In the Comparative cervical tuberculin (CCT) test, the reactors were 0.36%, 1.29% for bTB, 1.09%, 1.29% for aTB, and 0%, 1.29% for mixed type for the sheep and goats, respectively. In addition, the Jamunapari (2.85%) goat breed had 3.5 times higher percentages of reactors than the Black Bengal (0.83) breed.¹¹⁷ The bTB and aTB may cause dangerous effects on human health as well as livestock in Bangladesh so prevention and eradication steps must be taken against tuberculosis.

Transmission cycle of zoonotic tuberculosis

Fig. 2 shows the transmission cycle of zoonotic tuberculosis between humans and animals.



Fig. 2. Transmission cycle of zoonotic tuberculosis between humans and animals

Reverse zoonoses – human-to-animal transmission (Zooanthroponoses)

A reverse zoonosis, also known as zooanthroponosis (Greek 'zoo' means 'animal' 'anthropos' means man, 'nosis' means disease). Zoonotic diseases are caused by pathogens occasionally transmitted to animals from humans and then back from animals to humans, which are reverse zoonoses (Table 11).¹⁰ A global increase in commercial animal production, the rapid movement of humans and animals, and the habitats of humans and wild animals intertwining with great complexity, the future promises more opportunities for humans to cause reverse zoonoses.

Table 11. Some examples of bacteria	al reverse zoonoses ^{10,} e89055		
S/N Agent	Human diseases	Animal diseases	Animal affected
1. Mycobacterium tuberculosis	Tuberculosis	Tuberculosis	Deer, dogs
2. Mycobacterium bovis 3. Methicillin resistant <i>S. aureus</i>	I uberculosis Endocarditis, pneumonia	Bovine tuberculosis Mastitis	Wildlife Livestock (Cattle)
4. Str. pyogenes, Str. pneumoniae	Pharyngitis, pneumonia	Mastitis, meningitis	Cattle, NHP
5. Campylobacter, Salmonella	Diarrhea	Diarrhea, salmonellosis	Livestock, Wildlife
6. Escherichia coli	Diarrhea, UTI, pneumonia	Colibacillosis	Pets, livestock
7. Corynebacterium diphtheriae	Diphtheria	Ulcers on teats, mastitis	Cattle

M. bovis and *M. tuberculosis* have been reviewed as reverse zoonoses between humans and bovines.⁸⁶ *M. tuberculosis* (MANU strain) was reported to be more prevalent in cattle than *M. bovis* in India.¹²⁸ Analysis of data from 61 countries on the occurrence of zoonotic *M. bovis* infection in humans found a median of 1.4% in connection with overall TB incidence $\leq 71 / 100,000$ population /year in regions outside Africa, whereas in the areas in Africa, the median rate of zoonotic TB cases 2.8% with an overall TB incidence 264/100000 population per year, which resulted in a crude estimate of 7 zoonotic TB cases /100,000 population/year.¹⁰⁵ Zoonotic *M. bovis* infection has been detected in human sputum and bovine milk using the PCR technique in Bangladesh119, indicating the risk of zoonotic transmission between humans and cattle (Table 11). Rearing of livestock in households, unpasteurized milk consumption, and smoking were identified as potential risk factors for zoonotic *M. bovis* transmission in Bangladesh.¹¹⁹ Inappropriate practices of the animal owners and handlers, especially not using protective devices (98%), smoking, drinking or eating food whilst working with cattle (69%), and sharing the same premises with animals (83%) were identified to be associated with zoonotic tuberculosis in Bangladesh.⁹⁷

Mycobacterium orygis was first reported as a causative agent of TB in an oryx (*Oryx gazelle*, Family: *Bovidae*) in 1987 from a captive oryx in the Netherlands Zoo.¹²⁹ Subsequently, this organism and other genetically similar bacteria were named *M. orygis* in 2012 and recognized to be a distinct member of the MTBC.¹³⁰ *M. origins* has been isolated from captive spotted deer, blue bull, and free-ranging rhinoceros in Nepal,^{131,132} from rhesus monkeys and cattle in Bangladesh,⁹³ from cattle in South India,¹³³ spotted deer in Western India and bison in central India¹³⁴ and it has since been identified in many other species.⁸⁶ It has been detected in 18 cattle from a dairy farm and two captured rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*) in a zoo that died of TB in Bangladesh.⁹³ In contrast, human disease due to *M. orygis* has been chiefly described on other continents. This includes one reported case of human-to-animal transmission from New Zealand,¹³⁵ eight cases of human tuberculosis in Australia,¹³⁶ a human case of lymphadenitis due to *M. orygis* in the USA,¹³⁷ a retrospective of 24 clinical isolates of *M. orygis* from the UK¹³⁸ and five instances in Morway.¹³⁹

M. orygis is a genetically distinct animal-adapted subspecies of the *M. tuberculosis* complex that causes tuberculosis in animals and humans.¹²⁹ It has been isolated from many animals, including livestock, zoos, and free-ranging wild animals, suggesting endemicity in South Asian countries.^{93,129,131,132} Direct

evidence of *M. orygis* transmission between livestock and humans has been reported from an Indian immigrant working on a cattle farm in New Zealand.¹³⁵ Similarly, it has also been reported in immigrants from India, Nepal, and Pakistan who live in the USA which also indicates the origin of this bacterial infection in South Asia.^{134,135} Recently, eight human cases of TB due to *M. orygis* were isolated from 1105 patients attending Christian Medical College Hospital, Vellore, India.¹⁴⁰

Reports of tuberculosis caused by *M. orygis* in animals and humans in South Asia, and the discovery of *M. orygis* in South Asia migrants, highlight an overlooked threat from *M. orygis* in South Asia and beyond.¹⁴¹ More recently (during February- May 2023), an outbreak of tuberculosis caused by *M. orygis* has been detected during CDC quarantine among 26 cynomolgus macaques (*Macaca fascicularis*) from a shipment of 540 imported from Southeast Asia to the United States for research purposes.¹⁴² The occurrence of new zoonotic *M. orygis* in South Asia and Africa warrants urgent surveillance to clarify the epidemiology of the *M. tuberculosis* complex at the human-livestock-wildlife interference with assessing prevalence, potential drivers, and risk to develop appropriate interventions.

Seroprevalence, risk factors, economic importance,¹⁴³⁻¹⁴⁵ hematobiochemical changes,¹⁴⁶ prevalence of bTB and its effects on milk production 147, and significance of bTB on human health¹⁴⁸ have been reported. In addition, isolation and identification of *M. tuberculosis* from pulmonary lesions¹⁴⁹ and detection of specific causes of bTB¹⁵⁰ have also been reported. Humans, livestock, wildlife, and ecology are involved in the epidemiology of zoonotic tuberculosis (zTB), and accordingly, the 'one health' approach is the ideal concept for the control of this zoonotic disease.

Brucellosis

Brucellosis is an ancient and one of the most widespread zoonotic diseases affecting global public health and animal production. Although brucellosis has been controlled in most industrially developed countries, it remains an endemic neglected zoonotic disease in many under-developing and developing countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America, including Bangladesh. It is one of the hidden dangers in both animal and human health, caused by intracellular bacteria of the genus Brucella. Brucella infection usually persists as a carrier and latent infection with an asymptomatic state, but in infected pregnant animals, it causes abortion and infertility. Brucella organisms reported to have zoonotic importance include *Brucella melitensis*, *Brucella abortus*, *Brucella suis*, and *Brucella* canis.¹⁵¹

The transmission of Brucella in humans is either because of occupational exposure or consumption of unpasteurized milk and dairy products. Zoonotic brucellosis causes a chronic debilitating illness with fever, sweating, fatigue, weight loss, headache, and joint pain. In contrast, Brucella *abortus*, especially in dairy cattle, causes abortion in the last trimester of gestation and infertility.¹⁵¹ Since the first report on brucellosis was published in the then East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) in 1970, many reports on brucellosis seroprevalence in different species of animals and humans, even some reviews of seroprevalence on brucellosis in animals and humans have been reported from Bangladesh.^{35,36} However, the sensitivity and specificity of these used sero-tests for detecting seroprevalence of brucellosis in animals for serial interpretation for culling and parallel interpretation for import decisions (Table 12).¹⁵² In addition, most of the articles on seroprevalence of brucellosis have tried to discover the risk factors associated with seroprevalence of brucellosis in both animals and humans. The seroprevalence of brucellosis has been reported to be varied based on occupations of people (2.5 to 18.6%) and species of animals (3.7% in cattle, 4.0% in buffalo, 3.6% in goats, and 7.3% in sheep). The occupational influence on the seroprevalence of brucellosis has been reported as 2.6 to 21.6% in livestock farmers, 18.6% in milkers, 2.5% in butchers, and 5.3 to 11.1% in

S/N District	No. of	Tests used	and Preval	ence						Ref	. No
	tested	NO. (%) TAT	RBT	PAT	RBATK	iELISA	cELISA	PCR	BAA	BMA	
01. Mymensingh	412	76 (18.4)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	153
02. Chittagong, Comilla, Jeshore, Manikgonj	350	TAT	RBT	PAT	-	-	17 (4.9)	-	-	-	154
03. Mymensingh	250	TAT	RBT	PAT	-	05 (2.0)	-	-	-	-	155
04. Mymensingh	120	TAT	RBT	PAT	-	04 (3.3)	-	-	-	-	156
05. Chittagong	500	-	25 (5.00)	-	-	25 (5.00)	-	-	-	-	157
06. Mymensingh	200	09 (4.5)	08 (4.00)	-	-	- ` ´	-	-	-	-	158
07. Mymensingh	200	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10 (5.0)	01 (0.5)	159
08. Bagherhat, Bogra, Gaibandha	. 188	-	04 (2.13)	-	-	5 (2.66)	-	-	-	-	160
Mymensingh & Siraigoni	.,										
 Bagherhat, Bogra, Gaibandha Mymensingh & Siraigoni 	n, 465	-	-	-	-	04 (0.9)	-	-	-	-	161
10 Mymensingh	135	_	02(1.48)	_	-	02(15)	_	_	-	-	162
11 Bogra	060	_	0	_	-	0	_	_	-	-	162
12 Bagherhat	090	$01(1 \ 10)$	01(111)		_	-		_		_	162
13 Gaibandha	070	-	0		2	-	_	-	-	-	162
14 Siraigoni	110	-	01(0.01)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	162
15 Five districts	110	-	01(0.91)	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{1}$ (0.22)	-	-	-	162
16 Mumansingh & Dahna	260	-	11(4.22)	-	-	- 06 (2.21)	1 (0.22)	-	-	-	162
17. Groater Mymonsingh	150	08 (3.07)*	11(4.23) 22(15.22)	-	-	00 (2.51)	-	-	-	-	164
19 Simigani	270	-	23(15.55)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	165
10. Mymonsingh	270	-	25(0.51)	-	-	- 2 (1.05)	-	-	-	-	103
20 Lagrand Cincipanti Dhalan	190	-	18(2.03)	-	-	2(1.03)	-	-	-	-	100
20. Jessore, Sirajgonj, Dnaka	192	-	18 (3.20)	-	18 (3.20)	18 (3.26)	-	11 (1.99	9)-	-	10/
21. Dinajpur, Mymensingh	182	-	KBI?	-	-	06 (3.3)	-	-	-	-	168
22. Sylhet	386	46 (11.9)	*36 (9.33)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	169
23. Bangladesh	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	170
24. Mymensingh & Dinajpur	160	-	07 (4.37)	-	-	07 (4.37)	07 (4.37)	-	-	-	171
25. Dhaka	334	-	14 (4.20)	-	-	04 (01.2)	-	-	-	-	172
26. Chittagong	158	-	52 (32.91)	-	-	-	14 (8.86)	-	-	-	173
27. Bangladesh	887	-	34 (3.83)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	174
28. Mymensingh, Patuakhali	120	-	-	09 (7.5)	-	5.0 (6)	-	-	-	-	175
29. Bangladesh	700	-	38 (5.42)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	176
Dhaka (Savar)	1003	-	43 (4.29)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	177
Three districts	533	-	11 (2.06)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	178
32. Five districts	1043	-	23 (2.21)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	179
33. Six districts	913	-	48 (5.3)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	180
34. Mymensingh	460	-	18 (3.9)	-	18 (3.9)	-	-	-	-	-	181
35. Pabna Milk Shed area	050	-	16 (32.0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	182
36. Ten districts	1290	91 (5.1)	44 (4.5)	379 (36.1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	183
Overall	13256	231 (8.76)	388 (3.52)	388 (27.52) 36 (3.57)	93 (2.69)	39 (3.44)	11 (1.99) 10 (5.0)1 (0.5)	

Three districts = Dhaka (CCBS&DF, MDF, Savar), Mymensingh & Gaibandha

Five districts = Dhaka (CCBS &DF), Mymensingh, Rangpur, Jamalpur, & Gaibandha

Six districts = Dhaka (CCBSDR, Savar), Mymensingh, Jamalpur, Gaibandha, Tangpur and Bagerhat

Ten districts = Pabna, Faridpur, Bogra, Mymensingh, Jeshore, Rajshahi, Rangpur, Comilla, Manikgonj, & Dhaka (Savar) RBT = Rose Bengal Test

*SAT = Serum agglutination test

PAT = Plate agglutination test FPA = Fluorescence polarization assay

RBATK = Rapid Brucella antibody test kit BAA = B. abortus antigen

iELISA = Indirect ELISA cELISA = Competitive ELISA TAT = Tube agglutination test [] = No. of samples tested BMA = B. melitensis antigen

[!] The original article is not available

veterinarians who have direct contact with animals and their products or with those who consume raw milk.^{35,36} Dairy farms, animal farm workers, artificial inseminators, slaughterhouse workers, and animal practitioners are at high risk of getting zoonotic Brucella infection.

J. Vet. Med. OH Res 6 (1-2) 2024

Table 13. Reported seroprevalence of brucellosis in buffaloes in Bangladesh								
S/ District	No. of	Tests used	Tests used and prevalence					
Ν	buffalo	No. (%)					No.	
	tested	SAT	RBT	CFT	iELISA	cELISA		
01. Bagherhat, Bogra, Gaibandha,	105	-	02 (1.90)	-	03 (2.87)	-	160	
Mymensingh & Sirajgonj								
02. Bagherhat	070	-	2 (2.85)	-	-	-	162	
03. Bogra	020	-	0	-	-	-	162	
04. Gaibandha	014	-	0	-	-	-	162	
05. Sirajgonj	019	-	1(5.26)	-	-	-	162	
06. Greater Mymensingh	060	-	8 (13.33)	-	-	-	164	
07. Bangladesh	011	-	-ve	-	-	-	174	
08. Different districts	099	-	7 (7.07)	-	-	-	176	
09. Six districts	099	4 (4.0)	7 (.10)	5 (5.1)	4 (4.0)	-	180	
10. Bagerhat & Mymensingh	070	-	4 (5.71)	-	3 (4.28)	-	184	
11. Bangladesh	-	-	2.87	-	-	-	185*	
Overall	99	9/4 (4.0)	556/38 (6.83)	99/5 (5.1)	274/10 (3.65)			

Six districts = Dhaka (CCBDF Savar), Mymensingh, Jamalpur, Gaibandha, Rangpur & Bagherhat

*Article not available on Google search

Prevalence of brucellosis in humans

Studies on brucellosis were initiated for the first time in the then East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) in 1970^{153} , and up to 2024, approximately 82 reports were published, of which only seven were on humans and six concurrently on humans and animals (Tables 12-20). Most research works were based on seroprevalence using more than a dozen serological and molecular tests. Accordingly, the prevalence of brucellosis in animals and humans has been reported, associated risk factors in animal and human brucellosis and some occupational influences have also been reported, such as zoonotic brucellosis in Bangladesh. Although the outbreak of human brucellosis has been noted elsewhere,¹⁸⁷ clinical cases of brucellosis have never been reported either in animal or human populations in Bangladesh until February 23, 2023. The first outbreak of zoonotic brucellosis has been reported by ICDDR'B scientists who have identified a recent brucellosis outbreak in Teknaf.¹⁸⁸ According to the study, the outbreak has resulted in eight confirmed cases of brucellosis in the area. In 2021, the Teknaf Hospital received 120 patients with symptoms of brucellosis, including fever, joint pain, fatigue, and headache. Seven patients were confirmed to have brucellosis through the triple antigen test and further confirmed by the Taq Man RT-PCR test in Dhaka. An additional confirmed case was identified after collecting 33 more samples, which included an affected small female child. This outbreak of zoonotic brucellosis transmission in humans has been identified as the practice of drinking raw milk by the people residing in Teknaf and accordingly recommended that individuals avoid consuming raw milk from domestic animals in Bangladesh.¹⁸⁸

Brucellosis is an occupational hazard for livestock farmers, dairy workers, slaughterhouse workers, Laboratory workers, and veterinarians (Fig. 3 & 4). A study was conducted with 500 individuals who had contact with animals, of which 4.4% were affected with occupational Brucella infection. The study emphasized contact with livestock, especially goats, where brucellosis seropositivity was about 60 times higher than contact with cattle only. It appears that goats are a significant risk factor for the transmission of brucellosis among individuals in the high-risk occupational group in Bangladesh.¹⁸⁹

The true prevalence of brucellosis in livestock farmers and prolonged pyrexia patients has been estimated to be 1.1% in the district of Mymensingh with three sero-tests (i-ELISA, RBT & STAT) with the highest positive predictive value of 36.3% for i-ELISA and 42.7% for RBT in livestock farmers and PPP, respectively.¹⁹⁰



Fig. 3. Zoonotic transmission of Brucella from animals to humans



Fig. 4. Zoonotic transmission of brucellosis from animal and animal products to humans

Based on the performance of the three serological tests validated in a setting where the prevalence of brucellosis is low in humans and animals, no single test can be recommended for routine diagnosis of human brucellosis in Bangladesh. Applying a second test with high specificity and/or testing patients with a history of exposure to known risk factors and/or testing patients having some clinical signs and symptoms of brucellosis may increase the positive predictive value of the serologic tests.¹⁹⁰

Three serological-test-positive human sera (3 out of 500) and all the collected animal serum samples (n = 62) were screened by Brucella genus-specific real-time PCR (RT-PCR), and IS711 RT-PCR then tested the RT-PCR positive samples to detect *B. abortus* and *B. melitensis* DNA. Only *B. abortus* and DNA were amplified from 13 human and six animal samples, which indicates that *B. abortus* is the etiological agent of brucellosis in occupationally exposed humans in Bangladesh.¹⁹¹

Ta	ble 14. Pre	valence and	risk facto	rs of brucell	osis in anim	als and hum	ans in Bang	ladesh				
S/	Types of	Reported	No. of	No. of	Positive, N	0. (%)						Reference
N	reports	period	reports	tests								No.
			analyzed	used	Humans*	Cattle	Buffalo	Goat	Sheep	Pigs	Dogs	
1.	Review	-	-	9 tests	2.5-18.6	3.7	4.0	3.6	7.3	-	-	35 ^A
2.	Review	-	-	12 tests	2.5-18.6	3.7	4.0	3.6	7.3	4.8	4.0	36B
3.	Review	2001-2022	69	MRT, PCR	33.9-100	1.86-81.7	10.4-61.67	0.0-88.8	-	-	-	192

^ATabular data on livestock population (2005-2012) and annual production of meat & milk (2004-2011) are included. The tabular form does not include original or analyzed seroprevalence data on brucellosis. Period of study and total No. of reports evaluated are missing in the article.

9 tests = RBT, PAT, TAT, MET, STAT, SAT, MRT, I-ELISA, C-ELISA *Milk and milk products 12 tests = RBT, PAT, TAT, MET, STAT, SAT, MRT, I-ELISA, C-ELISA, CFT, FPA, RT-PCR

In Bangladesh, Brucellosis is endemic in humans and animals (Table 15 & 16). Brucellosis has been recognized as an occupation hazard for livestock farmers, dairy workers, veterinarians, slaughterhouse workers, and laboratory workers (Table 15). Livestock farmers of brucellosis-positive herds had a significantly higher probability of being seropositive for brucellosis. A study emphasized that contact with livestock, especially goats, is a significant risk factor for brucellosis transmission among individuals in the high-risk occupational group.¹⁸⁹ Brucellosis One Health actors include Public Health and Veterinary Services, microbiologists, medical and veterinary practitioners, and animal breeders.

Table 15. Brucella seropositivity by occupational groups of people tested										
SN Location/ District	Type of report	No. of samples	Test used	Positive workers, No. (%)						
		tested		Slaughter- houses	Abattoir /Butcher	Livestock/ Dairy farmers	Milkers/ Dairy workers	Veterinarians		
1. Bangladesh	Review	NA	Sero-test	00	2.5	2.6-21.6	18.6	5.3-11.1	35	
2. Bangladesh	Review	NA	Sero-test	00	2.5	2.6-21.6	18.6	5.3-11.1	36	
3. Mymensingh	Original	335 LF	3 Sero-tests	-	-	04 (1.1)	-	-	190	
	1	300 PPP	3 Sero-tests	-	-	03 (1.1)	-	-	190	
4. Mymensingh	Original	210	4 sero-tests	-	-	14 (6.45)	14 (6.45)	23 (11.11)	193	
5. Sylhet	Original	90	ELISA	16/05 (31.3)	90/10 (11.11)	18/11 (61.1)	-	12/06 (50.0)	194	
Overall	-	-	-	16/05 (31.3)	90/10 (11.11)	935/32 (3.42)	14 (6.45)	300/29 (9.67)		
4 Sero-tests = SAT. 1	RBPAT, ST	AT & ELIS	SA 3Sero-t	ests = i-ELISA.	RBT and STAT	NA = Not	available			

4 Sero-tests = SAT, RBPAT, STAT & ELISA 3Se LF = Livestock farmers PPP

3Sero-tests = i-ELISA, RBT and STAT NA = Not ava PPP = Prolonged pyrexia patients

Initial report on the 18.4% seroprevalence of brucellosis in cattle using a tube agglutination test (TAT) in Mymensingh,¹⁸⁶ followed by similar an overall 3.7% in cattle, 4.0% in buffaloes, 3.6% in goats and 7.3% in

sheep in Bangladesh in both the review reports.^{35,36} However, the seroprevalence of brucellosis in cattle has been reported to be 20.3% and 8.9%. The herd-level seroprevalence ranged from 10.0 to 26.3% and 5.0 to 20.7% using RBPT and cELISA in cattle, respectively.¹⁷³ The wide variations of seroprevalence of brucellosis have been reported in inland literature, even 0.6% seroprevalence in Mymensingh¹⁵² and up to 62.5% in cattle in Bangladesh.¹⁷³ Different factors have been suggested for the variations of seroprevalence rates in various articles, including using different study designs, sampling methods, and diagnostic tests, as well as variations in the climate and management system of the animals.¹⁷³

Human brucellosis associated with consumption of milk and milk products

A review of 69 reports published from 2001 to 2022 reveals that consuming unpasteurized milk and milk products causes 33.9 to 100% of human brucellosis.¹⁹² Several outbreaks of human brucellosis have been reported to be linked to consuming raw milk and cheese elsewhere,^{195,196} and even raw milk consumption in Bangladesh.¹⁸⁸ The following consumption of unpasteurized milk and milk products resulted in the highest incidence of Brucella infection in humans with cow milk (1.86 to 81.7%), followed by buffalo milk (10.4 to 61.67%), camel milk (0 to 24%), goat milk (0 to 88.8%), and cheese 0 to 39.1%).¹⁹² Zoonotic brucellosis occurs in three steps: firstly, the occurrence of Brucella organisms in milk and milk products, and secondly, human brucellosis resulting from consuming contaminated milk. Accordingly, the Milk Ring Test (MRT) and Enzyme-Linked Immunoassay (ELISA) are the two most widely used methods for the detection of Brucella antibodies in milk (Table 16). Recently developed dual biosensors are a powerful approach for early diagnosis of Brucella from milk. Real-time PCR can rapidly detect Brucella organisms, reducing the risk of laboratory contamination and false positive results.¹⁹²

Table 16. Prevalence of brucellosis in cows detected by using milk ring test (MRT) and culture-PCR of milk in Bangladesh									
S/N District	No. of s Serum	amples Milk	Types of milk	MRT +ve No. (%)	RBPT +ve No. (%)	RBPT+ve Culture +ve	RBPT-ve Culture +ve	Culture/ PCR	Ref. No.
01. Dhaka (CCBSDF), Mymensingh, Tangail	-	492	Bulk	42 (08.6)	-	-	-	-	197
02. Milk Shed Area, Sirajgonj	-	234	Herd	23 (9.83)	50/16 (32.0)) -	-	-	182
03. Dhaka (CCBSDF), Mymensingh	1 -	485	Farms	40 (8.25)	-	-	-	12 (2.47)	198
		042	Villages	0	-	-	-	0	198
04. Pabna, Faridpur, & Bogra	-	973	-	60 (0.62)	-	-	-	-	199
05. Dhaka, Tangail, Mymensingh	-	1992	Single	80 (4.2)	-	-	-	-	183
06. Chittagong	-	500	Single	25 (5.0)	-	-	-	-	157
07. Dhaka (Savar), Gazipur, Mymensingh	360	360	Dairy farms	-	24 (6.6) 2	24/11 (45.83)	342/6 (1.75)	24 (6.6)	199
08. Mymensingh, Dhaka, Gazipur, Jamalpur & Dinajpur	-	115	Dairy farms	-	-	-	-	02 (1.73)	200
09. Savar, Dhaka	1003	1003	-	14 (1.39)	46 (4.59)	-	-	-	177
10. Five districts	1043	1043	Herd	28 (2.68)	23 (2.21)	-	-	-	179
11. Mymensingh (Sadar & Bhaluka)	460	460	Rural	13 (2.8)	18 (3.9)	-	-	-	181
12. Dhaka, Jamalpur & Rangpur	510	510	Bulk	14 (2.7)	12 (2.4)	-	-	-	202
Overall	3376	8209		339 (4.38) [7734]	139 (4.06) [3426]	11 (45.83) [24]	06 (1.75) [342]	38 (03.96) [960]	

Five districts = Dhaka (CCBSDF, Savar), Mymensingh, Rangpur, Jamalpur & Gaibandha

An investigation based on interviews of 420 dairy farm attendants and farm owners where 93.55% and 99.08% of commercial and backyard dairy personnel reported not knowing brucellosis, and 9.67% and 87.77% consumed raw milk and yogurt of unpasteurized milk, respectively, were highly vulnerable to zoonotic brucellosis.¹⁵⁷

The prevalence of caprine and ovine brucellosis was estimated to be 1.6 %, whereas it was 1.56% in goats and 1.64% in sheep (Table 17 & Table 18). The total losses attributed to the disease was BDT 48436400/- annually in the Mymensingh district, whereas BD 46462900/- in goats and BDT 1973500/- in sheep annually.²⁰¹ This indicates that brucellosis silently constitutes a heavy economic loss in the livestock industry in Bangladesh. Animal farmers have insufficient knowledge of the disease, inadequate diagnostic facilities, and a lack of awareness of an effective control strategy against brucellosis in Bangladesh.

Table 17. Reported seroprevalence	Table 17. Reported seroprevalence of brucellosis in goats in Bangladesh									
S/ District	No. of	Tests used a	nd prevalence	e; No. (%)				No. of	MRT +ve	Ref
N	tested	TAT	RBT	PAT	iELISA	MET	SAT	tested	No. (%)	No.
01. Bagerhat, Bogra, Gaibandha, Mymensingh & Sirajgonj	127	-	06 (4.72)	-	04 (3.15)	-	-	-	-	160
02. Bagerhat, Bogra, Gaibandha, Mymensingh & Sirajgonj	230	06 (2.61)	8 (3.48)	-	5 (2.17)*	-	-	-	-	162
03. Mymensingh	1847	-	29 (1.56)	-	-	-	-	-	-	201
04. Mymensingh, Tangail, Manikgonj	350	102 (29.4)	-	102 (29.4)	-	-	-	-	-	203
05. Dhaka, Mymensingh	300	06 (2.0)	05 (1.7)	05 (1.7)	-	07 (2.33)	-	-	-	204
06. Bangladesh	300	06 (2.0)	05 (1.67)	05 (1.67)	-	07 (2.33)	-	-	-	205
07. Mymensingh & Dhaka	300	06 (2.0)	05 (1.67)	05 (1.67)	-	07 (2.33)	-	-	-	206
08. Mymensingh & Dhaka*	362	08 (2.21)	07 (1.93)	07 (1.93)	-	-	-	-	-	207
09. Dhaka and Lalmonirhat	020	-ve	-ve	-	-ve	-	-ve	-	-	208
10. Dhaka, Mymensingh, Rajshah	ni 208	-	08 (3.85)	-	-	7 (3.37)	-	242	33 (13.64)	209
11. Bogra and Mymensingh	120	-	7(5.83)	-	3 (2.50)	-	5(4.17)	-	-	210
12. Nilphamari	154	-	5 (3.24)	-	04 (2.59)	-	-	-	-	211
13. Mymensingh	113	-	07 (6.2)	-	-	-	-	-	-	212
14. Mymensingh	1710	-	163 (9.53)	-	31/92 (33.	.7)*-	-	-	-	213
15. JJTDTB	208	-	09 (4.33)	-	05 (2.40)	-	-	-	-	214
16. Bangladesh	636	-	+	-	6.0 (01.0)	-	+	-	-	224
	6985	134 (7.27) [1842]	264 (4.41) [5979]	124 (7.69) [1612]	58 (3.70) [1567]	28 (2.53) [1108]	5 (4.17) [120]	242	33 (13.64)	

Table 18. Reported seroprevalence of brucellosis in sheep in Bangladesh										
S/	S/ District		Tests used a	and prevalence	e; No. (%)					Ref.
N		sheep tested	TAT	RBT	PAT	MET	SAT	iELISA	cELISA	No.
01.	Bagerhat, Bogra, Gaibandha, Mymensingh & Sirajgonj	130	-	4(3.08)	-	-	-	03(2.31)	-	160
02.	Bagerhat, Bogra, Gaibandha, Mymensingh & Sirajgonj	170	14 (8.24)	16 (9.41)	-	-	-	-	15 (8.82)	162
03.	Mymensingh (Test used)	746	-	306 (1.65)	-	-	-	-	-	201
04.	Dhaka, Mymensingh	62	2(3.25)	2(3.25)	2 (3.25)	3(4.84)	-	-	-	206
05.	Bogra and Mymensingh	80	-	3(3.75)	-	-	2(2.50)	1 (1.25)	-	210
06.	Mymensingh	101	-	06 (5.94)	-	-	-	-	-	212
07.	Gaibandha	206	-	7 (3.39)	-	-	-	6 (2.91)	-	215
08.	Mymensingh & Netrokona	102	-	10 (9.8)	-	-	-	6 (5.88)	-	216
09.	10/6 districts	637	-	11 (1.7)	-	-	11 (1.7)	22 (3.5)	-	217
10.	Bangladesh	1044	-	+	-	-	+	13 (01.2)*	-	224
	Overall	3278	232/16 (6.9)	2234/365 (16.	34)	-	717/13 (1.81)	2199/51 (2.3	32)	

RBT = Rose Bengal Test iELISA = Indirect ELISA cELISA = Competitive ELISA FPA = Fluorescence polarization assay PAT = Plate agglutination test TAT = Tube agglutination test SAT = Slow agglutination test

Tests used = RBT, Rapid Brucella Ab test kit, Mab-ELISA *True prevalence

Swine and canine brucellosis

Swine brucellosis is a zoonotic disease caused by infection with *Brucella suis*, which may occur in domestic animals other than pigs. It is mainly transmitted via ingestion of infected tissues or fluids. Boar semen may contain this organism and can be transmitted during services. Infection may cause abortion, infertility, lameness, orchitis, and swelling of male accessory sex glands. Research reports on brucellosis are very limited in Bangladesh (Table 19).²¹⁸ However, a significantly higher prevalence of brucellosis in aborted pigs (42.9%) in comparison to 1.6% in non-aborted pigs in Bangladesh.²¹⁸

Canine brucellosis is an infectious zoonotic disease caused by *Brucella canis*. It is distributed globally and causes major public health concerns due to close contact between dogs and humans. However, minimal research has been conducted in Bangladesh (Table 19).

Tabl	Table 19. Seroprevalence of brucellosis in pigs and dogs in Bangladesh								
S/ District N		Species of animals	No. of animals	Test used	to detect ser	oprevalence	;		References
		tested	tested	RBPT	SAT	STAT	i-ELISA	Overall	1.01
01.	Sirajgonj & Bogra	Pigs	105	7 (06.70)	5 (4.80)	-	-		218
02.	Mymensingh	Stray dog	030	4 (13.33)	2 (6.67)	2 (6.67)	3 (10.00)	4 (13.33)	219
03.	Dhaka	Pet dogs	050	2 (04.00)	-	-	2 (04.00)	2 (04.00)	220

RBPT = Rose Bengal Plate TestSAT = Slow Agglutination TestSTAT = Standard Tube Agglutination Testi-ELISA = Indirect Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent AssaySTAT = Standard Tube Agglutination Test

Table 20. Reported seroprevalence of brucellosis in humans in Bangladesh											
S/ N	District	Variables/ RF	Category	No. of human	Tests Used and	Tests Used and Prevalence: No. (%)					
				tested	LAT	SAT	RT-PCR	RBPAT	STAT	i-ELISA	
01.	Mymensingh	Overall	-	50	-	-	-	3 (6.0)	3 (6.0)	-	158
02.	MMH	+	+	300p	-	-	6 (2.0)*	6 (2.0)	6 (2.0)	6 (2.00)	190
03.	Mymensingh	RG	-	210	-	9 (4.28)	-	7 (3.33)	07 (3.33)	10 (4.76)	193
04.	Sylhet	HRG	IgM	65	-	-	-	-	06 (9.2)	-	194
			IgG	65	-	-	-	-	32 (49.2)	-	
		NRG	IgM	25	-	-	-	-	0	-	
			IgG	25	-	-	-	-	10 (40.0)	-	
05.	Mymensingh	RG	-	300	40 (13.33)	-	-	-	-	-	221
		NRG	-	300	15 (05.00)	-	-	-	-	-	
		RG	ICT +ve	040	13 (32.50)	-	-	-	-	-	
			ICT -ve	040	27 (67.50)	-	-	-	-	-	
		NRG	ICT +ve	015	02 (13.33)	-	-	-	-	-	
			ICT -ve	015	13 (86.67)	-	-	-	-	-	
		RG	PCR +ve	40	03 (07.50)	-	55/02 (3.64)	-	-	-	
			PCR -ve	40	37 (92.50)	-	-	-	-	-	
		NRG	PCR +ve	15	0	0	-	-	-	-	
			PCR -ve	15	15 (100)	-	-	-	-	-	
	Overall		1	560	300/55 (18.33)	210/9 (2.25)	355/8 (2.25)	560/11 (1.96)	740/64 (8.65)	510/16 (3.	.14)

SAT = Slide agglutination test
STAT = Standard tube agglutination test
MMH = Mymensingh Medical Hospital
RG = Risk group HRG = High-risk group

LAT = Latex agglutination test ICU = Intensive care unit p = Pyretic patients NRG = Non-risk group RBPAT = Rose Bengal plate Agglutination test ICT = Immunochromatographic test

**B. abortus* DNA was amplified but not *B. melitensis* RF = Risk factors

Brucellosis associated with reproductive disorders in animals

Reported evidence shows that brucellosis is related to reproductive disorders like abortion, placental retention, repeat breeding, infertility, and prolonged inter-calving periods in animals (Table 21-23). Tables 21-23 show significantly higher seroprevalence of brucellosis in farm animals with a history of abortion,

Table 21. Risk factors and effects of brucellosis on reproduction in cattle	Contd. Table 21. Risk factors and effects of brucellosis on reproduction in cattle
S/ Variables Category No. of Sero-test results	S/ Variables Category No. of Sero-test results
N cows Positive Negative Ref.	N cows Positive Negative Ref.
tested No. (%) No. (%) No.	tested No. (%) No. (%) No.
01. Breeds Local* 250 06 (02.40) 244 (97.6) 157	Abortion Absent 156 01 (0.64) 155 (99.36) 160
Local 089 03 (03.37) 086 (96.6) 159	130 02 (01.54) 128 (98.46) 168
Local 111 04 (03.60) 107 (96.4) 161	354 37 (56.06) 317 (89.55) 169
Local 164 28 (17.07) 136 (82.93) 169	155 32 (20.65) 123 (79.35) 173
Local 558 50 (08.96) 508 (91.04) 183	116 06 (5.17) 110 (94.83) 171
Sub-total 1172 91 (07.76) 1081 (92.24)	113 04 (03.54) 109 (96.46) 175
$\begin{array}{cccc} Cross & 250 & 19 (07.60) & 231 (92.40) & 157 \\ C & 111 & 07 (06.21) & 104 (02.60) & 159 \end{array}$	342 07 (02.0) 335 (97.95) 181
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Sub-total 1300 89 (00.52) 1277 (93.48) 06 Dependenting Present 024 00 (27.50) 015 (62.50) 172
Cross = 222 - 38 (17.12) - 184 (82.88) - 169	$\frac{100}{100}$ disorders $\frac{103}{50}$ $\frac{57.50}{613}$ $\frac{013}{5146}$ $\frac{169}{169}$
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Sub-total 127 59 (46.46) 068 (53.54)
$\begin{array}{c} Cross & 923 & 31(3.36) & 892(96.64) & 222 \end{array}$	Absent 134 25 (18 66) 109 (81 34) 173
Sub-total 1997 131 (6.56) 1866 (93.44)	283 16 (24.24) 267 (94.35) 169
02. Parity 1 028 05 (17.86) 023 (82.14) 173	Sub-total 417 41 (09.83) 376 (90.17)
1 157 10 (06.37) 147 (93.63) 169	07. Anestrous Present 064 0 064 (100) 161
2 111 25 (22.52) 086 (77.48) 173	003 02 (66.67) 001 (33.33) 173
2 116 16 (13.79) 100 (86.21) 169	Sub-total 067 02 (02.99) 065 (97.01)
3 041 15 36.59) 026 (63.41) 169	Absent 155 32 (20.65) 123 (79.35) 173
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	08. Repeat Present 061 01 (1.64) 060 (98.36) 155
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	breeding $250 \ 07 \ (02.80) \ 143 \ (57.20) \ 161$
3.4 213 $0/(03.29)$ $200(90.71)$ 181 3.5 410 $10(02.44)$ $400(97.56)$ 178	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
>4 044 25 (56.82) 019 (43.18) 169	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
$\frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
03. Rearing Backvard $250 \ 06 \ (02.4) \ 244 \ (97.6) \ 157$	069 01(1.45) 068(98.55) 223
system Commercial 250 19 (07.6) 231 (92.4) 157	Sub-total 634 64 (10.04) 470 (74.13)
04. Pregnancy Pregnant 087 03 (03.45) 84 (96.55) 155	Absent 036 32 (88.89) 004 (11.11) 173
034 02 (05.88) 32 (94.12) 156	338 28 (08.28) 310 (91.72) 169
057 05(08.77) 52 (91.23) 159	Sub-total 374 60 (16.04) 314 (83.96)
077 15 (19.48) 62 (19.48) 173	09. Retained Present 127 02 (1.57) 125 (98.43) 155
031 03 (09.68) 28 (90.32) 175	placenta 022 0 022 (100) 161
124 12 (9.68) 112 (90.32) 183 112 04 (02 57) 108 (06 42) 222	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Sub-total $609 54 (08.89) 555 (91.13)$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Non- $163 02 \ (01.23) 161 \ (98.77) 155$	035 $02(0571)$ $033(9429)$ 199
pregnant 086 04 (04.65) 082 (95.35) 156	023 03 (13.04) 020 (86.96) 223
081 19 (23.46) 062 (76.54) 173	Sub-total 622 29 (04.66) 593 (95.34)
068 02 (02.94) 066 (97.06) 175	Absent 146 31 (21.23) 115 (78.77) 173
226 17 (7.52) 209 (92.48) 183	108 07 (06.48) 101 (93.53) 171
188 07 (3.72) 181 (96.28) 223	Sub-total 254 38 (14.96) 216 (85.04)
273 14 (05.13) 259 (94.87) 199	10. Infertility Present 030 04 (13.33) 026 (86.67) 199
Sub-total 1085 65 (05.99) 1020 (94.01)	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	11. Breeding Natural 047 $04(08.51)$ $043(91.49)$ 159
$007 04 (57.14) 03 (42.87) 100 024 02 (08 \ 33) 22 (91 \ 67) 161$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{practices Natural 050} & 04 (15.55) & 020 (80.07) & 108 \\ \text{Natural 254} & 43 (16.03) & 211 (83.07) & 160 \end{array}$
$024 \ 02 \ (08.55) \ 22 \ (01.67) \ 101 \ 018 \ 02 \ (11 \ 11) \ 16 \ (88.89) \ 168$	Natural 0.38 $0.7 (18.42)$ $0.31 (81.58)$ 1.71
0.32 29 (43.94) 03 (09.38) 169	Natural 085 05 (15.82) 051 (01.38) 171 Natural 085 05 (05.88) 080 (94.12) 175
004 02 (50.00) 02 (50.00) 173	Sub-total 454 63 (13.88) 391 (86.12)
006 03 (50.00) 03 (50.00) 171	AI 102 06 (05.88) 096 (94.12) 159
007 02 (28.57) 05 (71.43) 175	AI 114 09 (07.89) 105 (92.11) 168
118 11 (09.3) 107 (90.68) 181	A I 132 23 (17.42) 109 (82.58) 169
055 17 (14.46) 38 (69.09) 183	AI 084 02 (2.38) 082 (97.62) 171
057 16 (28.07) 41 (71.83) 199	AI 035 01 (02.86) 034 (97.14) 175
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Sub-total 467 41 (08.78) 426 (91.22)
Sub-total 373 94 (25.20) 279 (74.80)	12. Others Present 238 02 (00.84) 236 (99.16) 199

Bacterial z	zoonotic	diseases	in	Bang	ladesh	
-------------	----------	----------	----	------	--------	--

Table 22. Risk factors and effects of brucellosis on reproduction in buffaloes in Bangladesh ¹⁸⁴								
S/N Variables	Sub-Category	No. of buffalo tested	Tests used & preva lence; No. (%) RBT iELISA					
01. Age	< 4 yrs > 4 yrs	48 22	2(4.17) 2(9.09)	1(2.08) 2(9.09)				
02. Gender	Male Female	26 44	1(3.85) 3(6.82)	1(3.85) 2(4.55)				
03. Pregnancy	Pregnant Non-pregnant	08 36	1(12.5) 2(555)	1(12.5) 1(3.33)				
04. Grazing	Yes No	28 42	1(3.57) 3(7.12)	1(3.55) 1(3.57) 2(4.76)				
05. Breeding	AI	26	1 (3.84)	1 (3.84)				

Table 22. Risk factors and effects of brucellosis on reproduction in buffaloes in Bangladesh ¹⁸⁴					duction	Contd. Table 2	Table 22. 22. Risk fa	ctors and e	ffects of	brucellosi	is on reprod	action in
S/N	Variables	Sub-Category	No. of buffalo tested	Tests used & lence; No. (RBT i	k preva- %) ELISA	S/N Va	riables	Sub-0	Category	No. of buffalo	Tests used & lence; No. (έ preva- %)
01.	Age	< 4 yrs > 4 yrs	48 22	2(4.17) 1 2(909) 2	(2.08)	Na	tural breed	ing -		12	2 (16 67) 1	(8 33)
02.	Gender	Male	26	1(3.85) 1 3(6.82)	(3.85)	06. An	testrous	-		06	1(16.67) 1 1(16.67) 1 1(25.00) ((16.67)
03.	Pregnancy	Pregnant	08 26	1(12.5) 1	(4.55) (12.5)	07. Ke	ortion	- -		03	1(23.00) (0 1(33.33) 1	(33.33)
04.	Grazing	Yes	28	2 (5.55) 1 1 (3.57) 1	(3.53)	10. Va	iginal disch	ng - arge -		07 08		
05.	Breeding	No AI	42 26	3 (7.12) 2 1 (3.84) 1	(4.76) (3.84)	11. Dy 12. Ba	stocia lanophosth	- itis -		02 01	0 ()
Tab	Table 23. Risk factors and effects of brucellosis on reproduction in goats in Bangladesh											
S/	Variables	Sub-category	No. of	Tests used	1 and preval	lence	-					Ref.
Ν			goat tested	No. (%) TAT	RBT	PAT	MET	MAT	MRT	i-ELISA	Overall*	No.
01.	Breeds	Local	300*	-	-	_	-	-	-	07 (2.3)	-	204
			080 124	-	2 (02.50)	_	_	-	-	1 (1.25)	-3(242)	211 171
		Cross/ Exotic	074	-	3 (03.84)			-	-	3 (4.05)	5 (212)	211
02	Conder	Male	036	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4 (11.11) 171
02.	Gender	Female	104	-	1(02.00) 4(03.84)	-	_	_	-	4(384)	-	211 211
03	Pregnancy	Pregnant	090	_	4 (04 44)	-	_	_	_	3(333)	_	211
05.	Tregnancy	Tregnant	030	1 (03.33)	1 (03.33)	1 (3.33)	1 (03.33)	_	_	-	-	206
			048	-	5 (10.41)	-	-	4 (8.33)	_	_	-	209
			078	-	-	-	-	-	18 (23.0	8)-	-	209
		Non-pregnant	064	-	1 (01.56)	-	-	-	-	1 (1.56)	-	211
			270	5 (01.85)	4 (01.48)	4 (1.48)	6 (02.22)	-	-	-	-	206
			164	-	-	-	-	-	15 (9.14)-	-	209
			130	-	2 (01.53)	-	-	6 (3.37)	-	-	-	209
04.	Previous	Yes	015	2 (13.3)	3 (20.00)	2 (13.30)	3 (20.00)	-	-	-	-	204
	abortion		009	-	4 (44.44)	-	-	-	-	03 (33.33	3) -	211
			003	-	3 (100)	-	-	-	-	3 (100)	-	210
			007	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	2 (28.5)	1/1
			038	-	-	-	-	- 5 (22 72)	15(25.80))-	-	209
			022		0(27.27)	$\frac{-}{4(23.52)}$	-	5 (22.72)	-	-	-	209
		No	285	4(014)	2 (00 70)	3(0110)	4 (01 40)	_	_	_	_	204
		110	089	-	+	-	-	_	_	+	4 (4.50)	171
			184	_	-	-	_	_	18 (9.78)-	-	209
			156	-	2 (01.28)	-	-	2 (1.28)	-	-	-	209
			117	-	4 (03.41)	-	-	-	-	0	-	210
05.	Placental	Retained (RP)	015	1 (06.7)	2 (13.30)	2 (13.30)	2 (13.30)	-	-	-	-	204
	expulsion		008	0	-	-	-	-	-	0	-	211
			005	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	2 (40.0)	171
			042	-	-	-	-	-	12(28.57	/)-	-	209
			020	-	6 (30.00)	-	-	-	5 (25.0)	-	-	209
		Normal	285	5 (01.8)	3 (01.10)	3 (01.10)	5 (01.80)	-	-	-	-	204
			091	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	4 (4.40)	171
			200	-	-	-	-	-	21(10.5)	-	-	209
0.6	**.	.1 1	158	-	2 (01.27)	-	-	2 (1.27)	-	-	-	209
06.	Uterine	Abnormal	010	1 (10.0)	1 (10.00)	1 (10.00)	1(10.00)	-	-	-	-	204
07	Othors	Normai Motritis±	290	5 (01.7)	4(01.40) 1(00.84)	4 (1.4)	0 (2.1)	-	-	-	-	204
07.	Others	WICHTUST	119	-	1 (00.04)	-	-	-	1(0.04)	-	-	211

*Animals positive for all four tests (RBT, SAT, cELISA & i-ELISA] MAT = Microscopic Agglutination Test

27

*Local goat = Black Bengal goats

M-DH-D = Metritis, delayer estrus and dystocia

repeat breeding and reproductive abnormalities. These findings support the first report on bovine infertility published in 1967¹⁸⁶ to provide up-to-date analysis on the seroprevalence of brucellosis associated with reproductive disorders in Bangladesh.^{35,36,169,181} However, different serological tests have been used for serosurvey of brucellosis in different animal species. Still, these tests may also produce false positive serological reactions with lipopolysaccharide (LPS) of *Yersinia enterocolitica* 0:9 and *Escherichia coli* 0157:H7 or cross-reactive antigens from other bacteria such as Salmonella species and Pasteurella species.²²² Serological, cultural, and molecular assays have been used to detect Brucella infection in animals and humans. The Bruce Ladder PCR and multi-locus molecular phylogeny have been suggested to be more reliable methods of brucellosis diagnosis in dairy cows in Bangladesh.¹⁷⁷ Recently, the identification and genetic characterization of 10 *Brucella abortus* biovar three from uterine discharge (n=7), milk (n=2), and vaginal swabs (n=1) of 10 dairy cattle that were aborted at the third trimester of gestation in Bangladesh.²⁰⁰

Seroprevalence of bovine brucellosis was first conducted in 412 adult cattle of BAU Dairy Farm, BAU Veterinary Clinic and surrounding villages by using Tube Agglutination Test (TAT) with *Brucella abortus* antigen (Sylvana Co., USA) showed that 76 (18.4%) positive and 36 (11.2%) suspicious results and review of inland literature on brucellosis indicate as a first report on the seroprevalence of brucellosis in Bangladesh.¹⁵³

The prevalence of bovine infertility was reported to be 37% in the then East Pakistan in 1967 (now Bangladesh), and an economic loss of 40.46 crores of rupees was estimated to be caused by bovine infertility.¹⁸⁶ However, some authors suggest that this report is the first report of brucellosis in bovine species in Bangladesh. Recently, the RBT was used to detect seroprevalence of equine brucellosis in 112 horses in Dhaka and Tangail, of which only two (1.79%) horses showed positive reactions in Bangladesh.²²⁶

The first isolation, identification, and genetic characterization of *Brucella* abortus biovar three from dairy cattle in Bangladesh have been documented.^{200,227} The classical biotypic method confirmed that all 100 *B. abortus* isolates belonged to the biovar 3. The species and biovar identification data and genetic characterization of Brucella field isolates may help formulate policies and strategies for controlling bovine brucellosis in Bangladesh. ²⁰⁰ The genome sequence of *Brucella abortus* biovar three strain BAU21/S4023, isolated from a dairy cow that suffered an abortion in Savar, Dhaka, Bangladesh, has been reported. This technique helps to understand its virulence, pathogenesis, host specificity, biotypic difference, and phylogenetic relationships and helps identify potential targets for developing vaccines and diagnostics to prevent and control brucellosis.²²⁸

Worldwide economic losses due to brucellosis are extensive regarding livestock health, production, and public health. Brucellosis is an endemic zoonosis in Bangladesh, and recent studies demonstrated that the total annual monetary loss among indigenous cows caused by brucellosis in Bangladesh was calculated to be Taka 60 million. The expected yearly monetary loss per 1000 exotic and cross-bred cows was estimated to be Taka 0.88 million and Taka 0.16 million, respectively.²²⁹ In another study, the total losses attributed to the brucellosis of small ruminants were estimated to be Taka 48436400 (US\$ 605455) annually in the district of Mymensingh, whereas Taka 46462900 (US\$ 580786.25) and Taka 1973500 (US\$ 24668.75) in goats and sheep, respectively.²⁰¹

The seroprevalence of brucellosis varies on occupations of people at risk (2.5 to 18.6%), including livestock farmers (2.6-21.6%), milkers (18.6%), butchers (2.5%), and veterinarians (5.3-11.1%) in Bangladesh based on RBT, STAT, and ELISA either alone or in combination of tests were used.^{35,36,193,225,230} None of these tests are perfect; thus, they cannot be used for these studies.²³¹ Recently, the true prevalence of brucellosis in livestock farmers and prolonged pyrexia patients (PPP) has been estimated to be 1.1% and 1.7%,

respectively.²³¹ However, the performance of these serological tests (RBT, STAT & i-ELISA) has been reported to similar diagnostic values. Therefore, no single serological test can be used for routine diagnosis of human brucellosis. Applying a second test with high specificity and/or testing patients with a history of exposure to known risk factors and /or testing patients with clinical findings of brucellosis may increase the positive predictive value of the serological tests.²³¹

The most effective prevention strategies for brucellosis are surveillance and risk factors prevention. Eliminating brucellosis-positive cattle will contribute to the control of brucellosis as a public health risk in Bangladesh. Both *B. abortus* strain RB51 commercial lives vaccine²³² and *B. abortus* killed vaccine have been tried in cattle in Bangladesh.²³³ However, vaccination of ruminant animals against brucellosis is recommended in enzootic areas with high prevalence rates. In contrast, a low true prevalence of brucellosis detected by serological and molecular tests in farms and areas will allow test and slaughter policies to control this disease. In countries where eradication of animal brucellosis through vaccination and culling of infected animals is not feasible, prevention of human infection is primarily based on raising awareness, food-safety measures, occupational hygiene and laboratory safety. Consumption of pasteurized milk and milk products like cheese and educational campaigns can be effective for the prevention of brucellosis in humans.

Salmonellosis

Salmonella is a foodborne pathogen that is a global public health problem, as it causes almost 1.3 billion cases of illness each year, leading to more than 3 million deaths.²³⁴ In the USA alone, approximately 1.2 million human infections, 23000 hospitalizations, and 450 deaths occur each year.²³⁵ Salmonellae are extensive food-borne pathogens that majorly impact public health, especially life-threatening for infants, pregnant women, and unborn babies.²³⁶ *Salmonella* spp. are Gram-negative, rod-shaped bacteria belonging to the family *Enterobacteriaceae* and order *Enterobacterales*. The genus Salmonella is divided into two broad species named *S. enterica* and *S. bongori*, of which *S. enterica* consists of six subspecies: (i) enterica (ii), salamae (iii), arizonae (iv) diarizonae (v), houtenae (vi) and indica.^{237,238} Approximately 2659 Salmonella serovars have been identified, and many serovars (1547) have been reported in subsp. enterica, responsible for more than 99%, may cause infection in animals and humans.²³⁹ Other *Salmonella enterica* serovars are unevenly distributed among the following subspecies: salamae- 522 serovars, diarizonae- 338 serovars, arizonae- 102 serovars, houtenae- 76 serovars and indica- 13 serovars.^{240,241}

Salmonella serovars are classified into typhoidal and non-typhoidal Salmonella (NTS) serovars based on their ability to develop specific pathologies in humans.²⁴² The severity of human salmonellosis varies depending on the serotype, immune status of the host, and infection with typhoidal and non-typhoidal types. Typhoidal Salmonella serovars, including Typhi, Sendai, and Paratyphi, are highly adapted to humans, whereas animals are not their carriers. The NTS is a zoonotic disease caused by multiple Salmonella serovars other than Typhi, Sendai, and Paratyphi. The NTS can be divided into non-invasive and invasive (iNTS) based on differential disease symptoms. The vast majority of the non-invasive NTS can cause gastroenteritis that is generally self-limiting in humans and does not require antibiotic treatment²⁴³ but can lead to an invasive infection (same serovars as non-invasive infections) affect people at higher risk groups as children and elderly, people with health defects (AIDS, liver cirrhosis) and pregnant women that present a greater health risk and may require antimicrobial treatment.²⁴⁴ The number of foodborne illnesses and deaths caused by NTS globally in 2010 has been estimated at over 78 million and >59,000 deaths, respectively.²⁴⁵ Poultry and poultry products are a common source of human infection by NTS. Important *S. enterica subspecies enterica* serovars include *S. Typhimurium, S. enteritidis, S. Kentucky, and S. infantis, among others.246 Every motile serovar of Salmonella enterica of poultry derivation is zoonotic, and contaminated meat and raw eggs*

are a significant source of human infections. Salmonella infection affects nearly 30 million people globally every year, whereas it is estimated to be between 292 and 395 cases per 100,000 persons each year in Bangladesh.²⁴⁷ Table 24 shows humans and animals' most common *Salmonella enterica* serovars.

Tal	ble 24. The 1	most common z	oonotic S	almonella serova	rs affect both	humans and animals ²⁴⁷		
S/ N	Host	District/ Location	No. of samples tested	Types of samples	Positive No. (%)	Serovars	Major disease	Ref N
1.	Humans	Dhaka	1425	Blood culture	665 (45.0)	S. enterica serovar tvphi (S. tvphi)	Typhoid fever	257
		Dhaka	601	Blood culture	261 (43.42)	S. enterica serovar paratyphi (S. paratyphi)	Paratyphoid fever	258
		Dhaka	-	Stool samples	16 (02.66)	S. paratyphi B var java ¹	NTS/ Enteritis	251
				1	06 (01.00)	S. $kentucky^2$	NTS/ Enteritis	251
					06 (01.00)	S. enteritidis ³	NTS/ Enteritis	251
					04 (00.67)	S. $virchow^4$	NTS/ Enteritis	251
					02 (00.33)	S. Newport	NTS/ Enteritis	251
					02 (00.33)	S. Litchfield	NTS/ Enteritis	251
					01 (00.17)	S. emek	NTS/ Enteritis	251
					01 (00.17)	S. weltevreden ⁵	NTS/ Enteritis	251
					19 (33.3)	S. typhimurium	NTS / Enteritis	251
					Sub-total	9 serotypes		
					-	S. enteritidis	NTS / Enteritis	
2.	Poultry	11 districts	765	All samples	197 (25.8)	S. gallinarum	Fowl typhoid	252
	2		535	Claecal swabs	129 (24.1)	S. gallinarum	Fowl typhoid	252
			050	Visceral organs	s 021(42.0)	S. gallinarum	Fowl typhoid	252
			180	Droppings	47 (26.1)	S. gallinarum	Fowl typhoid	252
						S. pullorum	Pullorum disease	
						S. typhi	Salmonellosis	
		Savar, Dhaka	67	-	59 (88.00)	S. enteritidis	NTS/ Enteritis	250
		Dhaka	870	Caecal swabs	00 (00.57)	S. enteritidis	NTS/ Enteritis	254
		Dhaka	300	Samples*	91 (60.70)	S. enteritidis	NTS/ Enteritis	255
		Dhaka	300	Samples*	59 (39.30)	S. typhimurium	NTS/ Enteritis	255
					07 (02.33)	S. typhimurium	NTS/ Enteritis	250
		Dhaka	870	Caecal swabs	32 (03.67)	S. typhimurium	NTS/ Enteritis	254
		Mymensingh	100	CS, litter, feed	30 (30.00)	S. typhimurium	NTS/ Enteritis	256
		Mymensingh	150	Cloacal swabs	06 (04.0)	S. typhimurium	NTS/ Enteritis	253
			20	Feed samples	10 (50.0)	S. typhimurium	NTS/ Enteritis	253
					02 (10.00)	S. heidelberg	NTS/ Enteritis	250
		Dhaka, CTG	500	-	18 (03.60)	S. kentucky	Salmonellosis	249
					-	5 Serovars ¹⁻⁵	Salmonellosis	249
3.	Ducks	-	-	-	-	S. anatum	Keel disease	
4.	Sheep &	-	-	-	-	S. abortusovis	Salmonellosis	
	goats	-	-	-	-	S. anatum	Salmonellosis	
		-	-	-	-	S. montevideo	Salmonellosis	
5.	Cattle	-	-	-	-	S. dublin	Salmonellosis	
		-	-	-	-	S. typhimurium	Salmonellosis	
		-	-	-	-	S. newport	Salmonellosis	
6.	Horse	-	-	-	-	S. anatum	Salmonellosis	
		-	-	-	-	S. agona	Salmonellosis	
		-	-	-	-	S. enteritidis	Salmonellosis	

NST = Non-typhoidal salmonellosis1-5 = Poultry isolates are indistinguishable from poultry11 Districts = Mymensingh, Tangail, Gazipur, Bogura, Jamalpur, Netrokona, Dinajpur, Moulvibazar, Habigonj, Feni, and
Chattogram.C = Cloacal swab samplesF= Feed samples

Samples* = Cloacal swabs, intestinal fluid, egg surface, handwash of chicken workers and soil of chicken markets

Poultry chickens are a potential source of transmission of zoonotic Salmonella into the human food chain, causing food-borne illness and hindering the development of poultry in Bangladesh.²⁴⁸ The occurrence of Salmonella in poultry and poultry products in Bangladesh has been well documented (Table 24) and includes serovars of public health significance such as *S. Typhimurium, S. enteritidis*, and *S. kentucky*.^{249,250}

The predominant sources of Salmonella are certain foods, the environment, animals, and birds. Many foods have been implicated in foodborne illness attributed to *Salmonella enterica*. Food animal origin, especially poultry, poultry products, and raw eggs, are often involved in human salmonellosis. In addition, fruits and vegetables, water, handling of farm animals and pets, and human person-to-person when hand-mouth contact occurs without proper washing of hands.²⁵⁰ The overall prevalence of Salmonella infection in chicken was 48%, with the highest prevalence in raw meat (62.5%) and the lowest in liver (37.5%) samples (Table 25).

Zoonotic salmonellosis

Salmonella can be transmitted from animals and birds to humans and vice versa (Figs. 5 & 6). The route of infection from animals to humans is usually through contaminated food and water. Contaminated food of livestock origin, such as meat, eggs, or vegetables, is all a source of infection. In addition, contact with infected humans or animals, especially reptiles and birds, is also a source of infection. Most species of mammals and birds are susceptible to Salmonella infection. However, children, the elderly, and people with impaired immune systems are more vulnerable.



Fig. 5. Methods of transmission of zoonotic Salmonella between humans and poultry birds



Fig. 6. Zoonotic transmission of Salmonella infection

Bovine salmonellosis

Salmonella infections are primarily caused by two groups of serotypes (strains) in dairy herds, which include ① Host-adapted strains- *Salmonella Dublin*- adapted explicitly to cattle, causes more severe symptoms and significant health issues in dairy cows. This strain has the potential to lead to chronic carriers, and ② Non-host-adapted strains- *S. Typhimurium*- a strain that can affect various animal species, including humans.

S. Dublin is a zoonotic bacterial pathogen that significantly impacts the dairy industry through calf losses, abortion, and reduced milk yield. It can cause high morbidity and mortality in young calves and reduce the performance of mature animals. Affected young calves suffer from pneumonia, diarrhea, swollen joints, fever, or sudden death.

Salmonella Dublin is difficult to control and eradicate from herds, as animals can become carriers and shed bacteria from clinically normal animals. S. Dublin is a zoonotic bacterium that can be lethal for humans and pose a risk to human and animal health due to its multi-drug-resistant characteristics.²⁵⁹

Salmonella Dublin is a zoonotic bacterium that can cause rare but severe illness in humans, and it is characterized by acute gastroenteritis and bacteremia. Humans can get infected with S. Dublin from direct contact with an infected animal or consumption of infected milk products. The case fatality for *S. Dublin* has been reported as the highest compared to other *Salmonella enterica* serotypes and has been described as six times greater than *S. Typhimurium*. The consumption of raw milk and unpasteurized dairy products has been associated with outbreaks of human salmonellosis caused by serovar Dublin. However, farm workers, veterinarians, and any person who can make direct contact with cattle are at risk of infection by accidentally ingesting animal feces or fluids.²⁵⁹

Symptomatic infected animals and latent carriers shed the bacterium to the environment under stress conditions, primarily in the peripartum. Once *S. Dublin* is shed in feces and secretions (saliva, colostrum,

and milk) can survive in the environment. The newborn calf may uptake the bacterium via the fecal-oral route at calving or by consumption of raw colostrum or milk from infected cows. The infected calf will shed the bacterium to the environment, where susceptible calves will ingest *S. Dublin* through direct contact or fomite (contaminated surfaces or objects). In addition, the intrauterine infection of the fetus in the last trimester of gestation may occur, resulting in abortion or the birth of an infected calf. Finally, the zoonotic route will occur mainly in caretakers working with symptomatic animals and latent carriers at calving. The human will uptake S. Dublin from feces and secretions during calving assistance, cleaning equipment or facilities, manipulating raw colostrum and milk, or close contact with sick animals (Fig. 7).



Fig. 7. Transmission routes of zoonotic S. Dublin infection in cattle and human



Fig. 8. Outcome of Salmonella infection in cattle

Antibiotic resistance patterns against Salmonella in food animals and poultry in Bangladesh

Various antimicrobial agents are indiscriminately used for the treatment and prevention of salmonellosis. An increasing rate of antimicrobial resistance in Salmonella has been reported globally, including in Bangladesh (Table 25). In addition, resistance to combinations of several antimicrobials has led to the emergence of Multidrug-resistant (MDR) strains that may pass from food animals and birds to humans.²⁵⁰ The spread of antibiotic resistance plasmids in Salmonella from poultry birds to human handlers or antibiotic-resistant microorganisms from poultry to humans in various countries has been reported.²⁶⁰ Increasing resistance to commonly used antimicrobials in human and veterinary medicine certainly poses a threat to public health associated with zoonotic diseases in Bangladesh.²⁶¹

Tat	Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry									
S/ N	Antibacterials & Districts	Host & types of samples used	No. of samples tested	<i>Escherichia</i> Positive No. (%)	<i>coli</i> Resistance No. (%)	Salmonella s Positive No. (%)	spp. Resistance No. (%)	Staphylococ Positive No. (%)	<i>cus</i> spp. Resistance No. (%)	Ref. No.
A.	Penicillin (inhibi	t cell wall synthesis)							
01.	Penicillin	•								
	Dhaka	Layer-CS, IF, ESS	300	-	-	08 (02.67)	08 (100)	-	-	255
	Rajshahi	Chicken-CS	120	-	-	49 (40.83)	49 (100)	-	-	280
	B, P & B	Meat samples	205	061 (29.76)	009 (14.75)	19 (09.27)	11 (57.89)	77 (37.56)	12 (15.58)	290
	Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	146 (88.00)	-	-	-	-	298
	Jashore	Broiler- CS	005	005 (100)	005 (100)	-	-	-	-	300
	Sylhet	Chicken-CS, L	100	035 (35.00)	035 (100)	-	-	-	-	301
	Rajshahi	Chicken eggs	060	021 (35.00)	021 (100)	17 (28.33)	17 (100)	12 (20.00)	12 (100)	303
	Mymensingh	Milk- mastitis	016	005 (31.25)	005 (100)	-	-	10 (62.5)	05 (50.00)	312
	Chittagong	Dead broilers	275	150 (54.55)	113 (75.33)	-	-	-	-	316
	Panchagarh	Calf diarrhea	114	044 (38.60)	044 (100)	25 (21.93)	25 (100)	15 (13.16)	15 (100)	320
	Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	54 (54.00)	35 (64.81)	345
	& Sirajgonj	Humans	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	35 (87.50)	345
	Sub-total	1025/799/	/595	487 (47.51)	378 (77.62)	118	110 (93.22)	208 (34.96)	114 (54.81)	
02.	Oxacillin									
	Savar, Dhaka	Poultry samples	-	-	-	67*	56 (84.00)	-	-	250
	Barishal City	Chicken- meat	020	-	-	13 (65.00)	13 (100)	-	-	263
	Mymensingh	Chicken	075	043 (57.33)	43 (100)	33 (44.00)	33 (100)	38 (50.67)	16 (42.10)	276
	Pirojpur	Dead layers	048	-	-	11 (22.92)	0	-	-	288
	Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	54 (54.00)	04 (07.40)	345
	& Sirajgonj	Humans	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	15 (37.50)	345
	Sub-total	75/12	4/275	043 (57.33)	43 (100)	124 (39.86)	102 (82.26)	132 (48.00)	35 (26.51)	
03.	Ampicillin									
	Dhaka	Chicken-Cecal C	870	-	-	37 (04.25)	30 (81.08)	-	-	254
	Dhaka	Layer-CS, IF, ES	300	-	-	08 (02.67)	07 (88.00)	-	-	255
	Mymensingh	Chicken-CS	100	-	-	35 (35.00)	29 (82.85)	-	-	256
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen mea	t113	-	-	74 (65.49)	47 (63.50)	-	-	264
	Four districts	Chicken (dead)	100	-	-	82 (82.00)	08 (09.76)	-	-	265
	Dhaka	Layer-egg surface	100	-	-	08 (08.00)	07 (87.50)	-	-	266
	Dhaka City	Chicken, man	-	-	-	10*	10 (100)	-	-	267
	Dhaka City	Broiler- meat	100	052 (52.00)	49 (94.23)	36 (36.00)	31 (86.11)	42 (42.00)	38 (90.48)	268
	Dhaka City	Chicken- eggs	200	018 (09.00)	14 (77.78)	18 (09.00)	14 (77.88)	18 (09.00)	15 (83.33)	269
	Dhaka	Chicken- eggs	050	-	-	50 (100)	35 (70.0)	-	-	270
	Dhaka	Chicken- meat	052	-	-	07 (13.46)	07 (100)	-	-	271
	Savar, Dhaka	Pigeon-oral & CS	040	021 (52.50)	15 (71.43)	11 (27.50)	03 (27.27)	-	-	272
	Mymensingh (M)Pigeon-CS, FP, F	112	-	-	10 (08.93)	08 (80.00)	-	-	273
	Mymensingh	Pigeon-CS, PS	050	-	-	17 (34.00)	15 (88.23)	-	-	274
	Mymensingh	Layer-CS, IC, ES	060	-	-	032 (53.33)	19 (60.00)	-	-	275
	Mymensingh	Broiler-D, L, FW,	0/5	043 (57.33)	24 (55.81)	033 (44.00)	22 (66.67)	38 (50.67)	27 (71.05)	276
	Naogoan	Layer-egg samples	180	-	-	014(07.78)	10 (71.42)	-	-	277
	Chattogram	Pigeon- CS	100	-	-	029 (29.00)	27 (93.1)	-	-	278
	Chittagong	Layer- ECS, ET	310	-	-	111 (35.81)	111 (100)	-	-	279

Co	Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry									
S/	Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella s	spp.	Staphylococ	cus spp.	Ref.
N	& Districts	samples used	samples	s Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	No.
			tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
	Rajshahi	Chickens- CS	120	-	-	049 (40.83)	020 (40.00)	-	-	280
	M, Feni, D	Chicken - meat	24	-	-	024 (100)	008 (33.00) F	-	-	281
	DGI	Broiler- CS,M,F,W	352	-	-	110 (31.25)	047 (42.72)	-	-	282
	Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166(66.40)	166(100)	-	-	_	-	297
	Jashore	Broiler CS	005	005(100)	005(100)	-	-	-	-	300
	Sylhet	Chicken-CS.L	100	035 (35.00)	035 (100)	-	-	-	-	301
	Mymensingh	Chicken	099	036 (36.36)	036 (100)	-	-	-	-	302
	Rajshahi	Chicken eggs	060	021 (35.00)	021 (100)	017 (28.33)	017 (100)	12 (20.00)	12 (100)	303
	Chittagong	Cattle - RC	100	070 (70.00)	061 (87.00)	-	-	-	-	304
	Cox's Bazar	Goat- RS	150	078 (52.00)	51 (65.38)	-	-	-	-	306
	T, S & M	Calves- feces	100	049 (49.00)	37 (75.51)	-	-	-	-	310
	Mymensingh	Milk- mastitis	016	005 (31.25)	05 (100)	10??	010 (00; 00.00)) -	-	312
	Rajshahi, Dhaka	Broilers	400	400 (100)	400 (100)	-	-	-	-	314
	Chittagong	Dead broilers	275	150 (54.55)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	316
	Dhaka City Mymanainah	Human (BS)	4115	-	-	359(08.72)	359 (100)	-	-	318
	Danahagarh	DW, D, ES	114	-	-	027 (43.00) 025 (21.02)	$027(100)^{\circ}$	-	-	319
	Mymensingh	Cattle feces	114	-	44 (100)	023(21.93) 039(28.89)	023(100) 018(47.36)	-	13 (100)	320
	Dhaka City	Human blood	100	_		100(100)	010(47.50) 019(18.83)	_	2	326
	Dhaka	Pigeons	040	021 (52 50)	15 (71 43)	011(2750)	003(2727)	_	_	328
	Dhaka	Chicken swabs	003	-	-	007 (100)	007 (100)	-	-	329
	Bangladesh	Chickens	279	101 (36.20)	26 (25.70)	-	-	-	-	330
	Rajshahi	Poultry	055	052 (94.55)	15 (28.85)	-	-	-	-	332
		Wild ducks	041	014 (34.15)	04 (28.57)	-	-	-	-	332
	Mymensingh	Quails	050	025 (S)	. ,	009 (R)		24 (R)	-	333
	Five districts	Chicken meat	113	086 (76.11)	77 (89.50)	-	-	-	-	335
	Bangladesh	Chicken meat	150	-	-	-	-	096 (64.00)	96 (100)	337
	7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95.31)	641 (93.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65.20)	134 (82.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	N, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.51)	85 (74.76)	-	-	-	-	341
	Sylhet division	Chicken meat	600	381 (63.50)	377 (98.95)	-	-	-	-	342
	Sylnet division	B & S meat	400	136 (34.00)	136 (100)	-	-	-	- 14 (25.02)	343
	& Siraigani	Ammais	100	-	-	-	-	54 (54.00)	14 (23.93)	245
	& Shajgonj	4821/7583	/700	-	- 2510 (83.97)	- 1300 (18 33)	-	- 200 (37 42)	-	343
4.4	moxicillin	4021/7505		2)0) (01.)))	2510 (05.77)	1370 (10.33)	1000 (/1.)4)	2)) (37.42)	217 (72.30)	
	Five divisions	Laver-CS, VO, D	765	-	-	214 (27.97)	106 (49.70)	-	-	252
	Dhaka	Chicken- CC	870	-	-	037 (04.25)	024 (72.70)	-	-	254
	Gazipur, M	Cattle, chickens	169	-	-	037 (21.89)	017 (45.95)	-	-	262
	Barishal City	Chicken meat	020	014 (70.00)	14 (100)	013 (65.00)	013 (100)	-	-	263
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	:113	-	-	074 (65.49)	055 (74.30)	-	-	264
	Dhaka	Layer-egg surface	100	-	-	008 (08.00)	007 (87.50)	-	-	266
	Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	052 (52.00)	50 (96.15)	036 (36.00)	030 (83.33)	42 (42.00)	40 (95.24)	268
	Dhaka City	Eggs (S & C)	200	018 (09.00)	16 (88.89)	018 (09.00)	017 (94.44)	18 (09.00)	16 (88.89)	269
	Dhaka	Pigeons	040	21 (52.50)	13 (61.90)	011 (27.50)	004 (36.36)	-	-	272
	Mymensingh	Pigeon-CS, FP, F	112	-	-	010 (08.93)	009 (90.00)	-	-	273
	Mymensingh	Layer-CS, IC, ES	060	-	-	032 (53.33)	019 (60.00)	-	-	275
	Naogoan	Layer-eggs	180	-	-	014(07.78)	013(92.86)	-	-	277
	Daiahahi	Layer-ECS, E1, EC	120	-	-	111(33.81)	(111 (100))	-	-	279
	DGT	Broiler CS WC	352	-	-	110(3125)	012(23.00) 047(42.72)	-	-	280
	Mymensingh	Broiler - CS	050	-	_	016(32.00)	014(87.50)	-	-	283
	M. G & S	Dressed broiler	060	50 (83 33)	40 (80 00)	014(2333)	012 (83 00)	-	-	284
	Mymensingh	Ouail- CS	075	-	-	010 (13.33)	001 (10.00)	-	-	285
	Mymensingh	Layer-D, CS	150	-	-	011(07.33)	009 (81.81)	-	-	286
		-				. ,				

Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry										
S/ Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella	spp.	Staphylococ	cus spp. I	Ref.	
N & Districts	samples used	sample	s Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance 1	No.	
		tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)		
Chittagong	Dead layers-liver,	030	013 (43.33)	11 (84.62)	008 (26.67)	08 (100)	-	-	287	
Pirojpur	Dead layer-L, S, IS	048	-	-	011 (22.92)	009 (81.82)	-	-	288	
Gazipur, Tangail	Broiler-7 sources	153	-	-	036 (23.53)	014 (38.89)	-	-	289	
B, P & B	CCBG meat	305	061 (20.00)	13 (21.31)	019 (06.23)	008 (00.00)	77 (25.25)	07 (00.00)	290	
J, T, N & K	Dressed broiler	020	017 (85.00)	15 (88.24)	14 (70.00)	04 (28.57)	-	-	291	
M & Jamalpur	Broiler- Feces, meat	070	-	-	46 (65.72)	046 (100)	-	-	292	
Dhaka	Chicken feces	040	011 (27.5)	11 (100)	-	-	-	-	299	
	Human urine	048	014 (29.17)	14 (100)	-	-	-	-	299	
Rajshahi	Chicken eggs	060	021 (35.00)	01(04.77)	17 (28.33)	01 (05.88)	12 (20.00)	09 (71.43)	303	
Chittagong	Cattle - RC	100	0/0 (/0.00)	63 (90.00)	-	-	-	-	304	
Bangladesh	Human- UTI	-	1663	1497 (90.00)	-	-	-	-	305	
Mumonsingh	Mille mostifie	016	100(100)	98 (98.00)	-	-	-	-	212	
Mymensingh	Willk- mastitis	4000	003(51.23) 452(11.23)	100(100)	-	-	10 (02.30)	00 (00.00)	212	
M & Gazinur	M B & C meet	160	455(11.55) 064(37.87)	403(89.40) 38(5038)	-	-	-	-	315	
Chittagong	Dead broilers	275	150(5455)	38 (25 00)	-	-	-	-	316	
Chattogram	H A F & F	810	358 (44 20)	303 (84 50)		-	_	_	317	
Panchagarh	Calf diarrhea	114	044(3859)	44 (100)	25(21.93)	25 (100)	15 (13 16)	15(100)	320	
Sylhet	Goat feces	220	-	-	20 (09 09)	20 (100)	-	-	321	
KYAMCH	Human (Blood)	282	002 (0.71)	20 (100)	04(01.42)	04 (100)	42 (14.89)	19 (45.24)	324	
M. N & CNB	Cattle feces	057	027 (R)	-	08 (S)	-	-	-	325	
Gazipur, Tangail	Chickens	153	-	-	36 ()	14 (38.89)	-	-	327	
Dhaka	Pigeons	040	021 (52.5)	-	13 (61.90)	40 (100)	11 (27.50)	-	328	
Mymensingh	Chickens	350	276 (R)	-	-	-	-	-	331	
Mymensingh	Quails	050	025 (R)	-	09 (R)	-	24 (R)	-	333	
Mymensingh	Pigeons	112	78 (69.64)	10/7 (70.00)	-	-	-	-	334	
Five districts	Chicken meat	113	086 (76.11)	79 (91.90)	-	-	-	-	335	
BD & Nepal	Ducks	120	085 (70.83)	-	-	-	-	-	336	
Bangladesh	Chicken meat	150	-		-	-	96 (64.00)	77 (80.00)	337	
Bangladesh	Calf feces	125	035 (28.00)	35 (100)	11 (08.80)	11 (100)	-	-	338	
Mymensingh	Children stool	083	027 (32.53)	24 (88.88)	-	-	-	-	339	
Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	54 (54.00)	20 (37.04)	345	
& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	15 (37.50)	345	
Sub-total	7494/5161/1	467 3	3475 (46.37)	2854 (82.13)	1093 (21.18) 724 (66.24)	459 (31.29)	218 (47.49)		
05. Amoxicillin-clav	ulanic acid	070			21 (02 5()	10 (21 25)			254	
Dnaka Eises districts	Chicken-CCs	8/0	-	-	31 (03.56)	10(31.25) 10(25.70)	-	-	254	
Five districts	Chielten liven Intest	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	19(25.70)	-	-	264	
Cox's Bazar	Cont PS	150	-	-	82 (82.00)	54 (41.40)	-	-	205	
M & Gazinur	Broiler-CS+	150	114(76.00)	(00.20)	-	_	-	-	308	
KVAMCH	Human (Blood)	282	002(0.71)	20 (100)	-04(0142)	-04(100)	42 (14 89)	18 (42 86)	324	
Sub-total	582/136	5/282	194 (33,33)	90 (46.39)	191 (13.99)	67 (35.08)	42 (14.89)	18 (42.86)	524	
06. Pineracillin-taz	obactam		1)1 (00.00)	50 (10.55)	1)1 (101)))	07 (55100)	12 (1110))	10 (12:00)		
Five districts	Broiler- frozen meat	113	74 (65,49)	15 (20.30)	-	-	-	-	264	
Four districts	Chicken-liver, Intes-	100	82 (82.00)	08 (08.64)	-	-	-	-	265	
Sub-total:	, ,	213	156 (73.24)	23 (14.74)	-	-	-	-		
B. Cephalosporins (i	inhibit cell wall synth	esis)	. ,							
01. Cefixime	·	<i>.</i>								
Dhaka	Layer-CS, IF, ESS	210	-	-	30 (14.29)	10 (33.33)	-	-	255	
Mymensingh	Chicken -CS	100	-	-	35 (35.00)	0	-	-	256	
Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	04 (05.40)	-	-	264	
Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	113 (68.00)	-	-	-	-	298	
Bangladesh	Human- UTI	-	1663	956 (57.50)	-	-	-	-	305	
KYAMCH	Human (Blood)	282	02 (0.71)	02 (100)	04 (01.42)	04 (100)	42 (14.89)	24 (57.14)	324	
Dhaka City	Human blood	100	-	-	100 (100)	36 (36.00)	-	-	326	
Co	ntd. Table 25. An	tibacterial resistance st	atus of m	ajor bacterial	pathogens isola	ated from hum	ans, animals	and poultry		
-----	--------------------------	---------------------------	-----------	-------------------------	----------------------	------------------------	------------------------	-----------------------	--------------	------
S/	Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella s	spp.	Staphylococ	cus spp. F	Ref.
Ν	& Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance N	No.
			tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
	Mymensingh	Children stool	083	27 (32.53)	17 (62.96)	-	-	-	-	340
	Sub-total	615/243	/282	195 (31.71)	1088 (58.56)	243 (100)	54 (22.22)	282 (100)	24 (57.14)	
02.	Ceftazidime	al: 1 aa	070			21 (02 50)	04 (12 00)			054
	Dhaka	Chicken-CC	8/0	-	-	31 (03.56)	04(12.90)	-	-	254
	Dhaka	L aver-egg surface	113	-	-	74 (64.49)	01(01.40) 03(37.50)	-	-	264
	M & Jamalnur	Broiler-feces meat	70	_	_	46 (65 71)	28 (61 90)	_	_	200
	M & Gazipur	Broiler-CS+	150	114 (76.00)	002 (01.80)	-	-	-	-	308
	Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	210 (46.36)	-	-	-	-	313
	Dhaka City	Human blood	100	-	-	100 (100)	75 (75.00)	-	-	326
	Mymensingh	Chickens	350	276 (S)	-	-	-	-	-	331
	7 districts	Chicken feces	725	691 (95.31)	12 (02.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65.20)	01 (01.00)	-	-	-	-	340
0.2	Sub-total Coftriovono	5125/	1253	1421 (27.73)	225 (15.83)	219 (17.48)	111 (50.68)	-	-	
03.	Dhaka (Sayar)	Laver samples	_	_	_	67*	07(10.00)			250
	Dhaka (Savar)	Chicken- CC	870	_	_	20 (02 30)	07(10.00) 03(1500)	_	_	254
	Barishal City	Chicken meat	020	014 (70.00)	08 (57.30)	13 (65.00)	09 (69.24)	-	-	263
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	02 (02.70)	-	-	264
	Four districts	Chicken-Liver, Intes.	100	-	-	82 (82.00)	33 (40.24)	-	-	265
	Dhaka	Layer-egg surface	100	-	-	08 (08.00)	03 (37.50)	-	-	266
	Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	052 (52.00)	04 (07.69)	36 (36.00)	03 (08.33)	42 (42.00)	04 (09.52)	268
	Dhaka City	Eggs (S & C)	200	018 (09.00)	16 (88.89)	18 (09.00)	15 (83.33)	18 (09.00)	16 (88.89)	269
	Dhaka	Chicken meat	052	-	-	0^{\prime} (13.86)	02(08.58)	-	-	271
	Chattogram	Digeon CS	100	-	-	14(07.78) 29(29.00)	02(14.29) 14(48.28)	-	-	277
	Piroipur	Dead laver-L S & IS	048	-	-	11 (22.92)	14(48.28) 09(6924)	-	-	278
	Chattogram	Chicken feces	050	-	-	28 (56.00)	27 (96.42)	-	-	294
	Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	298
	Bangladesh	Human- UTI	- 1	663	1363 (51.2)	-	-	-	-	305
	Cox's Bazar	Goat- RS	150	078 (52.00)	17 (21.79)	-	-	-	-	306
	M & Gazipur	Broiler-CS+	150	114 (76.00)	09 (07.90)	-	-	-	-	308
	Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	276 (60.90)	-	-	-	-	313
	Chattogram	Chicken, CS	050	-	-	28 (56.00)	27 (96.42)	-	-	322
	K I AMCH Mymensingh	Children stool	282	002(0.71) 027(32.53)	20(100) 10(70.37)	04 (01.42)	34 (75.00)	42 (14.89)	13 (00.00)	324
	Mymensingh	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	$\frac{-}{54(5400)}$	- 07 (12.96)	345
	& Siraigoni	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	08 (20.00)	345
	Sub-total:	5235/2265	5/782	924 (17.65)	1732 (66.92)	439 (19.38)	190 (43.28)	196 (25.03)	48 (24.49)	
04.	Cefotaxime			. ,	. ,	. ,	. ,	. ,		
	Dhaka (Savar)	Layer samples	-	-	-	67*	13 (139.00)	-	-	250
	Dhaka	Chicken CC	870	-	-	15 (01.72)	02 (13.33)	-	-	254
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	03 (04.10)	-	-	264
	Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	052 (52.00)	04 (07.69)	36(36.00)	04(11.11)	42 (42.00)	03 (07.14)	268
	Cox's Bazar	Goat- RS	150	- 078 (52.00)	- 21 (26.92)	07 (13.40)	-	-	-	306
	M & Gazinur	Broiler-CS+	150	114(76.00)	89 (78 10)	_	_	_	_	308
	7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95.31)	19 (03.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65.20)	02 (01.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	Sub-total	1375/1135	5/100 1	098 (79.85)	135 (12.30)	132 (11.63)	23 (11.58)	42 (42.00)	03 *07.14)	
05.	Cefuroxime									
	Dhaka (Savar)	Layer samples	-	-	-	67*	15 (22.00)	-	-	250
	Five districts	Broiler-trozen meat	113	-	-	/4 (65.49)	02(02.70)	-	-	264
	Four districts	Unicken-liver, Intes	100	-	-	82 (82.00)	26 (31.71)	-	-	265
	KYAMCH	Human (Blood)	282	02(0.71)	21 (100)	-04(01.42)	-	$\frac{1}{42}(14.80)$	-	324
	Dhaka City	Human blood	100	-	-	100(100)	13(13.00)	-	-	326
	2 manu Ony		100			.00 (100)	15 (15.00)			520

Cor	Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry										
S/ N	Antibacterials & Districts	Host & types of samples used	No. of samples tested	<i>Escherichia</i> Positive No. (%)	<i>coli</i> Resistance No. (%)	Salmonella s Positive No. (%)	spp. Resistance No. (%)	Staphylococo Positive No. (%)	<i>cus</i> spp. Resistance No. (%)	Ref. No.	
	Rajshahi	Poultry	055	52 (94.55)	02 (03.85)	-	-	-	-	332	
		Wild ducks	041	14 (34.15)	01 (07.14)	-	-	-	-	332	
	Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	345	
	& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 ()	06 (15.00)	345	
	Sub-total	478/31	7/382	168 (35.15)	99 (58.93)	327/260	58 (17.74)	82 (21.47)	19 (23.17)		
06.	Cefaclor										
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	10 (13.50)	-	-	264	
07.	Cefoxitin	100 1			1= (11.00)						
	N, N & M	130 samples	1/4	114 (65.52)	47 (41.23)	-	-	-	-	341	
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	06(08.10)	-	-	264	
00	Sub-total	1	1/4//4	114 (05.52)	47 (41.23)	/4 (05.49)	06 (08.10)				
08.	Cepnalexin Seven Dhelve	Lavan commiss				67*	21 (21 00)			250	
	Savar, Dnaka	Layer samples	- 200	-	-	0/*	21(31.00)	-	-	250	
	Eiva distriata	Droiler frozen mont	112		-	74(65.40)	03(03.00)	-	-	255	
	Dhalea	Lavor agg surface	115	-	-	74 (03.49)	07(09.30)	-	-	204	
	Mymensingh	Digeon CS DS	050	-	-	17(34.00)	14(82.35)	-	-	200	
	Dhalea City	Chicken man faces	010	-	-	17(34.00) 10(100)	14(82.33)	-	-	205	
	Sulbot	Chicken, man-reces	100	-	-	10 (100)	09 (90.00)	-	-	295	
	Bangladech	Human LITI	100	1663 1	300 (84 10)	-	-	-	-	305	
	BD & Nepal	Ducks	120	1005 I	399 (04.10)	-	-	-	-	336	
	Sub-total	DUCKS 22	0/573	1608	-	- 184 (32 11)	-	_	-	550	
00	Cefradine	22	01515	10/0	1454 (04.45)	104 (52.11)	00 (32.01)				
07.	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	_	_	74 (65 49)	09 (12 20)	_	-	264	
	B P & B	CCBG meat	305	61 (20.00)	14(00.00)	19 (06 23)	11(00.00)	77 (25 25)	09 (00 00)	290	
	Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11 33)	315(00.00)	-	-	-	-	313	
	KYAMCH	Human (blood)	282	02(0.71)	02(100)	04(0142)	04(100)	42 (14 89)	26 (00.00)	324	
	Raishahi	Poultry	055	52 (94 55)	00(0000)	-	-	-	-	332	
	regonani	Wild ducks	041	14(3415)	01(00.00)	-	_	_	-	332	
	Mymensingh	Children stool	083	27 (32,53)	23 (85 18)	-	-	-	-	339	
	Mymensingh.	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	54 (54.00)	06 (11.11)	345	
	& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	10 (25.00)	345	
	Sub-total	4766/700)/787	609 (12.78)	355 (58.29)	97 (13.86)	24 (24.74)	213 (27.06)	. ,		
10.	Cefadroxil										
	Rajshahi	Poultry birds	55	52 (94.55)	00 (00.00)	-	-			332	
		Wild ducks	41	14 (34.15)	01 (07.14)	-	-			332	
	Sub-total		96	66 (68.75)	01 (01.52)	-	-				
11.	Cefepime										
	Savar, Dhaka	Layer samples	-	-	-	67*	13 (19.00)			250	
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	01 (01.40)			264	
	Four districts	Chicken-liver, intes	100	-	-	82 (82.00)	15 (18.29)			265	
	Five districts	Chicken meat	113	86 (76.12)	62 (72.10)	-	-			335	
	Sub-total		113/213	86 (76.12)	62 (72.10)	156 (73.24)	29 (18.59)				
0.0	Diata (Same)	(inhibit protein synt	(nesis)			(7*	04 (06 00)			250	
	Dhaka (Savar)	Chielten CC		-	-	$0/^{*}$	04(00.00)			250	
	Dhaka	Laver CS IE ES	300	-	-	21 (02.41)	58(59.00)			254	
	Mymencingh	Chicken CS	100	-	-	35 (35.00)!	33(94.20)			255	
	Five districts	Broiler_f meat	113	_		74(65.00)	21(28.40)	_		250	
	Dhaka City	Chicken man_feces	010	_	_	10(100)	04(40.00)	_		267	
	Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	052 (52.00)	15 (28.85)	036(36.00)	20 (55 56)	42 (42 00) 4	0(9524)	268	
	Dhaka City	For (S&C)	200	0.00000000000000000000000000000000000	07(38.80)	0.18(0.00)	20(33.30) 07(38.80)	$\frac{12}{18}(900)1$	0(55.24)	260	
	Mymensingh (M	Pigeon-CS FP F	112	-	-	10 (08 93)	1(10.00)		0 (33.30)	273	
	Mymensingh (M	Laver-CS IF ES	060	_	-	32 (53 33)	13(40.00)			275	
! Te	otal isolates 150 h	ut 100 isolates were us	sed for ant	ibiotic sensiti	vity test	52 (55.55)	10 (10.00)			213	
			101 ulli	Senord							

Con	td. Table 25. Anti	bacterial resistance sta	tus of ma	ajor bacterial	pathogens isola	ted from huma	ins, animals and	d poultry		
S/	Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella s	pp.	Staphylococ	cus spp.	Ref.
Ν	& Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	e No.
			tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
	Dhaka	Chicken-egg	50	-	-	50 (100)	25 (50.0)	-	-	270
	Mymensingh (M)	Pigeon-CS, FP, F	112	-	-	10 (08.93)	1 (10.00)	-	-	273
	Mymensingh	Layer-CS, IF, ES	060	-	-	32 (53.33)	13 (40.00)	-	-	275
	Mymensingh	Chicken	075	043 (57.33)	09 (20.93)	033 (44.00)	14 (42.42)	38 (50.67)	27 (71.05)	276
	Naogoan	Layer-eggs	180	-	-	14 (07.78)	04 (28.57)	-	-	277
	Chattogram	Pigeon-CS	100	-	-	29 (29.00)	15 (51.7)	-	-	278
	B, P & B	Meat samples	305	061 (20.00)	00 (00.00)	019 (06.23)	00 (00.00)	77 (25.25)	00 (00.00)	290
	M & Jamalpur	Broiler-feces, meat,	070	-	-	46 (65.71)	18 (38.10)	-	-	292
	Mymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (75.00)	61 (33.89)	136 (56.67)	43 (31.62)	-	-	293
	M & Tangail	Feces, CS	055	055 (100)	11 (20.00)	027 (49.09)	08 (29.63)	-	-	295
	Chittagong	Diarrheic child	350	-	-	015 (04.29)	01 (06.67)	-	-	296
	Dhaka Mumanainah	Chicken Ieces	250	100(00.4)	75 (45.00)	-	-	-	-	298
	Dhalea City	Unicken	100	100(100)	33 (97.20)	-	-	-	-	302
		Colves feces	100	100(100)	40(40.00) 03(06.12)	-	-	-	-	310
	Mymensingh	Milk- mastitis	016	043(43.00) 005(31.25)	00(00.12)	-	_	$\frac{10}{6250}$	-	312
	Dhaka City	Human (BS)	4115	-	-	359 (08 72)	54(1504)	-	-	318
	Mymensingh	DW D ES	060	-	_	027 (45 00)	$00(000)^*$	_	_	319
	Panchagarh	Calf diarrhea	114	044 (38.60)	26 (59.10)	025 (56.82)	19 (76.00)	15 (13.16)	10 (66.67)	320
	Mymensingh	Cattle feces	135	-	-	039 (28.89)	12 (31.57)	-	-	323
	Dhaka City	Human blood	100	-	-	100 (100)	04 (04.00)	-	-	326
	Bangladesh	Chickens	279	101 (36.20)	09 (08.90)	-	-	-	-	330
	Mymensingh	Chickens	350	276 (S)	-	-	-	-	-	331
	Rajshahi	Poultry	055	052 (94.55)	04 (07.69)	-	-	-	-	332
		Wild ducks	041	014 (34.15)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	332
	Mymensingh	Quails	050	025 (S)	009 (S)	24 (S)	-	-	-	333
	Mymensingh	Pigeons	112	010 (08.93)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	334
	BD & Nepal	Ducks	120	085 (S)	-	-	-	-	-	336
	7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95.31)	444 (64.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65.20)	54 (33.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	N, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	59 (51.75)	-	-	-	-	341
	Sylhet division	Chicken meat	600	381 (63.50)	190 (49.86)	-	-	-	-	342
БЛ	SUD-total Fotno avalin og (ink	3890/8380	0/810	2010 (07.10)) 1042 (39.92)	1323 (16.91)	251 (18.97)	200 (24.69)	87 (43.50)	
D. 1 01.	Tetracycline (Inf	libit protein synthesis	5)							
	Dhaka	Chicken-CS	870	-	-	37 (04.25)	31 (83.78)	-	-	254
	Dhaka	Layer-CS, IF, ES	300	-	-	08 (02.67)	08 (100)	-	-	255
	Mymensingh	Chicken- CS	100	-	-	35 (35.00)	34 (97.14)	-	-	256
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	64 (86.50)	-	-	264
	Dhaka City	Chicken, man-feces,	010	-	-	10(100)	09(90.00)	-	-	267
	Dhaka City	Chicken meat $E_{\text{max}}(S, S, C)$	100	052 (52.00)	052 (100)	036(36.00)	36 (100)	42 (42.00)	42(100)	268
	Dhaka City	Eggs $(S \propto C)$	200	018 (18.00)	018 (100)	018(09.00)	17(94.44)	18 (09.00)	17 (94.44)	209
	Dhaka	Pigeons	030	-	-	30(100)	11(100)	-	-	270
	Mymensingh	Pigeon-CS FP F	112	-	-	10(08.93)	11(100)	-	2	272
	Mymensingh	Laver-CS_IC_ES	060	_	_	32(5333)	32(100)	_	_	275
	Chattogram	Pigeon-CS	100	-	_	29(2900)	25 (86 2)	_	_	278
	Chittagong	Layer-ECS. ET. EC	310	-	-	111 (35.81)	111 (100)	-	-	279
	DGT	Broiler-CS, M, FW	352	-	-	110 (31.25)	88 (80.00)	-	-	282
	M, G & S	Dressed broiler	060	050 (83.33)	011 (21.00)	014 (23.33)	10 (69.00)	-	-	284
	Mymensingh	Quail -CS	075	-	-	010 (13.33)	010 (100)	-	-	285
	Mymensingh	Layer-D, CS	150	-	-	11 (07.33)	82 (81.81)	-	-	286
	Chittagong	Dead layers	030	013 (43.33)	013 (100)	008 (26.67)	08 (100)	-	-	287
	Gazipur, Tangail	Broiler-7 sources	153	-	-	036 (23.53)	0	-	-	289
	B, P & B	Meat samples	305	061 (20.00)	002 (03.28)	019 (06.23)	01 (05.26)	77 (25.25)	03 (03.89)	290

Bacterial zoonotic diseases in Bangladesh

I

Со	Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry										
S/	Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella sp	р.	Staphylococ	cus spp.	Ref.	
Ν	& Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	No.	
			tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)		
	J, T, N & K	Dressed broiler	020	017 (85.00)	003 (17.64)	014 (70.00)	12 (85.71)	-	-	291	
	Mymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (75.00)	161 (89.44)	136 (56.67)	118 (86.76)	-	-	293	
	M & Tangail	Feces, CS	055	055 (100)	029 (52.73)	027 (49.09)	27 (100)	-	-	295	
	Chittagong	Children	350	-	-	015 (04.29)	04 (26.67)	-	-	296	
	Chattogram	Chicken, CW	060	037 (61.67)	037 (100)	-	-	-	-	297	
	Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	086(52.00)	-	-	-	-	298	
	Dnaka	Unicken leces	040	011(27.50) 014(20.17)	011(100) 010(72.20)	-	-	-	-	299	
	Mymensingh	Chicken	048	014(29.17) 036(3636)	010(75.30) 036(100)	-	-	-	-	299	
	Raishahi	Chicken eggs	099	030(30.30) 021(35.00)	017(80.95)	- 017 (28 33)	- 14 (82 35)	$\frac{1}{12}$ (20.00)	-10(8571)	302	
	Chittagong	Cattle - RC	100	070 (70 00)	070 (100)	-	-	-	-	304	
	Cox's Bazar	Goat- RS	150	078 (52 00)	40 (51 28)	_	_	_	_	306	
	Dhaka City	Human -CS	100	100 (100)	55 (55 00)	_	_	_	-	309	
	T. S & M	Calves- feces	100	49 (49.00)	05 (10.21)	-	-	-	-	310	
	Rajshahi, Dhaka	Broilers	400	400 (100)	400 (100)	-	-	-	-	314	
	Chattogram	H, A, E & F	810	358 (44.20)	286 (79.9)	-	-	-	-	317	
	Mymensingh	DW, D, ES	060	-	-	27 (45.00)	27 (100)*	-	-	319	
	Sylhet	Goat feces	220	-	-	20 (09.09)	11 (55.56)	-	-	321	
	Mymensingh	Cattle feces	135	-	-	39 (28.89)	29 (73.68)	-	-	323	
	M, N & CNB	Cattle feces	057	27 (R)	-	08 (R)	-	-	-	325	
	Gazipur, Tangail	Chickens	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	36 (100)	-	-	327	
	Dhaka	Pigeons	040	21 (52.50)	11 (52.38)	11 (27.50)	11 (100)	-	-	328	
	Dhaka	Chicken swabs	003	-	-	07!	04 (50.00)	-	-	329	
	Bangladesh	Chickens	279	101 (36.20)	46 (45.50)	-	-	-	-	330	
	Mymensingh	Chickens	350	276 (R)	-	-	-	-	-	331	
	Rajsnani	Poultry	055	52 (94.55)	24 (46.15)	-	-	-	-	332	
	M	Wild ducks	041	14(34.15)	01 (07.14)	- 00 (D)	-	-	-	332	
	Mymensingh	Qualis	112	25(R) 10(08.03)	-	09 (K)	-	24 (8)	-	224	
	Five districts	Chicken meet	112	10(08.93)	(90.00)	-	-	-	-	225	
	Bangladesh	Calf feces	125	35 (28.00)	35 (100)	-	$\frac{-}{11(100)}$	-	-	338	
	7 districts	Chicken feces	725	691 (95 31)	679 (98 00)	-	-	-	-	340	
	7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65 20)	151 (93.00)	-	_	_	-	340	
	N. N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	86 (75.44)	-	-	-	-	341	
	Sylhet division	Chicken meat	600	381 (63.50)	325 (85.30)	-	-	-	-	342	
	Sub-total	5781/4951	1/665	3427 (61.01)	2793 (81.50)	1037 (20.95)	937 (90.36)	173 (29.02)	72 (41.62)		
02.	Oxytetracycline										
	Five divisions	Layer-CS, VO, I	D 765	-	-	214 (27.97)	171 (79.70)	-	-	252	
	M, Gazipur	Chicken, Cow-	169	-	-	37 (21.89)	08 (21.62)	-	-	262	
	Barishal City	Chicken meat	020	014 (70.00)	014 (100)	013 (65.00)	013 (100)	-	-	263	
	Five districts	Broiler meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	74 (100)	-	-	264	
	Mymensingh	Chicken	075	043 (57.33)	043 (100)	033 (44.00)	033 (100)	38 (50.67)	16 (42.10)	276	
	Pirojpur	Dead layer-L, S	048	-	-	11 (22.92)	10 (90.91)	-	-	288	
	B, P & B	Meat samples	305	061 (12.08)	008 (13.11)	019 (06.23)	009 (47.39)	77 (25.25)	04 (05.90)	290	
	Mymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (75.00)	142 (78.89)	136 (56.67)	103 (75.73)	-		293	
	M & Gazipur	M, B & C meat	169	064 (37.87)	033 (51.56)	-	-	-		315	
	Eive districts	Chicken most	275	150(54.54) 086(76.11)	075(50.00)	-	-	-	-	310	
	Bangladash	Chicken meat	150	-	-			96 (64.00)	77 (80.20)	333	
	Mymensingh	Animals	100	_	_	_	_	54 (54.00)	23 (42 59)	345	
	& Siraigoni	Huamns	100	-	_	_	_	-	-	345	
	Sub-total	1197/1734	5/630	598 (49.96)	395 (66.03)	537 (30.95)	421 (78.39)	265 (42.06)	120 (45.28)	545	
03.	Doxycycline						(, 010))	100 (11100)			
	Savar, Dhaka	Layer samples	-	-	-	67*	35 (52.00)			250	
	M, Gazipur	Chicken, Cow-	169	-	-	37 (21.89)	29 (78.38)			262	
	Dhaka	Layer-ECS, Et,	100	-	-	08 (08.00)	04 (50.00)			266	

Bacterial zoonoti	c diseases in	Bangladesh

Co	ntd. Table 25. Ant	ibacterial resistance st	atus of m	ajor bacterial	pathogens isola	ated from humar	ıs, animals an	d poultry		
S/	Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella sp	o.	Staphylococo	cus spp. Re	ef.
Ν	& Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance 1	No.
			tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
	Five divisions	Layer-CS, VO, D	765	-	-	214 (27.97)	131(61.40)	-	-	252
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	43 (58.10)	-	-	264
	Mymensingh	Layer-D, CS	150	-	-	11 (07.33)	09 (81.81)	-	-	286
	Chittagong	Dead layers-	030	013 (43.33)	07 (53.75)	08 (26.67)	04 (50.00)	-	-	287
	Chittagong	Children -	350	-	-	15 (04.29)	01 (06.67)	-	-	296
	M & Gazipur	Broiler-CS+	150	114 (76.00)	89 (78.10)	-	-	-	-	308
	M & Gazipur	M, B & C	169	064 (37.87)	28 (43.45)	-	-	-	-	315
	Dhaka	Chicken swabs	003	-	-	07 (100)	05 (66.66)	-	-	329
	Bangladesh	Chicken meat	150	-	-	-	-	96 (64.00)	77 (82.00)	337
	N, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	90 (78.95)	-	-	-	-	341
	Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	345
	& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	05 (12.50)	345
	Sub-total	349/145	6/250	305 (87.39)	214 (70.16)	329 (22.59)	193 (58.66)	136 (54.40)	82 (60.29)	
E.I	Fluoroquinolones	(interfere with DNA	synthesi	s)						
01.	Ciprolloxacin	Lavor CS VO D	765			214 (27.07)	64 (30,00)			252
	Dhalta	Chicken CC	/03	-	-	214(27.97) 27(04.25)	04(30.00)	-	-	252
	Dhaka	Chicken-CC	870 200	-	-	37(04.23)	51(65.76) 071(20.00)	-	-	254
	Mymensingh	Chicken CS	100	-	-	35(3500)	071(20.00) 05(14.30)	-	-	255
	M Gazipur	Chicken Cow CM	160	-	-	37 (21.80)	05(14.50)	-	-	250
	Barishal City	Chicken meat	020	-014 (70.00)	-	$\frac{37}{(21.69)}$	13(100)	-	-	262
	Five districts	Broiler- frozen meat	113	-	13 (92.80)	74 (65 49)	28 (37 80)	-	-	263
	Four districts	Chicken-Liver Intes	100		_	82 (82 00)	60(73.17)	_		265
	Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	052 (52 00)	13 (25.00)	36 (36 00)	12(3333)	42 (42 00)	07 (16 67)	268
	Dhaka City	Eggs (S & C)	200	018 (09 00)	00(0000)	18 (09 00)	01(05.55)	18(09.00)	00 (00 00)	269
	Dhaka	Chicken- egg	050	-	-	50 (100)	0	-	-	2.70
	Dhaka	Chicken meat	052	-	-	07 (13.46)	02 (28.57)	-	-	271
	Dhaka	Pigeons	040	021 (52.50)	00 (00.00)	11 (27.50)	00 (00.00)	-	-	272
	Mymensingh	Pigeon-CS, FP, F	112	-	-	10 (08.93)	0	-	-	273
	Mymensingh	Pigeon - CS, PS	050	-	-	17 (34.00)	0	-	-	274
	Mymensingh	Layer-CS, IC, ES	060	-	-	32 (53.33)	26 (80.00)	-	-	275
	Mymensingh	Chicken	075	043 (57.33)	05 (11.63)	33 (44.00)	09 (27.27)	38 (50.67)	12 (31.58)	276
	Naogoan	Layer eggs	180	-	-	14 (07.78)	01 (07.14)	- ` `	-	277
	Chittagong	Layer-ECS, ET, EC	310	-	-	111 (35.81)	111 (100)	-	-	279
	DGT	Broiler-CS, M, FW	352	-	-	110 (31.25)	14 (12.73)	-	-	282
	Mymensingh	Broiler- CS	050	-	-	16 (32.00)	05 (31.25)	-	-	283
	M, G & S	Dressed broiler	060	050 (83.33)	04 (08.00)	14 (23.33)	01 (09.00)	-	-	284
	Mymensingh	Quail-CS	075	-	-	10 (13.33)	0	-	-	285
	Mymensingh	Layer- D, CS	150	-	-	11 (07.33)	05 (45.46)	-	-	286
	Chittagong	Dead layers	030	013 (43.33)	13 (100)	08 (26.67)	07 (87.50)	-	-	287
	Pirojpur	Dead layer-l, S & IS	048	-	-	13 (27.08)	13 (100)	-	-	288
	Gazipur, Tangail	Broiler-7 sources	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	0	-	-	289
	B, P & B	Meat samples	305	061 (20.00)	02 (03.28)	19 (06.23)	01 (02.60)	77 (25.25)	02 (02.60)	290
	J, T, N & K	Dressed broilers	020	017 (85.00)	00 (00.00)	14 (70.00)	01(0/.14)	-	-	291
	M & Jamalpur	Broiler-feces, meat	070	-	-	46 (65.71)	09 (19.05)	-	-	292
	Mymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (75.00)	29 (16.11)	136 (56.67)	19 (13.97)	-	-	293
	Chattogram	Unicken-Feces	050	-	-	28 (56.00)	20(71.42)	-	-	294
	Ni & Tangail	Turkey-Feces, CS	055	055 (100)	37 (67.27)	12(21.82)	08(00.07)	-	-	295
	Chittagong	Children	350	-	-	15 (04.29)	03 (20.00)	-	-	296
	Dhaka	Chicken leces	250	100(00.4)	130(82.00)	-	-	-	-	298
	Dilaka	Unicken leces	040	011(27.50) 014(20.17)	11(80.00)	-	-	-	-	299
	Jashora	Broiler CS	048	014(29.17) 005(100)	11(80.00)	-	-	-	-	299
	Mymensingh	Chicken	000	036(3636)	18(50.00)				-	302
	Raishahi	Chicken eggs	060	021(35.00)	10(00.00)	17 (28 33)	01 (05 88)	12 (20.00)	01 (08 33)	302
	Mymensingh	Cattle- RS	137	0.00000000000000000000000000000000000	21 (22 10)	-	-	-	-	307
	M & Gazimur	Broiler-CS+	150	114 (76.00)	80 (70 20)	-	-	-	-	308
				. (, 0.00)	(,					2.50

Contd. Table 25. An	tibacterial resistance s	tatus of m	ajor bacterial	pathogens isola	ated from humar	ns, animals an	d poultry		
S/ Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella sp	p.	Staphylococ	cus spp. F	Ref.
N & Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance N	No.
		tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	NO. (%)	
Dhaka City	Human -CS	100	100 (100)	34 (34.00)	-	-	-	-	309
T, S & M	Calves- feces	100	049 (49.00)	05 (10.21)	-	-	-	-	310
Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (01.13)	270 (59.60)	-	-	-	-	313
Kajsnani, Dnaka	Brollers M. P. & C. most	400	400 (100)	400 (100)	-	-	-	-	314 215
Chittagong	Dead broilers	275	150(5455)	10(23.00)	-	-	-	_	315
Chattogram	H A E & F	810	358 (44 20)	219 (61 20)	-	-	-	-	317
Dhaka City	Human (BS)	4115	-	-	359 (08 72)	01 (00 27)	-	-	318
Mymensingh	DW. D. ES	060	-	-	027 (45.00)	00 (00.00)*	-	-	319
Panchagarh	Calf diarrhea	114	044 (38.60)	08 (18.18)	25 (21.93)	05 (20.00)	15 (13.16)	05 (33.33)	320
Sylhet	Goat feces	220	-	-	20 (09.09)	00 (00.00)	-	-	321
Chattogram	Chicken, CS	050	-	-	28 (56.00)	20 (71.42)	-	-	322
Mymensingh	Cattle feces	135	-	-	39 (28.89)	12 (31.57)	-	-	323
KYAMCH	Human (Blood)	282	002 (0.71)	01 (50.00)	04 (01.42)	01 (25.00)	42 (14.89)	06 (38.10)	324
Dhaka City	Human blood	100	-	-	100 (100)	04 (04.00)	-	-	326
Gazipur, Tangail	Chickens	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	00 (00.00)	-	-	327
Dhaka	Pigeons	040	021 (52.50)	00 (00.00)	11 (27.50)	00 (00.00)	-	-	328
Bangladesh	Chickens	279	101 (36.20)	13 (12.90)	-	-	-	-	330
Mymensingh	Chickens	350	276 (S)	-	-	-	-	-	331
Rajshani	Poultry	055	52 (94.55)	03(05.77)	-	-	-	-	332
Mumongingh	Quaila	041	14(34.15) 25(S)	01 (07.14)	-	- 24 (S)	-	-	332 222
Mymensingh	Digeons	112	23(3) 10(08.03)	-	09(3)	24 (3)	-	-	333
BD & Nepal	Ducks	12	10 (08.93) 85 (S)	-	-	-	-	-	336
Bangladesh	Chicken meat	150	-	_	_	_	96 (64 00)	74 (77 50)	337
Mymensingh	Children stool	083	27 (32,53)	08 (29 62)	_	-	-	-	339
7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95.31)	640 (93.00)	-	-	-	-	340
7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65.20)	110 (67.00)	-	-	-	-	340
N, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	51 (44.75)	-	-	-	-	341
Sylhet division	B & S meat	400	136 (34.0)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	344
Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	345
& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	06 (15.00)	345
Sub-total	10623/11003/	1386	3935 (37.04)	2270 (57.69)	1993 (18.11)	526 (26.39)	380 (27.42)	113 (29.74)	
02. Norfloxacin									
Five divisions	Layer-CS, VO, D	765	-	-	214 (27.97)	29 (13.7)	-	-	252
Dhaka	Chicken- CS, IF,	300	-	-	08 (02.67)	02 (20.00)	-	-	255
Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	14 (18.90)	-	-	264
DCT	Ducilon CS M	252			110 (21 25)	11 (10.00)			202
MG&S	Drossed breiler	552 060	-	-	110(31.23) 14(22.22)	11(10.00)	-	-	282
Gazinur Tangail	Broiler- 7 sources	153	-	-	36(23.53)	00 (00.00)	-	_	284
B P & B	Meat samples	305	061 (20.00)	-01 (00 00)	19(0623)	02(10.53)	77 (25 25)	- 02 (02 60)	20)
LTN&K	Dressed broiler	020	017 (85 00)	01(05.88)	14(70.00)	00(0000)	-	-	291
Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	298
Mymensingh	Chicken	099	036 (36.36)	18 (50.00)	-	-	-	-	302
Dhaka City	Human -CS	100	100 (100)	39 (39.00)	-	-	-	-	309
T, S & M	Calves- feces	100	049 (49.00)	08 (16.32)	-	-		-	310
Mymensingh	DW, D, ES	060	-	-	027 (45.00)	000 (00.00)*	' -	-	319
Gazipur, Tangail	Chickens	153	-	-	036 (23.53)	000 (00.00)	-	-	327
Sub-total	934/228	81/77	479 (51.28)	71 (14.82)	552 (24.20)	058 (10.51)	77 (100)	02 (02.60)	
03. Enrofloxacin									
Five divisions	Layer-CS, VO, D	765	-	-	214 (27.97)	094 (43.70)	-	-	252
Chittagong	Layer-ECS, ET, EC	310	-	-	111 (35.81)	111 (100)	-	-	279
Chittagong	Dead layers	030	013 (43.33)	13 (100)	08(26.67)	07 (87.50)	-	-	287
Southern districts	Chicken	205	-	-	019 (09.27)	-	-	-	290
wrymensnign	Chicken	079	030 (30.30)	10 (55.50)					502

Contd. Table 25. An	tibacterial resistance st	atus of m	ajor bacterial	pathogens isol	ated from hum	ans, animals and	poultry		
S/ Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella s	pp.	Staphyloc	occus spp.	Ref.
N & Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistanc	e No.
	r · · · · ·	tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
Mymensingh	Cattle feces	135	-	-	39 (28.89)	04 (10.52)	-	-	323
Sub-total	129/14	45/0	49 (37.98)	31 (63.27)	391 (27.06)	225 (57.54)	-	-	
04. Ofloxacin			. ,	. ,					
Dhaka (Savar)	Layer - samples	-	-	-	67*	56 (84.00)	-	-	250
Five divisions	Layer-CS, VO, D	765	-	-	214 (27.97)	60 (27.90)	-	-	252
Five districts	Broiler- frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	26 (35.10)	-	-	264
Mymensingh	Cattle- RS	137	95 (69.34)	35 (36.84)	-	-	-	-	307
Sub-total	137/7	4/0	69.34	35 (36.84)	74 (100)	82 (58.16)	-	-	
05. Levofloxacin									
Dhaka (Savar)	Layer samples	-	-	-	67*	34 (50.00)	-	-	250
Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	08 (10.80)	-	-	264
Dhaka	Chicken meat	052	-	-	07 (13.46)	0	-	-	271
Savar (Dhaka)	Pigeon-Oral & CS	040	-	-	11 (27.50)	02 (18.18)	-	-	272
M & Tangail	Feces, CS	055	055 (100)	15 (27.27)	27 (49.09)	06 (22.22)	-	-	295
Dhaka	Chicken feces	040	011 (27.50)	09 (81.82)	-	-	-	-	299
	Human urine	048	014 (29.17)	09 (66.70)	-	-	-	-	299
Mymensingh	Cattle- RS	137	095 (69.34)	14 (14.80)	-	-	-	-	307
M & Gazipur	Broiler-CS+	150	114 (76.00)	93 (81.60)	-	-	-	-	308
Mymensingn	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	246 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	313
	Brollers Lluman (Dlaad)	400	400(100)	332(00.00)	-	-	-	-	314
K I AMCH	Human (Blood)	282	002 (00.71)	01 (50.00)	100(11.42)	01(25.00)	42 (14.89) 04 (09.52)	324
Dhaka City Dhaka	Pigeons	040	-	-	100(100) 11(27.50)	03(03.00)	-	-	320
Mymensingh	Children stool	040	021(32.50) 027(32.53)	10(00.00)	11 (27.30)	02 (18.18)	-	-	320
Sylhet division	B & S meat	400	136(34.00)	10(70.37)	_	_	_	-	343
Sub-total	5635/1447	/282	130 (34.00)	738(5557)	- 448 (30.96)	- 116 (22 52)	- 42 (14 89	-	545
06. Pefloxacin	5055/1447/	202	1520 (25.57)	, 150 (55.57)	440 (30.90)	110 (22.52)	12 (14.0)) 04 (0).52)	
Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	074 (65.49)	52 (70.30)	-	-	264
Chittagong	Laver-ECS, ET, EC	310	-	-	111 (35.81)	111 (100)	-	-	279
Chittagong	Dead lavers	030	13 (43.33)	13 (100)	008 (26.67)	07 (87.50)	-	-	287
Mymensingh	Cattle- RS	137	95 (69.34)	36 (37.90)	-	-	-	-	307
Five districts	Chicken meat	113	86 (76.11)	76 (88.40)	-	-	-	-	335
Sub-total	280/4	53/-	194 (69.29)	125 (64.43)	193 (42.60)	170 (88.08)	-	-	
07. Gatifloxacin			. ,	. ,					
Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	22 (29.70)	-	-	264
Mymensingh	Cattle rectal swabs	137	95 (69.30)	33 (34.70)	-	-	-	-	307
Sub-total	1	13/137	95 (69.30)	33 (34.70)	74 (65.49)	22 (29.70)			
08. Moxifloxacin									
Mymensingh	Cattle- RS	137	095 (69.34)	035 (36.80)	-	-	-	-	307
Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	252 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	313
Mymensingh	Children stool	083	027 (32.53)	016 (59.25)	-	-	-	-	339
Sub-total	('	4220	5/5 (13.63)	303 (52.70)	-	-	-	-	
r. Annogrycosides	(innibit protein synth	lesis)							
Dhaka (Sayar)	Lover complex				67*	04 (06 00)			250
Five divisions	Layer-CS VO D	- 765	-	-	214(27.97)	15(0710)	-	-	250
Dhaka	Chicken- CC	870			214(27.57) 31(03.56)	04(12.90)	_	-	254
Gazipur M	Cattle chickens	169	1		37 (21.89)	11(29.73)	-	-	267
Barishal City	Chicken meat	020	14(70.00)	04(28.60)	13(65.00)	00(0000)	_	_	263
Five districts	Broiler- frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	14 (18.90)	-	-	264
Four districts	Chicken-liver, intes-	100	-	-	82 (82.00)	22 (26.83)	_	-	265
Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	298
Bangladesh	Human- UTI	-	1663	47 (02.80)	-	-	-	-	305
Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	36 (07.94)	-	-	-	-	313
M & Gazipur	M, B & C meat	169	64 (37.87)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	315
KYAMCH	Human (Blood)	282	02 (00.71)	00 (00.00)	04 ()	02 (50.00)	42 (100)	07 (16.67)	324
Sub-total	4721/231	9/42	699 (14.81)	87 (12.45)	455 (19.62)	72 (13.79)	42 (100)	07 (16.67)	

Cor	Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry									
S/	Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella sp).	Staphyloco	ccus spp.	Ref.
Ν	& Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	No.
			tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
02.	Gentamicin									
	Five divisions	Layer-CS, VO, D	765	-	-	214 (27.97)	68 (32.00)	-	-	252
	Dhaka	Chicken-CC	870	-	-	37 (04.25)	28 (75.68)	-	-	254
	Dnaka M. Gazinur	Layer- US, IF, ES	300 160	-	-	08(02.07) 37(21.89)	0 = 0.04(10.81)	-	-	255
	Barishal City	Chicken meat	020	-014 (70.00)	-05 (35 70)	13(6500)	02(1538)	-	-	262
	Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	16 (21.60)	-	-	264
	Four districts	Chicken-liver, Intes	100	-	-	82 (82.00)	27 (32.93)	-	-	265
	Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	052 (52.00)	24 (46.15)	36 (36.00)	18 (50.00)	42 (42.00)	30 (71.43)	268
	Dhaka City	Eggs (S & C)	200	018 (09.00)	04 (22.22)	18 (09.00)	04 (22.22)	18 (09.00)	06 (33.33)	269
	Dhaka	Chicken-egg	050	-	-	50 (100)	30 (60.0)	-	-	270
	Dhaka Muma an ain ah	Pigeons Discon CS ED E	040	021 (52.50)	04 (19.05)	11(27.50) 10(08.02)	00(00.00)	-	-	272
	Mymensingh	Pigeon-CS PS	050	-	-	10(08.93) 17(34.00)	02(20.00) 04(23.53)	-	-	275
	Mymensingh	Chicken	075	043 (57 33)	20 (46 51)	33 (44 00)	14(42.42)	38 (50 67)	08 (21 05)	276
	Naogoan	Layer-eggs	180	-	-	14 (07.78)	03 (21.43)	-	-	277
	DGT	Broiler-CS, M, FW	352	-	-	110 (31.25)	10 (09.09)	-	-	282
	M, G & S	Dressed broiler	060	050 (83.33)	04 (08.00)	14 (23.33)	00 (00.00)	-	-	284
	Mymensingh	Layer-D, CS	150	-	-	11 (07.33)	09 (81.81)	-	-	286
	Chittagong	Dead layers	030	013 (43.33)	00 (00.00)	08 (26.67)	00 (00.00)	-	-	287
	Gazipur, Tangail	Broiler- / sources	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	0	-	-	289
	B, P & B I T N & K	Dressed broiler	305 020	001(20.00) 017(85.00)	00(00.00) 02(11.75)	19(06.23) 14(70.00)	00(00.00)	- (25.25)	-	290
	M & Jamalnur	Broiler- feces meat	020	-	-	46 (65 71)	00(00.00) 04(09.52)	-	-	292
	Mymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (75.00)	16 (08.89)	136 (56.67)	09 (06.62)	-	-	293
	M & Tangail	Feces, CS	055	055 (100)	09 (16.36)	27 (49.09)	05 (18.52)	-	-	295
	Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	33 (20.00)	-	-	-	-	298
	Sylhet	Chicken-CS,L	100	035 (35.00)	35 (100)	-	-	-	-	301
	Mymensingh	Chicken	099	036 (36.36)	03 (08.30)	-	-	-	-	302
	Kajsnani	Chicken eggs	150	021(35.00) 078(52.00)	00(00.00) 20(27.18)	17 (28.33)	00 (00.00)	12 (20.00)	00 (00.00)	303
	Dhaka City	Human -CS	100	100(100)	39 (39 00)	-	-	-	-	300
	T, S & M	Calves- feces	100	049 (49.00)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	310
	Mymensingh	Milk- mastitis	016	05 (31.25)	05 (100)	-	-	10 ()	07 (70.00)	312
	Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	129 (28.48)	-	-	-	-	313
	Rajshahi, Dhaka	Broilers	400	400 (100)	204 (51.00)	-	-	-	-	314
	M & Gazipur	M, B & C meat	169	064 (37.87)	04 (06.25)	-	-	-	-	315
	Chittagong	Dead broilers	275	150 (54.55)	113 (75.00)	-	-	-	-	316
	Panchagarh	Calf diarrhea	114	- 044 (38.60)	- 06 (13 64)	25 (21.93)	05(20,00)	-	- 01 (06 67)	320
	Svlhet	Goat feces	220	-	-	20 (09.09)	00 (00.00)	-	01 (00.07)	321
	Mymensingh	Cattle feces	135	-	-	39 (28.89)	08 (21.0)	-	-	323
	KYAMCH	Human (Blood)	282	002 (0.71)	02 (100)	04 (01.42)	03 (75.00)	42 (14.89)	11 (26.19)	324
	M, N & CNB	Cattle feces	057	27 (S)	-	08 (S)	-	-	-	325
	Gazipur, Tangail	Chickens	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	00 (00.00)	-	-	327
	Dhaka	Pigeons Chielten sweha	040	021 (52.50)	04 (19.05)	11(27.50)	00(00.00)	-	-	328
	Bangladesh	Chickens	279	- 101 (36.20)	-02(02.00)	-	-	-	_	330
	Mymensingh	Chickens	350	276 (S)	-	-	-	-	_	331
	Rajshahi	Poultry	055	52 (94.55)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	332
		Wild ducks	041	14 (34.15)	01 (07.14)	-	-	-	-	332
	Mymensingh	Quails	050	25 (R)	-	09 (R)	-	24 (S)	-	333
	Mymensingh	Pigeons	112	10 (08.93)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	334
	Bangladesh	Chicken meat	150	-	- 02 (07 40)	-	-	96 (64.00)	13 (13.33)	337
7	districts	Chicken feces	725	691 (95 31)	152(07.40)	_	_	-	_	341
,			, 20	()0.01)	(22.00)					5

	Bacterial	zoonotic	diseases	in	Bang	lades	sh
--	-----------	----------	----------	----	------	-------	----

Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry									
S/ Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella spp).	Staphylococ	cus spp.	Ref.
N & Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	No.
		tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65.20)	22 (13.00)	-	-	-	-	340
N, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	30 (26.32)	-	-	-	-	341
Sylhet division	Chicken meat	600	381 (63.50)	105 (27.55)	-	-	-	-	342
Sylhet division	B & S meat	400	136 (34.00)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	343
Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	54 (54.00)	14(25.93)	345
& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	08(20.00)	345
03 Neomycin	10019/3/33	1502 5	837 (38.30)	1008 (20.27)	12/0 (22.27)	290 (22.09)	408 (31.10)	98 (20.94)	
Five divisions	Laver-CS, VO, D	765	_	_	214 (27,97)	80 (37.60)	_	_	252
M. Gazipur	Chicken, Cow- CM	169	_	_	37 (21.89)	05(13.51)	-	_	262
Five districts	Broiler- frozen meat	113	_	_	74 (65.49)	26 (35.10)	-	_	264
Mymensingh	Quail-Cloacal swab	075	_	-	10 (13.33)	02 (20.00)	-	-	285
Chittagong	Dead layers	030	013 ()	03 (23.08)	008 (26.67)	00 (00.00)	-	-	287
Mymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (75.00)	61 (33.89)	136 (56.67)	47 (34.56)	-	-	293
Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	33 (20.00)	-	-	-	-	298
Jashore	Broiler. CS	005	005 (100)	05 (100)	-	-	-	-	300
Mymensingh	Milk- mastitis	016	005 (31.25)	00 (00.00)	-	-	10 (100)	00 (00.00)	312
M & Gazıpur	M, B & C meat	169	064 (37.87)	04 (06.25)	-	-	-	-	315
Sylhet	Goat teces 710/161	220	-	-	020 ()	00(00.00)	-	-	321
04 Streptomycin	/ 10/ 101	2/10	433 (00.99)	100 (24.40)	499 (30.90)	160 (32.00)	10 (100)	00 (00.00)	
Dhaka	Chicken- CC	870	_	_	37 (04.25)	30 (08.11)	_	_	254
Mymensingh	Chicken- CS	100	_	_	35 (35.00)	27 (77.10)	_	_	256
Barishal City	Chicken meat	020	014 (70.00)	09 (64.30)	13 (65.00)	11 (84.62)	-	_	263
Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	23 (31.10)	-	-	264
Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	052 (52.00)	40 (76.92)	36 (36.00)	26 (72.22)	42 (42.00)	40 (95.24)	268
DGT	Broiler-CS, M, FW	352	-	-	110 (31.25)	06 (05.46)	-	-	282
M, G & S	Dressed broiler	060	050 (83.33)	19 (38.00)	14 (23.33)	06 (42.85)	-	-	284
Gazipur, Tangail	Broiler-7 sources	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	0	-	-	289
J, T, N & K	Dressed broiler	020	017 (85.00)	03 (17.64)	14(70.00)	07 (50.00)	-	-	291
M & Tangaii	Turkey: Feces, CS	055	055(100)	09(00.00) 140(00.00)	27 (49.09)	06 (16.22)	-	-	295
Mumensingh	Chicken	230	100(00.40)	149(90.00)	-	-	-	-	290
Cox's Bazar	Goat- RS	150	078 (52 00)	37 (47 44)	_	_	_		306
T. S & M	Calves- feces	100	049 (49.00)	36 (73.46)	_	_	_	_	310
Mymensingh	Milk- mastitis	016	005 (31.25)	02 (40.00)	_	_	10 (62.50)	01 (10.00)	312
Rajshahi, Dhaka	Broilers	400	400 (100)	400 (100)	-	_	-	-	314
Mymensingh	DW, D, ES	060	-	-	27 (45.00)	27 (100)*	-	-	319
Sylhet	Goat feces	220	-	-	20 (09.09)	13 (62.96)	-	-	321
Mymensingh	Cattle feces	135	-	-	39 (28.89)	16 (41.03)	-	-	323
M, N & CNB	Cattle feces	057	027 (R)	-	08 (S)	-	-	-	325
Gazipur, Tangail	Chickens	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	00 (00.00)	-	-	327
Bangladesh	Chickens	279	101(36.20)	21 (20.80)	-	-	-	-	330
Daishahi	Chickens	350	276 (K) 052 (04 55)	-	-	-	-	-	331
Kajsilalii	Wild ducks	033	0.52(94.55) 0.14(34.15)	03(03.77) 01(0714)	-	-	_	-	332
Sylhet division	Chicken meat	600	381 (63.50)	270 (70.89)	_	_	_	_	342
Sylhet division	B & S meat	400	136 (34.00)	71 (78.89)	_	_	-	_	343
Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	_	54 (54.00)	14 (25.93)	345
& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	08 (20.00)	345
Sub-total	2645/2466	5/316	1633 (61.74)) 1077 (65.95)	553 (22.42)	204 (3689)	146 (46.20)	63 (43.15)	
05. Kenamycin									
Dhaka (Savar)	Layer samples	-	-	-	67*	05 (07.00)	-	-	250
Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	52 (52.00)	29 (55.57)	36 (36.00)	16 (44.44)	42 (42.00)	16 (38.10)	268
Dhaka City	Eggs (S & C)	200	18 (09.00)	06 (33.33)	18 (09.00)	06 (33.33)	18 (09.00)	04 (22.22)	269
Mymensingh	Pigeon-CS, FP, F	112	-	-	10(08.93)	1(10.00)	-	-	275
Mymensingh	Layer-CS, IC, ES	060	-	-	32 (53.33)	19 (60.00)	-	-	275

Contd. Table 25. Ant	Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry									
S/ Antibacterials N & Districts	Host & types of	No. of	<i>Escherichia</i> Positive	<i>coli</i> Resistance	Salmonella spp). Resistance	Staphylococ Positive	<i>cus</i> spp. 1 Resistance	Ref.	
iv & Districts	samples used	tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	110.	
Mymensingh	Layer-D, CS	150	-	-	11 (07.33)	09 (81.81)	-	-	286	
Mymanainah	Dead layers	240	13(43.33) 180(75.00)	09(09.24)	08(20.07) 126(5667)	04(50.00)	-	-	287	
Dhaka	Cows- o types	240	160(75.00)	39(32.78) 126(76.00)	150 (50.07)	39 (28.08)	-	-	293	
Mymensingh	Quails	050	25 (S)	120 (70.00)	- 09 (R)	-	$\frac{-}{24}$ (S)	-	230	
Mymensingh	Pigeons	112	10(08.93)	00 (00 00)	-	_	-	-	334	
Sub-total	982/892	/300	446 (45.42)	229 (51.35)	251 (28,14)	99 (30.28)	84 (28.00)	20 (23.81)	551	
06. Tobramvcin	/02/0/2		(201 (2011)	<i>(00120)</i>	01 (20100)			
Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	10 (13.50)	-	-	264	
B, P & B	Meat samples	305	61 (20.00)	03 (04.92)	19 (06.23)	04 (21.05)	77 (25.25)	02 (02.60)	290	
Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	54 (54.00)	14 (25.93)	345	
& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	08 (20.00)	345	
Sub-total	305/418	/505	61 (20.00)	03 (04.92)	93 (22.25)	14 (15.05)	171 (33.86)	24 (14.04)		
07. Netilmicin										
Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	93 (20.53)	-	-	-	-	313	
08. Fosfomycin			0.50 (0.4.55)							
Rajshahi	Poultry samples	055	052 (94.55)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	332	
C. Linear and des (in	Wild ducks	041	014 (34.15)	01 (07.14)	-	-	-	-	332	
G. Lincosamides (in	nibit protein synthesi	s)								
Dhaka (Sayar)	Lover comples	067			67(100)	56 (84.00)			250	
H Nitrofuran	Layer- samples	007	-	-	07 (100)	50 (84.00)	-	-	230	
01 Nitrofurantoin										
Four districts	Chicken-liver Intes-	100	_	-	82 (82 00)	14(1707)	_	_	265	
Dhaka	Chicken meat	052	_	-	07 (13 46)	07(100)	-	-	271	
Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	-	42 (25.30)	-	-	-	298	
Dhaka	Chicken feces	040	011 (27.50)	04 (36.36)	-	-	-	-	299	
	Human urine	048	014 (29.17)	06 (42.86)	-	-	-	-	299	
Bangladesh	Human- UTI	- 1	1663	263 (15.81)	-	-	-	-	305	
Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	072 (15.89)	-	-	-	-	313	
Dhaka	Chicken swabs	003	-	-	07 (100)	04 (57.14)	-	-	329	
Bangladesh	Chickens	279	101 (36.20)	02 (02.00)	-	-	-	-	330	
Rajshahi	Poultry	055	052 (94.55)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	332	
	Wild ducks	041	014 (34.15)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	332	
N, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	72 (63.16)	-	-	-	-	341	
Sub-total	4887/4	05/-	925 (18.93)	419 (16.19)	138 (34.07)	25 (18.12)	-	-		
I. Macrolides (inhibi	it protein synthesis)									
Dhalta (Sayar)	Larran commiss				67*	17 (25.00)			250	
Eive divisions	Layer Samples	- 765	-	-	$0/^{\circ}$	17(23.00)	-	-	250	
Dhaka	Chicken- CC	703 870	-	-	214(27.97) 31(03.56)	00(31.00) 04(12.90)	-	-	252	
Gazipur M	Cattle chickens	169	-	-	37 (21.89)	24 (64 86)	-	-	267	
Barishal City	Chicken meat	20	14 (70.00)	09 (64 30)	13(6500)	10 (76 93)	-	-	263	
Five districts	Broiler-frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	34 (45.90)	-	-	264	
Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	52 (52.00)	12 (23.08)	36 (36.00)	10 (27.78)	42 (42.00)	11 (26.19)	268	
Dhaka City	Eggs (S & C)	200	18 (09.00)	04 (22.22)	18 (09.00)	03 (16.67)	18 (09.00)	02 (11.11)	269	
Dhaka	Pigeons	040	21 (52.50)	05 (23.81)	11 (27.50)	03 (27.27)	-	-	272	
Mymensingh	Pigeon-CS, PS	050	-	-	17 (34.00)	03 (17.65)	-	-	274	
DGT	Broiler-CS, M, FW	352	-	-	110 (31.25)	52 (47.27)	-	-	282	
M, G & S	Dressed broiler	060	50 (83.33)	06 (12.00)	14 (23.33)	03 (21.00)	-	-	284	
Gazipur, Tangail	Broiler-7 sources	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	17 (47.22)	-	-	289	
B, P & B	Meat samples	305	61 (20.00)	04 (06.58)	19 (06.23)	03 (15.79)	77 (25.25)	02 (02.59)	290	
J, N, T & K	Broiler meat	020	-	-	14 (70.00)	004 (28.57)	-	-	291	
Mymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (75.00)	180 (100)	136 (56.67)	136 (100)	-	-	293	
Chittagong	Diarrheic child'	350	-	-	15 (04.92)	06 (40.00)	-	-	296	
Dhaka City	Human -CS	100	100 (100)	49 (49.00)	-	-	-	-	309	
1, S & M	Calves- feces	100	49 (49.00)	46 (93.85)	-	-	-	-	310	

Bacterial zoonotic diseases in	Bangladesh
--------------------------------	------------

Contd. Table 25. An	tibacterial resistance st	tatus of m	ajor bacterial	pathogens is	olated from hum	ans, animals a	nd poultry		
S/ Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella sp	o.	Staphylococ	cus spp.	Ref.
N & Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	No.
		tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
M & Gazipur	M, B & C	169	64 (37.87)	19 (29.69)	-	-	-	-	315
Dhaka City	Human (BS)	4115	-	-	359 (08.72)	20 (05.57)	-	-	318
Mymensingh	DW, D, ES	060	-	-	27 (45.00)	17 (62.96) *	-	-	319
Panchagarh	Calf diarrhea	114	44 (38.60)	04 (09.10)	25 (21.93)	02 (08.00)	15 (13.16)	03 (20.00)	320
M, N & CNB	Cattle leces	100	27(1)	-	08 (K) 100 (100)	-	-	-	325
Gazipur Tangail	Chickens	153	-	-	36 (23 53)	100(100) 17(47.22)	-	-	320
Dhaka	Pigeons	040	21 (52 50)	-05 (23.81)	11(27.50)	03(2727)	-	-	328
Mymensingh	Children stool	083	27 (32.53)	23 (85.18)	-	-	-	-	339
7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95.31)	452 (65.00)	-	-	-	-	340
7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65.20)	109 (67.00)	-	-	-	-	340
N, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	36 (31.58)	-	-	-	-	341
Sub-total	2777/8553/7	719	1649 (59.38)) 963 (58.40)	1377 (16.10)) 703 (37.48)	152 (21.14)	18 (11.84)	
02. Erythromycin		200			00 (0 0 (7)	0.5 (0.2 0.0)			
Dhaka M. Carimur	Layer-CS, IF, ES	300	-	-	08 (02.67)	07 (82.00)	-	-	255
M, Gazipur	Laver agg surface	109	-	-	37(21.89)	30(97.30)	-	-	262
Dhaka City	Chicken man	010	-	-	10(100)	10(100)	-	-	200
Dhaka	Chicken meat	052	_	_	07(1346)	07(100)	_	_	207
Dhaka	Pigeons	040	21 (52.50)	013 (61.90)	11 (27.50)	05 (45.45)	-	-	272
Mymensingh (M)	Pigeon- CS, FP, F	112	-	-	10 (08.93)	08 (80.00)	-	-	273
Mymensingh	Layer-CS, IC, ES	060	-	-	32 (53.33)	32 (100)	-	-	275
Chittagong	Layer-ECS, ET, EC	310	-	-	111 (35.81)	111 (100)	-	-	279
MFD	Chicken meat	024	-	-	024 (100)	024 (100)	-	-	281
DGT	Broiler- CS, M,	352	-	-	110 (31.25)	90 (81.82)	-	-	282
Mymensingh	Broiler- CS	050	-	-	16 (32.00)	16 (100)	-	-	283
M, G & S	Dressed broiler	060	50 (83.33)	041 (81.00)	14 (23.33)	12 (85.71)	-	-	284
Mymensingh	Quail- CS	075	-	-	10 (13.33)	010 (100)	-	-	285
Gazipur, Tangail	Broiler-/ sources	153	-	-	36 (23.53)	36 (100)	-	-	289
B, P & B L T N & V	Dressed broiler	305	61(20.00) 17(85.00)	014(22.95) 012(70.78)	19(00.23) 14(70.00)	13(00.00)	//(100)	07 (09.09)	290
J, I, IN & K Mymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	17(83.00) 180(75.00)	160(88.89)	14(70.00) 136(5667)	119(87.50)	-	-	291
M & Tangail	Feces CS	055	055(100)	055(100)	027 (49 09)	027(100)	_	-	295
Chittagong	Children	350	-	-	15 (04.29)	013 (86.067	-	-	296
Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	133; 80.00)	-	-	-	-	298
Jashore	Broiler- CS	005	005 (100)	05 (100)	-	-	-	-	300
Sub-total	975/318	89/77	555 (56.92)	446 (80.36)	765 (23.26)	667 (87.19)	77 (100)	07 (09.09)	
J. Monobactams (β-	Lactam antibiotics)								
01. Aztreonam									
Dhaka (Savar)	Layer- samples	-	-	-	67*	17 (25.00)	-	-	250
Dhaka Eive diatriata	Chicken- CC	8/0	-	-	15(01.72)	01(06.67)	-	-	254
Mumonsingh	Human urino	115	-	-	74 (03.49)	03 (04.10)	-	-	204
Sub-total		4000	453 (11.55)	264 (58.28)	- 80 (00 05)	-	-	-	515
K. Beta-lactamase r	esistant penicillin	5077057-	455 (11.55)	204 (30.20)	0) (0).00)	21 (13.40)			
01. Cloxacillin									
Dhaka (Savar)	Layer - samples	-	-	-	67*	56 (84.00)	-	-	250
Dhaka	Chicken- meat	52	-	-	07 (13.46)	07 (100)	-	-	271
MFD	Chicken- meat	24	-	-	24 (100)	024 (100)	-	-	281
Mymensingh	Broiler- CS	50	-	-	16 (32.00)	16 (100)	-	-	283
Sub-total:		126	-	-	47 (37.30)	103 (90.35)	-	-	
L. Polymyxin antibi	ouc								
+1. Collstin (Polymy Four districts	Chicken-liver inter	100	_		82 (82 00)	76 (92 68)			265
Mymensingh	Chicken	075	43 (57.33)	21 (48.84)	33 (44 00)	18 (54 55)	-	_	276
Chittagong	Layer-ECS. ET. EC	310	-	-	111 (35.81)	111 (100)	-	-	279
Mymensingh	Quail- CS	075	-	-	10 (13.33)	09 (90.00)	-	-	285

Co	ntd. Table 25. Ant	ibacterial resistance st	atus of m	ajor bacterial	pathogens is	plated from hum	ans, animals ar	nd poultry		
S/ N	Antibacterials & Districts	Host & types of samples used	No. of samples tested	<i>Escherichia</i> Positive No. (%)	<i>coli</i> Resistance No. (%)	Salmonella spp Positive No. (%)). Resistance No. (%)	<i>Staphylococ</i> Positive No. (%)	<i>cus</i> spp. Resistance No. (%)	Ref. v No.
	Chittagong	Dead layers	030	13 (43.33)	07 (53.75)	08 (26.67)	04 (50.00)	-	-	287
	B, P & B	Meat samples	305	61 (20.00)	02 (03.28)	19 (06.23)	01 (05.26)	77 (25.25)) 00 (00.00)	290
	M & Jamalpur	Broiler- feces, meat	070	-	-	46 (65.71)	15 (33.33)	-	-	292
	Chattogram	Chicken, CW	060	37 (61.67)	16 (43.24)	-	-	-		297
	Jashore	Broiler. CS	005	05 (100)	05 (100)	-	-	-	-	300
	Mymensingh	Chicken	099	36 (36.36)	04 (11.10)	-	-	-	-	302
	Bangladesh	Human- UTI	-	1663	48 (02.90)	-	-	-	-	305
	M & Gazipur	Broiler-CS+	150	114 (76.00)	17 (14.90)	-	-	-	-	308
	Raishahi. Dhaka	Broilers	400	400 (100)	106 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	314
	Chittagong	Dead broilers	275	150 (54.55)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	316
	Chattogram	H. A. E & F	810	358 (44.20)	49 (15.90)	-	-	-	-	317
	Mymensingh	Cattle feces	135	-	-	39 (28.89)	35 (89.47)	-	-	323
	Dhaka	Chicken swabs	0031	-	-	07 (100)	00 (00 00)	-	-	329
	7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95 31)	80 (12 00)	-	-	_	_	340
	7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65 20)	16(10.00)	_	_	_	_	340
	Sylhet division	B & S meat	400	136(34.00)	00(0000)	_	_	_	_	343
	Sub-total	3584/1153	400	2207 (61 58)	371 (09 59)	371 (32 18)	277 (74 66)	77 (25 25)	00 (00 00)	545
02	Polymyyin R	5504/1150	1303	2207 (01.50)	(0).5)	571 (52.10)	277 (74.00)	11 (23.23)	, ()	
02.	Dhaka (Sayar)	Lavers samples	_	_	_	67*	04(060)	_	_	250
м	Carbanenem	Layers samples	-	-	-	07	04 (00.0)	-	-	230
01	Ertanonom									
01.	Mymensingh	Chicken CS	100			35 (35.00)	02(05.70)			256
	Four districts	Chicken Liver int	100	-	-	33 (33.00) 82 (82.00)	02(05.70)	-	-	250
	Mumonoingh	Converse frames	240	-	-	126(56.67)	68(50.00)	-	-	203
	Sub total	Cows- o types	240	180(75.00)	120 (00.07)	150(50.07)	(30.00)	-	-	293
02	Sub-total:	240	/440	100 (/5.00)	120 (00.07)	255 (57.50)	/5 (29.04)	-	-	
02.	Dhalva	Chielen CC	870			17(0105)	02(11.76)			254
	Dnaka	Ducitor from a set	8/0	-	-	17(01.95)	02(11.70)	-	-	254
	Five districts	Broller- Irozen meat	113	-	-	/4 (05.48)	10(13.50)	-	-	204
	Four districts	Chicken-liver, intes-	100	-	-	82 (82.00)	28 (34.15)	-	-	265
	Mymensingn	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (75.00)	49 (27.22)	130 (30.07)	51 (22.59)	-	-	293
	M & Tangail	Feces, CS	055	55 (100)	40 (72.72)	27 (49.09)	11 (40.74))	-	-	295
	Bangladesh	Human- UTI	-	1003	47 (02.80)	-	-	-	-	305
	M & Gazipur	Broiler-CS+	150	114 (76.00)	58 (50.90)	-	-	-	-	308
	Dhaka City	Human -CS	100	100 (100)	30 (30.00)	-	-	-	-	309
	Dhaka	Chicken swabs	003!	-	-	07(100) 0	0 (00.00)	-	-	329
	7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95.31)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	7 districts	Environmental	250	163 (65.20)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	340
	Sub-total:	1520/	1381	1303 (86.72)) 224 (17.19)	343 (24.83)	82 (23.91)	-	-	
03.	Imipenem									
Ľ	Dhaka (Savar)	Layers samples	-	-	-	67*	04 (06.0)	-	-	250
F	ive districts	Broiler- frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	36 (48.60)	-	-	264
F	our districts	Chicken- liver, Intes-	100	-	-	82 (82.00)	21 (25.61)	-	-	265
Ν	/lymensingh	Cows- 6 types	240	180 (57.00)	34 (18.89)	136 (56.67)	18 (13.23)	-	-	293
Ν	1 & Tangail	Feces, CS	055	55 (100)	00 (00.00)	27 (49.09)	08 (00.00)	-	-	295
E	Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	298
B	Bangladesh	Human- UTI	-	1663	32 (01.90)	-	-	-	-	305
Ν	4 & Gazipur	Broiler-CS+	150	114 (76.00)	75 (65.80)	-	-	-	-	308
E	Dhaka City	Human -CS	100	100 (100)	38 (38.00)	-	-	-	-	309
Ν	Aymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	33 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	313
K	YAMCH	Human (Blood)	282	02 (00.71)	00 (00.00)	04 (01.42)	00 (00.00)	42 (100)	00 (00.00)	324
D	Dhaka	Chicken swabs	003!	-	-	07 (100)	00 (83.33)	-	-	329
N	I, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	26 (22.81)	-	-	-	-	341
	Sub-total	5251/89	7/42 1	184 (22.55) 2	38 (20.10)	330 (36.79)	77 (23.33)	42 (100) 0	0 (00.00)	
N. (Quinolone antibio	otic								
01.	Nalidixic acid									
D	Dhaka	Chicken - CC	870	-	-	37 (04.25)	23 (62.16)	-	-	254

Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry											
S/ Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella spr).	Staphylococci	us spp.	Ref.		
N & Districts	samples used	samples	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	No.		
		tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)			
Dhaka	Chicken-CS, IF, ESS	300	-	-	08 (02.67)	02 (20.00)	-	-	255		
Five districts	Broiler frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	62 (83.80)	-	-	264		
Dhaka	Layer- egg surface	100	-	-	08 (08.00)	02 (25.00)	-	-	266		
Dhaka City	Chicken, man-feces	010	-	-	10 (100)	07 (70.00)	-	-	267		
Dhaka City	Chicken meat	100	52 (52.00)	16 (30.77)	36 (36.00)	14 (38.89)	42 (42.00)	15 (35.71)	268		
Dhaka City	Eggs (S & C)	200	18 (09.00)	04 (22.22)	18 (09.00)	05(27.78)	18 (09.00)	06 (33.33)	269		
Savar (Dhaka)	Pigeon- oral & CS	112	-	-	11(27.50) 10(08.02)	09 (81.82)	-	-	272		
Mymensingh	Pigeon- CS_PS	050	-	-	10(03.93) 17(34.00)	04(2353)	-	-	273		
Mymensingh	Laver-CS. IC. ES	060	-	-	32 (53.33)	32 (100)	-	-	275		
Chattogram	Pigeon- CS	100	-	-	29 (29.00)	21 (72.40)	-	-	278		
Rajshahi	Broiler & layer CS	120	-	-	49 (40.83)	49 (100)	-	-	280		
M, Feni, Dhaka	Chicken meat	024	-	-	24 (100)	15 (63.00) D	-	-	281		
Chattogram	Chicken, CW	060	37 (61.67)	34 (91.89)	-	-	-	-	297		
Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	166 (100)	-	-	-	-	298		
Sylhet	Chicken- CS, L	100	35 (35.00)	35 (100)	-	-	-	-	301		
Chittagong	Cattle - RC	100	70 (70.00)	60 (86.00)	-	-	-	-	304		
Bangladesh	Human- UTI	-	1663 1	309 (78.70)	-	-	-	-	305		
Mymensingh	Cattle-RS	137	95 (69.34)	49 (51.60)	-	-	-	-	307		
I, S & M	Calves-feces	100	49 (49.00)	03(06.12)	-	-	-	-	310		
Mymensingh	Broller & Layers	110	00(00.00)	360(100)	-	-	-	-	212		
Dhaka City	Human (BS)	4000	455 (11.55)	300 (79.47)	-	-	-	-	313		
Mymensingh	DW D FS	060	-	-	27 (45 00)	27 (100)*	-	-	319		
Dhaka City	Human blood	100	_	_	100(100)	100(100)	_	_	326		
Dhaka	Pigeons	040	21 (52.50)	05 (23.81)	11 (27.50)	09 (81.82)	-	-	328		
Dhaka	Chicken swabs	003!	-	-	07 (100)	05 (66.66)	-	-	329		
Bangladesh	Chickens	279	101 (36.20)	26 (25.70)	-	-	-	-	330		
Mymensingh	Chickens	350	276 (R)	-	-	-	-	-	331		
Rajshahi	Poultry	055	52 (94.55)	11 (21.15)	-	-	-	-	332		
	Wild ducks	041	14 (34.15)	01 (07.14)	-	-	-	-	332		
Mymensingh	Quails	050	25 (R)	-	09 (R)	-	24 (S)	-	333		
Mymensingh	Pigeons	112	10 (08.93)	00 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	334		
BD & Nepal	Ducks	120	85 (I)	-	-	-	-	-	336		
/ districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95.31)	624 (90.00)	-	-	-	-	340		
/ districts	Environmental	250	103(05.20)	100(05.00)	-	-	-	-	241		
Sub-total	6833/651	1/4 7/300	3870 (56 64)	87 (70.32) 2962 (76 54)	-	- 745 (85 93)	-	- 21 (35 00)	541		
0. Rifampicin (inte	erferes with the synth	esis of R	NA)	2702 (70.34)	007 (13.50)	/45 (05.75)	00 (20.00)	21 (33.00)			
Dhaka (Savar)	Layer samples	-	-	-	67*	59 (88.00)	-	-	250		
Dhaka	Layer- CS, IF, ES	300	-	-	08 (02.67)	05 (60.00)	-	-	255		
Dhaka	Chicken feces	250	166 (66.40)	149 (90.00)	-	-	-	-	298		
Mymensingh,	Animals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	345		
& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	-	-	40 (40.00)	03 (07.50)	345		
Sub-total	250/300)/100	166 (66.40)	149 (90.00)	08 (02.67)	64 (85.33)	40 (40.00)	03 (07.50)			
P. Glycylcycline a	ntibiotic (Tigecycline)				00 (01 10)			244		
Five districts	Broiler- frozen meat	113	-	-	74 (65.49)	03 (04.10)	-	-	264		
Four districts	Chicken- liver, intes-	070	-	-	82 (82.00)	51 (62.20)	-	-	265		
Rangladesh	Chickens	270	-	-	40 (03.71)	42 (90.48)	-	-	292		
Raishahi	Poultry	055	101() 052(94.55)	00(00.00)	-	-	-	-	337		
Rajshani	Wild ducks	041	0.00000000000000000000000000000000000	00 (00.00)	-	-		_	332		
Sub-total	96	5/283	066 (68.75)	00 (00.00)	202 (71.38)	96 (47.52)	-	-	552		
O. Glycopeptide a	ntibiotic (Vancomyci	n)			(,)	, ((,,,,,))					
Dhaka (Savar)	Layers samples	-	-	-	67*	52 (77.61)	-	-	250		
B, P & B	Meat samples	305	61 (20.00)	02 (00.00)	12 (03.93)	05 (41.67)	77 (25.25)	04 (05.19)	290		

Contd. Table 25. A	Contd. Table 25. Antibacterial resistance status of major bacterial pathogens isolated from humans, animals and poultry											
S/ Antibacterials	Host & types of	No. of	Escherichia	coli	Salmonella s	pp.	Staphyloco	ccus spp.	Ref.			
N & Districts	samples used	samples	s Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistance	Positive	Resistanc	e No.			
		tested	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)				
Mymensingh,	Animals	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	345			
& Sirajgonj	Huamns	100	-	-	40 (40.00)	07 (17.50)	-	-	345			
Sub-total	305/405	5/305	61 (20.00)	02 (00.00)	52 (12.84)	64 (53.78)	77 (25.25)	04 (05.19				
R. Sulfonamides a	and others											
Five divisions	Laver- CS VO D	765	_	_	214 (27.97)	102 (47 70)	_	_	252			
Five districts	Broiler- FC MS	113	_	_	74 (65 49)	66 (89 20)	-	-	264			
Mymensingh	Pigeon- CS, FP, F	112	-	-	10 (08.93)	0	-	-	273			
Mymensingh	Layer - CS, IC, ES	060	-	-	32 (53.33)	19 (60.00)	-	-	275			
Rajshahi	Broiler & layer - CS	120	-	-	49 (40.83)	20 (40.00)	-	-	280			
Chittagong	Cattle - RC	100	070 (70.00)	70 (100)	-	-	-	-	304			
7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691(95.31)	654 (95.00)	-	-	-	-	340			
N, N & M	130 samples	174	114 (65.52)	51 (44.74)	-	-	-	-	341			
Sub-total:	995	/11/0	8/5 (8/.59)	//5 (88.5/)	379 (32.39)	207 (54.01)						
Dhaka	Chicken meat	052	_	_	07 (13 46)	07(100)	-	-	271			
7 districts	Chickens feces	725	691 (95.31)	653 (95.00)	-	-	-	-	340			
	7 districts- EVM	250	163 (65.20)	125 (77.00)	-	-	-	-	340			
Sub-total	9	75/52	854 (87.59)	778 (91.10)	07 (13.46)	07 (100)	-	-				
52. Sulfa-trimeth	oprim / Co-trimoxazo	ole										
M, Gazipur	Chicken, Cow-CM	169	-	-	37 (0.22)	25 (67.57)	-	-	262			
Barishal City	Chicken meat	020	014 (70.00)	013 (92.86)	13 (65.00)	11 (84.62)	-	-	263			
Five districts	Broiler- Irozen meat	113	-	-	/4 (65.49)	66 (89.20)	-	-	264			
Pour districts	Chicken man faces	010	-	-	82 (82.00)	50 (60.98) 07 (70.00)	-	-	205			
Dhaka	Chicken egg	010	_	-	50 (100)	0 (70.00)	-	-	270			
Dhaka	Chicken meat	052	-	-	07 (13.46)	07 (100)	-	_	270			
Chattogram	Pigeon- CS	100	-	-	29 (29.00)	25 (86.2)	-	-	278			
Rajshahi	Broiler & layer- CS	120	-	-	49 (40.83)	27 (55.00)	-	-	280			
Pirojpur	Dead layer-L, S & IS	048	-	-	11 (22.92)	11 (84.62)	-	-	288			
B, P & B	Meat samples	305	061 (20.00)	006 (09.84)	19 (06.23)	05 (26.32)	77 (25.25)	04 (05.19) 290			
Chittagong	Children	350	-	-	15 (04.92)	06 (40.00)	-	-	296			
Chattogram	Chicken, CW	060	03/(61.6/)	035 (94.59)	-	-	-	-	297			
Dhaka	Chicken feces	040	100(00.40) 011(27.50)	100(100) 010(92.30)	-	-	-	-	298			
Dilaka	Human urine	048	011(27.50) 014(29.17)	013 (90 00)	_	_	-	-	299			
Bangladesh	Human- UTI	-	1663	783; 47.10)	-	-	-	-	305			
Cox's Bazar	Goat- RS	150	078 (52.00)	41 (52.56)	-	-	-	-	306			
Dhaka City	Human -CS	100	100 (100)	62 (62.00)	-	-	-	-	309			
Mymensingh	Human-urine	4000	453 (11.33)	354 (78.15)	-	-	-	-	313			
Rajshahi, Dhaka	Broilers	400	400 (100)	400 (100)	-	-	-	-	314			
M & Gazipur	M, B & C meat	169	064(3/.8/)	38 (59.38)	-	-	-	-	315			
Sylbet	Goat feces	275	150 (54.55)	150 (100)	-	-	-	-	310			
Dhaka City	Human blood	100	_	_	100(100)	04(0400)	_	_	326			
Bangladesh	Chickens	279	101 (36.20)	27 (26.70)	-	-	-	-	330			
Rajshahi	Poultry	055	52 (94.55)	17 (00.00)	-	-	-	-	332			
-	Wild ducks	041	14 (34.15)	02 (14.29)	-	-	-	-	332			
Mymensingh	Quails	050	25 (S)	-	09 (I)	-	24 (S)	-	333			
Mymensingh	Pigeons	112	10 (08.93)	09 (90.00)	-	-	-	-	334			
Five districts	Chicken meat	113	86 (76.11) 85 (D	/6 (88.40)	-	-	-	-	335			
Sylbet division	Chicken meat	600	381 (63 50)	- 207 (54 33)			-		342			
Sylhet division	B & S meat	400	136 (34.00)	00(00 00)	_	_	_	_	343			
Sub-total	7417/175	7/305	3991 (53.80)	2409 (60.36)	516 (06.96)	260 (50.39)	77 (25.25)	04 (05.19)	0.0			
Metronidazole			(((
Chittagong	Children	350	-	-	15 (04.92)	14 (00.00)	-	-	296			

MFD = Mymensingh (M)	, Feni (F) & Dhaka (D)	MG = Mymensingh	a & Gazipur	MGS = Mymensingh, Gazipur & Sherpur					
J, N, T & K = Jamalpur, N	Vetrokona, Tangail & Kishoreg	ganj DGT = Dhaka, Gaz	ipur & Tangail	BP = Barishal, Piro	jpur				
Southern districts = Baris	hal, Pirojpur and Bhola (BPB)	T, S & M = Tangai	l, Sirajgonj & Mymensi	ingh					
B, P & B = Barishal, Piro	jpur & Bhola	MG & S = Mymens	singh, Gazipur & Sherp	ur					
JTNK = Jamalpur, Tangai	il, Netrokona & Kishoreganj								
KYAMCH = Khwaja Yur	nus Ali Medical College and H	lospital, Sirajgonj	M, N & CNB = Myr	nensingh, Natore & C	hapai Nawabgonj				
Five districts = Dhaka, Ch	nattogram, Sylhet, Mymensing	h & Rajshahi	N, N & M = Narsingdi, Narayangonj & Manikgonj						
Four districts = Gzipur, N	arsingdi, Tangail and Brahma	nbaria,	Sylhet division = Sylh	et, Moulavibazar, Sun	nangonj & Habiganj				
Five divisions = Dhaka (C	Bazipur, Tangail), Mymensing	h (Jamalpur, Netrokona)							
Rangpur (Dinajpur, Bogu	ra), Sylhet (Habiganj, Moulvit	bazar) and Chattogram (I	Feni)						
ESS = Egg shell surface	ET = Egg tray	EC = Egg content	CS = Cloacal swabs	FP = Foot pad	F = Faeces				
IF = Intestinal fluid	PS = Pharyngeal swabs	CM = Chicken meat	M = Milk *Selec	ted strains (isolates)	B = Beef				
CD = Cow dung	FM = Frozen milk	DW = Dressing water	ES = Environmental	swabs	D = Droppings				
L = Litter	WC = Whole carcass	DS = Dead & Sick	DBC = Dressing bro	oiler carcass	FW = Feed & water				
IC = Intestinal content	FC = Frozen chicken	MS = Meat sample	EVM = Environmer	ntal	CC = Cecal content				
R = Resistant	I = Intermediate	S = Sensitive	UTI = Urinary tract	infection	RS = Rectal swabs				
H, A, E & F = Human, an	imal, environment & feed B	S = Blood samples	DW, D, ES = Dress	ing water, device & er	vironmental samples				
M, B & C = Milk, Beef &	Chicken meat B & S meat =	Beef & Sheep meat							
sources = Chick meconium, cloacal swab, carcass, feed, water, transport swab, floor swab CCBG = Chicken, cattle, buffalo & goat									
1Ciprofloxacin- ECS (n =	55; 49.1%), ET (n = 40; 27.5)) & EC (n = 16; 31.3%)							
*Included Salmonella pul	lorum (n = 6), S. gallinarum (n	n = 5) and S. typhimurium	n (n = 16) 3! = 7 iso	plates from three samp	oles				

Salmonella enteritidis is the most prevalent serovar circulating in poultry in Bangladesh. The Salmonella isolates (*S. enteritidis*, *S. typhimurium* & *S. heidelberg*) of poultry showed MDR properties at alarming levels and the potential to impose zoonoses (Table 26). The *S. enteritidis* was highly prevalent (88.0%) of the poultry isolates. Among the 67 Salmonella isolates, 12 were plasmid-free and resistant to as high as seven groups of antibiotics (Table 26). Their chance of forming a stable resistant bacterial community is high enough as many are plasmid-free.²⁵⁰

Table 26. Occurrence	Table 26. Occurrence of Salmonella in food samples ³⁴⁶										
S/ Food items N	No. of samples	Salmonella +ve No. (%)	S/Food itemsNo. ofSalmonella +veNsamplesNo. (%)								
A. Dry foods1. Vegetable role	12	3 (25)	B. Wet foods 1. Salad 12 7 (58.33)								
 Kabab Beef stick 	12 12	0 0	2. Water 12 6 (50.00) 3. Raw milk 12 4 (33.33)								
 Burger Egg chop 	12 12	1 (8.33) 3 (25)	4. Chicken raw meat 12 5 (41.67) 5. Shop raw beef 12 4 (33.33) Total 120 33 (25.5)								

Salmonellosis is one of the significant issues for public health, especially in low-income developing countries, including Bangladesh, due to a lack of safe drinking water, inadequate hygiene facilities, and incorrect antimicrobial drug use. Salmonella infection affects nearly 30 million people globally every year, whereas the scenario in Bangladesh is estimated to be between 292 and 395 cases per 100,000 persons yearly.²⁴⁷ Food-borne zoonoses like salmonellosis pose a dangerous threat to the food industry and food safety worldwide. Human infection with Salmonella, MDR, could be costly due to the cost of effective alternative medicines and long-time patient care in hospitals unless covered by health insurance.²⁴⁷ The emergence of antibiotic-resistant Salmonella variants suggests a potential food safety crisis.

Salmonella isolates resistant to three or more antimicrobials are defined as multi-drug resistant (MDR) isolates. The anti-microbial resistance tests revealed that all the Salmonella isolates exhibited 100% resistance to vancomycin and cephalexin, followed by ampicillin (75%), nalidixic acid (58.33%), chloramphenicol (41.66%), doxycycline (50%), and neomycin (50%).²⁴⁸ The high prevalence of Salmonella infection and MRD strains highlights Bangladesh's chicken flock management system (Table 27). The wide

J. Vet. Med. OH Res 6 (1-2) 2024

Table 27. Multidru	Table 27. Multidrug resistance bacteria isolated from poultry birds in Bangladesh										
S/ District/ N Location	Types of birds	No. of samples tested	Positive No/ (%)	No. of isoaltes tested	Antibiogram studies on bacteria	No. of antibiotics tested	MDR isolates No. (%)	Ref. No.			
01. Chattogram	Chicken	025	012 (48.00)	012	Salmonella spp.	10	011 (91.67)	248			
02. 11 districts	Layer	765	197 (25.75)	197	S. gallinarum	13	131 (66.50)	252			
03. Dhaka	Broiler	290	025 (08.62)	025	Salmonella spp.	25	021 (84.00)	254			
	Sonali	290	020 (06.89)	020	Salmonella spp.	20	015 (75.00)	254			
	Native	290	009 (03.10)	009	Salmonella spp.	09	004 (44.40)	254			
04. M & Gazipur	PMB &M	169	037 (21.89)	037	Salmonella spp.	11	033 (89.19)	262			
05. 5 districts	FCM	113	074 (65.50)	074	Salmonella spp.	15	074 (100)	264			
06. 4 districts	Chickens-LI	100	082 (82.00)	005*	Salmonella spp.	19	005 (100)	265			
07. Dhaka, Savar	Pigeons	040	011 (27.50)	011	Salmonella spp.	08	006 (54.54)	272			
08. Chattogram	Pigeons	100	029 (100)	029	Salmonella	10	028 (96.60)	278			
09. Chittagong	Eggs	310	111 (35.81)	111	Salmonella spp.	08	111 (100)	279			
10. 3 districts	Broiler	352	110 (31.25)	110	Salmonella spp.	10	089 (80.91)	282			
11. M & Tangail	Turkeys	055	027 (49.09)	027	Salmonella spp.	09	024 (88.89)	295			
Overall	-	2899	744 (25.66)	667	Salmonella spp.	-	550 (82.86)	-			

11 districts = Mymensingh, Tangail, Gazipur, Bogura, Jamalpur, Netrokona, Dinajpur, Moulvibazar, Habigonj, Feni and Chattogram. 3 districts = Gazipur, Tangail & Dhaka 5 districts = Chattogram, Dhaka, Mymensingh, Rajshahi & Sylhet M = Mymensingh 4 districts = Gazipur, Narsinfgi, Tangail & Brahmanbaria

MDR = Multidrug resistance PM, B & M = Poultry meat, beef & milk FCM = Frozen chicken meat LI = Liver & intestine *Only mcr-1 +ve Salmonella isolates tested

prevalence of multidrug-resistant NTS in the poultry industry may be the source of the high risk of zoonotic infection among poultry workers and consumers. Therefore, judicial uses of antibiotics in the poultry industry and the introduction of routine antibiogram studies could help to prevent emerging multidrug resistance and to select effective, appropriate therapeutic measures. Many high-income countries have implemented surveillance programs for Salmonella in livestock due to its global importance, allowing the acquisition of important information about antimicrobial resistance.

Escherichia coli infection

E. coli is a Gram-negative bacterium belonging to the *Enterobacteriaceae* family and is particularly important in the human-animal-environment triad. *E. coli* can be classified into two main groups: O Commensal *E. coli* and O Pathogenic *E. coli*. This bacterium typically colonizes the gastrointestinal tract of humans and animals within a few hours after birth. Accordingly, *E. coli* is a normal inhabitant of the gastrointestinal tract of all warm-blooded animals. Still, a variant of this species is among the important etiological agents of enteritis and several extraintestinal diseases. The *E. coli* strains cause



diarrheal agents of enteritis and several extraintestinal diseases. The five main categories include enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC), enteropathogenic *E. coli* (EPEC), enteroaggregative *E. coli* (EAggEC), enteroinvasive *E. coli* (EIEC), and Shiga (Vero) toxin-producing *E. coli* (STEC/VTEC). From a zoonotic point of view, STEC is the only *E. coli* pathogenicity group of major interest, as the Shiga toxin-producing strain can cause severe disease in humans, including bloody diarrhea and hemolytic uremic syndrome. This serious condition can lead to kidney failure and be fatal. People get infected with VTEC by consuming or handling contaminated food or water or through contact with infected animal reservoirs.³⁴⁷ Person-to-person transmission is also possible among close contacts (in families, childcare centers, nursing homes, and others). This organism is mainly associated with raw or undercooked bovine-derived foods, particularly ground meat, and unpasteurized milk outbreaks. *E. coli* 0157:H7 is commonly found in food transmitted in the environment, giving rise to a cycle of infection that may enable the maintenance of the organism in cattle herds (Fig. 9).



Fig. 9. Transmission of zoonotic Escherichia coli from cattle to humans

It is one of the common gastrointestinal flora of mammals and birds. Rapid urbanization has led to a growing sanitation crisis in urban areas of Bangladesh and potential exposure to fecal contamination in the urban environment due to inadequate sanitation and poor fecal sludge management. Dhaka is one of the most densely populated cities in the world, and fecal contamination in the environment is common due to poor sanitation and sewerage systems, rapid unplanned urbanization, frequent flooding, and inefficient solid waste management. A study on the bacteriological analysis of different environmental samples showed almost all drain water (98%) and street foods (93%) samples, nearly 80% of fresh produce, surface water, soil, and

flood water samples and more than 50% of municipal drinking water, non-municipal drinking water and bathing water samples were contaminated with *E. coli*.³⁴⁸ Extensive *E. coli* contamination has been reported in most of the environmental samples collected throughout the 10 regions suggesting that all residential areas of Dhaka may be prone to fecal contamination regardless of geographic location or socio-economic status.

Microbiological studies on street vendors prepared foods showed over 90% of such food samples were contaminated in Bangladesh,^{346,349-351} of which 94% of street food vendors in Dhaka city reported that they used the municipal water supply to prepare food and did not take any measures to treat the water. The report also found that nearly 58% of the vendors did not cover their food while selling, and most vendors did not wash their hands with soap while preparing the food. Approximately 68% of vendors are located on footpaths, 30% of vending carts are placed near drains, and 18% are placed near sewerage; these street food vending sites could serve as breeding points for rodents, insects, and flies and could promote the proliferation of microorganisms and increase the risk of food contamination and disease transmission.³⁴⁸ However, practical food safety training, motivation, and continuous monitoring can ensure street food hygiene practices and reduce the risks of food hazards.

Poultry shares some infectious diseases with humans, and most of the zoonotic diseases in poultry have additional reservoirs in other mammals than humans, complicating their control. There are three groups of zoonoses that humans can acquire from poultry. The first group includes food-borne diseases, mainly caused by Salmonella servoras and *Campylobacter* spp. In addition, *E. coli* from poultry can cause human disease, so *E. coli* would have to be considered a potential food-borne pathogen.

The first group comprises diseases transmitted by direct contact between birds and humans, including avian influenza, Newcastle disease, and Chlamydiosis. The third group includes diseases transmitted by insects, especially ticks, from mammals and birds, including poultry, to humans, including West Nile virus and Eastern and Western equine encephalitis.

Escherichia coli is one of the most common bacterial pathogens commonly exists in the gut microbiota, and some *E. coli* strains are responsible for a wide variety of common bacterial diseases like colibacillosis in poultry birds, mastitis in dairy animals, urinary tract infection, neonatal meningitis, septicemia in humans. ESBL-producing *E. coli* in humans, animals, and environments is a public health concern.³⁴⁴

Different classes of antibacterial drugs have been widely used in both human and veterinary medicine, primarily to treat other bacterial diseases. Still, indiscriminate use of these antibacterial drugs has developed antibacterial resistance (ABR) against various bacteria, including Salmonella spp. and E. coli, in humans, livestock, poultry, birds, and even wildlife.³⁵² To find out about ABR status and its solution to the problem, a large number of research studies have been conducted and continuing and published both research and review articles at global and national levels (Table 28).^{344-350,352} Figs. 10-17 shows the summary data on ABR in bar diagrams. Different classes of antibacterial drugs are used to treat various bacterial diseases, including salmonella spp. and *E. coli* infections in humans, livestock, poultry, and even wildlife.

'One Health' approach to zoonotic E. coli infection

The antimicrobial resistance (AMR) phenomenon has been developed at the human-animal-wildlifeenvironmental interface, and subsequently, the resistance gene or the bacteria enter the human food chain. Hence, 'One Health' is essential for getting insights and improving the AMR problem.

The bacterial pathogens, especially *E. coli*, *Salmonella* spp., and Campylobacter species, carry antibiotic-resistant genes and can spread between livestock, humans, and the environment.³⁵⁷ The extensive and indiscriminate use of antibiotics in livestock, including poultry farming, generates antibiotic-resistant bacteria and genes that can potentially transmit to humans through the food chain, posing a threat to the treatment of human infections.³⁵⁷

S/ Autiliancierialis isolates Solumonello espisitante status isolates Solumonello espisitante status isolates Status isolatititititititi isolatititititititititititititititit	Table 28. Summar in Bangladesh	y of anti	bacterial resis	tance status of r	najor zoo	onotic bacter	rial pathogens is	solated fi	rom livestoc	k and humans
Bornalis Radin (x) Rotatics Rading (x) Rotatics Rotatics <td>S/ Antibacterials N with groups</td> <td>Salmone No. of</td> <td>ella spp. Resistance stat</td> <td>tus X</td> <td>Escheric No. of</td> <td><i>chia coli</i> Resistance st</td> <td>tatus Y</td> <td>Staphyle No. of</td> <td>Decoccus spp. Resistance st</td> <td>tatus Z</td>	S/ Antibacterials N with groups	Salmone No. of	ella spp. Resistance stat	tus X	Escheric No. of	<i>chia coli</i> Resistance st	tatus Y	Staphyle No. of	Decoccus spp. Resistance st	tatus Z
A. Pericillin 118 57.89-100 110 (93.22)1 0487 14.75-100 0378 (77.62)1 208 15.58-100 114 (54.81)1 2. Oxacillin 134 00.00-100 102 (82.26)2 0443 140.75-100 0378 (77.62)1 208 15.58-100 114 (54.81)1 2. Ampicillin 1390 00.00-100 122 (82.26)2 0443 140.75 00.00-100 251 (82.37)3 209 00.00-100 218 (47.49)4 5. AMX-clavulante 191 2.57.0-11.00 0284 (82.85)7 282 57.1.4 024 (57.14/7)4 2. Ceftraidine 219 0.40-7.500 111 (50.86)8 14.10 10.00-45.02 0224 (15.81)8 10.88 (88.65)7 282 57.1.4 024 (57.14/7) 2. Ceftraidine 199 0.140-7.500 115.8016 11.4 0.136 (12.3010) -		Isolates	Kange, 70	Mean (76)	isolates	Kange, 70	Mean (%)	isolates	Kange, 70	Mean (76)
I. Pencilin 118 57.89-100 110 (93.22) (9487 14.75-100 0487 (77.62) 208 20.400 110 (93.22) (9487 14.75-100 0483 (100.2132 07.40-62.10 035 (65.51)2 3. Ampoxicilin (AXX)1093 05.88-100 72.46-2.41 310 0285 (42.31)4 459 00.00-100 218 (47.84)4 5. AMX-clavulanate 191 25.70-14.40 067 (35.08) 194 20.20-100 0290 (46.39)5 042 28.60 018 (42.86)5 6. PC-Tazohatcam -	A. Penicillin									
2. Oxacellin 124 0.000-100 102 (82.26) 0043 100 0043 (100) 2510 (83.77) 29 00.000-100 217 (23.89) 3. Ampicillin (AMX)1093 05.88-100 724 (66.24) 375 00.00-100 2510 (83.77) 29 00.00-100 211 (23.89) 5. AMX-clavulante 19 52.70-41.46 67 (53.08) 00.00-100 090 (64.39) 602 105 642 42.86 018 (42.86) B. Cephalogorins - - 016 08.64-20.30 0023 (14.74) -	1. Penicillin	118	57.89-100	110 (93.22)1	0487	14.75-100	0378 (77.62)1	208	15.58-100	114 (54.81)1
3. Amportilin 15.00 0.000-100 1000 (71,94)3 2989 0.000-100 2151 (74.39)4 4. Amoxcinilin (AMX)1093 0.000-100 215 (74.39)4 459 0.000-100 218 (47.39)4 6. PC-Tazobactam - - - 0.000-100 2854 (82.30) 0023 (14.74)4 - - - 8. Cephalosportns - - 0.00-100 054 (22.22) 1914 57.50-100 1088 (58.56)7 282 57.14 0.24 (57.14)7 2. Ceftriaxime 199 0.41.0+300 014 (13.80)8 1421 0.100-46.30 0223 (15.83)8 - <td>2. Oxacillin</td> <td>124</td> <td>00.00-100</td> <td>102 (82.26)2</td> <td>0043</td> <td>100</td> <td>0043 (100)2</td> <td>132</td> <td>07.40-42.10</td> <td>035 (26.51)2</td>	2. Oxacillin	124	00.00-100	102 (82.26)2	0043	100	0043 (100)2	132	07.40-42.10	035 (26.51)2
A. Maxierilin (AMX, 1093) 05.88-100 7.24 (66.24) 34/5 0.000-100 218.4 (2.13)4 45.9 0.000-100 218.4 (2.14)4 45.9 0.000-100 218.4 (2.14)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4 45.9 42.8 (2.15)4	3. Ampicillin	1390	00.00-100	1000 (71.94)3	2989	00.00-100	2510 (83.97)3	299	00.00-100	217 (72.58)3
5. AMX-clavulanate 191 25.70-41.46 067 (55.98) 0194 20.20-100 0000 (46.39) 02 22.82 018 (42.86) B. Cephalosporins -	4. Amoxicillin (AM2	K)1093	05.88-100	724 (66.24)4	3475	00.00-100	2854 (82.13)4	459	00.00-100	218 (47.49)4
6. RC - Izzobactam - - 0156 008-64-20.30 00025 (14.74)6 - - - 1. Cefrixine 243 00.00-100 054 (22.2)7 1914 57.50-100 1088 (58.56)7 282 57.14 024 (57.14)7 2. Cefrizine 199 01.40-75.00 111 (50.86)8 282 57.10 000.08.889 1732 (66.92)9 60.00-88.89 048 (24.49)9 4. Ceforaxime 127 02.70-50.00 058 (17.74)11 0169 00.078.10 0153 (12.30)10 042 07.14 003 (07.148 6. Cerbactor 074 65.49 006 (03.26.1)14 1018 44.100 144 (451)13 144 38.19 037 (38.19)10 9. Cerbraizem 070 99.50-90.00 606 (32.61)14 1698 81.100 235 (66.2)11 120 00.00-66.67 087 (43.50)12 D. Tetracycline 132 00.09-43.0 251 (18.77)16 2610 00.00-77.01 1042 (39.92)15 00 00.00-66.67 087 (43.50)12 D. Tetracycline 132 00.09-140 256 (26.39)20 935 00.00-110 257 (57.69)12 80 00.00-77.50 <	5. AMX-clavulanate	191	25.70-41.46	067 (35.08)5	0194	20.20-100	0090 (46.39)5	042	42.86	018 (42.86)5
B. Ceptatoporus Cartisine 243 00.00-100 054 (22.2)7 1914 57.50-100 1088 (58.56)7 282 57.14 024 (57.14)7 2. Ceftrazidime 219 01.42-82.00 054 (22.2)7 1914 57.50-100 1088 (58.56)7 282 57.14 024 (57.14)7 2. Ceftrazidime 199 01.42-82.00 023 (11.58)10 100 101.05.838 1732 (66.29) 160 00.00-88.80 048 (24.49)9 3. Ceftriazidime 207 05.00.00 058 (17.31)1 1018 0.355.100 009 (59.29)16 02 07.14 003 (07.14)8 5. Ceftracisine 210 05.09.00 060 (08.10)13 114 12.3 00.00-28.00 013 (23.94)11 C. Choramphenicol 1323 00.09-94.30 251 (18.97)16 2600 00.00-100 035 (56.87)14 30.89-100 072 (41.62)13 D. Detraceycline 137 26.67-100 937 (90.36)17 427 03.28-100 2793 (81.59)16 12.50-82.00 082 (63.29)14 J. Chyctracycline 337 16.21 (09.33)17 42	6. PC-Tazobactam	-	-	-	0156	08.64-20.30	0023 (14.74)6	-	-	-
1. Centration 243 00.00-100 0.04 (5.2.22) 1914 37.04-100 1085 (35.36) 2.52 57.14 0.24 (5.197) 3. Certraxone 439 01.42-82.00 190 (43.28)9 2587 00.00-46.36 022 (15.83)8 -	B. Cephalosporins	242	00.00.100	054 (22 22)7	1014	57.50 100	1000 (50 5()7	202	57 14	024 (57 14)7
2. Celliazonine 219 01.407-300 111 (30.808) 124 121 01.007-88.30 022 (13.8.3) - - - 3. Celtriazonine 139 04.101-94.00 023 (11.58)10 1098 01.007-88.10 0133 (12.30)11 042 07.14 003 (07.148 5. Celtroxime 137 0.00 058 (17.74)11 1018 03.85-100 009 (58.93)11 042 -	1. Cenxime	243	00.00-100	054 (22.22)/	1914	57.50-100	1088 (58.50)/	282	57.14	024 (57.14)7
3. Cerinaxone 19 01 190 00.00-8.8.0 048 (24-97)9 4. Cerioaxime 137 02.70-50.00 052 (11.5)1 108 01.00-78.10 013 010 023 (11.5)1 010 000 000 010	2. Certazidime	420	01.40-75.00	111 (50.80)8	1421	01.00-40.30	0225 (15.85)8	-	-	-
A: Celuxinic 397 04.10.19.40 00.38 (11.26)10 10.00 1	5. Celuliaxone	439	01.42-82.00	190(43.28)9	2387	00.00-88.89	1/52(00.92)9	190	00.00-88.89	048 (24.49)9
3. Centrolline 3.27 02.109-000 05.39 (17.4711 0000 03.39 (10.3911 0.22 1.000-30.39 05.9 (17.4711 7. Cefoxitin 074 65.49 006 (08.10)13 0114 41.23 0047 (41.3311 = - -	4. Celotaxime	227	04.10-19.40	023(11.38)10 058(17.74)11	1098	01.00-78.10	0155(12.50)10 0000(58.02)11	042	07.14	003(07.14)8 010(22.17)0
0. Cetakion 0/4 0/4 0/4 0/4 0/4 0/4 1.1 1<	5. Cefulor	074	65.40	0.38(17.74)11 0.10(12.50)12	0108	03.85-100	0099 (38.93)11	082	15.00-50.95	019 (23.17)9
A. Cephalexin 014 0.94 0.04 0.94 0.91 0.04 0.04 0.04 0.04 0.04 0.04 0.04 0.04 0.00 <td>7 Cofovitin</td> <td>074</td> <td>65.49</td> <td>010(13.30)12 006(08.10)12</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td>	7 Cofovitin	074	65.49	010(13.30)12 006(08.10)12	-	-	-	-	-	-
a. Ceptankarin 210 00.05000 00001200114 1038 0411010 1421 (04)121 211 00.002500 051 (25.12)13 00.002500 051 (25.12)14 1038 00.002-100 155 (55.29)14 213 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 100.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 051 (25.39)11 00.002-500 058 (55.29)14 133 11.11 00.002-500 058 (15.12)1 0479 00.002-500 071 (16.42)13 147 05.002-100 02.60 (02.20)15 E. Fluoroquinolones 11.11-1100 225 (57.42)22 049 00.002-500 071 (16.42)214 134 02.60 002 (26.01)7 13 (29.74)16 2. Northoxacin 193 0.000-100 226 (27.51/222 049 00.002-50.00 071 (16.37)12 - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	7. Celoxiuli 8. Cenhalavin	210	00.49	000(08.10)13 060(32.61)14	1608	41.23 84 10 100	1/34 (8/45)12	-	- 38.10	-
3: C. Chioramphenicol 132 00.00-43.0 221 (12.7)(12) 00.00-40.0	0 Cefradine	007	09.30-90.00	000(32.01)14 024(24.74)15	0600	00.00.100	(34.45)(15)	213	00.00.25.00	057(38.19)10 051(23.04)11
1. Tetracyclines 1037 26.67-100 937 (90.36)17 3427 03.28-100 273 (81.50)16 173 03.89-100 072 (41.62)13 2. Oxyteracycline 329 06.67-81.81 193 (58.66)19 0305 43.45-78.95 214 (70.16)18 136 12.50-82.00 082 (60.29)15 E. Fluoroquinolones 1. Ciprofloxacin 193 00.00-100 526 (26.39)20 3935 00.00-100 021 (14.82)20 077 02.60 002 (02.60)17 1. Ciprofloxacin 552 00.00-200 058 (10.51)21 0479 00.00-500 001 (14.82)20 077 02.60 002 (02.60)17 3. Enrofloxacin 141 36.80-65.49 082 (58.16)23 0095 36.80 035 (36.84)22 - <td>C Chloramphonico</td> <td>11323</td> <td>09.27-100</td> <td>251(18.97)16</td> <td>2610</td> <td>00.00-100</td> <td>1042(30.02)15</td> <td>213</td> <td>00.00-25.00</td> <td>0.51(25.94)11 0.87(43.50)12</td>	C Chloramphonico	11323	09.27-100	251(18.97)16	2610	00.00-100	1042(30.02)15	213	00.00-25.00	0.51(25.94)11 0.87(43.50)12
I. Tettacycline 1037 26.67-100 937 (90.36)17 3427 03.28-100 2793 (81.50)16 173 03.89-100 072 (41.62)13 2. Oxytetracycline 537 21.62-100 421 (79.58)18 0598 13.11-100 0295 (60.3)17 26.67.91.281 193 (88.66)19 0305 43.45-78.95 214 (70.16)18 136 12.50-82.00 082 (60.29)15 F. Fluoroquinolomes 1 1.0100 252 (52.63.9)20 3935 0.000-100 2707 (57.69)19 380 0.00-77.50 113 (29.74)16 2. Norfloxacin 391 11.11-100 225 (57.54)22 0049 55.50-100 031 (53.27)21 - - - 3. Lorofloxacin 448 00.00-7.7.90 116 (22.52)24 1328 00.00-81.82 738 (55.7)23 042 09.52 004 (09.52)18 6. Pefloxacin 193 70.30-100 170 (88.08)25 0194 37.90-100 125 (54.43)24 - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	D Tetracyclines	1525	00.00-74.50	251 (10.77)10	2010	00.00-77.20	1042 (37.72)13	200	00.00-00.07	007 (45.50)12
2. Oxyterracycline 537 21.62-100 421 (79.58)18 0598 13.11-100 0395 (66.03)17 26.5 05.90.80.20 120 (45.28)14 3. Doxycycline 329 06.67-81.81 193 (58.66)19 0305 43.45.78.95 214 (70.16)18 136 12.50-82.00 082 (60.29)15 F. Fluoroguinolones 552 00.00-20.00 058 (10.51)21 0479 00.00-50.00 001 (14.82)20 077 02.60 002 (02.60)17 3. Enrofloxacin 141 36.80-65.49 082 (58.16)23 0095 53.60 033 (63.84)22 -	1 Tetracycline	1037	26 67-100	937 (90 36)17	3427	03 28-100	2793 (81 50)16	173	03 89-100	072 (41 62)13
3. Doxycycline 3.29 0.67.81.81 193 (38.66)19 000 43.45.78.95 214 (70.16)18 136 12.50.82.00 082 (60.20)15 E. Fluoroquinolones 1. Ciprofloxacin 552 0.00.0-100 526 (26.39)20 3935 0.00.0-100 2270 (57.69)19 380 0.00.0-77.50 113 (29.74)16 2. Norfloxacin 391 11.11-100 225 (57.54)22 0499 55.50-100 031 (63.27)21 -	2 Oxytetracycline	537	21.62-100	421 (79 58)18	0598	13 11-100	0395 (66 03)17	265	05 90-80 20	120 (45 28)14
E. Fluoroquinolones Non-Ref No	3. Doxycycline	329	06.67-81.81	193 (58.66)19	0305	43.45-78.95	214 (70.16)18	136	12.50-82.00	082 (60.29)15
1. Ciprofloxacin 1993 00.00-100 526 (26.39)20 3935 00.00-100 2270 (57.69)19 380 00.00-77.50 113 (29.74)16 2. Norfloxacin 552 00.00-20.00 058 (10.51)21 0479 00.00-50.00 001 (14.82)20 077 02.60 002 (02.60)17 3. Enrofloxacin 141 36.80-65.49 082 (58.16)23 0095 36.80 035 (36.84)22 - - - 4. Ofloxacin 143 70.30-100 70 (88.08)25 0194 37.90-100 125 (64.43)24 - <	E. Fluoroquinolones						(,)			
2. Norfloxacin 552 00.00-20.00 058 (10.51)21 0479 00.00-50.00 0071 (14.82)20 077 02.60 002 (02.60)17 3. Enrofloxacin 391 11.11-100 225 (57.54)22 0049 55.50-100 031 (63.27)21 - - - 4. Ofloxacin 448 00.00-27.90 116 (22.52)24 1328 00.00-81.82 738 (55.57)23 042 09.52 004 (09.52)18 6. Pefloxacin 193 70.30-100 170 (88.08)25 0194 37.90-100 125 (64.43)24 - - - 7. Gatifloxacin 074 29.70 022 (29.70)26 0095 34.70 033 (32.70)25 - - - - 7. Aminoglycosides - - 0575 00.00-28.60 087 (12.45)26 42 42 (100) 07 (16.67)18a 1. Amikacin 455 00.00-51.00 072 (13.79)27 6699 00.00-100 1076 (55.95)29 46 00.00-71.43 098 (20.94)19 3. Neomycin 499 00.00-74.56 160 (32.06)29 433 00.00-100 1077 (55.95)29 164 00.00-65.93 0	1. Ciprofloxacin	1993	00.00-100	526 (26.39)20	3935	00.00-100	2270 (57.69)19	380	00.00-77.50	113 (29.74)16
3. Enrofloxacin39111.11-100225 (57.54)22004955.50-100031 (63.27)214. Ofloxacin14136.80-65.49082 (58.16)23009536.80035 (36.84)22 <td< td=""><td>2. Norfloxacin</td><td>552</td><td>00.00-20.00</td><td>058 (10.51)21</td><td>0479</td><td>00.00-50.00</td><td>0071 (14.82)20</td><td>077</td><td>02.60</td><td>002 (02.60)17</td></td<>	2. Norfloxacin	552	00.00-20.00	058 (10.51)21	0479	00.00-50.00	0071 (14.82)20	077	02.60	002 (02.60)17
4. Ofloxacin14136.80-65.49082 $(58.16)23$ 009536.80035 $(36.84)22$ 5. Levofloxacin44800.00-27.90116 $(22.52)24$ 132800.00-81.82738 $(55.7)23$ 04209.52004 $(09.52)18$ 6. Pefloxacin19370.30-100170 $(88.08)25$ 019437.90-100125 $(64.43)24$ 7. Gatifloxacin057500.00-59.25303 $(37.0)25$ 8. Moxifloxacin057500.00-59.25303 $(52.70)25a$ 1. Amikacin45500.00-50.00072 $(13.79)27$ 069900.00-28.60087 $(12.45)26$ 4242 (100) 07 $(16.67)18a$ 2. Gentamicin127800.00-74.56160 $(32.06)29$ 043300.00-100106 $(24.48)28$ 01000.00000 $(00.00)20$ 3. Neomycin49900.00-74.56160 $(32.06)29$ 043300.00-100107 $(65.95)29$ 14610.00-95.24063 $(43.15)21$ 5. Tobramycin05300.00-84.62204 $(36.39)30$ 163300.00-100107 $(65.95)29$ 14610.00-95.24063 $(41.44)22$ 6. Kanamycin25107.00-81.81099 $(30.28)32$ 044600.00-76.00229 $(51.35)31$ 08422.22-38.10020 $(23.81)23$ 6. Lincosamides1. Nitrofuran13817.07-100025 $(18.12)34$ 925 <td>3. Enrofloxacin</td> <td>391</td> <td>11.11-100</td> <td>225 (57.54)22</td> <td>0049</td> <td>55.50-100</td> <td>031 (63.27)21</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td>	3. Enrofloxacin	391	11.11-100	225 (57.54)22	0049	55.50-100	031 (63.27)21	-	-	-
5. Levofloxacin 448 00.00-27.90 116 (22.52)24 1328 00.00-81.82 738 (55.57)23 042 09.52 004 (09.52)18 6. Pefloxacin 193 70.30-100 170 (88.08)25 0194 37.90-100 125 (64.43)24 - - - - 7. Gatifloxacin 0.74 29.70 022 (29.70)26 0095 34.70 033 (34.70)25a -	4. Ofloxacin	141	36.80-65.49	082 (58.16)23	0095	36.80	035 (36.84)22	-	-	-
6. Pefloxacin 193 70.30-100 170 (88.08)25 0194 37.90-100 125 (64.43)24 - - - 7. Gatifloxacin 074 29.70 022 (29.70)26 0095 34.70 033 (34.70)25 - - - 8. Moxifloxacin - - 0575 00.00-59.25 303 (52.70)25a - - - - F. Aminoglycosides - - 0575 00.00-28.60 087 (12.45)26 42 42 (100) 07 (16.67)18a 2. Gentamicin 1278 00.00-81.81 290 (22.69)28 3837 00.00-100 1008 (26.27)27 468 00.00-71.43 098 (20.94)19 3. Neomycin 499 00.00-74.56 160 (32.06)29 0433 00.00-100 107 (65.95)29 146 10.00-95.24 063 (43.15)21 5. Tobramycin 053 0.00-81.81 099 (30.28)32 0446 0.00-76.00 22 (51.53)31 084 22.02-38.10 020 (23.81)23 G. Lincosamides - - - - - - - - - - - - - <td< td=""><td>5. Levofloxacin</td><td>448</td><td>00.00-27.90</td><td>116 (22.52)24</td><td>1328</td><td>00.00-81.82</td><td>738 (55.57)23</td><td>042</td><td>09.52</td><td>004 (09.52)18</td></td<>	5. Levofloxacin	448	00.00-27.90	116 (22.52)24	1328	00.00-81.82	738 (55.57)23	042	09.52	004 (09.52)18
7. Gatifloxacin07429.70022 (29.70)26009534.70033 (34.70)258. Moxifloxacin057500.00-59.25303 (52.70)25aF. Aminoglycosides057500.00-28.60087 (12.45)264242 (100)07 (16.67)18a2. Gentamicin127800.00-81.81290 (22.69)28383700.00-1001008 (26.27)2746800.00-71.43098 (20.94)193. Neomycin49900.00-84.62204 (36.39)30163300.00-1001077 (65.95)2914610.00-95.2463 (43.15)215. Tobramycin05303.00-84.62204 (36.39)30163300.00-1001077 (65.95)2914610.00-95.2463 (43.15)215. Tobramycin05303.00-84.62044600.00-76.00229 (51.35)3108422.22-38.10020 (23.81)23G. Lincosamides1. Nitrofurantoin13817.07-100025 (18.12)3492500.00-63.10419 (16.19)321. Azithomycin76543.45-100667 (87.19)3655500.00-100446 (80.36)3407709.09-78.5807 (09.09)25J. Monobactams1. Azithomycin11484.00-100103 (90.35)38006697.14-100055 (98.48)3604037.50015 (37.50)2	6. Pefloxacin	193	70.30-100	170 (88.08)25	0194	37.90-100	125 (64.43)24	-	-	-
8. Moxifloxacin - - 0575 00.00-59.25 303 (52.70)25a - - - F. Aminoglycosides - - 0575 00.00-28.60 087 (12.45)26 42 42 (100) 07 (16.67)18a 2. Gentamicin 1278 00.00-81.81 290 (22.69)28 3837 00.00-100 1008 (26.27)27 468 00.00-71.43 098 (20.94)19 3. Neomycin 499 00.00-74.56 160 (32.06)29 0433 00.00-100 106 (24.48)28 010 00.00 000 (00.00)20 4. Streptomycin 553 00.00-81.81 299 (32.8)32 1633 00.00-100 107 (65.95)29 146 10.00-95.24 063 (43.15)21 5. Tobramycin 093 13.50-22.22 014 (15.05)31 0061 04.92 003 (04.92)30 171 02.60-25.93 024 (14.04)22 G. Lincosamides -	Gatifloxacin	074	29.70	022 (29.70)26	0095	34.70	033 (34.70)25	-	-	-
F. Aminoglycosides1. Amikacin4550.00-50.00072 (13.79)2706990.00-28.60087 (12.45)264242 (100)07 (16.67)18a2. Gentamicin12780.00-81.81290 (22.69)2838370.00-1001008 (26.27)2746800.00-71.43098 (20.94)193. Neomycin4990.00-74.56160 (32.06)2904330.00-100106 (24.48)280100.00000 (00.00)204. Streptomycin5530.00-84.62204 (36.39)3016330.00-1001077 (65.95)2914610.00-95.24063 (43.15)215. Tobramycin09313.50-22.22014 (15.05)31006104.92003 (04.92)3017102.60-25.93024 (14.04)226. Kanamycin25107.00-81.81099 (00.28)3204460.00-76.00229 (51.35)3108422.22-38.10020 (23.81)236. Lincosamides1. Nitrofuran13817.07-100025 (18.12)3492500.00-63.10419 (16.19)321. Azithromycin137712.90-100763 (77.48)35164906.58-100963 (58.40)3315202.59-26.19018 (11.84)242. Erythromycin76543.45-100667 (87.19)365550.00-100446 (80.36)3407709.09-78.5807 (09.09)25J. Monobactams1. Azithromycin11484.00-1001	Moxifloxacin	-	-	-	0575	00.00-59.25	303 (52.70)25a	-	-	-
1. Amikacin 455 00.00-50.00 072 (13.79)27 0699 00.00-28.60 087 (12.45)26 42 42 (100) 07 (16.67)18a 2. Gentamicin 1278 00.00-81.81 290 (22.69)28 3837 00.00-100 1008 (26.27)27 468 00.00-71.43 098 (20.94)19 3. Neomycin 499 00.00-74.56 160 (32.06)29 0433 00.00-100 107 (65.95)29 146 10.00-95.24 063 (43.15)21 5. Tobramycin 093 13.50-22.22 014 (15.05)31 0061 04.92 003 (04.92)30 171 02.60-25.93 024 (14.04)22 6. Kanamycin 251 07.00-81.81 099 (30.28)32 0446 00.00-76.00 229 (51.35)31 084 22.22-38.10 020 (23.81)23 G. Lincosamides .<	F. Aminoglycosides									
2. Gentamicin 1278 00.00-81.81 290 (22.69)28 3837 00.00-100 1008 (26.27)27 468 00.00-71.43 098 (20.94)19 3. Neomycin 499 00.00-74.56 160 (32.06)29 0433 00.00-100 106 (24.48)28 010 0000 000 (00.00)20 4. Streptomycin 553 00.00-84.62 204 (36.39)30 1633 00.00-100 1077 (65.95)29 146 10.00-95.24 063 (43.15)21 5. Tobramycin 093 13.50-22.22 014 (15.05)31 0061 04.92 003 (04.92)30 171 02.60-25.93 024 (14.04)22 6. Kanamycin 251 07.00-81.81 099 (30.28)32 0446 00.00-76.00 229 (51.35)31 084 22.22-38.10 020 (23.81)23 G. Lincosamides -<	1. Amikacin	455	00.00-50.00	072 (13.79)27	0699	00.00-28.60	087 (12.45)26	42	42 (100)	07 (16.67)18a
3. Neomycin 499 00.00-74.56 160 (32.06)29 0433 00.00-100 106 (24.48)28 010 00.00 000 (00.00)20 4. Streptomycin 553 00.00-84.62 204 (36.39)30 1633 00.00-100 1077 (65.95)29 146 10.00-95.24 063 (43.15)21 5. Tobramycin 093 13.50-22.22 014 (15.05)31 0061 04.92 003 (04.92)30 171 02.60-25.93 024 (14.04)22 6. Kanamycin 251 07.00-81.81 099 (30.28)32 0446 00.00-76.00 229 (51.35)31 084 22.22-38.10 020 (23.81)23 G. Lincosamides - </td <td>2. Gentamicin</td> <td>1278</td> <td>00.00-81.81</td> <td>290 (22.69)28</td> <td>3837</td> <td>00.00-100</td> <td>1008 (26.27)27</td> <td>468</td> <td>00.00-71.43</td> <td>098 (20.94)19</td>	2. Gentamicin	1278	00.00-81.81	290 (22.69)28	3837	00.00-100	1008 (26.27)27	468	00.00-71.43	098 (20.94)19
4. Streptomycin 553 00.00-84.62 204 (36.39)30 1633 00.00-100 1077 (65.95)29 146 10.00-95.24 063 (43.15)21 5. Tobramycin 093 13.50-22.22 014 (15.05)31 0061 04.92 003 (04.92)30 171 02.60-25.93 024 (14.04)22 6. Kanamycin 251 07.00-81.81 099 (30.28)32 0446 00.00-76.00 229 (51.35)31 084 22.22-38.10 020 (23.81)23 G. Lincosamides .	3. Neomycin	499	00.00-74.56	160 (32.06)29	0433	00.00-100	106 (24.48)28	010	00.00	000 (00.00)20
5. Tobramycin 093 13.50-22.22 014 (15.05)31 0061 04.92 003 (04.92)30 171 02.60-25.93 024 (14.04)22 6. Kanamycin 251 07.00-81.81 099 (30.28)32 0446 00.00-76.00 229 (51.35)31 084 22.22-38.10 020 (23.81)23 G. Lincosamides - - - - - - - - - 1. Clindamycin 067 84.00 056 (84.00)33 - - - - - - 1. Nitrofurant 138 17.07-100 025 (18.12)34 925 00.00-63.10 419 (16.19)32 -	4. Streptomycin	553	00.00-84.62	204 (36.39)30	1633	00.00-100	1077 (65.95)29	146	10.00-95.24	063 (43.15)21
6. Kanamycin 251 07.00-81.81 099 (30.28)32 0446 00.00-76.00 229 (51.35)31 084 22.22-38.10 020 (23.81)23 G. Lincosamides 1. Clindamycin 067 84.00 056 (84.00)33 - <	5. Tobramycin	093	13.50-22.22	014 (15.05)31	0061	04.92	003 (04.92)30	171	02.60-25.93	024 (14.04)22
C. Lincosamides 1. Clindamycin 067 84.00 056 (84.00)33 -	6. Kanamycin	251	07.00-81.81	099 (30.28)32	0446	00.00-76.00	229 (51.35)31	084	22.22-38.10	020 (23.81)23
1. Clindamycin 067 84.00 056 (84.00)33 -	G. Lincosamides	0.67	04.00	0.5.6 (0.4.00) 2.2						
H. Nitrofuran 1. Nitrofurantin 138 17.07-100 025 (18.12)34 925 00.00-63.10 419 (16.19)32 - <td>1. Clindamycin</td> <td>06/</td> <td>84.00</td> <td>056 (84.00)33</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td>	1. Clindamycin	06/	84.00	056 (84.00)33	-	-	-	-	-	-
1. Nutofuration 138 17.07-100 023 (18.12)34 923 00.00-05.10 419 (16.19)32 -	1. Nitrofuran	120	17.07.100	025 (19 12)24	025 0	0 00 62 10 4	10 (16 10)22			
1. Azithromycin 1377 12.90-100 703 (37.48)35 1649 06.58-100 963 (58.40)33 152 02.59-26.19 018 (11.84)24 2. Erythromycin 765 43.45-100 667 (87.19)36 555 00.00-100 446 (80.36)34 077 09.09-78.58 07 (09.09)25 J. Monobactams 1. Aztreonam 089 04.10-25.00 21 (13.46)37 453 58.28 264 (58.28)35 - - - K. Beta-lactamase resistant penicillin 114 84.00-100 103 (90.35)38 0066 97.14-100 065 (98.48)36 040 37.50 015 (37.50)26 L. Polymyxin 1. Colistin (Polymyxin)371 07.14-100 277 (74.66)39 2207 00.00-100 371 (09.59)37 077 00.00 000 (00.00)27 2. Polymyxin B 067 06.0 004 (06.00)40 - - - - - 1. Ertapenem 253 05.70-50.00 075 (29.64)41 0180 66.67 120 (66.67)38 - - - - 2. Meropenem 343 00.00-63.63 82 (23.91)42 1303 00.00-72.72 224 (17.19)39 </td <td>I. Macrolidos</td> <td>138</td> <td>17.07-100</td> <td>025 (18.12)54</td> <td>923 0</td> <td>0.00-05.10 4</td> <td>19 (10.19)52</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td>	I. Macrolidos	138	17.07-100	025 (18.12)54	923 0	0.00-05.10 4	19 (10.19)52	-	-	-
1. Azhrinolnychi 1577 12:30-100 705 (37.43)53 1049 60:30-100 705 (30.40)53 132 62:32-20.15 618 (11.64)24 2. Erythromycin 765 43.45-100 667 (87.19)36 555 00.00-100 446 (80.36)34 077 09.09-78.58 07 (09.09)25 J. Monobactams 1. Aztreonam 089 04.10-25.00 21 (13.46)37 453 58.28 264 (58.28)35 - - - K. Beta-lactamase resistant penicillin 114 84.00-100 103 (90.35)38 0066 97.14-100 065 (98.48)36 040 37.50 015 (37.50)26 L. Polymyxin 1. Colistin (Polymyxin)371 07.14-100 277 (74.66)39 2207 00.00-100 371 (09.59)37 077 00.00 000 (00.00)27 2. Polymyxin B 067 06.0 004 (06.00)40 - - - - - 1. Ertapenem 253 05.70-50.00 075 (29.64)41 0180 66.67 120 (66.67)38 - - - 2. Meropenem 343 00.00-63.63 82 (23.91)42 1303 00.00-72.72 224 (17.19)39 46	1 Azithromycin	1377	12 90-100	703 (37 48)35	1649	06 58-100	963 (58 40)33	152	02 59-26 19	018 (11 84)24
J. Monobactams 1. Aztreonam 089 04.10-25.00 21 (13.46)37 453 58.28 264 (58.28)35 - - - K. Beta-lactamase resistant penicillin 1.14 84.00-100 103 (90.35)38 0066 97.14-100 065 (98.48)36 040 37.50 015 (37.50)26 L. Polymyxin 1. Colistin (Polymyxin)371 07.14-100 277 (74.66)39 2207 00.00-100 371 (09.59)37 077 00.00 000 (00.00)27 2. Polymyxin B 067 06.0 004 (06.00)40 - - - - - 1. Ertapenem 253 05.70-50.00 075 (29.64)41 0180 66.67 120 (66.67)38 - - - 2. Meropenem 343 00.00-63.63 82 (23.91)42 1303 00.00-72.72 224 (17.19)39 468 20.00-25.93 98 (20.94)28	2 Erythromycin	765	43 45-100	667 (87 19)36	555	00.00-100	446 (80 36)34	077	09 09-78 58	07 (09 09)25
1. Aztreonam 089 04.10-25.00 21 (13.46)37 453 58.28 264 (58.28)35 - - - K. Beta-lactamase resistant penicillin 1.14 84.00-100 103 (90.35)38 0066 97.14-100 065 (98.48)36 040 37.50 015 (37.50)26 L. Polymyxin 1. Colistin (Polymyxin)371 07.14-100 277 (74.66)39 2207 00.00-100 371 (09.59)37 077 00.00 000 (00.00)27 2. Polymyxin B 067 06.0 004 (06.00)40 - - - - - - M. Carbapenem 1. Ertapenem 253 05.70-50.00 075 (29.64)41 0180 66.67 120 (66.67)38 - - - 2. Meropenem 343 00.00-63.63 82 (23.91)42 1303 00.00-72.72 224 (17.19)39 468 20.00-25.93 98 (20.94)28	J. Monobactams	105	45.45 100	007 (07.17)50	555	00.00 100	110 (00.50)51	077	09.09 70.50	07 (09.09)25
K. Beta-lactamase resistant penicillin Difference Differenc Difference Difference </td <td>1. Aztreonam</td> <td>089</td> <td>04.10-25.00</td> <td>21 (13.46)37</td> <td>453</td> <td>58.28</td> <td>264 (58 28)35</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td>	1. Aztreonam	089	04.10-25.00	21 (13.46)37	453	58.28	264 (58 28)35	-	-	-
1. Cloxacillin 114 84.00-100 103 (90.35)38 0066 97.14-100 065 (98.48)36 040 37.50 015 (37.50)26 L. Polymyxin 1. Colistin (Polymyxin)371 07.14-100 277 (74.66)39 2207 00.00-100 371 (09.59)37 077 00.00 000 (00.00)27 2. Polymyxin B 067 06.0 004 (06.00)40 - - - - - M. Carbapenem 1. Ertapenem 253 05.70-50.00 075 (29.64)41 0180 66.67 120 (66.67)38 - - - 2. Meropenem 343 00.00-63.63 82 (23.91)42 1303 00.00-72.72 224 (17.19)39 468 20.00-25.93 98 (20.94)28	K. Beta-lactamase r	esistant 1	penicillin	_1 (10110)07						
L. Polymyxin 07.14-100 277 (74.66)39 2207 00.00-100 371 (09.59)37 077 00.00 000 (00.00)27 2. Polymyxin B 067 06.0 004 (06.00)40 -	1. Cloxacillin	114	84.00-100	103 (90.35)38	0066	97.14-100	065 (98.48)36	040	37.50	015 (37.50)26
1. Colistin (Polymyxin)371 07.14-100 277 (74.66)39 2207 00.00-100 371 (09.59)37 077 00.00 000 (00.00)27 2. Polymyxin B 067 06.0 004 (06.00)40 -	L. Polymyxin						(2010)00			(2.100)20
2. Polymyxin B 067 06.0 004 (06.00)40 - <t< td=""><td>1. Colistin (Polymyxi</td><td>in)371</td><td>07.14-100</td><td>277 (74.66)39</td><td>2207</td><td>00.00-100</td><td>371 (09.59)37</td><td>077</td><td>00.00</td><td>000 (00.00)27</td></t<>	1. Colistin (Polymyxi	in)371	07.14-100	277 (74.66)39	2207	00.00-100	371 (09.59)37	077	00.00	000 (00.00)27
M. Carbapenem 1. Ertapenem 253 05.70-50.00 075 (29.64)41 0180 66.67 120 (66.67)38 -	2. Polymyxin B	067	06.0	004 (06.00)40	-	-	-	-	-	-
1. Ertapenem 253 05.70-50.00 075 (29.64)41 0180 66.67 120 (66.67)38 -	M. Carbapenem									
2. Meropenem 343 00.00-63.63 82 (23.91)42 1303 00.00-72.72 224 (17.19)39 468 20.00-25.93 98 (20.94)28	1. Ertapenem	253	05.70-50.00	075 (29.64)41	0180	66.67	120 (66.67)38	-	-	-
	2. Meropenem	343	00.00-63.63	82 (23.91)42	1303	00.00-72.72	224 (17.19)39	468	20.00-25.93	98 (20.94)28

Contd. Table 28. Summary of antibacterial resistance status of major zoonotic bacterial pathogens isolated from livestock including poultry and humans in Bangladesh

S/ Antibacterials	Salmon	ella spp.		Escherie	chia coli		Staphylo	pcoccus spp.	
N with groups	No. of R	Resistance status	X	No. of R	esistance stat	us Y	No. of	Resistance st	tatus Z
	isolates	Range, %	Mean (%)	isolates	Range, %	Mean (%)	isolates	Range, %	Mean (%)
3. Imipenem	330	00.00-85.71	077 (23.33)43	1184	00.00-65.80	238 (20.10)40	042	00.00	00 (00.00)29
N. Quinolone									
 Nalidixic acid 	866	00.00-100	645 (74.48)44	3891	00.00-10	2967 (76.25)41	060	33.33-35.71	21 (35.00)30
O. Rifampicin	075	60.00-88.00	064 (85.33)45	0166	90.00	0149 (90.00)42	040	07.50	03 (07.50)31
P. Tigecycline	202	04.10-90.48	096 (47.52)46	0167	00.00	0000 (00.00)43	-	-	-
Q. Vancomycin	86	41.67-66.28	62 (59.05)47	0061	00.00	0002 (00.00)44	117	05.19-17.50	11 (09.40)32
R. Sulfonamides									
1. Sulfamethazine	379	00.00-89.20	207 (54.62)48	0875	44.74-100	775 (08.99)45	-	-	-
2. Trimethoprim	007	100	007 (100)49	0854	77.00-95.00	778 (91.10)46	-	-	-
3. Co-trimoxazole	516	00.00-89.20	260 (50.39)50	3991	00.00-100	2409 (60.36)47	077	05.19	04 (05.19)33

Х

Y

 $\mathbf{1} = 290,298,300,301,303,312,316,320; \mathbf{2} = 263,276; \mathbf{3} = 268,269,272,276,297,298,300-304,306,310,312,314,316,320,328,331,333,336,341,342,343, 344; \mathbf{4} = 263,268,269,272,284,287,290,291,299,303,304,305,309,312,313,315-317,320,324,328,335,336,339,340; \mathbf{5} = 306,308,324; \mathbf{6} = 309,336; \mathbf{7} = 298,305,324,340; \mathbf{8} = 308,313,341; \mathbf{9} = 263,268,269,298,305,306,308,313,324,340; \mathbf{10} = 268,306,308,341; \mathbf{11} = 309,324,333; \mathbf{12} = 342; \mathbf{13} = 301,305; \mathbf{14} = 290,313,324,333,340; \mathbf{15} = 268,269,276,290,293,295,298,302,309,310,312,320,329,331,333,335,341-343; \mathbf{16} = 268,269,272,284, 287,290,293,295,297-299,302-304,306,309,310,314,317,328,329,331,333,335,336,339,341-343; \mathbf{17} = 263,276,290,293,315,316,336; \mathbf{18} = 287,308, 315,342; \mathbf{18a} = 324; \mathbf{19} = 263,268,269,272,276,284,287,290,291,293,295,298-300,302,303,307-310,313-317,320,324,328,340,344; \mathbf{24} = 287,308, 315,342; \mathbf{18a} = 324; \mathbf{19} = 263,268,269,272,276,284,287,290,291,293,295,298-300,302,303,307-310,313-317,320,324,328,340,344; \mathbf{24} = 287,307,336; \mathbf{25} = 307, \mathbf{25a} = 307,313,340; \mathbf{26} = 263,298,305,313,324; \mathbf{27} = 263,268,269,272,276,284,287,290,291,293,295,298,301-303,306,309,310,312, 328,329,313-316,320,324,331,333,35,340-344; \mathbf{28} = 287,293,298,300,312,315; \mathbf{29} = 263,268,269,272,284,290,291,293,295,298,301-303,306,309,310,312, 328,329,313-316,320,324,331,333,35,340-344; \mathbf{28} = 287,293,298,300,312,315; \mathbf{29} = 263,268,269,272,284,290,290,293,309,310,315,320,328,329, 341,342; \mathbf{34} = 272,284,290,291,293,295,298,301,303,304,310,311,313,314,315,320,328,4290,290,309,310,315,320,328,329,335,342; \mathbf{37} = 263,268,269,272,284,290,291,293,295,298,301-303,306,309,310,312, 344; \mathbf{30} = 290; \mathbf{31} = 268,269,272,284,290,291,293,295,298,301,303,334,333,334, 344; \mathbf{30} = 290; \mathbf{31} = 268,269,272,284,290,291,293,295,305,308,309,341,342,343,344; \mathbf{40} = 293,295,298,305,308,309,313,324,329; \mathbf{30},304,310,311,313,314,315,320,328,329; \mathbf{35} = 313; \mathbf{36} = 311,351; \mathbf{37} = 276,287,290,297, 300,302,305,308,314,316,317,341,344; \mathbf{38} = 293; \mathbf{39} = 29$

Ζ

1 = 290,303,312,320,351; 2 = 276,351; 3 = 268,269,276,303,312,320,338,351; 4 = 268,269,290,303,312,320,324,338,351; 5 = 324; 6 = 324; 7 = 268, 269,324,351; 8 = 268; 9 = 324,351; 10 = 338; 11 = 290,324,351; 12 = 268,269,276,290,312,320; 13 = 268,269,290,303; 14 = 276,290,338,351; 15 = 338,351; 16 = 276,268,269,290,303,320,324,338,351; 17 = 290; 18 = 324; 19 = 268,269,276,290,303,312,320,324,338,351; 20 = 312; 21 = 268,312,351; 22 = 290,351; 23 = 268,269,290,320; 25 = 290,303,320,351; 26 = 351; 27 = 290; 28 = 351; 29 = 324; 30 = 268,269; 31 = 351; 32 = 290,351; 33 = 290

The EHEC 0157:H7 strain has been isolated from feral swine, domestic cattle, surface water, sediment, and soil during the outbreak of EHEC 0157 in humans, which demonstrated the significance of the 'One Health' concept, including human, animal, and environmental domains. The pooled prevalence of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL)-producing *E. coli* in Bangladesh has been reported to be 21.0%, of which 17.0% in



Fig. 10. Overall, penicillin classes antibiotic resistance status against Salmonella spp., E. coli, and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from livestock and humans



Fig. 11. Overall cephalosporins classes antibiotic resistance status against *Salmonella* spp., *E. coli* and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from livestock and humans



J. Vet. Med. OH Res 6 (1-2) 2024

Fig. 12. Overall tetracyclines and chloramphenicol classes antibiotic resistance status against *Salmonella* spp., *E. coli* and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from livestock and humans



Fig. 13. Overall fluoroquinolones classes antibiotic resistance status against *Salmonella* spp., *E. coli* and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from livestock and humans



Bacterial zoonotic diseases in Bangladesh

Fig. 14. Overall aminoglycosides classes antibiotic resistance status against *Salmonella* spp., *E. coli*, and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from livestock and humans



Fig. 15. Overall monobactams, macrolides, and carbapenem classes antibiotic resistance status against Salmonella spp., E. coli, and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from livestock and humans



Fig. 16. Overall certain antibiotic resistance status against *Salmonella* spp., *E. coli*, and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from livestock and humans



Fig. 17. Overall sulfonamides and other antibiotic resistance status against *Salmonella* spp., *E. coli*, and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from livestock and humans

humans, 22.0% in animals, and 39.0% in the environment source of samples.³⁴⁴ Integrating and understanding the interaction of these factors linking humans, animals, and the environment will facilitate 'One Health' approaches to thwart and control the zoonotic transmission of EHEC (Fig. 18).



Fig. 18. The associations among the factors intricate in enterohaemorrhagic Escherichia coli

E. coli from both human and poultry origin showed a high resistance level against commonly used antibiotics (Table 28).²⁹⁹ Table 31 shows the resistance status of *E. coli* isolated from humans and poultry.

Staphylococcus aureus infection

Ogston first discovered Staphylococci in 1880, who observed bacteria in a surgical abscess of a knee joint and called them Staphylococcus (Greek 'staphyle' 'a bunch of grapes'; 'kokkos' 'the berry.' The genus Staphylococcus currently comprises 81 species and sub-species. Most members of the genus are mammalian commensals. Still, some are opportunistic pathogens that colonize the skin and respiratory, alimentary, and urogenital tracts of animals and birds and the diverse mucosal membranes of 20-30% of the human population.^{358,359} Staphylococci can be grown and multiplied everywhere, including water, soil, air, and plants. It also acts as normal flora on animals' and humans' skin and nasal cavities.³⁵⁹ The prevalence of *S. aureus* varies from host species to host species, and up to 90% of chickens, 42% of pigs, 29% of sheep, and 14-35% of cows and heifers have been reported to be carriers.³⁴⁵ *S. aureus* can be colonized by diverse

animal species following host-switching events and subsequent adaptation through acquisition and/or less of mobile genetic elements (MGEs) and further host-specific mutations, allowing it to expand into new host populations (Fig. 11).³⁵⁹ Close contact between animals and humans can facilitate host-switching events. Humans are a significant hub for *S. aureus* host jumps (Fig.19).



Fig. 19. Humans act as a major hub for *Staphylococcus aureus* jumps³⁵⁸

Importance of S. aureus in Veterinary Medicine

S. aureus is one of the primary causative agents of mastitis in ruminant animals. It causes dermatitis in small ruminants, botryomycosis in pigs and horses, and suppurative infections in cats and dogs. *S. a. subsp. anaerobius* causes lymphadenitis in sheep. *S. intermedius* causes various pyogenic diseases in dogs and cats and may cause other suppurative infections, including endometritis, cystitis, and otitis externa. This bacterium can be shed from infected udder; thus, contamination of bulk milk can lead to food poisoning from fermented raw milk products. *S. aureus* can be found in apparently healthy carrier cows on the teat skin, nasal cavity, and rectum, but the main reservoirs in a dairy herd are infected udders and teat skin. Infected animals can shed bacteria through their milk, and transmission occurs primarily from udder to udder during milking via contact with contaminated milking machines, milker's hands, or contaminated bedding. Cows are a significant reservoir for the reinfection of humans, and multiple host-switching events, both human-to-cow and cow-to-human, have occurred. It also affects the health of animals and pets, causing dermatitis, abscesses, pododermatitis, and mastitis.³⁵⁸

Otitis externa and pyoderma, endometritis, mastitis, osteomyelitis, and cystitis are reported due to *S. aureus* in pet animals. Skin infections in pigs are typically caused by *S. hyicus* and have only been occasionally

S. aureus is documented to cause MRSA, but pigs represent a major reservoir for MRSA.358 S. aureus mainly targets the skin, bones, tendons, and joints, which causes several poultry diseases, including septic arthritis, subdermal abscesses, gangrenous dermatitis, septicemia, synovitis, bumblefoot, and omphalitis, under appropriate conditions in poultry birds.

Infections in animals are deleterious to animal health, and animals can act as a reservoir for staphylococcal transmission to humans. *S. aureus subsp aureus* is coagulase-positive, which is associated with diseases of animals, whereas coagulase-negative bacteria are usually non-pathogenic to animals and humans. However, it occasionally causes bovine mastitis.³⁵⁹ It appears that *S. aureus* can cause severe infections in some animals; others show less severe symptoms and are mainly colonized, acting as a staphylococcal reservoir for human reinfection, and such lineages are found in pigs and dairy cows.

Staphylococci in food and non-food samples

A bacteriological study was carried out on a total of 270 food and 125 non-food samples to find out the presence of coagulase-positive Staphylococcus. Staphylococci contamination was recorded in 68.15% of food samples and non-food in 60.0% of samples, whereas coagulase-positive Staphylococci was recorded in 34.78% of food samples and 30.26% of non-food samples (Table 29).³⁶⁰

Tal Exa	Table 29. Prevalence of Staphylococci in food and non-food samples in Bangladesh360Examination of food samplesExamination of non-food samples												
S/ N	Samples	No. of samples	Staph. +ve No. (%)	Coagulase Staph +ve	S/ N	Samples	No. of samples	Staph +ve No. (%)	Coagulase Staph +ve				
1.	Raw milk	30	23 (76.66)	11 (47.82)	1.	Nasal swabs	25	17 (68.00)	5 (19.44)				
2.	Raw meat	30	21 (70.00)	08 (38.10)	2.	Throat swabs	25	09 (36.00)	3 (33.34)				
3.	3. Butter milk 30 25 (83.30) 10 (40.00) 3. Hand wash 25 15 (60.00) 5 (33.35)												
4.	Dough	30	26 (86.67)	09 (34.62)	4.	Utensil wash	25	19 (76.00)	4 (21.05)				
5.	Cake	30	11 (36.66)	03 (27.27)	5.	Washing from	25	16 (64.00)	6 (37.05)				
6.	Biscuits	30	16 (53.33)	04 (25.00)		surroundings							
7.	Petish	30	17 (56.67)	05 (24.41)		Overall	125	76 (60.00)	23 (30.26)				
8.	Cream	30	21 (70.00)	08 (38.09)									
9.	9. Cream roll 30 24 (80.00) 06 (25.00)												
	Overall	270	184 (68.15)	64 (34.78)									

Antibiotic resistance status S. aureus

S. aureus is an opportunistic bacterium that causes nosocomial diseases, which can lead from mild skin lesions to fatal endocarditis. The most significant concern related to the worldwide spread of *S. aureus* is the emergence of methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) strains, often found in humans and animals. MRSA in animals was first isolated from the milk of dairy cows with mastitis in Belgium in the 1970s and has since been isolated from cows around the globe.³⁵⁸ MRSA strains harbor an MGE known as SCCmec, containing the mec gene, which codes for an additional penicillin-binding protein with a low affinity for β -lactam antibiotics and, therefore, mediates resistance to nearly all compounds of these antibiotics. MRSA is associated with poultry meat, and it has different strains; each is resistant to a class of antibiotics. The MecA gene is reported to be responsible for MRSA, and this gene is also attributed to being transmitted from poultry to humans.³⁵⁸ They are commonly isolated from chickens and can be transmitted to humans by direct contact. The antibiotic sensitivity test showed that several coagulase-positive isolates were resistant to many common antibiotics, particularly penicillin and sulfadiazine (Table 30).³⁶⁰

J. Vet. Med. OH Res 6 (1-2) 2024

Та	ble 30. Antibiotic	sensitivity of	coagulase-pos	sitive Staphylo	ococci ³⁶⁰	Table 31. Resistand	e (%) statu	s of <i>E. coli</i>
S/	Antibiotic	Food sample	isolated from hum	ans and po	oultry fecal			
N		Sensitive	Resistant	Sensitive	Resistant	S/ Antibiotic	Human	Poultry
		No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	N N N	origin	origin
1.	Penicillin	17 (26.56)	47 (73.44)	07 (30.43)	16 (69.57)		(n = 14)	(n = 11)
2.	Streptomycin	46 (71.88)	18 (28.15)	15 (62.22)	08 (34.78)	01. Amoxicillin	100	100
3.	Tetracycline	35 (54.85)	29 (45.31)	13 (56.57)	10 (43.47)	02. Tetracycline	73.3	100
4.	Cloxacillin	51 (79.69)	13 920.31)	16 (59.57)	07 (30.43)	03. SMT	90.0	92.3
5.	Chloramphenicol	l 58 (90.63)	06 (09.38)	19 (82.61)	04(17.39)	04. Nitrofurantoin	40.0	30.8
6.	Gentamicine	57 (89.06)	07 (10.94)	20 (86.95)	03 (13.04)	05. Ciprofloxacin	80.0	84.6
7.	Co-trimoxazole	33 (51.56)	31 (48.43)	10 (43.47)	13 (56.52)	06. Levofloxacin	66.7	77.0
8.	Sulfadiazine	25 (39.06)	39 (60.93)	08 (34.78)	15 (65.22)	SMT = Sulfamethor	cazole-trime	thoprim

Zoonoses and public health importance of S. aureus

S. aureus is a common commensal bacterium and also an opportunistic pathogen responsible for a wide range of infections in both humans and animals, including cattle, sheep, goats, poultry, and rabbits (Fig. 20). It has been reported that nasal colonization by *S. aureus* in 30% of healthy carriers in humans.^{361,362}



Fig. 20. Zoonotic transmission of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA)³⁶³

Some strains of *S. aureus* produce toxins that cause toxic shock syndrome or may be linked to staphylococcal food poisoning. Approximately 50% of the *S. aureus* strains are responsible for human food poisoning through their enterotoxins. The risk of contact with MRSA is a major concern in nosocomial infections, as it is associated with higher mortality rates and human healthcare costs (Fig.12). Recently, the transmission of *S. aureus* from the goat to veterinarian evoked an episode of professional zoonosis.³⁶⁴

Table 32. Comparison to antibiotic resistance status of <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> isolated humans and animal sources ³⁴⁵								
S/ Antibiotics N	Isolated from animals (n=54)	Isolated from humans $(n = 40)$	S/ Antibiotics N	Isolated from animals (n=54)	Isolated from humans $(n = 40)$			
01. Penicillin	35 (64.81)	35 (87.5)	02. Oxacillin	04 (07.40)	15 (37.50)			
03. Ampicillin	14 (25.93)	-	04. Amoxycillin	20 (37.04)	15 (37.50)			
05. Cloxacillin	-	15 (37.50)	06. Ciprofloxacin	-	06 (15.00)			
07. SMX-TM	20 (37.04)	-	08. Oxytetracycline	23 (42.59)	-			
09. Doxycycline	-	05 (12.50)	10. Gentamicin	14 (25.93)	08 (20.00)			
11. Streptomycin	13 (24.07)	-	12. Tobramycin	07 (12.96)	-			
13. Erythromycin	07 (12.96)	06 (15.00)	14. Ceftriaxone	07 (12.96)	08 (20.00)			
15. Cephradine	06 (11.11)	10 (25.00)	16. Cefuroxime	-	06 (15.00)			
17. Vancomycin	-	07 (17.50)	18. Rifampicin	-	03 (07.50)			
19. Fusidic acid	-	02 (05.00)	-					

S. aureus is an excellent model bacterium for the 'One Health' concept because of its dynamics at the humananimal interface and its versatility in hosting adaptation.³⁶⁵

Table 32 shows that *S. aureus* isolates from animals (64.81%) and humans (87.5%) reveal a higher resistance against penicillin. This higher prevalence of penicillin-resistant *S. aureus* in animals and simultaneously in humans might increase the chance of transmitting penicillin-resistant bacterial genes to the human cycle through animal sources and food products. Other tested antibiotics showed some form of resistance (multi-drug-resistant) against *S. aureus* in both sources of the isolates (Table 32).

Campylobacter infection

Campylobacter comprises a different group of Gram-negative bacteria that cause foodborne diseases in humans, and more than 95.0 million people have been reported to be infected with these foodborne pathogens globally. The livestock (animals and poultry), including pets (dogs and cats), and environmental exposure relate to Campylobacter infection.³⁶⁶ Campylobacter species are the normal inhabitants of the gastrointestinal tract of food-producing animals and poultry as commensalism and act as reservoirs. More than 90.0% of human intestinal infections are associated with either *C. jejuni* or *C. coli*, whereas *C. fetus* is a lesser contributor (2.4%) of total confirmed cases of such human infections.³⁶⁶ *C. jejuni* is the paramount causative agent of diarrhea in children (25.5%) in Bangladesh,³⁶⁷ which causes acute flaccid paralysis (AFP) and is associated with Guillain-Barre syndrome (GBS) with an expected incidence of 3.25 cases per 100,000 children < 15 years of age group in Bangladesh.^{368,369} Campylobacter infections have been reported to be significant public health problems like diarrhea, vomiting, and Guillain-Barre syndrome.³⁶⁷⁻³⁶⁹

Prevalence of Campylobacter infection in Bangladesh

A study on a bacteriological examination of 80 fecal samples of high-yielding crossbred cattle showed that 25.0% had Campylobacter infection.³⁷⁰ A more recent survey on fecal examination of crossbred farmed cattle has reported 53.3% at the herd level and 30.9% at the animal level prevalence of Campylobacter infection in Bangladesh.³⁷¹ The prevalence of Campylobacter infection in poultry and environmental samples varied from 26.4 to 75.0% in Bangladesh.³⁷²⁻³⁷⁶ In another study on the conventional methods (culture and biochemical tests) of examination of broiler meat and frozen chicken nuggets, including chicken sausages from super shops in Dhaka city, Bangladesh, showed 62.5% (5/8) Campylobacter contamination.³⁷⁷ *C. jejuni* and *C. coli* can colonize livestock's gut, including poultry birds. Human infections, of particular concern when involving chicken, are usually caused by consumption of contaminated poultry products, even though occupational transmission has been reported (Table 33 & Fig. 21).



Fig. 21. Transmission of zoonotic campylobacter organisms.

Та	Table 33. Occurrence of <i>Campylobacter</i> spp in broiler birds under farms of three districts in Bangladesh ³⁷³									
S/	District	No. of	Positive	95% CI		S/ District No. of Positive 95% CI				
N		samples	No. (%)			N samples No. (%)				
1. 3.	Gazipur Dhaka	264 044	70 (26.5) 10 (22.7)	21.3-32.3 11.5-37.8	2.	Tangail 044 13 (29.5) 16.8-45.2				

Leptospirosis

Leptospirosis is a globally crucial re-emerging spirochete zoonotic disease of humans and animals caused by infection with any of several pathogenic serovars of the genus Leptospira that incorporates all facets of a 'one health' concept. The word has its roots in the Greek 'leptons,' meaning 'thin,' and the Latin 'Spira,' which means rolled. Over 300 pathogenic serovars have been identified based on their outer lipopolysaccharide antigens, and serovars are organized into antigenic serogroups.^{378,379} Leptospira strains are also classified based on DNA sequence composition/types, and the 64 known species of Leptospira are grouped into two pathogenic subclades, ① [P1 (Pathogens 1, pathogenic species) and P2 [Pathogen 2, intermediately pathogenic) and ② Saprophytic subclades (S1 and S2).³⁸⁰ Saprophytic organisms live in the environment and are poorly associated with mammalian host species. Most leptospirosis in humans and animals results from infections by P1-virulent species such as *L. interrogans, L. kirschneri, L. borgptersenii*, and *L. noguchii. However*, P2 species have sometimes been recognized as a cause of severe disease.^{381,382}

All mammalian species can harbor leptospires in their kidney and act as a source of infection to humans and animals. Rodents were the first recognized carriers of leptospires, and they are the only major animal species that can shed leptospires throughout their lifespan without clinical manifestations. The pathogenic strains of Leptospira are usually maintained in nature through chronic renal infection of the carrier reservoir animals, and these animals can shed leptospires in their urine for years. Dogs and rats are probably common sources of human infection.

Leptospirosis is prevalent mainly wherever humans come into contact with the urine of infected animals or a urine-polluted environment. This organism is usually transmitted through mucous membranes or abraded skin of their susceptible hosts. These organisms contaminate soil and water and can remain viable in the environment for weeks to months when conditions are optimal.³⁸³ Biofilm formation may contribute to the ability of the spirochete to persist in the environment and the renal tubules of reservoir hosts.³⁸⁴

Leptospirosis is a globally crucial zoonotic disease, most commonly prevalent in tropical and sub-tropical countries. Infections in high-income developed countries arise mainly from occupational exposure, travel to endemic areas, recreational activities, or importation of domestic and wild animals. In contrast, outbreaks in low-income developing countries are most frequently related to normal daily activities, overcrowding, poor sanitation, and climate conditions.³⁸⁵ However, leptospirosis prevalence in the 62 reports analyzed corresponded to 28.0% in the Americas, and countries with higher prevalence were the USA (41.0%), Colombia (29.0%), and Brazil (21.0%).³⁸⁶ Leptospirosis is also an endemic zoonotic disease in all the South Asian countries reported as sporadic clinical cases, sub-clinical and even outbreaks form including Bangladesh (Table 34), India (Orrisa,³⁸⁷ Mumbai,³⁸⁸ Kerala,³⁸⁹ North Andaman³⁹⁰), Sri Lanka,^{391,392} Pakistan,^{393,394} Bhutan,³⁹⁵ Nepal,³⁹⁶⁻³⁹⁹ and Maldives.⁴⁰⁰ Following heavy rainfall and flooding, seasonal outbreaks have been reported in most outbreaks, including India.³⁸⁷⁻³⁸⁹ The coinfection of Leptospira and COVID-16⁴⁰¹ and Dengue and leptospirosis⁴⁰² in clinical patients have been reported in Bangladesh. The geographical distribution of pathogenic Leptospira serovars from 1930 to 2017 has identified Icterohaemorrhgiae, Canicola, Pomona, and Grippotyphosa as a common serovar in the Americas, mainly Latin America, with emphasis on Brazil (Table 34).⁴⁰³

Table 34. Most frequent serovars for humans, domestic and wild animals in 283 articles from 1930-2017 in Americas ⁴⁰³									
S/ Serovars identified	identified Reservoir animals, No. of studies positive (%)								
Ν	Humans	Dogs	Bovines	Equines	Pigs	Rodents (Rattus)	Wild animals		
	(n = 69)	(n = 59)	(n = 48)	(n = 25)	(n = 15)	$(n = 0^{7})$	(n = 86)		
① L. Icterohaemorrhagia	e 47 (68.0)	42 (71.1)	30 (62.5)	18 (72.0)	08 (53.3)	04 (57.1)	43 (50.0)		
② L. Canicola	38 (55.0)	52 (88.1)	-	-	05 (33.3)	-	45 (52.3)		
③ L. Pomona	32 (46.0)	40 (67.7)	32 (66.6)	21 (84.0)	14 (93.3)	02 (28.5)	48 (55.0)		
④ L. Grippotyphosa	27 (39.0)	38 (64.4)	28 (58.3)	18 (72.0)	-	01 (14.2)	39 (45.3)		
⑤ L. Bratislava	22 (32.0)	-	-	20 (80.0)	-	-	-		
© L. Hardjo	-	-	35 (72.9)	19 (76.0)	04 (26.6)	-	-		
⑦ L. Autumnalis	-	-	-	-	07 (46.4)	02 (28.5)	-		
8 L. Tarassovi	-	-	-	-	-	-	02 (28.5)		

N = No. of reports analyzed

Leptospirosis in animals

Pathogenic leptospires cause disease in dogs, cattle, horses, pigs, camelids, small ruminants, and wildlife species.³⁷⁹ Most Leptospira infections are subclinical in dogs, but when clinical disease occurs, which is characterized by signs of lethargy, fever, inappetence, polyurea/polydipsia, then multiorgan dysfunction with acute kidney injury, cholestatic hepatic dysfunction, pancreatitis, variable degrees of pulmonary hemorrhage, myositis, and in some cases, uveitis.

Globally, Leptospira is a significant cause of abortion, neonatal illness, and production loss, such as decreased milk production in cattle. Blood-tinged milk and agalactia can occur in lactating cows. Most diseases in cattle worldwide have been attributed to *L. borgpetersenii* serovar Hardji (Hardjobovis); others include *L. interogans* serovar Hardjo (Hardjoprajitno) and *L. interogans* serovar Pomona, as well as many

other serovars that belong to other serogroups. The severe acute multisystemic disease occurs in calves with signs of fever, hemolytic anemia, hemoglobinuria, and icterus may characterize. Risk factors identified for Hardjo infection in cattle are open herds, access to contaminated water sources, co-grazing with sheep, use of natural service, and herd size. Sub-clinically affected cattle in a herd serve as a carrier and shed Leptospira intermittently for months without detectable serum antibodies.³⁷⁹

Leptospirosis affected pigs caused by serogroups Tarassovi, Pomona, and Australis, and sheep and goats are associated with production losses, reproductive failure with abortions, stillbirths, and neonatal illness. Incidental pig infection may be associated with hemorrhagic disease, hematuria, icterus, and acute kidney injury. Horse disease may be associated with febrile illness, reproductive losses, and neonatal illness. Foals may develop acute kidney injury; recurrent uveitis can follow infection in adult horses.³⁷⁹

Pathogenic Leptospira organisms live in the kidney tubules of mammals, including rodents, livestock, and pet animals, especially dogs, which act as reservoirs. Once this pathogen is shed in the urine, it can survive in the water and soil environment for weeks to months.⁴⁰⁴ The infection results from a combination of environmental factors that affect the survival of pathogens in the environment and human exposure (Fig. 22).



Fig. 22 Transmission cycle of Leptospira organism

Globally, rodents are the most critical reservoir hosts because of the high prevalence of infection in some rodent populations (up to 90%) and the high concentration of Leptospira in rodents' urine compared with other animal species.^{405,406}

Many rodents, mainly rats, act as reservoirs of leptospira and excrete it in their urine. A study reported that 13% of rodents had Leptospira infection in Bangladesh.⁴⁰⁷ Farm animals, dogs, and humans are exposed to Leptospira through contaminated water, food, and soil. Leptospira causes acute fever, jaundice, acute renal failure, and bleeding in humans, whereas it causes abortion, stillbirth, and low milk production in animals.³⁷⁹

Humans and animals become infected by pathogenic leptospires when intact mucous membranes, macerated skin, or abraded skin are exposed to contaminated environmental sources like water or mud. Animals can also become infected following direct exposure to infected urine or tissues of reservoir hosts. Pathogenic leptospires have been found in the reproductive tracts of domestic animals so that venereal transmission may be possible. It could maintain transmission when environmental conditions do not favor the survival of the leptospira outside the mammalian hosts. *L. borgpetersenii serovar Hardjo* has also been detected in fresh raw milk, suggesting that infection may also be transmitted by consuming unpasteurized milk and milk products.⁴⁰⁸

Leptospirosis in humans

Leptospirosis is a globally distributed zoonotic disease, but it has a low incidence in temperate regions and is highly prevalent in tropical and sub-tropical humid climates, where conditions are suitable for Leptospira's persistence in the environment and contact with people, mainly due to favorable environmental conditions for the pathogen to thrive.⁴⁰⁹ The global annual prevalence of leptospirosis has been estimated to be 14.8 cases per 100,000 deaths annually.⁴¹⁰ The estimated global disease burden in humans is 1.03 million cases annually, with 58,900 deaths.³⁷⁹ Most Leptospira infections in humans are self-limited and subclinical and often show minimal or no clinical symptoms. Patients seeking medical treatment usually develop an acute, undifferentiated febrile illness clinically. Untreated cases can drift to severe and potentially fatal Weil's disease with liver damage, kidney failure, or an often fatal severe pulmonary hemorrhage.⁴¹¹ When clinical disease occurs, it ranges from a mild, febrile, flu-like illness to a severe multisystemic disease that is associated with acute renal failure, hepatic injury, and sometimes pulmonary hemorrhage, meningitis, and pancreatitis. Transplacental infections can occur during pregnancy with abortion or stillbirth. Leptospirosis remains undiagnosed due to a lack of laboratory diagnostic facilities, especially a lack of reliable, rapid, and readily available diagnostic tests in most developing countries, including Bangladesh. Human leptospirosis also resembled COVID-19, and mixed infections with SARS-CoV-2 and Leptospira have been described. The overlapping clinical picture is likely to contribute to the misdiagnosis of leptospirosis cases such as COVID-19, with insufficient attention to prevention strategies.³⁷⁹

Southeast Asia is a region where leptospirosis is endemic with a high incidence of human infections, and outbreaks have been reported in different countries, including Sri Lanka, India, Thailand, Laos, Vietnam, Myanmar411, and recently reported in Bangladesh (Table 34). Southeast Asia experiences recurrent flooding, heavy rainfall, and hot-humid weather, which are highly favorable to an increase in both the intensity and frequency of leptospirosis. In Sri Lanka, with over 700 deaths per annum and an estimated annual incidence of hospital admission of 52.1 patients / 100,000 population.⁴¹² Rice paddy work is a significant risk factor in Sri Lanka, Thailand, and other countries, as well as other medium- and low-income countries. The disease has thus been termed 'rice field fever' in humans.³⁷⁹ Leptospirosis is most often reported in people with occupational activities that involve water exposure or interactions with animal reservoir hosts or in people participating in recreational activities involving water. Wildlife trapping for

research purposes, production animal work (abattoir work, dairy farming, veterinarians working with livestock), water-intensive crop farming (bananas, pineapples, taro, rice, berries), military operations, fish farming, and sewer work increase the risk for leptospirosis.^{413,414} Inadequate housing infrastructure and sanitation in resource-poor communities increase risk because of exposure to infected rodents and potentially also free-roaming dog populations (Fig. 14).

Leptospirosis in Bangladesh

The first seroprevalence of leptospirosis among jaundice febrile patients and healthy control humans (34/89) was reported in rural Bangladesh in 1994.⁴¹⁵ In 2000, the seroprevalence of leptospirosis in hospitalized febrile patients during a dengue outbreak was reported in 18.0% of dengue-negative febrile patients at two Dhaka hospitals by PCR.⁴¹⁶ Then several studies detected Leptospira species infection and seroprevalence in humans^{417,418} and cattle⁴¹⁹ in Bangladesh (Table 35). Leptospirosis has been reported as an eminent cause of fever in urban and rural Bangladesh, causing hospitalization.^{417,420} A study in two hospitals in Dhaka showed that 18.0% of the dengue-negative patients were positive for leptospirosis.⁴¹⁶ However, the case fatality rate was reported higher in leptospirosis (5.0%) than in dengue (1.2%) in Bangladesh.⁴¹⁶ Some other studies have shown that 2.0 to 44.0% of febrile outpatients had leptospirosis in Bangladesh.^{417,420} A battery of serogroups such as Sarmin, Mini, Australis, Louisiana, Icterohaemorrhagiae, Copenhagen, Autumnalis, Shermani, Javanica, Djasiman, Pyrogenes, Sejroe, Cynopteri, Celledoni and Panama were found in Bangladesh.⁴¹⁷ However, the study suggested undifferentiated serovars may be circulating in Bangladesh, resulting in the underreporting leptospirosis burden.⁴¹⁷ There are innumerable water stagnant ponds and shallow water that facilitate the survival and transmission of Leptospira to both maintenance hosts as well as dead-end hosts like humans.

Pathogenic Leptospira has been reported in 13.1% (61/465) of trapped rodents, and three Leptospira species have been identified as *L. interrogans*, *L. borgpetersenii*, and *L. kirschneri* using qPCR.⁴⁰⁷ Rodents act as a natural reservoir of Leptospira in their kidneys. They are capable of excreting Leptospira in and around food storage, and people can acquire Leptospira infection via direct or indirect contact with the urine of the infected rodents.

Table 35. Prevalence of Leptospirosis in humans and animals in Bangladesh										
S/ N	Districts/ Institutions/ Areas	Hosts	Health status of hosts	No. of samples tested	Test used MCAT No. (%)	with Leptosp MAT No. (%)	ira positive IgM LAT No. (%)	results IgM ELISA No. (%)	Nested PCR No. (%)	Ref No.
01	. CGH	Male-47	FP ²	001	-	-	-	01 (ICT)	-	401
02	. Comilla	Rodents	Wild	465	-	-	-	-	61 (13.1)	407
03.	FPD	Humans	FP & HP	089	$34+22\pm$	34/53 (64.15)!	-	-	-	415
04	. DMC & HFRCH	Humans	DFS	359	-	-	-	18/61 (29.51)	63 (18.00)	416
05	. Dhaka	Humans	FP	584	-	49 (8.4)	-	62 (11.0)	-	417
06	. CMOSH	Male- 32	FP^1	001	-	-	-	01 (ICT)	-	418
07	. Chittagong	Dairy cows	5 -	110	-	-	-	52 (47.27)	-	419
08	. MMCH	Humans	FP	074	-	-	-	-	13 (17.6)!!	420
09	. MMCH	Humans	FP	182	-	-	-	89 (48.9)	65 (35.7) ^X	421
10	. Barishal	Dairy cattle	e-	240	-	-	-	00 (10.00)IC	Т-	423
11	. 4 Hospitals	Humans	FP	441	-	07 (01.6)!!	-	-	-	424
12	. MMCH	Humans	FP	186	-	-	71 (38.2)	69 (37.1)	78 (41.9)	425

MMCH = Mymensingh Medical College Hospital

DMC = Dhaka Medical College

HFRCH = Holy Family Red Crescent Hospital

CMOSH = Chattagram Maa-O-Shishu Hospital CGH = Chattagram Government Hospital 4 Hospitals = Sir Salimullah Medical College & Mitford Hospital, Dhaka; Osmani Medical College Hospital, Sylhet; Rajshahi Medical College Hospital, Rajshahi and Government District Hospital, Feni.

N-CBD = North-Central Bangladesh

ICT = Immunochromatographic test

FP = Febrile patients HP = Healthy persons

DFS = Dengue fever surveillance

FP clinical case with high fever, icterus, hemorrhagic manifestation, and pulmonary-renal involvement

²FP clinical case of co-infection with leptospirosis and SARS-CoV-2

MCAT = Microscopic agglutination test $H = Positive \pm Doubtful$

^XLeptospira 16S ribosomal RNA gene identified Y with *L. wolffii* (93.0%)

!Serovars copenhageni, australis, cynopteri and Icterohaemorrhagiae most prevalent !!Leptospira interrogans serovar Copenhageni and L. wolffit detected

!!Serovars L. interrogans serovar Bratislava (57.0%), others serovars Canicola, Mankarso & Tarrasovi (14.0) each

Seroprevalence of *L. interrogans serovar Hardjo* has been detected in 47.27% (52/110) commercial dairy cattle by ELISA, which confirms the presence of leptospirosis in Bangladesh's animal population.⁴¹⁹ Recently, the prevalence of Leptospira infection has been reported in 48.9% of blood samples from 182 febrile patients in north-central Bangladesh. Most of the detected Leptospira have been classified as *L. wolffii* (93.0%) based on phylogenetic analysis of 16S ribosomal RNA genes, while others were assigned to *L. borgpetersenii* and *L. meyeri*.⁴²²

More recently, pathological and molecular (PCR) detection of bacterial zoonotic diseases of slaughtered cattle in Bangladesh showed that out of 50 cattle tested, 5 (10.0%) were affected with leptospirosis caused by *L. interrogans serovar Hardjoprajitno* isolate from the mesenteric lymph nodes in cattle.³⁸

In another serological study, an overall prevalence of Leptospira infection has been reported to be 10.0% (24/240) using a rapid test (Genomix Vovine Leptospira Ab Rapid Detection Kit) in dairy cattle in Barishal district. Laboratory diagnosis of leptospirosis is mainly based on different approaches including (a) Bacteriologic (isolation, animal inoculation), (b) Microscopic (dark field microscopy, immunohistochemical staining, immunofluorescence, silver impregnation techniques), (c) Immunologic (microscopic agglutination test (MAT), ELISA, indirect haemagglutination test, lepto dipstick, lepto lateral flow, lepto dri-dot) and (d) Molecular (PCR, in situ hybridization). Immunologic and molecular tests have been used to detect leptospirosis in Bangladesh; however, bacteriologic and microscopic methods could be explored to diagnose leptospirosis in Bangladesh. A review of the published reports on leptospirosis in Bangladesh shows that leptospirosis is an endemic zoonotic disease of humans and animals, more critical in dairy cattle, predominantly female crossbred cows. However, leptospirosis remains vastly underestimated, underreported (neglected) in developing countries, including Bangladesh, primarily due to variability of clinical features, some similar clinical signs, and concurrent infections with other diseases like dengue, malaria and the limited or unavailability of appropriate laboratory diagnostic facilities and poor understanding of the disease status in both human and animal populations. In addition, this infection is maintained within the population through interactions between humans, animals, and the environment (Fig. 9).

Pathogenic Leptospira organisms are usually transmitted through direct or indirect contact. Direct transmission occurs when a susceptible human's mucous membrane encounters pathogen-contaminated urine, tissues, and any organs of infected animals, often by skin contact with contaminated water or soil. Indirect transmission occurs when humans encounter a contaminated environment, such as soil and water. The transmission of pathogenic Leptospira is mainly driven by rainfall, domestic and wildlife close contact, and farming in rural areas. In contrast, in urban settings, transmission among humans is primarily perpetuated by rodent infestation, poor hygiene, and overcrowding in developing countries. Natural disasters like heavy rainfall and flooding have also been associated with leptospirosis outbreaks among humans globally.⁴⁰⁹

Among animals, Leptospira transmission occurs either directly through a susceptible animal getting into contact with infected urine or body fluids of another infected animal or indirectly through contact with contaminated water, vegetation, or soil. Rodents are associated with massive outbreaks of leptospirosis in animal populations like humans in urban areas. In contrast, in rural areas, outbreaks are commonly linked to animal breeding practices and extreme seasonal factors such as heavy rains and flooding.

Bangladesh has a suitable environment and conditions for Leptospira survival and breeding, which includes

a long monsoon, frequent flooding, stagnant water, high temperatures, high humidity, and regular animalhuman contact for zoonotic transmission. However, a specialized reference laboratory for Leptospira research is lacking in Bangladesh. It is required to detect the status of Leptospira in humans, domestic animals, and rodent populations and their transmission for prevention and control.

Acute leptospirosis should be suspected based on the sudden onset of agalactia in adult milking cattle and sheep, icterus and hemoglobinuria, especially in young animals, acute renal failure, or dog jaundice. Chronic leptospirosis should be considered when abortion, stillbirth, birth of weak offspring may be premature and infertility, chronic renal failure or chronic active hepatitis in dogs, and cases of periodic ophthalmia in horses.

Leptospirosis is a classic 'one health' disease of humans and animals caused by pathogenic spirochetes of the genus Leptospira. A thorough knowledge of epidemiology and risk factors, including transmission mechanisms, animal reservoir hosts, environmental sources of the causative agent and climatic factors that influence transmission, and the impact of human occupation and recreational behavior patterns, are required for surveillance and prevention of the disease.

Leptospirosis is endemic in Bangladesh, and this review highlighted the need to perform surveillance studies on both the clinical and reservoir (carrier) status of leptospirosis in humans, animals, and the environment in different problematic areas for prevention strategies and improving diagnosis and early treatment. All these epitomize the necessity of coordinated leptospirosis surveillance in Bangladesh.

Antimicrobials are life-saving drugs, but increasing resistance levels compromise their effectiveness in nearly all bacterial infections in people, food animals, and poultry birds. Similar antimicrobials are used in both human and veterinary medicine. Highly resistant trends against several antibiotics have been identified, including cloxacillin, ampicillin, metronidazole, oxacillin, amoxicillin, tetracycline, cotrimoxazole, and penicillin. Heat map analysis showed that nine antimicrobial agents, metronidazole, amoxicillin, tetracycline, cotrimoxazole, cephradine, penicillin, ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, and nalidixic acid, reported to be associated with public health risk due to growing bacterial resistance.

Antimicrobial use in food animals selects for antimicrobial resistance in bacteria, which can spread to people. Reducing the use of antimicrobials- particularly those deemed to be critically important for human medicine- in food production for animals and poultry birds continues to be an essential step in preserving the benefits of these antimicrobials for people. Antimicrobials considered the highest priority among the critically important antimicrobials were quinolones, third and fourth-generation cephalosporins, macrolides and ketolides, and glycopeptides. The updated ranking allows stakeholders in the livestock sector and regulatory agencies to focus risk management efforts on drugs used in food animals and poultry birds that are the most important to human medicine.⁴²⁶

Multidrug resistance status in Bangladesh

Multidrug resistance (MDR) bacteria are frequently detected in humans and livestock, including poultry globally, and are associated with serious health concerns for humans and animals. MDR bacteria have been detected in livestock products, including meat, eggs, and other fresh products. Humans may be exposed to MDR bacteria from contaminated environments at healthcare facilities and farms, livestock and companion animals and birds, human food, and exposure to other individuals carrying MDR bacteria. MDR bacteria on animal source food may have originated in veterinary health care settings and antibiotic-added feed supplements as growth promoters in livestock production. Fresh produce may be contaminated by irrigation or wash water containing MDR bacteria. Food handlers, farmers, and livestock caretakers who carry MDR bacteria may contaminate livestock, fruits, and vegetables. Infection caused by MDR bacteria may increase morbidity and mortality and require the use of expensive drugs and prolonged hospitalization.⁴²⁷
Antimicrobials are usually used for prevention and treatment and serve as growth promoters in livestock. Similar antibiotics are indiscriminately used in both humans and livestock. These antibiotics can remain in the food chain of animal origin and help develop resistant bacteria that provide an enabling environment for transmitting resistance factors. Out of 179 isolates of *E. coli*, *Salmonella* spp., and *S. aureus* were tested, of which 89 isolates were recorded as MDR and 68 as XD.⁴²⁸ Multidrug resistance (MDR) was reported in 93.2% of *E. coli*, 100% of *Salmonella* spp., and 97.2% of *Staphylococcus aureus* from cloacal swab samples. In contrast, sewage samples isolated 80.0% *E. coli* and 100% of *Salmonella* spp. and *S. aureus* showed MDR.⁴²⁹

Poultry eggs, meat, and feces have been reported to be highly contaminated with MDR bacteria.²⁹⁵ Therefore, strict hygienic measures should be followed when handling and processing these poultry products, and vigorous legislation and monitoring systems would be required to produce quality poultry products for human consumption.

All potential sources of MDR bacteria should be considered, and strategies should be devised to reduce their presence in foods. Better coordination of surveillance programs and strategies for controlling the use of antibacterial drugs need to be implemented in human and veterinary medicine, agriculture, countries, and globally. Effective biosecurity measures, responsible antibiotic use, and strict regulations in poultry production can prevent antibiotic resistance.

Challenges of controlling zoonotic diseases

Human activities associated with accelerated globalization include population growth, intensified farming practices, trade-in domesticated and wild animals, and environmental degradation, including climate change, deforestation, and habitat destruction. Those activities have intensified the wild and domesticated animal-human interface, creating increased spillover risks.¹³ Most outbreaks of zoonotic diseases have occurred in rural areas, and the detection and diagnosis of the disease have been considerably delayed due to a lack of appropriate diagnostic laboratory facilities on-site or in-country. The primary limitations in managing zoonotic diseases in medium and low-income countries, including Bangladesh, have been reported as:

① Organizational: (a) Absence of appropriate infrastructure, including cross-link within the health sector between the surveillance, clinical services, and laboratory services departments; (b) Weakness or absence of collaboration and cooperation between the public health, veterinary, and wildlife sectors, and (c) poor awareness, insufficient information on the burden, inadequate resources and skilled manpower, and lack of transparency in the countries.

⁽²⁾ Diagnosis and detection: (a) Inadequate or absence of diagnostic capacities to detect zoonotic pathogens and weak disease surveillance system, (b) Difficulties in conducting field investigation in rural areas where most of the zoonotic disease outbreaks occur, (c) Difficulties in international transfer of samples for logistic and economic reasons, (d) Lack of integration and collaboration of human and veterinary sector for exchange of epidemiological and laboratory surveillance data, (e) Inadequate and non-professional community engagement in the zoonotic disease control program.

The clinical findings of some zoonotic diseases in humans are often like some diseases like COVID-19 or general flu, and physicians may not recognize the disease as a zoonosis, especially since medical practitioners may be less qualified to do so. The curriculum and syllabus of veterinary and medical education and training and practice systems differ, where veterinary education and practice are based on animals and birds. In contrast, medical education and practice are based on humans serving in separate organizations and departments. Medical physicians may treat human patients who are sick from a zoonotic disease. Still, they often do not know the source of the infection and how to prevent zoonotic diseases in animals, such as brucellosis, anthrax, etc. However, if these diseases are controlled in animals, humans would have no source

of infection. Thus, veterinary medical personnel are the best at preventing, controlling, and eradicating zoonotic diseases. However, some reverse zoonoses and pathogens may persist in the environment. Therefore, a collaborative, multisectoral, and transdisciplinary approach to the 'One Health' concept would be required to control zoonotic diseases.

One Health is a collaborative, multisectoral, and transdisciplinary approach at the local, regional, national, and global levels to achieve optimal health outcomes by recognizing the interconnection between people, animals, plants, and their shared environment.⁴³⁰ The 'One Health' issues include emerging, re-emerging, and endemic zoonotic diseases, neglected tropical diseases, vector-borne diseases, anti-microbial resistance, food safety and food security, environmental contamination, climate change, and other health threats shared by people, animals, and the environment (CDC 2024).⁴³⁰ The World Health Organization (WHO), the World Organization for Animal Health (WOAH/OIE), the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), and the UN Environment Program (UNEP have identified six areas to focus on 'One Health' concept, which include: ① Laboratory services, ② Control of zoonotic diseases, ③ Neglected tropical diseases, ④ Antimicrobial resistance, ⑤ Food Safety and ⑥ Environmental health.⁴³¹

A 'One Health' Secretariat was established in Bangladesh in 2016 and incorporates seven key components: ① Institutional governance and program management, ② Coordinated surveillance, ③ Coordinated outbreak investigation and response, ④ Transdisciplinary research, ⑤ Networking and partnerships, ⑥ Strategic communication and advocacy, and ⑦ Capacity building. Although Bangladesh has formulated a 'One Health' strategy, the implementation faces several challenges, including inadequate governance, insufficient institutional capacity, and a lack of funding and infrastructure.⁴³² The One Health concept calls for a collaborative, cross-sectoral, and transdisciplinary approach, integrating human, animal, and environmental health. Therefore, governments, international organizations, health professionals, and communities worldwide must embrace and incorporate the One Health approach to safeguard our planet's and its inhabitants' health.⁴³³

Strategic directions for control of zoonotic diseases

Three essential steps (strategy development, strategy implementation, and strategy evaluation) should be considered when developing a strategic plan for controlling and preventing zoonotic diseases. Crucial components of strategic planning include ① Determining the mission and vision, ② Analyzing the current condition of the health system, ③ Investing in the weaknesses, strengths, opportunities, and threats of zoonotic diseases, ④ Setting short-term and long-term goals, ⑤ Determining the required staff, equipment, and financial resources, and ⑥ Implementation of strategic planning.⁴³⁴

The most critical technical areas that will need to be considered will include the strategic approaches: (a) Building effective collaboration between veterinary and human health sectors, (b) Improving surveillance for early detection of disease threats in humans, (c) Strengthening laboratory diagnostic capacities for novel pathogens, (d) Improving case management and infection control, and (e) Integrating vector control management, (f) Reducing transmission through social and behavioral interventions, and (g) Developing epidemic preparedness and response capacities for emerging zoonotic diseases.

The sustainable program for the prevention and control of emerging and re-emerging zoonotic diseases will require consideration of some critical points, which include (a) Enhancing political commitment, national planning and coordination mechanisms, (b) Strengthening preparedness, surveillance, and response, (c) National capacity building and promoting research, (d) Enhancing regional and international cooperation and collaboration and (e) Health education, risk communication and social mobilization.

Despite this growth of scientific and political commitments to addressing the growing threat of zoonotic diseases, there is a persistent gap between pledges to advance integrated action, often under the One Health

banner, and practical implementation. The result is a continued focus on identifying and responding to zoonotic disease events but not engaging in primary prevention to stop them from happening in the first place.¹³

CONCLUSIONS

This review shows that numerous studies have been conducted on the prevalence and antibiogram status of primary zoonotic bacterial infection indiscriminately in Bangladesh under the research degree thesis program, research project, and even personal interest research. Government programs on feedback monitoring and surveillance systems have not yet been initiated either in human or veterinary medicine in Bangladesh; moreover, developed diagnostic laboratories, with adequate laboratory facilities and capabilities with trained manpower, would be required to tackle the occurrence of zoonotic bacterial diseases and their antibacterial resistance. The premise for a strategic framework for the control of zoonotic infections should lie in the concept of the 'One Health' approach, which is a common coordination mechanism, joint planning, joint implementation, community participation, capacity building, and joint monitoring and evaluation framework between the animal health and human health sector. The 'One Health' approach also identifies five key areas where 'One Health' is likely to make a difference, which include (a) Sharing health resources between medical and veterinary sectors, (b) Controlling zoonotic diseases in animal reservoirs, (c) Early detection of and response to emerging diseases, (d) Prevention of epidemics and pandemics, and (e) Generating insights and adding value to health research and development.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to thank Dr. Manar D Samad, Associate Professor, Department of Computer Science, Tennessee State University, USA, for preparing bar diagrams of antibiotic resistance data and providing the professional Grammarly checker with some support and solutions to computer problems, which have helped me to complete this manuscript correctly.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

Reviews do not need any ethical approvals or informed consent.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The author declares no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

- 01. Cleaveland S, Laurensen MK and Taylor LH (2001). Diseases of humans and their domestic mammals: pathogen characteristics, host range and the risk of emergence. *Philosophical Transactions of Royal Society B Biological Sciences* 356 (1411): 983-989 [doi: 10.1098/rstb.2001.0889]
- 02. Jones KE, Patel NG, Levy MA, Storeygard A, Balk D, Gittleman JL and Daszak P (2008). Global trends in emerging infectious Diseases. *Nature* 451, 990-993 [doi: 10.1038/nature06536]
- 03. Grace D, Gilbert J, Randolph T and Kang'ethe E (2012). The multiple burdens of zoonotic disease and an eco-health approach to their assessment. *Tropical Animal Health and Production* 44: 67-73 [doi: 10.1007/s11250-012-0209-y]
- 04. Asante J, Noreddin A and El Zowalaty ME (2019). Systematic review of important bacterial zoonoses in Africa in the last decade in light of the 'One Health' concept. *Pathogens* 8 (2): 50 [doi: 10.3390/pathogens8020050]

- 05. Cantas L and Suer K (2014). Review: The importance of bacterial zoonoses in 'One Health' concept. *Frontier Public Health* 2: 144 [doi: 10.3389/fpubh,2014.00144]
- 06. Holmes AH, Moore LS, Sundsfijord A, Steinbakk M, Regmi S, Karkey A, Guerin PJ and Piddock LJ (2016). Understanding the mechanisms and drivers of antimicrobial resistance. *Lancet* 387, 176-187 [doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736915)00473-0]
- 07. Laxminarayan R, Duse A, Wattal C, Zaidi AK, Wertheim HF, Sumpradit N, Vileghe E, Hara GL, Gould IM and Goossens H (2013). Antibiotic resistance- the need for global solutions. *Lancet Infectious Diseases* 13: 1057-1098 [doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(13)70318-9]
- Samad MA (2011). Public health threat caused by zoonotic diseases in Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine 9 (2): 95-120 [doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v9i2.13451]
- 09. Anon. (2017). Workshop Summary: One Health zoonotic disease prioritization for multisectoral engagement in Bangladesh. cdc.gov/one-health/media/pdfs/Bangladesh-508.pdf
- Rahman MT, Sobur MA, Islam MS, Levy S, Hossain MJ, El Zowalaty ME, Rahman AMMT and Ashour HM (2020). Zoonotic diseases: Etiology, impact and control. *Microorganisms* 8 (9): 1405 [doi: 10.3390/microorganisms8091405]
- 11. Chowdhury S, Aleem MA, Khan MSI, Hossain ME, Ghosh S and Rahman MZ (2021). Major zoonotic diseases of public health importance in Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 7: 1199-1210 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.465]
- 12. OMS (2024). Zoonotic disease: emerging public health threats in the region. Organisation mondiale de la Sante (OMS). emro.who.int/fr/about-who/rc61/zoonotic-diseases.html
- 13. Lee K (2023). The global governance of emerging zoonotic diseases. cfr.org/report/global-governance-of- emergingzoonotic-diseases
- 14. Woolhouse ME, Haydon DT and Antia R (2005). Emerging pathogens: the epidemiology and evaluation of species jumps. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 20 (5): 238-244 [doi: 10.1016/j.tree.2005.02.009]
- Bulstra CA, Blok DJ, Alam K, Butlin CR, Roy JC, Bowers B, Nicholls P, de Vlas SJ and Richardus JH (2021). Geospatial epidemiology of leprosy in northwest Bangladesh: a 20-year retrospective observational study. *Infectious Diseases of Poverty* 10, 36 (2021) [doi: 10.1186/s40249-021-00817-4]
- Mahmud MM, Kabir A, Hossain MZ, Aim SJ, Yeva IJ, Khatun M, Rahman MS, Dey MM and Nazir KHMNH (2023). First report of *Aliarcobacter cryaerophilus* in ready-to-cook chicken meat samples from super-shops in Bangladesh. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research* 10(1): 113-117 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2023.j659]
- 17. Hassan MZ, Uddin MN and Ahsan HMN (2015). Pulmonary actinomycosis affecting chest wall: a case report. *Bangladesh Journal of Medical Science* 14 (4): 417-419 [doi: 10.3329/bjms.v14i4.21583]
- 18. Samad MA (2019). A 50-year review on the prevalence of clinical diseases and disorders of cattle in Bangladesh. Journal of Veterinary Medical and One Health Research 1(1): 1-16
- 19. Rahman MH, Akther S, Ali MZ and Hassan MZ (2020). Incidence of diseases in goats in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Veterinarian* 37(1-2): 14-20

- Islam SS, Hoque N, Akhter AHMT, Castellan DM, Samosornsuk S, Samosornsuk W and Kabir SML (2023). Burden of campylobacteriosis in Bangladesh: challenges and opportunities. *Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research* 9(2): 38-50 [doi: 10.3329/ajmbr.v9i2.66775]
- Hoque N, Islam SS, Saddam MJI, Rafikuzzaman M, Sikder MH, Castellan DM and Kabir SML (2023). Investigation
 of *Campylobacter fetus* in breeding bulls of private farms in Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 9: 417-428
 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.831]
- 22. Sofjan AK, Islam MA, Halder K, Kabir ND, Saleh AA, Miranda J, Lancaster C, Begum K, Alam MJ and Garey KW (2019). Molecular epidemiology of toxigenic *Clostridioides difficile* isolates from hospitalized patients and the hospital environment in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *Anaerobe* 61: 102081 [doi: 10.1016/j.anaerobe.2019.102081]
- 23. Eisenberg N, Panunzi I, Wolz A, Burzio C, Cilliers A, Islam MA, Noor WM, Jalon O, Jannat-Khah D and Cuesta JG (2021). Diphtheria antitoxin administration, outcomes, and safety: response to a diphtheria outbreak in Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 73 (7): e1713-e1718 [doi: 10.1093/cid/ciaa1718]
- Tanni NN, Ahmed S, Anwar S, Kismat S, Rahman MM, Miah MAR (2022). Detection of *Helicobacter pylori* and its antimicrobial susceptibility pattern from gastric biopsy specimens. *Bangladesh Medical Research Council Bulletin* 48: 3-9 [doi: 10.3329/bmrcb.v48i1.60654]RM
- 25. Das R, Nasrin S, Palit P, Sobi RA, Sultana A, Khan SH, Haque MA, Nizhat S, Ahmed T, Faruque ASG and Chisti MJ (2023). Vibrio cholerae in rural and urban Bangladesh, findings from hospital-based surveillance, 2000-2021. *Scientific Reports* 13, 6411 [doi: 10.1038/s41598-023-33576-3]
- Card RM, Chisnall T, Begum R, Sarker MS, Hossain MS, Sagor MS, Mahmud MA, Uddin ASMA, Karim MR, Lindahl JF and Samad MA (2023). Multidrug-resistant non-typhoidal Salmonella of public health significance recovered from migratory birds in Bangladesh. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 14, 2023 [doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2023.1162657]
- Mohanta UK, Abdullah SM, AL-Wasef, Chikufenji B, Ma Z, Li H, El-Sayed SAE, Amer MM, Do TT, Islam S, Nath RC, Li Y, Shirafuji RU, Guo Q and Xuan X (2024). First molecular survey of tick-borne protozoan and bacterial pathogens in the questing tick population in Bangladesh. *Acta Tropica* 256, 107244 [doi: 10.1016/j.actatropica.2024.107244]
- 28. Samad MA (2000). An overview of livestock research reports published during the twentieth century in Bangladesh. Bangladesh Veterinary Journal 34: 53-149
- 29. Alam J and Rahman MT (2021). Prevalence of zoonotic diseases in Bangladesh. EBAUB Journal 3: 36-48
- Zinnah MA, Bari MR, Islam MT, Hossain MT, Rahman MT, Haque MT, Babu SAM, Ruma RP and Islam MA (2007). Characterization of Escherichia coli isolated from samples of different biological and environmental sources. Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine 5: 25-32
- 31. Zinnah MA, Haque MH, Islam MT, Hossain MT, Bari MR, Babu SAM, Rahman MT and Islam MA (2008). Drug sensitivity pattern of Escherichia coli isolated from samples of different biological and environmental sources. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 6: 13-18
- Alam MN, Kabir AKMA, Sakib MN, Salahuddin M and Azad MAK (2016). Impact of livestock rearing practices on public health and environmental issues in selected municipality areas of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Animal Science* 45: 44-51

- 33. Hossain ASS, Tarafder MMA, Hasan MN, Kabir AKMA and Azad MAK (2017). Garbage waste induced heavy metals on roaming cattle. *Bangladesh Journal of Animal Science* 46: 24-28
- 34. Kock R, Haider N, Mboera LEG and Zumla A (2019). A One Health lens for anthrax. *The Lancet* 3: 285-286 [doi: 10.1016/S2542-5196(19)30111-1]
- 35. Islam MA, Khatun MM, Were SR, Sriranganathan N and Boyle SM (2013). A review of Brucella seroprevalence among humans and animals in Bangladesh with special emphasis on epidemiology, risk factors and control opportunities. *Veterinary Microbiology* 166: 317-326 [doi: 10.1016/j.vetmic.2013.06.014]
- 36. Rahman MS, Sarker RR, Melzer F, Sprague LD and Beubauer H (2014). Brucellosis in human and domestic animals in Bangladesh: A Review. *African Journal of Microbiological Research* 8: 3580-3594 [doi: 10.5897/AJMR2014.7074]
- 37. Alam ME, Kamal MM, Rahman M, Kabir A, Islam MS and Hassan J (2022). Review of anthrax: A disease of farm animals. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research* 9: 323-334 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2022.i599]
- Sultana N, Pervin M, Sultana S, Mostaree M, Belal SMSH and Khan MAHNA (2022). Pathological investigation and molecular detection of bacterial zoonotic diseases of slaughtered cattle in Bangladesh. *Journal of Advanced Biotechnology and Experimental Therapy* 5(2): 257-268 [doi: 10.5455/jabet.2022.d113]
- 39. Islam SS, Sarker MS, Akhter AHMT, Shanta IS, Rahman AKMA and Sufian MA (2024). Animal, human and environmental perspectives on anthrax in Bangladesh. *Heliyon* 10: e23481 [doi: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e23481]
- 40. Goel AK (2015). Anthrax: A disease of biowarfare and public health importance. *World Journal of Clinical Cases* 3: 20-33 [doi: 10.12998/wjcc.v3.i1.20]
- 41. Halvorson HO (1997). Two generations of spore's research: from father to son. Microbiologia 13: 131-148
- 42. Rume FI, Antwerpen M, Braun P, Biswas PK, Yasmin M, Grass G, Ahsan CR and Hanczaruk M (2016). Genome sequence of *Bacillus anthracis* strain Tangail-1 from Bangladesh. *Genome Announcements* 4(4): e00748-16 [doi: 10.1128/genomeA.00748-16]
- 43. Fasanella A, Garofolo G, Hossain MJ, Shamsuddin M, Blackburn JK and Hugh-Jones M (2012). Bangladesh's anthrax outbreaks are probably caused by contaminated livestock feed. *Epidemiology and Infections CJO* 2012 [doi: 10.1017/S0950268812001227]
- Rume FI, Ahsan CR, Biswas PK, Yasmin M, Braun P, Walter MC, Antwerpen M, Grass G and Hanczaruk M (2016). Unexpected genomic relationships from Bangladesh and central Europe. *Infection, Genetics and Evolution* 45: 66-74 [doi: 10.1016/j.meegid.2016.08017]
- 45. Mohan RW and Ali SM (1948). Some aspects of anthrax in Bengal. Indian Journal of Veterinary Science 8,1
- 46. Samad MA and Haque ME (1986). Anthrax in man and cattle of Bangladesh. *Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 89:43-45
- 47. Islam MS, Hossain MJ, Mikolon A, Parveen S, Khan MSU, Haider N, Chakraborty A, Titu AMN, Rahman MW, Sazzad HMS, Rahman M, Gurley ES and Luby SP (2013). Risk practices for animal and human anthrax in Bangladesh: an exploratory study. *Infection Ecology and Epidemiology* 3 (1): 21356 [doi.org/10.3402/iee.v3i0.21356]

- 48. Islam SKS. Chakma S, Akhter AHMT, Ibrahim N, Talukder F and Chowdhury GA (2018). Investigation of animal anthrax outbreaks in the human-animal interface at risky districts of Bangladesh during 2016-2017. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research* 5: 397-404 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2018.e290]
- Islam SS, Castellan DM, Akhter AHMT, Hossain MM and Hasan MZ (2016). Animal anthrax in Sirajgonj district of Bangladesh from 2010 to 2012. Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research 1: 387-395 [doi: 10.3329/ajmbr.v1i3.26444]
- 50. Islam SKS, Castellan DM, Akhter AHMT, Hossain MM and Hasan MZ (2015). Animal anthrax in Sirajganj district of Bangladesh from 2010 to 2012. *Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research* 1: 387-395
- Galante D, Manzulli V, Serrecchia L, Taranto PD, Hugh-Jones M, Hossain MJ, Rondinone V, Cipolletta D, Pace L, Latarola M, Tolve F, Aceti A, Poppa E and Fasanella A (2021). Investigation of anthrax in Bangladesh during the outbreaks of 2011 and definition of the epidemiological correlations. *Pathogens* 10(4), 481 [doi: 10.3390/pathogens10040481]
- 52. Biswas PK, Islam MZ, Shil SK, Chakraborty RK, Ahmed SSU and Christensen JP (2012). Risk factors associated with anthrax in cattle on smallholdings. *Epidemiology and Infection* 140: 1888-1895 [doi: 10.1017/S0950268811002408]
- 53. Dutta PK, Biswas H, Ahmed JU, Shakif-Ul-Azam M, Ahammed BMJ and Dey AR (2021). Knowledge, attitude and practices (KAP) towards anthrax among livestock farmers in selected rural areas of Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 7: 1648-1655 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.561]
- 54. Rahman MM, Hossain MS, Haque MS, Nabi MR, Morshed MG and Ahsan GU (2020). Knowledge and attitude towards anthrax belt Sirajgonj district in Bangladesh. *Journal of Veterinary Medical and One Health Research* 2: 417-
- Chakraborty A, Uddin SU, Hasnat MA, Parveen S, Islam MS, Mikolon A, Chakraborty RK, Ahmed BN, Ara K, Haider N, Zaki SR, Hoffmaster AR, Rhaman M, Luby SP and Hossain MJ (2012). Anthrax outbreaks in Bangladesh, 2009-2010. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 86: 703-710 [doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.2012.11-0234]
- Siddiqui MA, Khan MAH, Ahmed SS, Anwar KS, Akhtaruzzaman SM and Salam MA (2012). Recent outbreak of cutaneous anthrax in Bangladesh: Clinico-demographic profile and treatment outcome of cases attended at Rajshahi Medical College Hospital. *BMC Research Notes* 5, 464 (doi: 10.1186/1756-0500-5-464)
- 57. IEDCR (2018). List of outbreak investigations done by IEDCR in 2007-2018. https://old.iedcr.gov.bd/index.php/outbreak
- 58. Mustafa AHM (1984). Isolation of anthrax bacillus from an elephant in Bangladesh. *Veterinary Record* 114: 59 [doi: 10.1136/vr.114.24.590]
- 59. Rume FI, Karim MR, Biswas PK, Yasmin M and Ahsan CR (2020). Climate change and its influence on the occurrence and distribution of anthrax in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases* 101: 441 [doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2020.09.1078]
- 60. Mondal SP and Yamage M (2014). A retrospective study on the epidemiology of anthrax, foot and mouth disease, hemorrhagic septicemia, peste des petits ruminants, and rabies in Bangladesh. *PLoS ONE* 9, e104435 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0104435]

- 61. Islam MS, Hasan SMM, Salzer JS, Kadzik M, Haque F, Haider N, Hossain MB, Islam MA, Rahman M, Kennedy E and Gurley ES (2021). Human exposures to by-products from animals suspected to have died of anthrax in Bangladesh: an exploratory study. *Transboundary Emerging Diseases* 68: 2514-2520 [doi: 10.1111/tbed.13921]
- 62. ICDDR'B (2011). Recurrent animal and human anthrax outbreaks in Bangladesh: Improved vaccination strategies needed. *Health Science Bulletin* 9: 8-14
- 63. Haque MA, Khan MMR, Sharmin LS, Alam KMF, Rahman MK and Alam MS (2018). Cutaneous anthrax outbreak in Rajshahi district. *Journal of Teacher Association* 30: 17-20 [doi: 10.3329/taj.v30i139116]
- 64. Talukder F, Sabrina M, Sultana R and Sazzad M (2018). Outbreak of cutaneous anthrax in Kalukhali Upazilla, Rajbari district, Bangladesh. *Proceedings* 4(1): e10644 [doi: 10.2196/10644]
- 65. IEDCR (2023). List of outbreak investigations done by IEDCR in 2023. https://iedcr.portal.gov.bd/site/page/ 4494f85a-83ea-483f-b1da-fb5938c20a07
- 66. IEDCR (2024). List of outbreak investigations done by IEDCR in 2024. https://iedcr.portal.gov.bd/site/ page/47613e07-e5f1-4b70-b40f-69fc5238f3a6
- 67. Sarker MSA, Shahid MAH, Hoque MN, Sarker MA, Rahman MB and Islam SS (2021). Rich mapping: Be a supplementary approach for anthrax control at the community level. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary Research* 11: 41-46
- Ahsan MM, Khan MFR, Rahman MB, Hassan J, Chowdhury SMZH, Parvez MS, Jahan M and Nazir KHMNH (2013). Investigation into Bacillus anthracis spore in soil and analysis of environmental parameters related to repeated anthrax outbreak in Sirajgonj, Bangladesh. *Thailand Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 43: 449-454 [doi: 10.56808/2985-1130.2505]
- 69. Islam M, Mahmud M, Yesmin S, Islam M, Sarker M and Nazir K (2017). Risk factors assessment of zoonotic anthrax among the people at risk (PAR) in selected areas of Bangladesh. *Asian Journal of Medicine and Health* 4: 1-7 [doi: 10.9734/AJMAH/2017/32369]
- 70. Rume FI, Karim MR, Ahsan CR, Yasmin M and Biswas PK (2020). Risk factors for bovine anthrax in Bangladesh, 2010-2014; a case-control study. *Epidemiology and Infection* 148: e67 [doi: 10.1017/S0950268820000576]
- Sarker MSA, El Zowalaty ME, Shahid MAH, Sarker MA, Rahman MB, Jarhult JD and Nazir KHMNH (2020). Maximization of livestock anthrax vaccination coverage in Bangladesh: an alternative approach. *Vaccines* 8 (3), 435 [doi: 10.3390/vaccines8030435]
- 72. Nazir KHMNH and Islam MA (2020). Knowledge and awareness of anthrax among the community people at high, medium and low-risk areas of Bangladesh. *Emerging Research in Medical Sciences* 3: 41-48
- 73. Karim MR, Samad MA, Ali MZ, Rahman MH, Hassan MZ, Yousuf MA, Kabir MH, Swapnil AM and Giasuddin M (2020). Attitude and perception toward anthrax among cattle owners in selected rural communities in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Livestock Research* 21-25: 168-172 [doi: 10.3329/bjlr.v0i0.45460]
- 74. Dipti M, Rashid MM, Ferdoush MJ, Roy P, Khan MAHNA and Hossain MM (2013). Morphological and immunological characterization of anthrax vaccine in cattle. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 11: 43-49 [doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v11i1.17732]

- Roy P, Rashid MM, Ferdoush MJ, Dipti M, Chowdhury MGA, Mostofa MG, Roy SK, Khan MAHNA and Hossain MM (2013). Biochemical and immunological characterization of anthrax spore vaccine in goat. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 11: 151-157 [doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v11i2.19140]
- Ahmed BN, Sultana Y, Fatema DSM, Ara K, Begum N, Mostanzid SM and Jubayer S (2010). Anthrax: an emerging zoonotic disease in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Medical Microbiology* 4 (1): 46-50 [doi: 10.3329/bjmm.v4i1. 8470]
- 77. IEDCR (2022). List of outbreak investigations done by IEDCR in 2022. https://old.iedcr.gov.bd/site/page/befc8b56-759c4550-9eda-ba8764d0ea5c
- 78. Hassan J, Ahsan MM, Rahman MB, Chowdhury SMZH, Parvej MS and Nazir KHMNH (2015). Factor associated with repeated outbreak of anthrax in Bangladesh: a qualitative and quantitative study. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research* 2: 158-164 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2015.b72]
- 79. Nazir KHMNH, Hassan J, Chowdhury SMZH and Rahman MB (2015). Novel multiplex-PCR for rapid detection of *Bacillus anthracis* spores present in soils of Sirajganj district in Bangladesh. *Progressive Agriculture* 26: 67-70
- Rume FI, Affuso A, Serrechia L, Rondinone V, Manzulli V, Campese E, Di Taranto P, Biswas PK, Ahsan CR, Yasmin M, Fasanella A and Hugh-Jones (2016). Genotype analysis of *Bacillus anthracis* strains circulating in Bangladesh. *PLoS ONE* 11(4): e0153548 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0153548]
- 81. WOAH (2024). Anthrax. https://www.woah.org/en/disease/anthrax/
- 82. Bengis RG and Frean J (2014). Anthrax as an example of the One Health concept. *Revue scientific Off. international Epizootics* 33(2): 593-604
- Sarker MS, Haque MA, Mahmud MM, Kabir A, Rahman MB, Sarker MA, Parvin R and Nazir KHMNH (2022). An integrated approach to developing an anthrax-free model area in Bangladesh. *Authorea* April 17, 2022 [doi: 10.2254/au.165022203.39713413/v1]
- 84. Spikler AR (2019). Zoonotic tuberculosis in mammals including bovine and caprine tuberculosis. cfsph.iastate.edu/Factsheets/pdf/bovine-tuberculosis.pdf
- 85. Anon. (2019). Zoonotic tuberculosis in mammals, including bovine and caprine tuberculosis. www.cfsph.iastate.edu
- Kock R, Michel AL, Yeboah-Manu D, Azhar EI, Torrelles JB, Cadmus SI, Brunton CL, Chakaya JM, Maris B, Mboera L, Rahim Z, Haider N and Zumla A (2021). Zoonotic tuberculosis- The changing landscape. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases* 113S: S68-S72 [doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2021.02.091]
- 87. Hossain MM, Islam MS, Kamal AHM, Rahman AKMA and Cho HS (2014). Dairy cattle mortality in an organized herd in Bangladesh. *Veterinary World* 7: 331-336 [doi: 10.14202/vetworld.2014.331-336]
- 88. Islam MM, Siddiqui MAR, Haque MA, Baki MA, Majumder S, Parrish JJ and Shamsuddin M (2007). Screening some major communicable diseases of AI bulls in Bangladesh. *Livestock Research Rural Development* 19: 1-9
- 89. Mahmud MAA, Belal SMSH and Shoshe NZ (2014). Prevalence of bovine tuberculosis in cattle in the selected upazila of Sirajgonj district in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 12: 141-145

- Islam SKS, Rumi TB, Kabir SML, van der Zanden AGM, Kapur V, Rahman AKMA, Ward MP, Bakker D, Ross AG and Rahim Z (2020). Bovine tuberculosis prevalence and risk factors in selected districts of Bangladesh. *PLoS ONE* 15(11): e0241717 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0241717]
- 91. Islam N, Khan MK, Khan MFR, Kostoulas P, Rahman AKMA and Alam MM (2021). Risk factors and true prevalence of bovine tuberculosis in Bangladesh. *PloS ONE* 16(2): e0247838 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0247838]
- Ingen JV, Rahim Z, Mulder A, Boeree MJ, Simeone R, Brosch R and Soolingen DV (2012). Characterization of Mycobacterium orygis as M. tuberculosis complex subspecies. Emerging Infectious Diseases 18: 653-655 [doi: 10.3201/eid1804.110888
- 93. Rahim Z, Thapa J, Fukushima Y, van der Zanden AGM, Gordon SV, Suzuki Y and Nakajima C (2016). Tuberculosis caused by *Mycobacterium orygis* in dairy cattle and captured monkeys in Bangladesh: a new scenario of tuberculosis in South Asia. *Transboundary and Emerging Diseases* 64: 1965-1969 [doi: 10.1111/tbed.12596]
- 94. LoBue PA, Enarson DA and Thoen CO (2010). Tuberculosis in humans and animals: an overview. *International Journal of Tuberculosis Lung Diseases* 14: 1075-1078
- 95. Grange JM and Yates MD (1994). Zoonotic aspects of *Mycobacterium bovis* infection. *Veterinary Microbiology* 40: 137-151 [doi: 10.1016/0378-1135(94)90052-3]
- 96. Robinson P, Morris D and Antic R (1988). Mycobacterium bovis as an occupational hazard in abattoir workers. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Medicine* 18: 701-703 [doi: 10.1111/j.1445-5994.1988.tb00156.x]
- Islam SS, Rumi TB, Kabir SML, Rahman AKMA, Faisal MMH, Islam R, van der Zanden AGM, Ward MP, Ross AG and Rahim Z (2021). Zoonotic tuberculosis knowledge and practices among cattle handlers in selected districts of Bangladesh. *PloS Neglected Tropical Diseases* 15(4): e0009394 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0009394]
- Sarker S, Haider N, Islam A, Hossain MB, Hossain K, Uddin MKM, Rahman A, Ahmed SSU, Rahim Z, Heffelfinger JD and Zeidner N (2023). Occurrence of tuberculosis among people exposed to cattle in Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 9: 1923-1933 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.1178]
- 99. WHO (2020). Global tuberculosis report 2023. https://www.who.int/teams/global-tuberculosis-programme/tb-reports/global-tuberculosis-report-2023
- 100. Numan A (2023). Report: 38,000 people die from TB every year in Bangladesh. https://www.dhakatribune.com/ 82bangladesh/313216/report-38-000-people-die-from-tb-every-year-in
- Joshi R, Reingold AL, Menzies D and Pai M (2006). Tuberculosis among health-care workers in low and middle-income countries: a systematic review. *PloS Medicine* 3(12): e494
- 102. Milian-Suazo F, Gonzalez-Ruizs, Contreras-Magallanes G andSosa-Gallegos SL (2022). Vaccination strategies in a potential use of the vaccine against bovine tuberculosis in infected herds. *Animals* 12 (23): 3372 [doi: 10.3390/ani12233377]
- 103. WOAH (2019). Bovine tuberculosis: global distribution and implementation of prevention and control measures according to WAHIS data. bulletin woach.org/?panorama=3-01-tb-wahis-en
- 104. Thermofisher (2023). Bovine tuberculosis. A continuing threat to cattle around the world. https://www.thermofisher. com/ blog/behindthebench/bovine-tuberculosis-a-continuing-threat-to-cattle-around-the-world/#

- 105. Muller B, Durr S, Alonso S, Hattendorf J, Laisse CJM, Parsons SDC, Van Helden PD and Zinsstag J (2013). Zoonotic Mycobacterium bovis-induced tuberculosis in humans. Emerging Infectious Diseases 19: 899-908 [doi: 10.3201/eid1906.120543]
- 106. Cosivi O, Grange JM, Daborn CJ, Raviglione MC, Fujikura T, Cousins D, Robinson RA, Huchzermeyer HFAK, Kantor IDE and Meslin FX (1998). Zoonotic tuberculosis due to *Mycobacterium bovis* in developing countries. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 4: 59-70
- 107. Pharo HJ, Motalib A, Routledge SF and Alam S (1981). The prevalence of bovine tuberculosis in the Bangladesh Cattle Development Project. *Bangladesh Veterinary Journal* 15: 53-56
- Samad MA and Rahman MS (1986). Incidence of bovine tuberculosis and its effects on certain blood indices in dairy cattle of Bangladesh. *Indian Journal of Dairy Science* 39: 231-234
- 109. WHO (2019). WAHIS interface: Country information: Bangladesh yearly current notifiable diseases.
- Jamal JB, Akter S and Uddin MA (2018). Microbiological quality determination of pasteurized, UHT and flavored milk sold in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *Stamford Journal of Microbiology* 8 (1): 1-6 [doi: 10.3329/sim.v8i1.42429]
- 111. Ameni G, Aseffa A, Engers H, Young D, Gordon S, Hewinson G and Vordermeier M (2007). High prevalence and increased severity of pathology of bovine tuberculosis in Holsteins compared to zebu breeds under field cattle husbandry in central Ethiopia. *Clinical and Vaccine Immunology* 14: 1356-1361 [doi: 10.1128/CVI.00205-07]
- 112. de la Rua-Domenech R, Goodchild AT, Vordermeier HM, Hewinson RG, Christiansen KH and Clifton-Haddey RS (2006). Antemortem diagnosis of tuberculosis in cattle: a review of the tuberculin tests, gamma-interferon assay and other ancillary diagnostic techniques. *Research in Veterinary Science* 81(2): 190-210 [doi: 10.1016/j.rvs.2005.11.005]
- 113. Mihret A, Bekele Y, Bobosha K, Kidd M, Aseffa A, Howe R and Walzl G (2019). Plasma cytokines and chemokines differentiate between active disease and non-active tuberculosis infection. *Journal of Infection* 66 (4): 357-365 [doi: 10.1016/j.jinf.2012.11.005]
- 114. Islam R, Islam SKS, Rumi TB, Mia Z and Rahim Z (2023). Enhancing bovine tuberculosis screening at Dhaka city in Bangladesh: Integrating gamma interferon blood test as ancillary testing with tuberculin skin test. *Veterinary Immunology and Immunopathology* 264: e110659 [doi: 10.1016/j.vetimm.2023.110659]
- 115. Rumi TB, Islam SS, Islam R, Faisal MMH, Kabir SML, Rahman AKMA and Rahim Z (2023). Gamma-interferon assay for the ancillary diagnosis of bovine tuberculosis in dairy cattle in urban and adjacent areas of Dhaka city. *Veterinary World* 16: 2120-2127
- 116. Nahar Q, Pervin M, Islam MT and Khan MAHN (2011). Application of PCR for the detection of bovine tuberculosis in cattle. *Journal of the Bangladesh Agricultural University* 9: 73-78
- 117. Rahman MM and Nazir KHMNH (2013). Prevalence of bovine and avian tuberculosis in sheep and goat population of Bangladesh. *Scientific Journal of Microbiology* 2: 1-18
- 118. Uddin ASMT, Akter MR, Khatun MN, Mannan MA, Rahman MM and Kabir SML (2014). Investigation of bovine tuberculosis in Rangpur division of Bangladesh. *Journal of Life Sciences Research* 1: 1-4

- Rahman MM, Noor M, Islam KM, Uddin MB, Hossain FMA, Zinnah MA, Mamun MA, Islam MR, Eo SK and Ashour HM (2015). Molecular diagnosis of bovine tuberculosis in bovine and human samples: implications for zoonosis. *Future Microbiology* 10: 527-535 [doi: 10.2217/fmb.14.139]
- 120. Biswas P, Rahman MB, Sharmy ST, Khan MFR, Rahman MM, Moniruzzaman M, Alam ME and Rahman MS (2017). Cross-sectional study of bovine and avian tuberculosis in Bangladesh Livestock Research Institute (BLRI) cattle farm. Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research 3: 352-356
- 121. Islam SKS, Rumi TB, Kabir SML, van der Zanden AGM, Kapur V, Rahman AKMA, Ward MP, Bakker D, Ross AG and Rahim Z (2020). Bovine tuberculosis prevalence and risk factors in selected districts of Bangladesh. *PLoS ONE* 16 (8): e0256042 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0241717]
- 122. Alam MM (2020). Molecular epidemiology of tuberculosis in animals and man in Bangladesh. Research and Review 2: 13-14 [file///C:/User/Asus/Downloads/molecular-epidemiology-of-tuberculosis-in-animalsand-man-in-bangladesh% 20(1).pdf
- 123. Omar A, Harun-ur-Rashid S, Ali M and Mohamed B (2021). Prevalence of bovine tuberculosis in sheep at Sadar and Parbatipur Upazila under Dinajpur district in Bangladesh. Open Journal of Veterinary Medicine 11: 315-326 [doi: 10.4236/ojvm.2021.1111022]
- 124. Islam MN, Khan MK, Khan MFR, Kostoulas P, Rahman AKMA and Alam MM (2021). Risk factors and true prevalence of bovine tuberculosis in Bangladesh. *PLoS ONE* 16 (2): e0247838
- 125. Rahman M, Rahman MA and Ahmed MS (2022). Bovine tuberculosis in buffaloes: Investigation of demographic variables and assessment of hemato-biochemical values at some selected coastal areas of Bhola district, Bangladesh. *Veterinary Research Notes* 2: 34-42 [doi: 10.5455/vrn.2022.b11]
- 126. Mandal PK, Ahsan MI, Apu HD, Akter S, Ahmed SSU and Paul S (2023). Very low prevalence of bovine tuberculosis in cattle in Sylhet district of Bangladesh. *Heliyon* 9: e22756 [doi: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e22756]
- 127. Hossain MB, Sayeed MA, Al Faruk MS, Khan MM, Rumi MA and Hoque MA (2023). Sero-epidemiology of bovine tuberculosis in dairy cattle in Chattogram, Bangladesh. *Turkish Journal of Veterinary Research* 7: 75-84
- Anne NS, Ronald BSM, Kumar TMAS, Kannan P and Thangavelu A (2017). Molecular identification of Mycobacterium tuberculosis in cattle. Veterinary Microbiology 198: 81-87 [doi: 10.1016/j.vetmic.2016.12.013]
- 129. van Soolingen D, de Haas PE, Haagsma J, Eger T, Hermans PWM, Ritacco V, Alito A and van Embden DA (1994). Use of various genetic markers in the differentiation of *Mycobacterium bovis* strains from animals and humans and for studying the epidemiology of bovine tuberculosis. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 32 (10): 2425-2433 [doi: 10.1128/jcm.3210.2425-2433.1994]
- van Ingen J, Rahim Z, Mulder A, Boeree MJ, Simeone R, Brosch R and van Soolingen D (2012). Characterization of *Mycobacterium orygis* as M. tuberculosis complex subspecies. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 18 (4): 653-655 [doi: 10.3201/eid1804.110888]
- 131. Thapa J, Nakajima C, Maharjan B, Poudell A and Suzuki Y (2015). Molecular characterization of Mycobacterium orygis isolates from wild animals of Nepal. *Japanese Journal of Veterinary Research* 63(3): 151-158 [doi: 10.14943/jjvr.63.3.151]

- 132. Thapa J, Paudel A, Sadaula S, Shah Y, Maharjan B, Kaufman GE, McCauley D, Gairhe KP, Tsubota T, Suzuki Y and Nakajima C (2016). *Mycobacterium orygis*: associated tuberculosis in free-ranging Rhinoceros, Nepal, 2015. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 22(3): 570-572 [doi: 10.3201/eid2203.151929]
- 133. Refaya AK, Kumar N, Raj D, Veerasamy M, Balaji S, Shanmugam S, Rajendran A, Tripathy SP, Swaminathan S, Peacock SJ and Palaniyandi K (2019). Whole-genome sequencing of a *Mycobacterium orygis* strain isolated from cattle in Chennai, India. *Microbiology Resource Announcements* 8(40): e01080-19 [doi: 10.1128/MRA.01080-19]
- 134. Sharma M, Mathesh K, Dandapat P, Mariappan AK, Kumar R, Kumari S, , Kapur V, Maan S, Jindal N, Bansal N, Kadiwar R, Kumar A, Gupta N, Pawde AM and Sharma AK (2023). Emergence of *Mycobacterium orygis* associated tuberculosis in wild ruminants, India. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 29 (3): 661-663 [doi: 10.3201/eid2903.221228]
- 135. Dawson KL, Bell A, Kawakami RP, Coley K, Yates G and Collins DM (2012). Transmission of *Mycobacterium orygis* (*M. tuberculosis* complex species) from tuberculosis patients to a dairy cow in New Zealand. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 50 (9): 3136-3138 [doi: 10.1128/JCM.01652-12]
- 136. Lavender CJ, Globan M, Kelly H, Brown LK, Sievers A, Fyfe JAM, Lauer T and Leslie DE (2013). Epidemiology and control of tuberculosis in Victoria, a low-burden state in south-eastern Australia, 2005-2010. *International Journal of Tuberculosis Lung Diseases* 17 (6): 752-758 [doi: 10.5588/ijtld.12.0791]
- 137. Marcos LA, Spitzer ED, Mahapatra R, Ma Y, Halse TA, Shea J, Isabelle M, Lapierre P and Escuyer VE (2017). *Mycobacterium orygis* lymphadenitis in New York, USA. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 23 (10): 1749-1751 [doi: 10.3201/eid2310.170490]
- 138. Lipworth S, Jajou R, de Neeling A, Brandley P, van der Hoek W, Maphalala, Bonnet M, Sanchez-Padilla E, Diel R, Niemann S, Iqbal Z, Smith G, Peto T, Crook D, Walker T and van Soolingen D (2019). SNP-IT tool for identifying subspecies and associated lineages of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 25(3): 482-488 [doi: 10.3201/eid2503.180894]
- Eldholm V, Ronning JO, Mengshoel AT and Arnesen T (2021). Import and transmission of *Mycobacterium orygis* and *Mycobacterium africanum*, Norway. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 21(1): Article No. 562 [doi: 10.1186/s12879-021-06269-3]
- 140. Sumanth LJ, Suresh CR, Venkatesan M, Manesh A, Behr MA, Kapur V and Michael JS (2023). Clinical features of human tuberculosis due to *Mycobacterium orygis* in Southern India. *Journal of Clinical Tuberculosis and Other Mycobacterial Diseases* 32: 100372 [doi: 10.1016/j.ictube.2023.100272]
- 141. Thapa J, Gordon SV, Nakajima C and Suzuki Y (2022). Threat from *Mycobacterium orygis*-associated tuberculosis in South Asia. *The Lancet* 3(9): E641-E642 [doi: 10.1016/S2666-5247(22)00149-5]
- 142. Swisher SD, Taetzsch SJ, Laughlin ME, Walker WL, Langer AJ, Thacker TC, Rinsky JL, Lehman KA, Taffe A, Burton N, Bravo DM, McDonald E, Brown CM and Pieracci EG (2024). Outbreak of Mycobacterium orygis in a shipment of Cynomolgus macaques imported from Southeast Asia- United States, February-May 2023. Morbidity and Mortality of Weekly Report, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 73 (7): 145-148
- 143. Chakraborty P, Pallab MS and Prodhan MAM (2015). Seroprevalence, associated risk factors and economic importance of bovine tuberculosis in Red Chittagong cattle in two selected Upazillas of Chittagong district, Bangladesh. Wayamba Journal of Animal Science 7: 1244-1253

- 144. Chakraborty P and Prodhan MAM (2020). Seroprevalence and risk factor assessment of bovine tuberculosis in crossbred cattle of Chattogram Metropolitan area, Bangladesh. *Traditional Modernity Veterinary Medicine* 5: 79-85
- 145. Mondal MAH, Parvin MS, Sarker SC, Rahman AKMA and Islam MT (2014). Prevalence and risk factors of bovine tuberculosis in cattle in Mymensingh Sadar. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 12: 179-183
- 146. Hossain MB, Khan MM, Rumi MA, Ahammed M and Bari MS (2018). Comparison of hemato-biochemical parameters between apparently healthy and bovine tuberculosis-affected cattle in Chittagong, Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine 16: 53-57
- Rahman MM and Samad MA (2008). Prevalence of bovine tuberculosis and its effects on milk production in Red Chittagong cattle. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 6: 175-178 [doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v6i2.2332]
- 148. Pal M, Zenebe N and Rahman MT (2014). The growing significance of *Mycobacterium bovis* in human health. *Microbes* and Health 3: 29-34
- 149. Huq F and Moyenuddin M (1984). Isolation and identification of Mycobacterium from patients with pulmonary tuberculosis, Bangladesh. *Medical Research Communication Bulletin* 10: 39-44
- 150. Yasmin A, Hossain MZ, Rima UK, Ruba T and Khan MAHNA (2017). Detection of specific causes of tuberculosis in the dairy cattle of Bangladesh Agricultural University by sequencing and sequence analysis. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 15 (1): 13-20
- Enaro WH (2020). A review on zoonotic importance of brucellosis. International Journal of Advanced Research in Biological Sciences 7 (9): 9-31 [doi: 10.22192/ijarbs.2020.07.09.002]
- 152. Rahman AKMA, Smit S, Devleesschauwer B, Kostoulas P, Abatih E, Saegerman C, Shamsuddin M, Berkvens D, Dhand NK and Ward MP (2019). Bayesian evaluation of three serological tests for diagnosing bovine brucellosis in Bangladesh. *Epidemiology and Infection* 147: e73 [doi: 10.1017/S0950268818003503]
- Rahman MA and Mia SA (1970). A study of brucellosis in Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Animal Science 3: 39-44
- 154. Ahmed JU, Alam MGS, Rahman MM and Hossain M (1992). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in indigenous zebu cows of Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Microbiology 9: 17-21
- 155. Amin KMR, Rahman MB, Kabir SML, Sarker SK and Akand MSI (2004). Serological epidemiology of brucellosis in cattle of Mymensingh districts of Bangladesh. *Journal of Animal and Veterinary Advances* 3: 898-900
- 156. Amin KMR, Rahman MB, Rahman MS, Han JC, Park JH and Chae JS (2005). Prevalence of Brucella antibodies in sera of cows in Bangladesh. *Journal of Veterinary Science* 6: 223-226
- 157. Sikder S, Rahman AKMA, Faruque MR, Alim MA, Das S, Gupta AD, Das BC, Uddin MI and Prodhan MAM (2012). Bovine brucellosis: an epidemiological study at Chittagong, Bangladesh. *Pakistan Veterinary Journal* 32 (4): 499-502
- 158. Nahar A and Ahmed MU (2009). Sero-prevalence of brucellosis in cattle and contact humans in Mymensingh district. Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine 7: 269-274

- 159. Rahman MS, Alam N, Rahman AKMA, Huque AKMF, Ahasan MS and Song HJ (2009). Seroprevalence of specific Brucella infection of cattle in Bangladesh Agricultural University Veterinary Clinics and its surrounding areas. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Services* 32: 219-225
- Rahman MS, Faruk MO, Her M, Kim JY, Kang SI and Jung SC (2011). Prevalence of brucellosis in ruminants in Bangladesh. *Veterinarni Medicina* 56: 379-385 [doi: 10.17221/1555-VETMED]
- 161. Rahman MS, Chakrabartty A, Islam MT, SarkerRR, Alam ME, Uddin MJ, Akther L and Song HJ (2012). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in cattle in selected areas of Bangladesh and comparison between Rose Bengal Test and I-ELISA used for the screening of brucellosis. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Services* 35: 133-137
- 162. Rahman MS, Her M, Kim JY, Kang SI, Lee K, Uddin MJ, Chakrabartty A and Jung SC (2012). Brucellosis among ruminants in some districts of Bangladesh using four conventional assays. *African Journal of Microbiology Research* 6: 4775-4781 [doi: 10.5897/AJMR12.475]
- 163. Rahman MS, Rahman MN, Islam M, Chakrabartty A, Sarker RR, Akhter L and Uddin MJ (2013). Prevalence and diagnostic test comparison of brucellosis in cattle of Pabna and Mymensingh districts of Bangladesh. *Pakistan Journal* of Scientific and Industrial Research, Series B, 56: 147-153
- 164. Islam MA, Akter L, Khatun MM and Islam MA (2013). Seroprevalence of brucellosis and its associated risk factors in bovine at greater Mymensingh district of Bangladesh. *Microbes and Health* 2(1): 12-14 [doi: 10.3329/mh.v2i1.17256]
- 165. Belal SMSH and Ansari ARMIH (2013). Seroprevalence of Brucella abortus antibodies in the cattle population in the selected upazilas of Sirajgonj district. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 11: 127-130
- 166. Dey SK, Rahman MS, Rima UK, Hossain MZ, Chowdhury GA, Parvin M, Habib MA and Khan MAHNA (2013). Serological and pathological investigation of brucellosis in dairy cows of Mymensingh district, Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine 11: 107-112
- 167. Maruf AA, Yasmin F, Yeasmin F, Alam MN, Rahman MM, Hasan MM, Alam M, Alam MR, Rahman AKMA and Rahman MS (2019). Assessment of haemato-biochemical and therapeutic responses of chronic brucellosis in crossbred dairy cows in Bangladesh. *Journal of Veterinary Medical and One Health Research* 1: 211-229 [doi: 10.36111/jvmohr.2019.1(2).0013]
- 168. Ahasan MS, Rahman MS and Song HJ (2010). A sero-surveillance of Brucella spp. antibodies and individual risk factors of infection in cattle in Bangladesh. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Services* 33: 121-128
- Nath ND, Ahmed SSU, Malakar V, Hussain T, Deb LC and Paul S (2023). Sero-prevalence and risk factors associated with brucellosis in dairy cattle of Sylhet district, Bangladesh: A cross-sectional study. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 9(3): 1349-1358 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.1100]
- 170. Islam MS, Rahman MF, Hossain MA and Jahan S (1992). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in cows sampled from six different areas of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Microbiology* 9: 75-77
- 171. Ahasan MS, Rahman MS, Rahman AKMA and Berkvens D (2017). Bovine and caprine brucellosis in Bangladesh: Bayesian evaluation of four serological tests, true prevalence and associated risk factors in household animals. *Tropical Animal Health and Production* 49: 1-11 [Doi: 10.1007/s11250-016-1151-1]

- 172. Hassan AA, Uddin MB, Islam MR, Cho HS and Hossain MM (2014). Serological prevalence of brucellosis of cattle in selected dairy farms in Bangladesh. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Research* 54: 239-243 [doi: 10.14405/kjvr.2014.54.4.239]
- 173. Islam S, Barua SR, Moni SP, Islam A, Rahman AKMA and Chowdhury S (2021). Seroprevalence and risk factors for bovine brucellosis in the Chittagong Metropolitan area of Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 7(1): 86-98 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.348]
- 174. Mustafa AHM (1984). Brucella antibodies in the sera of domestic livestock in Bangladesh. *Tropical Animal Health and Production* 16 (4): 212 [Doi: 10.1007/BF02265323]
- 175. Rahman MS, Huque MF, Ahasan MS and Song HJ (2010). Indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for the diagnosis of brucellosis in cattle. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Services* 33 (2): 113-119
- 176. Rahman MS, Sarker MAS, Rahman AKMA, Sarker RR, Melzer F, Sprague LD and Neubauer H (2014). The prevalence of *Brucella abortus* DNA in seropositive bovine sera in Bangladesh. *African Journal of Microbiology Research* 8(48): 3856-3860 [doi: 10.5897/AJMR2014.6031]
- 177. Rahman MS, Hasan MM, Rahman AKMA, Ahmed BS, Neubauer H, Islam SMN, Rahman MM and Islam SMS (2022). Detection of *Brucella abortus* in dairy cattle of Bangladesh by PCR and multilocus phylogenetic analysis. *Journal of Agricultural Innovation Development* 1(2): 11-18
- 178. Sarker MAS, Rahman MS, Islam MT, Rahman AKMA, Rahman MB and Rahman MF (2014). Prevalence of brucellosis in dairy cattle in organized and smallholder farms in some selected areas of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 12: 167-171
- 179. Sarker MAS, Begum MM, Rahman MF, Islam MT, Rahman MA, Yasmin L, Ehsan MA and Rahman MS (2018). Conventional PCR-based detection of Brucella abortus infected cattle in some selected areas of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 16: 39-44
- 180. Sarker MAS, Sarker RR, Begum MM, Shafy NM, Islam MT, Ehsan MA, Bhattacharjee PK, Rahman MF, Melzer F, Neubauer H and Rahman MS (2016). Seroprevalence and molecular diagnosis of *Brucella abortus* and *Brucella melitensis* in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 14 (2): 221-226
- 181. Tithy NS, Islam SMS, Hussaini SMAK, Sharmy ST, Maruf A, Yeasmin F, Das AC, Rahman MM, Hasan MM, Chakrabarty A, Rahman AKMA, Mokbul MI and Rahman MS (2022). Prevalence and associated risk factors of bovine brucellosis in smallholder dairy cows of Mymensingh district in Bangladesh. *Journal of Veterinary Medical and One Health Research* 4: 115-124 [doi: 10.36111/jvmohr2022.4(2).0034]
- 182. Pharo HJ, Motalib A, Alam S, Fraser GC and Routledge SF (1981). Preliminary information on the prevalence of bovine brucellosis in the Pabna milk shed area of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Veterinary Journal* 15: 43-51
- 183. Rahman MM and Rahman MS (1982). Study on the prevalence of brucellosis in cows in organized farms and domestic holdings in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Veterinary Journal* 16: 53-58
- 184. Rahman M, Ahsan MD, Das GC and Rahman MS (2014). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in buffaloes in Bagerhat and Mymensingh district, Bangladesh. *International Journal of Natural and Social Sciences* 1: 75-80
- 185. Rahman MA, Islam MS, Alam MGS and Shamsuddin M (1997). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in the buffalo (Bubalus bubalis) of a selected area in Bangladesh. *Buffalo Journal* 2: 209-214

- 186. Mia AS and Islam H (1967). A preliminary study on the incidence of bovine infertility and the economic loss caused by it. *Pakistan Journal of Veterinary Science* 1: 5-10
- 187. Sabra A, Masry B and Shaib H (2021). A review of brucellosis: A recent major outbreak in Lebanon. Journal of Environmental Science and Public Health 5: 56-76.
- 188. ICDDR'B (2023). Brucellosis outbreak sparks concern among health officials. icddrb.org/news-and-event/pressreleases?id=163&task=view
- 189. Rahman AKMA, Dirk B, Fretin D, Saegerman C, Ahmed MU, Muhammad N, Hossain A and Abatih E (2012). Seroprevalence and risk factors for brucellosis in a high-risk group of individuals in Bangladesh. *Foodborne Pathogens and Disease* 9: 190-197 [doi: 10.1089/fpd.2011.1029]
- 190. Rahman AKMA, Berkvens D, Saegeman C, Fretin D, Muhammad N, Hossain A and Abatih E (2016). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in patients with prolonged fever in Bangladesh. *Journal of Infection in Developing Countries* 10: 939-946 [doi: 10.3855/jidc.6844]
- 191. Rahman AKMA, Saegerman C, Berkvens D, Melzer H, Neubauer H, Fretin D, Abatih E, Dhand N and Ward MP (2017). Brucella abortus is prevalent in both humans and animals in Bangladesh. Zoonoses and Public Health 64: 394-399 [doi: 10.1111/zph.12344]
- 192. Islam MS, Islam MA, Rahman MM, Islam K, Islam MM, Kamal MM and Islam MN (2023). Presence of Brucella spp. in milk and dairy products: A comprehensive review and its perspectives. *Journal of Food Quality*. Article ID 2932883 [doi: 10.1155/2023/2932883]
- 193. Muhammad N, Hossain MA, Musa AK, Mahmud MC, Paul SK, Rahman MA, Haque N, Islam MT, Parvin US, Khan SI, Nasreen SA and Mahmud NU (2010). Seroprevalence of human brucellosis among the population at risk in rural areas. *Mymensingh Medical Journal* 19: 1-4 [PMID: 20046163]
- 194. Akhtar J, Chowdhury OA, Das P and Sinha SP (2020). Sero-prevalence of human brucellosis among high-risk and normal individuals of Sylhet district in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Medical Research Council Bulletin* 46 (1): [doi: 10.3329/bmrcb.v46i1.47467]
- 195. Garcell HG, Garcia EG, Pueyo PV, Martin IR, Arias AV and Serrano RNA (2016). Outbreaks of brucellosis related to the consumption of unpasteurized camel milk. *Journal of Infection and Public Health* 9: 523-527 [doi: 10.1016/j.jiph.2015.12.006]
- 196. Leong KN, Chow TS, Wong PS, Hamzah SH, Ahmad N and Ch'ng CC (2015. Outbreak of human brucellosis from consumption of raw goats' milk in Penang, Malaysia. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine* and Hygiene 93: 539-541 [doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.15-0246]
- 197. Rahman MM, Chowdhury TIMFR and Chowdhury MUA (1978). Investigation of brucellosis among cattle. *Bangladesh Veterinary Journal* 12: 12-15
- 198. Rahman MM and Rahman MA (1981). Incidence of Brucella infection in sub-clinical mastitic udder. *Bangladesh Veterinary Journal* 15: 39-42
- 199. Islam MS, Islam MA, Khatun MM, Saha S, Basir MS and Hasan MM (2018). Molecular detection of Brucella spp. from the milk of seronegative cows from some selected areas in Bangladesh. *Journal of Pathogens*. Article ID 9378976 [doi: 10.1155/2018/9378976]

- 200. Islam MS, Garofolo G, Sacchini L, Dainty AC, Khatun MM, Saha S and Islam MA (2019). First isolation, identification and genetic characterization of Brucella abortus biovar 3 from dairy cattle in Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 5 (4): 556-562 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.193]
- 201. Ahmed BS, Osmani MG, Rahman AKMA, Hasan MM, Maruf AA, Karim MF, Karim SMA, Asaduduzzaman M, Hasan MR, Rahman MM and Rahman MS (2018). Economic impact of caprine and ovine brucellosis in Mymensingh district, Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 16 (2): 193-203 [doi: 10.33109/bjvmjd1805]
- 202. Sarker MAS, Rahman MS, Begum MM, Rahman MB, Rahman MF, Neubauer H and Rahman AKMA (2017). Milk ring, Rose Bengal tests and conventional PCR-based detection of *Brucella abortus* infected dairy cattle in Bangladesh. *African Journal of Microbiology Research* 11 (40): 1505-1509 [Doi: 10.5897/AJMR2017.8672]
- 203. Rahman MM, Haque M and Rahman MA (1988). Seroprevalence of caprine and human brucellosis in some selected areas of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Veterinary Journal* 22: 85-92
- 204. Uddin MJ, Rahman MS and Akter SH (2007). Brucellosis in goat (*Capra hircus*) in Bangladesh. Journal of the Bangladesh Agricultural University 5: 275-282
- 205. Uddin MJ, Rahman MS, Hossain MA, Akter SH, Majumder S, Park JH and Song HJ (2007). Relation between brucellosis and husbandry practices in goats in Bangladesh. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Services* 30 (2): 259-267
- 206. Uddin MJ, Rahman MS, Akter SH, Hossain MA, Islam MT, Islam MA, Park JH and Song HJ (2007). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in small ruminants in selected areas of Bangladesh. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Services* 30 (4): 511-525 [doi:10.7853/.1970.0.0)
- 207. Rahman MS, Jahan N, Hossain MA, Uddin MJ, Shil NK, Islam KBMS, Ahasan MS, Rahman AKMA and Song HJ (2008). The tube agglutination test is superior to other serological tests for the diagnosis of brucellosis in small ruminants. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Services* 31: 493-496
- 208. Das T, Ershaduzzaman M, Islam KK, Haque MM, Rahman MM and Islam SKBM (2008). Surveillance of *Brucella melitensis* and *Brucella abortus* from aborted Bengal goats in Bangladesh. *Research Journal of Veterinary Science* 1(1): 28-36
- 209. Islam MA, Samad MA and Rahman AKMA (2010). Risk factors associated with the prevalence of brucellosis in Black Bengal goats in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 8 (2): 141-147
- Rahman MS, Hahsin MFA, Ahsan MS, Her M, Kim JY, Kang SI and Jung SC (2011). Brucellosis in sheep and goats of Bogra and Mymensingh districts of Bangladesh. *Korean Journal of Veterinary Research* 51: 277-280
- 211. Rahman MS, Mithu S, Islam MT, Uddin MJ, Sarker RR, Sarker MAS and Akter L (2012). Prevalence of brucellosis in Black Bengal goats in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 10 (1-2): 51-56
- 212. Akhter L, Islam MA, Das S and Khatun MM (2014). Seroprevalence of brucellosis and its associated risk factors in sheep and goats in the farms and slaughterhouse in Mymensingh, Bangladesh. *Microbes and Health* 3: 25-28
- 213. Shafy NM, Ahmed BS, Sarker RR, Milat KSA, Hasan MT, Bhattacharjee PK, Chakrabarty A, Paul A, Sarker MAS, Truong T and Rahman MS (2016). Serological prevalence of ovine and caprine brucellosis in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 14 (2): 209-213

- 214. Munsi MN, Akther S, Rahman MH, Hassan MZ, Ali MZ and Ershaduzzaman M (2021). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in goats in some selected areas of Bangladesh. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research* 8: 123-128 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2021.h494]
- 215. Rahman MS, Rahman MN, Islam MT, Sarker RR, Sarker MAS, Sarabontuhura M, Chakrabartty A, Akther L and Uddin MJ (2012). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in sheep in the Gaibandha district of Bangladesh. *Progressive Agriculture* 23 (1-2): 25-32
- 216. Ahasan MS, Rahman M, Das GC, Rahman MS and Ali ML (2014). Seroprevalence of brucellosis in sheep in Mymensingh and Netrokona district of Bangladesh. *International Journal of Natural and Social Sciences* 1: 33-40
- 217. Gani MO, Munsi MN, Ershaduzzaman M, Rahman AKMA, Sultana S and Alam MS (2016). Seroprevalence of ovine brucellosis in Bangladesh. *Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research* 2: 13-18
- 218. Rahman MS, Nuruzzaman M, Ahasan MS, Sarker RR, Chakrabarty A, Nahar A, Uddin MJ, Sarker MAS and Akhter L (2012). Prevalence of brucellosis in pigs: the first report in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 10 (1-2): 75-80 [Doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v10i1-2.15649]
- 219. Talukder BC, Samad MA and Rahman AKMA (2011). Comparative evaluation of commercial serodiagnostic tests for the seroprevalence study of brucellosis in stray dogs in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 9: 79-83 [Doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v9i1.11217]
- 220. Rahman MS, Kabir SML and Rahman MS (2015). Seroprevalence of canine brucellosis in Dhaka city corporation area, Bangladesh. *Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research* 1(1): 17-21
- 221. Rasheduzzaman M, Hossain MA, Paul SK, Nasreen SA, Haque N, Akhter A, Muhammadullah S, Kabir MH, Sonia SJ and Ahmed S (2020). Serological and molecular epidemiology of human brucellosis in Mymensingh region Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Medical Microbiology 14: 19-24
- 222. Rahman MM, Rahman MM, Rahman AKMA, Hossain MM, Hasan MR, Rana MS, Melzer F and Neubauer H (2020). Sero-molecular epidemiology and risk factors analysis of brucellosis in human and lactating cows of military dairy farms in Bangladesh. *Journal of Veterinary and One Health Research* 2(1): 81-114 [doi: 10.36111/jvmohr2020.2(1).0018]
- 223. Rahman MS, Han JC, Park J, Lee JH, Eo SK and Chae JS (2006). Prevalence of brucellosis and its association with reproductive problems in cows in Bangladesh. *Veterinary Record* 159: 180-182 [doi: 10.1136/vr.159.6.180]
- 224. Rahman AKMA, Saegerman C, Berkvens D, Fretin D, Gani MO, Ershaduzzaman M and Ahmed MU (2013). Bayesian estimation of true prevalence, sensitivity and specificity of indirect ELISA, Rose Bengal Test and Slow Agglutination test for the diagnosis of brucellosis in sheep and goats in Bangladesh. *Preventive Veterinary Medicine* 110: 242-252
- 225. Rahman M, Haque M and Rahman M (1988). Seroprevalence of caprine and human brucellosis in some selected areas of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Veterinary Journal* 22: 85-92
- 226. Millat MKSA, Shafy NM, Sharmy ST, Yeasmin F, Karim MF, Ehsan MA, Sarker RR, Khatun F, Wares MA, Hasan MM, Nishidate I and Rahman MS (2018). Seroprevalence of equine brucellosis: first report in Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine 16: 103-106

- 227. Islam MS, El Zowalaty ME, van Vliet AHM, Thaku S, Khatun MM, Saha S, Rahman MT, Noreddin A and Islam MA (2019). First genome sequence of Brucella abortus Biovar 3 strain BAU21/S4023, isolated from a dairy cow in Bangladesh. *Microbiology Resource Announcement* 8.24:e00446-00419 [doi: 10.1128/MRA.00446-19]
- 228. Islam MS, Garofolo G, Sacchini L, Dainty AC, Khatun MM, Saha S and Islam MA (2019). First isolation, identification and genetic characterization of Brucella abortus biovar 3 from dairy cattle in Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 5: 556-562 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.193]
- 229. Islam MA, Haque M, Rahman A, Rahman MM, Rahman MA and Haque F (1983). Economic losses due to brucellosis among cattle in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Veterinary Journal* 17: 56-62
- 230. Rahman MM, Chowdhury TIMFR, Rahman MA and Haque F (1983). Seroprevalence of human and animal brucellosis in Bangladesh. *Indian Veterinary Journal* 60: 165-168
- 231. Rahman AKMA, Saegerman C and Berkvens D (2016). Latent class evaluation of three serological tests for the diagnosis of human brucellosis in Bangladesh. *Tropical Medicine and Health* 44: 32 [doi: 10.1186/s41182-016-0031-8]
- 232. Naher N, Islam SM, Husaini S, Sharmy ST, Chohan CS, Maruf AA, Yeasmin F, Das AC, Rahman MM, Hasan MM, Chakrabarthy A, Rahman AKMA and Rahman MS (2021). Serological response in cross-bred heifers immunized with *Brucella abortus* strain RB51 vaccine under smallholder dairy farm management system in Bangladesh. *Journal of Veterinary Medical and One Health Research* 3(2): 155-163 [Doi: 10.35111/jymohr.2021.3(2).0030.1]
- 233. Rahman MS (2019). Brucella abortus killed vaccine: The achievement of 52 years (1967-2019) in Bangladesh. *EC Veterinary Science* ECO.02: 14-21
- 234. Kurtz JR, Goggins JA and McLachlanJB (2017). Salmonella infection: Interplay between the bacteria and host immune system. *Immunology Letters* 190: 42-50 [doi: 10.1016/j.imlet.2017.07.006]
- 235. Drozdz M, Malaszczuk M, Paluch E and Pawlak A (2021). Zoonotic potential and prevalence of Salmonella serovars isolated from pets- Review article. *Infection Ecology and Epidemiology* 11: 1975530 [Doi: 10.1080/20008686.2021.1975530]
- 236. Hoque MN, Mohiuddin RB, Khan MMH, Hannan A and Alam MJ (2019). Outbreak of Salmonella in poultry of Bangladesh and possible remedy. *Journal of Advanced Biotechnology and Experimental Therapeutics* 2(2): 87-97 [Doi: 10.5455/jabet.2019.d30]
- 237. Porwollik S, Boyd EF, Choy C, Cheng P, Florea L, Proctor E and McClelland M (2004). Characterization of Salmonella enterica subspecies I Genovars by use of microarrays. Journal of Bacteriology 186: 5883-5898 [doi: 10.1128/JB.186.17.5883-5898.2004]
- 238. Majowicz SE, Musto J, Scallan E, Angulo FJ, Kirk M, O'Brien SJ, Jones TF, Fazil A and Hoekstra RM (2010). The global burden of nontyphoidal Salmonella gastroenteritis. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 50: 882-889 [doi: 10.1086/650733]
- 239. Ferrari RG, Rosario DKA, Cunha-Neto A, Mano SB, Figueiredo EES and Conte-Junior CA (2019). Worldwide epidemiology of Salmonella in animal-based foods: a meta-analysis. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 85 (14): e00591-19 [Doi: 10.1128/AEM.00591-19]

- 240. Lamas A, Miranda JM, Regal P, Vazquez B, Franco CM and Cepeda A (2018). A comprehensive review of non-enterica subspecies of *Salmonella enterica*. *Microbiology Research* 206: 60-73 [doi: 10.1016/j.micres.2017.09.010]
- 241. Gal-Mor G (2019). Persistent infection and long-term carriage of typhoidal and nontyphoidal salmonellae. *Clinical Microbiological Reviews* 32: e00088-18 [doi: 10.1128/CMR.00088-18]
- 242. Lamichhane B, Mawad AMM, Saleh M, Kelly WG, Harrington II PJ, Lovestad CW, Amezcua J, Sarhan MM, EL Zowalaty ME, Ramadan H, Morgan M and Helmy YA (2024). Salmonellosis: An overview of epidemiology, pathogenesis, and innovative approaches to mitigate the antimicrobial resistance infections. *Antibiotics* 13(1), 76 [doi: 10.3390/antibiotics13010076]
- 243. Guarino A, Ashkenazi S, Gendrel D, Vecchio AL, Shamir R and Szajewska H (2014). European society for pediatric gastroenterology, hepatology, and nutrition/European society for pediatric infectious diseases evidence-based guidelines for the management of acute gastroenteritis in children in Europe. *Journal of Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition* 59 (1): 132-152 [doi: 10.1097/MPG.0000000000375]
- 244. Acheson D and Hohmann EL (2001). Nontyphoidal salmonellosis. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 32 (2): 263-269 [doi: 10.1086/318457]
- 245. Havelaar AH, Kirk MD, Torgerson PR, Hald T, Lake RJ, Praet N, Bellinger DC, De Silva NR, Gargouri N, Speybroeck N, Cawthorne A, Mathers C, Stein C, Angulo FJ and Devleesschauwer B (2015). World Health Organization global estimates and regional comparisons of the burden of foodborne disease in 2010. *PLoS Medicine* 12 (12), e1001923 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1001923]
- 246. Shaji S, Selvaraj RK and Shanmugasundaram R (2023). Salmonella infection in poultry: a review on the pathogen and control strategies. *Microorganisms* 11(11): 2814 [doi: 10.3390/microorganisms11112814]
- 247. Hossain MJ, Attia Y, Ballah FM, Islam MS, Sobur MA, Islam MA, Levy S, Rahman A, Nishiyama A, Islam MS, Hassan J and Rahman MT (2021). Zoonotic significance and antimicrobial resistance in Salmonella in poultry in Bangladesh from 2011 to 2021. Zoonotic Diseases 1(1): 3-24 [doi: 10.3390/zoonoticdis1010002]
- 248. Islam KN, Eshaa E, Hassan M, Chowdhury T and Zaman SU (2022). Antibiotic susceptibility pattern and identification of multidrug-resistant novel Salmonella strain in poultry chickens of Hathazari region in Chattogram, Bangladesh. *Advances in Microbiology* 12: 53-66 [doi: 10.4236/aim.2022.122005]
- 249. Barua H, Biswas PK, Olsen KE and Christensen JP (2012). Prevalence and characterization of motile Salmonella in commercial layer poultry farms in Bangladesh. *PLoS One* 7: e35914 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0035914]
- 250. Sultana M, Bilkis R, Diba F and Hossain MA (2014). Predominance of multidrug-resistant zoonotic Salmonella enteritidis genotypes in poultry of Bangladesh. *Journal of Poultry Science* 51: 424-434 [doi: 10.2141/jpsa.0130222]
- 251. Barua H, Biswas PK, Talukder KA, Olsen KE and Christensen JP (2014). Poultry as a possible source of non-typhoidal Salmonella enterica serovars in humans in Bangladesh. Veterinary Microbiology 168 (2-4): 372-380 [doi: 10.1016/j.vetmic.2013.11.020]
- 252. Haque AKMZ, Akter MR, Islam SS, Alam J, Neogi SB, Yamasaki S and Kabir SML (2021). *Salmonella gallinarum* in small-scale commercial layer flocks: Occurrence, molecular diversity and antibiogram. *Veterinary Science* 8 (5), 71 [doi: 10.3390/vetsci8050071]

- 253. Parvej MS, Rahman M, Uddin MF, Nazir KMHNH, Jowel MS, Khan MFR and Rahman MB (2016). Isolation and characterization of *Salmonella enterica serovar typhimurium* circulating among healthy chickens of Bangladesh. *Turkish Journal of Agriculture- Food Science and Technology* 4: 519-523
- 254. Siddiky NA, Sarker MS, Khan MSR, Begum R, Kabir ME, Karim MR, Rahman MT, Mahmud A and Samad MA (2021). Virulence and antimicrobial resistance profiles of *Salmonella enterica* serovars isolated from chicken at wet markets in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *Microorganisms* 9 (5), 952 [doi: 10.3390/microorganisms.9050952]
- 255. Akond MA, Shirin M, Alam S, Hassan SM, Rahman MM and Hoq M (2012). Frequency of drug-resistant Salmonella spp. isolated from poultry samples in Bangladesh. *Stamford Journal of Microbiology* 2 (1): 15-19 [doi: 10.3329/sjm.v2i1.15207]
- 256. Alam SB, Mahmud M, Akter R, Hasan M, Sobur A, Nazir KHMNH, Noreddin A, Rahman T, El Zowalaty ME and Rahman M (2020). Molecular detection of multidrug-resistant Salmonella species isolated from broiler farm in Bangladesh. Pathogens 9 (3), 201 [doi: 10.3390/pathogens9030201]
- 257. Yu AT, Amin N, Rahman MW, Gurley ES, Rahman KM and Luby SP (2018). Case-fatality ratio of blood culture-[confirmed typhoid fever in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 218: S222-S226 [doi: 10.1093/infdis/jiy543]
- 258. Chowdhury SR, Ahamed Z, Roy K, Al Noman A, Haroon RM and Mondol KC (2022). Emerging threats of antibiotic resistance in Salmonella typhi and Salmonella paratyphi A among enteric fever cases of Dhaka, Bangladesh. *African Journal of Bacteriology Research* 14 (1): 8-15 [doi: 10.5897/JBR2021.0340]
- 259. Velasquez-Munoz A, Castro-Vargas R, Cullens-Nobis FM and Mani R and Abuelo A (2024). Review: Salmonella Dublin in dairy cattle. *Frontiers in Veterinary Science* 10, [doi: 10.3389/fvets.2023.1331767]
- 260. Castro-Vargas RE, Herrera-Sanchez MP, Rodriguez-Hernandez R and Rondon-Barragan IS (2020). Antibiotic resistance in Salmonella spp. isolated from poultry: A global overview. *Veterinary World* 13 (10): 2070-2084 [doi: 10.14202/vetworld.2020.2070-2084]
- 261. Ripon RK, Motahara U, Ahmed A, Devnath N, Mahua FA, Hashem RB, Ishadi KS, Alam A, Sujan MSH and Sarker MS (2023). Exploring the prevalence of antibiotic resistance patterns and drivers of antibiotic resistance of Salmonella in livestock and poultry-derived foods: a systematic review and meta-analysis in Bangladesh from 2000 to 2022. JAC-Antimicrobial Resistance 5 (3): dlad059 [doi: 10.1093/jacamr/dlad059]
- 262. Rahman MA, Rahman AK, Islam MA and Alam MM (2018). Detection of multi-drug resistant Salmonella from milk and meat in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 16: 115-120 [doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v16i1.37388]
- 263. Rahman MA and Ahmed MS (2022). Antibiogram of *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* spp. isolated from chicken meat and frozen milk in Barishal City, Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 20 (1): 49-58 [doi: 10.33109/bjvmjj2022amrt1]
- 264. Parvin MS, Hasan MM, Ali MY, Chowdhury EH, Rahman MT and Islam MT (2020). Prevalence and multidrug-resistant pattern of Salmonella carrying extended-spectrum β-lactamase in frozen chicken meat in Bangladesh. *Journal of Food Protection* 83 (12): 2107-2121 [doi: 10.4315/JFP-20-172]

- 265. Uddin MB, Hossain SMB, Hasan M, Alam MN, Debnath M, Begum R, Roy S, Harun-Al-Rashid A, Chowdhury MSR, Rahman MM, Hossain MM, Elahi F, Chowdhury MYE, Jarhult JD, El Zowalaty ME and Ahmed SSU (2021). Multidrug antimicrobial resistance and molecular detection of mcr-1 gene in Salmonella species isolated from chicken. *Animals (Basel)* 11 (1): 206 [doi: 10.3390/ani11010206]
- 266. Ahmed MM, Rahman MM, Mahbub KR and Wahiduzzaman M (2011). Characterization of antibiotic-resistant Salmonella spp. isolated from chicken eggs of Dhaka city. Journal of Scientific Research 3: 191-196 [doi: 10.3329/sr.v3i1.6109]
- 267. Begum K, Mannan SJ and Ahmed A (2016). Antibiotic resistance, plasmids and integron profile of Salmonella species isolated from poultry and patients. *Dhaka University Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences* 15 (2): 209-214
- 268. Islam M, Sabrin MS, Kabir MHB, Karim SJI and Sikder T (2018). Prevalence of multidrug-resistant (MDR) food-borne pathogens in raw chicken meat in Dhaka City, Bangladesh: an increasing food safety concern. *Asian-Australasian Journal of Bioscience and Biotechnology* 3 (1): 17-27
- 269. Islam M, Sabtin MS, Kabir MHB and Aftabuzzaman M (2018). Antibiotic sensitivity and resistant pattern of bacteria isolated from table eggs of commercial layers considering food safety issues. *Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research* 4 (4): 323-329 [doi: 10.3329/ajmbr.v4i4.40103]
- 270. Rahman MA, Haque A, Ahmed T, Mahmud S, Sohana SN, Hossain MR, Barman NC, Badiruzzaman M, Hossain T, Haque MS, Uddin ME and Ahmed R (2019). Isolation, identification and antibiotic sensitivity pattern of Salmonella spp from locally isolated egg samples. *American Journal of Pure and Applied Biosciences* 1(1): 1-11 [doi: 10.34104/ajpab.019.019111]
- 271. Rabby MRI, Shah SMT, Miah MI, Islam MS, Khan MAS, Rahman MS and Malek MA (2021). Comparative analysis of bacteriological hazards and prevalence of Salmonella in poultry-meat retailed in wet-and super-markets in Dhaka City, Bangladesh. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Research* 6, 100224 [doi: 10.1016/j.jafr.2021.100224]
- 272. Karim SJI, Islam M, Sikder T, Rubaya R, Haider J and Alam J (2020). Multidrug-resistant *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* spp. isolated from pigeons. *Veterinary World* 13 (10): 2156-2165 [doi: 10.14202/vetworld.2020.2156-2165]
- 273. Hosain MS, Islam MA, Khatun MM and Dey RK (2012). Presence and antibiogram profiles of Salmonella isolated from pigeons in Mymensingh, Bangladesh. *Microbes and Health* 1(2): 54-57 [doi: 10.3329/mh.v1i2.14090]
- 274. Saifullah MK, Mamun MM, Rubayet RM, Nazir KHMNH, Zesmin K and Rahman MT (2016). Molecular detection of Salmonella spp isolated from apparently healthy pigeon in Mymensingh, Bangladesh and their antibiotic resistance pattern. Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research 3(1): 51-55 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2016.c131]
- 275. Paul P, Akther S, Ali MZ, Banu H, Khan MSR and Khatun MM (2017). Isolation, identification and antibiogram study of *Salmonella* spp. from poultry farm environment. *International Journal of Animal Biology* 3 (2): 5-11
- 276. Hossain MJ, Islam MS, Sobur MA, Zaman SB, Nahar A, Rahman M and Rahman MT (2020). Exploring poultry farm environment for antibiotic-resistant Escherichia coli, Salmonella spp. and Staphylococcus spp. having public health significance. *Journal of Bangladesh Agricultural University* 18 (3): 615-622 [doi: 10.5455/JBAU.98074]
- 277. Hossain MS, Hossain KMM, Sarker MMA and Hamid SA (2019). Prevalence and antibiotic susceptibility of Salmonella from chicken eggs in Naogaon district of Bangladesh. *Journal of Advances in Microbiology* 28 (2): 1-6 [doi: 10.9734/JAMB/2019/v19i230187]

- 278. Bupasha ZB, Begum R, Karmakar S, Akter R, Bayzid M, Ahad A and Sarker MS (2020). Multidrug-resistant Salmonella spp. isolated from apparently healthy pigeons in a live bird market in Chattogram, Bangladesh. *World's Veterinary Journal* 10 (4): 508-513 [doi: 10.54203/scil.2020.wvj61]
- 279. Mahmud T, Hassan MM, Alam M, Khan MM, Bari MS and Islam A (2016). Prevalence and multi-drug resistant pattern of Salmonella from the eggs and egg-storing trays of retail markets of Bangladesh. *International Journal of One Health* 2(2): 7-11 [10.14202/IJOH.2016.7-11]
- 280. Sarker BR, Ghosh S, Chowdhury S, Dutta A, Deb LC, Sarker KB, Sultana T and Hossain KMM (2021). Prevalence and antimicrobial susceptibility profiles of non-typhoidal Salmonella isolated from chickens in Rajshahi, Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 7 (3): 820-830 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.440]
- 281. Khan MFR, Rahman MB, Khan MSR, Nazir KHMNH and Rahman M (2005). Antibiogram and plasmid profile analysis of isolated poultry Salmonella of Bangladesh. *Pakistan Journal of Biological Science* 8 (11): 1614-1619
- 282. Mirdha D, Uddin MN, Alam B, Akhter AHMT, Islam SS, Islam MS, Khan MSR and Kabir SML (2020). Identification and characterization of *Salmonella* spp. from broiler farms in selected districts of Bangladesh. *Veterinary World* 13 (2): 275-283 [10.14202/vetworld.2020.275-283]
- 283. Aditya A (2015). Drug-resistant Salmonella in broiler chicken sold at local market in Bangladesh and its public health significance. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 14: 2995-3000 [doi: 10.5897/AJB2015.14736]
- 284. Al-Salauddin AS, Hossain MF, Dutta A, Mahmud S, Islam MS, Saha S and Kabir SL (2015). Isolation, identification and antibiogram studies of Salmonella species and *Escherichia coli* from broiler meat in some selected areas of Bangladesh. *International Journal of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology* 4 (5): 999-1003 [doi: 10.18203/2319-2003.ijbcp20150881]
- 285. Jahan S, Zihadi MAH, Nazir KHMNH, Islam MS, Rahman MB and Rahman M (2018). Molecular detection and antibiogram of *Salmonella* spp. from apparently healthy Japanese quails of three different quail farms in Mymensingh. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research* 5 (1): 60-66 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2018.e248]
- 286. Parvej MS, Nazir KHMNH, Rahman MB, Jahan M, Khan MFR and Rahman M (2016). Prevalence and characterization of multi-drug resistant Salmonella enterica serovar Gallinarum biovar Pullorum and Gallinarum from chicken. *Veterinary World* 9 (1): 65-70 [doi: 10.14202/vetworld.2016.65-70]
- 287. Hassan MM, Amin KB, Ahaduzzaman M, Alam M, Al-Faruk MS and Uddin I (2014). Antimicrobial resistance pattern against *Escherichia coli* and Salmonella in layer poultry. *Research Journal for Veterinary Practitioners* 2 (2): 30-35 [doi: 10.14737/journal.rjvp/2014/2.2.30.35]
- 288. Rahman S, Rahman MA and Ahmed MS (2022). Seroprevalence and antibiotic sensitivity of Salmonella spp. in commercial layer chicken of Pirojpur district. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 20 (2): 99-100 [doi: 10.33109/bjvmjd2022am1]
- 289. Al-Mamun MA, Kabir SML, Islam MM, Lubna M, Islam SS, Akhter AHMT and Hossain MM (2017). Molecular identification and characterization of Salmonella species isolated from poultry value chains of Gazipur and Tangail districts of Bangladesh. *African Journal of Microbiological Research* 11: 474-481 [doi: 10.5897/AJMR2017-8431]
- 290. Matubber B, Rume FI, Kayesh MEH, Rahman MM, Amin MR, Asgar MA and Anower AKMM (2021). Antibiotic resistance and residue in chicken, cattle, buffalo and goat meats in different southern districts of Bangladesh. *Asian-Australasian Journal of Food Safety and Security* 5(1): 19-26 [doi: 10.3329/aajfss.v5i1.55014]

- 291. Islam MK, Kabir SL, Haque AZ, Sarker YA and Sikder MH (2018). Molecular detection and characterization of *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella* spp. and *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from broiler meat in Jamalpur, Tangail, Netrokona and Kishoreganj districts of Bangladesh. *African Journal of Microbiological Research* 12 (32): 761-770 [doi: 10.5897/AJMR2018.8945]
- 292. Talukder M, Islam MS, Levy S, Sobur MA, Ballah FM, Najibullah M, Rahman MB, Rahman MT and Khan MFR (2021). Detection of multidrug-resistant *Salmonella* spp. from healthy and diseased broilers having potential public health significance. *Journal of Advanced Biotechnology Experimental Therapeutics* 4 (2): 248-255 [doi: 10.5455jabet.2021.d125]
- 293. Sobur MA, Sabuj AAM, Sarker R, Rahman AMMT, Kabir SML and Rahman MT (2019). Antibiotic-resistant Escherichia coli and Salmonella spp. associated with dairy cattle and farm environment having public health significance. *Veterinary World* 12 (7): 984-993 [doi: 10.14202/vetworld.2019.984-993]
- 294. Chaudhary PK, Salam SMA, Reza MA and Ahaduzzaman M (2019). High prevalence of ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone resistance Salmonella in the retail chicken market of Chattogram, Bangladesh. *Turkish Journal of Veterinary Research* 3 (2): 51-55
- 295. Tawyabur M, Islam MS, Sobur MA, Hossain MJ, Mahmud MM, Paul S, Hossain MT, Ashour MH and Rahman MT (2020). Isolation and characterization of multidrug-resistant *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* spp. from healthy and diseased turkeys. *Antibiotics (Basel)* 9 (11): 770 [doi: 10.3390/antibiotics9110770]
- 296. Uddin MS, Hoq MI, Ali MS, Rahman MM and Islam KMS (2017). Antibiotic resistance pattern of *Salmonella* spp. isolated from stool samples of hospitalized diarrheal patients in Bangladesh. *Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research* 3(4): 534-538 [doi: 10.3329/ajmbr.v3i4.35346]
- 297. Sarker MS, Mannan MS, Ali MY, Bayzid M, Ahad A and Bupasha ZB (2019). Antibiotic resistance of Escherichia coli isolated from broilers sold at live bird markets in Chattogram, Bangladesh. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research* 6(3): 272- 277 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2019.f344]
- 298. Bashar T, Rahman M, Rabbi FA, Noor R and Rahman MM (2011). Enterotoxin profiling and antibiogram of Escherichia coli isolated from poultry feces in Dhaka district of Bangladesh. *Stamford Journal of Microbiology* 1(1): 51-57 [doi: 10.3329/sjm.v1i1.9134]
- 299. Parvez MAK, Marzan M, Liza SM, Mou TJ, Azmi IJ, Rahman MS and Mahmud ZH (2016). Prevalence of inhibitorresistant beta-lactamase producing E. coli in human and poultry origin of Bangladesh. *Journal of Bacteriology and Parasitology* 7 (271): 2 [doi: 10.4172/2155-9597.1000271]
- 300. Runa JA, Lijon MB and Rahman MA (2018). Detection of multidrug-resistant and Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) from apparently healthy broilers in Jessore, Bangladesh. *Frontiers Environmental Microbiology* 4 (1): 16-21 [doi: 10.11648/j.fem.20180401.13]
- 301. Khatun MM, Mahbub-E-Elahi ATM, Ahmed S, Parvej MS, Akter S, Ansari WK and Ali MS (2015). Frequency of drugresistant Escherichia coli isolated from commercial broiler chicken in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Natural and Social Science* 2 (4): 1-5
- 302. Levy S, Islam MS, Sobur MA, Talukder M, Rahman MB, Khan MFR and Rahman MT (2020). Molecular detection of avian pathogenic *Escherichia coli* (APEC) for the first time in layer farms in Bangladesh and their antibiotic resistance patterns. *Microorganisms* 8(7): 1021 [doi: 10.3390/microorganisms8071021]

- 303. Haque MH, Rahman MM, Miah ML, Ahmed S, Sazib MRI, Khaton R, Kabir A and Uddin MN (2021). Exploring antibiotic resistance patterns of *Escherichia coli, Salmonella* spp. and *Staphylococcus* spp. isolated from eggs in Rajshahi. European Journal of Agriculture and Food Science 3(4): 25-30 [doi: 10.24018/ejfood.2021.3.4.328]
- 304. Gupta MD, Islam M, Sen A, Sarker MS and Das A (2017). Prevalence and antibiotic susceptibility pattern of Escherichia coli in cattle on Bathan and intensive rearing system. *Microbes and Health* 6(1): 1-4 [doi: 10.3329/mh.v6i1.34062]
- 305. Hossain A, Hossain SA, Fatema AN, Wahab A, Alam MM, Islam MN, Hossain MZ and Ahsan GU (2020). Age and gender-specific antibiotic resistance patterns among Bangladeshi patients with urinary tract infection caused by *Escherichia coli*. Heliyon 6 (6): e04161 [doi: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2020.e04161]
- 306. Islam K, Ahad A, Barua M, Islam A, Chakma S, Dorji C et al. (2016). Isolation and epidemiology of multidrug-resistant Escherichia coli from goats in Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research* 3 (2): 166-172 [doi: 10.5455/javar.2016.c147]
- 307. Mamun MM, Hassan J, Nazir KHMNH, Islam MA. Zesmin K, Rahman MB and Rahman MT (2017). Prevalence and molecular detection of quinolone-resistant *Escherichia coli* in rectal swab of apparently healthy cattle in Bangladesh, *International Journal of Tropical Diseases and Health* 24 (2): 1-7 [doi: 10.9734/ijtdh/2017/34404]
- 308. Mandal AK, Talukder S, Hasan MM, Tasmin ST, Parvin MS, Ali MY and Islam MT (2022). Epidemiology and antimicrobial resistance of Escherichia coli in broiler chickens, farmworkers and farm sewage in Bangladesh. *Veterinary Medicine and Science* 8 (1): 187-199 [doi: 10.1002/vms3.664]
- 309. Jain P, Bepari AK, Sen PK, Rafe T, Imtiaz R, Hossain M and Reza HM (2021). High prevalence of multiple antibiotic resistance in clinical Escherichia coli isolates from Bangladesh and prediction of molecular resistance determinants using WGS of an XDR isolate. *Scientific Reports* 11 (1): 1-3 [doi: 10.1038/s41598-021-02251-w]
- 310. Hossain MK, Rahman M, Nahar A, Khair A and Alam MM (2013). Isolation and identification of diarrheagenic Escherichia coli causing colibacillosis in calves in selective areas of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 11 (2): 145-149 [doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v11i2.19139]
- 311. Hossain MT, Siddique MP, Hossain FMA, Zinnah MA, Hossain MM, Alam MK, Rahman MT and Choudhury KA (2008). Isolation, identification, toxin profile and antibiogram of Escherichia coli isolated from broilers and layers in Mymensingh district of Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 6 (1): 1-5
- 312. Rahman MT, Islam MS and Hasan M (2013). Isolation and identification of bacterial agents causing clinical mastitis in cattle in Mymensingh and their antibiogram profile. *Microbes and Health* 2(1): 19-21 [doi: 10.3329/mh.v2i1.17258]
- 313. Nobel FA, Akter S, Jebin RA, Sarker TC, Rahman MM, Al Zamane S, Islam K, Sabrina S, Akhter N, Islam A, Hasan MR, and Islam MJ (2021). Prevalence of multidrug resistance patterns of Escherichia coli from suspected urinary tract infection in Mymensingh City, Bangladesh. *Journal of Advanced Biotechnology and Experimental Therapeutics* 4: 256 [doi: 10.5455/jabet.2021.d126]
- 314. Al Azad MAR, Rahman MM, Amin R, Begum MIA, Fries R, Husna A, Khairalla AS, Badruzzaman ATM, El Zowalaty ME, Lampang KN, Ashour HM and Hafez HM (2019). Susceptibility and multidrug resistance patterns of Escherichia coli isolated from cloacal swabs of live broiler chickens in Bangladesh. *Pathogens* 8 (3): 118 [doi: 10.3390/pathogens8030118]

- 315. Rahman MA, Rahman AKMA, Islam MA and Alam MM (2017). Antimicrobial resistance of Escherichia coli isolated from milk, beef and chicken meat in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 15 (2): 141-146 [doi: 10.3329/bjvm.v15i2.35525]
- 316. Hashem MA, Elahi MF, Mannan MA, Kabir MHB, Kashem MA and Pallab MS (2012). Isolation, identification and antibiogram of Escherichia coli from broiler at Chittagong district in Bangladesh. Wayamba Journal of Animal Science 312-316
- 317. Dutta A, Islam MZ, Barua H, Rana EA, Jalal MS, Dhar PK, Das A, Das T, Sarma SM, Biswas SK and Biswas PK (2020). Acquisition of plasmid-mediated colistin resistance gene mcr-1 in Escherichia coli of livestock origin in Bangladesh. *Microbial Drug Resistance* 26 (9): 1058-1062 [doi: 10.1089/mdr.2019.0304]
- 318. Akter L, Hassan M and Ahmed Z (2012). Present status and antibiotic sensitivity pattern of Salmonella Typhi and S. Paratyphi in different age group hospitalised patients in Dhaka City, Bangladesh. *IOSR Journal of Pharmacology and Biological Sciences* 4 (3): 27-30 [doi: 10.9790/3008-0432730]
- 319. Jahan F, Kabir SL and Amin MM (2013). Identification and antimicrobial resistance profiles of Salmonellae isolated from broiler dressing plants associated with their environment. *Advanced Research Journal of Microbiology* 1: 1-9
- 320. Abdullah M, Akter MR, Kabir SML, Khan MAS and Aziz MSIB (2013). Characterization of bacterial pathogens isolated from calf diarrhoea in Panchagarh district of Bangladesh. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Technology* 3 (6): 8-13
- 321. Sabur MA, Das MR, Uddin MB, Rahman MM, Islam MR, Shahidur M et al. (2021). Molecular detection and antibiotic sensitivity of Salmonella species isolated from goat feces in Sylhet district of Bangladesh. *World Veterinary Journal* 11 (3): 395-401 [doi: 10.54203/scil.2021.wvj51]
- 322. Chaudhary PK, Salam SMA, Reza MA and Ahaduzzaman M (2019. High prevalence of ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone resistance Salmonella in the retail chicken market of Chattogram, Bangladesh. *Turkish Journal of Veterinary Research* 3 (2): 51-55
- 323. Pritha ST, Rahman S, Punom SA, Rahman MM, Nazir KN and Islam MS (2020). Isolation, molecular detection and antibiogram of multidrug-resistant Salmonella Typhimurium DT104 from selected dairy farms in Mymensingh, Bangladesh. American Journal of Microbiology Research 8 (4): 136-140 [doi: 10.12691/ajmr-8-4-3]
- 324. Abedin MZ, Ahmed AA, Hossain MS and Aktar MB (2020). Laboratory-based diagnosis of bacteremia among inpatients and outpatients with acute febrile illness at Khwaja Yunus Ali Medical College and Hospital in Bangladesh. *European Journal of Medicine and Health Sciences* 2 (3): 46-51 [doi: 10.34104/ejmhs.020.046051]
- 325. Sohidullah M, Khan MSR, Islam MS, Islam MM, Rahman S and Begum F (2016). Isolation, molecular identification and antibiogram profiles of Escherichia coli and Salmonella spp. from diarrhoeic cattle reared in selected areas of Bangladesh. *Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research* 2 (4): 587-595 [doi: 10.3329/ajmbr.v2i4.31001]
- 326. Hossain MM, Jabin T, Hossain MI, Khatun MA, Emam MH, Asaduzzaman M and Uddin MA (2021). Antibiotic resistance profiling of clinical isolates of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Paratyphi A in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *Stam Journal of Microbiology* 11 (1): 14-16 [doi: 10.3329/sjm.v11i1.57146]
- 327. Al Mamun MA, Kabir SML, Islam MM, Lubna M, Islam SS, Akhter AHMT and Hossain MM (2017). Molecular identification and characterization of Salmonella species isolated from poultry value chains of Gazipur and Tangail districts of Bangladesh. *African Journal of Microbiology Research* 11: 474-481 [doi: 10.5897/ajmr2017-8431]

- 328. Karim SJI, Islam M, Sikder T, Rubaya R, Halder J and Alam J (2020). Multidrug-resistant *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* spp. isolated from pigeons. *Veterinary World* 13 (10): 2156 [doi: 10.14202/vetworld2020.2156-2165]
- 329. Momtaz S, Saha O, Usha MK, Sultana M and Hossain MA (2018). Occurrence of pathogenic and multidrug-resistant *Salmonella* spp. in poultry slaughterhouse in Bangladesh. *Bioresearch Communication* 4 (2): 506-515
- 330. Hasan B, Faruque R, Drobni M, Waldenstrom J, Sadique A, Ahmed KU, Islam Z, Parvez MBH, Olsen B and Alam M (2011). High prevalence of antibiotic resistance in pathogenic *Escherichia coli* from large and small-scale poultry farms in Bangladesh. *Avian Diseases* 55 (4): 689-692 [doi: 10.1637/9686-021411-Reg.1]
- 331. Jakaria A, Islam MA and Khatun MM (2012). Prevalence, characteristics and antibiogram profiles of Escherichia coli isolated from apparently healthy chickens in Mymensingh, Bangladesh. *Microbes and Health* 1 (1): 27-29
- 332. Hasan B, Sandegren L, Melhus A, Drobni M, Hernandez J, Waldenstrom J, Alam M and Olsen B (2012). Anti-microbial drug-resistant *Escherichia coli* in wild birds and free-range poultry, Bangladesh. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 18 (12): 2055-2058 [doi: 10.3201/eid1812.120513]
- 333. Sultana S, Islam MA, Khatun MM and Nasrin S (2012). Multidrug-resistant bacteria in the respiratory tract of apparently healthy quails. *Microbes and Health* 1(2): 46-49
- 334. Dey RK, Khatun MM, Islam MA and Hossain MS (2013). Prevalence of multi-drug resistant *Escherichia coli* in pigeon in Mymensingh, Bangladesh. *Microbes and Health* 2 (1): 5-7 [doi: 10.3329/mh.v2i1.17254]
- 335. Parvin MS, Talukder S, Ali MY, Chowdhury EH, Rahman MT and Islam MT (2020). Antimicrobial resistance pattern of *Escherichia coli* isolated from frozen chicken meat in Bangladesh. *Pathogens* 9 (6), 420 [doi: 10.3390/pathogens9060420]
- 336. Singh A, Khan MSR, Saha S, Hassan J and Roy U (2012). Isolation and detection of antibiotic sensitivity pattern of Escherichia coli from ducks in Bangladesh and Nepal. *Microbes and Health* 1 (1): 6-8
- 337. Islam NN, Akter M, Farzana Z, Kader AJB, Uddin I, Siddiki AMAMZ and Kamaruddin KM (2014). Detection of Staphylococcus aureus in frozen chicken rinse through bacteriological and nuc gene-specific PCR methods and their drug resistance patterns in Southern Chittagong, Bangladesh. *Research Journal of Microbiology* 9 (5): 251-264 [doi: 10.3923/jm.2014.251.264]
- 338. Ansari ARMIH, Rahman MM, Islam MZ, Das BC, Habib A, Belal SMSH and Islam K (2014). Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance profile of *Escherichia coli* and Salmonella isolated from diarrheic calves. *Journal of Animal Health and Production* 2: 12-15 [doi: 10.14737/journal.jahp/2014/2.1.12.15]
- 339. Islam MM, Ahamed S, Arafat MY, Hasan I, Rahman M and Nazir KHMNH (2016). Molecular detection and antibiogram of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) isolated from diarrheic children. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 14 (2): 289-295
- 340. Ibrahim N, Bpyen F, Mohsin MAS, Ringenier M, Berge AC, Chantziaras I, Fournie G, Pfeiffer D and Dewulf J (2023). Antimicrobial resistance in Escherichia coli and its correlation with antimicrobial use on commercial poultry farms in Bangladesh. *Antibiotics* 12 (9), 1361 [doi: 10.3390/antibiotics12091361]
- 341. Saha O, Hoque MN, Islam OK, Rahman MM, Sultana M and Hossian MA (2020). Multidrug-resistant avian pathogenic Escherichia coli strains and association of their virulence genes in Bangladesh. Microorganisms 8 (8), 1135 [doi: 10.3390/microorganisms8081135]

- 342. Rahman MM, Husna A, Elshabrawy HA, Alam J, Runa NY, Badruzzaman ATM, Banu NA, Al Mamun M, Paul B, Das S, Rahman MM, Mahbub-E-Elahi ATM, Khairalla AS and Ashour HM (2020). Isolation and molecular characterization of multidrug-resistant *Escherichia coli* from chicken meat. *Scientific Reports* 10, 1: 1-11 [doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-78367-2]
- 343. Runa NS, Yesmin S, Husna A, Runa NY, Islam MS, Lovelu MA, Siddika MA, Hasan MT, Haque MI, Sabrin MS, Shykat CA, Purkayastha M, Zinnah MA, Paul B and Rahman MM (2024). Prevalence of multidrug-resistant ESBLproducing *Escherichia coli* isolated from beef and sheep meat in Sylhet, Bangladesh. *Journal of Advanced Biotechnology and Experimental Therapy* 7(3): 520-529 [doi: 10.5455/jabet.2024.d45]
- 344. Islam MS, Rahman AMMT, Hassan J and Rahman MT (2023). Extended-spectrum beta-lactamase in Escherichia coli isolated from humans, animals and environments in Bangladesh: A One Health perspective systematic review and metaanalysis. One Health 16, 100526 [doi: 10.1016/j.onehlt,2023.100526]
- 345. Islam MA, Uddin MS, Islam MJ, Ahmed MU and Alam MM (2021). Investigation of antibiotic resistance pattern of Staphylococcus aureus in clinical samples of animals and humans from selective areas of Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine 19 (1): 9-19 [doi: 10.33109/bjvmjj21vph1]
- 346. Khan M, Haque M, Jhorna D and Begum M (2013). Contamination of street food by Salmonella in Chittagong City. *Journal of Food Science and Technology Nepal* 8: 81-83 [doi: 10.3126/ifstn.v8i011758]
- 347. Wasteson Y (2021). Zoonotic Escherichia coli. Acta Veterinaria Scanddinavica Suppl. 95, 79-84
- 348. Amin N, Rahman M, Raj S, Ali S, Green J, Das S, Doza S, Mondol MH, Wang Y, Islam MA, Alam M, Huda TMN, Haque S, Unicomb L, Joseph G and Moe CL (2019). Quantitative assessment of fecal contamination in multiple environmental sample types in urban communities in Dhaka, Bangladesh using SaniPath microbial approach. PLoS ONE 14(12): e0221193 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0221193]
- 349. Faruque Q, Haque QF, Shekhar HU and Begum S (2010). Institutionalization of healthy street food system in Bangladesh: A pilot study with three wards of Dhaka city corporation as a model. researchgate.net/profile/Hossain-Shekhar/publication/337414181
- 350. Islam S, Nasrin N, Rizwan F, Nahar L, Bhoemik A, Esha SA, Talukdaer KA, Akter M, Roy A and Ahmed M (2015). Microbial contamination of street vended foods from a university campus in Bangladesh. Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health 46: 480-485
- 351. Khairuzzaman MD, Chowdhury FM, Zaman S, Al Mamun A and Bari ML (2014). Food safety challenges towards safe, healthy, and nutritious street foods in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Food Science*. Article ID 483519 [doi: 10.1155//2014/483519]
- 352. Khan SA, Imtiaz MA, Sayeed MA, Shaikat AH and Hassan MM (2020). Antimicrobial resistance pattern in domestic animal-wildlife-environmental niche via the food chain to humans with a Bangladesh perspective; a systematic review. BMC Veterinary Research 16, 302 [doi: 10.1186/s12917-020-02519-9]
- 353. Hossain MJ, Shawon RAR, Ferdous Z, Rahman MT, Al Mamun MS and Rahman MM (2022). Review of antimicrobial resistance patterns of similar antibiotics used for Escherichia coli and Salmonella spp. in Bangladesh with public health significance. *Asian Journal of Research in Animal and Veterinary Sciences* 10 (3): 40-59 Article No. AJRAVS. 93693

- 354. Ahmed I, Rabbi MB and Sultan S (2019). Antibiotic resistance in Bangladesh: A systematic review. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases* 80: 54-61 [doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2018.12.017]
- 355. Rahman M, Hossain M, Akhter M and Hasan S (2011). Characterization and antibiogram study of Salmonella serovars isolated from duck, quail and pigeon in Dinajpur district of Bangladesh. *International Journal of Sustainable Agricultural Technology* 7(2): 23-29 57.
- 356. Hoque R, Ahmed SM, Naher N, Islam MA, Rousham EK, Islam BZ and Hassan S (2020). Tackling antimicrobial resistance in Bangladesh: A scoping review of policy and practice in human, animal and environment sectors. *PLoS ONE* 15 (1): e0227947 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0227947]
- 357. Pandey S, Doo H, Keum GB, Kim ES, Kwak J, Ryu S, Choi Y, Kang J, Kim S, Lee NR, Oh KK, Lee JH and Kim HB (2024). Antibiotic resistance in livestock, environment and humans: One Health perspective. *Journal of Animal Science and Technology* 66 (2): 266-278 [doi: 10.5187/jast.2023.e129]
- 358. Haag AF, Fitzgerald JR and Penades JR (2019). Staphylococcus aureus in animals. Microbiology Spectrum 7(3): GPP3-0060-2019 [doi: 10.1128/microbiolspec.GPP3-0060-2019]
- 359. Saeed MM, Yasir JOA, Hussein AN and Hassan RM (2022). A review of animal diseases caused by staphylococci. *Revista Latinoaamericana de Hipertension* 17 (1): 39-45 [doi: 10.5281/zenodo.6481584]
- 360. Rahman MB and Rahman MM (1991). Prevalence of Staphylococci in food and non-food samples and antibiotic sensitivity of coagulase-positive isolates. Bangladesh Veterinarian 8 (1-2): 69-73
- 361. Wertheim HFL, Mellers DC, Vos MC, van Leeuwen W, van Belkum A, Verbrugh HA and Nouwen JL (2005). The role of nasal carriage in *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases* 5(12): 751-762 [doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(05)70295-4]
- 362. Van Belkum A, Melles DC, Nouwen J, van Leeuwen WB, van Wamel W, Vos MC, Wertheim HFL and Verbrugh HA (2009). Co-evolutionary aspects of human colonization and infection by *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Infections, Genetics* and Evolution 9(1): 32-47 [doi: 10.1016/j.meegid.2008.09.012]
- 363. Akhtar T, Ambreen A, Younus M, un Nisa Q, Uroos A, Zaman MA and Naeem MI (2023). Zoonotic aspect of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. In: Altaf S, Khan A and Abbas RZ (eds). *Zoonosis, Unique Scientific Publishers, Faisalabad, Pakistan* Vol. 4: 264-273 [doi: 10.47278/book.zoon/2023.152]
- 364. Piva S, Mariella J, Cricca M, Giacometti F, Brunetti B, Mondo E, De Castelli L, Romano A, Ferrero I, Ambretti S, Roccaro M, Merialdi G, Scagliarini A, Serraino A and Peli A (2021). Epidemiologic case investigation on the zoonotic transmission of *Staphylococcus aureus* infection from goats to veterinarians. *Zoonoses and Public Health* 68 (6): 684-690 [doi: 10.1111/zph.12836]
- 365. Cuny C, Layer-Nicolaou F, Werner G and Witte W (2024). A look at staphylococci from the one health perspective. International Journal of Medical Microbiology 314, 151604 [doi: 10.1016/j.ijmm.2024.151604]
- 366. Islam SS, Hoque N, Akhter AHMT, Castellan DM, Samosornsuk S, Samosornsuk W and Kabir SML (2023). Burden of campylobacteriosis in Bangladesh: challenges and opportunities. Asian Journal of Medical and Biological Research 9(2): 38-50 [doi: 10.3329/ajmbr.v9i2.66775]
- 367. Haq JA and Rahman KM (1991). *Campylobacter jejuni* as a cause of acute diarrhea in children: a study at an urban hospital in Bangladesh. *Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 94: 50-54

- 368. Islam Z, Jacobs BC, Islam MB, Mohammad QD, Diorditsa S and Endtz HP (2011). High incidence of Guiillain-Barre syndrome in children, Bangladesh. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 17: 1317-1318
- 369. Islam Z, Gilbert M, Mohammad QD, Klaij K, Li J, van Rijs W, Tio-Gillen AP, Talukder KA, Willison HJ and van Belkum A (2012). Guillain-Barre' syndrome-related *Campylobacter jejuni* in Bangladesh: ganglioside mimicry and cross-reactive antibodies. *PLoS ONE* 7: e43976
- 370. Kabir SML, Lubna MM, Islam M, Haque AZ, Neogi SB and Yamasaki S (2018). Isolation, molecular identification and antimicrobial resistance patterns of Campylobacter species of dairy origin: First report from Bangladesh. Veterinary Science and Development 8: 7838
- 371. Hoque N, Islam S, Uddin M, Arif M, Haque A, Neogi SB, Hossain M, Yamasaki S and Kabir SML (2021). Prevalence, risk factors and molecular detection of Campylobacter in farmed cattle of selected districts in Bangladesh. *Pathogens* 10: 313
- 372. Islam MK, Kabir SML, Haque AZ, Sarker Y and Sikder M (2018). Molecular detection and characterization of *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella* spp. and *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from broiler meat in Jamalpur, Tangail, Netrokona and Kishoreganj districts of Bangladesh. *African Journal of Microbiology Research* 12: 761-770
- 373. Alam B, Uddin MN, Mridha D, Akhter AHMT, Islam SS, Haque AKMZ and Kabir SML (2020). Occurrence of *Campylobacter* spp. in selected small-scale commercial broiler farms of Bangladesh related to good farm practices. *Microorganisms* 8: 1778
- 374. Hasan MM, Talukder S, Mandal AK, Tasmin ST, Parvin MS, Ali MY, Sikder MH and Islam MT (2020). Prevalence and risk factors of Campylobacter infection in broiler and cockerel flocks in Mymensingh and Gazipur districts of Bangladesh. *Preventive Veterinary Medicine* 180: 105034
- 375. Neogi SB, Islam MM, Islam SS, Akhter AT, Sikder MMH, Yamasaki S and Kabir SML (2020). Risk of multidrugresistant *Campylobacter* spp. and residual antimicrobials at poultry farms and live bird markets in Bangladesh. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 20: 1-14
- 376. Uddin MN, Neogi SB, Islam SS, Ferdous J, Khan MSR, Yamasaki S and Kabir SML (2021). Occurrence and multidrug resistance of *Campylobacter* spp. at duck farms and associated environmental and anthropogenic risk factors in Bangladesh. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 21: 1139
- 377. Sultana S (2017). Detection of *Campylobacter* spp. from poultry and poultry products in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *Journal* of Network Medicine and Targeted Therapies 1: 1-14 [doi: 10.16966/2577-1906.101]
- 378. Bharti AR, Nally JE, Ricaldi JN, Matthias MA, Diaz MM, Lovett MA, Gilman RH, Willig MR, Gotuzzo E and Vinetz JM (2003). Leptospirosis: a zoonotic disease of global importance. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases* 3 (12): 757-771 [doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(03)00830-2]
- 379. Sykes E, Haake DA, Gamage CD, Mills WZ and Nally JE (2022). A global 'one health' perspective on leptospirosis in humans and animals. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association* 260 (13): [doi: 10.2460/javma.22.06.0258]
- 380. Vincent AT, Schiettekatte O, Goarant C, Neela VK, Bernet E, Thibeaux R, Ismail N, Khalid MKNM, Amran F, Masuzawa T, Nakao R, Korba AA, Bourhy P, Veyrier FJ and Piccardeau M (2019). Revisiting the taxonomy and evolution of pathogenicity of the genus Leptospira through the prism of genomics. *PloS Neglected Tropical Diseases* 13 (5): e0007270 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0007270]

- 381. Levett PN, Morey RE, Galloway RL and Steigerwalt AG (2006). *Leptospira broomii* sp. Nov., isolated from humans with leptospirosis. *International Journal of Systematic and Devolutionary Microbiology* 56 (3): 671-673 [doi: 10.1099/ijs.0.63783-0]
- 382. Rahman AAN, Hadi NHH, Sun Z, Thilakavathy K and Joseph N (2021). Regional prevalence of intermediate *Leptospira* spp. in humans: a meta-analysis. *Pathogens* 10 (8): 943 [doi: 10.3390/pathogens10080943]
- 383. Yanagihara Y, Villanueva SYAM, Nomura N, Ohno M, Sekiya T, Handabile C, Shingai M, Higashi H, Yoshida S, Masuzawa T, Gloriani NG, Saito M and Kida H (2022). Leptospira is an environmental bacterium that grows in Waterlogged soil. *Microbiology Spectrum* 10 (2): e0215721 [doi: 10.1128/spectrum.02157-21]
- 384. Kumar KV, Lall C, Raj RV, Vedhagiri K and Vijayachari P (2016). Molecular detection of pathogenic leptospiral protein-encoding gene (lipL32) in environmental aquatic biofilms. *Letters in Applied Microbiology* 62 (4): 311-315 [doi: 10.1111/lam.12533]
- 385. Victoriano AFB, Smythe LD, Gloriani-Barzaga N, Cavinta LL, Kasai T, Limpakarnjanarat K, Ong BL, Gongal G, Hall J, Coulombe CA, Yanagihara Y, Yoshida S an194-196d Adler B (2009). Leptospirosis in the Asia Pacific region. BMC Infectious Diseases 4;9: 17 [doi: 10.1186/1471-2334-9-147]
- 386. Browne ES, Pereira M, Barreto A, Zeppelini CG, de Oliveira D and Costa F (2023). Prevalence of human leptospirosis in the Americas: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Rev Panam Salud Publication* 47: e126 [doi: 10.26633/RPSP.2023.126]
- 387. Jena AB, Mohanty KC and Devadasan N (2004). An outbreak of leptospirosis in Orissa, India: the importance of surveillance. *Tropical Medicine and International Health* 9 (9): 1016-1021[doi: 10.1111/j.1365-3156.2004.01293.x]
- 388. Bharadwaj R, Bal AM, Joshi SA, Kagal A, Pol SS, Garad G, Arjunwadkar V and Katti R (2002). An urban outbreak of leptospirosis in Mumbai, India. *Japanese Journal of Infectious Diseases* 55: 194-196
- 389. James S, Sathian B, van Teijlingen E and Asim M (2018). Outbreak of leptospirosis in Kerala. *Nepal Journal of Epidemiology* 8(4): 745-747 [doi: 10.3126/nje.v8i4.23876]
- 390. Sehgal SC, Murhekar MV and Sugunan AP (1995). Outbreak of leptospirosis with pulmonary involvement in north Andaman. *Indian Journal of Medical Research* 102: 9-12
- 391. Agampodi SB, Peacock S, Thevanesam V, Nugegoda DB, Smythe L, Thaipadungpanit J, Craig SB, Burns MA, Dohnt M, Boonsilp S, Senaratne T, Kumara A, Palihawadana, Perera S and Vinetz JM (2011). Leptospirosis outbreak in Sri Lanka in 2008: Lessons for assessing the global burden of disease. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 85 (3): 471-478 [doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.2011.11-0276]
- 392. Agampodi SB, Karunarathna D, Jayathilala N, Rathnayaka H, Cagampodi TC and Karunanayaka L (2013). Outbreak of leptospirosis after white-water rafting: sign of a shift from rural to recreational leptospirosis in Sri Lanka. *Epidemiology* and Infection 142 (4): 843-846 [doi: 10.1017/S0950268813001465]
- 393. Sohail ML, Khan MS, Ijaz M, Naseer O, Fatima Z, Ahmad AS and Ahmad W (2018). Seroprevalence and risk factor analysis of human leptospirosis in distinct climate regions of Pakistan. Acta Tropica 181: 79-83 [doi: 10.1016/j.actatropica.2018.01.021] 40.83%

- 394. Rehan ST, Ali E, Sheikh A and Nashwan AJ (2023). Urban flooding and risk of leptospirosis; Pakistan on the verge of a new disaster: A call for action. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health* 248, 114081 [doi: 10.1016/j.ijheh.2022.114081]
- 395. Drefus A, Ruf MT, Mayer-Scholl A, Zitzl T, Loosli T, Bier NS, Hiereth S, Ulrich S, Poppert S, Straubinger RK, Stenos J and Tshoket T (2021). Exposure to Leptospira spp. and associated risk factors in Bhutan in human, cattle and dog populations. *Pathogens* 10 (3): 308 [doi: 10.3390/pathogens10030308]
- 396. Brown GW, Madasamy M, Bernthal P and Groves MG (1981). Leptospirosis in Nepal. *Transactions of The Royal* Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 75 (4): 572-573 [doiL 10.1016/0035-9203(81)90203-0]
- 397. Shrestha R, McKenzie JS, Gautam M, Adhikary R, Pandey K, Koirala P, Bahadr Bc G, Miller LC, Collins-Emerson J, Craig SB, Shrestha S and Heuer C (2018). Determinants of clinical leptospirosis in Nepal. *Zoonoses Public Health* 65 (8): 972-983 [doi: 10.1111/zph.12516]
- 398. Regmi L, Pandey K, Malla M, Khanal S and Pandey BD (2017). Sero-epidemiological study of leptospirosis in febrile patients from Terai region of Nepal. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 17, 628 [doi: 10.1186/s12879-017-2733-x]
- 399. Bhattachan B, Bhattachan A, Sherchan JB, Dhoubhadel BG and Sherchand JB (2016). Leptospirosis: an emerging infectious disease in Nepal. *Journal of Institute of Medicine* 38 (2-3): 63-68
- 400. Desvars A, Michault A and Bourhy P (2013). Leptospirosis in the western Indian Ocean islands: What is known so far? *Veterinary Research* 44: 80 [doi: 10.1186/1297-9716-44-80]
- 401. Amin MA, Nahin S, Bonna AS, Rozars MFK and Hawlader MDH (2022). Leptospirosis and COVID-19 co-infection case in Bangladesh. Heliyon 8(2022) e11828
- 402. Asaduzzaman M, Karmakar L, Rahman A, Rahman MS, Awal MA and Chakraborty SR (2024). Dengue and leptospirosis coinfection: a case series. *Journal of Medical Case Reports* 18, 370 [doi: 10.1186/s13256-024-04675-0]
- 403. Browne ES, Callefe JLR, De Jesus ERS, Zeppelini CG, Cremonese C and Costa F (2022). A systematic review of the geographic distribution of pathogenic Leptospira serovars in the Americas, 1930-2017. *Annals of the Brazilian Academy of Sciences* 94 (3): e20201026 [doi: 10.1590/0001-3765202220201026]
- 404. Bierque E, Thibeaux R, Girault D, Soupe-Gilbert ME, and Goarant C (2020). A systematic review of Leptospira in water and soil environments. *PLoS ONE* 15: e0227055 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0227055]
- 405. Barragan V, Nieto N, Keim P and Pearson T (2017). Meta-analysis to estimate the load of Leptospira excreted in urine: beyond rats as important sources of transmission in low-income rural communities. *BMC Research Notes* 10 (1): 71 [doi: 10.1186/s13104-017-2384-4]
- 406. Nally JE, Wilson-Welder JH, Hornnsby RL, Palmer MV and Alt DP (2018). Inbred rats as a model to study persistent renal leptospirosis and associated cellular immune responsiveness. *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology* 8: 66 [doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2018.00066]
- 407. Krijger IM, Ahmed AA, Goris MG, Groot Koerkamp PW and Meerburg BG (2019). Prevalence of leptospira infection in rodents from Bangladesh. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 16 (12): 2113 [doi: 10.3390/ijerph16122113]

- 408. Mazzotta E, Ceglie L, Giurisato I, Bellinati L, Lucchese L, Marchione S and Natale A (2021). Persistence of Leptospira bargpetersenii serovar Hardjo in refrigerated raw milk: A transmission risk of leptospirosis to humans. *Pathogens* 10 (3): 291 [doi: 10.3390/pathogens10030291]
- 409. Gizamba JM and Mugisha L (2023). Leptospirosis in humans and selected animals in Sub-Saharan Africa, 2014-2022: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 23: 649 [doi: 10.1186/s12879-023-08574-5]
- 410. Costa F, Hagan JE, Calcagno J, Kane M, Torgerson P, Martinez-Silveira MS, Stein C, Abela-Ridder B and Ko AI (2015). Global morbidity and mortality of leptospirosis: A systematic review. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases* 9 (9): e0003898 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0003898]
- 411. Douchet L, Goarant C, Mangeas M, Menkes C, Hinjoy S and Herbreteau V (2022). Unraveling the invisible leptospirosis in mainland Southeast Asia and its fate under climate change. *Science of The Total Environment* 832, 155018 [doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.155018]
- 412. Warnasekara J, Koralegedara I and Agampodi S (2019). Estimating the burden of leptospirosis in Sri Lanka; a systematic review. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 19 (1): 119 [doi: 10.1186/s12879-018-3655-y]
- 413. Haake DA and Levett PN (2015). Leptospirosis in humans. *Current Topics in Microbiology and Immunology* 387: 65-97 [doi: 10.1007/978-3-662-45059-8_5]
- 414. Levett PN (2001). Leptospirosis. *Clinical Microbiology Review* 14 (2): 296-326 [doi: 10.1128/CMTR.14.2.296-326.2001]
- 415. Morshed MG, Konishi H, Terada Y, Arimitsu Y and Nakazawa T (1994). Seroprevalence of leptospirosis in a rural flood-prone district of Bangladesh. *Epidemiology and Infection* 112 (3): 527-531 [doi: 10.1017/S0950268800051220]
- 416. LaRocque RC, Breiman RF, Ari MD, Morey RE, Janan FA, Hayes JM, Hossain MA, Brooks WA and Levett PN (2005). Leptospirosis during dengue outbreak, Bangladesh. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 11: 766-769 [doi: 10.3201/eid1105.041212]
- 417. Kendall EA, LaRocque RC, Bui DM, Galloway R, Ari MD, Goswami D, Breiman RF, Luby S and Brooks WA (2010). Leptospirosis as a cause of fever in urban Bangladesh. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 82 (6): 1127-1130 [doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.2010.09-0574]
- 418. Aziz MA, Aung MS, Paul SK, Ahmed S, Haque N, Roy S, Al Amin M, Paul A, Miah M, Alam MK, Islam MS, Hossain MA and Kobayashi N (2019). First molecular identification of two Leptospira species (*Leptospira interrogans* and Leptospira wolffii) in Bangladesh. *New Microbes and New Infections* 31: 100570 [doi:10.1016/j.mmni.2019.100570]
- Parvez MA, Prodhan MAM, Rahman MA and Faruque MR (2015). Seroprevalence and associated risk factors of Leptospira interrogans serovar hardjo in dairy cattle of Chittagong, Bangladesh. *Pakistan Veterinary Journal* 35: 350-354
- 420. Swoboda P, Fuehrer HP, Ley B, Starzengruber P, Ley-Thriemer K, Jung M, Matt J, Fally MA, Mueller MKS, Reismann JAB, Haque R, Khan WA and Noedi H (2014). Evidence of a major of non-malarial febrile diseases in malaria-endemic regions of Bangladesh. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 90 (2): 377-382 [doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.13-0487]
- 421. Safa JFS, Mahmood F, Mamun SMH, Ferdous M and Jalaluddin M (2016). An experience with severe leptospirosis (Weil's disease): A case report. Chattagram Maa-O-Shishu Hospital Medical College Journal 15 (1): 61-64

- 422. Rahman S, Paul SK, Aung MS, Ahmed S, Haque N, Raisul MNI, Choity JK, Nila SS, Ara H, Roy S, Khan MNAA, Hossain MA and Kobayashi N (2020). Predominance of Leptospira wolffii in north-central Bangladesh, 2019. *New Microbes and New Infections* 38: 100765 [doi: 10.1016/j.nmni.2020.100765]
- 423. Rahman M, Rahman S and Ahmed MS (2022). Seroprevalence and risk factors of leptospirosis in dairy cattle at some selected coastal areas in Barishal district, Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine* 20 (1): 35-41 [doi: 10.33109/bjvmjj2022fam3]
- 424. Das P, Rahman MZ, Banu S Rahman M, Chisti MJ, Chowdhury F, Akhtar Z, Palit A, Martin DW, Anwar MU, Namwase AS, Angra P, Kato CY, Ramos CJ, Singleton J, Stewart-Juba J, Patel N, Condit M, Chung IH, Galloway R, Friedman M and Cohen AL (2022). Acute febrile illness among outpatients seeking health care in Bangladeshi hospitals prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. *PLoS ONE* 17 (8): e0273902 [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0273902]
- 425. Sultana M, Paul SK, Nasreen SA, Haque N, Hasan MK, Islam A, Nila SS, Jahan A, Sathi FA, Hossain T, Ferdaus SJ, Aung MS and Kobayashi N (2024). Epidemiological features of leptospirosis and identification of Leptospira wolffii as a persistently prevailing species in north-central Bangladesh. *Infectious Disease Reports* 16 (4): 638-649 [doi: 10.3390/idr16040049]
- 426. Collignon PC, Conly JM, Andremont A and McEwen SA (2016). World Health Organization ranking of antimicrobials according to their importance in human medicine: a critical step for developing risk management strategies to control antimicrobial resistance from food animal production. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 63 (8): 1087-1093 [doi: 10.1093/cid/ciw475]
- 427. Doyle ME (2015). Multidrug-resistant pathogens in the food supply. *Foodborne Pathogens and Disease* 12 (4): [doi: 10.1089/fpd.2014.1865]
- 428. Rafiq K, Sani AA, Hossain MT, Hossain MT, Hadiuzzaman M and Bhuiyan MAS (2024). Assessment of the presence of multidrug-resistant Escherichia coli, Salmonella and Staphylococcus in chicken meat, eggs and faeces in Mymensingh division of Bangladesh. *Heliyon* 10 (17), e36690 [doi: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e36690]
- 429. Parvin MS, Ali MY, Mandal AK, Talukder S and Islam MT (2022). Sink survey to investigate multidrug resistance pattern of common foodborne bacteria from wholesale chicken markets in Dhaka city of Bangladesh. *Scientific Reports* 12, 10818 [doi: 10.1038/s41598-022-14883-7]
- 430. CDC (2024). About One Health. Cdc.gov/one-health/about/index.html
- 431. Pitt SJ and Gunn A (2024). The One Health concept. British Journal of Biomedical Science 81: 12366 [doi: 10.3389/bjbs.2024.12366]
- 432. Ishra R and Haque MA (2024). One Health: status, opportunities and challenges in Bangladesh. *One Health Bulletin* [doi: 10.4103/ohbl_33_24]
- 433. Deiana G, Arghittu A, Dettori M and Castglia P (2024). One world, one health: zoonotic diseases, parasitic diseases, and infectious diseases. *Healthcare* 12 99): 922 [doi: 10.3390/healthcare120090922]
- 434. Ghanbari MK, Gorji HA, Behzadifar M, Shoghli A and Martini M (2022). Strategic planning, components and evolution in zoonotic diseases frameworks: one health approach and public health ethics. *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Hygiene* 62 (4): E981-E987 [doi: 10.15167/2421-4248/jpmh2021.62.4.2323]